Investigation on the Redox Properties of a Novel Cu-Based Pr-Modified Oxygen Carrier for Chemical Looping Combustion

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ABSTRACT: CO₂ levels in the atmosphere are growing as a result of the burning of fossil fuels to meet energy demands. The introduction of chemical looping combustion (CLC) as an alternative to traditional combustion by transporting oxygen emphasizes the need to develop greener and more economical energy systems. Metal oxide, also defined as an oxygen carrier (OC), transports oxygen from the air to the fuel. Several attempts are being made to develop an OC with a reasonable material cost for superior fuel conversion and high oxygen transport capacity (OTC). This study aims to synthesize a potential OC using the wet impregnation method for the CLC process. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was used to determine the cyclic redox properties using 5% CH₄/N₂ and air as reducing and oxidizing gases, respectively. The 10CuPA-based OC retained a high OTC of about 0.0267 mg O₂/mg of OC for 10 cycles that was higher than 10CuA-based OC. Furthermore, the oxygen transfer rate for 10CuPA-based OC was relatively higher compared to 10CuA-based OC over 10 cycles. In comparison to 10CuA-based OC, the 10CuPA-based OC presented a steady X-ray diffraction (XRD) pattern after 10 redox cycles, implying that the phase was stably restored due to praseodymium-modified γ alumina support.

1. INTRODUCTION

The most extensively consumed sources of energy for electricity production are fossil fuels. Furthermore, fossil fuels contributed to more than 85% of the total energy demand. Power plants that combust fossil fuels release an excess amount of CO₂, which is the primary source of greenhouse gases caused by humans. Consequently, in the past couple of years, countries all over the world have been attempting to minimize CO₂ release after the combustion of fossil fuels.³⁻⁵ Chemical looping combustion (CLC) promises a realistic alternative for CO₂ capture with relatively minimal cost.⁶⁻⁸ The dominant element of the CLC process is a metal oxide, also known as oxygen carrier (OC), that transfer oxygen from an air reactor to a fuel reactor while avoiding air and fuel interaction. The reduced OC is recycled to the air reactor after fuel combustion and oxidized with O₂ (air) for upcoming cycles. During this cyclic circulation of OC, the outlet gases from the air reactor consist of N₂ and unreacted O₂. On the other hand, the outlet gases from the fuel reactor comprise CO₂ and H₂O (vapors). After condensing vapors, the produced CO₂ can easily be captured without any additional equipment cost for the separation. The essential characteristics of OCs are that OCs should have high oxygen transport capacity (OTC) and mechanical and thermal stabilities.⁶⁻⁸ A number of materials have been studied as OCs for the CLC process in recent years.⁹ For this purpose, transition metal oxides, such as CuO,¹⁰⁻¹¹ Fe₂O₃,¹²⁻¹³ NiO,¹⁴⁻¹⁵ Mn₃O₄,¹⁶⁻¹⁷ and Co₃O₄,¹⁸ have been investigated as OCs. Across all monometallic oxide-based OCs, NiO and CuO exhibited the highest OTCs, 21 and 20 wt %, respectively. The investigation of the CLC process for the combustion of natural gas was carried out in 10⁻¹⁴0 kWth plants using Ni- and Cu-based OCs.¹⁹⁻⁻²² In the process of methane reforming, NiO is considered an excellent material, but for the CLC of methane, NiO exhibited poor performance due to carbon deposition.²³ However, the reactivity of Cu-based OCs in the oxidation and reduction cycles was high.²⁴ Furthermore, Cu-based OCs can release O₂ (gas-phase oxygen) during the combustion of solid fuels at a temperature greater than 700 °C.¹⁰ In addition, Cu-based OCs are environmentally friendly and less expensive as compared to Ni and Co. However, the low Tammann
temperature (the Tammann temperature determines the commencement of bulk material sintering) of the CuO/Cu (or CuO/CuO) redox pair is the main obstacle concerned with using CuO-based OCs, despite their promising properties. Therefore, pure CuO-based OCs result in the sintering and agglomeration of OC particles at high temperatures. In addition, during the circulation of OC particles in fluidized bed reactors, the structure of OCs significantly changed by agglomeration that ensures the deactivation of a fluidized bed. Therefore, pure CuO-based OCs result in the sintering and agglomeration of OC particles at high temperatures. In addition, during the circulation of OC particles in fluidized bed reactors, the structure of OCs significantly changed by agglomeration that ensures the deactivation of a fluidized bed. Therefore, pure CuO-based OCs result in the sintering and agglomeration of OC particles at high temperatures. In addition, during the circulation of OC particles in fluidized bed reactors, the structure of OCs significantly changed by agglomeration that ensures the deactivation of a fluidized bed. Therefore, pure CuO-based OCs result in the sintering and agglomeration of OC particles at high temperatures. In addition, during the circulation of OC particles in fluidized bed reactors, the structure of OCs significantly changed by agglomeration that ensures the deactivation of a fluidized bed. Therefore, pure CuO-based OCs result in the sintering and agglomeration of OC particles at high temperatures. In addition, during the circulation of OC particles in fluidized bed reactors, the structure of OCs significantly changed by agglomeration that ensures the deactivation of a fluidized bed. Therefore, pure CuO-based OCs result in the sintering and agglomeration of OC particles at high temperatures. In addition, during the circulation of OC particles in fluidized bed reactors, the structure of OCs significantly changed by agglomeration that ensures the deactivation of a fluidized bed. Therefore, pure CuO-based OCs result in the sintering and agglomeration of OC particles at high temperatures. In addition, during the circulation of OC particles in fluidized bed reactors, the structure of OCs significantly changed by agglomeration that ensures the deactivation of a fluidized bed. Therefore, pure CuO-based OCs result in the sintering and agglomeration of OC particles at high temperatures. In addition, during the circulation of OC particles in fluidized bed reactors, the structure of OCs significantly changed by agglomeration that ensures the deactivation of a fluidized bed. Therefore, pure CuO-based OCs result in the sintering and agglomeration of OC particles at high temperatures. In addition, during the circulation of OC particles in fluidized bed reactors, the structure of OCs significantly changed by agglomeration that ensures the deactivation of a fluidized bed. Therefore, pure CuO-based OCs result in the sintering and agglomeration of OC particles at high temperatures. In addition, during the circulation of OC particles in fluidized bed reactors, the structure of OCs significantly changed by agglomeration that ensures the deactivation of a fluidized bed. Therefore, pure CuO-based OCs result in the sintering and agglomeration of OC particles at high temperatures. In addition, during the circulation of OC particles in fluidized bed reactors, the structure of OCs significantly changed by agglomeration that ensures the deactivation of a fluidized bed. Therefore, pure CuO-based OCs result in the sintering and agglomeration of OC particles at high temperatures. In addition, during the circulation of OC particles in fluidized bed reactors, the structure of OCs significantly changed by agglomeratio

### 2. METHODOLOGY

#### 2.1. Materials and Reagents

The nitrate precursors of copper (Cu) and praseodymium (Pr) were used to prepare OCs. In addition, for each type of OC, γ alumina (γ-Al₂O₃) was used as a support material. The details of all of the materials used for the synthesis of OCs are given in Table 1.

#### 2.2. Preparation of OCs

Two types of OCs such as 10 wt % Cu/γ-Al₂O₃ (10CuA) and 10 wt % Pr/γ-Al₂O₃ (10CuPA) were prepared using the wet impregnation method. The elemental compositions of 10CuA and 10CuPA for fresh and after 10 cycles in the CLC process are given in Table 2. For 10 g of 10CuA OC, the first 10 wt % of Cu-nitrate was added in deionized (DI) water for the preparation of the Cu-nitrate precursor solution. This Cu-nitrate precursor solution was added drop by drop on γ-Al₂O₃ under continuous mixing for 3 h at room temperature. This mixture was then dried in an oven at 100 °C, and the resulting solid was pulverized in a porcelain mortar. The powder was placed in a ceramic crucible and calcined in a muffle furnace at 450 °C for 4 h. For 10 g of 10CuPA OC, the support (γ-Al₂O₃) was modified first with 5 wt % Pr. The Pr-nitrate precursor solution was prepared in DI water and mixed drop by drop with γ-Al₂O₃ for 3 h at room temperature to achieve 5 wt % Pr loading and dried in an oven at 100 °C. Next, the obtained solid was ground in a porcelain mortar and calcined in a muffle furnace at 450 °C for 4 h. Finally, the as-prepared 5 wt % Pr/γ-Al₂O₃ mixed oxide was mixed with 10 wt % Cu-nitrate precursor solutions for the synthesis of 10CuPA-based OC. The previous steps were repeated for drying, pulverizing, and calcining to get 10 wt % Cu—5 wt % Pr/γ-Al₂O₃ (10CuPA).

#### 2.3. Characterizations of OCs

Due to the importance of the chemical, physical, and morphological properties of OCs, the characterization of the synthesized OCs is required for the best efficiency in the CLC process. Furthermore, the bulk and surface properties of OCs have a significant effect on the OTC of OCs during multiple redox properties. Therefore, the information from different characterizations will help improve the performance of OCs in the CLC process. In the present study, the synthesized OCs were characterized using field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM), specific surface area analysis, X-ray diffraction (XRD), and temperature-programmed reduction (TPR) analysis. The description of the equipment name and model used for the characterization is given in Table 3.

#### 2.3.1. Surface Morphology

The surface morphologies of all of the fresh (calcined) and used (after 10 redox cycles) OCs were analyzed by field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) analysis using Zeiss Supra 55 VP model. In addition, energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) was used to study the elemental composition of OCs. Finally, the OC particles...
were applied to the copper stub using a 2 min gold layer coating.

2.3.2. X-ray Diffraction. The crystalline phases of the synthesized OCs were analyzed using XRD (Bruker D8 Advance) under the range of 40 kV voltage and 40 mA current using Cu K\(\alpha\) radiations. The samples were scanned at 2\(\theta\) angles from 10 to 100° with a step size of 2°/min. The identification of the observed diffraction pattern was performed using the MAUD software.

2.3.3. Temperature-Programmed Reduction. The TPR study was performed by the TPDRO100, which was coupled with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD). Approximately, 0.10 g of material was placed into a reactor within the furnace and treated with N\(_2\) gas for 60 min at 200°C. Then, the gas was changed to 5% H\(_2\)/N\(_2\) at a 30 mL/min rate and pretreated at 200°C for 1 h.

2.4. CLC Experiments. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA-TA model Q50) was conducted to evaluate the performance of as-prepared OCs. For each type of OC, 15 mg of sample was placed in the platinum pan. The platinum pan was hung in the furnace of TGA by the hang-down wire. The furnace of TGA was closed, and the furnace was heated with a heating rate of 50°C/min up to 800°C. The heating of the sample was done in the presence of N\(_2\) gas flowing at a rate of 20 mL/min. For reduction and oxidation processes, 5% CH\(_4\)/N\(_2\) (for 3 min) and air (for 10 min) were used at a flow rate of 80 mL/min, respectively. However, the temperature of the furnace is kept constant at 800°C.\(^{14,18}\) Between methane and air, nitrogen gas was purged for 3 min to avoid mixing between methane and air. The OTC of OCs during 10 redox cycles was calculated using eq 1.

\[
\text{OTC} = \frac{m_{\text{ox}} - m_{\text{red}}}{m_{\text{ox}}} \tag{1}
\]

where, \(m_{\text{ox}}\) is the mass of fully oxidized OC and \(m_{\text{red}}\) is the mass of fully reduced OC. For an appropriate metal-based OC choice, a total of 10 redox cycles were performed. This experiment was repeated three times, and the average value for OTC was calculated. The schematic diagram for the CLC process using TGA is shown in Figure 2.

### 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. FESEM Analysis. The surface morphologies of fresh and used OCs based on 10CuA and 10CuPA were examined using FESEM analysis. Figure 3a,b represents the FESEM images of 10CuA-fresh (calcined) and used (in 10 oxidation–reduction cycles) OCs, respectively. For both fresh and used 10CuA-based OCs, irregular shapes of the particles were observed. It can be noticed that the particle size of 10CuA increased after usage in 10 redox cycles, as shown in Figure 3b. The FESEM images of 10CuPA-fresh (calcined) and after 10 cycles are shown in Figure 3c,d. However, after use in CLC redox cycles, the average particle size of 10CuA-based OCs decreased. Furthermore, an irregular shape of 10CuA-based OC particles was examined. Overall, no significant difference in the surface morphologies of 10CuA- and 10CuPA-based OCs was observed. Furthermore, some agglomeration was detected in the morphology of both types of OCs. Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy analysis revealed that the Cu contents increased from 7.5 to 21.3 wt % for 10CuA-fresh and 10CuA-used, respectively. It might be due to the accumulation

![Figure 1. Schematic flowchart for the synthesis of 10CuA- and 10CuPA-based OCs.](http://pubs.acs.org/journal/acsodf)

| Table 3. Details of Equipment Used during Characterization |
|---|---|
| equipment | model |
| field emission scanning electron microscope | Zeiss Supra 55 VP |
| X-ray diffractometer (XRD) | Bruker D8 Advanced Diffractometer |
| temperature-programmed reduction (TPR) device | TPDRO100 |

![Figure 2. Schematic diagram of the chemical looping combustion process using TGA.](http://pubs.acs.org/journal/acsodf)
of copper contents in a specific particle associated with the presence of agglomeration. However, the Cu contents increased from 7.9 to 16.4 wt % for 10CuPA-fresh and 10CuPA-used, respectively. These results showed that the copper contents for 10CuPA-used are more stable than the copper contents for 10CuA-used.

3.2. X-ray Diffraction Analysis. For the crystal structure determination, XRD analysis was executed as shown in Table 4. The XRD findings of 10CuA- and 10CuPA-based OCs are shown in Figure 4. The diffraction peaks associated with CuO at 2θ angles of 32, 35, 39, 46, 49, 53, 58, 61, 66, 72, and 75° were observed. Surprisingly, the peaks corresponding to CuAl₂O₄ at 2θ angles of 31, 37, and 45° were also observed. The peak at a 2θ angle of 31° also referred to CuAlO₂. No peaks were detected for praseodymium oxide because the XRD technique only identifies crystalline phases with a content higher than 5%. For both 10CuA-fresh and 10CuPA-fresh OCs, only peaks corresponding to the CuO crystal phase were observed. However, the peaks related to CuAl₂O₄ were not detected. Similar XRD results were reported in the previous studies for Cu-based OCs when a calcination temperature of lower than 600 °C was used. However, the peak intensity of the CuO crystal phase for 10CuA-fresh was higher compared to 10CuPA-fresh. In contrast to this, the peak intensity referred to CuO at 2θ angles of 35°, 39°, 46°, and 66° for 10CuA-used OCs decreased compared to 10CuPA-used OCs. Similarly, the peaks for 10CuA-used associated with the CuO phase at 2θ angles of 35°, 39°, 46°, 49°, 53, 58, 61, 66, 72, and 75° completely disappeared in comparison to 10CuPA-used. This might be because the modification of γ-alumina support with praseodymium metal oxide in 10CuPA-used OCs stabilized the CuO contents. For both 10CuA-used and 10CuPA-used OCs, CuAl₂O₄ and CuAlO₂ crystal phases were detected because the temperature throughout oxidation–reduction cycles was greater than 600 °C. However, the peak intensity corresponding to CuAl₂O₄ at a 2θ angle of 37° for 10CuA-used was lower than 10CuA-used OCs. For both types of OCs, that is, 10CuA-used and 10CuPA-used, the peak related to CuAlO₂ was relatively small and existed at the same 2θ angle (31°) for CuAl₂O₄. This indicated that the formation of CuAlO₂ was relatively low or negligible.

Table 4. 2θ Angles Corresponding to Different Crystal Phases of 10CuA and 10CuPA Oxygen Carriers

| oxygen carrier         | crystal phase | 2θ angles                             |
|------------------------|---------------|---------------------------------------|
| 10CuA-fresh            | CuO           | 32, 35, 39, 46, 49, 53, 58, 61, 66, 72, and 75° |
|                        | CuAl₂O₄      | NA                                    |
|                        | CuAlO₂       | NA                                    |
| 10CuA-used             | CuO           | 35, 39, 46, and 66°                   |
|                        | CuAl₂O₄      | 31, 37, and 45°                       |
|                        | CuAlO₂       | 31°                                   |
| 10CuPA-fresh           | CuO           | 32, 35, 39, 46, 49, 53, 58, 61, 66, 72, and 75° |
|                        | CuAl₂O₄      | NA                                    |
|                        | CuAlO₂       | NA                                    |
| 10CuPA-used            | CuO           | 32, 35, 39, 46, 49, 53, 58, 61, 66, 72, and 75° |
|                        | CuAl₂O₄      | 31, 37, and 45°                       |
|                        | CuAlO₂       | 31°                                   |

Figure 3. FESEM images of 10CuA-fresh (a) and after 10 cycles (b) and 10CuPA-fresh (c) and after 10 cycles (d).
This strongly suggests that the presence of praseodymium metal oxide reduced the formation of spinel compounds and enhanced the stability of active metal oxide (CuO). A similar effect was noticed in the previous research work; when the contact of active metal with support was minimized, the XRD peaks corresponding to the spinel compound were also

Figure 4. XRD analysis for the 10CuA-fresh (after calcination), 10CuA-used (after 10 redox cycles using 5%CH₄/N₂ and air gases), 10CuPA-fresh, and 10CuPA-used OCs.

Figure 5. TPR profiles for 10CuA and 10CuPA fresh and used (10 cycles) oxygen carriers.
decreased. Hence, the addition of praseodymium to a Cu-based OC significantly increased the stability of the OC in terms of uniform distribution of CuO and by lowering the formation of the spinel compound (CuAl₂O₄).

3.3. Temperature-Programmed Reduction Analysis. The reduction properties of 10CuA and 10CuPA OCs were investigated using TPR analysis, as shown in Figure 5. The TPR profiles could be decomposed into four different curves at α = 270−300 °C, β = 390−410 °C, γ = 450−460 °C, and δ = 800−830 °C. Usually, it is known that the peaks at α and β are attributed to the reduction of well-dispersed CuO and bulk CuO, which are reduced through CuO → Cu, respectively. However, the peaks in the range γ contributed to CuAl₂O₄ due to strong attraction between CuO and alumina, such as CuO + Al₂O₃ → CuAl₂O₄, and peaks at δ associated with reducing CuAlO₂. At high temperatures, heating of CuAl₂O₄ results in the formation of CuAlO₂. The reduction reaction for the spinel compound is prolonged as compared to the CuO. Two possible redox reactions could result in the formation of CuAlO₂ at a temperature near 900 °C. The first one is 4CuAl₂O₄(s) → 4CuAlO₂(s) + 2Al₂O₃(s) + O₂(g) and second due to the presence of excess contents of CuO, that is, 2CuAlO₂(s) + 2CuO(s) → 4CuAlO₂(s) + O₂(g).

Figure 5 shows that only two peaks corresponding to α and β appeared for both 10CuA-fresh and 10CuPA-fresh OCs. However, no peaks relevant to CuAl₂O₄ and CuAlO₂ were found for both 10CuA-fresh and 10CuPA-fresh, owing to the absence of any spinel formation. Similar to XRD results, it is evident that CuAl₂O₄ and CuAlO₂ were not formed after calcination, possibly due to the low calcination temperature. The peak intensities corresponding to γ and δ for 10CuPA-used OCs were lower than those for 10CuA-used OCs. It shows that higher consumption of H₂ in 10CuA-used OCs is due to the significant formation of spinel compound compared to Pr-promoted, Cu-based OCs. From XRD analysis, similar results were found, which confirmed that the addition of praseodymium lessened the formation of spinel compounds.

3.4. Reactivity with Methane Fuel in Multiple Redox Cycles. Figure 6 shows the weight changes in the carrier as the result of multiple consecutive oxidation/reduction cycles using 5% methane gas for 10CuA and 10CuPA. The OTC of 0.024 (mg of O₂/mg of OC) was achieved for 10CuA-based OCs after 10 redox cycles. In contrast, the OTC of 0.026 (mg of O₂/mg of OC) was attained for 10CuPA-based OCs during 10 cycles. It was examined that owing to the addition of praseodymium oxide in 10CuA-based OCs, the OTC increased by 0.2 wt %. The OTC of 0.026 mg of O₂/mg of OC of 10CuPA in this study remarkably improved compared with the OTC of 10 wt %Cu-γ-Al₂O₃. Furthermore, the reactivity of 10CuPA in oxidation and reduction reactions was uniform and smooth compared to 10CuA. The standard deviations were found at 0.005 and 0.0002 for 10CuA and 10CuPA, respectively, which provided evidence of good agreement for experimental results. Table 5 presents the confirmation tests for 10CuA- and 10CuPA-based OCs during 10 oxidation−reduction cycles in the CLC process.

The curves of mass-based conversion derived from TGA data for the 10CuA-based OC are shown in Figure 7. The conversion during the reduction phase was around 2.42 wt %

Figure 6. TGA profile for 10CuA- and 10CuPA-based OCs during 10 redox cycles in the CLC process.

Table 5. Confirmation Results for Oxygen Transport Capacity of Oxygen Carriers at 800 °C Redox Temperature, 3 min Reduction Time and 10 min Oxidation Time in the CLC Process

| oxygen carrier | confirmation runs | OTC (mg of O₂/mg of OC) |
|----------------|-------------------|-------------------------|
| 10CuA OC       | run 1             | 0.0238                  |
|                | run 2             | 0.0235                  |
|                | run 3             | 0.0245                  |
|                | standard deviation| 0.0005                  |
| 10CuPA OC      | run 1             | 0.0265                  |
|                | run 2             | 0.0260                  |
|                | run 3             | 0.0261                  |
|                | standard deviation| 0.0002                  |
during the first cycle, and it required approximately 0.5 min to complete the reduction process. Thus, the conversion was diminished to 2.41 wt % from the second cycle despite the number of cycles, and the time to complete the reduction was more significant than in the first cycle. As the number of cycles progressed, a longer time was required for the complete reduction. For the 10th cycle, the complete reduction was done in about 1.2 min, which was two times greater than the time for complete reduction in the first cycle. These results suggested that the conversion rate of the 10CuA-based OCs decreased when the number of cycles increased. When OC was exposed to air, the 10CuA-based OC was oxidized. The time required for the first three cycles to complete oxidation was 0.3 min, and a similar mass conversion trend was observed for the first three cycles. However, when the oxidation cycles were increased, it was observed that the time taken by the 10CuA-based OC also increased. The time required for the complete oxidation of the 10th cycle was 0.4 min, which indicated a slower reaction of the reduced OC with oxygen when compared with the first three cycles.

The mass-based conversion profiles of 10CuPA-based OC are shown in Figure 8. The conversion during the reduction phase was around 2.67 wt % in the first cycle, and it required 0.6 min to achieve the entire reduction process. The reduction...
period for the 10th cycle was identical to the first cycle (2.67 wt %); however, it lasted nearly 0.8 min to accomplish complete reduction. On the other hand, the time needed for the first cycle to complete the oxidation process was about 0.37 min. The oxidation reaction for 10CuPA-based OC in the second cycle was slower than that in the first cycle, and it took 0.5 min for the entire oxidation process. After the second cycle, the time desired in the following cycles was about 0.35 min for complete oxidation. It was examined that the time required to completely oxidize the 10CuPA-based OC during the 10th cycle was less than in the first cycle. These results revealed that the 10CuPA-based OC shows faster mass-based conversion than 10CuA-based conversion even after 10 oxidation−reduction cycles. This might be because the addition of praseodymium oxide helped to improve the reactivity of the copper-based OC.

In Table 6, the contribution of study has been highlighted by contrasting the OTC of the OC synthesized in the current study with the OC developed in the literature.

**Table 6. Oxygen Transport Capacity of the Past Studies Compared with the Present Study of Oxygen Carrier for CLC**

| type of oxygen carrier | copper loading (wt %) | promoter (wt %) | support (wt %) | oxygen transport capacity (wt %) | reference |
|------------------------|-----------------------|----------------|----------------|-------------------------------|-----------|
| Cu–MgAl                | 12                    | 27             | MgAl₂O₃        | 2.41                          | 40        |
| Cu–NiAl                | 12.8                  | 3              | Al₂O₃          | 2.57                          | 40        |
| Cu10Al                 | 10                    |                | Al₂O₃          | 2                            | 46        |
| Fe45Al                 | 45                    |                | Al₂O₃          | 1.3                           | 46        |
| 10CuPA                 | 7.9                   | 4.3            | Al₂O₃          | 2.6                           | present study |

### 4. CONCLUSIONS

This research work was applied to develop chemically and thermally stable OCs for the CLC process. A thermogravimetric analysis was used to investigate the performance of the synthesized OCs for reactivity tests utilizing 5% CH₂/N₂ and air as reducing gas and oxidizing gas, respectively. This work aimed to analyze whether a 10CuPA-based OC could be used as an OC in the CLC process. The oxygen transport capacity (OTC) of a 10CuPA-based OC was 0.0267 mg of O₂/mg of OC, which was higher than the previously reported results without Pr-modified, Cu-based OCs (10CuA). Furthermore, it exhibited high stability in terms of maintaining high OTC as the redox cycles progressed. Both TPR and XRD results revealed that the addition of Pr to Cu-based OCs displayed phase stability even after 10 redox cycles compared to OC without Pr. The FESEM analysis showed that the surface morphology of the 10CuPA-based OC was irregular, and some agglomeration was observed. Although agglomeration was confirmed, it had no impact on the OTC of OC. Hence, these results indicated that the 10CuPA-based OC could become a promising material for use as an OC in the CLC process.

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