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# Use of multifunctional nanoporous TiO(OH)<sub>2</sub> for catalytic NaHCO<sub>3</sub> decomposition-eventually for Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>/NaHCO<sub>3</sub> based CO<sub>2</sub> separation technology

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### ABSTRACT

In general,  $CO_2$  capture from flue gas is a costly procedure, usually due to the energy required for regeneration of the capture medium. One potential medium which could reduce such an energy consumption, however, is  $Na_2CO_3$ . It has been well studied as a sorbent, and it is understood that the theoretical energy penalty of use of  $Na_2CO_3$  for  $CO_2$  separation is low, due to the relatively low heat of reaction and low heat capacity of the material. While it offers some advantages over other methods, its primary downfall is the slow reaction with  $CO_2$  during adsorption and the slow  $Na_2CO_3$  regeneration process. In an effort to reduce the energy penalty of post-combustion  $CO_2$  capture, the catalytic decomposition of  $NaHCO_3$  is studied. Nanoporous  $TiO(OH)_2$  is examined as a potential catalytic support for a cyclic  $Na_2CO_3/NaHCO_3$  based  $CO_2$  capture process. FT-IR, SEM, and XRD characterization of  $NaHCO_3$  supported on nanoporous  $TiO(OH)_2$  treated with different processes indicate that  $TiO(OH)_2$  is stable within the temperature range necessary for such a process, up to about 200 °C. More importantly, the  $TiO(OH)_2$  has a catalytic effect on the decomposition of  $NaHCO_3$ , reducing the activation energy from about 80 to 36 kJ/mol. This significant drop in activation energy could translate into a much lower operating cost for regenerating  $Na_2CO_3$ . The reaction rate of  $NaHCO_3$  decomposition, or  $CO_2$  desorption, is observed to increase by as much as a factor of ten due to this decrease in activation energy.

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## 1. Introduction

Anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> is considered a major contributor to global warming. One of the primary sources of anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> is the flue gas from fossil fuel-fired power plants. As such, an ideal method of CO<sub>2</sub> abatement is to remove CO<sub>2</sub> from flue gas. Several techniques exist to accomplish this, including absorption using liquid solvents, membrane separation, cryogenic separation, and adsorption onto solid sorbents [1–9]. Each technique has its own advantages and disadvantages.

Currently, the most developed and commercially viable  $CO_2$  separation technology is stripping  $CO_2$  with aqueous amine solutions. Due to its many advantages, this technology has been commonly used to remove  $CO_2$  and other acid gases as impurities from natural gas for over 60 years [1,5]. Study on its use for  $CO_2$  separation from flue gas is fairly recent, however. The solvents have typically been designed for low temperature absorption, below the temperatures of typical flue gas, and as such, have poor thermal stability [1,5,10]. The amines cannot only be poisoned by

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common impurities in the flue gas, such as  $SO_x$  and  $NO_x$  gases, but also oxygen [1,5]. Some of the amine can be lost through evaporation to the gas stream during use, thus requiring replacement [10,11]. Moreover, amines are toxic and corrosive, and therefore are pollutants to the environment. Because of their corrosive properties, amines typically need to be diluted with water; with more water present, more energy is required for desorption of  $CO_2$ . This dilution also lowers the  $CO_2$  capture capacities of amine solutions [1,5,10,11].

In an alternative liquid absorption process,  $CO_2$  is captured by an aqueous alkali metal carbonate solution via the reaction

$$M_2CO_3 + CO_2 + H_2O \leftrightarrow 2MHCO_3 \tag{R1}$$

where M represents the alkali metal, primarily sodium and potassium. In this reversible reaction, carbonation occurs at temperatures typical of flue gas,  $50-80\,^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and decarbonation is achieved by boiling the solution [12–19]. When M is sodium, R1 can be specifically written as

$$Na_2CO_3 + CO_2 + H_2O \leftrightarrow 2NaHCO_3$$
 (R2)

Using alkali carbonates has several advantages. The primary one is their capital costs; alkali carbonates are readily available and less expensive. Another one is that they are thermally stable; Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>, for instance, decomposes at temperatures over 800 °C, while some

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#### Nomenclature Α frequency factor (min<sup>-1</sup>) mass of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed (kg) $m_{CO_2}$ fraction of decomposed NaHCO3 mass of equipment (kg) $\alpha$ $m_e$ В dimensional conversion coefficient $M_{\rm CO_2}$ molecular weight of CO<sub>2</sub> (g/mol) $C_e$ specific heat capacity of equipment (kJ/kg K) reaction order for $R_n$ n $C_{\mathfrak{p},CO_2}$ specific heat capacity of CO<sub>2</sub> (kJ/kg K) R molar gas constant (kJ/(mol K)) specific heat capacity of NHT (kI/kg K) Т absolute temperature (K) $C_{\rm p, \ NHT}$ $T_{\mathsf{CO}_2-a}$ $E_A$ activation Energy (kJ/mol) adsorption temperature (K) $F(\alpha)$ mechanism of decomposition $T_{\mathrm{CO}_2-d}$ desorption temperature (K) heat of reaction (kJ/mol) time (min) $\Lambda H$ k rate constant (min<sup>-1</sup> w mass of NaHCO<sub>3</sub> at a given time (mg) L CO<sub>2</sub> loading (kg CO<sub>2</sub>/kg NT) initial mass of NaHCO3 (mg) $w_0$ m reaction order for $A_{\rm m}$

amines, on the other hand, decompose at temperatures as low as 120 °C [1]. Alkali carbonates, like most salts, have negligible vapor pressures, meaning that there will be little losses during  $CO_2$  sorption or sorbent regeneration. Losses can occur through poisoning since  $SO_2$  and  $NO_x$  gases react irreversibly with the carbonate anion [14,17]. Any losses that do occur, however, can be easily and inexpensively replaced, due to the ease of handling alkali carbonates and their low prices.

Using aqueous alkali carbonates has the potential to reduce energy consumption [18,19] due to their lower reaction heats, but the associated reactions proceed slowly. Piperazine [15,16] and boric acid [16] have been used to accelerate  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  sorption rates. However, the energies required to heat the aqueous solutions for  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  desorption or bicarbonates desorption are high, as with other liquid absorption processes.

Recently, people started to develop solid sorbents for  $CO_2$  separation in flue gas due to their higher  $CO_2$  loading and lower heat capacities [20]. The performances of some solid sorbents, zeolites in particular, are deteriorated by the presence of water in the flue gas because their porous structures are plugged with condensed water [20]. However, solid alkali carbonates need water for the capture of  $CO_2$  according to R1. Pure carbonates and supported carbonates have been studied as solid chemical adsorbents, and it has been shown that some of them are stable and capable of removing 90% of  $CO_2$  from a flue gas stream [17,21–32]. Impregnation of  $K_2CO_3/Na_2CO_3$  onto a porous matrix improves the sorption capacity as well as the reaction rate, though to date most work in regards to kinetics has been qualitative [21,28,30].

As with aqueous solutions [12], K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> has a higher sorption capacity for CO<sub>2</sub> and the reaction proceeds faster than with Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> [23,24,26]. One primary advantage of Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> over K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>, however, is its much lower price. In addition, Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> is more widely available, especially in Wyoming which has the world's largest deposit of trona and supplies about 90% of the soda ash in the US [33]. Therefore, Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> is still a promising CO<sub>2</sub> separation agent.

Sorption of  $CO_2$  onto  $Na_2CO_3$  is spontaneous under flue gas conditions. Because the sorption of  $CO_2$  is spontaneous, as with most other technologies, the most energy intensive step in the use of  $Na_2CO_3$  for  $CO_2$  capture is sorbent regeneration or  $CO_2$  desorption, which, essentially, is that the sorbent is heated in order to shift the equilibrium of R2 towards the left. The kinetics of the decomposition reaction of pure  $NaHCO_3$  have been studied extensively [34–36], but little information is available on the effect of a supporting material on  $CO_2$  desorption or decomposition of pure  $NaHCO_3$  on the surface of a supporting material.

An ideal supporting material should not only maximize surface area of the NaHCO<sub>3</sub>/Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> but also be a good catalyst to accelerate the desorption rate of CO<sub>2</sub> and consequently reduce the overall energy consumption of CO<sub>2</sub> separation. To the best knowledge of

this research team, the second role of supporting materials during CO<sub>2</sub> desorption process has been neglected in the past. However, it is very imperative, since the reduction in energy consumption for CO<sub>2</sub> desorption by avoiding or reducing use of water alone is limited. Therefore, finding new multifunctional materials which can support Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>/NaHCO<sub>3</sub> and catalyze the desorption of CO<sub>2</sub> or decomposition of NaHCO<sub>3</sub> resulting from sorption of CO<sub>2</sub> with Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> is crucial.

One potential supporting material is nanoporous titanium oxyhydrate,  ${\rm TiO}({\rm OH})_2$ . It can decompose into  ${\rm TiO}_2$  via the following reaction

$$TiO(OH)_2 \leftrightarrow TiO_2 + H_2O. \tag{R3}$$

However, this reaction begins to proceed towards the right side only at temperatures above  $300 \,^{\circ}\text{C}$  [37–39], making it a stable supporting material of Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> for synthesis of solid sorbents for CO<sub>2</sub> capture from flue gas with Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>. More importantly, people are interested in using it as a catalyst [40].

Accordingly, the aim of this research is to explore the possibility of using nanoporous  $TiO(OH)_2$  as a multifunctional material for  $Na_2CO_3$  based  $CO_2$  separation process. The focus of the study is on the kinetic properties of catalytic desorption of  $CO_2$  on the interface between  $NaHCO_3$  and nanoporous  $TiO(OH)_2$ . It should be mentioned that optimizing the  $CO_2$  sorption capacity of  $CO_2$  is outside the scope of this research.

## 2. Experimental

## 2.1. Preparation of NaHCO<sub>3</sub>/Ti(OH)<sub>2</sub>

Pure NaHCO $_3$  was obtained from BDF Chemical. When Pure NaHCO $_3$  was used for decomposition tests, it was crushed and sieved such that only particles with diameters less 300  $\mu$ m were used. TiO(OH) $_2$  is prepared in the lab with Ti(OC $_2$ H $_5$ ) $_4$  from Acros containing 33–35 wt.% TiO $_2$ . The first preparation step was to add the predetermined quantity of Ti(OC $_2$ H $_5$ ) $_4$  to water with the H $_2$ O:Ti(OC $_2$ H $_5$ ) $_4$  molar ratio being 26.3:1, followed by stirring the resultant mixture for 1 h. Then, the precipitate, TiO(OH) $_2$ , was filtered, washed with deionized water, and dried at 120 °C for about 1.5 h.

NaHCO<sub>3</sub> was loaded on TiO(OH)<sub>2</sub> by mixing predetermined amounts of TiO(OH)<sub>2</sub> and NaHCO<sub>3</sub>; the mass of each is determined by the specific weight percent of NaHCO<sub>3</sub> on the final product, NaHCO<sub>3</sub>/TiO(OH)<sub>2</sub> (hereafter called NHT). The 90, 50, and 20 wt.% NHT samples (containing 90, 50 and 20 wt.% NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, respectively) were used for CO<sub>2</sub> desorption kinetic study. The specific NHT preparation steps include dissolving the needed NaHCO<sub>3</sub> with sufficient distilled water to dissolve the NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, stirring the aqueous NaHCO<sub>3</sub> and solid TiO(OH)<sub>2</sub> mixture at ambient conditions for at least

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