

1 **Nanosilica supported CaO: A regenerable and mechanically hard**
2 **CO₂ sorbent at Ca-looping conditions**

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Abstract

This work presents a CO₂ sorbent that may be synthesized from low-cost and widely available materials following a simple method basically consisting of impregnation of a nanostructured silica support with a saturated solution of calcium nitrate. In a first impregnation stage, the use of a stoichiometric CaO/SiO₂ ratio serves to produce a calcium silicate matrix after calcination. This calcium silicate matrix acts as a thermally stable and mechanically hard support for CaO deposited on it by further impregnation. The CaO-impregnated sorbent exhibits a stable CaO conversion at Ca-looping conditions whose value depends on the CaO wt% deposited on the calcium silicate matrix, which can be increased by successive reimpregnations. A 10wt%CaO impregnated sorbent reaches a stable conversion above 0.6 whereas the stable conversion of a 30wt%CaO impregnated sorbent is around 0.3, which is much larger than the residual conversion of CaO derived from natural limestone (between 0.07 and 0.08). Moreover, particle size distribution measurements of samples predispersed in a liquid and subjected to high energy ultrasonic waves indicate that the CaO-impregnated sorbent has a relatively high mechanical strength as compared to limestone derived CaO.

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8 I. INTRODUCTION

9 Calcium-looping (CaL) technology is emerging as a viable CO₂ capture process based
10 on the carbonation reaction of CaO at high temperature and the subsequent calcination of
11 CaCO₃ to regenerate the sorbent [1–3]. The process has recently been investigated for its
12 implementation in diverse industrial applications such as postcombustion CO₂ capture [4],
13 enhancement of steam methane reforming via precombustion CO₂ capture [5], and storage
14 of thermal energy [6, 7]. Postcombustion CO₂ capture by means of the CaL technology
15 received the highest R&D priority from the Technology Task Force of the European Tech-
16 nology Platform for ZeroEmission Power Plants [8]. Capture efficiencies over 90% have
17 been achieved in pilot-scale plants of up to 1.7 Mw_{th} [9], which raises hopes of scaling up
18 the CaL technology to commercial demonstrations in the near future. In regards to the
19 so-called sorption enhanced steam methane reforming (SE-SMR) process, higher methane
20 to hydrogen conversion and improved energy efficiency are achieved by in-situ capture of
21 CO₂ while steam methane reforming and water gas shift reactions are taking place [5, 10].
22 Commercially available gasification technologies have been integrated with the CO₂ sorption-
23 enhanced watergas shift process for advanced coal-based power plants showing a satisfactory
24 performance [11]. Moreover, a concentrated solar power (CSP) plant concept has been pro-
25 posed which uses the CaL technology for heat transport and storage [7]. Concentrated solar
26 energy is applied to the calciner providing the energy required for decarbonation whereas
27 energy is released and transferred into the carrying air to a gas turbine from the exothermic
28 carbonation between CaO and stored CO₂.

29 While the most suitable material and operating parameters for an optimum performance
30 of SE-SMR and CaL-CSP industrial plants are a subject of current research [7], they appear
31 to be well defined for CO₂ postcombustion capture [2]. In the practical application, CaO
32 particles must react in a fluidized bed reactor (carbonator) with the CO₂ present at low
33 concentrations (around 15% vol) in an inlet stream of flue gas flowing at velocities of a
34 few m/s. After a short residence time the partially carbonated particles are circulated into
35 a second fluidized bed reactor (calciner) to liberate by calcination the captured CO₂ as
36 a pure stream ready for transportation and storage. By taking into account the tradeoff
37 between the reaction equilibrium driving force and its kinetics, carbonation/calcination are
38 carried out at temperatures of around 650°C/900°C, respectively. Concerning the material

39 to be employed as CaO precursor, low cost and widely available natural limestone seems to
40 stand out as the best practical choice for industrial applications [12].

41 Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) experiments demonstrate that carbonation of lime-
42 stone derived CaO particles proceeds along two well differentiated phases. After a first
43 kinetically-controlled fast reaction phase on the surface of the solid follows a much slower
44 reaction, which is controlled by solid-state diffusion of CO₂ through the solid. The fast
45 carbonation stage is ended when a carbonate layer (30-50 nm thick [13]) is developed on the
46 particle's surface. In practice, CaO conversion is limited by short residence times and low
47 CO₂ partial pressure, which mainly constrains it to the fast carbonation phase [14]. Thus,
48 CaO conversion in the CaL technology is critically affected by the sorbent surface area
49 available for fast carbonation, which is progressively reduced by calcination as the number
50 of cycles builds up [13, 15]. As a consequence, fast CaO conversion suffers a particularly
51 marked sharp drop in the first carbonation/calcination cycles converging towards a stable
52 residual value after a large number of cycles of just about 0.07 - 0.08 for natural limestones
53 [16]. Thus, in order to achieve a sustainable capture efficiency, high solids recirculation
54 rates must be imposed while poorly active sorbent is periodically replaced by fresh lime-
55 stone [14]. This brings about significant operating challenges whereas an excessive amount
56 of fresh makeup limestone hampers the thermal efficiency of the process [2, 3, 17]. Enhanc-
57 ing the conversion stability of CaO-based sorbents is thus a current challenge to improve
58 the efficiency of the CaL technology.

59 An active direction of research aimed at the achievement of high and stable CaO con-
60 version at Ca-looping conditions is the modification/synthesis of Ca-based sorbents [18, 19].
61 In this work we analyze the use of silica as a reliable and widely available low-cost material
62 whose use has been already proposed in several works to attenuate the decay of multicyclic
63 CaO conversion. Cheap precursors such as rice husks (of high SiO₂ content) can be used to
64 produce low-cost high purity and high surface area nanosilica by means of simple processes
65 [20–22]. Chen et al. [23] have studied the performance of a synthetic sorbent prepared
66 by mixing rice husk ash with CaO in an aqueous solution. Wu et al. [24] used a sol-gel
67 method to synthesize a nanostructured synthetic sorbent consisting of nano-CaCO₃ particles
68 with an amorphous SiO₂ film. Huang et al. [25] synthesized a composite sorbent from a
69 wet mixture of calcium acetate hydrate and a mesoporous silica molecular sieve SBA-15,
70 which served as a stable framework for CaO to inhibit its deactivation. In a previous work

71 we have shown that CaO conversion is enhanced for a nanosilica/CaO composite derived
72 from calcination of a nanosilica/Ca(OH)₂ dry mixture [26, 27]. Diverse applications have
73 also benefited from the thermal stability provided by nanosilica. Thus, nanosilica has been
74 proposed as a thermally stable support of CO₂-absorbents polyethoxyamine fluids [28] and
75 as additive of molten salts to promote their thermal properties [29]. In a recently reported
76 study, nanosilica derived from rice husks has been employed as a support for catalysts follow-
77 ing an impregnation method, which provides the supported catalyst with a high activity and
78 regenerability [30]. In this paper, we analyze the performance of a synthetic CO₂ sorbent at
79 CaL conditions obtained from impregnation of calcium nitrate on a nanosilica support. The
80 synthetic sorbent is shown to exhibit a stable conversion well above the residual conversion
81 of natural limestones. Furthermore, Particle Size Distribution (PSD) measurements of sam-
82 ples subjected to high energy ultrasonic waves capable of producing particle fragmentation
83 demonstrate that the mechanical strength of the CaO-impregnated sorbent is enhanced as
84 compared to CaO derived from natural limestone.

85 II. MATERIAL PREPARATION AND CHARACTERIZATION

86 Calcium nitrate tetrahydrate (Ca(NO₃)₂·4H₂O from Sigma-Aldrich) and a nanostruc-
87 tured silica powder (commercially available Aerosil® 300 from Evonik) have been used in
88 our work as primary materials. Aerosil®300 is a hydrophilic and amorphous fumed silica
89 (Fig. 1) derived from flame hydrolysis with a reported BET surface area of 300±30 m²/g
90 [31]. Silica nanoparticles are seen to be structured in aggregates of size between tens to
91 hundreds of microns [32]. Even though high purity starting reagents have been employed in
92 our lab-scale research, cheaper alternatives can be found for its potential use in larger scale
93 settings. Low-cost calcium nitrate (commonly found as a tetrahydrate due to air moisture
94 absorption) is in fact employed in a number of large-scale commercial applications. Low-cost
95 nanosilica may be produced by means of simple processes involving cheap precursors (such
96 as rice husks) and is also used in industrial applications as, for example, in the production
97 of concrete mixtures with high compressive strength [21, 33]. For comparison, a high pu-
98 rity natural limestone (99.62wt% CaCO₃, 0.24wt% MgO, 0.08wt% Na₂O, SiO₂ <0.05wt%,
99 Al₂O₃ <0.05wt%) supplied to us by Segura S.L. (Matagallar quarry, Pedrera, Spain) will be
100 used in our study.

101 For preparation, a sample of previously dried nanosilica was impregnated with a satu-
102 rated aqueous solution of calcium nitrate tetrahydrate by means of the incipient wetness
103 impregnation technique (also called capillary impregnation or dry impregnation), which is
104 a commonly used technique for the synthesis of heterogeneous catalysts [34]. During the
105 impregnation process the $\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ solution is drawn into the pores of the nanosilica
106 support. Later on the mixture is heated up to 650°C in air. $\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ melts at 43°C .
107 Above the boiling point at 135°C water is progressively lost until dehydration is completed
108 at about 200°C [35]. $\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ melts at 560°C and subsequent decomposition ($2 \text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2$
109 $\rightarrow 2 \text{CaO} + 4 \text{NO}_2 + \text{O}_2$) occurs in the molten phase [36]. After decomposition, the material
110 was calcined at 900°C . X-ray analysis indicates that CaO reacts with SiO_2 upon calcination
111 to form calcium silicate ($2\text{CaO} + \text{SiO}_2 \rightarrow \text{Ca}_2\text{SiO}_4$). In a first impregnation stage, the
112 amount of calcium nitrate to be impregnated on the SiO_2 support was calculated as to bal-
113 ance the CaO/SiO_2 stoichiometric ratio for formation of calcium silicate. In this first stage, a
114 calcium silicate matrix was thus obtained as the only byproduct as may be seen in the XRD
115 pattern shown in Fig. 2 where only peaks corresponding to Ca_2SiO_4 are distinguishable
116 (sample identified as 0wt% CaO). Multicyclic carbonation/calcination tests (carried out as
117 detailed in the next section) showed that this sample does not have an appreciable CO_2
118 capture capacity at the CaL conditions employed in our TGA tests close to the Ca-looping
119 conditions. Further reimpregnations were thus carried out on this Ca_2SiO_4 matrix, which
120 served to coat it with increasing amounts of CaO . TEM images and selected-area electron
121 diffraction (SAED) analysis (Fig. 3) show that the CaO supported on the calcium silicate
122 matrix has a crystalline structure. XRD patterns obtained for diverse impregnated sorbents
123 are plotted in Fig. 2 for 10, 23, 30, and 40wt% CaO -impregnated sorbents (wt% of CaO cal-
124 culated from the mass of nitrate used for reimpregnation). In accordance with the increasing
125 load of CaO built up on the silicate matrix by successive reimpregnations, the intensity of
126 the CaO peaks in the XRD patterns is increased whereas the silicate peaks intensity remain
127 practically unchanged (Fig. 2). In contact with ambient air, the samples suffered a certain
128 degree of carbonation (peaks of low intensity corresponding to CaCO_3 may be seen in some
129 XRD patterns), which was however negligible if the time period between preparation and
130 testing was short (less than a few hours).

131 SEM micrographs illustrate that the surface texture of the decomposed calcium nitrate
132 on its own (Fig. 4a) is markedly changed when decomposed on the calcium silicate support

133 (Fig. 4b). Higher magnification SEM pictures are illustrated in Fig. 6 showing a uniform
134 layering of CaO on the calcium silicate support. Energy-Dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectra
135 (Fig. 4d) derived from diverse selected areas indicate accordingly that Ca is evenly dis-
136 tributed on the surface of the impregnated sorbent. Since calcium nitrate decomposes in
137 the molten state, the formation of pores is impaired as it progresses to CaO. Accordingly,
138 SEM pictures are indicative of a low porosity sorbent as compared to CaO derived from
139 limestone calcination (Fig. 6). A characteristic feature inferred from our SEM analysis is
140 the development of bottleneck CaO bridges between the impregnated grains resulting from
141 calcium nitrate decomposition in the molten state on the silicate matrix (see Fig. 6). A
142 similar phenomenon has been observed in other materials synthesized by impregnation [37].

143 Figure 4c shows the pore size distributions obtained for decomposed calcium nitrate on
144 its own (BET=0.5 m²/g), and a 20wt%CaO impregnated sorbent (BET=3 m²/g). Pore
145 size distributions of limestone (BET=0.8 m²/g) and CaO (BET=6.2 m²/g) derived from
146 limestone decarbonation (850°C in air for 30 min) are also plotted for comparison. As may be
147 seen, the pore population of decomposed calcium nitrate on its own is rather small and pores
148 smaller than 6 nm are undetectable. The carbonation performance at CaL conditions of CaO
149 derived from calcium nitrate decomposition on its own has been previously investigated by
150 Lu et al. [38] who showed that it has a very low CO₂ capture capacity due to its extremely
151 small porosity upon decomposition as confirmed in our study. In contrast, decomposition of
152 limestone yields a relatively large population of small pores in the range 2-6 nm left behind by
153 CO₂. This provides the resulting CaO skeleton with a high reactivity in a first carbonation
154 as early noted by Barker [15]. On the other hand, even though the porosity of the CaO-
155 impregnated sorbent is increased as compared to that of calcium nitrate decomposed on its
156 own, Fig. 4c shows that the population of small pores remains low. The CaO-impregnated
157 sorbent exhibits however a similar pore distribution to that of CaO derived from limestone
158 in the region of larger pores (> 8nm). In regards to the effect of increasing the CaO wt%
159 by successive reimpregnations, Fig. 5 illustrates a gradual reduction of the impregnated
160 sorbent porosity as the CaO wt% is increased as might have been expected.

161 III. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

162 A. Multicyclic CaO conversion

163 Multicyclic CaO conversion tests have been performed by means of a Q5000IR TG ana-
164 lyzer (TA Instruments). This equipment is provided with an infrared halogen furnace and
165 with a high sensitivity balance ($<0.1 \mu\text{g}$) characterized by a minimum baseline dynamic
166 drift ($<10 \mu\text{g}$). The use of an infrared halogen furnace in our TGA runs allowed us for heat-
167 ing/cooling the sample very quickly (up to $500^\circ/\text{min}$ for linear heating range) overcoming
168 the problem of slow heating rates typically employed in conventional TGA instruments (of
169 about $50^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ or even smaller [39]) that lead to excessively long transitional periods far
170 from Ca-looping conditions in practice.

171 Prior to carbonation/calcination cycles, the sample (around 10 mg) is calcined in-situ in
172 the TG analyzer by increasing the temperature up to 850°C in dry air following a linear
173 heating ramp ($20^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$), which leads to decarbonation if the sample had suffered partial
174 carbonation between preparation and the test. Once the material is preheated, the temper-
175 ature is decreased down to 650°C (cooling rate $300^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$) and the sorbent is subjected to
176 a flow ($100 \text{ cm}^3\text{min}^{-1}$) of a dry gas mixture (85% air/15% CO_2 vol/vol) for carbonation to
177 proceed during 5 minutes. Next, the calcination stage of the cycle is carried out by heating
178 the sorbent up to 850°C (heating rate $300^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$) for 5 minutes in a dry air flow. After
179 calcination, the temperature is again decreased to continue with the carbonation stage of a
180 new cycle.

181 Figure 7 shows data on the multicyclic CaO conversion (ratio of grams of CaO converted
182 to CaO initial) measured for impregnated sorbents and for natural limestone. As may be
183 observed, conversion of limestone derived CaO in the 1st carbonation reaches a high level
184 ($X_1 \simeq 0.74$) as expected from the relatively large population of small pores upon quick
185 decomposition by preheating. Yet, a steep drop of conversion is seen in the next cycles as
186 widely documented in the literature [1]. After 50 cycles, a conversion is reached already
187 close to the residual value measured for natural limestones in a wide variety of conditions
188 ($X_r \simeq 0.07 - 0.08$) [16]. On the other hand, the sorbent impregnated with a 40wt% CaO
189 has a practically stable conversion of about 0.15 from the 1st cycle. As seen in Fig. 7a, a
190 reduction of the CaO wt% below 40% gives rise to a multicyclic behavior characterized by

191 reactivation. The small activity exhibited by the impregnated sorbents in the 1st carbonation
192 can be explained from its low porosity as inferred from physisorption measurements. After
193 the 1st carbonation, the decomposition of the carbonated layer by calcination would yield a
194 porous CaO skeleton which would be prone to sinter during the rest of the calcination stage.
195 However, the observed reactivation suggests that the Ca_2SiO_4 matrix serves to hinder an
196 excessive sintering of this nascent CaO skeleton thus preventing the decay of conversion with
197 the cycle number as typically featured by limestone. Arguably, the stabilizing effect of the
198 Ca_2SiO_4 matrix would be more noticeable as the CaO wt% is decreased. Thus, the porosity
199 of the nascent CaO skeleton (regenerated upon decomposition of the carbonate layer in each
200 cycle) might increase progressively with the cycle number as sintering is more efficiently
201 precluded by the thermally stable support. Conversion is therefore seen to increase with the
202 cycle number until a stable value is reached after about 25 cycles which is close to 0.3 for a
203 CaO wt% between 20 and 30% and is above 0.6 for the 10wt% CaO-impregnated sorbent.
204 Even though the activity of these impregnated sorbents is small in the first cycle, a suitable
205 strategy to increase it would consist of carbonating them before the multicyclic tests are
206 carried out. This is seen in Fig. 7b, where results are shown for an impregnated sorbent
207 preheated in-situ in a 15% CO_2 /85%air gas mixture (vol/vol) causing partial carbonation
208 and rapid decomposition before the start of carbonation/calcination cycles. In this way the
209 initial CaO skeleton (partly derived from decomposition of CaCO_3) is provided with a higher
210 porosity, which leads to a higher conversion in the 1st cycle. Likewise, if the impregnated
211 sorbent is carbonated just by leaving it exposed to ambient air for a long period of time
212 its conversion in the first cycle is seen to be increased up to a value comparable to that of
213 limestone (Fig. 7b). Note that, even though the initial activity of these carbonated sorbents
214 is relatively high, it decays with the cycle number converging to a stable value, which is
215 independent of the pretreatment. This stable residual value would be thus only determined
216 by the stabilizing effect of the silicate support, which is a function of the CaO wt% built up
217 on it by reimpregnation.

218 It is worth noting that the sorbents analyzed in our study have been subjected to mild
219 calcination conditions for regeneration in the multicyclic tests. On other hand, complete
220 decarbonation of limestone in short times under the CO_2 rich atmosphere of the calciner
221 would require application of temperatures above 900°C [1, 40] that would enhance CaO sin-
222 tering [40, 41]. A recent analysis [42] on the decarbonation kinetics of partially carbonated

223 particles ($\sim 15\%$ CaCO_3 as typical for the solids exiting the carbonator) has revealed that,
224 according to practical constraints such as high CO_2 partial pressure in the calciner (50 - 70
225 kPa) and short residence times (2 - 3 min) [43], the calcination temperature can be lowered
226 down to 870 - 880°C. Expectedly, the enhanced thermal stability of the impregnated sor-
227 bents would serve to preserve a high CaO conversion even at high calcination temperatures
228 as opposed to the drastic drop of conversion observed for limestone derived CaO due to
229 enhanced sintering at severe calcination conditions [1, 40].

230 **B. Mechanical strength of the impregnated sorbent**

231 Besides the progressive loss of activity of natural limestone derived CaO, a major issue
232 that besets the CaL technology is that calcined limestone is a rather mechanically fragile
233 material, which leads to high particle attrition rates and sorbent losses by elutriation [1, 40].
234 On the other hand, it is well known that the use of nanosilica as additive is a successful
235 strategy to enhance the compressive strength and abrasion resistance of high performance
236 cement-based materials [21, 33]. In this section we will analyze whether the sorbent synthe-
237 sized in our work using nanosilica is also provided with an enhanced mechanical strength.
238 To this end particle size distributions of CaO samples have been measured using a Mas-
239 tersizer 2000 instrument (Malvern Instruments), which measures particle size by means of
240 laser diffractometry of a predispersed sample. Usually, predispersion is carried out in this
241 instrument in-situ by subjecting the dry powder to a high-velocity air jet before the sample
242 is driven into the measuring cell. Figure 8a shows the particle size distribution (PSD av-
243 eraged on three independent tests showing low variability) of CaO derived from limestone
244 calcination and predispersed using an air dispersive pressure of 0.1 bar, which generates air
245 jet velocities of around 10 m/s [44]. As may be seen, large particles resisting mechanical
246 impacts in the predispersion unit can be still detected in the measuring cell. Alternatively,
247 sample predispersion may be carried out prior to PSDs measurements in a liquid, which is
248 a more convenient method if only small amounts of material are available for testing as for
249 the CaO-impregnated sorbent synthesized in our study. The wet sample predispersion unit
250 employed in our work was the Hydro 2000S, which comprises an electric motor that drives a
251 stirrer and impeller in the dispersion tank to provide a simultaneous stirring and pumping
252 action that moves the agitated sample via the sample tubing to the cell located in the optical

253 bench. In our work, a synthetic sorbent sample (2.5 g) was dispersed in 2-propanol (100
254 ml). This concentration has been chosen as recommended by the international standard for
255 laser diffraction measurements ISO 14887. According also to this standard, 2-propanol has
256 been selected as a suitable dispersant for Ca-based particles to ensure the solid not to be
257 dissolved or chemically react with the liquid. The PSD obtained for the CaO-impregnated
258 sorbent is shown in Fig. 8b.

259 Measuring the PSD of samples predispersed in a liquid and subjected to high energy
260 ultrasonic irradiation may be useful to infer information on the mechanical strength of the
261 solids [45]. Intense acoustic waves cause fragmentation of solid particles by their interaction
262 with collapsing cavities in the liquid [46]. Fragmentation of CaCO_3 particles suspended
263 in a liquid and subjected to high energy ultrasonic irradiation has been recently observed
264 in-situ by high speed photography [47]. Figure 8 shows the PSDs of limestone derived
265 CaO and CaO-impregnated sorbent samples predispersed in 2-propanol and subjected to
266 ultrasonic irradiation (150 W, 40 kHz for 10 min). Since laser diffraction is a volume-based
267 technique, the dynamic range covered is quite broad (between 0.02 and 2000 μm), which
268 allows detecting big particles as well as fine fragments resulting from attrition [48]. As may
269 be seen in Fig. 8, high energy ultrasonic irradiation causes an extensive generation of fine
270 fragments for limestone derived CaO (the average particle size is decreased from 56 μm down
271 to 4 μm), which is consistent with the markedly fragmentation pattern generally reported
272 for calcined limestones subjected to high impact loading and conforming to a disintegration
273 failure mode [49]. In the case of the CaO-impregnated sorbent, ultrasonic irradiation yields
274 also a reduction of particle size but to a lesser extent (the average particle size is decreased
275 from 82 μm down to 32 μm). Fracture of brittle materials is due to the presence of randomly
276 distributed flaws or cracks in the solid [50, 51]. The strength of a given particle is thus
277 determined by the weakest flaws/crack and depends on the particle size. Assuming that
278 flaws/cracks are randomly distributed on the solid with a constant density per unit volume,
279 their number is expected to increase as particle size is increased. Thus, the energy required
280 to fracture a particle is generally a decreasing function of particle size [50, 51]. Taking into
281 account the larger average size of the particles in the CaO-impregnated sorbent as compared
282 to limestone derived CaO particles as well as the significantly smaller degree of particle size
283 reduction by ultrasonic irradiation, it may be concluded that the CaO-impregnated sorbent
284 particles have a relatively higher resistance to fragmentation. Arguably, strong chemical

285 bonds due to the formation of calcium silicate as well as the physical nanostructure of the
286 silica matrix would be responsible for providing the sorbent with an enhanced mechanical
287 strength, which would bring about an added benefit to the use of this synthetic sorbent in
288 the CaL technology.

289 IV. CONCLUSIONS

290 In this study a synthetic CO₂ sorbent is presented which may be obtained from low-cost
291 and widely available materials and is prepared by a simple process based on incipient wetness
292 impregnation technique. In a first stage of the preparation process, a nanostructured silica
293 matrix is impregnated with a saturated solution of calcium nitrate at the stoichiometric
294 ratio necessary to produce calcium silicate after calcination. In a second stage, the calcium
295 silicate matrix is further reimpregnated. Decomposition of calcium nitrate in the molten
296 state yields an evenly distributed CaO layer on the thermally stable calcium silicate matrix.
297 As a result, sintering of CaO in the calcination stage of the carbonation/calcination cycles is
298 hindered. In contrast with the drastic decay of (limestone derived) CaO conversion with the
299 number of carbonation/calcination cycles, the conversion of the impregnated sorbent either
300 remains stable or is increased with the cycle number reaching a high residual value that
301 depends on the CaO wt%. For a CaO wt% between 20 and 30%, the residual conversion is
302 close to 0.3, which is well above the residual conversion of natural limestone derived CaO
303 (between 0.07 and 0.08). High values of initial conversion comparable to that of limestone
304 derived CaO may be achieved by precarbonating the impregnated sorbent. In this case
305 the calcium silicate matrix mitigates the rate of conversion decay with the cycle number
306 converging towards a stable value similar to that of impregnated samples not subjected
307 to precarbonation. Besides of the improved thermal stability, the impregnated sorbent is
308 provided with a high mechanical strength as inferred from measurements of the particle
309 size distribution of samples predispersed in a liquid and subjected to high energy ultrasonic
310 irradiation. These measurements indicate a relatively high resistance to attrition of the CaO-
311 impregnated particles as compared to natural limestone derived CaO for which ultrasonic
312 irradiation generates a considerable population of fine particles caused by fragmentation.

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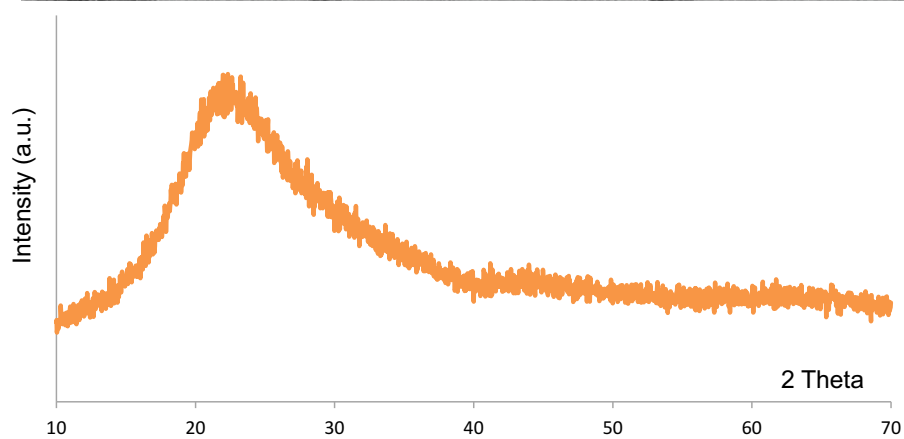
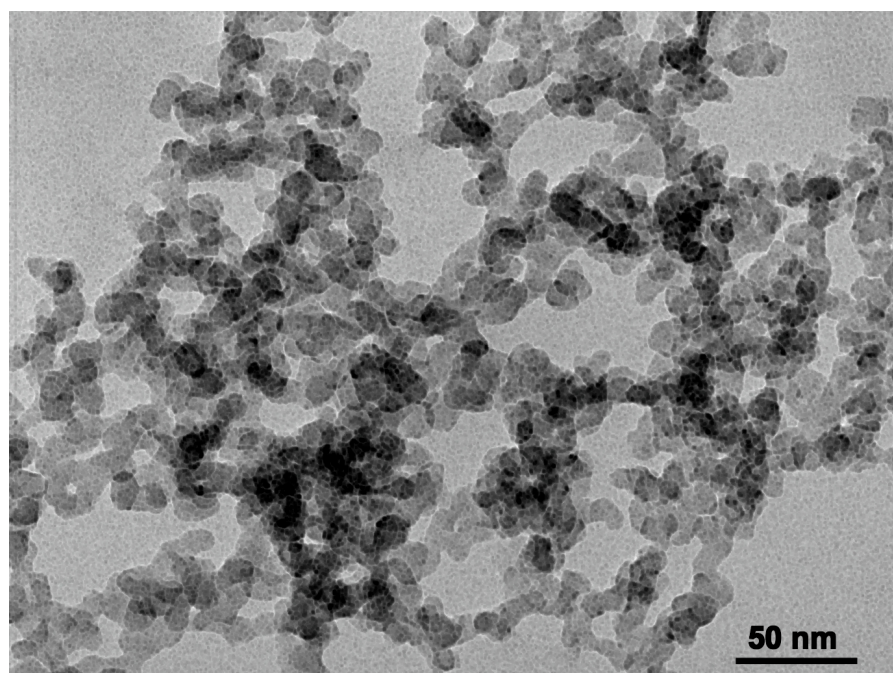


FIG. 1. TEM micrograph (Philips CM200 microscope) of the fumed nanosilica powder used in this work and XRD diagram demonstrating a characteristic amorphous structure.

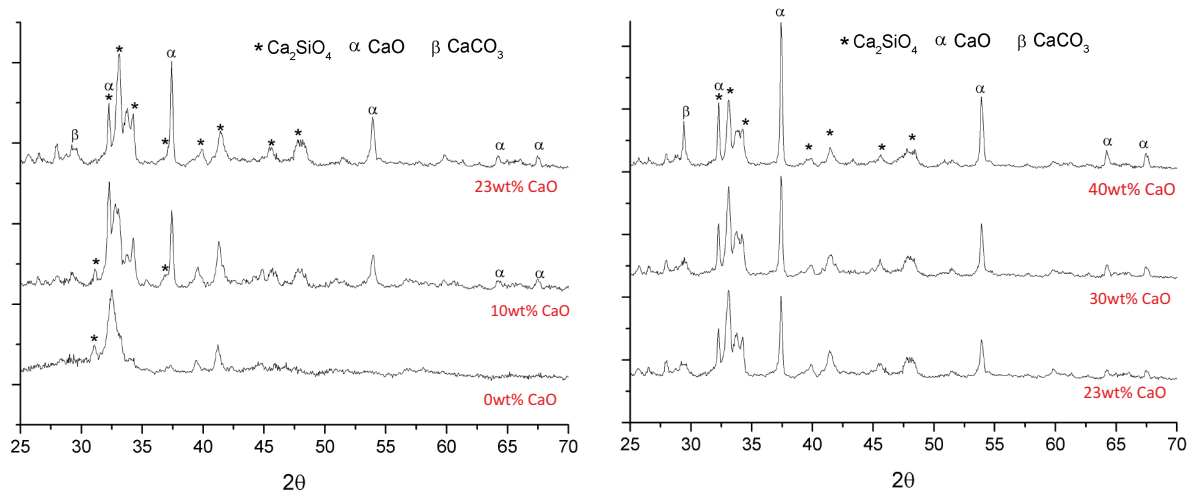


FIG. 2. XRD patterns of sorbent samples obtained just after being synthesized by impregnation of calcium nitrate onto a nanosilica matrix. The 0 wt% CaO case corresponds to a sample prepared using the stoichiometric CaO/SiO₂ ratio to yield only calcium silicate. The wt% of CaO indicated in the other cases corresponds to the weight percentage of CaO built up in excess on the calcium silicate support after subsequent impregnations.

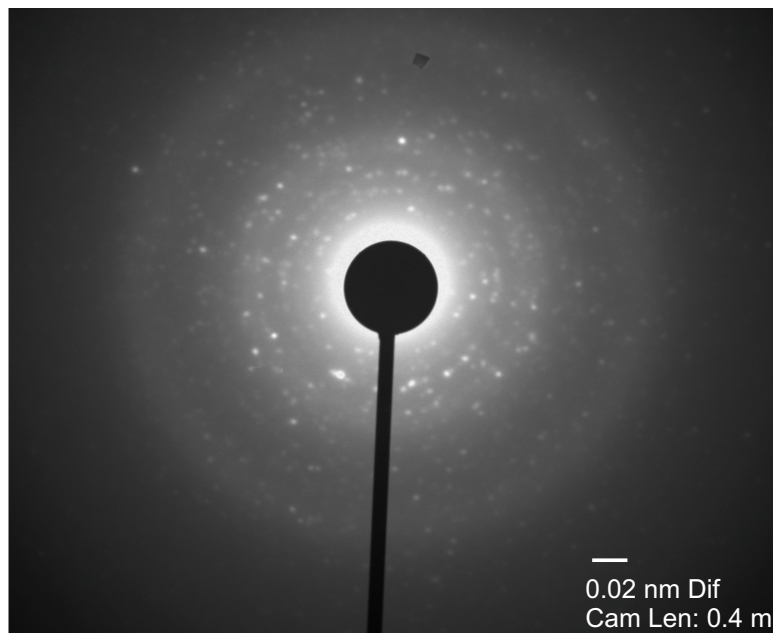
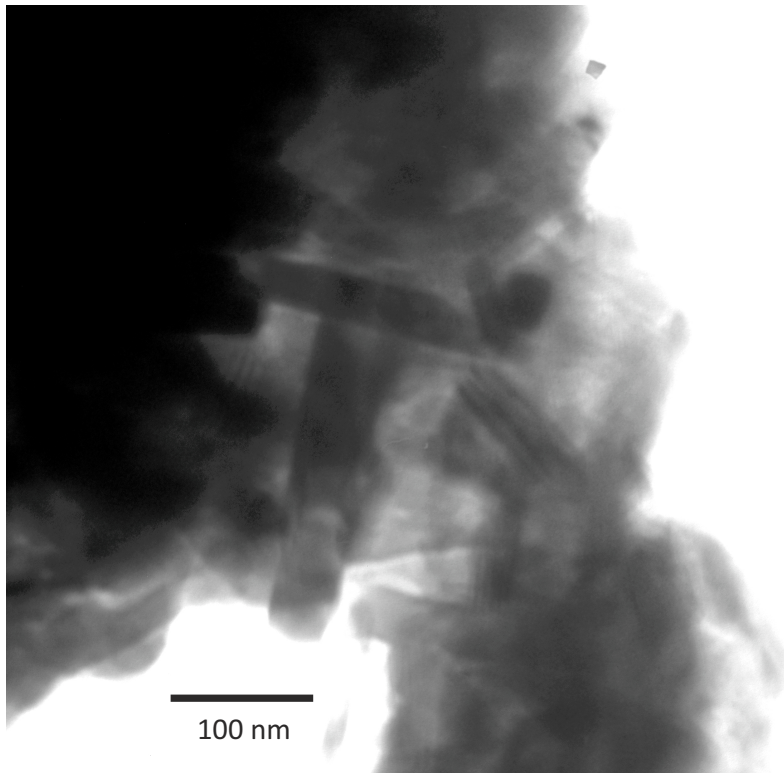


FIG. 3. TEM image and electron diffraction pattern of the 20wt%CaO-impregnated sorbent. Obtained using a H800 Philips microscope.

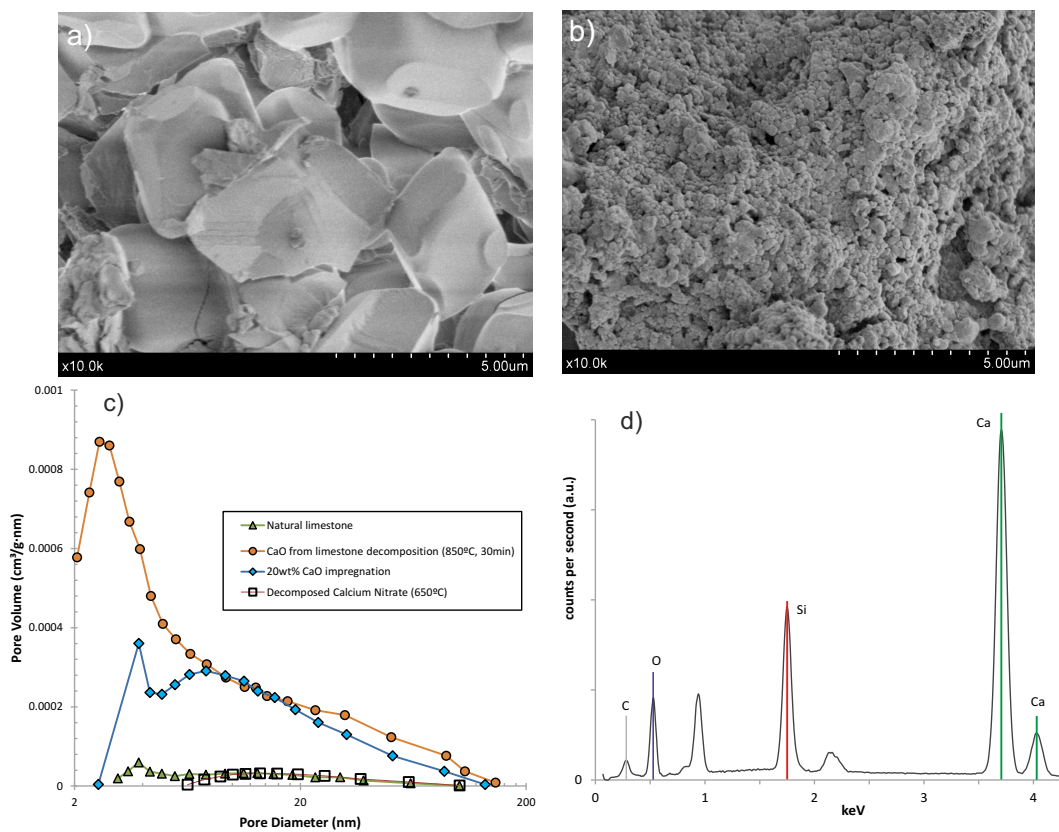


FIG. 4. SEM pictures of decomposed calcium nitrate on its own (a) and decomposed calcium nitrate after impregnation on the calcium silicate matrix (b, 20%wt CaO). c) BJH desorption (dV/dD) pore volume distributions for decomposed calcium nitrate on its own, impregnated sorbent, limestone and CaO from limestone decarbonation. d) Example of Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (EDX) analysis of the impregnated sorbent showing Si, Ca, C and O corresponding to calcium carbonate and calcium silicate (the other peaks correspond to Cu present in the supporting grid). SEM/EDX obtained using a Hitachi S520 microscope. Porosity analysis obtained using a TriStar II 3020 V1.03 analyzer operated by N₂ adsorption at 77 K.

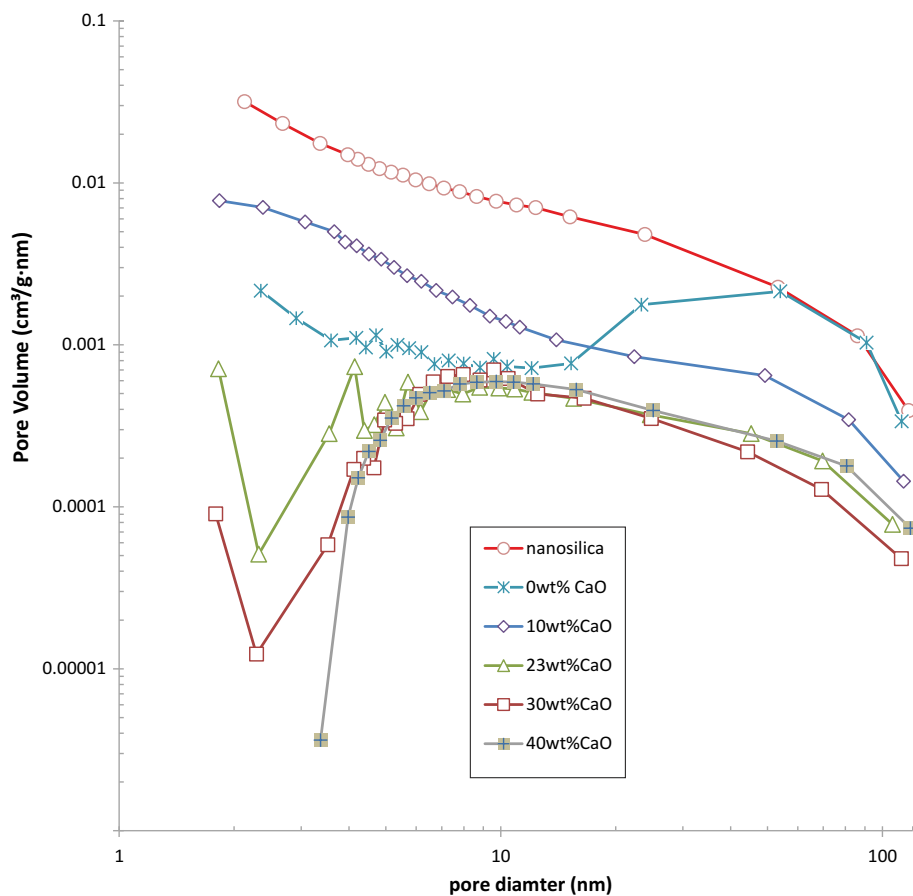


FIG. 5. BJH desorption (dV/dD) pore volume distributions for nanosilica and impregnated sorbents. The 0 wt% CaO case corresponds to a sample prepared using the stoichiometric CaO/SiO₂ ratio to yield only calcium silicate. The wt% of CaO indicated in the other cases corresponds to the weight percentage of CaO built up in excess on the calcium silicate support after subsequent impregnations.

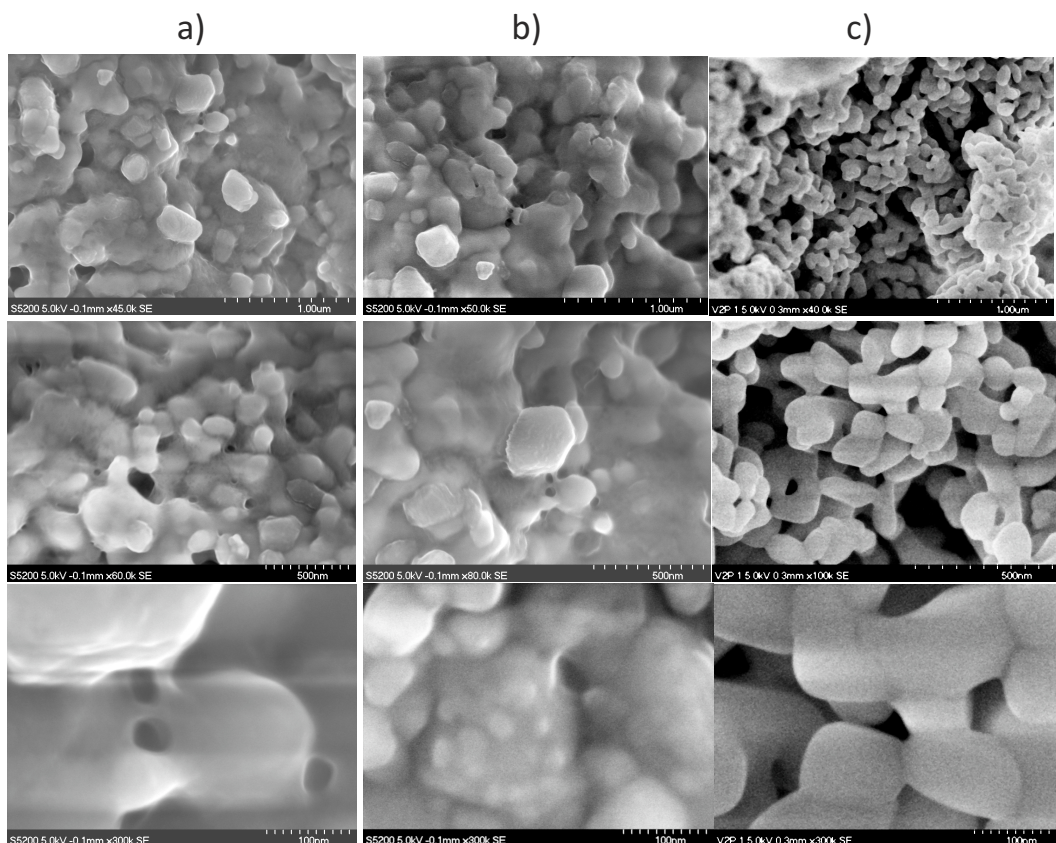


FIG. 6. High magnification SEM pictures of the 20wt%CaO-impregnated sorbent (a and b) and calcined limestone (c). Obtained using a Hitachi S520 microscope.

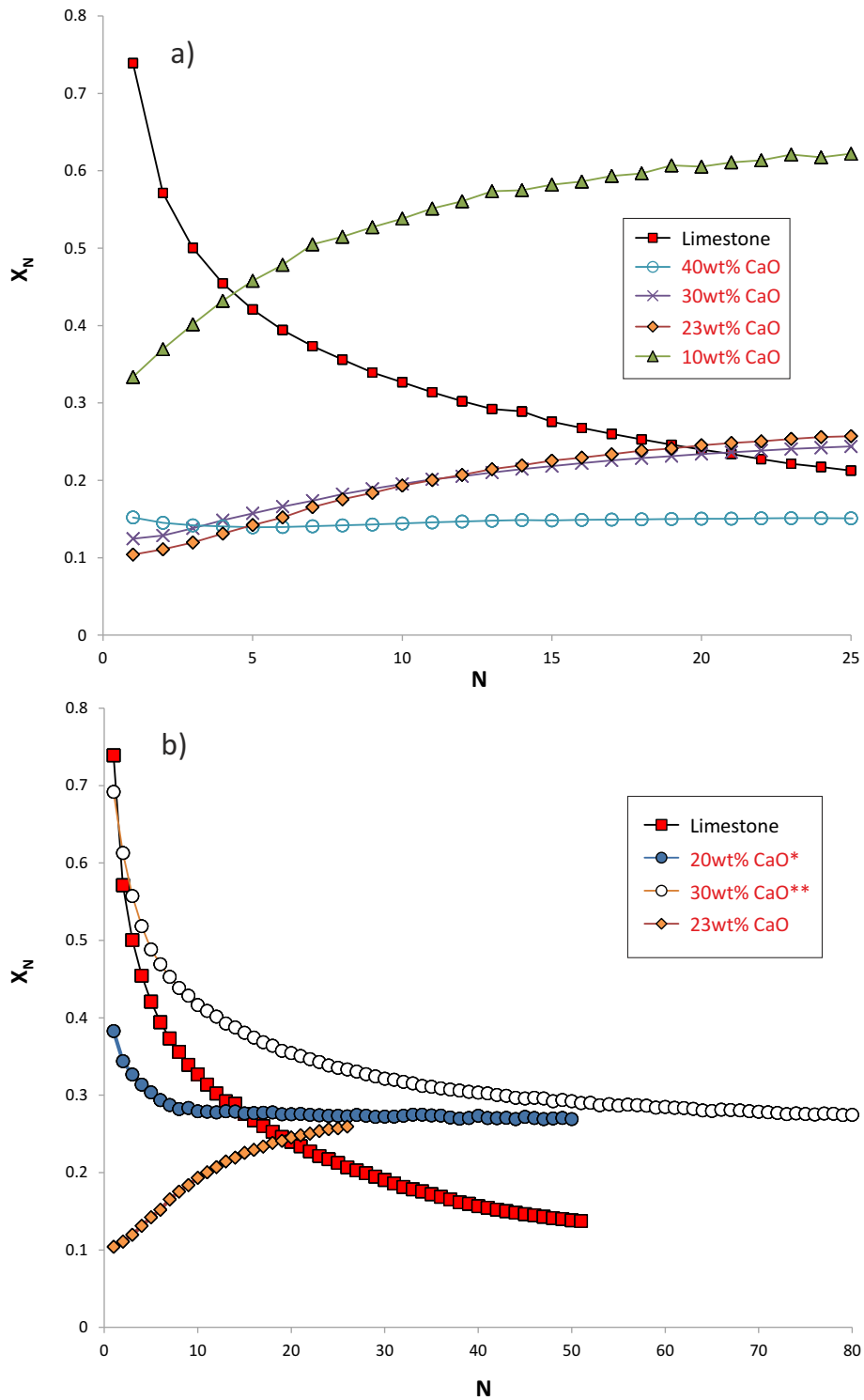


FIG. 7. d) CaO conversion at the end of the 5 min carbonation stage vs. cycle number for the impregnated sorbents (10, 23, 30, and 40wt%CaO) and for natural limestone. Figure b shows results obtained for samples impregnated and thereafter carbonated. 20wt% CaO* is carbonated in-situ by linear preheating in a 15%CO₂/85% air gas mixture. 30wt% CaO** is carbonated by leaving it exposed to ambient air for several weeks.

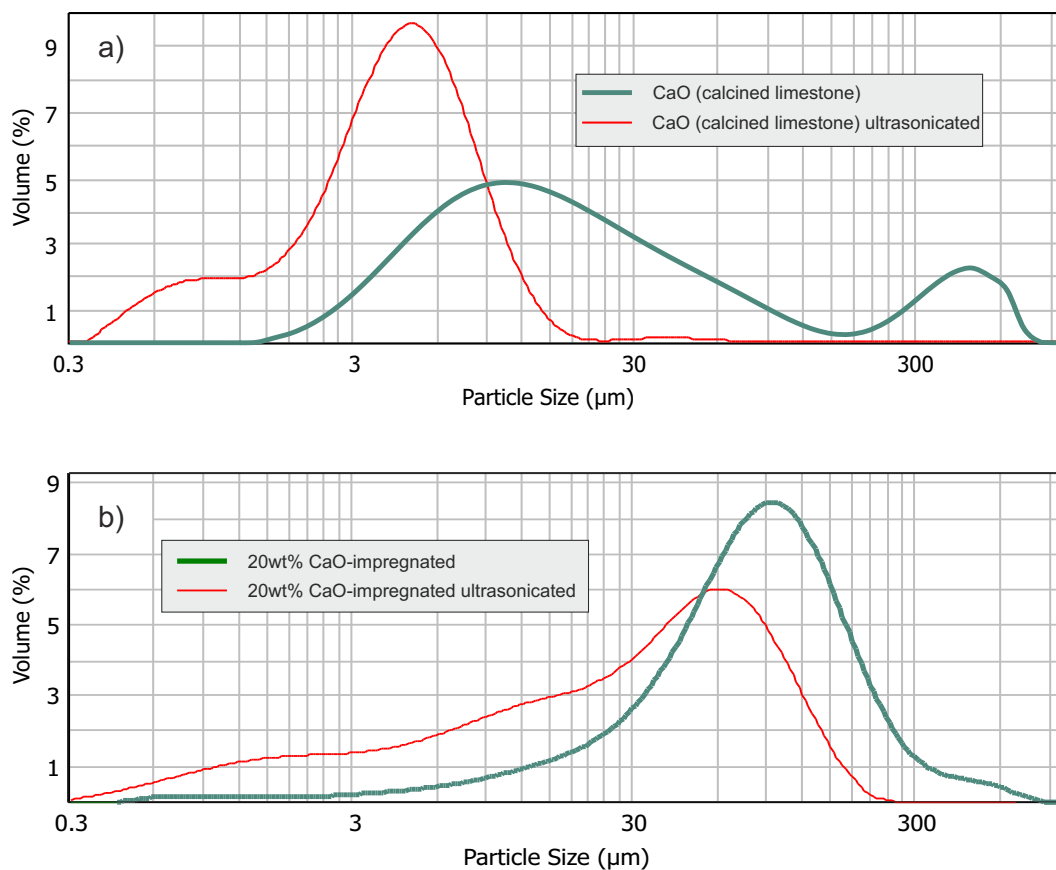


FIG. 8. a) PSDs obtained by laser diffractometry of samples of calcined limestone (dispersed in-situ by a 0.1 bar air jet) and predispersed in 2-propanol where it is subjected to high energy ultrasonic irradiation. b) PSDs of samples of 20wt%CaO-impregnated sorbent (calcined as a final step of its preparation) predispersed in 2-propanol (non subjected and subjected to ultrasonic irradiation).