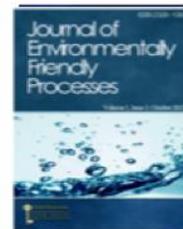




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A Review on Recent CO₂ Capturing Technology, a Nano-particle Adsorption Approach

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Abstract

Innovative gas capture technologies with the objective to mitigate CO₂ emissions are discussed in this review. Emphasis is given on the use of Nanoparticles (NP) as Sorbents of CO₂, which is the most important global warming gas. The existing NP sorption processes must overcome certain challenges before their implementation to the industrial scale. These are: i) the utilization of the concentrated gas stream generated by the capture and gas purification technologies, ii) the reduction of the effects of impurities on the operating system, iii) the scale up of the relevant materials, and iv) the retrofitting of technologies in existing facilities.

Thus, an innovative design of adsorbents could possibly address those issues. Biogas purification and CO₂ storage would become a new motivation for the development of new sorbent materials, such as nanomaterials. This review discusses the current state of the art on the use of novel nanomaterials as adsorbents for CO₂. The review shows that materials based on porous supports that are modified with amine or metals are currently providing the most promising results. The Fe₃O₄-graphene and the MOF-117 based NPs show the greatest CO₂ sorption capacities, due to their high thermal stability and high porosity. Conclusively, one of the main challenges would be to decrease the cost of capture and to scale-up the technologies to minimize large-scale power plant CO₂ emissions.

INTRODUCTION

Global Warming and Low Carbon Economy

Generation of greenhouse gases resulting from human activities is becoming an important concern all over the world. Greenhouse gases trap some of the heat coming from the sun and make an important contribution to the greenhouse effect. Greenhouse effect is a natural process in which methane, carbon dioxide, water vapor, and other greenhouse gases absorb the beam reflecting from the surface and it causes an increase in Earth's temperature.[1]

The certain greenhouse gases contributing to global warming in the atmosphere are water vapor (H_2O), methane (CH_4), nitrous oxide (N_2O), fluorinated gases (F Gases), and carbon dioxide (CO_2)[2]. Water vapor is the most abundant greenhouse gas in the atmosphere. Increases in the amount of water vapor in the atmosphere causes the formation of clouds and it acts as a feedback mechanism to the climate change. CH_4 is the second prevalent greenhouse gases in the atmosphere and it is a hydrocarbon gas produced both petroleum systems and human activities [3]. N_2O is one of the most powerful greenhouse gases generated by usage of synthetic fertilizer, burning of fuels, and as a byproduct of nitric acid [3]. Fluorinated gases have no natural sources. Only human-related activities causes the formation of fluorinated gases that includes hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), sulfur hexafluoride (SF_6), and nitrogen trifluoride (NF_3) [4]. CO_2 is the primary greenhouse gas resulting from human activities and natural processes.

At the global scale, the percentages of the emission of greenhouse gases into the atmosphere are given in Figure 1.1. The percentage of CO_2 emissions into the atmosphere is assumed that CO_2 has the greatest impact on greenhouse effect compared to other greenhouse gases.

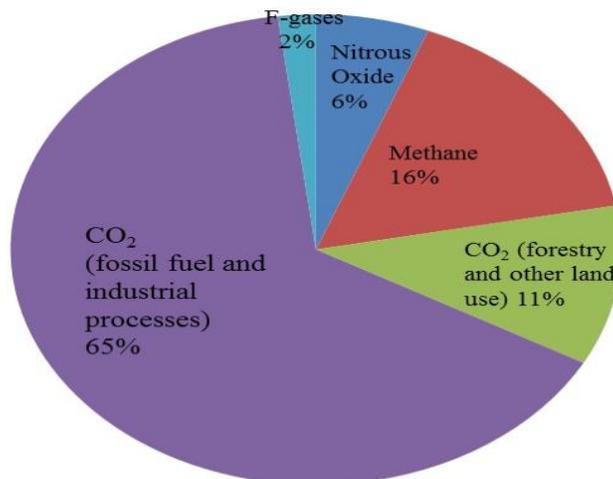


Figure 1 : Global greenhouse gas emissions. Adapted from reference 5

The carbon suppliers in the atmosphere, soils, oceans and rocks are related to a complex natural biochemical process called carbon cycle [6]. CO₂ is naturally present in the atmosphere as a part of carbon cycle. Natural sources, human activities, and burning of fossil fuels altering the carbon cycle by adding or consuming CO₂ [7]. Respiration and volcano eruption can be given as examples of natural sources of CO₂. Human activities such as deforestation are attributed to CO₂ emissions as well as natural sources. However; the major contribution to the amount of emitted CO₂ to the atmosphere comes from the combustion of fossil fuels like coal, coke, and natural gas [8]. Beside the burning of fossil fuels, the fermentation of carbohydrate materials and production of cement and lime also make the quantity of CO₂ in the atmosphere increase.[9]

CO₂ capture technologies

As seen in the introduction one of the most important gases which cause some problems like global warming, greenhouse effect is CO₂.

In this chapter we concentrate on preventing it from entering the atmosphere and face such problems.

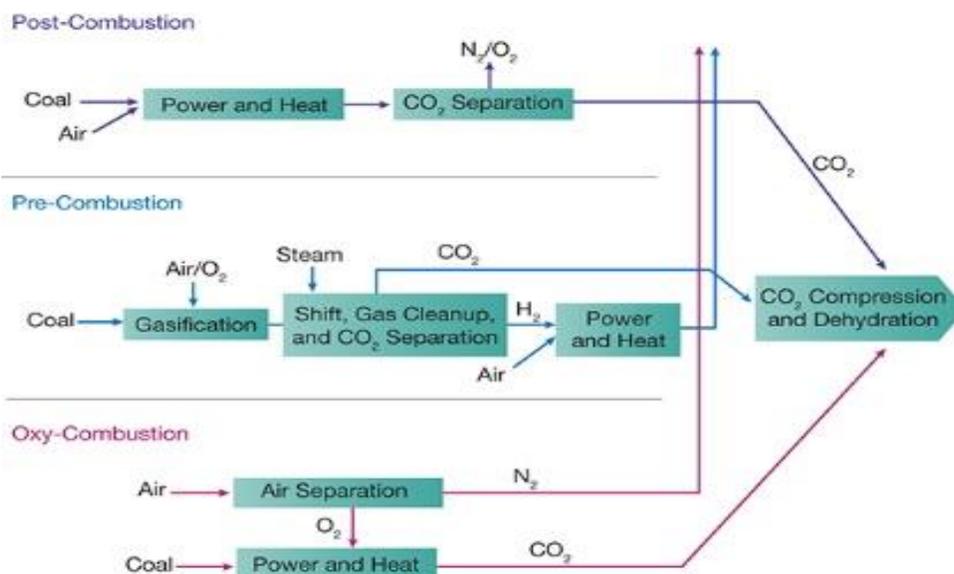
The biggest CO₂ generators are the power stations and now a day's oil and gas industry which burn fossil fuels for energy.

Now the most energy production is by using fossil fuels that produce CO₂ as a byproduct of energy.

CO₂

Table 1

CO ₂ capture technologies		
Pre-combustion	Post-combustion	Oxy-combustion
Integrated gasification combine cycle	Amine-based system	–
Physical solvent process	Emerging technologies: 1. Carbonate-based system 2. Aqueous ammonia 3. Membranes 4. CO ₂ capture sorbent 5. Metal organic frameworks 6. Enzyme-based system 7. Ionic liquid	–
Membrane		–
Pre-combustion sorbent		–
Chemical looping combustion and gasification		–
Improved auxiliary process		–



Nanoparticles

Particles play in general a dominant role in many industrial processes and natural phenomena. 60% of the products made by major chemical companies such as Dupont, Dowor ICI are either made as particles or involve significant particle technology in their manufacture (PTL, 2004). Furthermore particle science and engineering is central to the environment (air pollution, climate change, greenhouse effect), energy utilization (fossil fuel combustion, turbine combustion, fly ash) and medicine (virus and bacteria transport, medicine delivery, allergies) (PTL, 2004).

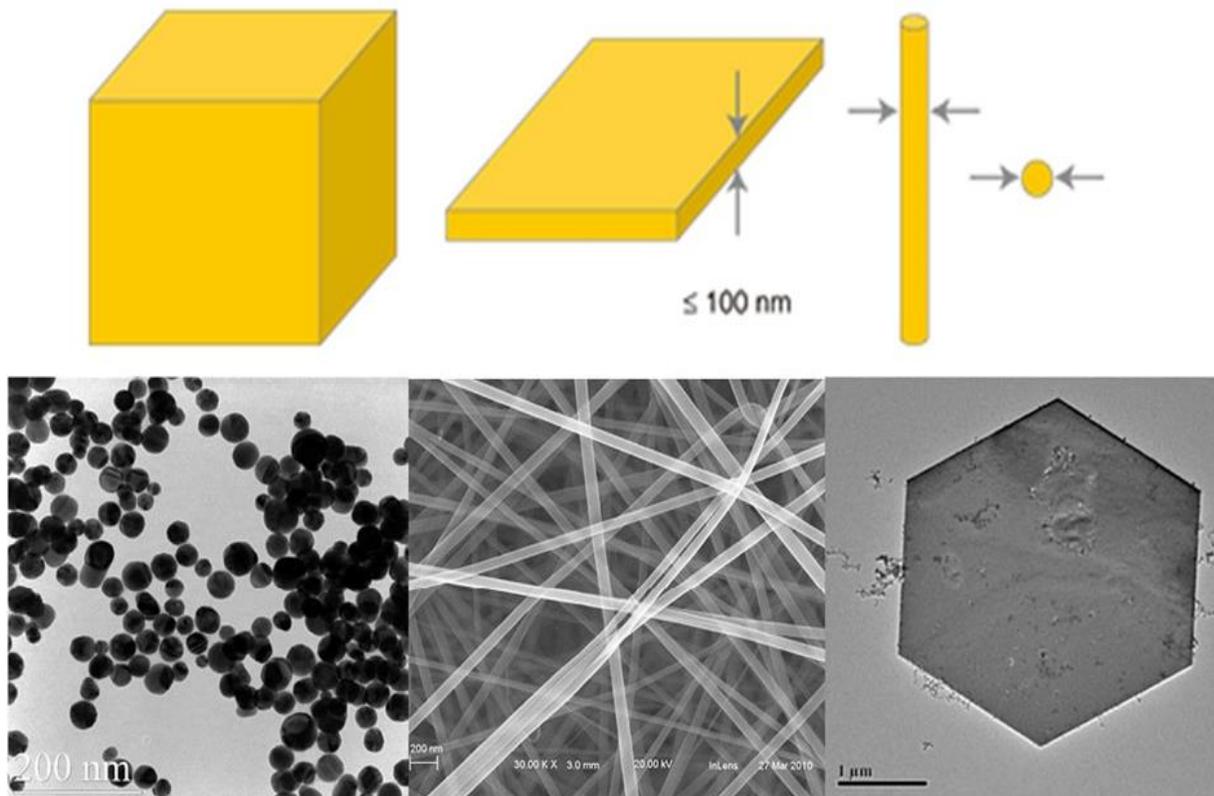
Nano-sized materials are naturally present from forest fires and volcanoes, but are also generated unintentionally from anthropogenic sources as a by-product of combustion and deliberately as manufactured nanomaterials. Nanoparticles have been used for centuries. The coloured glass that we see in many old cathedrals from the middle ages was made of gold nano sized clusters that created different colours depending on the size of the nanoparticles. The most prominent example of engineered nanoparticulate material is carbon black which has been around us for decades in applications like printing inks, toners, coatings, plastics, paper, tires and building products. However, carbon black would for many be excluded from the nanoparticle category, as nanotechnology is about deliberately and knowingly exploiting the nanoscale nature of materials (Holister, Weener, Vas, & Harper, 2003). Two of the major factors why nanoparticles have different properties (optical, electrical, magnetic, chemical and mechanical) than bulk material are because in this size-range quantum effects start to predominate and the surface area to volume ratio is increased (Holister et al, 2003). The increase in the surface-area-to-volume ratio is a gradual

progression as the particles get smaller which leads to that atoms on the outside of the particle will increasingly begin to dominate the ones inside the particle. This changes the individual properties of the particle and how it interacts with other materials in the surroundings. The increase of relative surface area makes them very interesting for the industry, as high surface area is a critical factor in for instance efficient catalysis and in structures like electrodes. This can improve the performance of products like batteries, but also reduce resource usage in catalytic processes and hence decrease the amount of waste. The large surface area also increases the mixing with other materials in the surrounding and is especially beneficial in intermixed materials like composites.

Once particles become small enough they start to exhibit quantum mechanical behaviour. Classical mechanics can explain the relation between theory and observation for large objects. However, only quantum mechanics can explain the behaviour of objects as small as electrons. Quantum mechanics describes the matter and radiation taking quantization³ into account. Nanoparticles are currently made out of a very wide variety of materials, the most common ceramics, which can be split into metal oxide ceramics, such as titanium, zinc, aluminium and iron oxides, and silicate nanoparticles (silicates, or silicon oxides are also ceramics), generally in the form of nanoscale flakes of clay (Holister *et al*, 2003). Silicate nanoparticles, as any nanoparticles, can be mixed into polymers. Pure metal nanoparticles can mix together into a solid composite at lower temperatures than for larger particles, which can improve coatings and make the coatings easier to create, harder and more durable. The formation of coatings and bulk materials at lower temperature reduces the manufacturing costs compared to their non-nano counterparts. Metal oxide ceramic, metal and silicate nanoparticles are the majority of nanoparticles that have existing applications.

Classification of nanoscale materials based on their dimensions

The mainstay of nanotechnology is the use of materials. Each material in space has three dimensions: length, width and height. If in a material at least one of these three dimensions are in the nanometer range, it is called a material, a nanostructure. A common division in nanomaterials (nanostructures) is their division based on the number of dimensions in the nanometer range. If all three dimensions of a material are in the nanometer range, then they refer to the dimension zero nanostructure. Similarly, if two dimensions of the material are in the range of the nanoscale, then it is a one-dimensional nanostructures, and if one dimension is within a nanometer range, then it is called a two-dimensional nanostructure. In this naming, because the nanometer dimension is smaller than the other dimensions, the dimension next to the nanoscale is considered dimensionless (no length). To illustrate this, a number of nanostructures are shown in Figure schematic and image of the electron microscope.



Above is a schematic representation of the types of nanostructures, at the bottom, respectively, from left to right, electron microscopy images of the dimensional zero, one dimensional and two-dimensional nanostructures

Conventional adsorbents

Adsorption of a gas onto a solid surface (adsorbent) can be defined as the gain of one or more constituents of the gas (adsorbate) in the gas-solid interface (Solar et al, 2010). CO_2 capture using solid adsorbents is considered one of the most promising technologies for CCS (Figuerola et al, 2008). Adsorption can reduce energy and cost of the capture or separation of CO_2 in post-combustion capture technologies (Solar et al, 2010). However, the success of this approach depends on the development of easily recoverable and durable adsorbents with high CO_2 selectivity and adsorption capacities (Songul Zadeh et al, 2012). The most common conventional CO_2 adsorbents are natural zeolites, activated carbon and alkali-based metal materials. Table 2 shows the main characteristics, key strengths and main drawbacks of the aforementioned three groups. *Table 2*

Summary of characteristics of conventional adsorbents for CO₂

Sorbent	CO ₂ adsorption capacity (mg CO ₂ /g sorbent)	Experimental conditions	Process scale	Key strengths	Main drawbacks
NaXzeolite	263	0.1 MPa, 303 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good adsorption kinetics • Good performance at mild conditions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Impurities • Elevated temperatures for regeneration
Zeolite 5A	222.7	1.4 MPa for CO ₂ ,	Lab scale		
Zeolite 13X	324.37	3.2 MPa for CO ₂ ,	Lab scale		
Activated carbon (MAXSORB)	1408	3.2 MPa for CO ₂ ,	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High thermal stability. • Good adsorption kinetics. • Cheap raw material • Large adsorption capacity at elevated pressures. • Easy regeneration 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low capacity at mild conditions • Low selectivity • Impacted by NO_x, SO_x.
K ₂ CO ₃ /TiO ₂	119	0.1 MPa, 333 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhancement of regeneration capacity compared to other oxide based sorbents • Unique thermal stability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lower capture capacity than other oxide based sorbents
Alkali based Li ₂ ZrO ₃	220	Patm, 873 K	Lab scale & simulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 20 absorption/regeneration cycles • Small volume change during cycles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Slow absorption kinetics

Patm: atmospheric pressure.

Nanomaterial based CO₂ capture systems

Many of the sorbent materials presented here have a natural origin and their uses and properties are known for centuries. It has been during the last 50 years, however, that researchers focused their efforts on the development of novel materials with engineered features in the Nano-range (Fox-Rabinovich and Totten, 2006). Due to their small size and high surface area per unit volume or mass, nanomaterials show unique electric, magnetic, optical, structural, mechanical, and chemical characteristics that are already exploited in a large number of industrial and consumer products (Royal Society and Royal Academy of Engineering, 2004). In this context, the high adsorption capacity of nanomaterials has been demonstrated in several cases. Nanomaterials have a number of physicochemical properties that make them particularly attractive as separation supports for gas purification and gas capture. One is the ability to be functionalized with different compounds (such as surfactants) so that to enhance their affinity towards target molecules (Buzea et al, 2007). In addition, their size makes their surface especially reactive and their nature provides them with an extra stability and robustness intended for many uses and an easiness of use (Buzea et al, 2007). Gas treatment with nanoparticles (NPs) can be considered an attractive field. Hence, the occurrence of this phenomenon in gas-solid interactions is a major focus of nanotechnology research today (Fernández-García et al., 2006). Novel nanomaterials, like advanced Nano porous materials, MOFs and porous organic polymers, have received considerable attention in adsorption storage applications due to their exceptionally high surface areas and their chemically-tunable structures (Gadipelli and Guo, 2015). Some of these materials have been tested for CO₂ adsorption and have gained increased interest recently. In fact, several research papers have reported improved CO₂ sorption and, more interestingly. In particular, MOFs were the ones that exhibited the highest adsorption (Saha et al, 2010). Fig. 2 shows different MOFs used to capture CO₂

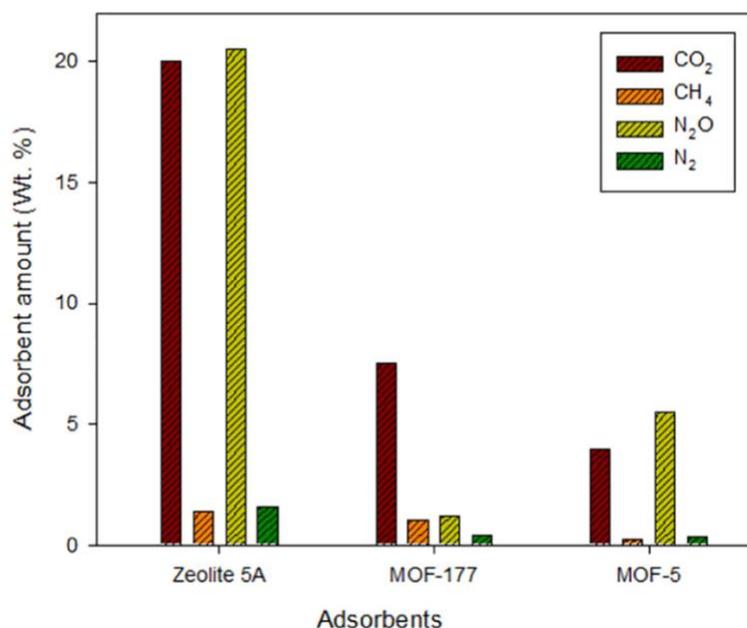


Figure 2

Mason et al. studied different MOFs and compared the effects of the volumetric and gravimetric adsorption on CH₄ uptake (Mason et al., 2014). A bibliography search (Web of Knowledge) using the keywords “nanomaterials” and “CO₂ capture” detected 20 publications from 2007 to 2016; 8 of them were related to this study and are discussed later on. A similar search for “CH₄ capture” detected 8 publications. The majority of those studies were based on simulations, rather than

on experimental work, demonstrating a promising research opportunity using experimental work. Among all the nanomaterials used for CO₂ or CH₄ capture, this review focuses on the most significant ones, namely: 1) Nanosized Zeolites; 2) Mesoporous Silica NPs; 3) MOFs and derived MOFs with embedded NPs; 4) Metal and Metal Oxide NPs (MNPs and MONPs), and 5) Carbonaceous Nano adsorbents.

In summary, the Fe₃O₄-graphene and the MOF-117 based NPs have the greatest CO₂ sorption capacities among all materials tackled in this review. Among all adsorbents for CH₄ capture, IRMOF-6, ordered mesoporous carbon, MOF-177 and MOF-5 have shown the highest adsorption capacities compared to the graphene-based NPs. This was due to their high thermal stability and the presence of high porosity in those materials. Table 3

Summary of characteristics of nanomaterial based sorbents for CO₂

Sorbent	Maximum CO ₂ capacity (mg CO ₂ /g sorbent)	Experimental conditions (P,T)	Process scale	Key strengths	Main drawbacks
DD3R nano zeolite	123	3 MPa, 273–348 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High selectivity for CO₂. Used for biogas separation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> At pressures higher than 2000 kPa, high-pressure data points deviate from the MSL model-fit lines.
T-type Zeolite NPs	176.4	0.1 MPa, 288 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Potential application in the natural gas purification process. Recyclability Applicability for post-combustion CO₂ separation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> >100 h to synthesize the T-type zeolite. Decrease of the adsorption capacities with increasing temperature from 288 to 313 K.
Zeolite NaA nanocrystals	215.6	0.1 MPa, 293 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use of a cost-effective method for the synthesis of highly active nanosized zeolites. High adsorption capacity for CO₂. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No expected dependence of the diffusion time constant on the square of the radius of the crystals for the CO₂ uptake.
Ordered mesoporous carbon, SBA-15 template	–	<7 MPa, 275 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Wet material has adsorption capacity 31% higher than AC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Long time to reach the equilibrium if the water content is higher than the critical value
PEI-mesoporous silica	347.6	P _{atm} , 348 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inexpensive material Can be regenerated Easy to operate Fast CO₂ adsorption kinetics 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of the selectivity factor for both CO₂ and H₂S
TRI-PE-MCM-41	112.6	0.1 MPa, 298 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Potential application in purification of biogas Separation of biogas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Low CH₄ adsorption
MOF-177	a) 1452 b) 396.9	a) 4.5 MPa, RT b) 1.4 MPa, 298 K c) 10 MPa, 298 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High thermal stability Extra high porosity High adsorption capacity at elevated pressures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Negatively impacted by NO_x, SO_x, and H₂O. Low selectivity in CO₂/N₂ gas streams.
MOF-5	480	1.4 MPa for CO ₂ ,	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Easily tunable pore and chemical characteristics. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of experimental data on performance after multiple cycles.
Ni ₂ (dhtp) MOF	–	3.5 MPa, 298 K	Lab scale		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Desorption approaches have not been adequately researched.
Mg ₂ (dhtp) MOF	–	3.5 MPa, 298 K	Lab scale		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Chemical instability upon time.
IRMOF-6	–	3.500 MPa, 298 K	Lab scale & simulation		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High pressures
MgO/SBA-15	80	Patm, 298 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Thermally stable NPs. Can be regenerated. High selectivity to CO₂ Can be used in different technologies applications for CO₂ separation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Slight decrease of surface area and pore volume.
CaO nanoparticles	770	Patm, 873 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Can be regenerated during 50 cycles Better than commercial CaO 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High temperatures
Fe ₂ O ₃ on AC	103.7	Patm, 298 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Enhancement the surface area of Fe₂O₃/AC 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decrease the adsorption capacity of CO₂ comparing to AC
MW-CNTs@IUC32	67.8	Patm, 273 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 70% and 90% higher than non-modified MW-CNTs Increase the CO₂ adsorption enthalpy 	
APTS-CNTs	96.3	Patm, 298 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 40% higher than non-modified CNTs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of information on the reusability, maximum adsorption capacity, and kinetics
Fe ₃ O ₄ -Graphene	2640	1.1 MPa, 298 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Easy synthesis Can be reused 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High pressures
Graphene	950.4	1.1 MPa, 298 K	Lab scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High adsorption capacity compared to other carbon nanostructures. Possible use for industrial applications 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High pressures

Patm: atmospheric pressure.

Table 3 shows a summary of the most representative nanomaterials for CO₂ sorption.

Conclusions

The conclusions drawn from this review are:

- The introduction of nanomaterials for the capture of CO₂ is expected to be efficient due to their exceptional and unmatched properties. Adsorbents based on porous supports, modified with amine or metals, are currently providing the most promising results in terms of sorption capacity for the aforementioned GHGs.
- The Fe₃O₄-graphene and the MOF-117 based NPs showed the greatest CO₂ sorption capacities, due to their high thermal stability and the presence of high porosity.
- One of the main challenges is to decrease the cost of capture and to scale-up the technologies to the size required in order to address large-scale power generation emission issues and to render them CO₂ emission free.
- Further research is needed to prove the long-term efficacy of nanomaterials as sorbents in real scale applications. In addition, the precise mechanisms of adsorption of the GHG onto the nanoparticles need to be further elucidated and researched in future studies.

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