

Technico-Economical Assessment of MFI-Type Zeolite Membranes for CO₂ Capture from Postcombustion Flue Gases

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A detailed survey of the effect of moisture on the CO₂/N₂ permeation and separation performance of Mobile Five (MFI) zeolite membranes in view of downstream postcombustion CO₂ capture applications in power plants and incinerators is presented. The membranes, displaying a nanocomposite architecture, have been prepared on α -alumina tubes by pore-plugging hydrothermal synthesis at 443 K for 89 h using a precursor clear solution with molar composition 1 SiO₂:0.45 tetrapropylammonium hydroxide:27.8 H₂O. The synthesized membranes present reasonable permeation and CO₂/N₂ separation properties even in the presence of high water concentrations in the gas stream. A critical discussion is also provided on the technico-economical feasibility (i.e., CO₂ recovery, CO₂ purity in the permeate, module volume, and energy consumption) of a membrane cascade unit for CO₂ capture and liquefaction/supercritical storage from standard flue gases emitted from an incinerator. Our results suggest that the permeate pressure should be kept under primary vacuum to promote the CO₂ driving force within the membrane. © 2011 American Institute of Chemical Engineers AIChE J, 58: 3183–3194, 2012
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Introduction

Climate change due to anthropogenic CO₂ emissions is one of the greatest environmental, social, and economic threats facing the Earth in the forthcoming decades. To mitigate the warming effect on climate, a net reduction of CO₂ emissions is imperative. CO₂ capture, transport, and long-term storage (CCS) is visualized as a promising strategy for cutting CO₂ emissions at short and mid terms. Among the three steps of the CCS chain, CO₂ capture is by far the most expensive one, accounting for 50–90% of the overall chain cost, this also depending strongly on the emission source.¹

In essence, CO₂ capture from fossil fuel combustion can be achieved following three different strategies²: (1) oxycombustion (combustion performed with pure oxygen), (2) precombustion (decarbonation before combustion), and (3)

postcombustion (end-of-pipe CO₂ recovery). The strategic target separations to make these processes feasible are: O₂/N₂ for oxycombustion, CO₂/H₂ for precombustion, and CO₂/N₂ for postcombustion CO₂ capture. The third possibility is the most challenging because a diluted (<12 v/v % CO₂), low-pressure (1–3 bar), and wet (3–10 v/v % water) CO₂/N₂ mixture has to be treated. Nevertheless, it corresponds to the most widely extended industrial application, showing the advantage of being compatible with a retrofit strategy.

Chemical absorption with mono-, di-, and tri-ethanolamines or variants using packed towers or membrane contactors, constitutes the best available technology for CO₂ capture from flue gas streams in large emission sources. The absorbed gas is further liberated in a separate vessel by raising the temperature and/or lowering the pressure above the solution, the regenerated solution being recirculated to the absorption unit. The main shortcoming of this technology is ascribed to the extremely high-energy demands, lying in the range 4–6 GJ/t CO₂ avoided (including heating and electrical consumption),^{3,4} as well as to amine losses and degradation

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in the presence of O₂ and SO₂. Alternative processes based on pressure and thermal swing adsorption relying on well-engineered solid adsorbents have also been considered for CO₂ separation.^{5,6}

In addition to these technologies, membrane-based processes have gained increasing interest in recent times to make postcombustion CO₂ capture more energy efficient and cost effective. According to Favre,⁷ membranes could potentially compete with chemical absorption in terms of energy demands (<0.75 GJ/t CO₂ avoided) if the CO₂ content in the feed exceeds 20 v/v %. At lower compositions, postcombustion CO₂ capture might be only feasible at the level of 1–2 GJ/t CO₂ avoided. The use of vacuum operation in the permeate combined with moderate compression in the feed might reduce the energy requirements to a level <1 GJ/t CO₂ avoided.

Polymeric membranes have been widely investigated for gas separation applications. Nevertheless, their practical use for CO₂ capture has often been limited due to their insufficient thermal, mechanical, and chemical stability and to their low permeances. As a matter of fact, a CO₂/N₂ permselectivity of 50 associated to a CO₂ permeance of 3 nmol m⁻² s⁻¹ Pa⁻¹ (1- μ m thick) can be taken as the present upper limit of glassy polymeric membranes.^{3,8} Recent advances on rubbery polymeric membranes offer materials with improved CO₂ permeances (up to three orders of magnitude higher),^{9,10} but most often at the expenses of lower selectivity toward CO₂ separation, involving high energy requirements (>3.5 GJ/t CO₂ avoided).⁹ Moreover, although emerging hybrid or mixed-matrix membranes (e.g., polymer/zeolite,^{11,12} polymer/MCM-41,^{11,13} polymer/MOF¹⁴) might offer some improvements, these materials do not appear to constitute realistic candidates for chemical absorption or gas adsorption in industrial applications.

Although there is still plenty of room for improving the separation capacity and stability of polymeric membranes in view of realistic postcombustion CO₂ separation applications (PolarisTM membranes from MTR are a recent example),¹⁰ we concentrate our attention in this study on the use of ceramic membranes as alternative candidates for CO₂ separation. In particular, zeolite membranes have attracted great interest in the last two decades, because they are capable of separating compounds by combination of molecular sieving, selective adsorption, and differences in surface diffusion rates.^{15–17} Most zeolite membranes reported in the literature are stable with respect to temperature and pressure, but contaminant species can significantly affect their permeation properties. Moreover, the manufacture of large surface defect-free zeolite membranes is a major engineering challenge, because very thin supported layers often present defects (cracks). Our group has concentrated on routes using tubes combined with new ideas for zeolite growth (pore-plugging approach) reducing both the cost and complexity of the systems as well as improving at the same time the membrane reproducibility.^{18–20}

Despite the promising CO₂/N₂ separation results reported in the literature on MFI,^{21–24} FAU,^{25–30} SAPO-34,^{31–35} DD3R,^{36,37} and T³⁸ zeolite membranes, care should be taken when analyzing these data due to a lack of tests carried out under real postcombustion CO₂ capture conditions. Indeed, most of these studies do neither provide much insight into the hydrothermal stability of the membrane materials, nor into their CO₂ permeation and separation properties in the

presence of moisture. Nevertheless, a reduced number of studies have appeared tackling these questions. Poshusta et al.³⁹ reported fairly stable CO₂ permeances and CO₂/CH₄ separation factors within high-quality SAPO-34 membranes after water introduction. The membranes suffered however from ageing after long exposure to a wet atmosphere, this phenomenon being accelerated in the presence of nonzeolite pores by increasing the water accessibility to SAPO-34 crystals. Himeno et al.⁴⁰ published a comprehensive study on high-quality DD3R membranes pointing out a remarkable decrease of the CO₂ permeance (ca. 40%) in the presence of a moisture-saturated stream, the CO₂/CH₄ separation factor being enhanced about 50%. Gu et al.⁴¹ also reported a drastic reduction of steady-state CO₂ and N₂ permeances at 473 K (more than one order of magnitude) for partial pressures >20 kPa. Beyond this level, the CO₂/N₂ separation factor showed a progressive decrease from a maximum value about 4.5.

In the particular case of MFI-type zeolite membranes, Funke et al.⁴² reported no permanent effect of water vapor on the pure permeation performance of ZSM-5 membranes. Although the pure N₂ and SF₆ permeances decreased after humification of the feed stream (61% for N₂ and 16% for SF₆), the initial values were recovered after water removal. Bernal et al.⁴³ explored the room-temperature CO₂/N₂ separation performance (equimolar mixture) of B-ZSM-5 membranes saturated with water vapor. The CO₂ permeation fluxes decreased about 54% and 29% for a feed pressure of 1.7 and 2.2 bar, respectively, without use of a sweep gas in the permeate stream, the separation factor keeping essentially unchanged. Finally, Shin et al.⁴⁴ reported an increase of the membrane selectivity in the separation of a moisture-saturated equimolar CO₂/N₂ mixture by a surface-modified ZSM-5 membrane. The room-temperature CO₂/N₂ separation factor was about 50 for dry mixture and about 60 for wet mixture steady-state separation. It was believed that water blocked partially both the MFI adsorption sites and the inter-crystalline nonzeolite pores, overcoming N₂ permeation and thus increasing the CO₂/N₂ separation factor.

In this study, we describe the application of MFI-alumina membranes with nanocomposite architecture prepared in our laboratory for postcombustion CO₂ capture in the presence of moisture. Although these materials do not offer *a priori* the most attractive combination of adsorption/diffusion properties for CO₂ separation unlike FAU- or DDR-type membranes (see for instance Ref. 45), nanocomposite MFI membranes offer some additional major advantages: (1) the synthesis of the material is highly reproducible and easier to upscale (see Ref. 19), (2) high CO₂ permeances can be attained even in the presence of water vapor compared to more hydrophilic zeolite materials (e.g., FAU), reaching the level of 0.7 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ Pa⁻¹ for MFI-alumina hollow fibers,⁴⁶ and (3) the materials show a high hydrothermal resistance. These three aspects, in addition to appropriate CO₂/N₂ separation factors, are imperative for the industrial implementation of membrane devices. Our aim here is to assess for experimental operation conditions allowing moderate gas permeance reduction upon water introduction on these materials and operation under primary vacuum for the permeate stream to promote the CO₂ driving force within the membranes. On the basis of these results, a technico-economical analysis will be carried out relying on a membrane cascade configuration for attaining an overall CO₂ removal

target of at least 75% of the inlet value and a CO₂ purity of at least 95% in the downstream permeate current, allowing further CO₂ liquefaction/supercritical storage. A case study is proposed for stationary postcombustion CO₂ capture in incineration plants.

Experimental

Materials

The MFI membranes were prepared on porous asymmetric 15-cm-long tubular supports with 7 mm i.d. and 10 mm o.d. provided by Pall Exekia (Membralox T1-70). The quality of the supports was inferred from the values of the first bubble point pressure under ethanol, higher than 80 kPa in all cases. The supports consisted of three α -alumina layers with mean pore size and thickness decreasing from the outer to the inner side of the tubes, with the following pore size sequences (as given by the provider): 12–0.8–0.2 μm and 12–0.8–0.1 μm (top-layer thickness: 10 μm in both cases). The first 12- μm layer had a porosity of 33%, whereas that of the other two layers was 30%. Both ends of the supports were enameled (1.5 cm at each side) for sealing purposes, defining a permeation length of 12 cm.

Some supported MFI samples were also prepared on alumina hollow fibers (1.67 mm o.d., 1.15 mm i.d., 250 mm length, surface pore size <0.5 μm , and an overall porosity of 43%) for CO₂ and water adsorption tests. These samples were crushed after synthesis for analysis.

Aerosil 380 (fumed SiO₂), supplied by Sigma-Aldrich, was used as silica source. Tetrapropylammonium hydroxide (TPAOH, 1 M) was used as template agent. The gases (He, Air, N₂, O₂, and CO₂, purity > 99.9999%) were supplied by Air Liquide.

Membrane preparation

The nanocomposite MFI-alumina membranes were prepared by pore-plugging interrupted hydrothermal synthesis in a Teflon-lined autoclave (15 mL) at 443 K for 89 h using a precursor solution with varying molar composition 1 SiO₂:0.45 TPAOH:27.8 H₂O during 3 days at room-temperature under mild stirring. More details on the synthesis protocol can be found in previous publications.^{19,20}

After the tests, the membranes were washed with distilled water until neutral pH, dried at 373 K for 12 h, and calcined at 773 K for 6 h with heating and cooling ramps of 1 K/min.

Physical characterization

Inductive coupled plasma atomic emission spectroscopy (ICP-AES) was used to quantify the overall amount of Si and Al on the membranes, and zeolite powder collected from the bottom of the autoclave after hydrothermal synthesis using a Perkin Elmer M1100 spectrometer. For Si analysis, the sample was fused in Li₂B₄O₇ using a Pt-Au crucible by heating up to 1273 K and then dissolving in HCl (20 wt %).

The zeolite powder collected from the bottom of the autoclave and crushed hollow fibers were analyzed by x-ray diffraction using a Philips PW1050/81 diffractometer (Cu K _{α 1+2} radiation) to assess for the nature of the crystallized materials.

CO₂ and water isotherms were measured on a BelSorp HP and a BelSorpMax microvolumetric apparatus, respectively. Before the adsorption measurements, the samples were desorbed at 523 K and 10^{−5} torr for 4 h to remove adsorbed species.

Pure hydrogen permeation and butane/H₂ separation tests

The quality of the as-synthesized MFI-alumina membranes was evaluated first by a pure H₂ permeance test at room-temperature in dead-end mode using a 303-kPa transmembrane pressure. The H₂ permeance was measured using a DryCal piston volumetric flowmeter connected to the permeate stream of the membrane. Subsequently, *n*-butane/H₂ equimolar separation tests were carried out in Wicke-Kallenbach (WK) mode (i.e., $\Delta P \approx 0$). These tests were carried out at different temperatures by feeding 8 mL(STP)/min of *n*-butane and H₂ each diluted in 64-mL(STP)/min N₂ to the membrane module, whereas 80-mL(STP)/min N₂ were swept over the membrane on the permeate side. The pressure at both sides was kept at 125 kPa using two regulation valves.

The MFI effective thickness of the membrane materials was estimated by fitting the Maxwell-Stefan (MS) equation defined by Eq. 1 to the experimental trends of the pure H₂ permeance with temperature

$$N = \frac{c_{\text{sat}} \rho_{\text{MFI}} D_0^\infty}{\tau \ell} \ln \left[\frac{1 + \frac{P_{\text{R}}}{P^0} \exp \left(\frac{\Delta S_{\text{ads}}^0}{R} - \frac{\Delta H_{\text{ads}}^0}{RT} \right)}{1 + \frac{P_{\text{P}}}{P^0} \exp \left(\frac{\Delta S_{\text{ads}}^0}{R} - \frac{\Delta H_{\text{ads}}^0}{RT} \right)} \right] \exp \left[-\frac{E_{\text{D}}}{RT} \right] \quad (1)$$

with (parameter values for H₂ taken from Ref. 47): *R*, ideal gas constant (8.314 J mol^{−1} K^{−1}); *c*_{sat}, concentration of the gas in MFI crystals (5.4 mol/m³); ρ_{MFI} , skeletal MFI density (1700 kg/m³); ϵ , porosity of MFI membrane (0.13); *D*₀[∞], MS diffusivity at zero coverage (1.8 × 10^{−8} m²/s); τ , tortuosity (1.2); ℓ , equivalent MFI thickness (m, fitted parameter); *P*_R, retentate pressure (Pa); *P*_P, permeate pressure (Pa); *P*⁰, reference to atmospheric pressure (101325 Pa); ΔS_{ads}^0 , standard entropy of adsorption (−43 J mol^{−1} K^{−1}); ΔH_{ads}^0 , standard enthalpy of adsorption (−5900 J/mol); and *E*_D, activation energy for diffusion (2000 J/mol).

Mixture CO₂/N₂ permeation tests

The calcined membranes were mounted in a stainless steel module and sealed with graphite o-rings. Before the gas permeation tests, the membranes were subjected to an *in situ* pretreatment at 673 K for 6 h using a heating ramp of 1 K/min under a 20 mL(STP)/min He sweep flowrate at both membrane sides to remove adsorbed moisture and organic vapors on the guidance of a previous study.⁴⁸ After 4 h, the temperature was decreased to room temperature and then stabilized to the desired value to carry out the permeation tests.

Figure 1 shows a scheme of the setup used for carrying out the CO₂/N₂ permeation and separation tests in the presence of moisture. Briefly, gas flowrates and feed compositions were regulated using mass flow controllers (Brooks, type 5850S). An equimolar CO₂/N₂ mixture (200–500 mL(STP)/min) was fed to the inner side of the membrane. The permeate was either swept with an He flow (60–80 mL(STP)/min) or submitted to primary vacuum (10–30 mbar) using a membrane pump (Adixen).

The composition of the feed, retentate, and permeate streams was analyzed online using an Agilent 3000A μGC equipped with two columns (PPU + MS5A and PPQ + PPU) and two thermal conductivity detectors using Ar and He as carrier gases, respectively. Two regulation valves at the outlet of the retentate and permeate streams were used to adjust the feed and transmembrane pressures, respectively. The desired water relative humidity in the feed stream was introduced by heating a pressurized liquid water stream with

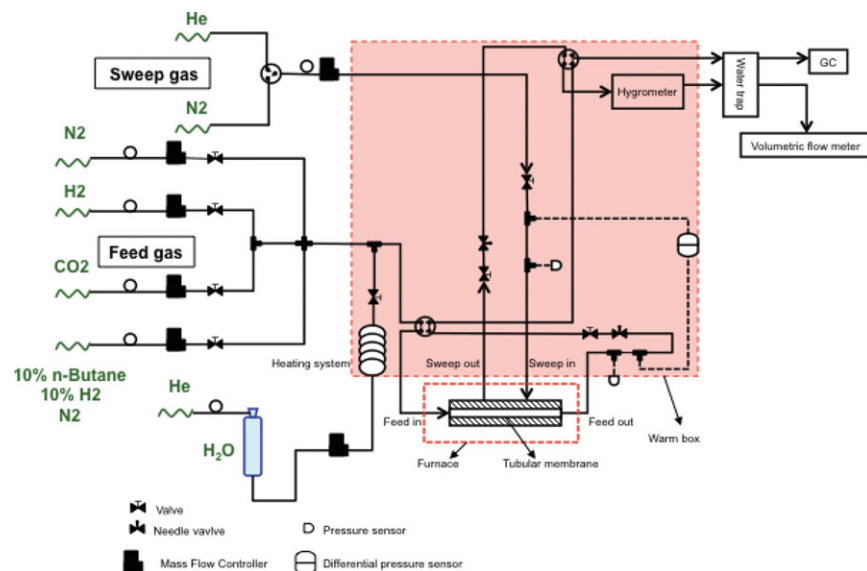


Figure 1. Experimental setup for CO₂/N₂ permeation and separation tests in the presence of moisture.

[Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

the corresponding flowrate controlled using a liquid mass flow controller (Bronkhorst Hi-Tech). A hygrometer equipped with a probe was used for monitoring the relative humidity in the feed and permeate streams.

The permeance of a target species was defined as the permeation flux divided by its corresponding log-mean differential partial pressure, whereas the separation factor (Sf_{ij}) was defined as the enrichment factor of one component to another in the permeate, as compared with the feed composition ratio

$$Sf_{ij} = (y_i/y_j)_{\text{permeate}} / (x_i/x_j)_{\text{feed}} \quad (2)$$

where x_i and x_j as well as y_i and y_j are the molar fractions of species i and j in the retentate and permeate streams, respectively.

Results and Discussion

Quality of the synthesized MFI-alumina membranes

Table 1 collects the room-temperature pure H₂ permeance and *n*-butane/H₂ separation factor measured for the different membranes prepared in this study as primary indicators of membrane quality. The listed values reflect optimal membrane quality in terms of a reduced density of intercrystalline defects in the intergrown MFI layer. Let us recall from previous studies on nanocomposite MFI-alumina tubular membranes that membranes showing room-temperature pure H₂ permeances $<0.4 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{Pa}^{-1}$ and *n*-butane/H₂

separation factors >25 are usually considered acceptable for gas separation purposes.^{18,20}

Figures 2 and 3 show an example of evolution of the pure H₂ permeation flux and *n*-butane/H₂ equimolar mixture permeation and separation properties, respectively, as a function of temperature for sample M2. The H₂ flux shows a continuous decrease with temperature without indication of permeance increase beyond 600 K, as expected for a nanocomposite architecture,^{18,47} opposing to the general trend commonly found in film-like MFI membranes. The H₂ evolution trend with temperature allows the measurement of the effective MFI thickness of the nanocomposite materials through MS fitting (Eq. 1). The computed MFI thicknesses for the different materials fall into the range 0.55–2 μm .

The *n*-butane flux shows a characteristic maximum at 430 K, whereas the *n*-butane/H₂ separation factor shows a decreasing trend with temperature from a value of 25–57 (preferential *n*-butane permeation) at room temperature to <1 (preferential H₂ permeation) beyond 600 K. The flux pattern with temperature is in good keeping with an adsorption-driven permeation mechanism, confirming the absence of a significant amount of defects in the MFI layer.

CO₂/N₂ mixture permeation and separation under He sweep gas and vacuum pressure

The membrane samples prepared in this study show pure CO₂ and N₂ permeance values that are comparable to the

Table 1. Membrane Quality of the Different Membrane Materials Prepared in This Study: Room-Temperature *n*-Butane/H₂ Separation Factor and Pure H₂ Permeance

Reference	SF <i>n</i> -Butane/H ₂	H ₂ Permeance ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{Pa}^{-1}$)	Dry Gas*		Humid Gas*, [†]	
			CO ₂ Permeance ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{Pa}^{-1}$)	CO ₂ /N ₂ Separation Factor	CO ₂ Permeance ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{Pa}^{-1}$)	CO ₂ /N ₂ Separation Factor
M1	25	0.17	0.44	4.0	—	—
M2	57	0.31	0.28	1.8	0.10	3.3
M3	38	0.12	0.31	1.5	0.12	4.0
M4	34	0.23	0.35	1.6	0.045	9.5

* $T = 323\text{--}337 \text{ K}$, 10:90 CO₂/N₂, $P_{\text{feed}} = 303\text{--}404 \text{ kPa}$, $\Delta P = 0\text{--}2.5 \text{ kPa}$, sweep flowrate = 60–90 mL(STP)/min.

[†]Humidity = 1–3 v/v % water.

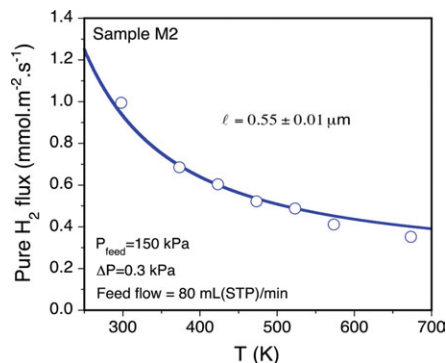


Figure 2. Evolution of the pure H₂ permeance as a function of temperature for sample M2.

The curve corresponds to the fitting to Eq. 1. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

highest values reported in the literature on conventional film-like MFI membranes,²¹ probably due to similar MFI effective thickness ($< 8 \mu\text{m}$). Indeed, pure CO₂ and N₂ permeances of 0.16 and $0.084 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{Pa}^{-1}$, respectively, have been obtained for sample M2. These permeance values translate into a CO₂/N₂ ideal permselectivity of about 1.9, which is higher than the corresponding Knudsen selectivity ≈ 0.8 . The amount of large intercrystalline defects of the synthesized MFI material is low, as inferred from the low viscous contribution to N₂ permeance after calcination (lower than 2%), obtained from the slope of N₂ permeance with the average pressure (not shown).

The different membrane materials have been submitted to mixture CO₂/N₂ separation both by subjecting the permeate stream to a He sweep gas (WK configuration) and to primary vacuum. The former conditions aim at promoting the trans-membrane CO₂ partial pressure within the membrane material without need of pressurizing the feed stream to very high values. These conditions are especially attractive for CO₂ separation from highly diluted streams, as is the case often encountered in postcombustion CO₂ capture applications. The use of a He sweep gas, though discouraged for industrial applications, is however useful for simulating the action of vacuum

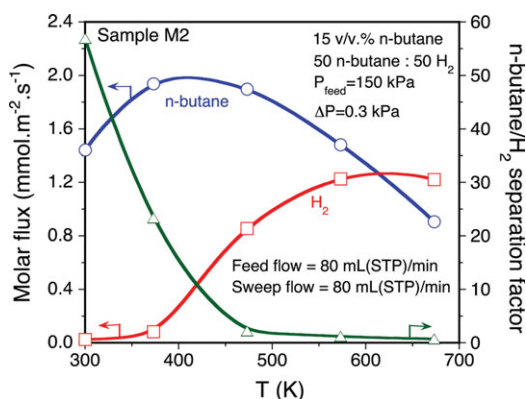


Figure 3. Evolution of *n*-butane and H₂ molar fluxes with temperature in the separation of an *n*-butane/H₂ equimolar mixture for sample M2.

The curves are a guide to the eye. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

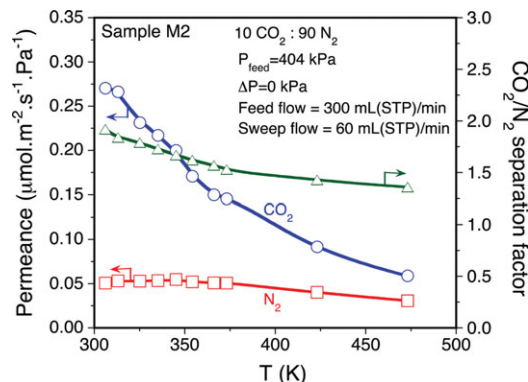


Figure 4. Evolution of the CO₂/N₂ separation factor and mixture CO₂ and N₂ permeances with temperature for sample M2 in the separation of a 10:90 CO₂/N₂ mixture under the presence of a He sweep gas in the permeate stream.

The curves are a guide to the eye. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

and for comparison with CO₂ permeation and separation data available in the literature. We have verified the absence of He counterdiffusion from the permeate to the retentate stream in such tests.

Figure 4 plots the evolution of the CO₂/N₂ mixture permeation and separation performance as a function of temperature for membrane M2 by submitting the permeate stream to a He sweep flowrate. The membrane shows a CO₂ permeance up to $0.28 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{Pa}^{-1}$ at near room-temperature and 10:90 CO₂/N₂ feed composition, the CO₂ permeance showing a characteristic decreasing trend with temperature, as expected from an adsorption-driven permeation mechanism. A maximum CO₂/N₂ separation factor about 1.7 is achieved at near room-temperature.

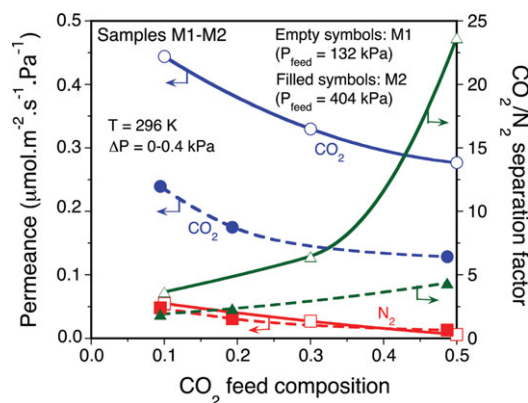


Figure 5. Evolution of the CO₂/N₂ separation factor and mixture CO₂ and N₂ permeances with the feed composition for samples M1 and M2 under the presence of a He sweep gas in the permeate stream.

Other experimental conditions: (M1) feed flowrate, 200 mL(STP)/min; He sweep flowrate, 80 mL(STP)/min; (M2) feed flowrate, 200 mL(STP)/min; He sweep flowrate, 60 mL(STP)/min. The curves are a guide to the eye. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

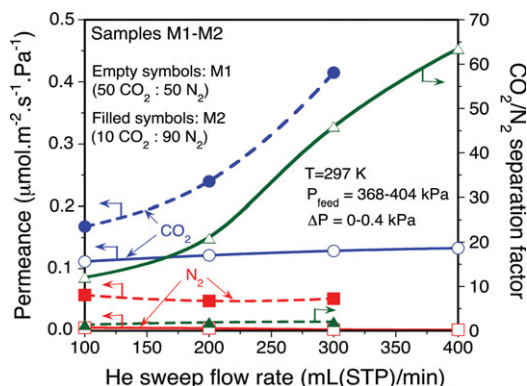


Figure 6. Evolution of the CO_2/N_2 separation factor and mixture CO_2 and N_2 permeances with the He sweep flowrate for samples M1 and M2.

Other experimental conditions: feed flowrate, 1000 mL(STP)/min (M1) and 90 mL(STP)/min (M2). The curves are a guide to the eye. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

Figures 5 and 6 plot the evolution of the CO_2/N_2 mixture permeation and separation performance as a function of the CO_2 feed composition and the He sweep flowrate for membranes M1 and M2, respectively. Although the CO_2 and N_2 permeation fluxes increase with the CO_2 feed composition due to an increase of the driving force within the membrane (see Figure 5), the corresponding permeances show a marked reduction on the basis of a more pronounced increase of logarithmic mean partial pressures. The CO_2/N_2 separation factor shows, however, a prominent increase with the CO_2 feed composition, achieving a value as high as 23 for an equimolar feed for membrane M1, due to a comparably higher driving force for CO_2 .

The CO_2 permeance is dramatically promoted with the He sweep gas flowrate for diluted streams, whereas it keeps practically unchanged for equimolar CO_2/N_2 mixtures (see Figure 6). The former trend can be attributed to a comparably higher effect of reduced CO_2 permeate partial pressures on promoting the driving force within the membrane mate-

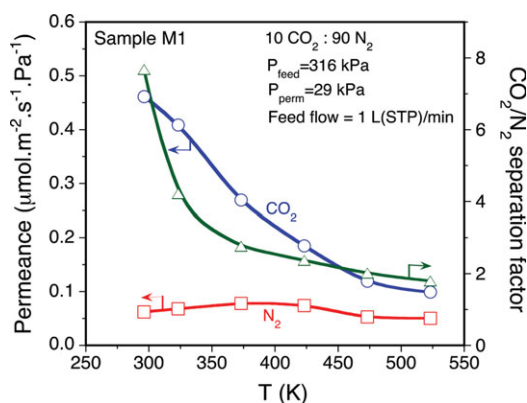


Figure 7. Evolution of the CO_2/N_2 separation factor and mixture CO_2 and N_2 permeances with temperature for sample M1 in the separation of a 10:90 CO_2/N_2 mixture under the presence of vacuum in the permeate stream.

The curves are a guide to the eye. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

rial. Indeed, at low CO_2 concentrations, the CO_2 loading in the feed side of membrane M1 is expected to be modest. This trend is accompanied by a pronounced increase of the CO_2/N_2 separation factor with the He sweep flowrate, reaching a value higher than 60 for a 400-mL(STP)/min He flowrate. At higher CO_2 feed concentrations, however, the much higher CO_2 driving force within the membrane is expected to compensate the positive effect of the He sweep gas flowrate on the membrane permeation and separation properties.

Figures 7 and 8 plot the evolution of the CO_2/N_2 mixture permeation and separation performance as a function of temperature and the transmembrane pressure, respectively, for membrane M1 keeping the permeate stream under vacuum (47–293 kPa). The membrane shows a CO_2 permeance up to $0.5 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{Pa}^{-1}$ at near room-temperature and 10:90 CO_2/N_2 feed composition. This value is much higher than the permeances commonly found when submitting the permeate to a sweep gas, most probably due to a much higher CO_2 driving force within the membrane. Furthermore, the CO_2 permeance shows a decreasing trend with temperature (see Figure 7), as in the case found when submitting the permeate to a He sweep flow (see Figure 4). A maximum CO_2/N_2 separation factor about 7 is achieved at near room-temperature.

The CO_2 permeance tends to be promoted with the transmembrane pressure, this increase being more pronounced when decreasing the CO_2 feed concentration (cf. the trends plotted in Figure 5 for 10:90 and 50:50 CO_2/N_2 feed compositions on membranes M1 and M2, respectively). The N_2 permeance is slightly promoted with the transmembrane pressure for a 10:90 CO_2/N_2 feed composition on membrane M2, whereas the trend is slightly decreasing for a 50:50 CO_2/N_2 feed composition on membrane M1. The CO_2 and N_2 permeation trends at both conditions translate into a moderately positive evolution of the CO_2/N_2 separation factor with the transmembrane pressures at lower CO_2 compositions, whereas the trend shows a decreasing trend for an equimolar CO_2/N_2 mixture.

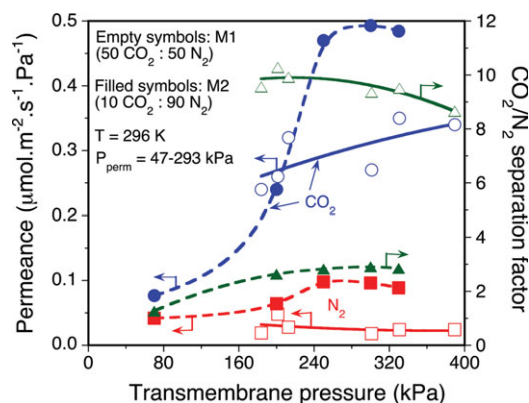


Figure 8. Evolution of the CO_2/N_2 separation factor and mixture CO_2 and N_2 permeances with the transmembrane pressure for samples M1 and M2 under the presence of vacuum in the permeate stream.

Other experimental conditions: feed flowrate, 1000 mL(STP)/min (M1) and 500 mL(STP)/min (M2). The curves are a guide to the eye. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

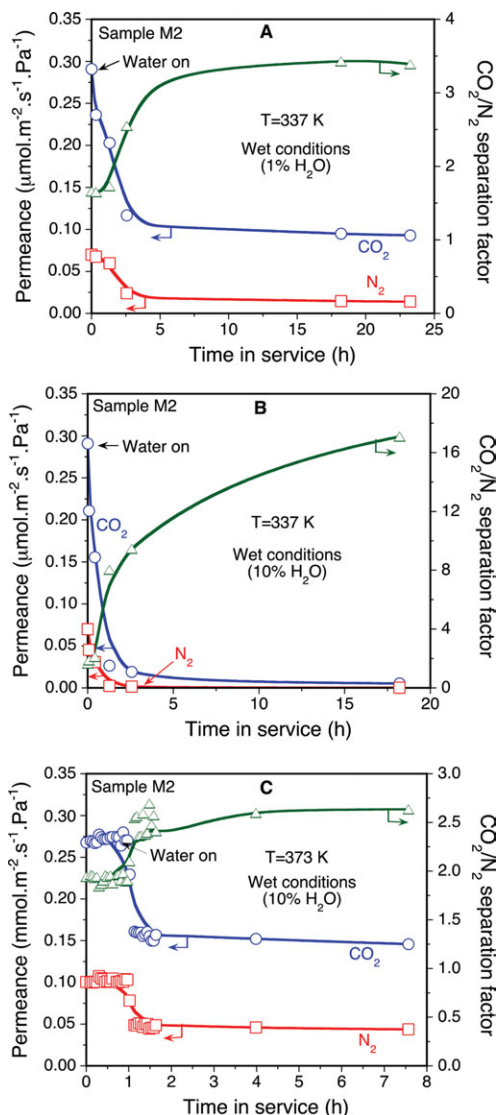


Figure 9. Time evolution of CO_2 and N_2 permeances and CO_2/N_2 separation factor for sample M2 in the presence of 1 v/v % (top) and 10 v/v % (middle and bottom) water concentrations at 337–373 K.

Other experimental conditions: feed composition 10:90 CO_2/N_2 ; feed pressure, 404 kPa; transmembrane pressure, 0 kPa; feed flowrate, 300 mL(STP)/min; He sweep flowrate, 60 mL(STP)/min. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

Effect of moisture on the CO_2 permeation and separation properties

Figures 9–11 plot the evolution of the CO_2 and N_2 permeances and CO_2/N_2 separation factor within membranes M2–M4 as a function of time at 303–373 K after the introduction of 1–10 v/v % humidity in the gas stream. Table 1 provides comparative data on the different membranes. As can be deduced from these figures, membrane permeation appears to be suppressed for highly humid gases (10 v/v % concentration) at 337 K (see Figure 9B). In contrast, when submitting the membranes either to lower water concentrations (1–3 v/v %, Figures 9A, 10, and 11) at 323–337 K, or to higher temperatures, still keeping high water concentrations (i.e., ca. 373 K at 10 v/v % water concentration, Figure 9C),

water does not completely impede the membrane permeation performance. In the former case, the CO_2 and N_2 permeances show a steady-state decrease of about 50–60% when incorporating water to the feed stream, membranes M2–M4 still exhibiting a reasonably high CO_2 permeance at 323 K under 2–3 v/v % water humidity at a level about $0.2 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{Pa}^{-1}$. At higher temperatures, the CO_2 and N_2 permeances show a more moderate reduction of about 40% when incorporating water to the feed stream, membrane M2 still showing a CO_2 permeance at a level about $0.15 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1} \text{Pa}^{-1}$ at 373 K (see Figure 9C). In all cases, water exerts a positive effect on the CO_2/N_2 separation factor, especially for membrane M2 at 337 K and 10 v/v % water concentration, this attaining a value higher than 15 after 17-h operation from an initial value about 1.7.

The fact that CO_2/N_2 permeation within MFI-alumina membranes is not completely blocked in the presence of water vapor can be attributed to a moderate water adsorption in micropores (sitting near cations). This image is compatible to the water adsorption pattern on MFI powders, showing a Type II behavior differing from the characteristic Type I (pore filling) observed for CO_2 adsorption (see Figure 12). The membranes display reasonably high permeances at 373 K in the presence of high water concentrations (>10 wt %), these being almost unaffected in the range beyond 2 wt %. Although we do not exclude the formation of water multilayers on the external membrane surface at high water concentrations after capillary condensation in defective mesopores, these might still allow the accessibility of CO_2 molecules to the zeolite channels. The increase of the CO_2/N_2 separation factors in the presence of water can be explained on the basis of defective pore blockage. Moreover, a positive interaction between CO_2 and water, most probably through the formation of (bi)carbonate species and/or CO_2 stabilization by hydrogen bonds cannot be ruled out.

Discussion: Technico-Economical Assessment of MFI Membranes for Postcombustion CO_2 Capture

In light of the results presented above, we discuss in this section the suitability of the MFI-alumina membranes developed in our laboratory for postcombustion CO_2 capture in power plants and incinerators in terms of energy costs and

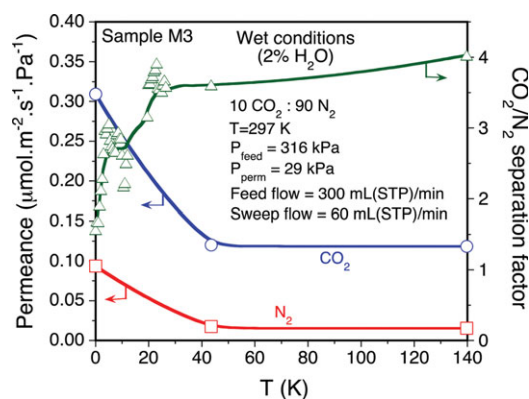


Figure 10. Time evolution of CO_2 and N_2 permeances and CO_2/N_2 separation factor for sample M3 in the presence of 2 v/v % water concentration.

[Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

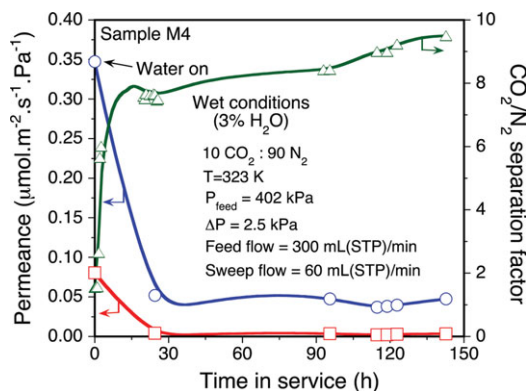


Figure 11. Time evolution of CO₂ and N₂ permeances and CO₂/N₂ separation factor for sample M4 in the presence of 3 v/v % water concentration.

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CO₂ emission reduction. Ideally, the CO₂ capture system should allow the removal of at least 85% of the CO₂ in the exhaust gas with a purity of 98% in the downstream permeate current with an energy consumption <4 GJ/t CO₂ avoided.

Input data and modeling details

As a case study, we consider here an application for CO₂ capture from an incineration plant. The input data have been obtained from an incineration plant operating in Rhône-Alpes (France) belonging to TREDI (Groupe Sèche). The exhaust gas emitted from a low-temperature incinerator after catalytic NO_x reduction mainly consists of a mixture of CO₂, H₂O, and N₂ at the approximate molar ratio 10:15:75 at a temperature and pressure of 150°C and 101 kPa, respectively. The standard flowrate is about 120,000 Nm³/h or 1.9 Mt/year. The solution here proposed would involve a first step of particle and water removal down to 10 v/v % and cooling down to 100°C to optimize the permeation performance of the MFI membranes. The resulting gas (molar composition CO₂:H₂O:N₂ 10:10:80) would be then submitted to a membrane cascade system for capturing at least 85% (molar basis) of the emitted CO₂.

The general flowsheet of the membrane cascade system proposed in this study for postcombustion CO₂ capture from incinerators is depicted in Figure 13. The system consists of three membrane units with the permeate streams of the first and second units connected in series (i.e., the permeate of unit 1 feeds unit 2, whereas the permeate of unit 2 feeds unit 3). Some preliminary studies have suggested that at least 3 steps are needed to assure the desired threshold CO₂ molar fraction level of 0.98 at the outlet permeate stream after concentration given the separation properties of MFI membranes prepared in this study (see Ref. 49 for further details).

Assuming a quasi-isothermal regime, a modular membrane unit can be modeled using microscopic CO₂ and N₂ mass balances both in the lumen and in the permeate sides of the modules operating in counter-current mode. For the sake of simplicity, plug-flow (PF) regimes have been assumed to describe the hydrodynamics of the retentate (lumen) and permeate (shell) sides. The criteria for PF regime in tubular

systems have been adapted from Rase.⁵⁰ At steady state, the set of Eqs. 3–5 is obtained^{51,52}

- Microscopic mass balance in the retentate ($i = \text{CO}_2, \text{N}_2$)

$$-\frac{\partial(w_R x_i)}{S \partial z} - N_i a_m = 0 \quad (3)$$

- Microscopic mass balance in the permeate ($i = \text{CO}_2, \text{N}_2$)

$$-\frac{\partial(w_P y_i)}{S \partial z} + N_i a_m = 0 \quad (4)$$

- Transfer equation ($i = \text{CO}_2, \text{N}_2$)

$$w_P y_i(z) = \Pi_i(z) S(z) (P_i^R - P_i^P) \quad (5)$$

Boundary conditions: $z = 0 \rightarrow x_i = x_{i,\text{in}}, y_i = y_{i,\text{in}}$.

The model system defined by Eqs. 3–5 has been solved numerically through discretization using finite differences. The number of intervals (200) has been chosen to avoid any dependence of the simulation results on the discretization. The logarithmic partial pressure differences along the unit have been approached to linear differences in each finite element. The mixture CO₂ and N₂ permeances have been taken from Figures 4, 5, and 9C, respectively, in the absence and presence of moisture. The variation of both permeances with the feed composition has been explicitly taken into account in the calculations.

From a mathematical standpoint, a membrane cascade constituted by three units is characterized by 23 variables

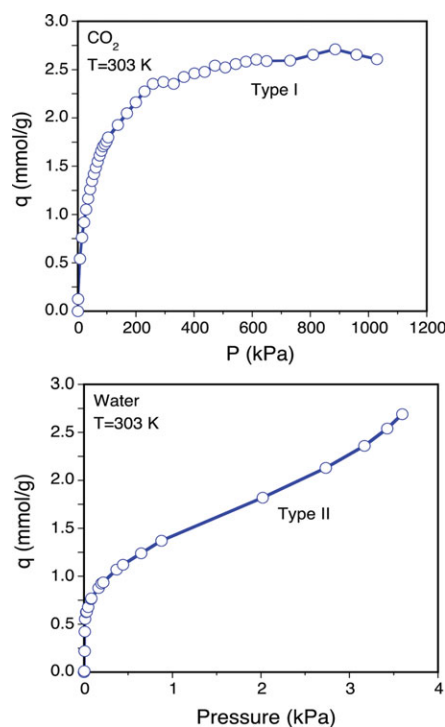


Figure 12. Comparison of CO₂ (top) and water (bottom) adsorption isotherm patterns on crushed Al-MFI-alumina fibers at 303 K.

The CO₂ isotherms have been corrected beyond 200 kPa to remove the contribution of the alumina support. [Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

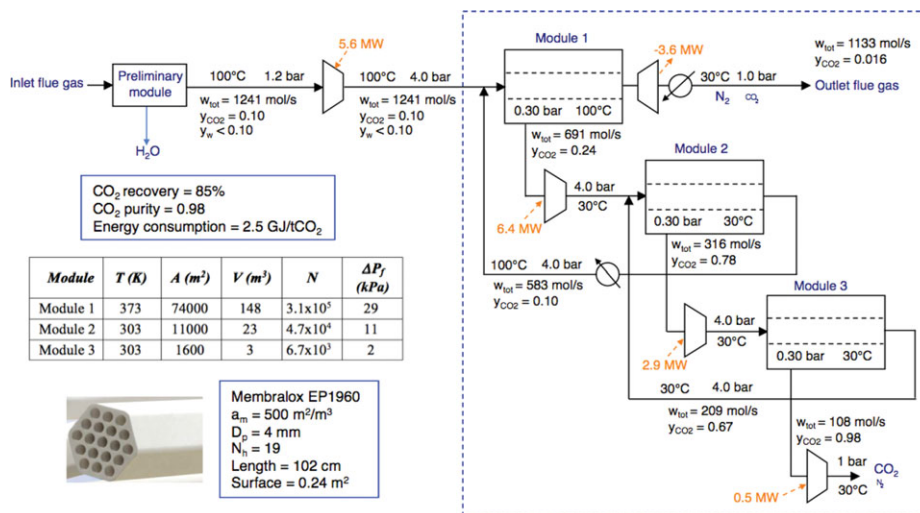


Figure 13. Flowsheet of a membrane cascade system for postcombustion CO₂ capture from a standard incineration plant together with the operation conditions and main characteristics of each unit.

[Color figure can be viewed in the online issue, which is available at wileyonlinelibrary.com.]

(seven total flowrates, seven CO₂ molar compositions, three retentate pressures, three permeate pressures, three surface areas, and six CO₂ and N₂ permeances) and 12 equations (3 CO₂ + 3 N₂ mass balances, and 3 CO₂ + 3 N₂ mass-transfer equations), leaving 17 degrees of freedom (the total flowrate and CO₂ molar fraction entering the cascade system, the CO₂ recovery, the CO₂ molar fraction at the permeate outlet of unit 3, the 3 retentate and 3 permeate pressures, the 6 CO₂ and N₂ permeances, the active surface of the first unit). Given the values for these degrees of freedom, the flowrate and composition in each stream, as well as the active surface of units 2 and 3, are univocal.

Unit 1 would operate at higher temperature (ca. 373 K) to avoid pore blocking upon direct contact with the inlet flue gas stream containing large amounts of water (concentration >10 v/v %), whereas units 2 and 3 would operate at 303–323 K. Figure 14 shows the simulated CO₂ molar fraction profiles in both the retentate and permeate sides of each module. Taking into account the low CO₂ concentration in the flue gas at the inlet of the separation system, the permeate stream should be kept under primary vacuum (>30 kPa) to enhance the CO₂ driving force across the membranes without increasing dramatically the retentate pressure. The concentrated CO₂ in the permeate stream would be further compressed and submitted subsequently to the second and third units to increase the CO₂ molar fraction up to 0.98 at the outlet of the third module. The concentrated CO₂ stream would be then pressurized at ambient pressure and then transported to the storage system.

Figure 13 also collects the related energy consumption and active surface for each membrane unit that would be required for 85% CO₂ capture and a final molar fraction of 0.98 at the outlet permeate stream. The maximum energy consumption can be estimated at 2.5 GJ/t CO₂ avoided (ca. 9.5 MW for 146 kt CO₂/year removal), this being attributed to the compression of the permeate streams coming from the first and second units from 30 to 404 kPa. The active surface required for separation decreases from a value of about 7.4 Ha for unit 1 to 1.1 and 0.16 Ha for units 2 and 3, respectively. The higher active surface for unit 1 is attributed to the much lower CO₂ permeance and separation capacity

of MFI membranes in this unit due to the high CO₂ dilution level (cf. the values and trends indicated in Figure 13). However, the total active surface can be decreased by promoting the driving force within the membranes, either by increasing the retentate pressure or by decreasing the permeate pressure, in both cases at the expenses of an increase of the energy consumption. Figure 15 shows the evolution of the total active surface and the energy consumption as a function of the total retentate pressure, pointing out the selected operation conditions. Similar trends are observed when reducing the permeate pressure.

Number of membrane tubes and pressure drop

Given the active surfaces indicated in Figure 13, the number of membrane tubes can be estimated depending on their surface area. To carry out this estimation, we have chosen the Membralox EP1960 multichannel module manufactured by Pall-Exekia as standard basis. The main properties of this module are listed in Figure 13. We have already shown the optimal upscaling of our synthesis protocol for MFI membrane synthesis (see “Membrane preparation” section) on these supports.⁵¹ The surface velocity in the membrane lumen has been established at 15 m/s to ensure optimal turbulence but at a reasonable axial pressure drop (<30 kPa, see Figure 13). Given the active surfaces computed at 404-kPa retentate pressure ($7.4 + 1.1 + 0.16 \text{ Ha}$), these values translate into a demand of 31×10^5 , 4.7×10^4 , and 6.7×10^3 Membralox EP1960 modules for units 1, 2, and 3, respectively. The pressure drop along the membranes is estimated to <30 kPa for the former unit and <4 kPa for the other two. The suitability of the PF regime to describe the hydrodynamics inside the membranes is confirmed, since the condition $L/D_b = 10^5 > 100$ is fulfilled.⁵⁰

Suitability of MFI-alumina membranes for module design: a technico-economical analysis

An orientative economic feasibility study of the technological solution proposed here for CO₂ capture (3-unit cascade system, see Figure 13) has been carried on the guidance of a previous study relying on a zeolite membrane reactor for liquid-phase DNPE production from *n*-pentanol

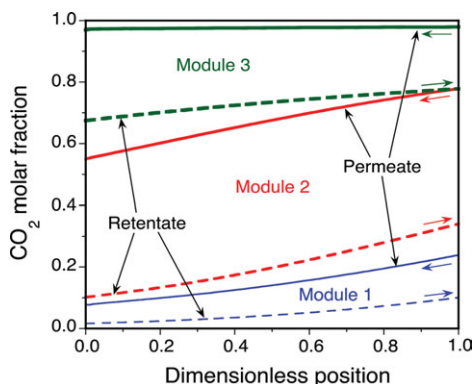


Figure 14. Simulation of the evolution of the molar fraction of CO₂ in the retentate (dashed curves) and permeate (straight curves) streams of the three module units with the dimensionless axial position for the MFI-alumina membranes prepared in this study.

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etherification.⁵² In terms of capital costs (Capex), our estimations reflect that, for 146 kt CO₂/year removal, about 90% of the cost of the plant would be ascribed to the membrane materials. The total cost ascribed to equipments would be about 84 M\$, whereas the overall cost of the plant (equipment + installation) would reach 278 M\$. The capital cost ascribed to membrane materials has been estimated by assuming a unit cost of about 1500 \$/m² for membrane modules and a 10% increase due to MFI zeolite growth. Furthermore, the capital costs ascribed to compressors, heat exchangers, and condenser before the membrane cascade system have been estimated and upscaled using the Williams method, the costs being capitalized to present monetary units using Marshall & Swift correction factors.⁵³

The analysis of the operation costs (OPEX) of the plant following conventional standards (see Table 2) reflects an annual cost about 50 M\$ for 146 kt CO₂/year removal (5-Ha based plant with energy consumption ca. 10 MW/year). The higher contribution to the OPEX would be ascribed to membrane replacement (20% of the membrane surface per year) and power consumption, accounting for 35 and 7% of the overall costs, respectively. These costs would translate into a unit cost estimate for CO₂ capture at about 330 \$/t CO₂ removed.

The estimation of the operation cost reduction of a membrane cascade system compared with a chemical absorption unit is not straightforward. However, according to the IPCC estimates, the implementation of a CO₂ capture unit in a coal power station for electrical production would involve a unit cost in the range 35–70 \$/t CO₂ avoided for mature technologies (ethanolamine absorption), whereas a range of 150–180 \$/t CO₂ avoided is proposed for new plants.⁵⁴ Some CO₂ capture cost estimates on highly permeable rubbery polymeric membranes match the first range.¹⁰ The CO₂ removal costs obtained in our study are far from this latter interval according to the present state of development of membrane materials, with no scale economy benefits. A large-scale production of MFI membranes might involve a significant reduction of the CO₂ unit costs, approaching to the above stated intervals. As a matter of example, the unit cost would be reduced about 40% (ca. 200 \$/t CO₂ avoided) if the unit cost for membrane production is reduced by a factor of 2. Moreover, a significant

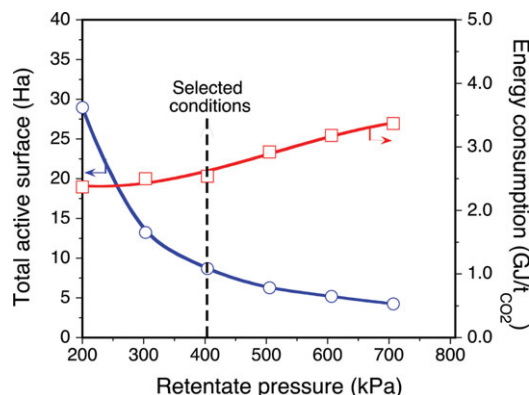


Figure 15. Comparative evolution of the total active surface and the energy consumption as a function of the retentate pressure at each unit using the input conditions indicated in Figure 13.

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reduction of unit costs can be foreseen by changing the support material from α -alumina to mullite.

Conclusions

In this study, we have synthesized MFI-alumina membranes with nanocomposite architecture for CO₂/N₂ separation under realistic postcombustion CO₂ capture conditions (i.e., diluted CO₂ and presence of large amounts of water). At high water concentrations, beyond capillary condensation in small mesoporous defects, MFI membranes show a steady-state reduction of the gas permeance of about 40% for a water concentration of 10 v/v % at 373 K. The incorporation of water promotes however CO₂/N₂ separation factors, most probably due to defective pore blockage and formation of (bi)carbonate stable intermediates. The promising CO₂ permeation and separation properties of nanocomposite MFI-alumina membranes in the presence of water compared with other zeolite membrane materials (e.g., FAU-type membranes), combined with their hydrothermal stability and optimal reproducibility, make these materials potentially competitive for postcombustion CO₂ capture applications.

Table 2. Estimation of Operation Costs of the Plant Depicted in Figure 13 for 146 kt/Year Removal

Designation	Unit	Amount Per Year*	Unit Cost (k\$/Unit)	OPEX (M\$/Year)
Membrane replacement	m ²	14,000	1.6	16.5
Handworking (HW) [†]	Person	Direct: 45 Indirect: 11	35 25	1.5 0.3
Staff	Person	2	65	0.1
Water (refrig.)	m ³	1.0 × 10 ⁶	0.015	1
Water (service)	m ³	1.0 × 10 ³	0.15	0.1
Electricity	kWh	9.1 × 10 ⁷	0.045	4.2
Depreciation	—	4% Capex	—	3.4
Capital charges	—	2% Capex	—	5.6
Taxes	—	2% Capex	—	2.5
Insurance	—	3% Capex	—	5.6
Maintenance	—	2% Capex	—	5.6
Others	—	—	—	2.3
Total OPEX				48.6

*Capex = 3.3 × IC (investment cost) equipment (equipment + installation).

[†]Calculations carried out assuming a staff constituted of 70 people with the distribution: three technician:four specialist:five nonqualified personnel:two administrative:one staff member.

According to the technico-economical analysis provided in this study, MFI-alumina membranes could be promising candidates for postcombustion CO₂ capture from flue gases emitted from power and incineration plants if the support cost can be reduced. The high active surfaces demanded for high purification combined with their high unit cost make this technology however less competitive than conventional chemical absorption or some exploratory rubbery polymeric membranes. At a long-term horizon, scale economy effects and a reduction of the cost ascribed to the support might provide a significant reduction of the unit costs for membrane production, making membrane technology more competitive.

Acknowledgments

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Notation

- a_b = membrane section, m²
 a_m = specific surface of the membranes, m²/m³
 c_{sat} = gas concentration in the MFI crystals, mol/m³
 D_0^∞ = Maxwell-Stefan diffusivity at zero coverage, m²/s
 D_p = inner diameter of membrane tubes, m
 E_D = activation energy for surface diffusion, J/mol
 L = length of membrane tubes, m
 l = effective thickness, m
 N = molar flux, mol m⁻² s⁻¹
 N_h^o = number of membranes in each unit
 P = pressure, Pa
 R = ideal constant of gases, 8.314 J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹
 T = temperature, K
 w = molar flow, kmol/s
 x = molar fraction in feed/retentate
 y = molar fraction in permeate
 z = axial position in the membranes, m

Greek letters

- ΔH_{ads}^o = standard adsorption enthalpy, J/mol
 ΔS_{ads}^o = standard adsorption entropy, J mol⁻¹ K⁻¹
 ε = porosity
 η = dimensionless position in the membranes
 ρ = density, kg m⁻³
 τ = tortuosity

Subscripts

- in = initial
 P = permeate
 R = retentate

Acronyms

- MFI = mobile five zeolite
 MCM = mobile corporate material
 MOF = metal organic framework
 IC = investment cost
 STP = standard conditions (101 kPa, 298 K)

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