

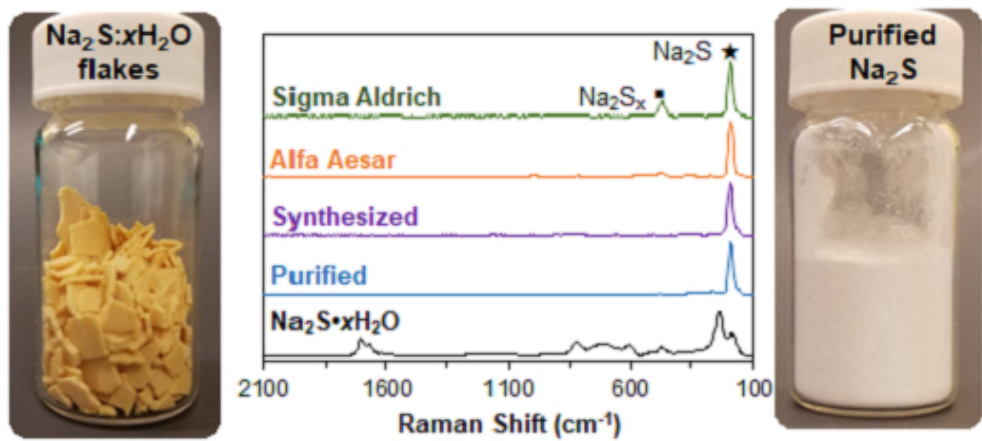


### Production and Purification of Anhydrous Sodium Sulfide

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## Production and Purification of Anhydrous Sodium Sulfide

William H. Smith,<sup>a</sup> Jerry Birnbaum,<sup>a</sup> and Colin A. Wolden<sup>a\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup>*Chemical and Biological Engineering, Colorado School of Mines, Golden, CO, USA;*

\*Corresponding author email: [cwolden@mines.edu](mailto:cwolden@mines.edu)

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## Production and Purification of Anhydrous Sodium Sulfide

**ABSTRACT:** Anhydrous sodium sulfide ( $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ ) is a key component in sodium-sulfur batteries as well as an important chemical reagent. However, anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  is currently prohibitively expensive for applications outside of research labs and purity is a concern. Herein, we compare the properties of three forms of anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ : (i) commercially supplied, (ii)  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  produced through dehydration and purification of commercial hydrate flakes ( $\text{Na}_2\text{S} \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ), and (iii)  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  formed by the reaction of hydrogen sulfide with dissolved sodium alkoxide and recovered through solvent evaporation. Crystallinity, purity, thermal stability, and morphology of the various forms of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  were characterized by XRD, FTIR/Raman, TGA, and SEM respectively. Vacuum annealing of low-cost  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  hydrate at 150 °C produced anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ . This dehydrated material retains impurity signatures attributed to polysulfide ( $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_x$ ) and oxysulfur impurities ( $\text{SO}_x$ ) that were also observed in commercially supplied  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ . Impurity removal typically requires hydrogen reduction at very high temperature (700-900°C), but it is demonstrated here that this can instead be accomplished at 400 °C, preventing auto-oxidation and following kinetics well-described by a shrinking core model. The solution-based approach resulted in the direct synthesis of crystalline  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  anhydride at low temperatures (100 °C) without need for further purification. Both approaches presented herein are inherently scalable with materials costs that are one to two orders of magnitude lower than the current price of anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ .

Keywords: sodium sulfide; sodium batteries; metal sulfides

### 1. Introduction

High-purity, anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  is a key material for several applications including energy storage, chemical synthesis, and as an  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  generator in biological systems. For example,  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  nanocrystals can serve in high-capacity cathodes for low-cost, high-energy-density Na-S batteries.[1-3]  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  is also a key precursor for solid state electrolytes that may enable the safe use of a sodium-metal anode.[4-6] Additionally,  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  is a convenient reagent for the synthesis of specialty chemicals ranging from sulfide-containing polymers to a broad selection of metal-

sulfide compounds.[7-10] Lastly, Na<sub>2</sub>S has gained attention as a “rapid-release” donor of H<sub>2</sub>S in aqueous solutions, which is a crucial gasotransmitter, with potential for several medical therapeutic applications ranging from cardiovascular to neurological diseases. The purity of Na<sub>2</sub>S intended for therapeutic applications is crucial because polysulfide and oxysulfur impurities may cause unintended biological effects.[11] In contrast to the earth abundance of its constituent elements, anhydrous Na<sub>2</sub>S is prohibitively expensive (>\$10 g<sup>-1</sup>), an issue that must be addressed to enable widespread deployment of the technologies discussed above.

The high cost of anhydrous Na<sub>2</sub>S reflects the difficulty to synthesize and purify this key material. Anhydrous Na<sub>2</sub>S is produced primarily through two routes:[12]



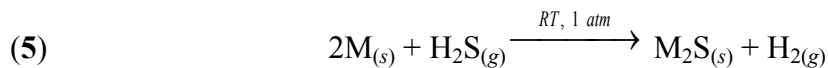
In the first route, Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> undergoes carbothermal reduction in a furnace at 900-1,000 °C, which is time- and energy-intensive, and directly emits carbon dioxide. The second route is preferred for applications where high purity is crucial and consists of three steps. First, Na<sub>2</sub>S is dissolved in water to form a supersaturated solution. Second, Na<sub>2</sub>S•9H<sub>2</sub>O is recrystallized from the solution at relatively high purity (e.g. 98%). The recrystallization process is expensive and time-consuming, and results in a hydrate that only consists of 32 wt% Na<sub>2</sub>S. Last, the nonahydrate is heated to elevated temperatures (> 700 °C) to drive off water and induce crystallization. Therefore, there is a need for economically viable and inherently scalable methods of producing high-purity anhydrous Na<sub>2</sub>S.

A low-grade form of Na<sub>2</sub>S is also produced as a byproduct of several industrial processes, including caustic scrubbing of natural gas and processing of sulfide-containing ores like

BaS.[12] This “technical” grade of Na<sub>2</sub>S is commercially available at low cost (~\$0.50 kg<sup>-1</sup> in bulk quantities), but in the form of a hydrate (Na<sub>2</sub>S•xH<sub>2</sub>O, x~3) that contains ~40 wt% water. Its characteristic yellow color reflects the presence of polysulfide impurities (Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>x</sub>). In addition to polysulfides, this Na<sub>2</sub>S hydrate contains significant concentrations of oxysulfur impurities (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>x</sub>) such as sodium sulfate, sulfite, thiosulfate, and hyposulfite. The hydrate also typically contains a high concentration of sodium hydrosulfide (NaHS). As such, this grade of Na<sub>2</sub>S finds use in applications where purity and moisture content is not of concern, such as in the Kraft process in the pulping industry or as a bleaching agent in the manufacture of textiles or rubber. Efficient purification of this low-grade form of Na<sub>2</sub>S would be an economically attractive route to anhydrous Na<sub>2</sub>S for the applications listed above.

Alternatively, we have developed a solution-based approach based on green chemistry for the synthesis of alkali metal sulfide (Li<sub>2</sub>S, Na<sub>2</sub>S) nanocrystals (NCs).[13] Reactive precipitation of anhydrous sulfide NCs was achieved through a two-step process where an alkoxide precursor is first prepared by complexing the alkali metal with alcohol, which also liberates clean-burning hydrogen (3). In the second step the industrial waste hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) is bubbled through the solution resulting in NC precipitation and regeneration of the alcohol reagent (4). The net reaction (5) is the conversion of the alkali metal into a sulfide NC with co-generation of H<sub>2</sub> and full abatement of the H<sub>2</sub>S. These spontaneous reactions proceed to completion with an atom economy approaching unity at ambient temperature and pressure.





Both anhydrous  $Li_2S$  and  $Na_2S$  were successfully produced, and we developed a novel 4-phase bubble column for conducting reactive precipitation in a scalable fashion.[14] Precipitation is induced by the presence of a co-solvent, and NC size and morphology could be manipulated using various alcohol/solvent combinations.[13] However, with reactive precipitation the minimum crystal size achieved was  $\sim 100$  nm, and while electrochemical performance was improved over commercial  $Li_2S$ , it was still far short of theoretical capacity. In the case of  $Li_2S$  we overcame this issue by eliminating the co-solvent that induced precipitation, allowing the  $Li_2S$  produced in Rxn 2 to remain dissolved in ethanol. NCs are recovered by evaporation and purified by a mild annealing treatment. Using this modified solvation/evaporation approach we demonstrated control over NC size (5-25 nm), good uniformity, and cathodes fabricated from these NCs attained theoretical capacity ( $1164 \text{ mAh g}^{-1}$ ). [15] Scalable approaches were developed and performance was validated in glassy  $70Li_2S\text{-}30P_2S_5$  electrolytes.[16]

In this work we demonstrate formation of anhydrous  $Na_2S$  by either purification of technical grade  $Na_2S$  hydrate or via direct synthesis using the liquid-phase reaction between sodium alkoxide and  $H_2S$ .  $Na_2S$  hydrate is purified by first dehydrating the material using a two-step vacuum annealing process at moderate temperatures followed by high-temperature reduction in hydrogen to remove polysulfide and oxysulfur impurities. Process conditions are identified to produce phase-pure material, and the kinetics of the  $H_2$ -reduction process are characterized. Alternatively, we extend the solvation/evaporation route to produce anhydrous  $Na_2S$ , demonstrating that methanol is preferred to ethanol as the complexing agent. A complementary suite of characterization techniques (XRD, TGA, FTIR, Raman, and SEM) was employed to

characterize the purity and morphology of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  produced through these processes, which are shown to compare favorably to commercially obtained anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ . Finally, a basic cost analysis is performed indicating that either route requires materials costs one to two orders of magnitude lower than commercial anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ .

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Purification of $\text{Na}_2\text{S} \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$ .

Sodium sulfide hydrate ( $\text{Na}_2\text{S} \cdot \text{h}$ ) flakes (60%, Sigma-Aldrich) were ball-milled using a SPEX Mixer/Mill 8000M equipped with  $\text{ZrO}_2$  balls for 5 minutes to reduce the particle size. The as-milled material was sieved through a #50 mesh to exclude particles over 300  $\mu\text{m}$ . The milled and sieved  $\text{Na}_2\text{S} \cdot \text{h}$  was dehydrated by heating under reduced pressure ( $\sim 150$  mbar) in a vacuum oven. 100 g of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S} \cdot \text{h}$  powder was spread in a thin layer ( $\sim 0.15$  g  $\text{cm}^{-2}$ ) on an evaporating tray and placed in the preheated oven at 70  $^\circ\text{C}$  and left under vacuum for 12-16 h. The temperature was then increased to 150  $^\circ\text{C}$  at a rate of  $\sim 1$   $^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$  and left for an additional 12-16 h. The furnace was then cooled down at the same rate to 70  $^\circ\text{C}$ . Approximately 60 g of dehydrated  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  ( $\text{Na}_2\text{S} \cdot \text{d}$ ) was recovered and placed in an argon filled glove box for further handling and storage.

Impurities were removed from the dehydrated material by reacting with a flowing mixture of 5%  $\text{H}_2$  in Ar (General Air,  $\geq 99.99\%$ ) at elevated temperatures. The reaction was conducted by placing 2 g  $\text{Na}_2\text{S} \cdot \text{d}$  in a custom stainless-steel Swagelok reactor (ID = 6.3 mm, length = 70 mm). The reactor was placed in a vertically oriented tube furnace and supplied with 100 sccm of the  $\text{H}_2/\text{Ar}$  mixture. The material was retained in the reactor by use of two stainless-steel Swagelok filter gaskets (pore size = 20  $\mu\text{m}$ ) placed at the inlet and exhaust of the reactor. The pressure in the reactor was typically 650 torr ( $\sim$ atmospheric pressure in Golden, CO), and



the composition of the gas effluent was monitored with an on-line quadrupole mass spectrometer (Stanford Research Systems RGA200). The effect of temperature was first investigated by introducing the  $H_2$  gas mixture to a preheated reactor and monitoring the gas effluent for signs of  $H_2$  consumption in the range from 200-500 °C for a time of 2 h. To distinguish the effects of temperature and  $H_2$  reduction, similar experiments were conducted by heating 2 g  $Na_2S$ -d under vacuum in a horizontal tube furnace. Once the optimum temperature of 400 °C was established, the kinetics of the  $H_2$  reduction at this temperature were explored by monitoring the time-evolution of the effluent gas composition. In each case, the recovery of  $H_2$ -reduced  $Na_2S$  ( $Na_2S$ -r) from the reactor was over 95% based on the initial mass-loading of  $Na_2S$ -d.

## 2.2. Solution-Based Synthesis of Anhydrous $Na_2S$ .

Sodium sulfide was synthesized using a procedure analogous to that previously reported for  $Li_2S$ . [16] First, a sodium alkoxide precursor solution was prepared by reacting sodium metal (1.8 g, Sigma-Aldrich, ACS reagent) with either ethanol (EtOH, Sigma-Aldrich, anhydrous,  $\geq 99.5\%$ ) or methanol (MeOH, Sigma-Aldrich, anhydrous, 99.8%) under dry Ar in a glove box in 40 mL quantities with a sodium concentration of 2.0 M. In both cases, the solution was stirred for at least 1 hour to fully dissolve the precursor and allow the solution to equilibrate with room temperature. The precursor solution was then loaded into a 20 mm diameter bubble column reactor (described previously [16]) under Ar, and was reacted with a stoichiometric or near-stoichiometric amount of a 10%  $H_2S$ /Ar gas mixture (Matheson) at a rate of 500 sccm (superficial velocity,  $u = 2.7 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$ ). The resulting homogeneous product solution ( $\geq 35 \text{ mL}$ ) was then retrieved from the bubble column reactor inside a glove box, and aliquoted in 10 mL volumes into an evaporating dish, which was loaded into a horizontal tube furnace and heated to 100 °C under flowing Ar for 2 h. The solid product ( $\sim 0.88 \text{ g}$ ,  $Na_2S$ -s) was then recovered and

stored under dry Ar in a glove box.

### 2.3. Materials Characterization.

Commercial samples of technical grade Na<sub>2</sub>S from Alfa Aesar were ground in mortar and pestle before characterization to reduce particle size and homogenize the mixture. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed by loading approximately 10 mg of sample into an Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> pan, which was then transferred into a TGA Q50 (TA Instruments) and heated from 50 to 200 °C at a slow rate of 1.0 °C min<sup>-1</sup> to prevent melting of hydrate phases. X-ray diffraction (XRD) was measured on a Philips X'Pert X-ray diffractometer with Cu K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda$  = 0.15405 nm) between 10 and 70° at a scan rate of 5° min<sup>-1</sup>. Samples were prepared on a glass slide with a piece of Scotch Magic Tape covering the material to prevent undesired reactions with ambient moisture. The contribution from the quartz slide was background subtracted with a polynomial fit. Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) was performed with a Nicolet Summit FTIR spectrometer using an attenuated total reflection (ATR) accessory equipped with a diamond crystal. Raman spectroscopy was conducted with a WiTec alpha300 M Confocal Microscope/Raman Spectrometer employing a 100 mW 532 nm laser. Samples were mounted on a glass slide and sealed under a quartz cover slip. The laser was focused through the cover slip onto the sample using a 20X objective, and spectra were collected using a CCD detector (Andor Technologies) at -60 °C. Field emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM) images were taken on a JEOL JSM-7000F FESEM instrument with an accelerating voltage of 5 kV. Particle size was measured with dynamic light scattering (DLS) of a freshly prepared suspension of Na<sub>2</sub>S in N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP) with a ZetaPALS (Brookhaven Instruments).

### 3. Results & Discussion

#### 3.1. Purification of $\text{Na}_2\text{S} \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$ .

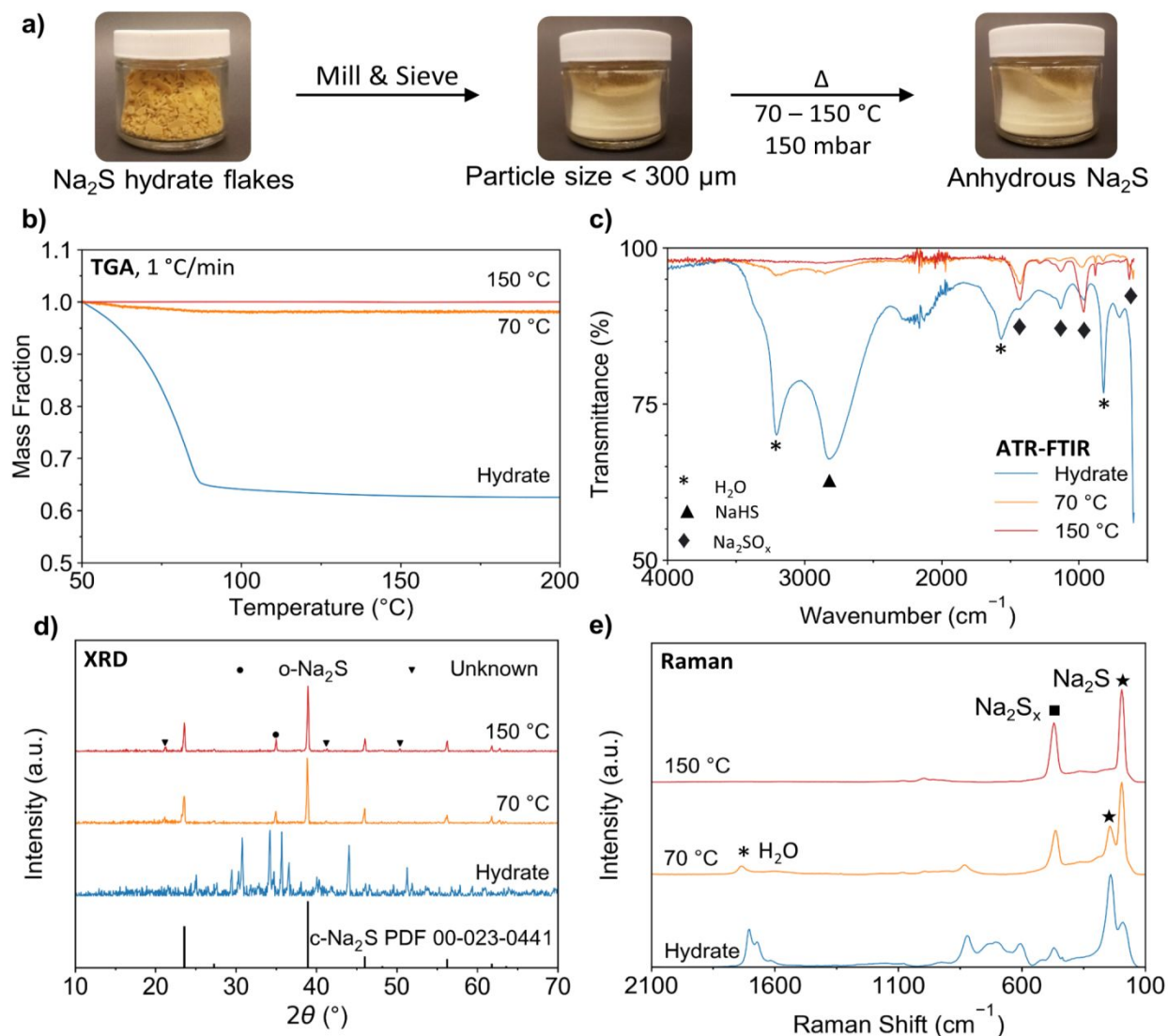
The as-purchased  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  hydrate consists of dense flakes ranging from 0.1-2 cm across with a bright yellow color. The milling and sieving process implemented herein resulted in a homogeneous, free-flowing powder with a pale-yellow color and an average particle size of 28  $\mu\text{m}$ . (Fig. 1-a) TGA of the as-milled hydrate results in approximately 40% mass loss from 50 to 200  $^\circ\text{C}$ , which is consistent with the stated composition, and the majority of mass loss occurred below 90  $^\circ\text{C}$  with residual mass loss occurring above 100  $^\circ\text{C}$ . (Fig. 1-b) FTIR demonstrates a strong absorption band due to O-H stretching at 3,200  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  and a moderate peak at 1,570  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  due to O-H bending modes, which are attributable to the water of hydration.[17] The strong absorption at 820  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  has been attributed to the bending mode of coordinated water.[17] The broad absorption band at 2,800  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  corresponds to the S-H stretching mode, indicating the presence of NaHS.[18] FTIR also reveals the presence of other impurities including  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_x$  species, such as  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$ ,  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3$ , [19,20] and  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_2$  [20] indicated by the peaks at 1,130  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ; 960 and 630  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ; and 1,430  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , respectively. (Fig. 1-c) XRD of the milled hydrate results in a complex diffraction pattern reflecting the multitude of hydrate phases including  $\text{Na}_2\text{S} \cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (PDF 00-018-1248),  $\text{Na}_2\text{S} \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (PDF 00-018-1249), and  $\text{Na}_2\text{S} \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (PDF 00-040-0521) as well as other unidentified phases. (Fig. 1-d) Finally, Raman spectroscopy shows a doublet peak at Raman shifts of 195 and 240  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ . The former has been attributed to the primary  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  crystal lattice vibrational mode,[21] while it is speculated that the latter belongs to the same vibrational mode, but has been upshifted due to coordination by water. This explanation is supported by the systematic decrease in relative intensity of the peak at 240  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  throughout the dehydration process, which mirrors the attenuation of the FTIR absorbance band at 820  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , which is

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3 attributed to the rocking mode of coordinated water.[17] The Raman spectra also shows a  
4 moderate disulfide band at  $470\text{ cm}^{-1}$  indicating the presence of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_x$  polysulfide species[21] and  
5 a water scattering band at  $1,700\text{ cm}^{-1}$ . [22] (Fig. 1-e) Detailed peak assignments for FTIR and  
6 Raman spectroscopy can be found in Tables S1 and S2, respectively, in the Supporting  
7 Information.

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15 When drying hydrated salts, it is crucial to avoid fusing the hydrate, which can lead to  
16 decomposition and agglomeration into large particles.[23] The melting point of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}\cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$   
17 increases with decreasing values of  $x$ , e.g. from  $49\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  for  $x = 9$  to  $98\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  for  $x = 5$ . [24] Early  
18 accounts of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}\cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$  dehydration reported drying under vacuum near room temperature in the  
19 vicinity of a desiccant for two weeks to achieve the anhydrous product.[25] Later accounts  
20 describe the more rapid dehydration of large crystals of the nonahydrate by utilizing a slow (e.g.  
21  $2\text{ }^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ ) temperature ramp to avoid melting. However, due to the large size of the crystals,  
22 exceedingly high temperatures of  $800\text{--}900\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  under vacuum were required to achieve full  
23 dehydration.[17,19,26] Andersson and Azoulay discovered that the water of hydration could be  
24 completely driven off at temperatures as low as  $200\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  using nonahydrate crystals with sizes  
25 ranging from  $0.5\text{--}1.0\text{ mm}$ . This later led to the invention of a low temperature, two-step  
26 dehydration route by researchers at Sankyo Kasei Co.,[27] which was adapted for this work by  
27 heating the milled hydrate under vacuum at  $70\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  then  $150\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ .

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Figure 1 b-e shows the evolution of TGA, FTIR, XRD, and Raman throughout this two-  
step dehydration. TGA shows a systematic decrease in the volatile content of the material from  
 $\sim 40\%$  in the hydrate to  $2\%$  after heating at  $70\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , and finally to the elimination of volatile  
content after heating at  $150\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ . FTIR reflects this systematic decrease in moisture content via  
attenuation of the signature absorption peaks of the water of crystallization. In addition to

vaporization of water, NaHS apparently undergoes thermal decomposition from 70 – 150 °C as indicated by the attenuation of the strong S-H absorption band at 2,800 cm<sup>-1</sup>, which is in good agreement with literature reports.[28] It is important to note however that the dehydrated material retains Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>x</sub> impurities. After heating to 70 °C, XRD undergoes a dramatic change from the complex hydrate diffraction pattern to one nearly identical to the expected powder pattern of anhydrous cubic Na<sub>2</sub>S (c-Na<sub>2</sub>S). However, there is also a signature peak attributed to the orthorhombic phase of Na<sub>2</sub>S (o-Na<sub>2</sub>S), which has previously been reported to form during the thermal dehydration of the pentahydrate.[19] XRD also detects the presence of some unidentifiable impurity phases not associated with either c-Na<sub>2</sub>S or o-Na<sub>2</sub>S. In the Raman spectra, the sequential heating steps result in the attenuation of the water scattering band at 1,700 cm<sup>-1</sup>. The dehydration is also reflected in the simultaneous attenuation of the water-coordinated Na<sub>2</sub>S band and growth of the anhydrous Na<sub>2</sub>S band. However, polysulfide impurities are retained in the anhydrous material. Color serves as a useful indicator of purity because sodium polysulfides exhibit a range of colors from yellow to gray to red depending on the value of  $x$  in Na<sub>2</sub>S <sub>$x$</sub> [21] while pure Na<sub>2</sub>S is pure white. The dehydrated Na<sub>2</sub>S maintains a pale-yellow color indicating likely contamination from Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub> and Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>4</sub>. [21] (Fig. 1-a) It has been observed that melting or overheating the material results in various colors, such as brown or red, related to the formation of different polysulfide impurity profiles.



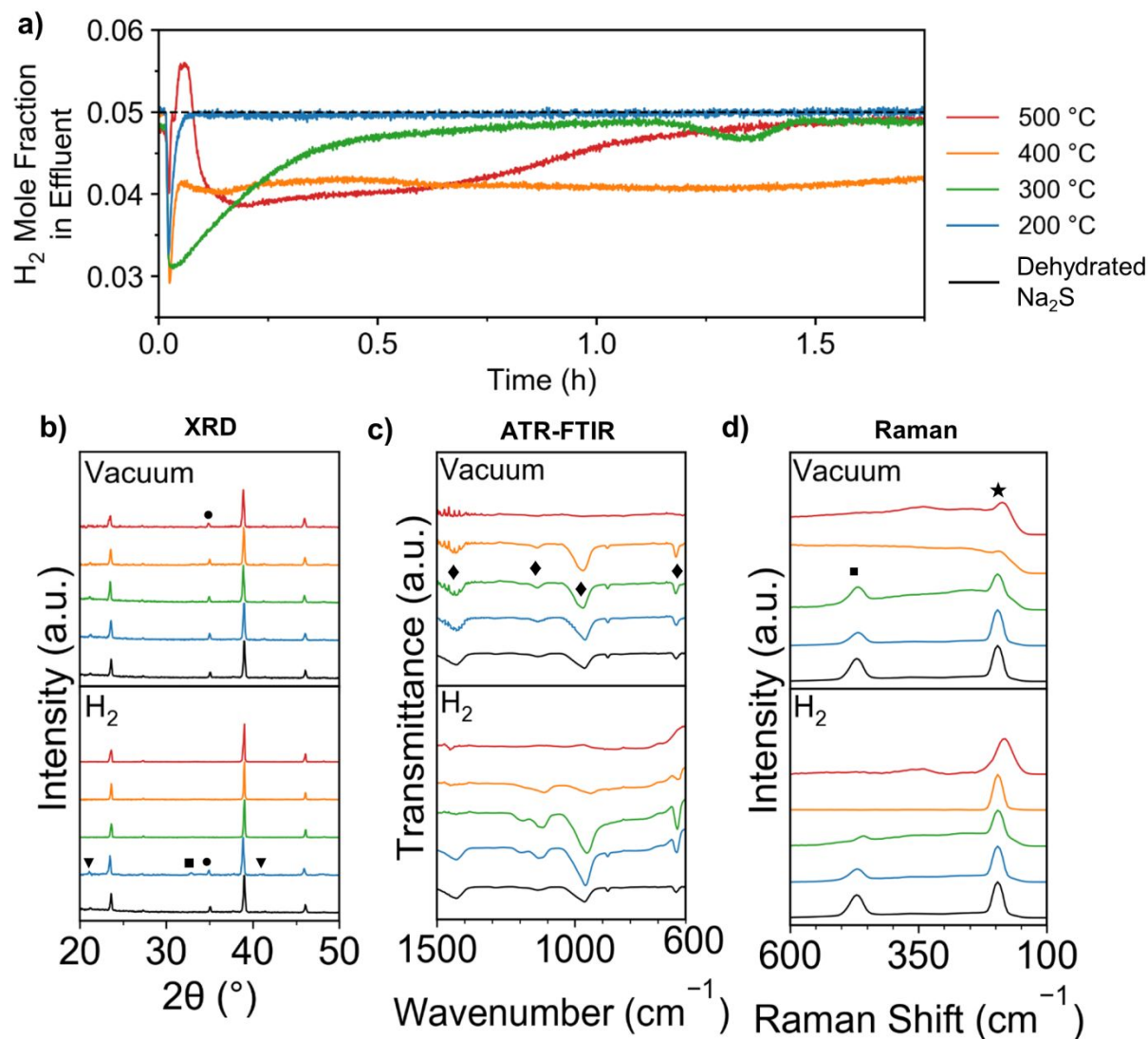
**Figure 1.** Dehydration of commercial  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  hydrate flakes (60%, Sigma-Aldrich). Photograph summary of the dehydration process (a). TGA (b), ATR-FTIR (c), XRD (d), and Raman spectroscopy (e) of milled  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  hydrate before treatment, after heating at 70 °C under vacuum, and after subsequently heating at 150 °C under vacuum.

For applications requiring high-purity  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ , the dehydrated  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  ( $\text{Na}_2\text{S-d}$ ) can be reduced under flowing  $\text{H}_2$  at elevated temperatures to remove  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_x$  and  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_x$  impurities. In previous studies, this process was conducted at temperatures ranging from 700-900 °C.[19,25] In

this study however, it was found that the process can and should be carried out at much lower temperature.  $\text{Na}_2\text{S-d}$  was reacted under flowing 5%  $\text{H}_2/\text{Ar}$  in a packed-bed reactor at temperatures between 200 and 500 °C, and the  $\text{H}_2$  mole fraction in the effluent over time was monitored with on-line mass spectrometry. (Fig. 2-a) At 200 °C no  $\text{H}_2$  consumption is detected, and the color of the material is unchanged. However, at 300 °C a small amount of  $\text{H}_2$  is consumed as evidenced by a brief decrease in the effluent concentration and a lightening of the material's color. This may be explained by reduction of a surface layer of oxides and polysulfides. At 400 °C, however, there is a sustained decrease in the effluent  $\text{H}_2$  concentration indicating ongoing reduction of the material beyond a surface layer, and the material recovered from the reactor exhibits an off-white color. At 500 °C, initially there is significant consumption of  $\text{H}_2$ , but it could not be sustained due to sintering of the  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  powder. In addition, the color of the  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  was changed to red indicating further auto-oxidation of the polysulfide species.

Figure 2 b-d compares the evolution of XRD, FTIR, and Raman over increasing temperatures under both 5%  $\text{H}_2/\text{Ar}$  and vacuum to distinguish between the effects of temperature and reaction with  $\text{H}_2$ . XRD shows that temperature alone has little effect on the crystal structure of the material or its crystalline impurities. Little change is detected for the material treated under  $\text{H}_2$  at 200°C, but there is evidence for the formation of crystalline polysulfide species (most likely  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_4$ ),[21] which could indicate reaction between the existing polysulfides and  $\text{H}_2$ . At 300 °C and above, however, all crystalline impurities are removed to below the detection limit, and there is an apparent rearrangement of the crystal structure from partially orthorhombic to fully cubic. FTIR shows that there is no significant impact of temperature on  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_x$  impurities until 500 °C, at which point there is clear decomposition of both forms of impurities. Under flowing  $\text{H}_2$  there is a significant reduction in absorbance due to these impurities at 400 °C,





**Figure 2.** On-line mass spectrometry of gas effluent from a  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ - $\text{H}_2$  packed-bed reactor at different bed temperatures. The dashed line at 0.05 represents the mole fraction of  $\text{H}_2$  in the inlet gas. (a) Evolution of XRD (b), FTIR (c), and Raman spectroscopy (d) after dehydration (150 °C) and subsequent heating (200/300/400/500 °C) under vacuum or  $\text{H}_2/\text{Ar}$ . Key: • - orthorhombic- $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ , ▼ – unknown crystalline impurity, ◆ -  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_x$  vibrational mode, ■ –  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_x$  polysulfides, ★ –  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$

indicating successful purification at this temperature. In Raman spectroscopy, heating under vacuum alone reduces the intensity of the characteristic Raman shifts of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_x$  making

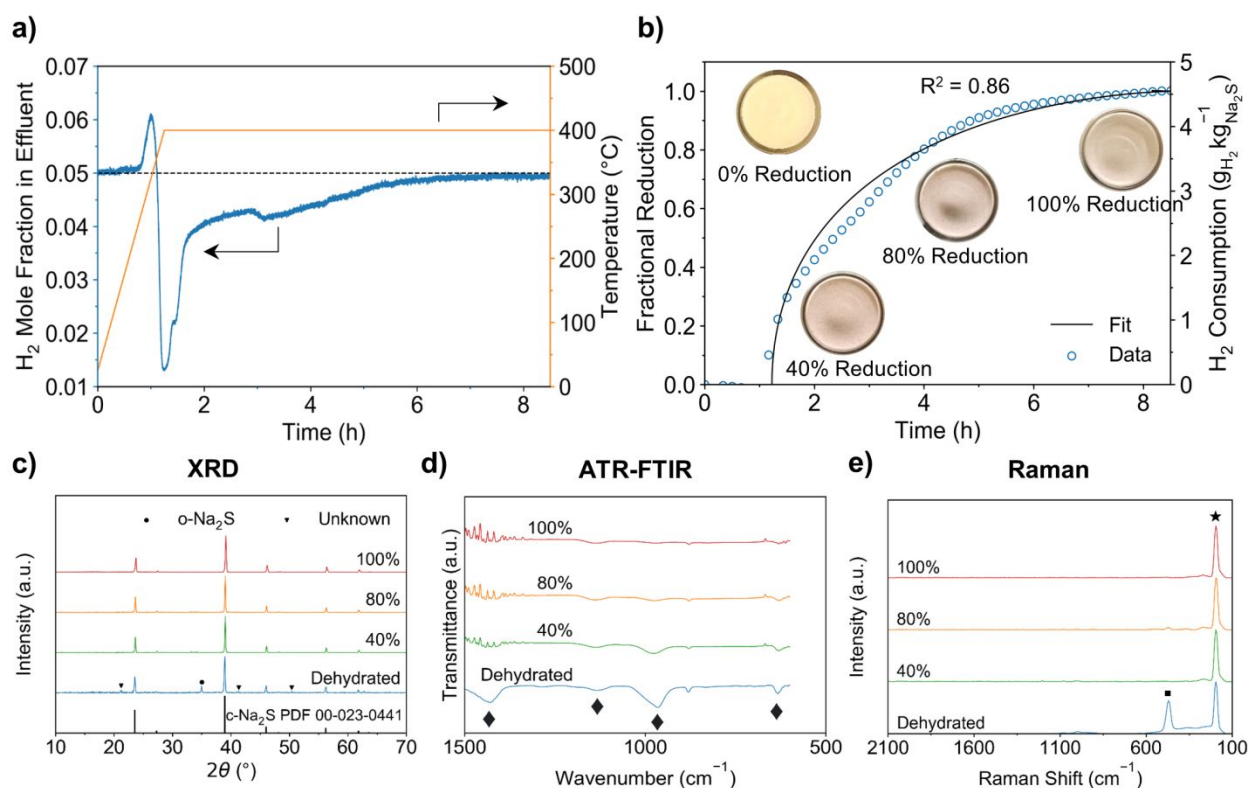


them hard to distinguish from the background, indicating possible melting of the crystalline lattice. Annealing under  $H_2$ , however, shows a systematic reduction in the relative amount of polysulfide impurities with increasing temperature up to 400 °C. At 500 °C the characteristic anhydrous  $Na_2S$  Raman signature peak is considerably broadened and shifted, indicating partial decomposition of the desired phase.

The kinetics of the  $H_2$  reduction at 400 °C were explored by ramping the temperature of the reactor to 400 °C and holding for 7 h while monitoring the  $H_2$  mole fraction in the reactor effluent with on-line mass spectrometry. (Fig. 3-a) This data was used to calculate instantaneous rates of  $H_2$  consumption within the reactor, which yields cumulative  $H_2$  consumption upon integration. (Fig. 3-b) The evolution of this cumulative  $H_2$  consumption (or fractional reduction) over time resembles a classic first-order process with no “s-shaped” behavior, indicating that intraparticle mass transfer is the rate-limiting step in the reaction mechanism.[29] A heterogeneous, shrinking-core kinetic model with a pseudo-steady-state approximation as described by Froment et al.[29] was fit to the fractional reduction curve. This model captures the observed behaviour remarkably well, considering it assumes a uniform particle size. A more detailed discussion of the reaction model and fitting procedure is included in the Supporting Information. This model suggests that the required  $H_2$  reduction time could be further reduced by increasing the  $H_2$  partial pressure and/or reducing the particle size. The solid-gas purification route is easily scalable[30] and has been extended to purify 30 g batches of dehydrated  $Na_2S$ .

Complementary experiments were performed in which the process was stopped prematurely at specified percent-reduction levels (40 and 80%) to characterize the  $Na_2S$  with increasing extent of reaction. As shown in XRD, only a brief anneal under  $H_2$  is required to remove crystalline impurities and for rearrangement into the cubic crystal structure, after which

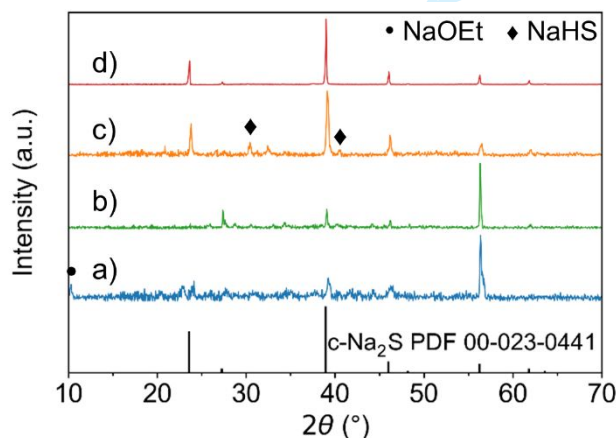
no change can be detected. (Fig. 3-c) FTIR, however, reveals a more monotonic reduction of  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_x$  impurities with increasing extent of reaction. (Fig. 3-d) Finally, Raman spectroscopy indicates a relatively rapid reduction in polysulfide content as evidenced by the near complete attenuation of the disulfide Raman shift at  $470\text{ cm}^{-1}$  after only 40% reduction. (Fig. 3-e) This polysulfide removal is reflected in the color of the  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  as shown in the insets of Fig. 3-b - the  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  undergoes a dramatic color change from pale yellow to an off-white after 40% reduction, and after 100% reduction the  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  is nearly pure white.



**Figure 3.** On-line mass spectrometry of gas effluent from a  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ - $\text{H}_2$  packed-bed reactor over time with the corresponding bed temperature (a); cumulative  $\text{H}_2$  consumption in the same reactor as a function of time with core-shell model fit and photographs of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  at varying degrees of reduction (b); XRD (c), FTIR (d), and Raman spectroscopy (e) of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  at varying degrees of reduction. Key: • - orthorhombic- $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ , ▼ – unknown crystalline impurity, ♦ -  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_x$  vibrational mode, ■ –  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_x$  polysulfides, ★ –  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$

### 3.2. Solution-Based Synthesis of Anhydrous $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ .

The solution-based synthesis in ethanol was found to be very sensitive to the stoichiometry of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{NaOEt}$ . XRD data for synthesized  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  in EtOH with different  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  amounts are shown in Fig. 4 a-c. When an exact stoichiometric ratio of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}/\text{NaOEt}$  was supplied to the reactor, a NaHS impurity was detected in the recovered  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ , possibly due to a small amount of solution loss when transferring the solution into the bubble column. When 92% of the stoichiometric amount of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  was used, unreacted NaOEt was detected in the recovered  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ . At 95% of the stoichiometric amount of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  there was no NaOEt or NaHS detected in the final  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ . In addition, sub-stoichiometric amounts of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  also lead to a preferential orientation in the recovered crystals that was distinct from the  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  XRD powder pattern. When methanol was used as the solvent for the solution-based synthesis the sensitivity to changes in stoichiometry were not present. Using methanol, the delivery of a stoichiometric amount of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  to the reactor resulted in the expected  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  powder pattern with no impurities present and a significantly reduced background. (Fig. 4-d)



**Figure 4.** XRD of synthesized  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  recovered from ethanol by drying at 100 °C (a-c) after reaction with 92, 95, and 100% of the stoichiometric amount of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , respectively, and of

synthesized  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  recovered from methanol by drying at 100 °C after reaction with 100% of the stoichiometric amount of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  (d).

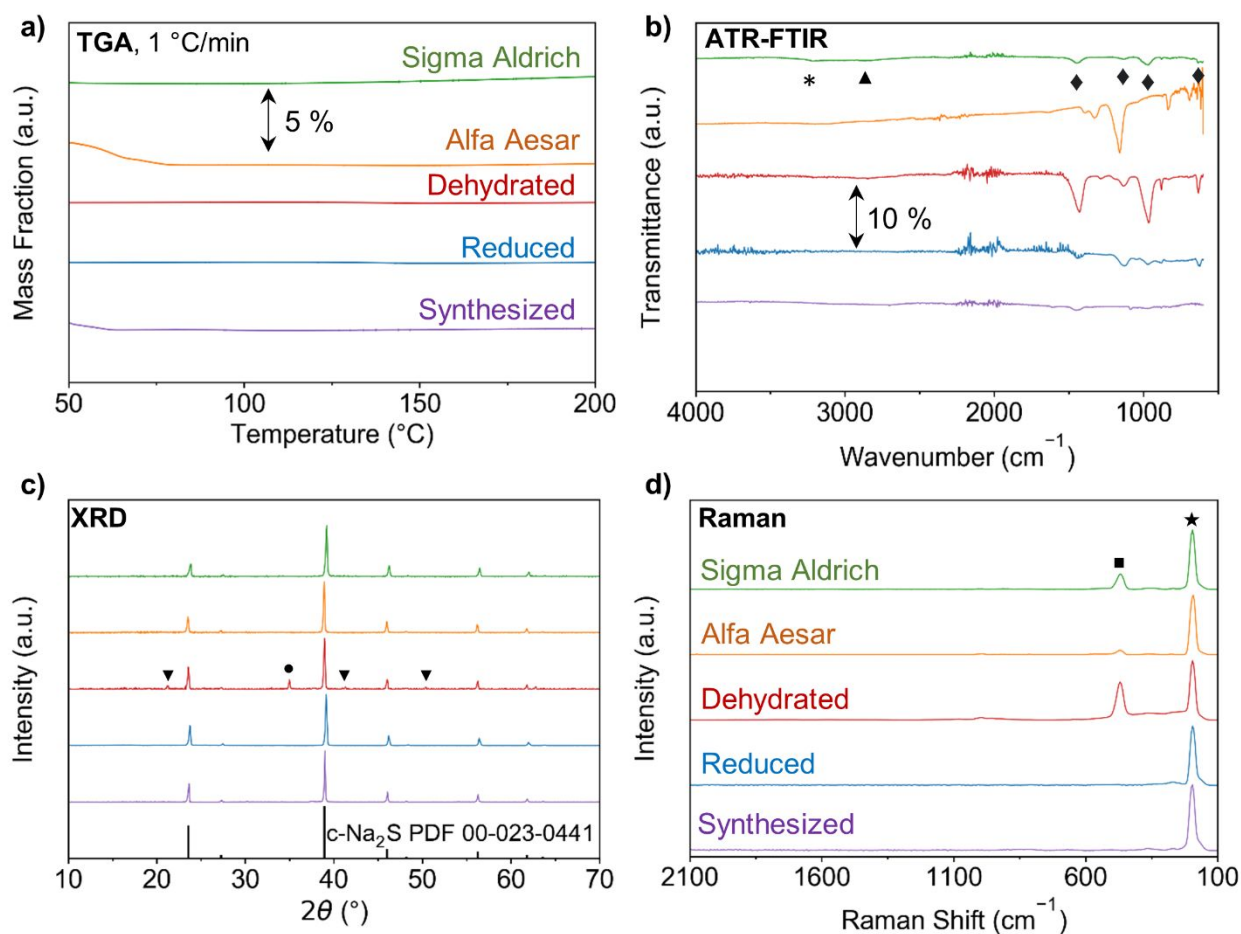
### 3.3. Comparison with Commercial Anhydrous $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ .

Anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  produced from dehydration and  $\text{H}_2$  reduction of technical grade hydrate as well as the methanol-based synthesis were compared directly to commercial anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  purchased from both Sigma-Aldrich and Alfa Aesar using TGA, FTIR, XRD, and Raman spectroscopy. (Fig. 5) In almost all samples, TGA revealed little or no mass loss up to 200 °C, indicating the very low moisture content of all materials. The material sourced from Alfa Aesar exhibits a mass loss of ~1.5 wt%, and the synthesized  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  loses a small (~0.5 wt%) amount of mass below 70 °C. The mass loss experienced by the synthesized material is attributed to evaporation of a surface layer of moisture that is adsorbed while loading the sample into the Ar-blanketed furnace for TGA. Drying the synthesized  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  at yet higher temperatures results in a similar mass loss in TGA, and no signature alcohol peaks are present in FTIR or Raman, so it is concluded this minor mass loss is due to adsorbed moisture rather than retained solvent from the synthesis.

The dehydrated material retained significant impurities including the presence of the orthorhombic phase in XRD,  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_x$  species in FTIR, and polysulfides in Raman. Both commercial samples of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  were phase-pure with respect to XRD but retained typical  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_x$  impurities, albeit in much lower concentrations than the dehydrated material. However, FTIR shows the presence of residual  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  content in the Sigma Aldrich  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  and Raman shows that it contains appreciable polysulfide impurities, consistent with its pale-yellow color. The Alfa Aesar material, on the other hand, possessed nearly undetectable levels of polysulfide species in

Raman, but a significant amount of  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$  as indicated by the strong IR absorption in the  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  symmetric stretching region. Nagy et al. characterized the polysulfide content of commercial sodium sulfide in different grades by absorbance measurements of 150 mM solutions in distilled water.[31] They found similar polysulfide levels of (0.1 – 0.6%) for both the anhydrous and hydrate forms. In contrast to this work, they found higher levels of polysulfide in the Alfa Aesar relative to Sigma. Such variation may reflect batch to batch variability, highlighting the importance of the characterization methods described herein for applications where the impurity profile is a concern.

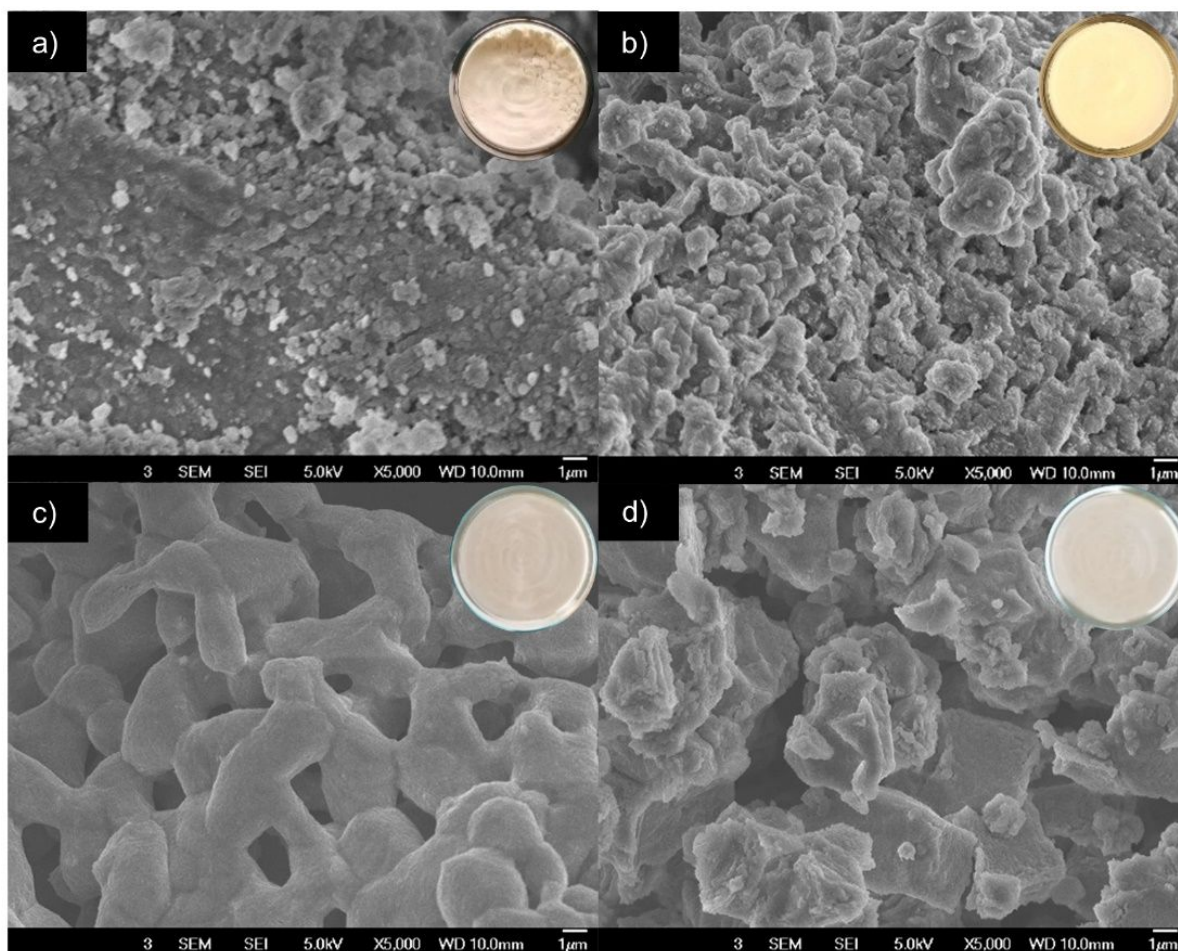
Hydrogen reduction at 400°C and the solution synthesized  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  displayed the highest purity. Both were phase-pure with respect to XRD and there was no evidence of the polysulfide band in their Raman spectra. FTIR proved to be the most sensitive diagnostic. Both forms were free of impurities with the exception of low intensity absorption signatures from polysulfur groups, and arguably the solution synthesized  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  was superior to the  $\text{H}_2$ -reduced.



**Figure 5.** Comparison using TGA (a), FTIR (b), XRD (c), and Raman spectroscopy (d) of the anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  produced in this work. Key: \* -  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , ♦ - S=O vibrational mode, ▲ - NaHS, ▼ - unknown crystalline impurity, • - o- $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ , ■ -  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_x$ , ★ -  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$

The variation in microstructure among the different  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  samples was characterized using SEM (Fig. 6) along with their respective photographs to provide context of color and macroscopic texture. Commercial and dehydrated  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  displayed similar morphologies consisting of polydisperse nodules with little surface roughness or micro-features. However, the dehydrated  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  undergoes a dramatic structural rearrangement during hydrogen reduction. The smaller particles from the dehydrated material appear to coalesce during reduction to form somewhat larger, more uniform particles with a highly porous skeletal structure. In contrast to the other forms, the solution-synthesized  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  possesses a very fine microstructure with small, monodisperse particles on the order of 1-10  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter. Both the skeletal structure and the uniformly small particle size of reduced and synthesized  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ , respectively, could have important impacts on reactivity owing to their higher specific surface area. The small particle size, monodisperse nature, and high purity of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ -s could make it especially relevant to emerging applications in energy storage, such as high-capacity Na-S cathode materials or as a precursor to  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ -based solid-state electrolytes, the synthesis of which would presumably benefit from smaller particle size and higher surface area of the  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  reagent. Lower magnification images, and images of the as-milled  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ -h are provided in the Supporting Information.



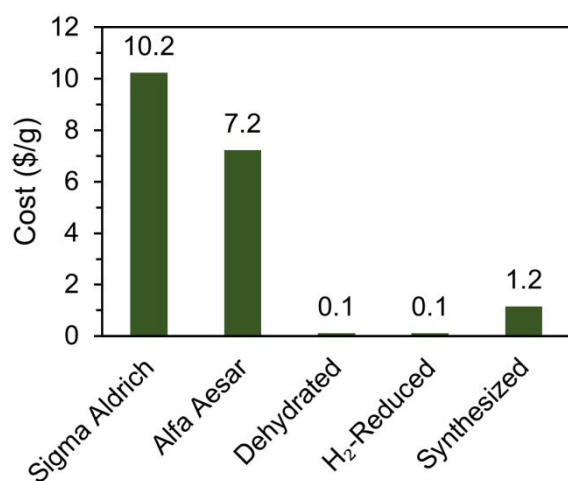


**Figure 6.** SEM of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  from different preparation routes and corresponding photograph (inset): commercial anhydrous **from Sigma Aldrich** (a); dehydrated (b);  $\text{H}_2$ -reduced (c); and synthesized (methanol system) (d).

Finally, the potential material cost of the described methods of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  preparation and purification are compared to the current cost of anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ . Though pricing of research-grade materials is not always directly relevant to prices at bulk scales, in this case the low availability of anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  in bulk quantities necessitates their use. **Table S3** provides a summary of reagent costs. Solid reagent pricing was retrieved from the Sigma-Aldrich website for reagent-grade chemicals (accessed October 2020), while gaseous



reagent prices are typical for industrial use. The cost to produce  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  is not expected to be very sensitive to the cost of gaseous reagents due to their much lower molar price, which are at least two orders of magnitude lower than the solid reagents. The reagent costs per gram- $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  for  $\text{Na}_2\text{S-d}$ ,  $\text{Na}_2\text{S-r}$ , and  $\text{Na}_2\text{S-s}$  are derived from the stated reagent costs and then shown in comparison to two commercial forms of anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  – Sigma Aldrich and Alfa Aesar – in Fig. 7, revealing that dehydration and purification of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S-h}$  and the liquid-phase synthesis route could be one and two orders of magnitude cheaper than the current commercially available material, respectively. The difference is driven by the cost of sodium source, with metallic sodium being considerably more expensive than the technical grade hydrate. Table S3 shows pricing of research grade materials. Both technical grade  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  hydrate and Na metal are widely available commodity chemicals at pricing two orders of magnitude below the values shown in Table S3, suggesting that at scale anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  produced through either method would be a very low cost. Finally, Table 1 provides a summary of the different samples of  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  investigated in this work.



**Figure 7.** Materials cost comparison of different  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  grades at lab-scale.

Table 1. Summary of Na<sub>2</sub>S samples investigated in this work.

Source	Form/Color	TGA	XRD	FTIR	Raman	Materials
		Mass Loss	Crystalline	Impurities	Impurities	Cost Estimate
		(wt%)	Phases			(\$ g <sup>-1</sup> -Na <sub>2</sub> S)
<b>Sigma</b>	Granular/Powder	ND*	c-Na <sub>2</sub> S	H <sub>2</sub> O (trace)	Na <sub>2</sub> S <sub>x</sub>	10.2
<b>Aldrich</b>	Pale Yellow			NaHS (trace)		
<b>(97-103%)</b>				Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> (trace)		
				Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> (trace)		
				Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>2</sub> (trace)		
<b>Alfa Aesar</b>	Large Chunks	1.5	c-Na <sub>2</sub> S	Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	Na <sub>2</sub> S <sub>x</sub> (trace)	7.2
<b>(&gt;95%)</b>	Yellow surface coating, off-white interior			Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> (trace)		
<b>Na<sub>2</sub>S•xH<sub>2</sub>O</b>	Large Flakes	38.5	Na <sub>2</sub> S•9H <sub>2</sub> O	H <sub>2</sub> O	Na <sub>2</sub> S <sub>x</sub>	0.1
<b>Sigma</b>	Yellow-Orange		Na <sub>2</sub> S•5H <sub>2</sub> O	NaHS	H <sub>2</sub> O	
<b>(&gt;60% Na<sub>2</sub>S)</b>			Na <sub>2</sub> S•2H <sub>2</sub> O	Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>		
			Various	Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub>		
			unidentified	Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>2</sub>		
<b>Dehydrated</b>	Powder	ND	c-Na <sub>2</sub> S	H <sub>2</sub> O (trace)	Na <sub>2</sub> S <sub>x</sub>	0.1
<b>Na<sub>2</sub>S•xH<sub>2</sub>O</b>	Yellow		o-Na <sub>2</sub> S	NaHS (trace)		
			Trace	Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> (trace)		
			Unidentified	Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub>		
				Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>2</sub>		
<b>H<sub>2</sub>-Reduced</b>	Powder	ND	c-Na <sub>2</sub> S	Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> (trace)	ND	0.1
	Pure white			Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub> (trace)		
				Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>2</sub> (trace)		

<b>Synthesized</b>	Fine Powder	0.5	c-Na <sub>2</sub> S	Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>2</sub> (trace)	ND	1.2
<b>(MeOH)</b>	Pure white					

\*ND = Not Detected

#### 4. Conclusions

Two methods to prepare anhydrous Na<sub>2</sub>S of high purity have been described in this work. First, low-cost Na<sub>2</sub>S hydrate was dehydrated and then purified under flowing H<sub>2</sub>. It was found that optimal reduction occurred at T = 400 °C, significantly lower than previous reports, through a diffusion limited process that was well described by a shrinking core model. The reduction process produced a unique skeletal microstructure. Second, Na<sub>2</sub>S was formed via reaction of H<sub>2</sub>S gas with a dissolved sodium alkoxide and recovered by solvent evaporation at moderate temperatures with no further purification. Methanol robustly produced phase-pure Na<sub>2</sub>S with a narrow particle size distribution, whereas in ethanol minor stoichiometry variations resulted in impurity phases.

The purity of material produced from both routes were compared to two commercial forms of Na<sub>2</sub>S anhydride. All four materials were indistinguishable by XRD, but vibrational spectroscopies proved to be more sensitive diagnostics. Commercial Na<sub>2</sub>S contained appreciable polysulfide (Raman) and Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>x</sub> (FTIR) impurities. Polysulfide signatures were eliminated and Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>x</sub> signals greatly attenuated in both synthesis methods presented, with the solution-based synthesis perhaps being slightly superior. Color is a sensitive and cost-effective diagnostic, with pure white being the hallmark of phase pure, impurity free Na<sub>2</sub>S. Both solution synthesis and the hydrate reduction processes are readily

scalable with materials costs one and two orders of magnitude lower than the price of commercially available  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ , respectively.

## Acknowledgements

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## Supporting Information

Spectroscopic peak assignments, additional SEM images – including lower magnifications and milled  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$  hydrate – lab-scale reagent cost summary, and shrinking-core reaction model details.

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# Supporting Information - Production and Purification of Anhydrous Sodium Sulfide

William H. Smith, Jerry Birnbaum, and Colin A. Wolden\*

Department of Chemical and Biological Engineering

Colorado School of Mines, Golden, CO, USA

\*Email: cwolden@mines.edu

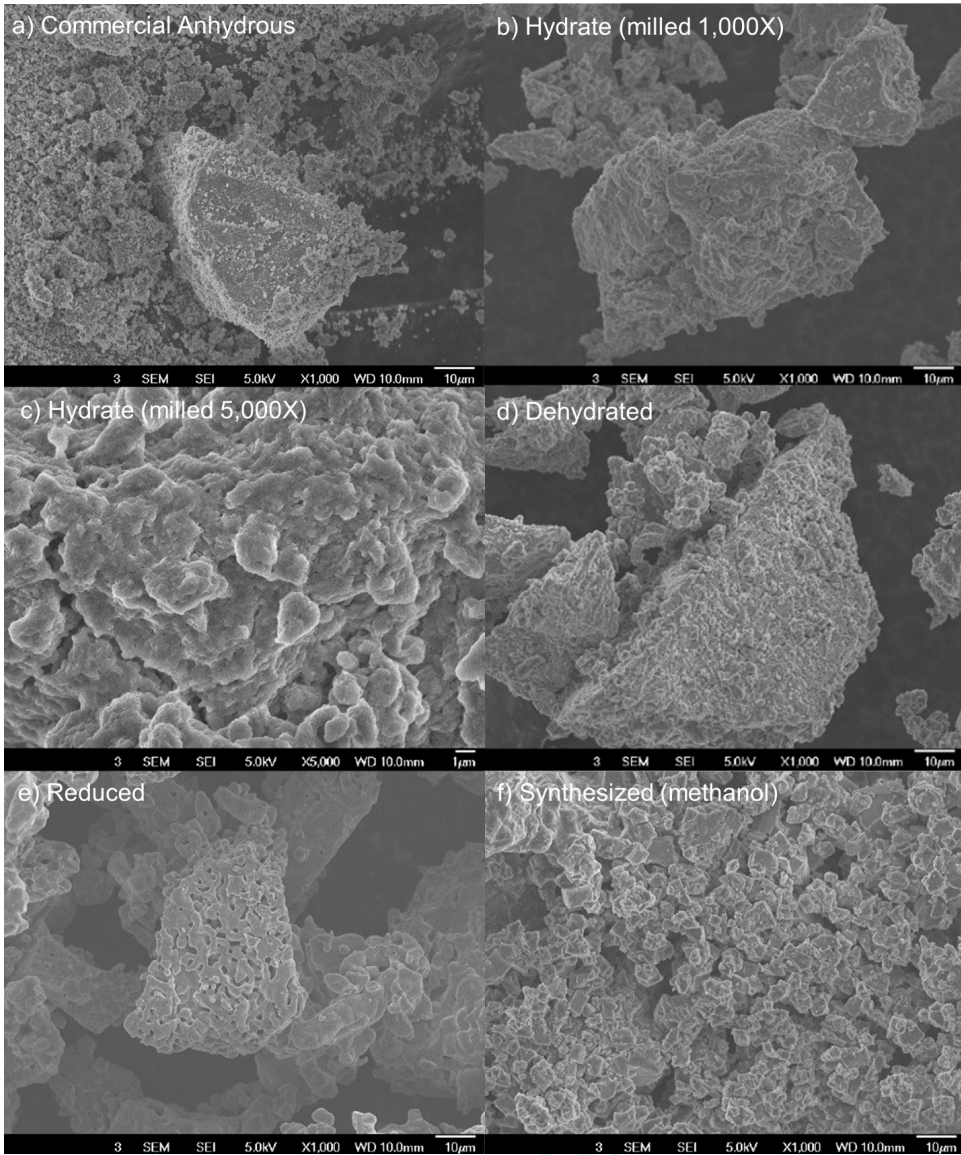
**Table S1.** FTIR Peak Assignments

Wavenumber (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	Vibrational Mode	Chemical Identity	References
3,200	H <sub>2</sub> O Stretch	H <sub>2</sub> O	[1]
2,800	H-S Stretch	NaHS	[2]
1,570	H <sub>2</sub> O Bending	H <sub>2</sub> O	[1]
1,430	SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> Asymmetric Stretch	Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	[3]
1,130	SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> Symmetric Stretch	Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>	[3]
960	SO <sub>3</sub> <sup>2-</sup> Symmetric Stretch	Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub>	[3]
820	Coordinated H <sub>2</sub> O Bending	H <sub>2</sub> O	[1]
630	SO <sub>3</sub> <sup>2-</sup> Bending	Na <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>3</sub>	[3]

**Table S2.** Raman Peak Assignments

Raman Shift (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	Vibrational Mode	Chemical Identity	References
1,700	H <sub>2</sub> O Bending	H <sub>2</sub> O	[1]
470	S <sub>2</sub> <sup>2-</sup> /S <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> Stretch	Na <sub>2</sub> S <sub>2</sub> /Na <sub>2</sub> S <sub>4</sub>	[4]
240	Water Coordinated Na <sub>2</sub> S Lattice Vibration	Na <sub>2</sub> S	
195	Na <sub>2</sub> S Lattice Vibration	Na <sub>2</sub> S	[4]





**Fig. S1.** Lower magnification SEM images of Na<sub>2</sub>S from different preparation routes: commercial anhydrous (a), as-milled hydrate at 1,000X (b) and 5,000X (c) magnifications, dehydrated (d), H<sub>2</sub>-reduced (e), and synthesized (methanol system) (f).



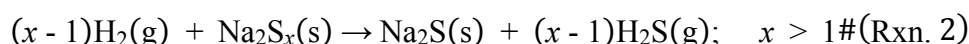
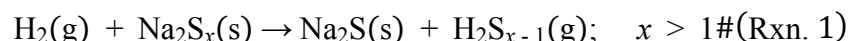
**Table S3.** Prices of Na<sub>2</sub>S reagents

Chemical	Quantity (g)	Price (\$)	Unit Price (\$ g <sup>-1</sup> )	Molar Mass (g mol <sup>-1</sup> )	Unit Price (\$ mol <sup>-1</sup> )
Na <sub>2</sub> S Anhydride (Sigma Aldrich)	50	512.00	10.24	78.04	799.13
Na <sub>2</sub> S Anhydride (Alfa Aesar)	100	723.00	7.23	78.04	564.23
Na <sub>2</sub> S Hydrate (60%) <sup>a</sup>	1000	66.00	0.07	54.02	3.57
H <sub>2</sub> <sup>b</sup>	1000	3.50	0.00	2.02	0.01
Na Metal <sup>a</sup>	50	\$98.30	1.97	22.99	45.20
H <sub>2</sub> S <sup>b</sup>	1000	\$2.00	0.00	34.10	0.07

<sup>a</sup>Sigma-Aldrich pricing<sup>b</sup>Estimates

## Shrinking-Core Reaction-Model Details

The chemical basis of the hydrogen-reduction purification process is the reaction of H<sub>2</sub> gas with oxidized impurities in the anhydrous Na<sub>2</sub>S including polysulfides (Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>x</sub>) and oxysulfur compounds (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>x</sub>). The chemical reactions underlying this process are:



The kinetics of the hydrogen-reduction reaction at 400 °C were modeled using a single heterogeneous gas-solid reaction controlled by gas diffusion through a shrinking unreacted core with a pseudo-steady-state approximation, assuming a uniform particle size of 28 μm. The external film mass transfer and gas-solid reaction are assumed to be much faster than internal gas diffusion – an assumption that is well-supported by the first-order nature of the fractional reduction curve: A lack of s-shaped behavior is characteristic of a large Thiele Modulus ( $\phi'' = R_p \sqrt{\frac{k\rho_s}{D_{e,A}}}$  for zero-order gas-solid reaction kinetics in a spherical particle) indicating the process is internal-diffusion-limited.

For an internal-diffusion-limited gas-solid reaction, the time,  $t$ , required to achieve fractional conversion,  $x$ , is given by the following relations:[5]

$$t = \frac{R_p^2 a C_{s0}}{C_{H_2} D_{e,H_2}} \left( \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{r_c}{R_p} \right)^2 \right] - \frac{1}{3} \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{r_c}{R_p} \right)^3 \right] \right) \#(1)$$

$$x = \frac{\int_0^t \dot{n}_{H_2} dt}{\int_0^\infty \dot{n}_{H_2} dt} = 1 - \left( \frac{r_c}{R_p} \right)^3 \#(2)$$

The experimental H<sub>2</sub> flowrate vs. time data (Fig. 3a) was used to calculate fractional conversion vs. time (Fig. 3b), which was fit to the above model using the method of least squares. The domain was limited to time larger than 1.22 h to avoid the impact of flow instabilities at the beginning of the reaction, which manifest as an apparent increase of H<sub>2</sub> flow in the effluent. This instability is possibly caused by partial sintering of the reactant bed leading to a temporary change in pressure at the inlet of the mass spectrometer. The apparent increase in H<sub>2</sub> concentration is explained by the slower pumping speed of H<sub>2</sub> relative to Ar during this pressure fluctuation. Because it is difficult and time-consuming to extract values for  $a$ ,  $C_{s0}$ , and  $D_{e,H_2}$ , these values were instead lumped into a single fit parameter,  $B$  with a best-fit value of  $B = \frac{a C_{s0}}{D_{e,H_2}} = 5.75 \cdot 10^{14} \frac{\text{mol H}_2 \cdot \text{s}}{\text{m}_{\text{solid}}^3 \text{m}^2}$ .

The coefficient of determination,  $R^2$ , was calculated according to the following equations, and the best fit value was found to be  $R^2 = 0.86$ .

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{SS_{res}}{SS_{tot}} \#(3)$$

$$SS_{res} = \sum_i (y_i - f_i)^2 \#(4)$$

$$S_{res} = \sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2 \#(5)$$

## List of Symbols

Letters		Units
$a$	Number of moles of $H_2$ reacting with 1 mole of solid reactant	$\frac{\text{mol } H_2}{\text{mol S}}$
$B$	Lumped fit parameter = $\frac{aC_{s0}}{D_{e,H_2}}$	$\frac{\text{mol } H_2 \cdot \text{s}}{\text{m}_{\text{solid}}^3 \text{m}^2}$
$C_{H_2}$	Concentration of $H_2$ in gas phase	$\frac{\text{mol } H_2}{\text{m}^3}$
$C_{s0}$	Initial concentration of the solid reactant	$\frac{\text{mol S}}{\text{m}^3}$
$D_{e,H_2}$	Effective diffusivity of $H_2$ in the solid	$\frac{\text{m}^2}{\text{s}}$
$f_i$	Fitted/Model-predicted value	
$k$	Reaction rate constant	$\frac{\text{mol } H_2}{\text{kg}_{\text{solid}} \cdot \text{s}}$
$\dot{n}_{H_2}$	Molar rate of $H_2$ consumption	$\frac{\text{mol } H_2}{\text{s}}$
$R^2$	Coefficient of determination	
$r_c$	Radius of unreacted core	m
$R_p$	Particle radius	m
$S$	Solid reactant	
$SS_{res}$	Sum of squares of residuals	
$SS_{tot}$	Total sum of squares	
$t$	Reaction time	s
$x$	Fractional conversion/reduction	
$\bar{y}$	Mean value of observed data	
$y_i$	Value of observed data	

## Greek Symbols

	Units
$\rho_s$	Skeletal solid mass density
	$\frac{\text{kg}}{\text{m}_{\text{solid}}^3}$
$\phi''$	Thiele Modulus for zero-order gas-solid reaction kinetics in a spherical particle

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