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Thermogravimetric Analysis of Copper Oxide for Chemical-Looping Hydrogen Generation

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The chemical-looping hydrogen generation (CLH) system consists of reduction of metal oxide and water decomposition by oxidizing reduced metal oxide. In the present study, water decomposition by the reduction and oxidation of metal oxide (CuO) was conducted in a thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) system for the CLH process. The particles are reduced completely in an atmosphere of synthesis gas ($H_2 + CO$), and the fully reduced particles decompose water to produce 3.7 L of H_2 per kilogram of metal oxide. The particles prepared by the impregnation exhibits better reactivity than those by coprecipitation and the solid phase method, and the particles supported on Al_2O_3 exhibit better reactivity than those on SiO_2 . Based on the TGA, the reduction and oxidation of CuO/Al_2O_3 prepared via impregnation are characterized by the kinetic equations from the solid-state reaction rate models. The phase-controlled-boundary model was successfully applied to predict the initial stages of reduction and oxidation of the metal oxide, and the activation energies for reduction and oxidation are determined to be 4.13-19.5 and -55.8 kJ/mol, respectively.

Introduction

Fossil fuels have many useful properties, but they are not renewable, they emit pollutants, and they have a depleting nature. Because hydrogen (H₂) is one of the most important alternative energy resources, H₂ generation from water is one of the most important long-term goals for future energy resources. Water splitting with the reduction and oxidation (redox) of a metal oxide, which is one of the H₂ production methods, does not produce harmful pollutants. In the reduction of a metal oxide for the water splitting process, however, a heat energy above 1500 K is needed, and solar energy is considered as a heat source with high construction and maintenance costs. Furthermore, some metals could be melted and decomposed at high temperature, so additional technologies are needed to overcome this drawback.²

The steam methane reforming (SMR) process is widely used to produce H₂ on the industrial scale.³ The SMR process consists of feed stock purification, steam reforming, a high-temperature shift reactor, a low-temperature shift reactor, H₂ separation, and CO₂ separation by methanation or pressure swing adsorption (PSA) processes. There are various H₂ production processes with methane, such as partial oxidation, thermal dissociation, reforming with CO₂, catalytic partial oxidation, plasma catalytic reforming, and direct cracking. However, most of conventional processes need H₂ purification and CO₂ separation processes.⁴

Chemical-looping hydrogen (CLH) generation, which originates from chemical-looping combustion (CLC), 5,6 is a type of water splitting process with a redox of metal oxide. The CLH system is composed of two reactors: an oxidation reactor, for water decomposition, and a reduction reactor, as shown in Figure 1. Reduction gas is introduced into the reduction reactor, where it reduces the metal oxide particles. The reduced metal oxide is circulated to the oxidation reactor, where it decomposes water to generate H_2 in this reaction. At complete conversion of the reduction gas, the exit gas stream from the reduction reactor contains only CO_2 and H_2O , and H_2 is emitted from the oxidation or water decomposition reactor with excess H_2O , so

that pure H_2 and CO_2 can be obtained with H_2O condensation without a separation process.

The carbohydrate or synthesis gas fuel as a reduction gas is introduced into the reduction reactor, where it reacts with a metal oxide particle as

$$(2n+m)\text{Me}_x\text{O}_y + \text{C}_n\text{H}_{2m} \rightarrow (2n+m)\text{Me}_x\text{O}_{y-1} + n\text{CO}_2 + m\text{H}_2\text{O}$$
(1)

$$Me_{x}O_{y} + H_{2} \rightarrow Me_{x}O_{y-1} + H_{2}O$$
 (2)

$$Me_rO_v + CO \rightarrow Me_rO_{v-1} + CO_2$$
 (3)

The reduced metal oxide is then circulated to the water decomposition reactor, where it is oxidized with water, according to

$$Me_xO_{y-1} + H_2O \rightarrow Me_xO_y + H_2$$
 (4)

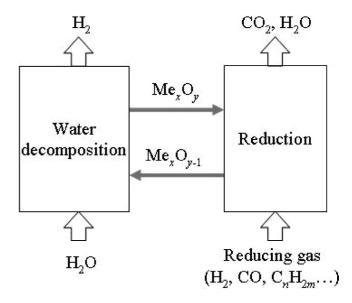


Figure 1. Conceptual diagram of chemical-looping hydrogen generation (CLH).

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The CLH system is simple one, because a water-gas shift reactor and CO₂ separation process are not needed. Moreover, only one type of particle is needed, whereas conventional SMR processes need more than four types of catalysts or absorbents. There is a novel concept to produce H₂ by chemical cycling, such as chemical-looping reformer (CLR), 7,8 where the fuel reactor acts as a reformer. The redox technology was proposed and evaluated for H₂ production; however, it requires additional separation processes for H₂ and CO₂.

In this study, copper oxide (CuO) was selected for water decomposition and synthesis gas $(H_2 + CO)$ was used for the lower-temperature reduction reaction. In most of the previous studies, ferrite or zinc-based materials were used for water splitting, 1,2,10-13 while CuO also has water splitting capacity at lower temperature. There are studies with copper ferrites for water decomposition, ^{14,15} but, so far, nobody has used pure CuO for water splitting, because it could melt at lower temperature before being reduced, but it could be applied in the CLH system, because the reducing gas makes the reaction occur at lower temperatures. Because the reduction temperature of other metal oxides, such as Fe₃O₄ and Mn₃O₄, is higher (>300 K) than that of CuO, the thermal efficiency would be higher. The water decomposition temperature of Fe₃O₄ is higher (>500 K) than that of CuO, so the overall heat consumption with CuO is much lower. Also, CuO allows complete fuel combustion to CO2 and H₂O, and it is stable from carbon deposition. ¹⁶ CuO has an particle agglomeration problem in fluidized beds, whereas it can be used in a fixed bed and some modification of the preparation method to prohibit particle agglomeration. 17-19 The reactivity of each metal oxide was determined by thermogravimetric analysis, and the particles were prepared by the impregnation, coprecipitation, and solid phase methods, with alumina (Al₂O₃) and silica (SiO₂) as the supports. The mechanisms of the reduction and water decomposition reactions have been investigated by the kinetic equations used in the solid-state reaction models, and the activation energies and pre-exponential factors were determined.

Experimental Section

The metal oxide particles were prepared by the impregnation, coprecipitation, and solid phase methods. A copper nitrate (Cu(NO₃)₂•3H₂O, Aldrich Chemical Co.) aqueous solution was mixed with γ -Al₂O₃ (Fluka) or SiO₂ xerogel (Aldrich) particles using the impregnation method. Water in this mixture was evaporated in a vacuum evaporator, and it was calcined at 923 K for 40 min. Particles 90-210 μ m in size were prepared by sieving. An aqueous solution of copper nitrate with aluminum nitrate (Al(NO₃)₃•9H₂O, Aldrich) was prepared for the coprecipitation, according to the method of a previous CLC study.²⁰ Solution of 2-propanol (Merck) was added and the mixture was dried at 373 K for 12 h, at 423 K for 24 h, and at 473 K for 5 h. It was calcined at 773 K for 2 h and then pasted again, dried at 353 K for 30 min, and calcined at 1573 K for 6 h. Also, the particle size was chosen to be $90-210 \mu m$ by sieving. For the solid phase method, CuO (Aldrich) was mixed with γ -Al₂O₃ in a ball mill for 18 h. The mixed powders were pasted by adding distilled water, dried at 383 K for 24 h, and calcined at 1173 K for 10 h. It then was crushed and sieved to prepare particle sizes in the range of $90-210 \mu m$. For all the particles, the weight ratio of CuO to Al₂O₃ was 1.5.

Analysis using a scanning electron microscopy (SEM) system (Philips) showed the entire structure and microstructure of particles. Changes in the crystalline phase of the particles were analyzed using X-ray diffraction (XRD) (Rigaku D/MAX-III),

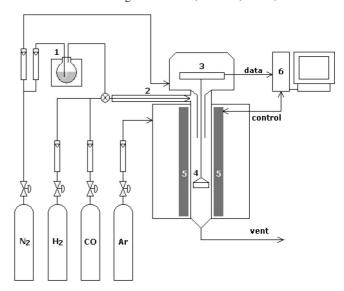


Figure 2. Schematic diagram of the thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) system for the reactivity test. Legend: (1) water reservoir and bubbler, (2) gas preheater, (3) electric balance, (4) sample basket, (5) heater, and (6) personal computer.

with Cu Kα radiation, before and after each reaction. To determine the surface area of the particles, the Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method (NOVA-4200, v.7.10) with nitrogen adsorption was used.

Reactivity of the reduction and water decomposition by CuO was determined in a thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) system (model Setaram 92). The prepared particles (10 mg) in a quartz basket were exposed to an atmosphere of 50% $H_2 + 50\%$ CO for reduction and 20% H₂O in N₂ for water decomposition. A schematic diagram of the TGA system is shown in Figure 2. The selected reaction temperature range was 623-1123 K for the reduction and 573-723 K for water decomposition.

Results and Discussions

Properties of Copper Oxide Particles. The chemical structures of the samples were characterized using powder XRD. Copper oxide particle by impregnation has only a CuO crystal phase, without phases related to Al₂O₃, compared to the particles formed via other preparation methods, as shown in Figure 3. It is observed that copper oxide was well-deposited on the surface of Al₂O₃. In the cases of the other two preparation methods, a copper aluminate (CuAl₂O₄) phase can be observed, and it may be formed with CuO and Al₂O₃ at higher temperatures.

The particle size of CuO was examined by SEM, as shown in Figure 4. Particles prepared via the impregnation method have smaller size, compared to those formed via the solid phase method and the coprecipitation method with the solution mixture. Preparation via the impregnation method is the metal oxide deposition method on the support particles (113–140 μ m), and the other two methods are crushing the calcined loaves, so that smaller particles can be observed in the impregnation on the supports. However, particles prepared via any of the methods used are in the size range of 90-210 μ m.

The surface area of the metal oxide, as determined by the N₂-BET method, is given in Table 1. Particles prepared via impregnation have much larger surface areas than those formed via the solid phase and coprecipitation methods. It is observed that the original pores of the γ -Al₂O₃ supports were retained during calcination, in the case of the impregnation with solution on the support particles, whereas pores were seldom generated

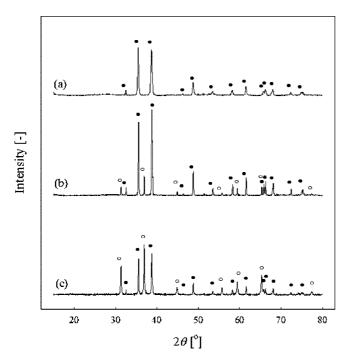


Figure 3. X-ray diffraction (XRD) spectra showing the crystalline phase of prepared copper oxide particles prepared by (a) the impregnation method, (b) the coprecipitation method, and (c) the solid phase method. Symbol legend: (●) CuO and (○) CuAl₂O₄.

by melting or phase changes at higher calcination temperature, in the case of the other two methods. The particles supported on SiO₂ exhibit somewhat higher surface area than that supported on Al₂O₃.

Reactivity of Copper Oxide Particles. Conversions of the reduction and water decomposition of metal oxide particles can be defined as follows:

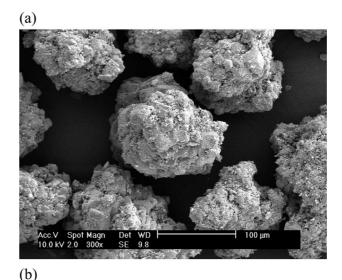
Reduction:
$$X = \frac{m_{\text{ox}} - m}{m_{\text{ox}} - m_{\text{red}}}$$
 (5)

Water Decomposition:
$$X = \frac{m - m_{\text{red}}}{m_{\text{ox}} - m_{\text{red}}}$$
 (6)

where m, m_{red} and m_{ox} are, respectively, the weight of sample, the weight of sample after being fully reduced, and the weight of sample after being fully oxidized. The value of $m_{\rm red}$ is determined to that of metallic copper, because they can be reduced under the strong reducing conditions.

The reduction conversions of CuO/Al₂O₃ at 923 K, using the different preparation methods, are shown in Figure 5. The reactivity of CuO/Al₂O₃ particles prepared via impregnation is the best among the prepared methods for the reduction reactions. The reduction conversion of the particles prepared via the coprecipitation method is >0.9 within 20 s, and the conversion by the solid phase method also exhibits values that are lower than those obtained using the other two methods. As can be observed, there was no carbon deposition on the metal oxides during the reaction up to 40 s. The higher reactivity of the particle may be attributed to the initial crystal phase and higher surface area of the particle. The lower reactivity may be caused by lower oxygen emission capacity of crystalline CuAl₂O₄ than that of CuO.

The conversions of reduction and water decomposition reactions of CuO on the different supports are shown in Figures 6 and 7, respectively. The results are compared at 923 K for reduction and at 623 K for water decomposition. As can be



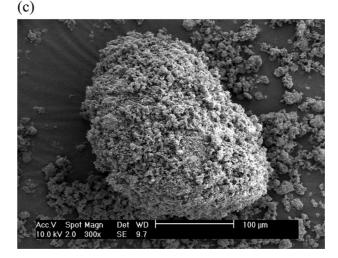


Figure 4. SEM images of prepared copper oxide particles prepared by (a) the impregnation method, (b) the coprecipitation method, and (c) the solid phase method.

observed, the reactivity of CuO supported on Al₂O₃ is faster for the both reactions than that on SiO2. The specific crystalline phases of CuO/Al₂O₃ and CuO/SiO₂ are similar to CuO, and CuO/SiO₂ exhibits greater surface area than CuO/Al₂O₃, whereas SiO₂ gel powder has structural weaknesses at higher temperature, compared to Al₂O₃, and the calcination temperature is lower than the reaction temperature, because of the exothermic reaction, so it is predicted that the physical and chemical composition of CuO/SiO2 may be changed in the reduction

Table 1. Main Crystalline Phase and Surface Area of the Metal Oxide Particles

specimen	preparation method	main crystalline phase(s)	surface area (m²/g)
CuO/Al ₂ O ₃	impregnation	CuO	84.34
CuO/Al ₂ O ₃	coprecipitation	CuO, CuAl ₂ O ₄	1.60
CuO/Al ₂ O ₃	solid phase method	CuO, CuAl ₂ O ₄	4.92
CuO/SiO ₂	impregnation	CuO	145.68

reaction. Based on these results, $\text{CuO/Al}_2\text{O}_3$ particles prepared using the impregnation method was selected for the kinetic study.

The reduction and oxidation conversions of CuO/Al₂O₃ prepared via the impregnation method at different reaction

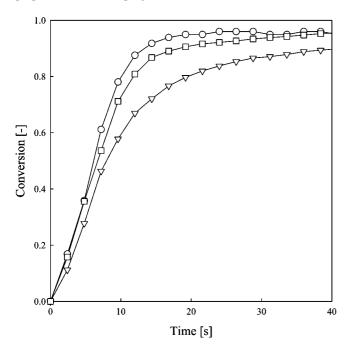


Figure 5. Reduction reactivity of CuO/Al $_2O_3$ by different preparation methods at 923 K: (\bigcirc) impregnation method, (\square) coprecipitation method, and (∇) solid phase method.

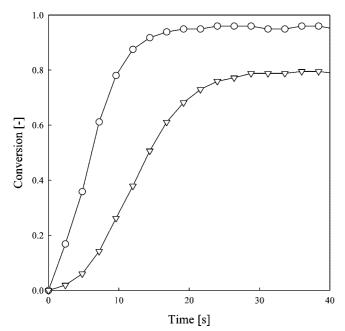


Figure 6. Reduction reactivity of CuO at 923 K on different supports: (O) Al_2O_3 support and (∇) SiO_2 support.

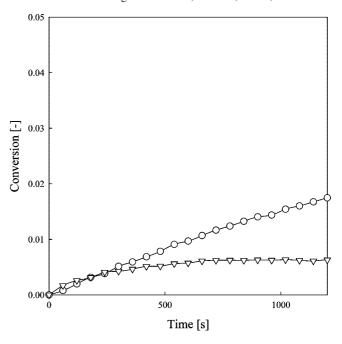


Figure 7. Oxidation reactivity of copper on different supports by water decomposition at 623 K: (\bigcirc) Al₂O₃ support and (∇) SiO₂ support.

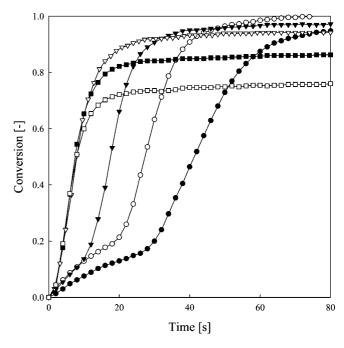


Figure 8. Reduction conversion of CuO/Al₂O₃ with time at different reaction temperatures: (●) 623, (○) 723, (\blacktriangledown) 823, (\triangledown) 923, (\blacksquare) 1023, and (\square) 1123 K.

temperatures are shown in Figures 8 and 9, respectively. The reactivity increases as the reaction temperature increases for the reduction, and the conversion is slow in the early stage and faster in the later stage. The division of stages may be caused by phase change steps from CuO to Cu₂O and from Cu₂O to metallic copper. This division disappears with increasing temperature as the conversion is increased. At higher temperatures (>923 K), the final conversion is lower with higher reaction temperatures. It may be caused by the formation of crystalline CuAl₂O₄ or by the side reactions, such as a reaction of H₂ and CO by themselves, activated at higher temperature. Therefore, the optimum reduction temperature would be 923 K. For the water decomposition, the optimum temperature is exhibited at 623 K. At lower temperatures (<623 K), water

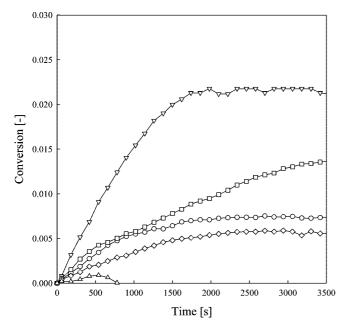


Figure 9. Oxidation conversion of Cu/Al₂O₃ by water decomposition with time at different reaction temperatures: (\bigcirc) 573, (∇) 623, (\square) 673, (\diamondsuit) 723, and (△) 773 K.

splitting activates with increased reaction temperature, whereas free O atoms can be produced via the thermal reduction of a metal oxide at higher temperature. The free O atoms by thermal reduction may bond together as an oxygen molecule, or they may react with H₂ from the water split, so weight of the metal oxide may decrease and the reactivity also decreases at higher temperatures, as calculated previously.²¹ From the conversion data, the calculated hydrogen production is 3.7 L of H₂ per kilogram of CuO/Al₂O₃, under the optimum reaction conditions.

Reaction Kinetics of Copper Oxide Particles. Hancock and Sharp²² have described a convenient method of comparing the kinetics of isothermal solid-state reactions based on an equation that describes the nucleation and growth processes. The experimental data can be expressed as the following equations:

$$X = 1 - \exp(-at^b) \tag{7}$$

$$\ln(-\ln(1-X)) = \ln a + b \ln t \tag{8}$$

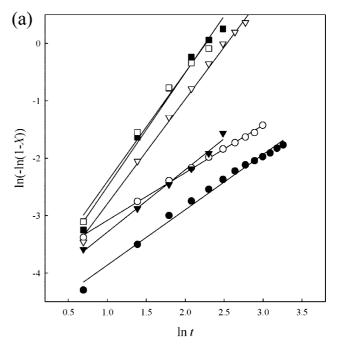
where a is a constant that is partially dependent on the nucleation frequency and rate of grain growth, and b is a constant that varies with the geometry of the system. The constants a and b are determined from the Hancock and Sharp plot by $-\ln(\ln(1$ -X) vs ln t. The slopes of such plots can be used as a diagnostic tool to determine the reaction mechanism. Hancock and Sharp treated nine kinetic equations, which could arbitrarily be separated into three groups, namely, diffusion-controlled reactions, phase-boundary-controlled and first-order reactions, and the reactions that obey the Avrami-Erofe'ev phase change equations. The functions $D_1(X)$ through $D_4(X)$ represent some of the important diffusion equations. $F_1(X)$ is the function for first-order reactions, and $R_2(X)$ and $R_3(X)$ are the equations for phase-boundary-controlled reactions for a cylinder or a circular disk and a sphere, respectively. $A_2(X)$ and $A_3(X)$ are the Avrami-Erofe'ev equations for b = 2.0 and 3.0, respectively. The selected rate equations of the solid-state reaction are shown in Table 2. Details of the equations and reaction mechanism can be found elsewhere. 23,24

The Hancock and Sharp plots for the reduction reaction of CuO/Al₂O₃ prepared via impregnation are shown in Figure 10, from which the b parameter values were determined as listed

Table 2. Solid-State Reaction Rate Equations^a

function	equation	equation number	value of b
$D_1(X)$	$X^2 = kt$	(9)	0.62
$D_2(X)$	$(1 - X) \ln(1 - X) + X = kt$	(10)	0.57
$D_3(X)$	$[1 - (1 - X)^{1/3}]^2 = kt$	(11)	0.54
$D_4(X)$	$1 - 2X/3 - (1 - X)^{2/3} = kt$	(12)	0.57
$F_1(X)$	$-\ln(1-X) = kt$	(13)	1.00
$R_2(X)$	$1 - (1 - X)^{1/2} = kt$	(14)	1.11
$R_3(X)$	$1 - (1 - X)^{1/3} = kt$	(15)	1.07
zero order	X = kt	(16)	1.24
$A_2(X)$	$[-\ln(1-X)]^{1/2} = kt$	(17)	2.00
$A_3(X)$	$[-\ln(1 - X)]^{1/3} = kt$	(18)	3.00

^a Data taken from ref 22.



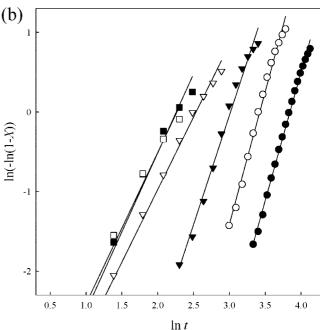


Figure 10. Plots of the Hancock and Sharp procedure for the reduction of CuO/Al_2O_3 : (a) $CuO \rightarrow Cu_2O$ at <823 K; (b) $Cu_2O \rightarrow Cu$ at <823 K. Legend: (●) 623 K, (○) 723 K, (▼) 823 K; (▽) 923 K, (■) 1023 K, and (□) 1123 K.

in Table 3. The values of b are in the range of 0.8-2.0 for the initial stage of reduction at the selected temperature from Figure

Table 3. Parameter b Values in the Reduction of CuO/Al₂O₃

T (K)	Phase Change	b	correlation coefficient, r^2
623	CuO → Cu ₂ O	0.96	0.990
623	$Cu_2O \rightarrow Cu$	3.22	0.996
723	$CuO \rightarrow Cu_2O$	0.80	0.998
723	$Cu_2O \rightarrow Cu$	3.33	0.990
823	$CuO \rightarrow Cu_2O$	1.09	0.991
823	$Cu_2O \rightarrow Cu$	2.74	0.988
923	$CuO \rightarrow Cu$	1.82	0.996
1023	$CuO \rightarrow Cu$	1.98	0.988
1123	$CuO \rightarrow Cu$	1.90	0.988

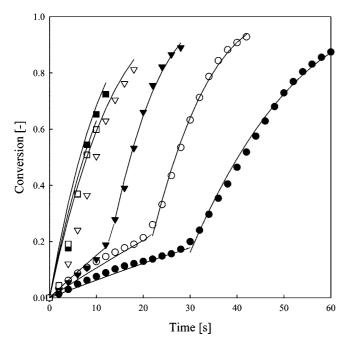


Figure 11. Comparison between the experimental data and the phase-boundary-controlled model for the reduction of CuO/Al₂O₃: (●) 623, (○) 723, (▼) 823, (\triangledown) 923, (■) 1023, and (□) 1123 K (the solid line represents the phase-boundary-controlled model).

10a; thus, the phase-boundary-controlled reaction rate model $(R_3(X))$ was selected to analyze the experimental data. Moreover, the latter stages for changing the phases from Cu₂O to copper have b values in the range of 2.7-3.4 (from Figure 10b), so that the Avrami-Erofe'ev phase change model was also applied to the kinetic study. Using the equations in Table 2, the reaction constant k was determined by the solid-state reaction rate models. Between the models, it has been observed that the phase-boundary-controlled reaction model is the best representation of the reduction of CuO/Al₂O₃, with a correlation coefficient of $r^2 > 0.98$. The Avrami-Erofe'ev phase change model represents the reaction stages well from Cu2O to copper at temperature below 823 K, but it does not produce reasonable accuracy for the other stages. The agreement between the experimental data of the reduction of CuO/Al₂O₃ and the predicted data from the phase-boundary-controlled reaction model is good, as shown in Figure 11.

The activation energy and pre-exponential factor of each step of reduction were determined from the Arrhenius plot. According to the reaction temperature, the activation energies and pre-exponential factors were determined for the early and later stages of the reduction at temperatures <823 K and the entire reduction was observed to occur at >923 K.

$$k = 9.26 \times 10^{-2} \exp\left(\frac{-19.5 \text{ kJ/mol}}{RT}\right)$$

(for CuO \rightarrow Cu₂O at < 823 K)(19)

$$k = 3.83 \times 10^{-1} \exp\left(\frac{-16.7 \text{ kJ/mol}}{RT}\right)$$

(for Cu₂O \rightarrow Cu at < 823 K)(20)

$$k = 4.65 \times 10^{-2} \exp\left(\frac{-4.13 \text{ kJ/mol}}{RT}\right)$$
(for CuO \rightarrow Cu at > 923 K)(21)

For the oxidation of Cu/Al_2O_3 by water decomposition, the plots of Hancock and Sharp's procedure are shown in Figure 12, from which the parameter b values were determined, as shown in Table 4. The b values are determined to be in the range of 0.78-0.99, which lies in the category between the diffusion-controlled reaction and the phase-boundary-controlled reaction. To determine the k values, the diffusion-controlled reaction and phase-boundary-controlled reaction models were used, and it was determined that the phase-boundary-controlled reaction model fits better than the diffusion-controlled reaction model with correlation coefficients of >0.97. The agreement between the experimental data and the phase-boundary-controlled reaction model is shown in Figure 13 for the oxidation of Cu/Al_2O_3 by water decomposition.

The activation energy and pre-exponential factor of oxidation by water decomposition was determined from the Arrhenius plot. The reactivity decreases with increasing reaction temperature above 673 K, so that the activation energy has a negative value in the oxidation of $\text{Cu/Al}_2\text{O}_3$ by water decomposition.

$$k = 8.93 \times 10^{-11} \exp\left(\frac{+55.8 \text{ kJ/mol}}{RT}\right)$$
 (at < 673 K) (22)

Conclusion

For the chemical-looping hydrogen (CLH) system, CuO particles were prepared by the impregnation, coprecipitation, and solid phase methods. The reactivity of CuO/Al₂O₃ and CuO/SiO₂ were determined in a thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) system with alternating reduction (50% $\rm H_2 + 50\%$ CO) and

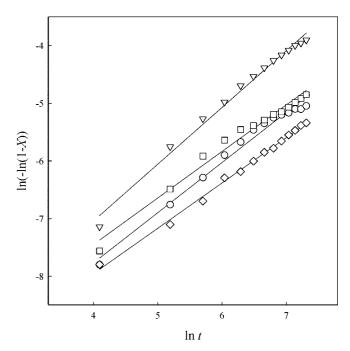


Figure 12. Plots of Hancock and Sharp's procedure for water decomposition of Cu/Al_2O_3 : (\bigcirc) 573 K, (∇) 623 K, (\square) 673 K, and (\diamondsuit) 723 K.

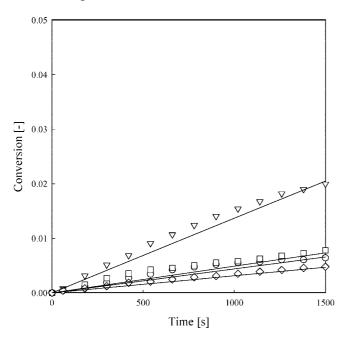


Figure 13. Comparison between the experimental data and the phaseboundary-controlled model for water decomposition of Cu/Al₂O₃: (O) 573 K, (∇) 623 K, (\square) 673 K, and (\diamondsuit) 723 K (the solid line represents the phase-boundary-controlled model).

Table 4. Parameter b Values in the Oxidation of Cu/Al₂O₃ by Water Decomposition

temperature, $T(K)$	b	correlation coefficient, r^2
573	0.87	0.985
623	0.98	0.990
673	0.81	0.980
723	0.79	0.996

oxidation (20% H₂O in N₂) reactions. The particles prepared by the impregnation method exhibits better reactivity than those by the coprecipitation and solid phase methods, and the particles supported on Al₂O₃ exhibits better reactivity than those on SiO₂. The reduction reactivity of CuO increases as the reaction temperature increases, and the conversion is slow in the early stage and faster in the later stage. The optimum reduction temperature is determined to be 923 K, and the optimum water decomposition temperature is 623 K. The reduction and oxidation kinetic data of CuO/Al₂O₃ prepared via impregnation are characterized by the kinetic solid-state reaction rate models. The phase-controlled-boundary model represents the initial stages of reduction and oxidation well, and the activation energies for the reduction and oxidation are determined to be 4.13-19.5 kJ/mol and −55.8 kJ/mol, respectively.

Acknowledgment

This work was supported by Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Energy (MOCIE) through Electric Power Industry Technology Evaluation and Planning Center (ETEP) and the Brain Korea 21 Project from the Ministry of Education.

Nomenclature

a, b =constants determined from the Hancock and Sharp plot k = reaction rate constant in the solid-state reaction rate model (s^{-1})

m = actual sample mass of metal oxide (g)

 $m_{\rm ox} = {\rm mass}$ of metal oxide sample when fully oxidized (g)

 $m_{\rm red} = {\rm mass}$ of metal oxide sample when fully reduced (g)

 $R = \text{gas constant } (\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1})$

 r^2 = correlation coefficient

t = time (s)

X =conversion of metal oxide (from eqs 5 and 6)

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