

Fixed Bed Reactor Validation of a Mayenite Based Combined Calcium–Copper Material for Hydrogen Production through Ca–Cu Looping

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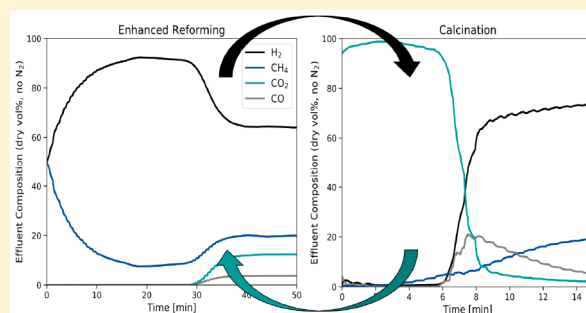
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S Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: For the first time, a mayenite based material combining calcium and copper (18.0/37.6/44.4 estimated active wt % CaO/CuO/Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃, CuO/CaO = 2.1 [wt/wt]) has been subjected to three full calcium–copper chemical looping combustion (Ca–Cu Looping) cycles in a fixed bed reactor (70.0 g of combined material and 3.5 g of 18.0 wt % Ni/Al₂O₃ reforming catalyst), demonstrating the feasibility of a combined materials approach to hydrogen production through Ca–Cu Looping. Combined materials were characterized by helium pycnometry, mercury intrusion, nitrogen adsorption, X-ray diffraction, thermogravimetric analysis, scanning electron microscopy, and energy dispersive X-ray diffraction before and after reactor testing. A carbon dioxide capture capacity of 14.6–15.0 g CO₂/100 g (640–660 °C, 1.0 MPa, 2.5 kg_{CH₄} kg_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹), full oxidation, and expected calcination efficiencies (51–64%) were obtained. Combined material performance is comparable to that of segregated materials previously tested in the same experimental rig. Process intensification of Ca–Cu Looping through combined materials development is promising.



1. INTRODUCTION

Development and implementation of carbon capture and storage technologies (CCS) for mitigation of carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions has gained traction since the mid-1990s, and it is now generally accepted as an important part of the combination of technologies (alongside renewables, increased energy efficiency, etc.) needed for reaching international emission targets.¹ A 2018 report by the IPCC states with high confidence that it is likely that a 0.8–1.2 °C increase in global average temperature relative to preindustrial levels has already occurred, and an increase to 1.5 °C warming is likely to be reached between 2030 and 2052 if the current rate of CO₂ emission continues.² In order to avoid a greater increase of the average temperature, development in both renewable energy technology and CCS is needed.

The primary role of CCS in a future zero/low-emission scenario is anticipated to be captured from stationary fossil fuel based point-sources in power production and the chemical industry.³ The International Energy Agency (IEA) has underlined the importance of new CCS technologies and the funding of major CCS pilot projects, as large-scale demonstration of CO₂ capture technology is a current bottleneck for

more widespread implementation and acceptance in the industrial sector.⁴

The topic of the presented work is hydrogen production from natural gas with CCS, i.e., CO₂ capture from a stationary point-source within the chemical industry. The annual global production of hydrogen is approximately 65 Mt/year where 95% is produced from fossil fuels (48% from reforming of natural gas) and the majority of hydrogen is “used where it’s produced” in refinery feedstock hydrotreatment or in the production of miscellaneous commodity chemicals (ammonia, methanol, etc.).^{5,6} The associated CO₂ emissions for a large-scale, hydrogen producing natural gas reforming plant are estimated to be in the order of 7.0–8.1 tCO₂/tH₂.^{7,8} As an important side note it should be mentioned that there is political interest and drive toward prioritizing CCS technology in these sectors. In, e.g., Norway, ammonia, methanol, and cement production are important constituents of the industrial

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65 output,^{9,10} and there are possibilities for off-shore CO₂
66 storage,¹¹ making CCS an attractive mitigation option.

67 An emerging technology for hydrogen production with
68 carbon capture is calcium–copper chemical looping combus-
69 tion (Ca–Cu Looping), where calcium looping (CaL)³ and
70 chemical looping combustion (CLC)^{12,13} are combined into a
71 unified approach for hydrogen production with integrated
72 carbon capture using natural gas or other carbonaceous,
73 gaseous fuels (e.g., biogas). The development of the processing
74 concept can be traced back to ideas of unmixed combustion¹⁴
75 elaborated by the research group of Abanades et al.^{15,16} and
76 developed into a five-step parallel fixed bed reactor concept for
77 hydrogen production.¹⁷ Ca–Cu Looping can also be used for
78 power generation,^{18,19} and it has favorable properties for
79 integration with an ammonia plant as both pressurized
80 hydrogen and nitrogen are available in the process.²⁰

81 In conventional steam methane reforming (SMR), steam
82 and light hydrocarbons (e.g., methane, CH₄) are fed into
83 tubular reformers (FTRs) where the water–gas-shift (WGS)
84 and reforming reactions^{21,22} take place over a catalytic bed of
85 solids, often using a nickel-based catalyst.^{23–25} Effluent
86 temperatures and pressures are in the order of 850–900 °C
87 and 2.5 MPa. The energy required for the net endothermic
88 reforming reaction system is provided by the combustion of
89 fuel gas.²⁶ From a thermodynamic point of view, low operating
90 pressure and high temperature are favorable, but an economic
91 incentive exists for high pressure operation in spite of increased
92 methane slip as this enables process intensification.²⁷ For
93 hydrogen production through conventional reforming, shift
94 reactor(s) are required to drive the WGS reaction in the
95 direction of hydrogen, and a separation of a gaseous CO₂/H₂
96 mixture is required downstream.

97 The first of three main steps in Ca–Cu Looping utilizes the
98 concept of sorption enhanced reforming (SER).^{28,29} In SER, a
99 calcium oxide (CaO) based CO₂ sorbent is introduced into the
100 reforming reaction system alongside the reforming catalyst. As
101 CO₂ is generated from the reforming reaction system, calcium
102 carbonate (CaCO₃) is formed by the carbonation of CaO in an
103 exothermic reaction ($\Delta_r H^\circ(298\text{ K}) = -178.8\text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$). The
104 heat from carbonation provides the energy necessary for
105 reforming while also removing the requirement for fuel gas
106 burning outside the tubular reactors. The equilibrium
107 production of hydrogen shifts toward 90–95 vol % (dry)
108 depending on pressure, sorbent content, feed composition, and
109 temperature conditions. Typically, SER in a fixed bed reactor is
110 performed at 650–700 °C and 0.1–2 MPa with molar steam-
111 to-carbon ratios (*S/C*) of 2.5–5.0 and a methane mass hourly
112 space velocity ($\text{MHSV}_{\text{CH}_4} \geq 0.75\text{ kg}_{\text{CH}_4}\text{ kg}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}\text{ h}^{-1}$).¹⁷ Some
113 advantages of SER relative to SMR are higher hydrogen purity,
114 no shift reactor requirement, lower operating temperature, no
115 fuel gas burning, and CO₂/H₂ separation being inherent to the
116 process.

117 The major challenge related to SER is the energy intensive
118 regeneration of the CaO sorbent from CaCO₃ (calcination),
119 where the sorbent must be calcined in a high percentage CO₂
120 environment at high temperature ($P_{\text{CO}_2}^{\text{eq}} = 0.1\text{ MPa}$ at 898
121 °C³⁰). In Ca–Cu Looping, the proposed solution to the CaO
122 regeneration challenge is a coupling of sorbent regeneration
123 and the redox reaction system of elemental copper and
124 copper(II) oxide (Cu/CuO). The second step in Ca–Cu
125 Looping is thus exothermic oxidation of elemental copper to

copper(II) oxide in an air reactor operated at 300–800 °C and
1–2 MPa in oxygen diluted air (e.g., 2.5–5 vol % O₂).¹²⁶

127
128 In the third processing step (calcination step), H₂ provided
129 from hydrogen-rich adsorber off-gas and CH₄/CO available
130 elsewhere in the process (e.g., fuel feedstock or reforming) are
131 used to drive exothermic reduction of CuO and generate the
132 heat necessary for CaO regeneration. The output from this
133 step will in theory be a CO₂/H₂O gas mixture from which CO₂
134 can easily be separated and stored.

135 The energy balance in the calcination step is in large
136 determined by the copper-to-calcium ratio (CuO/CaO). In
137 general, the determination of an appropriate CuO/CaO is not
138 trivial as it depends on the initial reactor temperature (i.e.,
139 process heat integration), reducing gas composition, flow
140 conditions, the degree of CaCO₃ loss during oxidation, the
141 degree of carbonation in the SER step, etc. CuO/CaO weight
142 ratios between 2.4 and 3.1 [wt/wt] (CuO/CaO 1.7–2.2 [mol/
143 mol]) have been reported as optimal based on thermodynamic
144 and process modeling for a representative CH₄/CO/H₂
145 reducing gas,^{17,31–33} while using CH₄ only as a reducing gas
146 will require CuO/CaO weight ratios of about 4.5 (3.2
147 molar).³⁴

148 A 2018 techno-economic assessment of Ca–Cu Looping
149 integrated in a hydrogen plant by Riva et al.⁷ shows that Ca–
150 Cu Looping compares favorably to a base-case FTR w/amine
151 capture. Capital cost is a significant contributor to the total
152 economic potential of the Ca–Cu Looping concept, and
153 further process intensification through, e.g., materials develop-
154 ment for Ca–Cu Looping, could contribute to driving down
155 cost. One method for intensifying the process is demonstrated
156 in this work through a two-particle approach (or “combined
157 materials approach”)^{35–38} to Ca–Cu Looping, in contrast to
158 the commonly implemented three-particle approach (or
159 “segregated materials approach”). In the combined materials
160 approach, CuO and CaO phases are integrated into one
161 particle. Given segregated particles with active weight loadings
162 of 30 wt % CaO and 70 wt % CuO, a 40 wt % CuO loaded
163 combined material would give more active material per gram
164 for the recommended 2.4–3.1 [wt/wt] (1.7–2.2 [mol/mol])
165 CuO/CaO ratio range. The hypothesized advantages of this
166 approach relative to the segregated approach in addition to
167 process intensification include better heat transfer properties
168 and avoiding hot spots due to the intimate contact between Ca
169 and Cu species during calcination as well as two rather than
170 three materials production lines. However, segregated and
171 combined materials face the same major challenge: stable
172 transient CO₂ and O₂ carrying capacities across a sufficient
173 number of process cycles complicated by CaO sintering and
174 CuO migration.

175 In a previous study, our research group at IFE evaluated the
176 performance of combined materials based on mayenite
177 (Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃) at CuO/CaO = 2.0 [wt/wt] (1.41 [mol/
178 mol]) and CuO loadings of 40 and 50 wt % using various CuO
179 precursors in a hydrothermal synthesis.³⁹ It was shown that
180 materials at 50 wt % CuO loading deactivated regardless of
181 precursor during Ca–Cu Looping relevant cyclic thermogravi-
182 metric analysis (TGA, 40 cycles), while 40 wt % CuO loaded
183 materials remained active. The CuO/CaO = 2.0 [wt/wt] ratio
184 was chosen as it (1) represents a maximum expected CaO
185 content for a given CuO loading, (2) if a material is stable at
186 CuO/CaO = 2.0 [wt/wt] at a given CuO loading, it should be
187 stable at higher CuO/CaO ratios at the same CuO loading
188 (increasing the CuO/CaO ratio is equivalent to replacing a

189 CaO phase that is potentially sintering with a highly stable
190 calcium aluminate phase), and (3) CaO has a well-established
191 carbonation behavior that is dominated by a kinetic- and a
192 diffusion-controlled regime. It is likely that the CO₂ carrying
193 capacity of the CaO sorbent cannot be fully utilized under all
194 operating conditions and process configurations due to mass
195 transfer limitations.⁴⁰ In 0.1 MPa TGA tests the kinetic regime
196 carbonation of CaO represented 75–80% of the total CaO
197 conversion, giving active CuO/CaO ratios of 2.5–2.7 [wt/wt]
198 (1.8–1.9 [mol/mol]) if only the kinetic carbonation regime
199 could be utilized in practical application. Copper oxidation is
200 fast and is assumed to be complete based on studies of copper
201 based oxygen carriers.⁴¹ The material used for the present
202 validation is a 40 wt % CuO loaded CaO/CuO/Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃
203 material prepared using Cu(OH)₂ with a CuO/CaO = 2.0
204 [wt/wt].

205 Previous investigations into larger scale Ca–Cu Looping
206 have been performed with an emphasis on a three-particle
207 system approach where catalyst particles, a CaO based sorbent,
208 and a Cu based oxygen carrier have been used in a fixed bed
209 under relevant conditions. A validation of the SER step was
210 performed by Grasa et al.⁴² using 3.2–4.0 molar S/C, sorbent-
211 to-catalyst ratio (Z) of 4–15, and 0.1–0.9 MPa pressure,
212 where a MHSV_{CH₄} = 2.5 h⁻¹ was found suitable for a mayenite
213 based sorbent (CaO/Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃). Fernández et al.⁴³ have
214 recently demonstrated calcination in pure methane at TRL 4,
215 using a 60 wt % Cu/SiO₂ commercial oxygen carrier and
216 commercial CaO sorbent. Of special interest is the work of
217 Díez-Martín et al.⁴⁴ where a complete cyclic Ca–Cu Looping
218 process was demonstrated under relevant conditions using a
219 mayenite based sorbent (39.0 g CO₂/100 g initial capacity,
220 20.0 g CO₂/100 g residual capacity), a 65 wt % Cu oxygen
221 carrier, and an 18 wt % Ni/Al₂O₃ catalyst. In terms of
222 combined materials testing, a preliminary study of SER
223 conditions using a 22/53/25 wt % CaO/CuO/Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃
224 combined material⁴⁵ has been performed with results
225 comparable to those of Díez-Martín et al. using the same
226 fixed bed reactor.⁴⁶

227 In this work, the approach that Díez-Martín et al. used to
228 test segregated materials is followed closely in a first validation
229 of the combined material approach using full Ca–Cu Looping
230 cycles in a fixed bed reactor. The purpose of the presented
231 experiment is validation and critical evaluation of laboratory
232 scale estimations and assumptions by exposing material
233 agglomerates to realistic SER, oxidation, and calcination
234 conditions at elevated pressure at 70.0 g scale. The focal
235 points are the characterization and cyclic behavior of a 40 wt %
236 CuO loaded CaO/CuO/Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃ combined material
237 prepared using Cu(OH)₂ as copper(II) oxide precursor in a
238 hydrothermal synthesis. This material represents a potentially
239 low-cost combined material that could provide the best
240 material configuration for Ca–Cu Looping in terms of process
241 intensification. Reactor tests and characterization have also
242 been performed on a 40 wt % CuO loaded CaO/CuO/
243 Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃ combined material prepared using CuO powder as
244 copper(II) oxide precursor in order to illustrate reproducibility
245 of results, as results for these two materials are expected to be
246 comparable.³⁹

2. MATERIALS AND EXPERIMENTAL METHOD

247 **2.1. Preparation of Material.** The combined calcium–
248 copper material was prepared using a hydrothermal synthesis

route previously reported by our group,³⁹ where 3.0 g powder 249
batches of combined calcium–copper materials were studied 250
in detail using various CuO loadings and precursors. A 251
theoretical calcined combined material composition of 20/40/ 252
40 wt % CaO/CuO/Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃ with an active CuO/CaO = 253
2.0 [wt/wt] ratio using Cu(OH)₂ as CuO precursor was 254
selected for upscaling based on favorable results and precursor 255
cost. Synthesis scale-up to 100.0 g batches, as well as an 256
agglomeration procedure, has been reported.⁴⁷ The essential 257
features of materials synthesis and agglomeration of the tested 258
material are summarized here for ease of reference. 259

For the upscaled synthesis of combined calcium–copper 260
mayenite based material, copper hydroxide (Cu(OH)₂, 261
technical grade, Sigma-Aldrich), boehmite (AlO(OH), 95% 262
Sasol), and calcium hydroxide (Ca(OH)₂, >99% Merck) were 263
used as reactants, and isopropyl alcohol and deionized water 264
were used as solvents. Dried reactants (>48 h, 110 °C) 265
corresponding to a theoretical 40 wt % CuO loaded combined 266
material with CuO/CaO = 2.0 [wt/wt] were weighed out and 267
mixed in isopropyl alcohol with a solid-to-liquid ratio of 4.0. 268
The slurry was stirred for 1 h at room temperature, dried 269
overnight in a 110 °C laboratory oven, mixed with deionized 270
water using a solid-to-liquid ratio of 3.0, transferred to a 600 271
cm³ stainless steel autoclave, and heated to 150 °C (2 °C 272
min⁻¹ heating rate) resulting in an absolute pressure of 0.5 273
MPa inside the autoclave. The liquid–solid mixture was kept 274
at these conditions for 5 h and subsequently cooled to ambient 275
temperature (2 °C min⁻¹ cooling rate). A laboratory oven was 276
used in order to evaporate the solvent overnight (110 °C, 16 277
h). The resulting dried solid was crushed to a fine powder and 278
calcined at 1000 °C (1 h, 5 °C min⁻¹ heating rate). A yield of 279
95–97 wt % can be expected from the described procedure 280
using a theoretical 100.0 g of oxidized and calcined solids 281
production as basis. 282

Agglomeration through wet granulation is scalable and 283
frequently employed in industry. Calcined powders were 284
agglomerated in a GMX-LAB Micro High Shear Wet 285
Granulator (Vector Corporation). Batches of 95.0 g of material 286
were agglomerated using a 1.0 L agglomeration bowl, 500 rpm 287
impeller, and 500 rpm chopper speed. An aqueous solution of 288
15 wt % polyethylene glycol (PEG) was used as a binder and 289
added to the solids with a 10 rpm pump speed. 40.0 g of PEG 290
was used per 100.0 g of powder. Sieving after agglomeration 291
resulted in a 35–40 wt % yield in the agglomerate diameter 292
range of 0.5–0.8 mm. This size fraction was selected for 293
reactor testing. Agglomerates were calcined at 900 °C (1 h, 5 294
°C min⁻¹ heating rate) in order to remove the PEG binder. 295

The same synthesis and agglomeration procedure was used 296
for the combined material presented in the Supporting 297
Information (Figures S4–S12, Tables S1–S3) using CuO 298
powder (>97 wt % 325 Mesh Powder, Alfa Aesar) as 299
copper(II) oxide precursor. 300

2.2. Material Characterization. Prepared agglomerates 301
were characterized before and after fixed bed reactor testing. 302
Characterization before testing included cyclic thermogravi- 303
metric analysis (TGA) representing process relevant Ca–Cu 304
Looping conditions (section 2.3), X-ray diffraction (XRD), 305
helium (He) pycnometry, mercury (Hg) intrusion, N₂ 306
adsorption, scanning electron microscopy (SEM), and energy 307
dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX). After reactor testing the 308
same characterization methods except TGA cycling were used. 309
All characterization before and after testing was performed 310
with materials in a calcined and oxidized state. After reactor 311

Table 1. Normal Gas Flow (101.325 kPa, 273.15 K), Set Point Temperature, and Pressure for the Ca–Cu Looping Reactor Tests for 70.0 g of Combined Material (15.0 wt % Active CaO) and 3.5 g Reduced 18.0 wt % Ni/Al₂O₃ Catalyst^a

	pressurization	SER	flush	acc 1	oxidation	acc 2	calcination
	800 to 625 °C	625 °C	625 to 700 °C	700 °C	700 °C	700 to 800 °C	800 °C
	0.1 to 1.0 MPa	1.0 MPa	1.0 MPa	1.0 to 0.8 MPa	0.8 MPa	0.8 to 0.1 MPa	0.1 MPa
	15 min	60 min	15 min	30 min	65 min	15 min	20 min
N ₂ [NL/h]	46.3	2.7	46.3	36.0	28.8	30.9	2.7
H ₂ [NL/h]	5.1		5.1				25.7
H ₂ O [NL/h]		38.7					
CO ₂ [NL/h]				15.4	19.0	20.5	
CH ₄ [NL/h]		12.3					10.5
O ₂ [NL/h]					3.6		
total [NL/h]	51.4	53.7	51.4	51.4	51.4	51.4	39.0

^aMolar S/C = 3.15, sorbent-to-catalyst mass ratio (Z) = 3.0, MHSV_{CH₄} = 2.5 h⁻¹. Acc = accommodation step.

312 testing, the materials were treated in air at 600 °C for 1 h in
313 order to oxidize the postcalcination elemental copper.

314 XRD data was collected using a Bruker D8 Advance
315 diffractometer with a monochromatic CuK_α source and
316 operating at 40 kV and 40 mA. An instrument alignment
317 accuracy of 0.01° according to the UNE-EN-13925 standard
318 was implemented.

319 True density was determined using a Micromeritics AccuPic
320 II for He pycnometry, a method based on the displacement of
321 a known volume of He by the solid materials. Results for true
322 density can be obtained with an accuracy of 0.03%.

323 Hg intrusion was performed in a Micromeritics AutoPore V
324 instrument in accordance with the ISO 15901 norm in order to
325 determine particle porosity through pore structure and
326 distribution. The accuracy of the instrument is determined to
327 0.04 mL of Hg.

328 N₂ adsorption at 77.0 K was performed using a Micro-
329 meritics ASAP 2020 instrument according to the ISO 9277
330 standard. Physisorption data was interpreted using the
331 Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) model. Relative pressures
332 (*P/P*₀) up to 0.3 were used. Instrument accuracy can be taken
333 as 0.02 m² g⁻¹.

334 A Hitachi S-3400 N was used for SEM/EDX measurements
335 in order to evaluate particle morphology and elemental
336 distribution in the solid samples. Surface images, cross-
337 sectional images and elemental mapping is reported in this
338 work.

339 2.3. Experimental TGA Setup and Testing Conditions.

340 Samples from as-prepared upscaled powder and agglomerates
341 were subjected to cyclic, process relevant Ca–Cu Looping
342 TGA tests in order to evaluate transient stability across cycles
343 and for estimation of CO₂ and O₂ carrying capacities. Results
344 were used for quality control of upscaled powder and
345 agglomerates and for establishing fixed bed reactor flow
346 conditions through estimation of the maximum expected active
347 CaO wt % content in the combined material. The gas
348 composition, temperature, and time-on-stream for all steps in
349 the Ca–Cu Looping TGA cycles are described in detail in
350 previous work.³⁹ In brief, the TGA apparatus consists of a
351 cylindrical alumina (Al₂O₃) tube (height: 80.0 cm, thickness:
352 4.0 mm, internal diameter: 3.5 cm) embedded in a furnace. A
353 porous alumina crucible (thickness: 1.0 mm, height: 16.0 mm,
354 external diameter: 7.0 mm) is used as sample holder. The total
355 gas flow is 500 mL(STP) min⁻¹, and H₂ (6.0, Praxair), N₂ (5.0,
356 Praxair), CO₂ (5.0, Praxair), synthetic air (21% O₂, 79% N₂,
357 6.0, Praxair), and steam (H₂O(g), deionized) can be utilized.
358 The vessel can operate at ambient pressure and between

ambient temperature and 900 °C at a heating and cooling rate 359
of 9 °C min⁻¹ and 3.5 °C min⁻¹, respectively. 360

In a typical test, 25.0 mg was taken from a well-mixed 361
sample container of either agglomerates or finely crushed 362
powder. Samples were placed in the calibrated alumina crucible 363
and heated to 870 °C in 400 mL(STP) min⁻¹ synthetic air and 364
100 mL(STP) min⁻¹ N₂. After an initial N₂ flush and a 365
reduction/calcination step at 870 °C, cycles representing 366
realistic Ca–Cu Looping conditions at ambient pressure were 367
performed—carbonation with steam (650 °C), oxidation (650 368
°C), reduction (875 °C), and calcination (875 °C). All 369
samples were cooled to ambient temperature in 500 mL(STP) 370
min⁻¹ synthetic air after the last calcination/reduction step. 40
371 TGA cycles were performed for the reported samples at 159
372 min per Ca–Cu Looping cycle (5.52 days of continuous TGA
373 testing). 374

Capacity data reported from TGA tests are given in g/100 g 375
with respect to 100.0 g of a calcined and reduced combined 376
mayenite material (CaO/Cu/Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃), while all composi- 377
tional estimates are given on an oxidized and calcined basis 378
(CaO/CuO/Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃). 379

2.4. Experimental Reactor Setup and Operating

380 **Conditions.** A schematic and thorough description of the 381
fixed bed reactor used in this experimental work can be found 382
in Díez-Martin et al.⁴⁴ which serves as the foundation for the 383
described reactor tests. The tubular reactor is a quartz wool 384
isolated, vertical stainless-steel vessel (internal diameter: 18.0 385
mm, bed length: 0.2 m, capacity: 90.0 g) heated with a 5.0 m 386
1.25 kW heating wire. The reactor has an overall heat transfer 387
coefficient of 9.5 W m⁻² K⁻¹ given an ambient temperature of 388
25 °C and a reactor temperature of 900 °C at 0.1 MPa. The 389
vessel is equipped with 15 thermocouples (TCs) placed 390
vertically along the reactor bed spaced in 2.5 cm intervals. A 391
control TC is placed just above the porous plate that contains 392
the agglomerates. Inlet gas (H₂, H₂O, CO, CO₂, CH₄, N₂, and 393
O₂) is preheated to 400 °C. Temperature data is collected 394
instantaneously, while the reactor effluent is analyzed using a 395
gas analyzer for dry gas composition (N₂ and O₂ are not 396
directly measured). The reactor was operated at temperatures 397
and pressure up to 875 °C (20 °C min⁻¹ heating rate) and 1.0 398
MPa. A pressure-drop over the reactor bed in the order of 10 399
kPa was registered during all stages of testing. Gas 400
compositions for all the steps in the testing regime are 401
summarized in Table 1. Three cycles were performed for the 402
presented material. Nitrogen (Table 1) was introduced as an 403
inert gas in order to calculate the total dry flow out of the 404
reactor. 405

406 Materials (70.0 g CaO/CuO/Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃ and 3.7 g oxidized
 407 18.0 wt % Ni/Al₂O₃ catalyst) were top loaded into the vertical
 408 reactor bed giving a height of about 13.1 cm. The TC
 409 placements were thus at 2.5 cm (TC5), 5.0 cm (TC4), 7.5 cm
 410 (TC3), 10.0 cm (TC2), and 12.5 cm (TC1) measured from
 411 the bed bottom. The upper part of the solids bed, between
 412 12.5 and 13.1 cm, was not covered by thermocouples. 15.0 wt
 413 % active CaO was assumed for the combined material—a
 414 reasonable estimate between powder and agglomerate
 415 capacities from TGA tests (Table 2).

Table 2. Characterization Data for Powder and Agglomerates (0.5–0.8 mm) before Reactor Testing^a

	powder	agglomerates
surface area [m ² g ⁻¹]		2.19 ± 0.01
true density [g cm ⁻³]		3.67 ± 0.01
average pore diameter [nm]		381.4
porosity [%]		53.6
particle density [g cm ⁻³]		1.70
TGA (g CO ₂ /100 g) _{max}	15.3	11.6
TGA (g O ₂ /100 g) _{max}	8.2	6.0
TGA wt % CaO	18.0	13.9
TGA wt % CuO	37.6	28.1
TGA CuO/CaO [wt/wt]	2.1	2.0

^aTrue density is based on He pycnometry. Porosity, average pore diameter, and particle density are based on Hg intrusion, while surface area is based on N₂ adsorption (BET).

416 Prior to initiating the Ca–Cu Looping cycle, a prereduction
 417 using the pressurization step gas composition (Table 1) was
 418 performed, making sure that the catalyst and combined
 419 material were in reduced and calcined states. Materials were
 420 heated in N₂ and H₂ to form ambient temperature to 800–850
 421 °C and kept at these conditions until no CO₂ was detected by
 422 the gas analyzer and no H₂ was consumed. After this
 423 prereduction step, the material was cooled, and the full
 424 pressurization conditions (0.1 to 1.0 MPa at 625 °C set point
 425 temperature) were imposed and kept for 15 min for conditions
 426 to stabilize. When conditions were stable, steps according to
 427 Table 1 were performed, representing a full cycle of Ca–Cu
 428 Looping. After the calcination step, the materials were cooled
 429 at ambient pressure using the pressurization step gas
 430 composition (Table 1). Prereduction was performed prior to
 431 each reported cycle.

432 Testing conditions reported in Table 1 were selected based
 433 on previous work on segregated materials reactor experimen-
 434 tation⁴⁴ and reported optimal operation conditions for Ca–Cu
 435 Looping.¹⁷ The SER step was performed using a molar S/C of
 436 3.15, 0.97–1.0 MPa pressure, and set point temperature of 625
 437 °C. These conditions are suitable for high CH₄ conversion at
 438 elevated pressure and for avoiding significant CaO hydration.
 439 A temperature of 625 °C refers to the reactor set point
 440 temperature, and a temperature gradient of 20 °C was
 441 observed between the top and bottom TCs during testing. A
 442 set point of 625 °C corresponds to initial bed temperatures
 443 between 640 and 660 °C. A sorbent-to-catalyst mass ratio (*Z*)
 444 of 3.0 was selected, defined as “mass of active CaO to reduced
 445 catalyst particle”, where the catalyst particle is a 15.9–20 wt %
 446 Ni Johnson Matthey HiFUEL R110 commercial catalyst
 447 described elsewhere⁴⁸ and referred to as a 18.0 wt % Ni/
 448 Al₂O₃ material in this work. A MHSV_{CH₄} of 2.5 h⁻¹ (>0.75
 449 h⁻¹) was selected for the SER step based on previous testing of

a combined 22/53/25 wt % CaO/CuO/Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃ materi-
 450 al.⁴⁶ 451

Oxidation conditions were fixed at 0.8 MPa pressure, a 700
 °C temperature set point, and 7.0 vol % O₂ representing
 diluted air. Several reactors are not operated in parallel in this
 work. Heat exchange and recarbonation after oxidation is thus
 not possible. Copper oxidation causes an elevation in
 temperature, and in combination with a CO₂ partial pressure
 close to zero, calcination will occur. To counter this effect, 37.0
 vol % CO₂ was sent in together with N₂ and O₂. The slight
 increment in O₂ volume fraction from 2.5–5.0 vol % to 7.0 vol
 % was merely a practical consideration in order to keep the
 flow for each step fairly similar and at the same time allow for
 oxidation in a reasonable time frame. It will be shown in
 section 3.2 that this is an appropriate choice.

The calcination step was performed at 0.1 MPa with an 800
 °C set point temperature and a reducing gas composition of 27
 vol % CH₄ and 66 vol % H₂ (balance N₂). With the employed
 gas composition, 62–81% of the energy required for CaCO₃
 calcination is expected from CuO reduction alone, depending
 on the active weight fraction of CaO. For reference, this value
 would be 89.2% with a CuO/CaO = 2.8 [wt/wt] and a gas
 composition of 27.0 vol % CH₄, 54.0 vol % H₂, and 12.0 vol %
 CO feed composition, i.e., reported optimal conditions for
 upscaled operation. Although full sorbent regeneration is not
 expected, the incorporated cooling procedure and precalcina-
 tion (800–850 °C, 0.1 MPa) provide full calcination/
 reduction of the material prior to subsequent Ca–Cu Looping
 cycling. Future work must be dedicated to fine-tuning of inlet
 gas composition, flow rate, bed initial temperature, and
 material composition in order to optimize calcination
 efficiency, as this is outside the scope of the presented work.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Material Characterization before Reactor Test-
ing. The X-ray diffraction pattern of prepared agglomerates
 prior to reactor testing is presented in Figure 1. All diffraction
 peaks have been accounted for and identified as Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃,
 CuO, Ca₂CuO₃, and CaCu₂O₃. The presence of mixed
 calcium–copper phases was expected based on observations

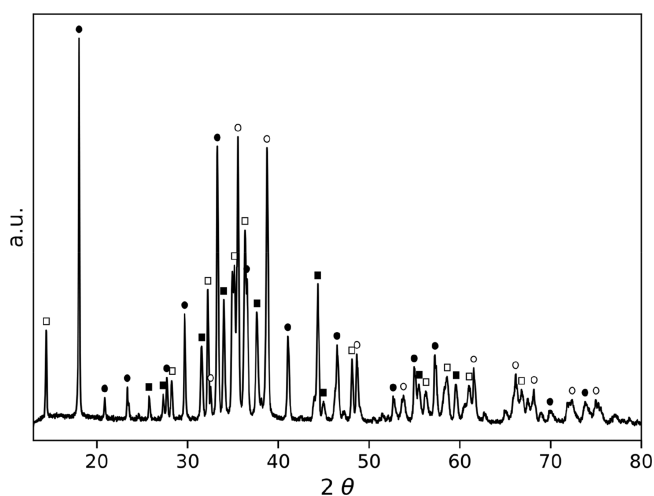


Figure 1. Diffraction pattern for calcined (1 h, 900 °C) 0.5–0.8 mm agglomerates before reactor testing. All peaks are accounted for and identified as CuO (○), Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃ (●), Ca₂CuO₃ (□), and CaCu₂O₃ (■).

made previously for combined material powders prepared using $\text{Cu}(\text{OH})_2$.³⁹ 3.0 g of laboratory scale powders was almost exclusively composed of mayenite and mixed phases (e.g., 48.3 wt % CaCu_2O_3 , 15.6 wt % Ca_2CuO_3 , and 0.8 wt % CuO at 20/40/40 wt % $\text{CaO}/\text{CuO}/\text{Ca}_{12}\text{Al}_{14}\text{O}_{33}$),³⁹ while it seems to be a more pronounced contribution from CuO to the agglomerate spectrum. This can be an indication of a less ideal mixing during upscaling, as mixed phases are likely related to intimate contact between Ca and Cu species during hydrothermal synthesis prior to calcination in air (1000 °C).

Characterization data for the as-synthesized upscaled powder and 0.5–0.8 mm diameter agglomerates are summarized in Table 2. Transient TGA behavior during Ca–Cu Looping relevant cycles is presented graphically in Figure 2. Particle surface area was determined using N_2

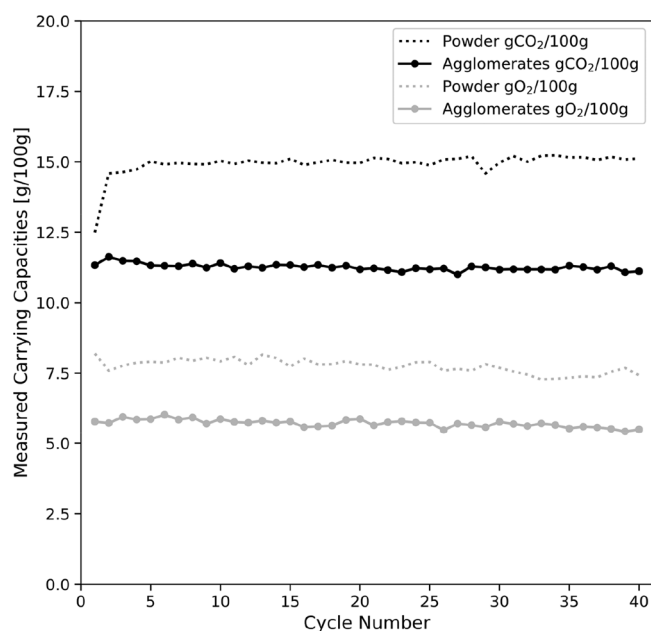


Figure 2. Measured $\text{g CO}_2/100\text{ g}$ and $\text{g O}_2/100\text{ g}$ carrying capacities for the investigated powder and agglomerates. Carrying capacities are reported using $\text{g}/100\text{ g}$ calcined and reduced combined material as basis ($\text{CaO}/\text{Cu}/\text{Ca}_{12}\text{Al}_{14}\text{O}_{33}$). Adapted with permission from ref 47. Copyright 2019.

adsorption and the theoretical framework of Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET). The characterization data in Table 2 show that the agglomerates have high porosity and relatively low surface area. The characterization data reported are all within an expected range of values for combined calcium–copper materials.

Satisfactory stability across 40 TGA cycles is observed for both powder and agglomerates. Maximum capacities of 15.3 $\text{g CO}_2/100\text{ g}$ and 8.2 $\text{g O}_2/100\text{ g}$ were registered for the powder, equivalent to a 18.0/37.6/44.4 wt % $\text{CaO}/\text{CuO}/\text{Ca}_{12}\text{Al}_{14}\text{O}_{33}$ material with respect to active phases and an active $\text{CuO}/\text{CaO} = 2.1$ [wt/wt]. It has been shown in previous work that compositional estimates based on maximum registered TGA capacities and Rietveld refinement are in good agreement for the material in question.³⁹ The TGA estimate can be taken as an accurate lower estimate of true (active phase + inactive or inaccessible phase) CuO and CaO loading.

There is a 26.8 wt % drop in $\text{g O}_2/100\text{ g}$ and 24.2 wt % drop in $\text{g CO}_2/100\text{ g}$ carrying capacity in the agglomerates relative

to the powder given the same testing conditions and time duration for carbonation and oxidation in the TGA. Given the similarities in powder and particle phase composition before testing and the similar weight-based reduction in O_2 and CO_2 capacities both, the difference between powder and agglomerate capacities is attributed to mass transfer limitations. It can be expected that the actual active phase material composition during the reactor test will be between 13.9/28.1/58.0 and 18.0/37.6/44.4 wt % active $\text{CaO}/\text{CuO}/\text{Ca}_{12}\text{Al}_{14}\text{O}_{44}$ depending on the extent of mass transfer resistance during the SER and oxidation steps.

In Figure 3(a), the SEM of the agglomerate surface indicates a good dispersion of copper (light gray) and a $\text{CaO}/\text{Ca}_{12}\text{Al}_{14}\text{O}_{33}$ phase (dark gray). An EDX mapping along with a SEM image is provided in Figure 3(b)–(e). A slight tendency toward Cu clustering can be observed in (b); however, the dispersion of elements on the particle level is homogeneous with an abundance of Ca and Al relative to Cu, as expected due to the Ca and Al rich mayenite support structure.

A 40 wt % CuO loaded combined material prepared using CuO powder has also been characterized using the same techniques (Supporting Information, Figures S4–S12, Tables S1–S3). The characterization data are comparable. The CuO prepared material has more pronounced CuO clustering and indications of a lower mass transfer resistance in agglomerate TGA performance relative to that of powder. This is consistent with previous observations.³⁹

3.2. Ca–Cu Looping Tests in a Fixed Bed Reactor.

3.2.1. Sorption Enhanced Reforming (SER). Figure 4 depicts measurements of dry volume percent (vol %) composition in the reactor effluent and thermocouple temperatures as functions of time during the SER step at 0.97–1.0 MPa, $S/C = 3.15$, $\text{MHSV}_{\text{CH}_4} = 2.5\text{ h}^{-1}$, $Z = 3.0$, and 640–660 °C initial bed temperatures. A plot of temperature profiles in Celsius can be found in the Supporting Information (Figure S1).

In Figure 4 (left), following the introduction of reactants, the measured vol % of CH_4 and H_2 go through a 10–15 min transient period (the smooth profile and differences in initial and breakthrough H_2 slopes must be seen in relation to a combination of flow dispersion in the condenser, low superficial velocity, and initial transient instabilities in CH_4 and steam feed) until conditions close to expected SER equilibrium are established in all three cycles (92.7 vol % H_2 dry at $S/C = 3.15$, $P = 0.97\text{ MPa}$ at $T = 660\text{ °C}$). The maximum dry vol % H_2 registered in the reactor effluent for the three cycles was 91.5, 92.3, and 91.0 vol %, corresponding to 98.7%, 99.6%, and 98.2% of the calculated SER equilibrium values. Thus, $\geq 98.2\%$ [vol/vol] of the calculated SER H_2 equilibrium value was obtained during testing for all three cycles.

After 10 min at a plateau close to SER equilibrium conditions, the active calcium oxide was carbonated, and a well-defined breakthrough occurred during a 5 min window. The breakthrough is sharp and does not show any significant signs characteristic to that of diffusion regime carbonation. The breakthrough was followed by establishment of SMR equilibrium (63.8 vol % H_2 dry at $S/C = 3.2$, $P = 0.985\text{ MPa}$, and $T = 640\text{ °C}$). A carbon balance over the SER step results in calculated active CaO loadings ($\text{CaO}/\text{CuO}/\text{Ca}_{12}\text{Al}_{14}\text{O}_{33}$ basis) of 17.2 wt % (14.6 $\text{g CO}_2/100\text{ g}$) for the first, 17.7 wt % (15.0 $\text{g CO}_2/100\text{ g}$) for the second, and 17.5

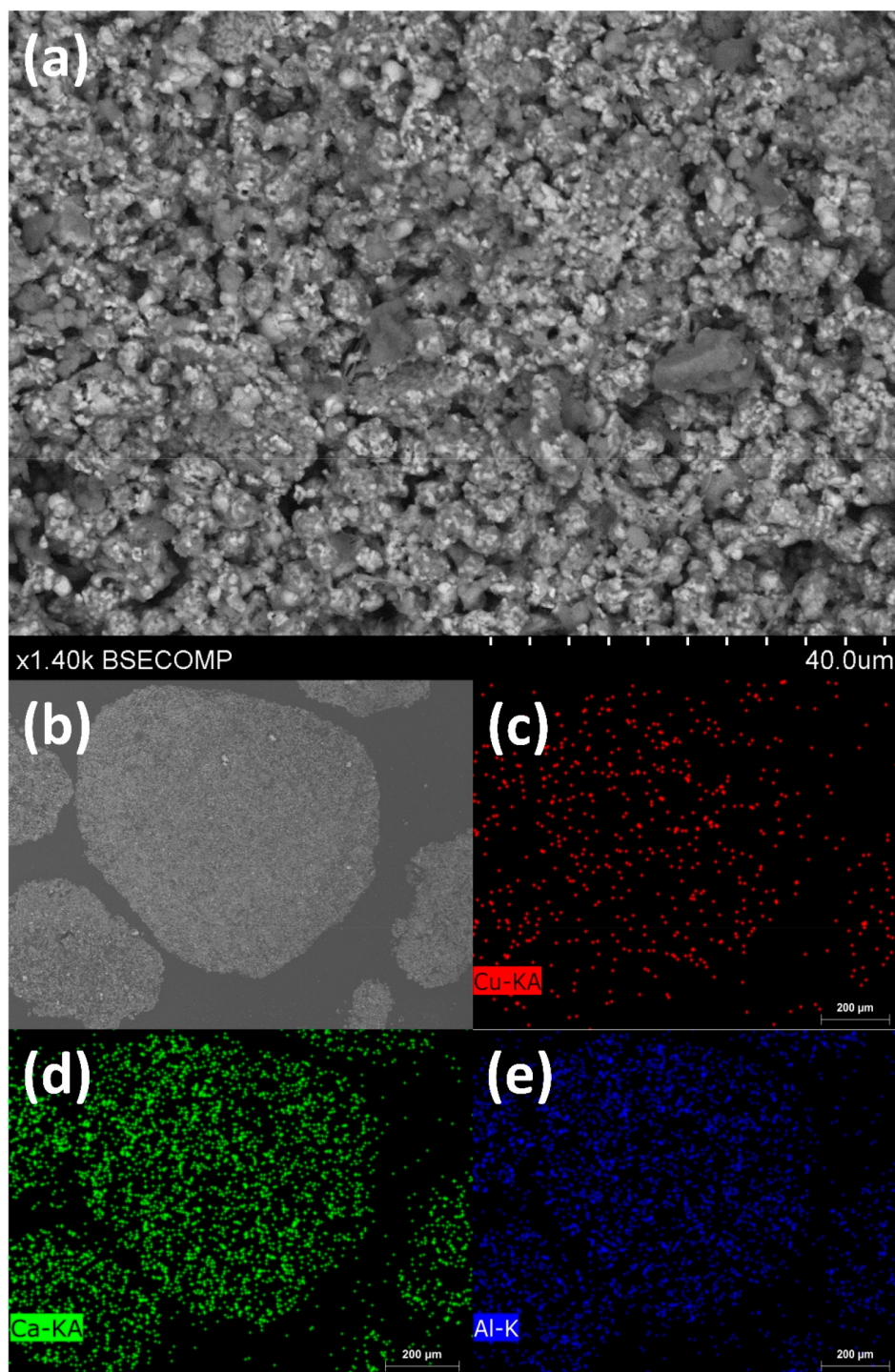


Figure 3. (a) SEM of the particle surface. (b)–(e) Cross-sectional SEM image and EDX mapping of the agglomerate before reactor testing. Cu, Ca, and Al show an even dispersion throughout the agglomerate sample with slight indications of Cu clustering (light gray) areas in (b).

584 wt % (14.8 g CO₂/100 g) for the third cycle. This corresponds
585 to 95.4%, 98.0%, and 96.7% carbonation of the estimated
586 active CO₂ carrying capacity of the TGA tested powder. Based
587 on these values it seems evident that the mass transfer
588 limitations observed in the TGA (Figure 2) for the
589 agglomerates relative to powder are not present at higher
590 pressure using the stated operating conditions. Previous works
591 have reported lower sorption capacity in packed beds as
592 compared to TGA under atmospheric pressure, ascribable to a
593 convective transport through the bed and toward the reactor

exit which makes complete CaO conversion less favor-
594 able.^{49–51} In this work, the pressurized condition resulted in
595 1) high contact time, 2) improved driving force for CO₂
596 transport through the boundary layer and into the particle—
597 resulting in an increased transfer rate, and 3) as an effect of Le
598 Châtelier's principle, a shift in the equilibrium toward CO₂
599 capture—the side of the reaction with lesser gaseous moles—to
600 counterbalance the pressure increase. These factors contribute
601 in making the as-prepared powder CO₂ capture estimate from
602

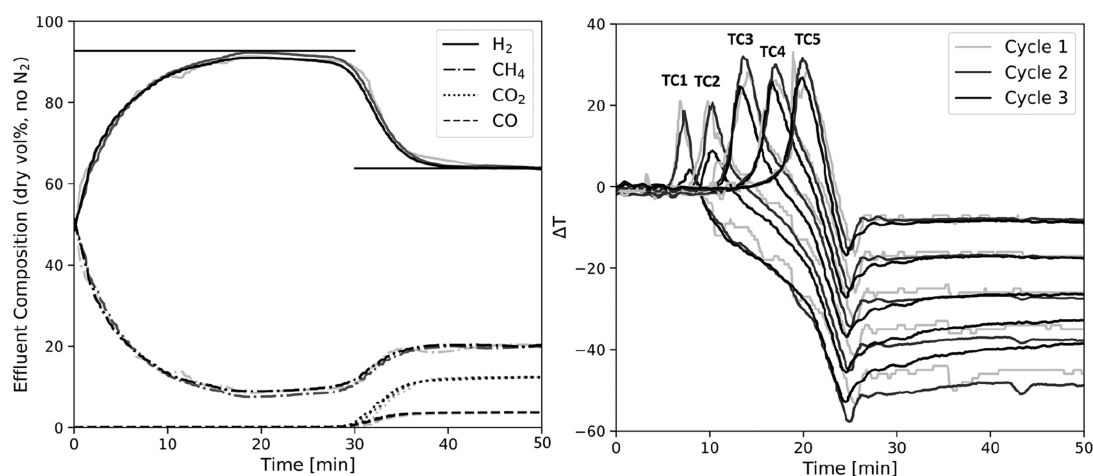


Figure 4. Dry volume percentage measurements (*left*) and thermocouple (TC) temperature difference ΔT [°C] (*right*) as functions of time during the Ca–Cu Looping SER step for the described combined calcium–copper material (0.97–1.0 MPa, 640–660 °C initial temperature, $S/C = 3.15$, $Z = 3.0$, $MHSV_{CH_4} = 2.5 \text{ h}^{-1}$). Solid lines (*left*) illustrate SER and SMR equilibrium (dry) vol % H₂ at the given conditions.

603 the 0.1 MPa TGA test representative of high-pressure sorbent
604 function performance.

605 Considering Figure 4 (*right*), the characteristic heat
606 evolution expected for fixed bed SER operation is clearly
607 observed. A hot front moves down the vertical reactor, evident
608 through the transient development of temperature profiles for
609 the TC1–TC5 thermocouples, TC1 being placed 12.5 cm into
610 the 13.1 cm bed of material, closest to the reactor inlet. Using
611 TC1 in the second cycle as an example, a sharp rise in
612 temperature occurs when CO₂ from the SMR reaction system
613 carbonates CaO. The TC1 temperature reaches a peak value
614 followed by a decline. At this point the active sorbent material
615 at the TC1 position is carbonated, and the endothermic SMR
616 reaction causes the observed drop in temperature. When the
617 CaO at position TC1 in the reactor is partially to fully
618 carbonated, the temperature at TC2, the position 2.5 cm
619 further down the reactor bed, has started increasing due to
620 CO₂ generation and sorption moving further down the vertical
621 bed. The highest temperature peak, $\Delta T = 30 \text{ °C}$ (690 °C),
622 occurred in the middle of the reactor. This is reasonable as the
623 center part of the reactor is best shielded from heat loss, and
624 heat is transported downstream through convection and
625 conduction. Once the active CaO in the reactor is carbonated,
626 the SMR reaction causes a global decline in temperature (25
627 min mark). At this point, the set point in the control TC drops
628 below 625 °C, and power is sent to the heating wire. The
629 combination of reactor heating and endothermic SMR/WGS
630 reaction results in rather constant temperature profiles from
631 minute 30 and onward.

632 The measured temperatures in the second cycle are slightly
633 higher than those of the first cycle. This behavior is expected
634 and can be observed in the CO₂ capacity data reported in
635 Figure 2, where the CO₂ capacity increases from TGA Cycle 1
636 to TGA Cycle 2. An interesting observation is that the
637 calculated sorption capacity for Cycle 3 is higher than that of
638 Cycle 1, lower than that of Cycle 2, and at the same time
639 exhibits a noticeable decrease in maximum temperature
640 relative to the other two cycles, particularly in the upper
641 portion of the bed (TC1 and TC2). The TC3, TC4, and TC5
642 peak values for Cycle 3 are comparable to those of the first two
643 cycles. The lower temperature at the bed center during Cycle 3

could be due to the lower temperature upstream, i.e., less 644
645 energy has been transported down the bed of solids.

646 Observed temperature is proportional to the rate of CaO 646
647 carbonation. Given that the initial bed temperature, feed 647
648 composition, flow, and pressure were the same for all cycles, 648
649 this temperature profile behavior can be explained by a 649
650 reduced rate of reaction through a lower CO₂ gas 650
651 concentration, a lower active mass of CaO (sorbent 651
652 deactivation), or both. Comparing Figure 4 (*left*) in 652
653 combination with the carbon balance, one would not 653
654 immediately expect a significant decrease in peak ΔT values 654
655 for TC1 and TC2 in Cycle 3 relative to the other two cycles 655
656 as the CO₂ carrying capacity is retained. A lowered CO₂ 656
657 concentration in the top part of the solids bed due to slight 657
658 catalyst migration with maintained catalytic activity is the most 658
659 plausible explanation for the change in peak temperature for 659
660 TC1 and TC2 in Cycle 3. The first of two arguments for this 660
661 explanation is the rise in temperature of TC1 postbreak- 661
662 through in Figure 4 (*right*) during Cycle 3. At this point, CaO 662
663 is carbonated, and the temperature decreases before the 663
664 temperature at the control TC drops below its set point value 664
665 and the reactor starts providing more heating power. TC1– 665
666 TC5 profiles are all straight post 30 min for Cycles 1 and 2, 666
667 and TC3–TC5 are also straight for Cycle 3 after the 30 min 667
668 mark. However, after the 30 min mark for Cycle 3, TC1 668
669 temperature is increasing. This is indicative of reduced SMR 669
670 activity in the top part of the reactor bed—the same power 670
671 input at TC1 in Cycle 3 produces a larger rate of temperature 671
672 increase relative to the first two cycles. Lowered CO₂ 672
673 generation at the TC1 position in the bed would also explain 673
674 the 0.2 g CO₂/100 g drop in CO₂ capacity from Cycle 2 to 3 as 674
675 well as the decrease in dry vol % dry H₂ peak value. Incomplete 675
676 carbonation at the top portion would decrease the total 676
677 amount of CO₂ taken up, and a lower rate of CO₂ production 677
678 would result in lower peak vol % H₂ registered in the effluent. 678
679 A second argument for catalyst migration was produced when 679
680 emptying the reactor. Combined particles were intact with 680
681 negligible traces of orange dust (reduced Cu), while there was 681
682 a significant amount of black/gray powder alongside the black 682
683 particles (reduced Ni). A slight catalyst migration without 683
684 deactivation and a resulting reduced CO₂ production rate at 684
685 the top portion of the bed explain all observations—SMR 685

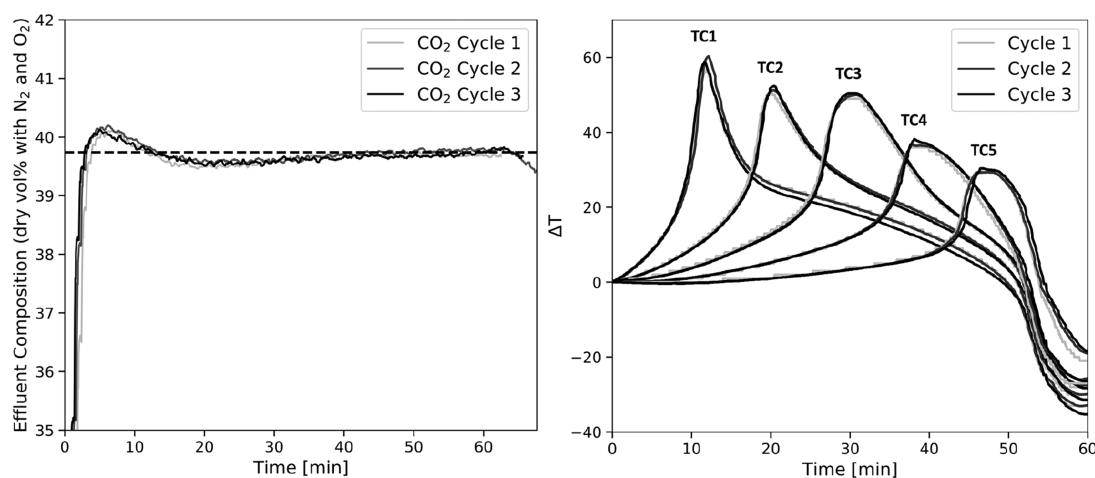


Figure 5. Dry volume percentage measurements (*left*) and thermocouple temperature difference ΔT [°C] (*right*) as functions of time during the Ca–Cu Looping Cu oxidation step for the described combined calcium–copper material. The oxidation was performed at 0.8 MPa, 700–720 °C initial temperature, and diluted air (7.0 vol % O₂). The dashed line (*left*) represents expected CO₂ vol % at full O₂ consumption.

686 equilibrium composition postbreakthrough, the reduction in
687 peak temperature, the retained CO₂ capture capacity for Cycle
688 3, and the slightly lowered dry vol % H₂ maximum in Cycle 3
689 in spite of a higher CO₂ capture capacity than that of Cycle 1.

690 Overall, the presented material performance is comparable
691 to the performance of segregated materials reported by Diez-
692 Martín et al.⁴⁴ for Ca–Cu Looping cycling. The active CaO
693 content is around 12.4 g for both combined and segregated
694 materials tests. There is a difference in peak temperature which
695 is lower in this work (690 °C against 720 °C). This is
696 explained by the $Z < 3.0$ ratio utilized in Diez-Martín et al., the
697 actual $Z = 3.5$ in this work with close to full powder CO₂
698 capacity being obtained, as well as differences in total flow
699 rates. A decline in observed CO₂ capture capacity is reported
700 in Díez-Martín et al., an expected loss of capacity due to the
701 established 20.0 g CO₂/100 g residual sorbent capacity. It is of
702 note that the combined material has a stable carrying capacity
703 of 14.6–15.0 g CO₂/100 g from the first to the third cycle, in
704 contrast to the declining capacity of the segregated sorbent.
705 Based on the presented data, it seems the CO₂ sorption
706 capacity of the combined materials performs similar to that of
707 segregated sorbent particles under the specified conditions.

708 Lastly, it can be noted that, though investigations into
709 governing mechanisms for mass transport (be it convective,
710 intra- or interparticle transport) are out of the scope of this
711 experimental validation work, effectiveness factors ranging
712 from 0.3 to 0.8 (depending on reactant and reaction stage)
713 have been implemented in pseudohomogeneous models able
714 to accurately describe the segregated material process in the
715 same experimental rig.⁴⁴ These are indications that intra-
716 particle diffusion might play a role for the process depending
717 on the selection of processing conditions. This must be further
718 explored in future work, and if intraparticle diffusion plays a
719 significant role, the intraparticle mass transport properties can
720 be improved by, e.g., optimizing the agglomeration procedure.

721 **3.2.2. Oxidation.** Figure 5 depicts measurements of dry
722 volume percent (vol %) composition in the reactor effluent
723 and thermocouple temperatures as functions of time during the
724 Cu oxidation step. The oxidation was performed at 0.8 MPa
725 with initial bed temperatures between 700–720 °C and a 7.0
726 vol % O₂ gas stream, representing diluted air, 37.0 vol % CO₂,

and balance N₂. A plot of temperature profiles in Celsius can
727 be found in the Supporting Information (Figure S2). 728

729 During copper oxidation, O₂ (7.0 vol %), N₂ (56.0 vol %),
730 and CO₂ (37.0 vol %) were fed to the reactor. The expected
731 dry flow with full O₂ conversion is 39.75 vol % CO₂. This value
732 is represented by the dotted line in Figure 5 (*left*). Initial signs
733 of material calcination are indicated by an overshoot (5–15
734 min) of the expected CO₂ vol % value followed by a period of
735 what is interpreted as slow carbonation, indicated by an equal
736 area undershoot (15–40 min). However, the scale of the
737 plotted data should be noted as the overshoot is slight with a
738 0.44 vol % maximum deviation (Cycle 2), and it can for all
739 practical purposes be considered inconsequential.

740 A breakthrough of O₂ can indirectly be observed by a drop
741 in CO₂ concentration after 62.5 min on stream for all cycles.
742 By assuming a fully converted 3.6 NL/h flow of O₂ over 62.5
743 min, a theoretical bed mass of 25.8 g of CuO, or 36.9 wt %
744 CuO, is obtained. This is in good agreement with the 37.6 wt
745 % CuO estimate from powder TGA tests (Table 2). This
746 observation is interesting as it indicates that the oxygen
747 transport properties of the combined material is comparable to
748 that of segregates particles despite being oxidized in the
749 presence of CaCO₃ within the same particle.

750 Based on the thermocouple readings in Figure 5 (*right*), the
751 material oxidation step is reproducible and indicates full
752 oxidation. Like the SER step, the reaction front can be
753 followed by observing the different temperature maxima in
754 time for TC1–TC5. It is of note that the increase in
755 temperature is rather high ($\Delta T = 65$ °C, 771 °C) even with a
756 low flow rate.

757 The excellent temperature reproducibility of oxidation is an
758 argument for slight catalyst migration rather than combined
759 material deactivation (section 3.2.1). The catalyst effect on
760 oxidation is negligible (1.1 wt % NiO), and thus oxidation is
761 not strongly affected by the presence of catalyst. Previous
762 experience with combined material powders has shown that
763 Cu functionality is more susceptible to loss of capacity and
764 deactivation than the sorbent function.³⁹ If the copper
765 functionality is retained, it is thus likely that the sorbent
766 function is also retained.

767 A direct comparison between observed combined material
768 oxygen function versus the segregated material oxygen function

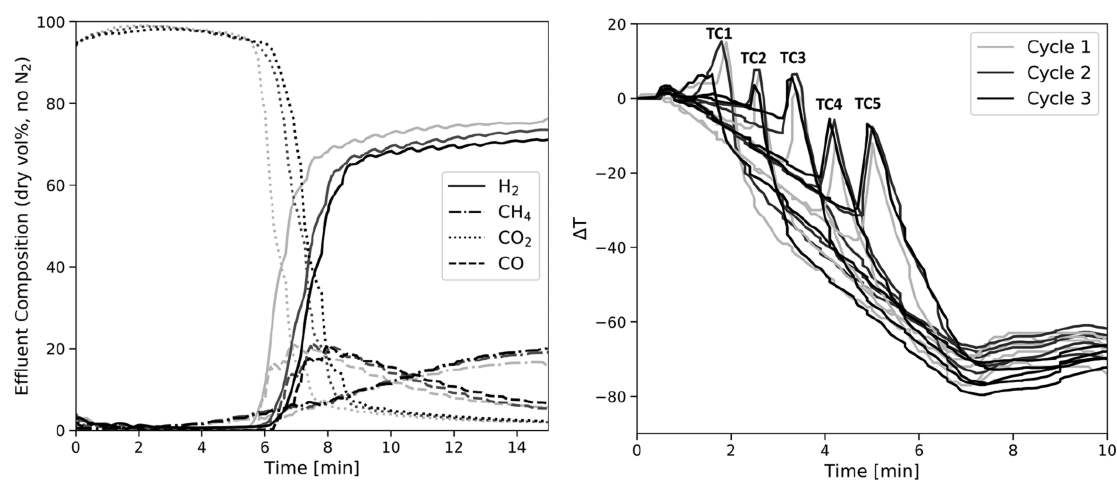


Figure 6. Dry volume percentage measurements (*left*) and thermocouple temperature difference ΔT [$^{\circ}\text{C}$] (*right*) as functions of time during the Ca–Cu Looping Cu calcination step for the described combined calcium–copper material. The reduction was performed at 0.1 MPa and 800–825 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ initial temperature using 27 vol % CH₄ and 66 vol % H₂ (balance N₂).

769 reported in Díez-Martín et al. is not feasible due to differences
770 in the reactor copper content and flow rates. However, the
771 oxidation step duration (60–70 min) and the peak temper-
772 ature (770 $^{\circ}\text{C}$) are comparable, and the general behavior of the
773 combined material is similar to that of segregated particles.

774 **3.2.3. Calcination.** Figure 6 depicts measurements of dry
775 volume percent (vol %) composition in the reactor effluent
776 and thermocouple temperatures as functions of time during the
777 calcination step. The calcination was performed at 0.1 MPa
778 with initial bed temperatures between 800 and 825 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. Prior to
779 sending reducing gases, the reactor set point was changed to
780 700 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (effectively stopping reactor heating) in order to
781 minimize effects that could interfere with the calcination
782 temperature profiles. A plot of temperature profiles in Celsius
783 can be found in the Supporting Information (Figure S3).

784 There is an abrupt change in gas composition once the
785 reducing gas is fed, where close to 100 vol % CO₂ evolves for 3
786 min. CH₄ slip is detected after 3 min of reduction, possibly due
787 to differences in CuO reduction kinetics with CH₄ and H₂.
788 After 7 min, a slow CH₄ breakthrough is observed along with
789 sharp, simultaneous breakthrough curves of H₂ and CO
790 accompanied by a significant drop in CO₂ concentration. The
791 appearance of CO is interesting as only CH₄ and H₂ are fed
792 through the reactor inlet. CO has been documented in several
793 other works involving calcination.^{44,43} The CO concentration
794 has been attributed to SMR/WGS activity and/or CH₄
795 decomposition. It should be mentioned that CO is a potential
796 product of CH₄ oxidation as well. However, the simplest
797 explanation can be WGS/SMR activity. Initially there are CH₄
798 and H₂ in the reactor. As CaCO₃ calcines and H₂/CH₄ oxidize,
799 there will be significant amounts of CO₂, H₂O, and H₂. The
800 only CO source is CH₄ oxidation, which is evidently relatively
801 slow, as indicated by the observed CH₄ slip. These are
802 conditions for shift toward CO, and both elemental Cu and Ni
803 are present in the reactor during calcination (catalytic activity).
804 The simultaneous breakthrough of H₂ and CO is a result of
805 CuO reduction as H₂ and CO break through once all CuO is
806 reduced. SMR/WGS is in addition able to explain the drop in
807 CO concentration with time: the CO₂ concentration decreases
808 after ended calcination, and there are no sources of H₂O or
809 CO₂ when there is no more CuO for CH₄/H₂ oxidation,
810 causing fed CH₄/H₂ to reach set point values. This effect and

the details of CO evolution from the calcination step are
fascinating and could be the subjects of a dedicated modeling
study.

A carbon balance on the calcination step results in
calcination efficiencies of 51–64% for Cycle 1 through Cycle
3. This is in good agreement with the expected 62% calcination
efficiency for full carbonation. This observation is consistent
with the 14.6–15.0 g CO₂/100 g sorption capacities from the
SER step that indicate nearly complete carbonation of the
combined material.

Similar to the SER and oxidation steps, a reaction front
moves through the bed (Figure 6 (*right*)). A peak temperature
due to CuO reduction is closely followed by a marked drop in
temperature due to endothermic CaCO₃ calcination. The
temperature profiles level out after dropping 80 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. At this
point the main portion of calcination is over, the control
thermocouple temperature drops below 700 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, and power
input from the reactor heating wire prevents further decline in
bed temperature. The temperature profile during calcination is
highly reproducible across three cycles, with a similar step
duration of 5–6 min in the main portion of the bed. A
maximum temperature of 816–820 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ is attained for all cycles.

A 40 wt % CuO loaded combined material prepared using
CuO powder has been exposed to three Ca–Cu Looping tests
similar to those described here for the Cu(OH)₂ prepared
combined material in sections 3.2.1–3.2.3 (Supporting
Information, Figures S10–S12). The behavior observed for
both combined materials is similar, a finding that shows that
the obtained results are reproducible for these samples.

**3.3. Characterization of Materials after Reactor
Testing.** A diffraction pattern of agglomerates after reactor
testing is provided in Figure 7. As expected, the phases
identified are CuO, CaO, and Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃. Mixed calcium–
copper CaCu₂O₃ and Ca₂CuO₃ phases observed before cycling
segregate into separate CaO and CuO during testing. There is
limited information on mixed calcium–copper phases in the
literature, but there is evidence suggesting that they are
removed by reduction⁵² and are retained when no reducing
steps are implemented.⁵³ In the performed Ca–Cu Looping
tests, mixed phases seem to disappear after the prerduction
and do not form again during testing in reducing conditions.
There are no traces of the Ni/Al₂O₃ catalyst. Dust and residue

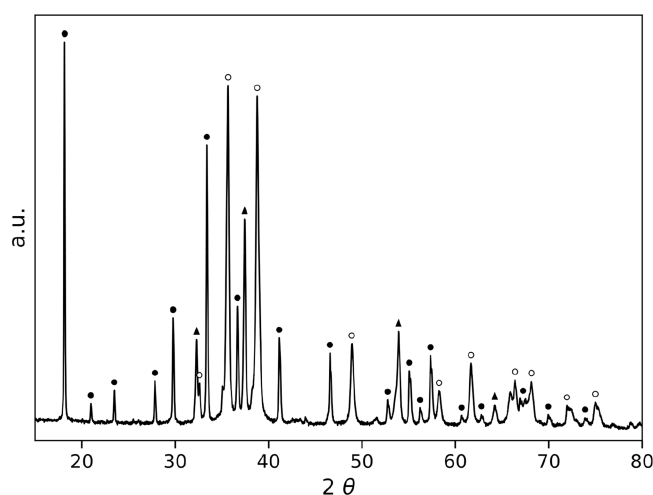


Figure 7. Diffraction pattern for 0.5–0.8 mm combined material agglomerates after reactor testing. All peaks are accounted for and identified as CuO (○), $\text{Ca}_{12}\text{Al}_{14}\text{O}_{33}$ (●), and CaO (▲).

853 of catalyst material were meticulously removed using a magnet
854 after reactor testing. It is therefore not expected that
855 contamination will obscure the reported characterization
856 results, and it is an indication that potential interaction
857 between the combined material and the catalyst is limited.

858 Characterization data after reactor testing are summarized in
859 Table 3. Direct comparisons between data presented in Table

Table 3. Characterization Data for Agglomerates (0.5–0.8 mm) after Reactor Testing^a

	agglomerates
surface area [$\text{m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$]	3.32 ± 0.01
true density [g cm^{-3}]	3.66 ± 0.01
average pore diameter [nm]	152.7
porosity	47.5%
particle density [g cm^{-3}]	1.92

^aTrue density is based on He pycnometry. Porosity, average pore diameter, and particle density are based on Hg intrusion, while surface area is based on N_2 adsorption (BET).

860 2 and Table 3 should be done with caution as the phases are
861 not identical. The particle bulk density is 1.92 after testing and
862 1.70 prior to reactor testing. The BET area is slightly increased
863 (2.2 to $3.3 \text{ m}^2 \text{g}^{-1}$) after the reactor tests, the average pore
864 diameter has decreased (381.4 to 152.7 nm), and the porosity
865 has decreased (53.6 to 47.5%). While all the changes are all
866 relatively small, they indicate that the agglomerates after testing
867 with the CuO, CaO, and $\text{Ca}_{12}\text{Al}_{14}\text{O}_{33}$ phases are slightly
868 denser, with a shift toward lower porosity and smaller average
869 pore size resulting in a net increase in BET surface area.
870 Sintering is in general related to a decrease in surface area. An
871 increase in BET area before and after testing shows that there
872 are no clear signs of sintering.

873 SEM/EDX results after reactor testing are shown in Figure
874 8(a)–(e). The agglomerate surface SEM image in Figure 8(a)
875 is comparable to that of Figure 3(a), yet there are visible
876 changes at the particle surface. The copper appears more
877 spherical after testing, it does not seem to be equally well
878 dispersed, and there are indications of cluster formation
879 (center left). This is expected from laboratory testing of
880 powders. The elemental dispersion on a particle level is still

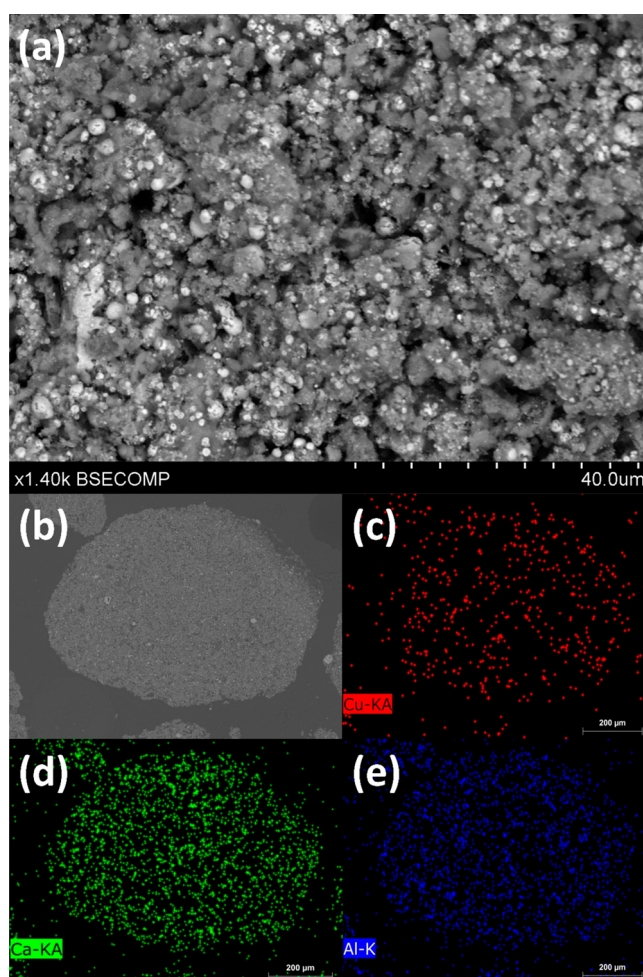


Figure 8. (a) SEM of the agglomerate surface after testing. (b)–(e) Cross-sectional SEM image and EDX mapping of the agglomerate after reactor testing. Cu, Ca, and Al are evenly dispersed throughout the sample. Slight indications of some Cu clustering (light gray) areas in (b) are observed, but no significant migration can be detected.

homogeneous as can be seen from the cross-sectional EDX
881 mappings in Figure 8(b)–(e). No large copper formations are
882 detected, and the characteristic copper migration to the
883 particle surface previously observed for deactivating combined
884 materials is not evident. 885

Characterization of a 40 wt % CuO loaded combined
886 material after testing is provided in the Supporting Information
887 (Figures S4–S9, Tables S1 and S2). The same trends are
888 observed for this material: no mixed calcium–copper phases
889 are identified (CaO, CuO, and $\text{Ca}_{12}\text{Al}_{14}\text{O}_{33}$ only), there is a
890 very slight decrease in porosity and increase in surface area,
891 and there are no pronounced changes in phase dispersion
892 before and after testing. 893

4. CONCLUSIONS

A mayenite based combined calcium–copper material
894 prepared using $\text{Cu}(\text{OH})_2$ as copper(II) oxide precursor has
895 been validated in three full Ca–Cu Looping cycles in a fixed
896 bed reactor. During SER, the combined material was able to
897 capture 14.6 – $15.0 \text{ g CO}_2/100 \text{ g}$, reaching peak hydrogen
898 effluent compositions close to those predicted from equi-
899 librium calculations for all cycles ($\geq 98.2\%$ [vol/vol]). The CO_2
900 capture capacity is in good agreement with the active CaO 901

902 content ($\geq 95.4\%$ [wt/wt]) expected from 0.1 MPa TGA tests
903 of combined material powder. The mass transfer resistance
904 observed for the agglomerates in 0.1 TGA tests relative to
905 powder was not observed under the utilized SER conditions—
906 an indication that both the kinetic and diffusion regimes of
907 CaO carbonation were available for reaction. The sorbent
908 carbon capture capacity was stable from the first cycle. This is
909 an advantage with respect to tailoring the combined material
910 CuO/CaO ratio in future work.

911 The Cu oxidation was complete (36.9 wt % CuO) and in
912 close agreement with 0.1 MPa TGA powder estimates (37.6 wt
913 % CuO). The oxidation of Cu does not seem to be affected by
914 the presence of CaCO₃ under the relevant conditions.
915 Calcination was predictable with a 51–64% calcination
916 efficiency for Cycles 1–3, consistent with the CO₂ capture
917 capacity during SER (62% calcination efficiency expected at
918 full carbonation). CO was observed during calcination. This
919 has primarily been attributed to SMR/WGS activity and shift
920 toward CO. Both the reduction and oxidation steps show high
921 degrees of reproducibility throughout the 3 cycles.

922 Mixed CaCu₂O₃ and Ca₂CuO₃ phases are observed for
923 agglomerates before reactor testing. These segregated into
924 CaO, CuO, and Ca₁₂Al₁₄O₃₃ during testing. There are minor
925 structural changes in the material before and after testing
926 where the porosity is lowered (53.6 to 47.5%), the surface area
927 is increased (2.2 to 3.3 m² g⁻¹), and the average pore diameter
928 is reduced (381.4 to 152.7 nm). There are some signs of Cu
929 migration, as expected from previous work on combined
930 material powders. However, there is still good phase dispersion
931 at the particle level after testing, and the number of Ca–Cu
932 Looping cycles employed is not sufficient for establishing nor
933 rejecting long-term stability of CO₂ and O₂ carrying capacities.
934 Taken together, the validation of the presented combined
935 material has shown good agreement between laboratory
936 characterization (e.g., TGA, XRD) and actual fixed bed reactor
937 behavior under Ca–Cu Looping conditions. The combined
938 material Cu and CaO functions seem to behave like those of
939 segregated particles. These results are promising for the future
940 development of combined materials. The material concept
941 does indeed appear feasible and can be a viable alternative to a
942 segregated materials approach to Ca–Cu Looping in terms of
943 process intensification given the current state of materials
944 development and larger scale demonstrations.

945 Ca–Cu Looping has been experimentally validated in a fixed
946 bed containing about 42 wt % of inert in the combined
947 calcium–copper material. To further enhance the calcination
948 efficiency, the amount of CaO has to be decreased from 20 wt
949 % to 14 wt % (active CuO/CaO = 2.8 [wt/wt]). This will
950 result in an increase of the inert fraction in the combined
951 material to 45.6 wt %—given a maintained CuO loading of 40
952 wt %. For the sake of comparison, in order to achieve the same
953 amount of inert bed fraction per 100.0 g for the segregated
954 materials concept, assuming an oxygen carrier with 60–70 wt
955 % active CuO content,^{43,44} an active CaO content in the range
956 42.9–33.4 wt % (33.6–26.2 g CO₂/100 g stable carrying
957 capacity) is required from the segregated sorbent. When also
958 considering the plausible incremental improvements in CuO
959 loading that can be made in the [40, 50] wt %³⁹ interval, and
960 that incremental improvement in CuO and CaO loading will
961 greatly reduce the inert fraction in the combined material, the
962 experimental validation carried out in this work shows that
963 combined materials are competitive and the concept is
964 attractive for further studies.

Establishment of long-term transient stability of CO₂/O₂ 965
carrying capacities in a fixed bed reactor through multiple Ca– 966
Cu Looping cycles as well as the CuO/CaO ratio and process 967
optimization are challenges that must be addressed for the 968
combined material in future work. Knowledge gained from the 969
presented validation work combined with reactor modeling can 970
be used for achieving these goals. 971

■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT 972

📄 Supporting Information 973

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the 974
ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/acs.iecr.9b02372. 975

Reactor temperature measurements in Celsius for 976
Cu(OH)₂ material, characterization results (X-ray 977
diffraction, N₂ adsorption, He pycnometry, Hg intrusion, 978
SEM, EDX), and Ca–Cu Looping reactor results for 979
combined material prepared using CuO powder (PDF) 980

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