

Ce_{0.8}Sm_{0.15}Sr_{0.05}O₂ as Possible Oxidation Catalyst and Assessment of the CaO Addition in the Coupled CO Oxidation–CO₂ Capture Process

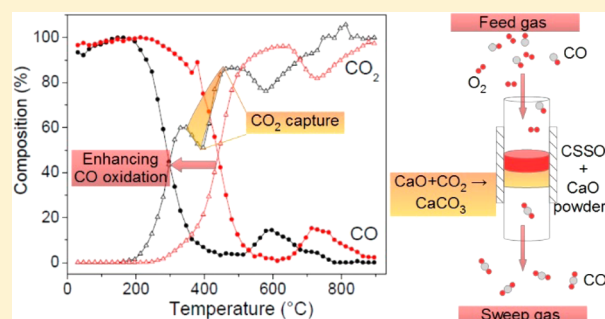
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ABSTRACT: A synergetic system for the coupled CO oxidation and CO₂ trapping was proposed and studied in the present work by using a ceria-based material and CaO as catalyst and absorbent, respectively. Specifically, Ce_{0.8}Sm_{0.15}Sr_{0.05}O₂ (CSSO) was synthesized by the EDTA–citrate complexing method and the resultant powders were characterized by XRD, SEM, and N₂ adsorption–desorption measurements. The structure was identified as a fluorite phase, and the BET analysis showed specific areas of 25.6 and 2.6 m²/g for the samples heat-treated at 650 and 1000 °C, respectively. Dynamic thermogravimetric analyses performed under CO₂, CO, CO–O₂, and O₂ containing atmospheres showed the thermal stability and reactivity of the ceria-based catalyst.

Then, the CO oxidation tests were evaluated in two stages: first, the dynamic and isothermal analyses for the CO oxidation by the CSSO treated at 650 and 1000 °C; then, the evaluation of the CO oxidation properties of the proposed catalyst with in situ CO₂ capture by adding CaO to the system. The results for the CSSO1000–CaO system evidenced simultaneous double process produced by the synergetic CO oxidation at temperatures between 350 and 650 °C and the CO₂ chemisorption on the CaO. Furthermore, the combined materials reduce the different temperature processes probably due to the CaO partial catalytic activity.



INTRODUCTION

Carbonaceous combustion products such as carbon dioxide (CO₂) and carbon monoxide (CO) are hazardous gaseous atmospheric pollutants.^{1,2} CO₂ is the main greenhouse gas, reaching in 2014 a global annual emission higher than 32 Gt according to the International Energy Agency.³ In the same sense, a million tons of CO are emitted from industrial, domestic, and transport sources due to incomplete combustion of hydrocarbons.² The increasing concentration of these pollutants in the atmosphere could spiral into undesirable environmental and public health issues.^{4,5}

Several strategies have been proposed as a means to decrease the emissions of CO₂ into the atmosphere, for example, through the capture,^{1,6–8} utilization,^{9,10} or sequestration based technologies.^{11–13} Regarding carbon monoxide, the CO oxidation process to CO₂ has been widely studied in the last decades, using different supported metallic catalysts.^{14–17} Apart from this, CO is produced as a syngas component (H₂ + CO), e.g., during dry methane reforming.^{18,19} Syngas can be used as flammable gas, or the syngas components can be separated in order to obtain hydrogen enriched gas.^{20,21} The CO separation process is usually performed through an oxidation process, which facilitates the hydrogen enrichment, where noble metals on ionically conducting ceramics as active catalyst supports, such as ceria (CeO₂), have shown high CO oxidation

properties.^{22–24} The catalytic properties of CeO₂ are found in its ability to work in oxidizing and reducing conditions (the ability of cerium to cycle between and Ce⁴⁺ and Ce³⁺), exhibiting the so-called “oxygen storage capacity”.²⁴ Besides the intrinsic redox properties, doped CeO₂ systems have been widely studied to promote a higher ionic conduction than a single ceria.^{24,25} Moreover, there are several studies showing that the presence of dopants and codopants on CeO₂ increases the formation of oxygen vacancies in the crystalline structure on which oxygen ion transport is highly associated.^{25–28} For example, Zhu and co-workers recently reported that a composite based on Sm-doped CeO₂ (SDC) materials can be used for oxygen permeation membranes.²⁷ Moreover, a catalyst-free tubular membrane reactor based on an SDC–carbonate dual phase membrane was proposed by Lin and co-workers.²⁸ This reactor shifts reaction from the hot gasifier syngas to H₂ and CO₂ with simultaneous separation of CO₂.

On the other hand, recently different ceramic oxides have been proposed for CO capture,^{29–31} through the CO oxidation and the subsequent chemisorption of the formed CO₂.

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Depending on the operation temperature range, these materials have potential for the development of respiratory protection systems for evacuation and rescue in fire smoke, scavenging sorbent for postfire cleanup, simultaneous trapping of CO and CO₂ products coming from coal and biomass combustion, and CO removal to obtain H₂-rich syngas.^{29–31} Among the all the high temperature CO₂ capture materials proposed in the literature, calcium oxide (CaO) possesses excellent properties, and there are several studies showing how the CO₂ capture properties can be optimized varying CaO structural and/or microstructural characteristics.^{32–37}

Based on the above, the aim of the present work was divided in two different sections. (1) Investigate the ability of Ce_{0.8}Sm_{0.15}Sr_{0.05}O₂ as a possible catalyst for the CO oxidation process, under different microstructural conditions at intermediate temperature. (2) Evaluate the possible coupling between Ce_{0.8}Sm_{0.15}Sr_{0.05}O₂ and calcium oxide (CaO) material as a CO oxidant and an in situ CO₂ captor bifunctional system. In this approach, Ce_{0.8}Sm_{0.15}Sr_{0.05}O₂ and CaO were chosen due to the following factors. In the case of ceria, it was chosen due to its oxygen storage and diffusion capacities, which must be improved by the doping proposed, while in the case of CaO, it was chosen because of its already known CO₂ capture properties at intermediate and high temperatures.^{35–37} These oxidation-capture analyses were performed dynamically and isothermally at different temperatures, varying the ceramic catalyst surface features and the calcium oxide addition as a CO₂ chemisorbent.

EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

Ce_{0.8}Sm_{0.15}Sr_{0.05}O₂ (CSSO) was synthesized by the EDTA-citrate complexing method in order to obtain the corresponding ceramics with the highest homogeneity and crystallinity at moderate and high temperatures. CSSO was obtained in the presence of two organic acids: citric acid anhydrous (C₆H₈O₇, 99.98% from Sigma-Aldrich) and ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA, C₁₀H₁₆N₂O₈, 98.5% from Sigma-Aldrich).³⁸ Stoichiometric amounts of each metal nitrate (Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O 99.0% from Sigma-Aldrich; Sm(NO₃)₃·6H₂O 99.9% from Sigma-Aldrich; and Sr(NO₃)₂ 99.0% from Meyer) were fully dissolved in deionized water. Then, equimolar amounts of citric acid and EDTA were added to the nitrate solution, dissolved in ammonium hydroxide (28.0–30.0%, Baker ACS Reagent). The pH value was adjusted to 6–8, using ammonium hydroxide. A transparent solution was obtained and heated to 90 °C, while stirring. After a partial evaporation process, a white paste was obtained and heated to 300 °C, in order to remove the nitrate and organic compounds. The resultant powder was heated at 650 °C for 10 h and 1000 °C for 40 h. Samples were calcined for long times (40 h) with the aim to determine their stability as a function of temperature and time. Subsequently powders were milled using a mortar and pestle to yield homogeneous powders labeled as CSSO650 and CSSO1000, respectively.

The structural and microstructural characterization of the sample was performed using different techniques. A diffractometer (Siemens, D5000) with a Co K α (1.7903 Å) radiation source operating at 34 kV and 30 mA was used to identify the fluorite phase and the products after the CO oxidation analyses. The samples were measured in a 2θ range of 20–80° with a step size of 0.02°. The phases were identified using the Joint Committee Powder Diffraction Standards (JCPDS). Additionally, the products after CO oxidation tests were analyzed by

Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy using Alpha Platinum equipment from Bruker connected to a diamond attenuated total reflectance (ATR) cell. The microstructure was analyzed using scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and N₂ adsorption–desorption. The SEM analysis was performed on a JEOL JMS-7600F, while the nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms were obtained on a Bel-Japan Minisorp II instrument at 77 K using a multipoint technique (N₂ from Praxair, grade 4.8). Prior to analysis, samples were degassed at room temperature for 24 h. The surface areas were determined using the Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) method.

Different dynamic controlled atmosphere experiments were performed to analyze the chemical reaction of the CSSO powders sintered at 1000 °C. Those experiments were made on a Q500HR thermobalance (TA Instruments). Initially, the sample was dynamically heated from 30 to 900 °C at 5 °C/min, using different gas atmospheres: (i) 60 mL·min⁻¹ CO₂ (Praxair, grade 3.0), (ii) 60 mL·min⁻¹ CO (5% vol in N₂ Praxair, certificate standard), (iii) 57–3 mL·min⁻¹ CO–O₂, and (iv) 3 mL·min⁻¹ O₂ (Praxair, grade 2.6), all diluted in N₂ to complete 100 mL·min⁻¹ as a total gas flow.

The CO oxidation process, for CSSO650 and CSSO1000 catalysts, was evaluated in a catalytic reactor (Bel-Japan, Model Bel-Rea) using a gas mixture of 5–3 mL·min⁻¹ CO–O₂ (a total flow rate of 100 mL·min⁻¹ and 200 mg of catalyst). Initially, the samples were cleaned under 50 mL·min⁻¹ N₂ for 10 min. Then, the samples were dynamically heated from 30 to 900 °C at a heating rate of 2 °C·min⁻¹, under the CO–O₂ gas mixture. For the isothermal analysis, the samples were cleaned and heated at 15 °C·min⁻¹ to the corresponding temperature (between 350 and 750 °C) under a N₂ flux. Once the corresponding temperature was reached, the flow gas was switched from N₂ to the desired gas mixture during 3 h. The gas products were analyzed with a GC-2014 gas chromatograph (Shimadzu) with a Carboxen-1000 column. Additionally, a second set of CO oxidation experiments were performed using calcium oxide (CaO), which was obtained by calcining calcium carbonate (CaCO₃, Meyer 99.9%) at 900 °C for 6 h. CaO crystalline structure was confirmed by X-ray diffraction (XRD) and the sample was microstructurally characterized by N₂ adsorption, where the sample presented a specific surface area of 14 m²/g (data not shown).³⁷ In these experiments, a CaO layer was placed in the tubular reactor over a quartz fiber; then, a second layer of CSSO1000 was placed on the CaO layer. The addition of CaO was done in order to identify if the CO₂ produced by the CSSO1000 sample could be trapped chemically in the same reactor flow. These experiments were performed using a CSSO/CaO molar ratio of 1/3, where the CaO excess was used to ensure the visualization of the CO₂ capture process. Additionally, this CSSO/CaO molar ratio corresponds to a CSSO/CaO mass ratio of 1. All these experiments were performed using the same thermal conditions, described above, for the catalytic tests.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

CSSO650 and CSSO1000 samples were structurally characterized by XRD and microstructurally by SEM and N₂ physisorption techniques. Figure 1 shows the XRD patterns fitted with the PDF 43-1002 file; both samples correspond to the ceria crystalline structure with space group *Fm* $\bar{3}$ *m*. Certain differences in the diffraction width peaks, that reveal differences on the crystal size of the samples. In fact, crystal size was evidently reduced, from 146 nm to about 14 nm in the

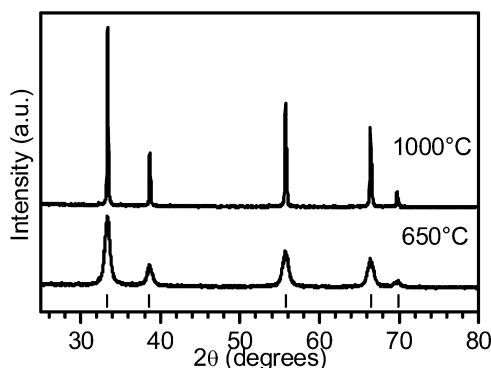


Figure 1. X-ray diffraction patterns for CSSO materials heat-treated at 650 and 1000 °C. At the bottom, the vertical marks correspond to the ceria Bragg reflections (PDF 43-1002).

CSSO1000 and CSSO650 samples, respectively. No other crystalline phases were detected, at least at the XRD detection level.

The same as before, the microstructural characterization of the samples clearly showed changes in comparison. In the case of the sample CSSO650, SEM images showed the formation of tiny polyhedral particles smaller than 20 nm (Figure 2A). This

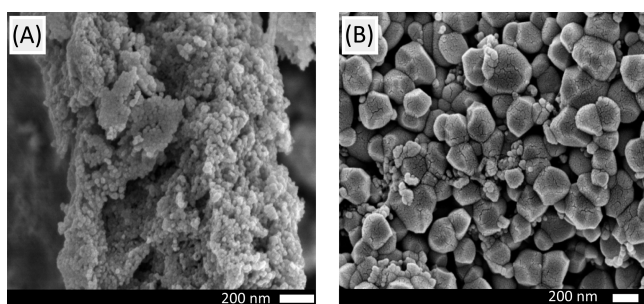


Figure 2. SEM images for CSSO materials heat-treated at 650 (A) and 1000 °C (B).

means an important smaller size in comparison to the CSSO1000 case, where the particle size was around 150–200 nm (Figure 2B). These changes must be attributed to the synthesis temperature. As in the SEM analysis, the N₂ adsorption results showed some marked variations (Figure 3). The CSSO1000 sample presented an isotherm type II without hysteresis, according with the IUPAC classification;³⁹ this kind of curve is presented for nonporous materials. In the CSSO650 sample, it presented the same isotherm type II but with a

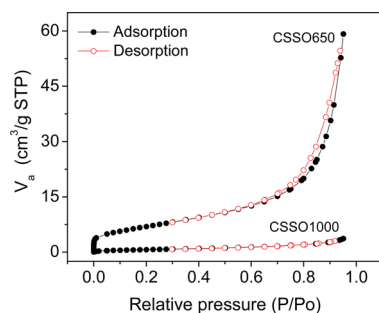


Figure 3. Nitrogen adsorption–desorption isotherms for CSSO materials heat-treated at 650 and 1000 °C.

narrow hysteresis loop, indicating the presence of some mesoporosity (pore diameter of 14.2 nm and pore volume of 0.0915 cm³/g). Additionally, the BET surface area varied almost 10 times between CSSO650 and CSSO1000 samples (25.6 and 2.6 m²/g, respectively), which must be related to the lower particle size and mesoporosity observed in the CSSO650 sample. Moreover, all these results are in good agreement with the final temperature used during synthesis (650 and 1000 °C).

After microstructural characterization, the thermal stability of samples was evaluated by thermogravimetric (TG) experiments, performing dynamic TG under four different atmospheres (CO₂, O₂, CO, and CO + O₂). These results are presented in Figure 4. Results were similar in both cases, and

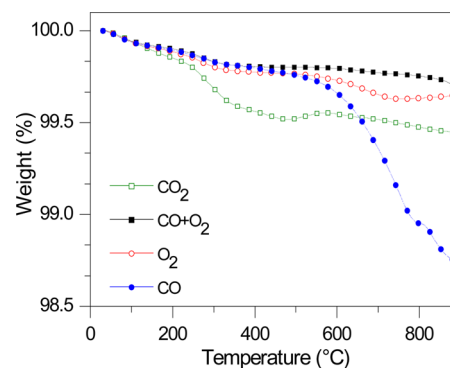


Figure 4. Dynamic thermograms for CSSO1000 sample treated under different atmospheres, all diluted in N₂ to complete 100 mL/min as a total gas flow.

only thermograms for CSSO1000 material are shown. The sample did not present important weight changes (≤ 0.5 wt %) when it was thermally treated under CO₂ (which indicated a negligible possible carbonation process) or oxidative atmospheres (O₂ and CO + O₂). However, when only CO was used, a reductive atmosphere, the sample presented a weight decrease of 1.3 wt % between 500 and 900 °C. In this case, the weight decrement may be associated with a partial superficial reduction, through the superficial oxygen release that is tentatively consumed by the CO oxidation. In any case, when CO was added with O₂, the superficial reduction was not observed due to the oxygen partial pressure in the system, which maintains the lattice oxygen stoichiometry of the compound. These results were confirmed and were consistent with results obtained after the CO oxidation study (see results below).

In order to analyze the materials capacity for the CO oxidation process; the catalyst samples were dynamically evaluated in a catalytic reactor connected to a gas chromatograph (Figure 5). It can be seen that the CSSO650 catalyst shows a slightly higher catalytic activity at lower temperatures than the CSSO1000 catalyst. In the first case, a 100% CO conversion was reached at 500 °C, while that for CSSO1000 was reached around 540 °C. Thus, the heat treatment and the resulted microstructural features of the samples have an effect on the catalyst activity for low and intermediate temperature CO oxidation. It should be mentioned that CO conversion performed on the CSSO1000 sample presented a higher fluctuation, or partial instability, than the CSSO650 sample, although both samples presented a similar thermal trend. It should be associated with the microstructural variations of both samples, described above. In any case, and in order to evaluate

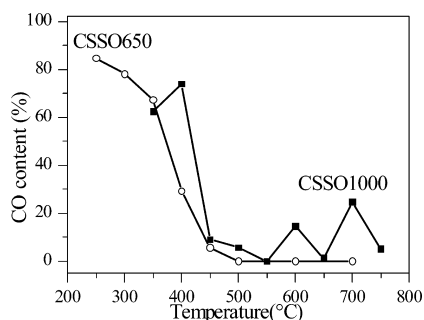


Figure 5. Carbon monoxide conversion obtained with CSSO samples.

the possible coupling between $\text{Ce}_{0.8}\text{Sm}_{0.15}\text{Sr}_{0.05}\text{O}_2$ and an absorbent material for the CO oxidation and in situ CO_2 capture, the sample CSSO1000 was selected because its operational temperature range matches with the selected CaO for CO_2 trapping.

Figure 6 shows a more detailed analysis of the CO catalytic transformation on the CSSO1000 sample which presented

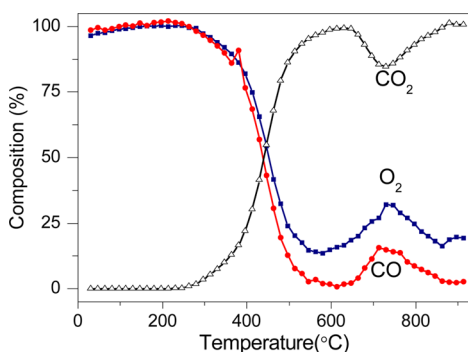


Figure 6. Dynamic evolution of reactants (CO and O_2) and product (CO_2) obtained with CSSO1000 material.

specific temperature dependence. At $T \leq 240$ °C, CO and O_2 did not appear to vary. In other words, the catalytic reaction did not occur. Nevertheless, reactant conversion (CO and O_2) to CO_2 product was observed from 250 to 900 °C, reaching a total CO conversion around 600 °C. It must be pointed out that between 650 and 870 °C the catalytic conversion decreased partially. This effect may have been produced due to changes in the sorption–desorption equilibrium.

Based on the previous dynamic behavior, different isothermal experiments were performed. Figure 7 shows that all the

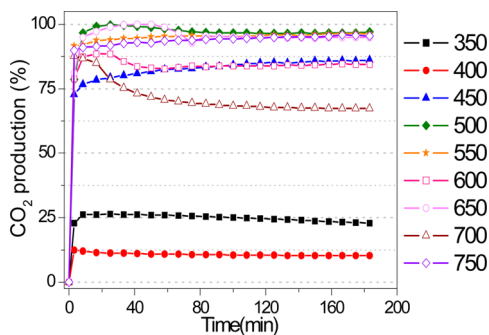


Figure 7. CO_2 formation on CSSO1000 sample during CO oxidation isotherms performed at different temperatures between 350 and 750 °C.

isotherms present an exponential behavior and the maximum amount of produced CO_2 was reached in less than 10 min of reaction time. The initial isothermal experiments were performed at 350 °C. These isotherms presented poor CO conversion efficiencies (<30%). However, at higher temperatures the CO conversion increased importantly to 70%, or higher efficiencies. In fact, as in the dynamic analysis, these isotherms showed the highest CO catalytic conversion between 500 and 650 °C. Once again, it is remarkable that the CO conversion to CO_2 is produced in the same temperature range where the CO_2 is trapped by different alkaline and earth alkaline ceramics including CaO.^{1,29,30,36}

After the CO oxidation experiments, all the isothermal products were characterized in order to identify any possible structural modification or reaction due to gas chemisorption. Figures 8 and 9 show the XRD patterns and ATR-FTIR spectra

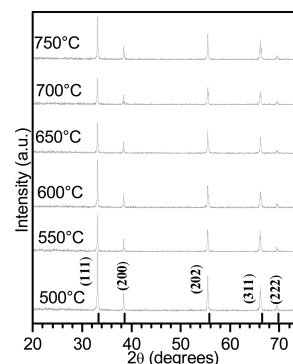


Figure 8. X-ray patterns of CSSO1000 products obtained after CO oxidation isotherms performed between 500 and 750 °C. At the bottom, the vertical marks correspond to the ceria Bragg reflections (PDF 43-1002).

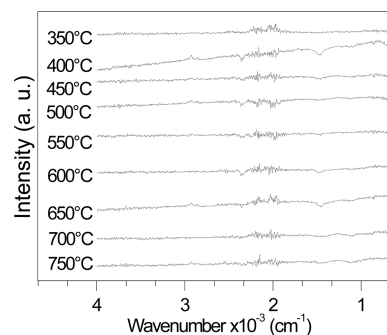


Figure 9. ATR-FTIR spectra for CSSO1000 products obtained after CO oxidation isotherms performed between 350 and 750 °C.

of the CSSO1000 samples, respectively, after each isothermal experiment. From these characterization techniques, it can be seen that there were no structural changes (Figure 8, XRD pattern) or the presence of reaction products due to gas chemisorption (Figure 9, ATR-FTIR). These results confirmed the high CSSO1000 thermal and chemical stability under these physicochemical conditions.

After the CO oxidation test on both CSSO samples, CaO was used as a possible CO_2 captor into the same reaction system, in order to evaluate the CO oxidation and subsequent CO_2 capture. CSSO1000 sample was used, because the temperature range where CO_2 was produced with this sample, between 650 and 800 °C, matched with the CO_2 capture

temperature range of CaO. Thus, the CSSO1000 sample should not present any change due to its thermal history evolution. Figure 10 shows the dynamic CO and CO₂ evolution

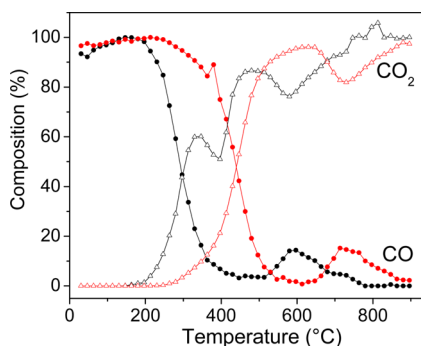


Figure 10. Dynamic evolution of CO and CO₂ using CSSO1000 material (red lines) and CSSO1000–CaO system (black lines).

as a function of temperature for the CSSO1000–CaO layer arrangement and the CSSO1000 sample for comparison purposes. As can be seen, although the gas evolution, determined by the gases released from the catalytic reactor, was similar in both cases, the CaO addition induced some specific and interesting changes. Initially, the general process was shifted to lower temperatures around 200 °C. With the presence of CaO the CO oxidation process began at approximately 200 °C; 100% CO conversion was observed at 430 °C. Also, the CO conversion decrement observed between 650 and 870 °C for the CSSO1000 sample was shifted to lower temperatures.

By contrast, the CO₂ production presented the same general behavior observed for CO, with the corresponding temperature shifts. However, the CO₂ formation evolution seemed to be lower than with CO, and it presented two specific decrements around 400 and 580 °C. These variations must be associated with the CO₂ capture produced over the surface and bulk of CaO, reducing the CO₂ concentration at the sweep gas. In fact, similar results have been reported for other CaO systems, where the CO oxidation and subsequent CO₂ chemisorption have been analyzed.³⁷

Therefore, these results evidenced the double process produced by the CSSO1000–CaO system: the CO oxidation and CO₂ chemisorption (capture). Furthermore, the CSSO1000–CaO system reduced the process temperature, which may be related to the CaO partial catalytic activity reported previously for the CO oxidation reaction.³⁷ Between 780 and 830 °C, a higher amount of CO₂ than 100% was detected by GC. According to a previous work,³⁷ this behavior can be associated with the CO₂ desorption process that takes place at these temperatures in the CaO material.

In order to further analyze the CO oxidation by the CSSO1000–CaO system, different isothermal analyses were performed from 350 to 700 °C (Figure 11A). The CSSO1000–CaO isotherms presented trends similar to those previously obtained in the case of CaO absence (Figure 7). For all the isotherms the maximum amount of CO₂ was obtained after 20 min of reaction time, except for the isotherm performed at the lowest temperature (350 °C), where the maximum amount of CO₂ was detected after almost 80 min. These average times were larger than those obtained in the case of CaO absence. Thus, these results confirm the fact that CaO is capturing part of the CO₂ produced by the CSSO1000 catalyst, retarding the

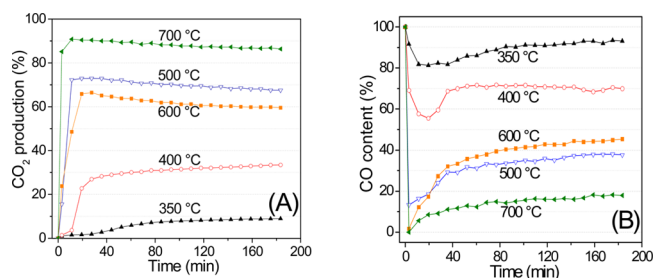


Figure 11. CO₂ formation (A) and CO conversion (B) during CO oxidation isotherms performed between 350 and 700 °C, using the CSSO1000–CaO system.

presence of CO₂ in the sweep gas mixture. The initial isothermal experiments were performed at 350 and 400 °C. In this temperature range, isotherms presented higher CO conversion efficiencies (40% at 400 °C) than in the case of CaO absence, which may be associated with the synergetic catalytic activity. Then, between 500 and 600 °C the CO₂ production was lower in the presence of CaO than in the absence of CaO; also, these isotherms showed some CO₂ production decrements as a function of the time. All these results must be associated with the fact that part of the CO₂ is been chemically trapped by CaO. Finally, at 700 °C, the CO₂ production was increased again until CO₂ production reached 91% at 11 min of reaction time, due to the combination of the CO oxidation and the CaCO₃ decomposition processes. Figure 11B shows the CO conversion efficiencies obtained in the same CSSO1000–CaO isothermal experiments. As could be expected, during the first reaction times all the isotherms presented the highest conversion: 19, 44, 87, and 100% at 350, 400, 500, and 600–700 °C, respectively. After that, all the isotherms presented slight CO conversion decrements, tending to similar equilibriums than those reported above for the CSSO1000 sample. Then, at the beginning of the reaction process both compounds (CSSO1000 and CaO) must participate in the CO oxidation, but as soon as CaO is carbonated, it does not contribute to the CO oxidation as can be seen during the first 30–40 min of reaction at any temperature. These results confirmed that CO conversion continues independently of the CO₂ chemisorption process performed by CaO.

CONCLUSIONS

Ce_{0.8}Sm_{0.15}Sr_{0.05}O₂ (CSSO) was synthesized to evaluate its possible application as carbon monoxide oxidation catalyst; additionally, the CSSO1000–CaO layer arrangement system was analyzed to determine the possible CO conversion and subsequent CO₂ chemisorption processes. Results showed that CSSO is a thermal stable ceria-based material and it can catalyze the CO oxidation reaction at temperatures equal to or higher than 300 °C, reaching 100% CO conversion between 450 and 650 °C depending on the microstructural features of the catalyst. Moreover, the addition of CaO improves the catalytic effect and allows the CO₂ chemisorption in the CSSO1000–CaO composite in a lower temperature range, without decreasing the CO oxidation capacity. All these results show the possible application of this or similar systems in the bifunctional CO oxidation and in situ CO₂ capture processes, which may be useful in different industrial applications where CO must be separated from certain gaseous effluents such as

flue gas or the separation of carbon monoxide present as a syngas component.

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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