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1 Characterization of Two-Step Tin-Based Redox System for ² Thermochemical Fuel Production from Solar-Driven CO₂ 3 and H2O Splitting Cycle

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ABSTRACT: The solar thermochemical dissociation of H₂O and CO₂ for renewable fuel production from two-step SnO₂/SnO cycle is considered. This cycle is based on the solar production of SnO phase in a first endothermic step that is subsequently used for splitting CO₂ and H₂O in a second exothermic step. The reactivity of tin-based species was studied in order to elucidate the phenomena occurring during its heating and subsequent reoxidation in a H₂O or CO₂ atmosphere to produce H₂ or CO. Two main types of reactant were considered for comparing their reactivity: SnO nanopowder obtained via solar sublimation and condensation of commercial SnO powder, and Sn/SnO₂ nanopowder obtained via disproportionation of nanosized SnO. The reaction rate was quantified via thermogravimetry analysis and the reaction products were characterized using Mössbauer spectrometry and X-ray diffraction. The SnO and Sn/SnO₂ nanopowders are more reactive with H₂O than with CO₂ in the range 550-650 °C. SnO is also more reactive with oxidants than Sn/SnO₂. The disproportionation reaction starts significantly around 600 °C, giving rise to a particular Sn^{II} phase that reacts faster with the oxidants but is more prone to passivation. A kinetic study yields an activation energy of $101 \pm 10 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ and $53 \pm 1 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ for the Sn/SnO_2 oxidation with CO_2 and H_2O , respectively.

1. INTRODUCTION

19 Carbon-free hydrogen and synthetic fuels production from 20 concentrated solar energy (so-called solar fuels production) is a 21 major strategic stake for climate change mitigation and fossil 22 fuel substitution by sustainable energy vectors. Contrary to 23 electrochemical processes, thermochemical processes using 24 metallic redox pairs make direct use of high-temperature heat 25 to drive the endothermic reaction, thus potentially resulting in a 26 higher hydrogen production efficiency compared to electrolysis 27 that is limited by the heat-to-electricity conversion.

Among the feasible routes toward solar fuels, 1,2 the splitting 29 of H₂O and CO₂ via two-step thermochemical cycles based on 30 metal oxide redox couples are foreseen as a long-term possible 31 solution by advantageously eliminating the use of fossil fuels 32 and the associated CO₂ emissions.^{3,4} The main scope of the 33 process relates to the solar thermochemical reduction of CO₂ 34 and H₂O for the generation of CO and H₂ as high-value solar 35 fuels that can be further processed to carbon-neutral liquid

In particular, a process based on the SnO₂/SnO redox pair 38 has been developed at the PROMES laboratory. 5-10 It is 39 composed of two steps: (1) a high-temperature solar powered 40 thermal reduction of SnO_2 to $SnO_{(g)}$ (eq 1) and (2) a low 41 temperature reoxidation in H_2O/CO_2 atmosphere, yielding the 42 initial stannic oxide and H_2/CO (eq 2).

$$SnO_2(s) \rightarrow SnO(g) + 0.5O_2$$
 (1)

$$SnO(s) + \frac{H_2O}{CO_2} \rightarrow SnO_2(s) + \frac{H_2}{CO}$$
 (2)

A particularity of this system is that the reduced species 46 (stannous oxide) is obtained by SnO vapor condensation, vielding a nanosized powder with a high specific surface area 47 beneficial to the second step. The cycle proceeds in the same 48 way as the two-step ZnO/Zn cycle in which gaseous Zn is first 49 produced from ZnO solar thermal dissociation, and the 50 condensed Zn nanopowder then reacts with H₂O and/or 51 CO₂ to produce the fuel and ZnO that can be recycled to the 52 solar step. 11,12 The main advantage of the SnO₂/SnO system 53 over ZnO/Zn is the higher thermal dissociation yield during 54 the solar step above 1600 °C, because the backward 55 recombination reaction was shown to be more pronounced in 56 the case of ZnO than SnO₂ dissociation.¹³

The reactive nanopowder produced during the solar thermal 58 reduction is never pure SnO but rather a mix of SnO₂ and SnO 59 because of the partial recombination of SnO and O2, which 60 depends on the reaction conditions (temperature, pressure, 61 cooling rate). Depending on its composition, the mix is 62 predicted to evolve differently with temperature, which results 63 in different mixed phases (Figure 1, from 14). In particular, the 64 disproportionation reaction (eq 3) is most likely to occur, with 65 a risk of partial melting of the powder that would decrease the 66 specific surface of the powder (and thus its reactivity) by 67 enlarging the grain size.

$$2SnO \rightarrow SnO_2 + Sn (l), \Delta G_{298K} = -9.11 \text{ kJ/mol}$$
 (3) ₆₉

Various studies exist concerning stannous oxide dispropor- 70 tionation, with a variety of results underlining the dependence 71

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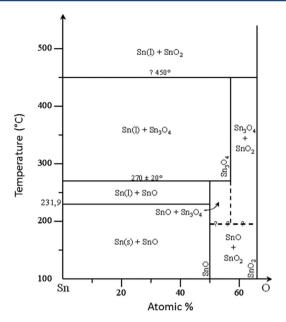


Figure 1. Sn-O phase diagram.

73 of an intermediate and metastable phase, a mixed oxide 74 $(\mathrm{Sn_2O_3}^{15,16} \ \mathrm{or} \ \mathrm{Sn_3O_4}^{17-20})$ containing both $\mathrm{Sn^{II}}$ and $\mathrm{Sn^{IV}}$. 75 Moreno et al. 19 studied the decomposition of SnO at 450 °C by 76 Mössbauer spectroscopy and found an intermediate species 77 identified as $\mathrm{Sn_3O_4}$. It contains a particular $\mathrm{Sn^{II}}$ phase (isomer 78 shift δ 2.58 mm s⁻¹, quadrupole splitting Δ = 2.01 mm s⁻¹), 79 different from $\mathrm{Sn^{II}}$ constituting SnO. Accumulation of the 80 intermediate is observed in the 100–1000 min time range. 81 Giefers et al. 16 studied SnO powder disproportionation using 82 X-ray diffraction with synchrotron radiation in the 300–550 °C 83 range and report the production of a $\mathrm{Sn_2O_3}$ intermediate, which 84 depends highly on the synthesis method of SnO (results differ 85 for two powders of similar size and composition, but 86 manufactured by two different companies), and on the particle 87 size (less intermediate is produced from the ground sample). 87 This supports an Avrami–Erofeyev solid-state chemical

72 on the SnO preparation. A common result is the observation

reaction is limited by the nucleation rate. Then, the use of fine 90 particles should restrict the growth of the nuclei to smaller 91 grains and thus reduce the total reaction rate because each 92 small grain needs its own nucleus, when the progress of the 93 reaction is much faster than the nucleation rate. There is, 94 however, no available information concerning this reaction for 95 submicrometer particles, in particular SnO nanopowders.

From these studies arise two major concerns when using 97 SnO for thermochemical H_2O/CO_2 splitting: (i) Competition 98 between disproportionation and reoxidation with H_2O or CO_2 99 is most likely to occur during SnO heating up to the oxidation 100 temperature, which may modify the material composition and 101 reactivity, depending on the time and the temperature. The 102 reactivity of the intermediate metastable tin oxide that can 103 appear is not known. (ii) The actual evolution of a nanosized 104 solar-produced SnO powder is unknown since both the 105 synthesis method involving SnO vapor condensation and the 106 resulting particle size are very particular.

The present study aims at clarifying the evolution of the 108 speciation of a SnO solar nanopowder as a function of the 109 temperature and at evaluating its influence on the subsequent 110 oxidation reaction with 119 CO2 and 119 Sn Transmission 111 Mössbauer Spectroscopy (TMS) was appropriate to determine 112 precisely the oxidation state and speciation of Sn atoms, and 113 the oxidation rate of different tin-based compounds was 114 investigated via thermogravimetry analysis (TGA) to elucidate 115 and compare the reaction mechanism.

2. MATERIALS SYNTHESIS

Various tin-based materials were prepared and subjected to 117 different treatments. SnO nanopowder was first produced by 118 Solar Physical Vapor Deposition (SPVD) of commercial SnO 119 (Sigma Aldrich, >97% purity). Part of this powder was 120 subjected to complete disproportionation (for 20 min at 121 $680\ ^{\circ}\text{C}$) in order to produce an equimolar mixture of Sn and 122 SnO2 (in which only Sn can be oxidized) with a similar particle 123 size compared to the initial SnO nanopowder, as confirmed by 124 electron microscopy observations. Although particle growth 125 was observed, the size remained on the same scale. This 126 means that the simultaneous SnO2 formation prevents the tin 127

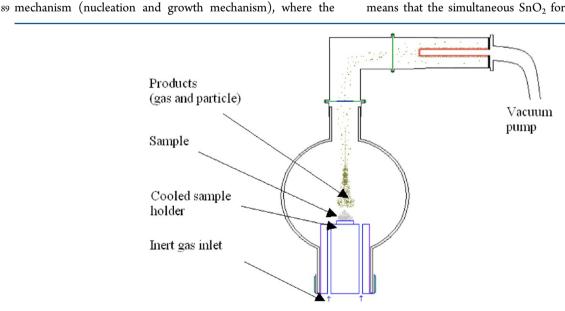
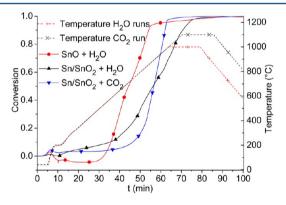


Figure 2. Schematic of the solar reactor for the synthesis of SnO nanopowder from either SnO_2 thermal reduction or SnO sublimation-condensation.

128 agglomeration that could result in a drastic particle size increase. 129 Note that this method for Sn synthesis was chosen because it is 130 actually not possible to synthesize pure Sn as a nanopowder via 131 SPVD due to the low melting point of metallic tin (232 °C) and its 132 high boiling point (2602 °C). In addition, SnO samples were also 133 produced via solar thermal reduction of commercial SnO₂ (Merck, 134 99% purity). Finally, commercial SnO and synthetic SnO with 135 micrometer-size particles were also used for results comparison. 136 Then, the materials reactivity during oxidation in H₂O or a CO₂ atmosphere was investigated and compared. 119Sn TMS and XRD were used to determine the Sn speciation in the various samples. 2.1. Experimental Setup for Synthesis of SnO Nano-140 **powders.** The synthesis of SnO involving either SnO₂ thermal 141 reduction or SnO sublimation-condensation was performed in a 142 solar reactor (Figure 2) placed at the focal point of a parabolic 143 concentrator (2-m-diameter, 0.85 m focal distance, maximum 144 flux density of 16 MW/m² with a Gaussian distribution). The 145 setup is composed of a water-cooled sample holder subjected to 146 the concentrated solar radiation. A transparent glass vessel 147 surrounds the irradiated zone to provide airtightness of the 148 reactor while letting the concentrated solar rays to pass through. 149 Inert gas sweeping and particles transport is ensured by an 150 annular gas inlet around the sample holder and a vacuum pump 151 located at the outlet. The neutral gas flow ensures both the 152 sheathing and cooling of the updraft particle flow. The reactor 153 was operated at reduced pressure (200 ± 20 hPa) in a neutral



154 atmosphere (1 NL/min of N₂). It is settled at the focal point of

155 the parabola that concentrates on a 12-mm-diameter area the

Figure 3. Oxidation of SnO and Sn/SnO_2 nanopowders during nonisothermal TG runs in the presence of CO_2 or H_2O .

solar flux reflected by a 2×2 m² heliostat. Once the necessary 156 temperature is reached (over 1400 °C for SnO_2 thermal 157 reduction; sublimation of commercial SnO starts earlier), a 158 plume of $SnO_{(g)}$ forms and condenses rapidly due to the 159 temperature drop and then deposits on the upstream filter. A 160 controlled trap-door allows adjusting the incoming solar flux 161 density, which is twice lower for SnO sublimation than for SnO_2 162 thermal reduction. Once the sample is consumed, the reactor is 163 slightly overpressured in order to remove the filter, and the 164 powder is recovered (under an inert atmosphere or air).

2.2. SnO and Sn Oxidation with H₂O/CO₂ for H₂/CO 166 **Production.** The reactivity of the synthesized samples (SnO 167 and SnO₂/Sn nanopowders) was studied by using a TGA 168 apparatus (Setaram Setsys Evolution) under isothermal and 169 nonisothermal conditions in the presence of CO₂ (CO₂ mole 170 fraction of 50%, total flow rate of 20 mL min⁻¹) and/or H₂O 171 (40 mL min⁻¹ of argon with 80% RH at 40 °C, i.e., 1.6 mg 172 min⁻¹ of water, steam mole fraction of 5%) at atmospheric 173 pressure. For isothermal TG, the sample was first heated in Ar 174 up to the targeted reaction temperature (20 K/min) and the 175 gaseous reactant (CO2 or H2O) was then injected once the 176 sample temperature was reached, whereas it was injected during 177 sample heating at controlled heating rates during nonisothermal 178 TG. The reactant powder (about 20 mg) was placed in an 179 alumina crucible and subjected to the suitable temperature 180 program and gas atmospheres. The chemical conversion was 181 calculated dynamically from the time-dependent sample mass 182 variation (sample oxidation) to quantify the reaction progress.²¹ 183 The main reactant was SnO nanopowder obtained via SPVD of 184 commercial SnO or Sn/SnO2 obtained after SnO disproportion- 185 ation at 680 °C for 20 min in an argon flow. Complete dis- 186 proportionation was confirmed by using Mössbauer spectrometry 187 and XRD analysis, and the formation of droplets was not observed 188 (only a change in color from light brown to light gray).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Reactivity of SnO and Sn with H_2O and CO_2 . Non- 190 isothermal TG runs with a constant heating rate (15 K min⁻¹) 191 were first performed to evaluate the temperature of the reaction 192 start and the temperature of complete conversion (Figure 3). 193 H_2O and CO_2 were continually injected during temperature 194 rise (H_2O was injected from 200 °C and CO_2 was injected from 195 100 °C). The reaction was always complete at the end of 196 the nonisothermal TG runs, and the global mass increase due 197

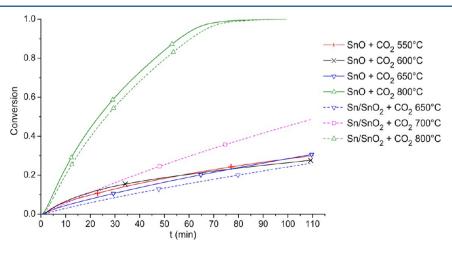


Figure 4. Oxidation of SnO and Sn/SnO₂ nanopowders during isothermal TG runs in a CO₂ atmosphere.

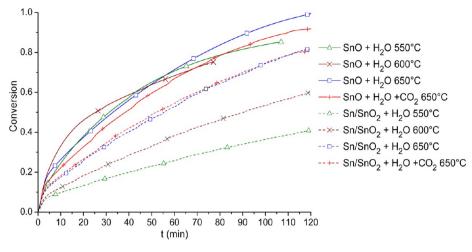


Figure 5. Oxidation of SnO and Sn/SnO₂ nanopowders during isothermal TG runs in a H₂O atmosphere.

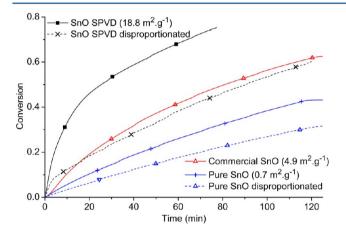


Figure 6. Comparison of SnO powders reactivity during oxidation at $600\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ in a H_2O atmosphere.

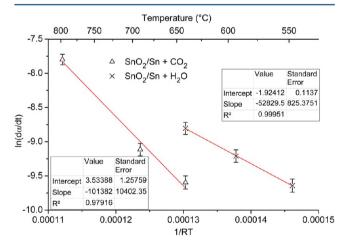


Figure 7. Linear regression of the logarithm of reaction rate versus temperature for Sn oxidation with H_2O and CO_2 .

198 to sample oxidation (oxygen uptake) was used to determine 199 the initial mass fraction of SnO reactant in the powder 200 (73 \pm 2% mass).

 201 For Sn/SnO_2 (obtained from SnO disproportionation) 202 reacting with H_2O , the sample weight starts to increase as 203 soon as vapor is injected at $200\,$ °C, but the reaction rate 204 increases moderately with the temperature. The reaction rate of 205 Sn oxidation with H_2O then increases significantly from

Table 1. Common Reaction Mechanisms

mechanism	symbol	$f(\alpha)$
phase boundary controlled reaction (2D)	R2	$(1-\alpha)^{1/2}$
unimolecular decay law	F1	$(1-\alpha)$
nucleation and growth	A2	$2(1-\alpha)[-\ln(1-\alpha)]^{1/2}$
diffusion (3D)	D3	$((3(1-\alpha)^{2/3})/(2[1-(1-\alpha)^{1/3}]))$

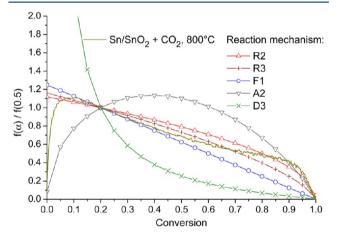


Figure 8. Master plot analysis for Sn/SnO_2 oxidation with CO_2 .

650 °C. Sn oxidation with CO_2 only starts from 600 °C, and 206 the weight gain follows a linear and steeper trend above 700 °C. 207 In contrast, the oxidation reaction with H_2O starts promptly at 208 420 °C for the untreated SnO, but the steepness of the 209 conversion curve diminishes slightly above 650 °C because of 210 SnO disproportionation. Therefore, Sn is the main species that 211 reacts at higher temperatures (over 650 °C).

Isothermal oxidation runs were then carried out to highlight 213 the influence of the disproportionation process on the 214 oxidation with CO₂ (Figure 4) and H₂O (Figure 5). While 215 both the reaction rate and the final conversion increase with 216 the temperature (from 650 to 800 °C) for Sn/SnO₂, only the 217 conversion versus time profile evolves between 550 and 650 °C 218 for SnO, but the final SnO conversion is not changed 219 significantly (for both CO₂ and H₂O). This temperature domain 220 corresponds to the favorable conditions for disproportionation. 221 The SnO oxidation reaction initially proceeds faster at 600 °C 222 than at 550 or 650 °C regardless of the oxidizer (H₂O or CO₂), 223 but the reaction rate then decreases and the final conversion is 224

225 lower at 600 °C than at 550 or 650 °C. This reactivity decrease 226 with time is presumably the result of the prevailing reacting 227 species that shifts from SnO to Sn formed from the concomitant 228 disproportionation reaction. Note that the oxidation rates of SnO 229 and Sn/SnO₂ with CO₂ at 800 °C are very similar (Figure 4), 230 which confirms the complete disproportionation of the SnO 231 during the temperature rise in argon before CO₂ injection. For a 232 given temperature (in the range of 550–650 °C), the oxidation 234 rate of SnO is higher than that of Sn/SnO₂. Finally, the oxidation 234 rate of SnO and Sn/SnO₂ with a mixture of H₂O and CO₂ fed 235 simultaneously does not show any significant change when 236 compared to the reaction rate with H₂O only (Figure 5), which 237 denotes a negligible CO₂ conversion.

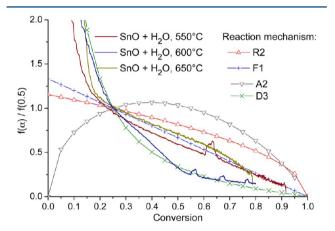


Figure 9. Master plot analysis for SnO oxidation with H₂O.

The oxidation rates obtained during oxidation of SnO SPVD 238 are consistent with previous results obtained with SnO 239 synthesized by solar thermal reduction of $\mathrm{SnO_2}$, which points 240 out similar morphology/reactivity and proves that the SnO 241 nanopowder obtained via solar sublimation-condensation of 242 commercial SnO is representative of the real solar powder 243 obtained from $\mathrm{SnO_2}$ thermal reduction.

Finally, the reactivity of raw commercial SnO (Sigma Aldrich, 245 >97% purity) and synthetic pure SnO produced from SnCl₂ aqueous 246 precipitation (purity checked through XRD and Mössbauer 247 spectroscopy) was investigated for comparison with the reactivity 248 of the solar-produced nanopowders (Figure 6). The main varying 249 characteristics are the specific surface area and the particle size 250 (respectively 0.2 and 1.4 μ m for commercial and synthetic SnO and 251 54 nm for SnO SPVD, estimated from BET measurements). The 252 reaction rate and chemical conversion are substantially improved 253 when using solar-produced powders compared to micrometer-sized 254 particles (for both SnO and Sn/SnO2 obtained via SnO 255 disproportionation). Indeed, the higher specific surface area increases 256 the oxidation kinetics, and the large surface-to-volume ratio offered 257 by small particles favors their oxidation and alleviates surface 258 passivating effects encountered with micronic particle size. 259 Consequently, the interest of using solar-produced SnO particles 260 for improving the reactivity is evidenced.

In any case, the reactivity of Sn obtained from SnO 262 disproportionation was found to be lower than the reactivity 263 of SnO and Sn^{II} species. This explains why the SnO oxidation 264 rate with $\rm H_2O$ and $\rm CO_2$ decreases with time. The concomitant 265 SnO disproportionation forms Sn and SnO₂. From a chemical 266 viewpoint, the SnO₂ can be considered inert, but the presence of 267 SnO₂ nanoparticles around the Sn particles may hinder the access 268

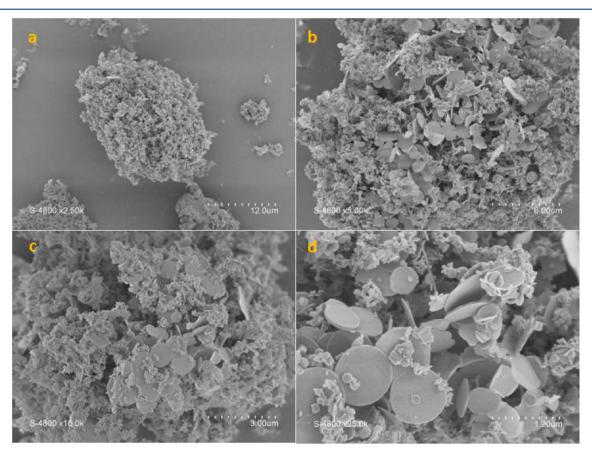


Figure 10. SEM imaging of SnO produced via SPVD.

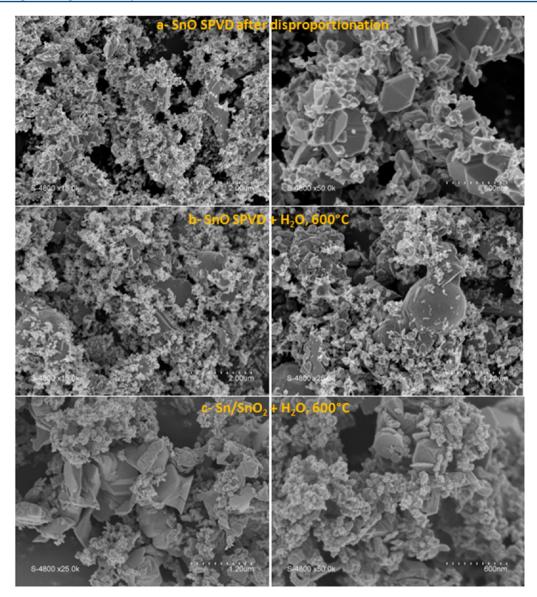


Figure 11. SEM imaging of the tin-based materials: (a) Sn/SnO₂ from disproportionation of SnO SPVD, (b) SnO SPVD after hydrolysis at 600 °C, and (c) Sn/SnO₂ after hydrolysis at 600 °C.

 $_{279}$ of the gaseous species to the particle surface. However, scanning $_{270}$ electron microscopy (SEM) did not reveal the complete covering $_{271}$ of the tin particle surface by SnO_2 particles (see section 3.3). Then, $_{272}$ the presence of SnO_2 should not disturb the access of the gas to $_{273}$ the tin surface. Moreover, the formation of SnO_2 also prevents the $_{274}$ conglomeration of tin droplets that would spoil the reactivity.

3.2. Kinetics of the Oxidation Reaction. The kinetic rate of the Sn oxidation reaction can be expressed as²¹

$$r = \frac{d\alpha}{dt} = k_0 \exp\left(\frac{-E_a}{RT}\right) \cdot [y_{ox}]^m \cdot f(\alpha)$$
(4)

278 where α stands for the chemical conversion, k_0 the pre-279 exponential factor in the Arrhenius relation, $E_{\rm a}$ the activation 280 energy, R the ideal gas constant, $[y_{\rm ox}]$ the molar fraction of the 281 oxidant gas, m the reaction order relative to the oxidant, and 282 $f(\alpha)$ a term depending on the reaction mechanism. Assuming 283 an excess of oxidant and a zero order reaction, a plot of $\ln(r)$ 284 versus 1/RT should give rise to a linear relation, with $E_{\rm a}$ as the 285 slope. The method was applied to the peak reaction rate 286 obtained during the isothermal runs (Figures 4 and 5), yielding an apparent activation energy of $101 \pm 10 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ($R^2 = 287 \cdot 0.979$) for Sn oxidation with CO₂ and $53 \pm 1 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ($R^2 = 288 \cdot 0.999$) for Sn oxidation with H₂O (Figure 7). These results 289 related to Sn oxidation are similar to previously reported values 290 for thermally reduced SnO₂ ($E_a = 88 \pm 7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ for SnO + 291 CO₂ and $E_a = 51 \pm 7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ for SnO + H₂O). This may be 292 due to SnO disproportionation that presumably occurred in the 293 considered temperature ranges (especially above 650 °C).

In order to investigate the reaction mechanism, the master 295 plot analysis technique²² was applied to compare the 296 experimental normalized rate data with various model functions 297 corresponding to various solid-state reaction models. The 298 following normalized rate expression was used to compare the 299 results from isothermal runs with common reaction mecha- 300 nisms. The considered models are summed up in Table 1.

$$\frac{f(\alpha)}{f(A)} = \frac{\frac{d\alpha}{dt}}{\frac{d\alpha}{dt}\Big|_{\alpha=A}} \times \frac{\exp\left(\frac{E}{RT}\right)}{\exp\left(\frac{E}{RT}_{\alpha=A}\right)}$$
(5) 302

For high temperature TG runs (Sn/SnO $_2$ and SnO oxidation with CO $_2$ at 800 °C), in agreement with ref 21, it is not 305 possible to clearly discriminate between R2 and F1 (Figure 8). 306 Concerning the temperature range corresponding to SnO 307 disproportionation (Figure 9), the experimental data fairly 308 agree with a diffusion mechanism for conversion below 0.25. 309 For larger reaction extent (α > 0.25), the F1 model is suitable 310 to describe the reaction mechanism at 550 and 650 °C, whereas 311 the diffusion model seems more adequate at 600 °C. These 312 mechanisms are in accordance with the experimental results 313 that show the most pronounced decrease of the SnO oxidation 314 rate occurring at 600 °C, suggesting a diffusion-controlled 315 mechanism at this temperature.

Hints of explanation may be derived from tin oxides surface characterization although realized under much different conditions (lower temperature). While adsorption of hydroxyl groups on SnO_2 stoichiometric and reduced surfaces was properted, chemisorption of CO_2 in a metastable form and interaction with lattice oxygen was observed. The first mechanism is more prone to the constitution of a passivating layer leading to diffusion limitation. It can be noted that water adsorption depends strongly on the oxidation state of Sn (transformation from a valence of IV to II leads to the formation of a Sn Ss lone pair that is fairly inactive), which may explain the uncertainty on the prevailing reaction mechanism.

The following statements can finally be formulated based on the kinetic analysis of tin species oxidation. Nonisothermal runs show that the oxidation reaction of Sn/SnO_2 with H_2O is slower than with CO_2 . Although the reaction with H_2O starts at a lower temperature, the complete conversion is reached earlier with CO_2 . Regarding SnO oxidation, a change in the reaction Regarding trate is observed around 650 °C, which is likely to be the result of a change in the reactant composition caused by its disproportionation (shift of the main reacting species from SnO to Sn at about 650 °C).

Isothermal runs concerning SnO oxidation between 550 and 339 650 °C confirm this statement for both H_2O and CO_2 : the 340 reaction rate at 600 °C is indeed higher initially than at 550 °C, but 341 it then decreases faster and the final conversion remains lower at 342 600 °C compared to the other investigated temperatures (550 and 343 650 °C). This evidences the modification of the reacting species, 344 because of the concomitant disproportionation reaction.

Finally, the kinetic analysis of Sn/SnO_2 oxidation indicates a 346 diffusion-controlled mechanism for reaction with H_2O 347 especially at 600 °C that is not observed with CO_2 at higher 348 temperatures, which may explain the clear linear trend obtained 349 during a nonisothermal run.

3.3. Materials Characterization. SEM imaging (Hitachi 351 S4800) of the synthesized powders shows heterogeneous 352 micronic agglomerates of nanoparticles (Figure 10a,b), 353 containing a lot of interstitial spaces and void fraction favoring 354 internal gas diffusion. The SnO powder consists of disk-shaped 355 SnO particles of different sizes (circular foils of about 0.1 to 356 1 μ m diameter and 50-nm-thick, Figure 10c,d) and nano-357 entities, as already observed previously.8 These circular 358 structures disappear after SnO disproportionation and Sn 359 particles (around 100-600 nm) are formed, some of them 360 featuring a nanostructured octahedral shape (Figure 11a). SEM 361 analysis of the disproportionated samples also shows the 362 presence of distinct Sn and SnO₂ particles (Figure 11a). The 363 larger size of the Sn particles compared to the SnO₂ particles 364 supports the existence of tin melting with the resulting particle 365 growth. After hydrolysis at 600 °C (Figure 11b), the

morphology of the powder remains similar but with the 366 apparition of some cracks on the SnO disks and the formation 367 of micrometer-size particles (some with spherical shape) that 368 can be attributed to the formation of Sn droplets. For Sn/SnO $_2$ 369 hydrolysis, the apparition of surface roughness due to Sn 370 oxidation can be noticed (Figure 11c).

XRD analysis of the commercial SnO and SnO SPVD shows 372 that only SnO can be identified on the XRD pattern (Figure 12, 373

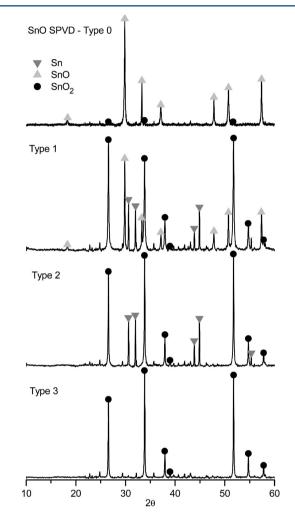


Figure 12. Normalized XRD patterns of the tin-based materials.

Type 0) and the presence of SnO₂ is not detected (it should be 374 in amorphous phase if present). The powder obtained from 375 SnO₂ solar thermal reduction also presents a large predominance 376 of SnO. The powders obtained after oxidation of SnO or Sn/SnO₂ 377 present three main types of XRD patterns. For incomplete 378 reactions with CO₂ at 550 and 600 °C, patterns corresponding 379 to Sn, SnO, and SnO₂ species are identified (Figure 12, Type 1); at 380 higher temperatures, only Sn and SnO₂ remain (SnO + CO₂ 381 at 650 °C, or Sn/SnO₂; Figure 12, Type 2). Incomplete reaction 382 at 550 °C with water presents the same type of diffractogram 383 (Type 2, although only small quantities of Sn are observed), 384 meaning that SnO is preferably oxidized over Sn, and that the 385 disproportionation reaction already takes place at this temperature 386 at a low rate. At a higher temperature with CO2, for complete 387 reactions with water or for the nonisothermal runs, the final 388 reaction product consists of SnO₂ as the only identifiable pattern 389 (Figure 12, Type 3).

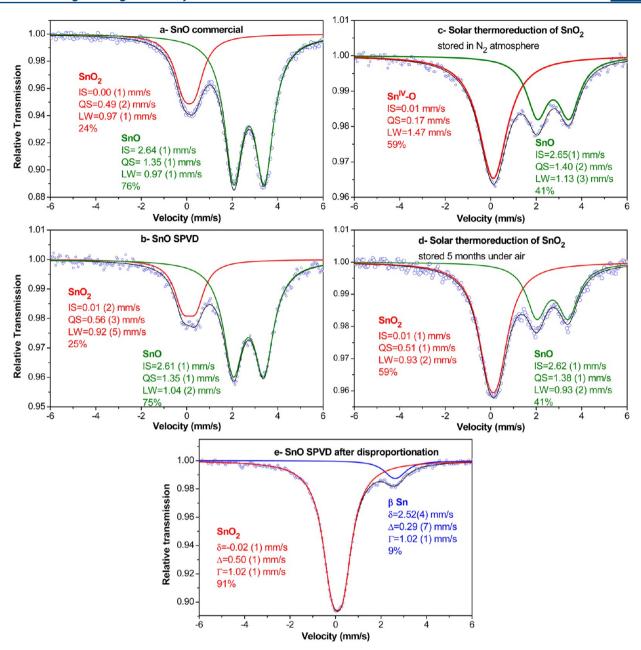


Figure 13. Mössbauer spectra of the source materials. Percentages refer to integral area but not to chemical composition.

Apart from incomplete reactions with $\rm CO_2$ at 550 and 600 °C 392 (Type 1), an inversion of the main diffraction peak can be 393 observed for Sn, SnO, and $\rm SnO_2$ as a consequence of a crystal 394 growth favored along the (211) plan instead of (110) for SnO 395 and $\rm SnO_2$, and along (200) instead of (101) for Sn. This may be 396 related to the morphology shift observed in SEM pictures 397 (Figure 11). The recurrent parasite peaks that can be observed 398 on the various diffractograms are due to the sample holder.

Since the disproportionation reaction takes place at a theorem takes place at a theorem temperature above the Sn melting point, further character-theorem to the powders was performed using the BET specific theorem to the powders was performed using the BET specific surface area technique, showing a decrease from 18.8 m 2 g $^{-1}$ theorem to the surface area technique, showing a decrease from 18.8 m 2 g $^{-1}$ theorem to the surface area technique, showing a decrease from 18.8 m 2 g $^{-1}$ thus, considering that powders are constituted of small spherical theorem to the particles, a mean equivalent particle size can be evaluated, the particles are disproportionation that corroborates crystallite size evolution.

Thus, despite sintering and melting of Sn probably having 409 occurred, complete droplet agglomeration did not take place, and 410 the particle size was not drastically increased because the 411 concomitant $\rm SnO_2$ formation prevents the conglomeration of tin 412 droplets. Thus, coarsening and tin metal phase segregation did not 413 occur significantly during thermal treatment. This means that the 414 metallic tin phase was evenly dispersed in the powdered material as 415 individual particles, which is also supported by the SEM 416 observations (Figure 11a). The difference in the materials reactivity 417 induced by disproportionation is thus more likely due to a difference 418 in chemical composition than to drastic change in morphology.

3.4. Mössbauer Characterization of the Samples. $_{420}$ Mössbauer characterization reveals that commercial SnO $_{421}$ contains 20% mol of SnO $_2$ (Figure 13a). This composition $_{422}$ has been evaluated from the contribution of the Mössbauer $_{423}$ subspectra taking into account the different values of Lamb— $_{424}$ Mössbauer factors ($f_{\rm SnO}_2$ = 0.47 and $f_{\rm SnO}$ = 0.35). This corresponds $_{425}$

426 approximately to the announced purity of the reactant (batch 427 analysis provided by Sigma-Aldrich: 85.7% mass of Sn or 44.7% 428 mol, corresponding to 76% mol of SnO and 24% mol of SnO₂, or 429 74% mass of SnO and 26% mass of SnO₂). This also agrees closely 430 with the results obtained from complete SnO oxidation in 431 thermogravimetry; i.e., commercial SnO is not pure. Thus, the 432 SnO₂ contained in the reactant must be found as an amorphous 433 phase since it is not detected by XRD analysis. The SnO/SnO₂ 434 composition does not evolve during the SPVD treatment, and the 435 same composition is obtained in the SnO nanopowder (Figure 13b), while only SnO should sublime and be retrieved in the filter (SnO₂ cannot be volatilized without decomposition). This can be 438 due to partial reoxidation after reaction (unlikely since the same 439 composition is obtained for samples collected and stored under a 440 neutral atmosphere) or to a thermolysis of the SnO₂ present in the 441 powder subjected to the direct solar radiation followed by its 442 recombination. The solar thermal reduction of SnO₂ produces a 443 particular Sn^{IV} phase (Figure 13c) that evolves into a "standard" long-term stable Sn^{IV} phase (SnO₂) under an air atmosphere (Figure 13d). The influence of this particular phase on SnO 446 reactivity has not been checked because of its metastable state that evolves rapidly. Complete disproportionation of SnO SPVD is confirmed from TMS (Figure 13e). Finally, incomplete SnO oxidation under CO2 points out a start of the disproportionation 450 reaction around 600 °C (Figure 14). Indeed, only the Sn^{II} phase is detected after 2 h of SnO oxidation at 550 °C and only β Sn is 452 present at 650 °C (in addition to Sn^{IV} that is always detected). At 453 600 °C, the Mössbauer spectrum is similar to the Sn^{II} spectrum, but 454 with differences in isomer shift and quadrupole splitting. Since the 455 corresponding diffractogram (type 1) contains Sn, SnO, and SnO₂, 456 deconvolution of the spectrum into the corresponding individual 457 curves was tempted but without success (it may be due to the

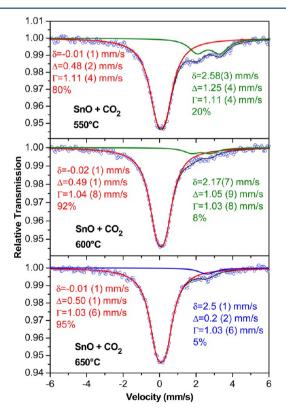


Figure 14. Mössbauer spectra of products from incomplete reactions of SnO with CO₂ at 550 °C, 600 °C, and 650 °C. Percentages refer to integral area but not to chemical composition.

large predominance of Sn^{IV} spectrum). The spectrum of the 458 reaction product at 600 °C may correspond to a metastable 459 intermediate Sn_xO_y-type species, different from previously 460 observed intermediate Sn₃O₄ species.¹⁹ At 650 °C, the 461 composition of the resulting materials can be evaluated from the 462 TMS spectrum as 64% mol of SnO₂ and 36% mol of Sn. These 463 values are in agreement with the presence of about 20% mol of 464 SnO₂ in the starting material (SnO SPVD).

4. CONCLUSION

The oxidation of tin-based species by H₂O and CO₂ for 466 thermochemical fuel production was characterized. The activity 467 of SnO and Sn/SnO₂ with H₂O is much higher than with CO₂ 468 at a given temperature in the range of 550-650 °C. The 469 oxidation of SnO nanopowder obtained via solar sublimation 470 and vapor condensation of commercial SnO (SPVD) shows a 471 higher initial reaction rate at 600 °C than at 550 or 650 °C (for 472 instance, 45% conversion is reached after 15 min versus <35%, 473 during the H₂O reduction reaction), but the reaction slows 474 down after 15 min until reaching a lower rate compared to that 475 measured at 550 or 650 °C for both H₂O and CO₂. This 476 phenomenon has also been observed for SnO obtained from 477 solar thermal reduction of SnO₂. The powder obtained after 478 these reactions at 600 °C contains a particular Sn^{II} phase, 479 presumably more reactive with H₂O and CO₂. This temperature 480 marks the start of a significant disproportionation reaction. At a 481 temperature of 800 °C, SnO is fully disproportionated and Sn 482 oxidation reaches completion. Consequently, tin melting does 483 not lead to powder agglomeration that may hinder the oxidation 484 reaction. The oxidation rate of Sn nanopowder with H₂O and 485 CO₂ is also lower than the oxidation rate of SnO with a similar 486 morphology. The difference in powders reactivity cannot be 487 ascribed to morphology change since the particle size and the 488 specific surface area were not substantially altered after the 489 oxidation reaction, as they remained in the same order of 490 magnitude (no droplets agglomeration was observed). The 491 oxidation rate of the different phases can be hierarchized as 492 follows: Sn^{II} > SnO > Sn. The simultaneous splitting of H₂O and 493 CO₂ is not favorable given the higher reactivity of tin species with 494 H₂O than with CO₂. The splitting of CO₂ requires significantly 495 higher temperatures (800 °C) to reach complete particle 496 conversion. Since the intrinsic activity of metallic Sn during 497 oxidation with H₂O and CO₂ is lower than that of SnO, the 498 efficiency of the fuel production step should be improved by 499 using rapid heating rates to limit the disproportionation reaction 500 and to maximize the amount of reacting Sn^{II} species.

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