# Metal oxides for thermochemical energy storage – From gastriggered isothermal cycling to low-temperature applications with increased O<sub>2</sub> pressure

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#### Abstract

Metal oxides providing various, reversibly accessible oxidation states are in the focus as auspicious materials for high-temperature thermochemical energy storage (TCES) materials. Among all principally suitable metal oxides due to equilibrium temperature and, in particular, reaction rate and reversibility, only the couple  $Co_3O_4$  / CoO and to a smaller extend  $Mn_2O_3$  /  $Mn_3O_4$  are considered as suitable candidates. Based on recent studies on isothermal TCES-cycles, the impact of temperature and increased  $O_2$ -pressure on the reaction rate was investigated by varying the  $O_2$ -partial pressure in the low-temperature oxidation of the reduced oxide. Whereas  $Mn_3O_4$  was found to react too slow for a process at lower temperatures, CoO was found suitable. For an increase of the  $O_2$  pressure to 6 bar between 500 – 550 °C an attractive oxidation behavior was observed. At 900 °C  $Co_3O_4$  / CoO could be cycled within 4.5 minutes between both oxidation states by changing the atmosphere from  $N_2$  to  $O_2$  and vice versa.

Keywords: cobalt oxide, manganese oxide, non-ambient pressure, in-situ powder X-Ray diffraction, thermochemical energy storage

# 1. Introduction

The different technologies suitable for thermal energy storage are defined according to the storage process as sensible (Dinker et al., 2015), latent (Zalba et al., 2003) and thermochemical heat storage (Abedin, 2011; Cot-Gores et al., 2012). The latter provides the highest storage densities and has the potential for loss-less storage, once the material was charged. The necessary smaller amounts of material – related to the higher storage densities compared to other techniques, – as well as the enormous applicational flexibility due to the large temperature range being tolerated, are additional advantages of this technique. (Yan, 2015)

The loss-less storage ability of thermochemical energy storage materials (TCES-materials) is an intrinsic feature, as no discharging of the storage occurs in the absence of the reactive gas. The broad operational temperature

profile of TCES-materials is given by the equilibrium temperatures of the applied substance classes. By ranking the materials following to the involved reactive gases such as H<sub>2</sub>O, NH<sub>3</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub> or O<sub>2</sub>, the field of application for TCES-materials ranges from low-temperature storage with temperatures below 100 °C (van Essen et al., 2009; Knoll et al., 2017) (mostly hydrated salts for *e.g.* civil engineering applications as in an energy self-sufficient building) to medium-temperature storage using ammoniates or hydrides and to temperatures between 800-1200 °C (T. Yan, 2015), using carbonates or oxides in combination with *e.g.* concentrating solar power plants. (Pardo et al., 2014)

Oxides suitable for TCES require several stable oxidation states of the metal, reversibly accessible via redoxreactions. During the charging of the storage material the metal is reduced, while discharging in the presence of  $O_2$  leads to a restorage of the (initial) higher oxidation state (see equation 1).

$$M_{x}O_{y+n} + \Delta H \leftrightarrow M_{x}O_{y} + \frac{n}{2}O_{2}$$
(1)

Although, metal oxides are investigated with respect to their thermochemical properties since the 80's, only a few suitable oxides are known due to the necessary reversibility of the redox-process. Candidate materials promising for application are the couple  $Co_3O_4$  / CoO, as well as  $Mn_2O_3$  /  $Mn_3O_4$  considering reversibility, toxicity issues, temperature range and reaction time. A variety of studies was reported in particular for the cobalt system, covering cycle stability tests (Agrafiotis et al., 2014), composite materials, (Agrafiotis et al., 2016a), (Agrafiotis et al., 2015a; 2015b; Karagiannakis et al., 2016) materials optimization via spinel-phases (Babiniec et al., 2015; Block et al., 2014; LiuPrewitt, 1990), mechanical stress (Karagiannakis et al., 2016), etc. Although,  $Mn_2O_3$  is also widely known for TCES purposes, (Carrillo, A. J. et al., 2014) due to the slower reaction kinetics, (Alonso et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2013) as well as the minor performance compared to the cobalt-system. Most efforts focussed on the dotation of  $Mn_2O_3$  with iron (Carrillo, A. J. et al., 2015; Wokon et al., 2017), forming perovskites, or the combination with  $Co_3O_4$  for a combined system. (Agrafiotis et al., 2016b)

Theoretically suitable metal oxides such as ZnO, (Palumbo, 2001) Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> or V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> feature equilibrium temperatures well above 1500 °C (Pardo et al., 2014), hampering both their routine investigation for storage processes, and their combination with conventional concentrating solar power plants. In order to expand the portfolio of redox-TCES materials, experimental approaches combining TCES with syngas production (Muthusamy et al., 2014), or the application of peroxide / oxide reactions (Carrillo, A. J. et al., 2016) were reported for energy storage in literature.

Apart from their potential of bridging non-operational times in concentrating power plants, the interest in oxidic TCES-materials relates mainly to their high storage density. Recently we could demonstrate (Müller et al., 2017), that between 830 - 930 °C a regime of coexistence between CoO and Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, depending on the O<sub>2</sub>-concentration, allows for isothermal TCES-cycles. Moreover, both CoO and  $Mn_3O_4$  start oxidation under O<sub>2</sub>-atmosphere already below 500 °C. Materials of high storage densities would be highly appreciated for applications around these temperatures. To enhance the reaction rate and obtain a material, which would combine fast reaction rates with high energy densities and a broad perspective of applicability, in the present study the impact of temperature on the isothermal redox-cycle, and the effect of an increased oxygen partial pressure on the oxidation rate was investigated by an *in-situ* powder diffraction (P-XRD) study.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1 Material

Cobalt(II,III) oxide (99.995%), cobalt(II) oxide (99.99%), manganese(IV) oxide (99.99%) and manganese(II, III) oxide (97%) were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich and used as supplied.

#### 2.2 X-Ray Powder Diffraction

The powder X-ray diffraction measurements were carried out on a PANalytical X'Pert Pro diffractometer in Bragg-Brentano geometry using Cu  $K_{\alpha 1,2}$  radiation and an X'Celerator linear detector with a Ni-filter. For *in-situ* 

experiments at elevated pressures an Anton Paar XRK 900 reaction chamber, operable between ambient pressure and 12 bar was used. The sample was mounted on a hollow ceramic powder sample holder, allowing for complete perfusion of the sample with the reactive gas. The sample temperature is controlled directly via a NiCr-NiAl thermocouple and direct environmental heating. For the *in-situ* experiments at ambient pressure an Anton Paar HTK 1200N sample chamber was used. The sample temperature is controlled via a Pt 10 % RhPt thermocouple and direct environmental heating. The diffractograms were evaluated using the PANalytical program suite HighScorePlus v4.6a. (Degen et al., 2014) A background correction and a  $K_{\alpha 2}$  strip were performed. Phase assignment is based on the ICDD-PDF4+ database ((http://www.icdd.com), the exact phase composition, shown in the conversion plots, was obtained via Rietveld-refinement incorporated in the program suite HighScorePlus v4.6a. (Degen et al., 2014) All quantifications based on P-XRD are accurate within of  $\pm 5$  %.

### 2.3 Thermal Analysis

For thermal analysis of the redox-reactions a Netzsch TGA/DSC 449 C Jupiter  $\mathbb{R}$  equipped with a water vapour furnace including an air-cooled double jacket was used. The oven operates between 25 °C and 1250 °C, regulated by an S-type thermocouple. Oxygen and nitrogen gases were 99.999 % and obtained from Messer. For all measurements under air a mixture of 21 % O<sub>2</sub> and 79 % N<sub>2</sub> was applied. The gas flow was set to 25 ml min<sup>-1</sup>, controlled and mixed with Vögtlin Instruments "red-y" mass flow controllers. A sample mass of 20 mg in an open Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> crucible was used for all experiments with heating and cooling rates of 10 °C min<sup>-1</sup>. The DSC was calibrated according to the procedure suggested by Netzsch, using the In, Sn, Bi, Zn, Al and Ag standards provided by the manufacturer.

### 2.4 Scanning Electron Microscopy

SEM images were recorded on gold coated samples with a Quanta 200 SEM instrument from FEI under low-vacuum at a water vapor pressure of 80 Pa to prevent electrostatic charging.

## 3. Results and Discussion

### 3.1 Isothermal oxidation of CoO triggered by variation of the reactive gas

Based on the previously identified window of coexistence between CoO and Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, selected temperatures between 880 °C and 920 °C were chosen to determine the reaction rate by isothermal thermogravimetry / differential scanning calorimetry (TG / DSC). The isothermal reduction of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> under N<sub>2</sub> with subsequent oxidation by changing the atmosphere to  $O_2^*$  was investigated at five temperature levels for each two cycles (figure 1).

 $<sup>^*</sup>$  The redox-reaction of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> under gas-change conditions was confirmed to be highly comparable for 20 consecutive cycles (figure S1).



Fig. 1: TG / DSC of isothermal redox-cycles of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>, triggered by variation of the atmosphere at 880, 890, 900, 910 and 920 °C. Reduction occurs under N<sub>2</sub>-atmosphere, oxidation under O<sub>2</sub>-atmosphere.

The averaged reaction times for reduction and oxidation, obtained from figure 1, are given in table 1.

Tab. 1: Average reaction times for isotherma	reduction of Co <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub> (under N <sub>2</sub> ) and oxidation o	of CoO (under O <sub>2</sub> ), calculated from the				
differential scanning calorimetry data						

	880 °C	890 °C	900 °C	910 °C	920 °C
Oxidation [min]	$3.92\pm0.40$	$3.35\pm 0.03$	$4.54\pm0.11$	$4.95\pm0.03$	$6.91\pm0.28$
Reduction [min]	$7.07\pm0.15$	$5.58\pm0.05$	$4.62\pm0.08$	$3.96\pm0.08$	$3.41 \pm 0.19$

Except the spike for the oxidation time at 890 °C, an apparent linear correlation between reaction time and temperature is obtained. The oxidation time doubles with increased isothermal temperature almost nearly over the whole investigated temperature range, whereas the reduction time is exactly halved. Based on the herein obtained results the most suitable temperature for such an isothermal TCES-process is identified with 900 °C, where oxidation and reduction of the material are taking equal times.

The presented isothermal redox-cycling between 880 - 920 °C with the optimum at 900 °C represents a notable improvement regarding the earlier investigations, where oxidation was accomplished within 10.4 minutes at 848 °C and the complete reduction accounted for 23 minutes. (Müller et al., 2017)

### 3.2 Isothermal oxidation of CoO

The second objective of the current study on isothermal redox-reactions for thermochemical energy storage was the combination of low-temperature oxidation of CoO at around 500 °C under increased O<sub>2</sub>-pressure. The isothermal oxidation under varied oxygen contents at ambient pressure was selected as a starting point. In order to compare the reactivity towards O<sub>2</sub> in the desired temperature regime, samples of CoO were oxidized at 500, 520 and 550 °C using an atmosphere with 21 % O<sub>2</sub> (synthetic air) and 100 % O<sub>2</sub>.



Fig. 2: Oxidation rate of CoO at several temperatures and O<sub>2</sub>-concentrations for a) a CoO-sample obtained from thermal decomposition of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> under N<sub>2</sub> b) a commercial CoO sample

A concentrating plot of the different oxidation rates for CoO - obtained from  $Co_3O_4$  by thermal reduction of the material under N<sub>2</sub> at 890 °C for 5 minutes – is shown in figure 2a. Especially for the series at 500 °C a notable difference in oxidation rate between the measurement under air and  $O_2$  is found. The impact of the  $O_2$  concentration with increasing temperature is superimposed by the thermal contribution, leading to a nearly identical oxidation rate observed in the experiments at 520 °C under  $O_2$  and 550 °C under air.

In principle both a  $Co_3O_4$  initially reduced to CoO and a CoO prepared on an industrial scale should be feasible for a Co-based TCES process. For comparison, the same series of oxidation experiments was repeated using a commercial sample of CoO (figure 2b). Interestingly, a completely different picture is observed in this case. The chemically identical sample provides much faster oxidation rates with conversions above 80 % under all applied conditions within the first 15 minutes. The reason for this behavior was found in the SEM-images of both precursors, showing for the  $Co_3O_4$  (figure 3a) large sintered agglomerates, whereas the CoO (figure 3b) consisted of small, isolated particles. The different  $O_2$ -concentrations, as well as the various temperatures, have no impact on the initial particle morphology (see figure S2).



Fig. 3: SEM-images of a) commercial Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> b) commercial CoO. Image size 9 x 9 µm

#### 3.3 Isothermal oxidation of CoO under elevated O<sub>2</sub> pressure

In order to facilitate investigations on the impact of an increased oxygen pressure, which is higher than the atmospheric one,  $Co_3O_4$  that has been *in-situ* reduced under  $N_2$  was used for the experimental approach. Although, the commercial CoO sample would provide faster reaction rates, no reliable results would have been obtained even with a high-end laboratory P-XRD setup.<sup>†</sup>

The oxidation rates for the experiments under ambient pressure, 3 bar and 6 bar  $O_2^{\ddagger}$  are shown in figure 4, which reveals a rate-enhancing effect of the increased  $O_2$  pressure for all three temperature levels. Obviously, the largest influence on the oxidation is observed for 500 °C (figure 4a). By applying 3 bar  $O_2$  the conversion within the first 15 minutes is enhanced about 20 %. 6 bar  $O_2$  result in a quantitative  $Co_3O_4$  formation after 30 minutes, the reaction rate being only slightly faster than for 3 bar.

In case of the series at 520 °C,  $O_2$  oxidation under ambient pressure and 3 bar  $O_2$  reveal only slight differences in the reaction rate. At 6 bar  $O_2$  an increased oxidation within the first 6 minutes leads to quantitative  $Co_3O_4$  formation after 15 minutes. Finally, at 550 °C the temperature increase predominates over the increased pressure, as both 3 bar and 6 bar  $O_2$  yield a complete oxidation - 3 bar after 12 minutes, 6 bar after 8 minutes.



Fig. 4: Oxidation rate of CoO at different pressures and temperatures at a) 500 °C b) 520 °C c) 550 °C

Based on these results a lower oxidation temperature for CoO in a TCES-process seems feasible, increasing the reaction rate by moderately enhanced pressure. For technological processes elevated pressure is always correlated with much higher expenditures regarding the process design. Using only 6 bar  $O_2$  – for all three temperatures yielding a notable enhancement of the conversion rate – may be still worth the efforts aiming for an oxide-based

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup> This limitation – also slightly affecting the accuracy of the phase-determination for the high Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-contents – is attributed to the overlap of significant peaks in the diffractograms of the two Co-phases, as well as the high fluorescence of the Co-containing samples in combination with the available Cu K<sub> $\alpha$ </sub>-radiation (see figure S3). To ensure the data quality, a minimum measurement time of 2 minutes per diffractogram was necessary.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>‡</sup> Although, the used Anton Paar XRK 900 would tolerate pressures up to 12 bar, applying a higher pressure than 6 bar  $O_2$  extends due to radiation absorption and the fluorescence background the measurement time notably, so within one diffractogram the transformation from CoO to  $Co_3O_4$  is completed. For similar measurements under higher pressures a different X-Ray source or a synchrotron would be needed.

medium-temperature TCES-process.

The only drawback of the increased pressure is the promoted sintering of the material, which is already evidenced in the SEM-images of the  $Co_3O_4$  samples, oxidized at 550 °C and various pressures (see figure 5). Nevertheless, this changed particle morphology so far was not found to decrease the reactivity of the material on repeated cycling.



Fig. 5: Particle morphology of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> after oxidation at 550 °C and varied O<sub>2</sub> pressures a) Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> starting material b) ambient pressure c) 3 bar O<sub>2</sub> d) 6 bar O<sub>2</sub>. Image size 9 x 9 μm

## 3.4 Isothermal oxidation of Mn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>

Similar to the study on the isothermal oxidation of CoO, a series was carried out also on  $Mn_3O_4$  which was oxidized at different temperatures (470 °C, 500 °C, 520 °C, 550 °C) and ambient pressure under synthetic air and pure oxygen (figure 6).



Fig. 6: Oxidation rate of Mn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> at various temperatures and O<sub>2</sub>-concentrations for a) a Mn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>-sample obtained from thermal decomposition of MnO<sub>2</sub> under N<sub>2</sub> b) a commercial Mn<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> sample

Similar to the Co-system also for  $Mn_3O_4$  a notable difference between the *in-situ* reduced sample under  $N_2$  (figure 6a) and the commercially obtained  $Mn_3O_4$  (figure 6b) was found. For the freshly reduced  $Mn_3O_4$  at 500 °C under

air within 330 minutes only 62 % of  $Mn_2O_3$  are formed, whereas  $O_2$  enables complete conversion to  $Mn_2O_3$ . Still a notable difference is observed at 550 °C, where both air and  $O_2$  result in complete re-oxidation.

In the case of the commercial  $Mn_3O_4$  a clear trend towards faster oxidation rates, both with increased temperature and O<sub>2</sub>-content is found. Similar to CoO also for  $Mn_3O_4$  temperature increases the oxidation rate more efficiently than a higher O<sub>2</sub> concentration. Comparable oxidation rates in this case are found at 550 °C under air and 520 °C under O<sub>2</sub>.

## 4. Conclusion

In the present study the redox-couple  $Co_3O_4$  / CoO was investigated with respect to an isothermal redox-cycle, triggered by changing the atmosphere from N<sub>2</sub> to O<sub>2</sub> between 880 – 920 °C. A reasonably linear correlation was found between the reduction / oxidation times and the applied temperature. Within the investigated temperature range the best conditions for an isothermal redox-cycle were found at 900 °C, as both reduction and oxidation take place quantitatively within 4.5 minutes. This represents an improvement of the so far reported results on isothermal cycling.

Based on former results an isothermal low-temperature oxidation of CoO between 500-550 °C under increased  $O_2$ -pressure was attempted, allowing for the application (only discharging) of a TCES-material featuring a high energy density at medium-temperatures. Increasing the  $O_2$ -pressure during oxidation from ambient conditions to 6 bar resulted in an attractive increase of reaction rate, discharging the CoO (oxidation to  $Co_3O_4$ ) quantitatively at 500 °C within 24 minutes, at 550 °C within 8 minutes.

Elevated pressures during the oxidation process allow for a shift of the discharging reaction towards lower temperatures. This enables the application of the *per se* attractive high energy density of metal-oxide redox-reactions at temperatures, where they so far could not be operated, as the oxidation (discharging) required higher temperatures. This could be attractive for complementing an existing process with thermochemical energy storage, when pressurized air / oxygen is already available, or when a storage material with high energy density and a fast reaction rate is required at lower temperatures.

 $Mn_3O_4$  was found to be too slow in its oxidation under all investigated conditions to be competitive in comparison to CoO.

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Fig. S1: 20 consecutive redox-cycles of Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> under alternating atmosphere (N<sub>2</sub> vs. O<sub>2</sub>)



Fig. S2: SEM images of different Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> samples after the oxidation in the P-XRD a) CoO after oxidation under air at 500 °C b) CoO after oxidation under air at 550 °C c) CoO after oxidation under O<sub>2</sub> at 500 °C d) CoO after oxidation under O<sub>2</sub> at 550 °C. Image size 9 x 9 μm



Fig. S3: P-XRD of a mixed CoO / Co<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> sample, showing the moderate signal-to-noise ratio for the weaker peaks due to the X-Ray fluorescence of Co