

Assessing the environmental impact and payback of carbon nanotube supported CO₂ capture technologies using LCA methodology

Fan Wu^{1,2}, Zheng Zhou³, Sila Temizel-Sekeryan², Ramin Ghamkhar², Andrea L. Hicks^{2,*}

¹ School of Environment and Guangdong Key Laboratory of Environmental Pollution and Health, Jinan University, Guangzhou 510632, China

² Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, WI 53706, USA

³ Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah 84602, USA

* Corresponding author: Andrea L. Hicks, hicks5@wisc.edu

Abstract

Climate change caused by excessive CO₂ emissions in the atmosphere has attracted widespread public concern in recent years. Current industrial methods generally utilize monoethanolamine for CO₂ capture; however, the CO₂ regeneration requires a high temperature and energy demand during every adsorption/desorption process, along with material losses. Many solid amines with high capture capacity and stability are developed as adsorbents to overcome the limitations. However, the environmental impacts caused by adsorbents themselves are not holistically considered and discussed; meanwhile, material syntheses and consumptions are also associated with CO₂ emission. To determine the environmental impacts and identify hotspots of novel CO₂ capture adsorbents, two carbon nanotube supported polyethyleneimine, physically adsorbed and covalently bonded, were compared with traditional monoethanolamine method using life cycle assessment. The carbon payback periods were also analyzed to gain understanding on whether the currently evaluated novel materials are suitable for industrial application. Results suggest that, material usage, especially carbon nanotubes, contributes the majority of the overall environmental impacts for both types of carbon nanotube supported polyethyleneimine. Meanwhile, their carbon payback periods are over 40 times longer than monoethanolamine during the synthesis phase. However, the energy consumption of physically adsorbed polyethyleneimine saves up to 60% compared to monoethanolamine in every adsorption/desorption cycle due to its lower heat capacity. In addition, the rate of cumulative CO₂ remission for carbon nanotube supported polyethyleneimine is twice higher than monoethanolamine, indicating the potential application for industrial CO₂ capture. Overall, our study indicates that current status of solid amine has a potential in CO₂ capture, but requires much improvements. Future research should pay attention on decreasing the initial material synthesis and increasing the product life time due to their high environmental tradeoffs. Meanwhile, our study highlights that

38 unilateral emphasis of the CO₂ capture efficiency by novel materials may not be adequate,
39 comprehensive considerations should be focused on the comparison throughout material life
40 cycles including use and preparation phases.

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43 Keywords: CO₂ capture; carbon nanotube; solid amine; payback period; life cycle assessment.

Abbreviations

GHG: greenhouse gas; MEA: monoethanolamine; PEI: polyethyleneimine; DMF: dimethylformamide; CNT: carbon nanotubes; CNT-PEI: CNT supported PEI; Phy-CNT-PEI: physiosorbed CNT supported PEI; Cov-CNT-PEI: covalently bound CNT supported PEI; LCA: life cycle assessment; OD: ozone depletion; GW: global warming; PS: photochemical smog; AC: acidification; EU: eutrophication; HHC: human health carcinogenic; HHNC: Human health noncarcinogenic; RE: respiratory effects; EC: ecotoxicity; FF: fossil fuel depletion; USLCI: U.S. Life Cycle Inventory; TRACI: tool for the reduction and assessment of chemical and other environmental impacts; A/D: adsorption/desorption.

1. Introduction

The use of fossil fuels, changes in land, industries, transportation and buildings have given rise to an increase in greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions (US EPA, 2015). The increased level of GHG emission leads to climate change and global warming, which are unequivocal facts and cause growing concern. Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is the biggest contributor to global GHG with an approximately 80% share (Pachauri and Meyer, 2014). In addition, the result of the latest measurement for CO₂ level (in March 2020) reported by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) is 413.03 parts per million in Mauna Loa Observatory, Hawaii, which is the highest level recorded in the past 650,000 years. These realizations pave new ways to develop sustainable solutions to limit the emission and enhance the capture of CO₂. Besides moving towards energy efficient applications and fostering renewable energy usage, one option in order to minimize the environmental impacts resulting from the increased levels of CO₂ is to capture it properly (Kätelhön et al., 2019; Kocs, 2017). Carbon

capture and storage is one of the climate change mitigation strategies currently under intense consideration (Boot-Handford et al., 2013; Haszeldine, 2009), which was also outlined as one of the main strategies that could limit continuous global warming (Withey et al., 2019).

CO₂ capture can be achieved by post-combustion, pre-combustion and air separation followed by oxyfuel combustion methods (D'Alessandro et al., 2010). Due to the high efficiency, low cost, and relatively low energy demand, sorption is one of the promising CO₂ capture methods (Zhou et al., 2017). Several physical and chemical sorption processes have been extensively investigated in previous studies for CO₂ capture (Palomar et al., 2011; Sistla and Khanna, 2015; Xie et al., 2017). Among those, chemical absorption using aqueous amine solutions, specifically monoethanolamine (MEA) is the most commercially used method (Jung et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2015; Luis, 2016). Despite that MEA is efficient and economically favorable for CO₂ capture, the high energy demand, and direct and indirect CO₂ emissions at both downstream and upstream processes highlight the importance of seeking alternative CO₂ capture strategies (Luis, 2016). To be more specific, research has shown the MEA solvent regeneration step can occupy about 60% of the required energy in the CO₂ capture process (Kuramochi et al., 2012). Additionally, the use and generation of toxic materials (e.g. ethylene oxide) during the MEA production process, increase the environmental concerns in other environmental impact considerations (e.g. eco-toxicity, human health, etc.). Since the use of MEA in CO₂ capture is a point of concern and a global application, it may not be the optimal strategy in the long run.

Many advances in solid based materials for CO₂ capture have been reviewed recently including solid sorbents and solid supports functionalized with amines (D'Alessandro et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2014). Polymeric amines, such as polyethyleneimine (PEI), are promising amine sources for CO₂ capture due to their higher amine group density compared to other amine-containing compounds (Choi and Choi, 2018; Min et al., 2018a). In addition, amines

bonded to high surface area supports including metal oxides, zeolites, and carbon-based materials are promising adsorbents because they offer low energy solutions for regenerable, low cost, efficient and selective CO₂ capture (Liu et al., 2011). As a support, metal oxides are cost-effective, easily modified, provide avenues for mesoporous hierarchical structure, and allow both covalent and physical grafting of amines to the surfaces, but are susceptible to thermal degradation and often undergo self-catalyzed oxidation of amines at moderate temperatures resulting in lower CO₂ sorption efficiency. Zeolites have previously been functionalized with amines (Cavenati et al., 2004); however, the small pore size often limits the amount of amine that can be loaded onto the material, and the synthesis method often impacts not only the loading of amine, but also the distribution and availability of sites. Metal organic frameworks have arguably been quite efficient at CO₂ adsorption at low temperatures and pressures; however, they are often prohibitively expensive to make and susceptible to poor gas adsorption selectivity upon exposure to water vapor (Zhou et al., 2017). With high durability, physical and chemical stability, large surface areas for adsorbate molecules, high micropore volume, and relatively low cost, carbon nanotubes (CNT) are preferable support materials for amines as adsorbents for post-combustion CO₂ capture (Min et al., 2018b).

CNT have strong electrical, chemical, thermal and mechanical properties (Abdalla et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2013). In addition, the physicochemical properties of CNT are maintained under flue gas conditions due to their hydrophobicity as well as chemical and thermal stability. Given that CNT are porous materials and have hollow structures, these properties make them favored geometric structures for both inside and outside adsorption (Boot-Handford et al., 2013). Meanwhile, CNTs are hydrophobic therefore they are resistant to water vapor, which makes them more durable than other alternatives (Ganesh, 2013; Osler et al., 2017). Several studies use multi-wall (MW) CNT and amine modified MWCNTs as adsorbents for CO₂ capture (Jin et al., 2013; Keller et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2015). Previous

studies showed a comparable adsorption capacity of CNT-PEI compared to current MEA (30% weight) adsorption. It has been also suggested that CNT supported amine for CO₂ capturing is stable, requires much less energy for the desorption, and has a similar CO₂ capture capacity even comparable to the traditional MEA method at laboratory scale (Zhou et al., 2017).

Many novel materials with high efficiency and stability are developed recently for CO₂ capture purposes. However, the material syntheses phase also involves high energy inputs, which generates CO₂ emissions. Although solid amine using CNT as novel adsorbent materials imply high capability in CO₂ capture, the impacts of material preparation, usage and disposal on the overall environment is rarely studied. Meanwhile, large quantities of electricity are used to provide thermal and kinetic energy during the materials preparation and carbon regeneration phase, which are potential environmental burdens that could be overlooked. This study first investigates the environmental impacts of two CNT supported PEI, physisorbed (Phy-CNT-PEI) and covalently bound (Cov-CNT-PEI) synthesized at laboratory scale, using life cycle assessment (LCA). After that, the carbon payback period and economic payback are analyzed for Phy-CNT-PEI and traditional MEA methods (Figure 1). The goal of this study is to understand the life cycle impacts of CNT-PEI synthesis as novel CO₂ adsorbents, and also gain further understanding on the potential environmental benefits and tradeoffs during the use phase. Ultimately, this study aims to identify the potential limitations and applicability of novel CO₂ capture technologies.

2. Methods and modeling

This study serves as a case study to illustrate the major challenges that solid amine as a novel CO₂ capture technology encounters in cleaner production. The methods and modeling

section is divided into two parts: life cycle assessment and carbon payback analysis. Figure 1 illustrates the flow of current research.

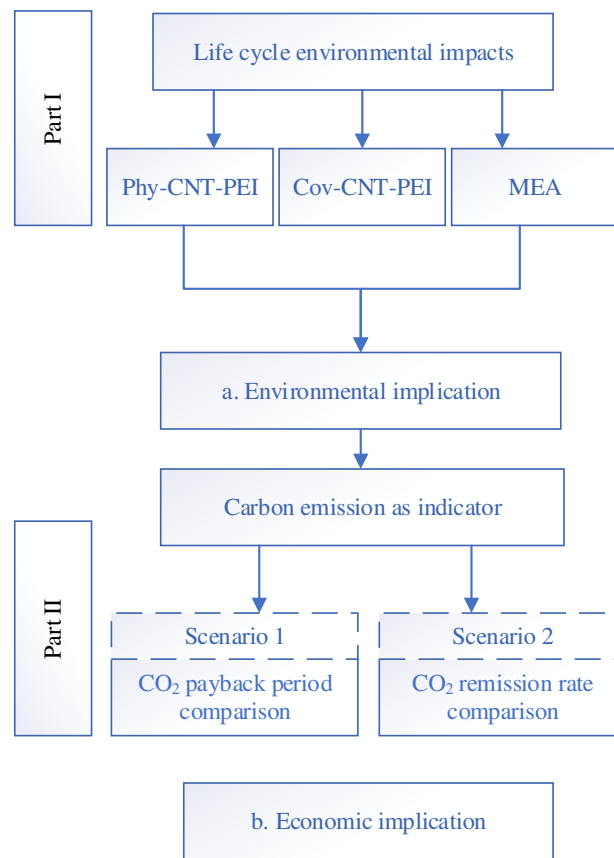


Figure 1. Flow diagram illustrates the study.

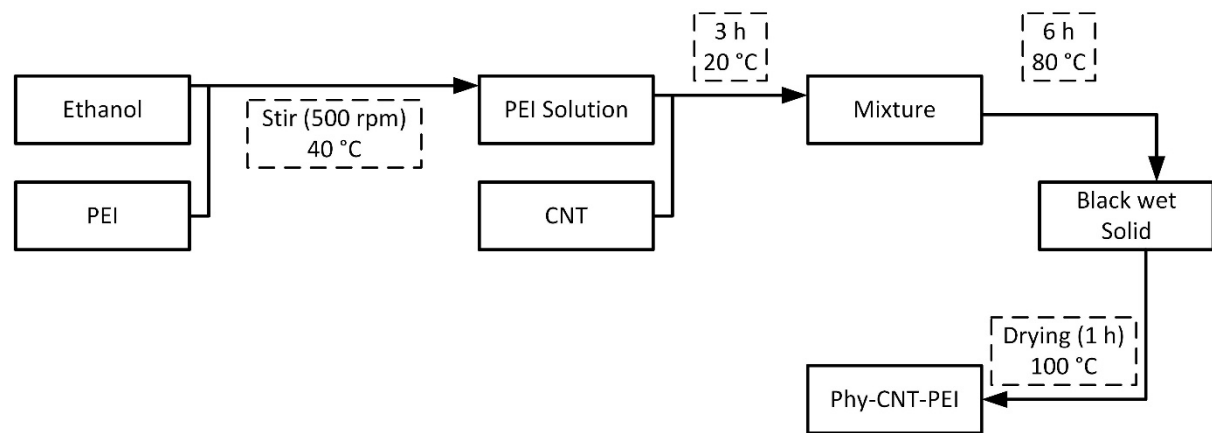
2.1 Life cycle assessment

2.1.1 Goal and scope

The goals of this research are to investigate the environmental impact profiles of two laboratory synthesized CNT-PEI, identify the hotspots and gain understanding on the potential carbon payback period for different CO₂ capture methods. The environmental impacts of both types of CNT-PEI syntheses were assessed initially using LCA. LCA is a systematic tool for determining the environmental impacts (using metrics such as kilograms

of carbon dioxide emitted) of a product or process across its entire life cycle or a portion of its life cycle (Finnveden et al., 2009; Klöpffer, 1997). The system boundaries are depicted in Figure 2. Two functional units were used for initial direct comparison, 1 kilogram (kg) of material synthesis cost (mass-based), and materials required to adsorb 1 kg CO₂. Adsorption capacities are summarized in Table 1.

a. Phy-CNT-PEI



b. Cov-CNT-PEI

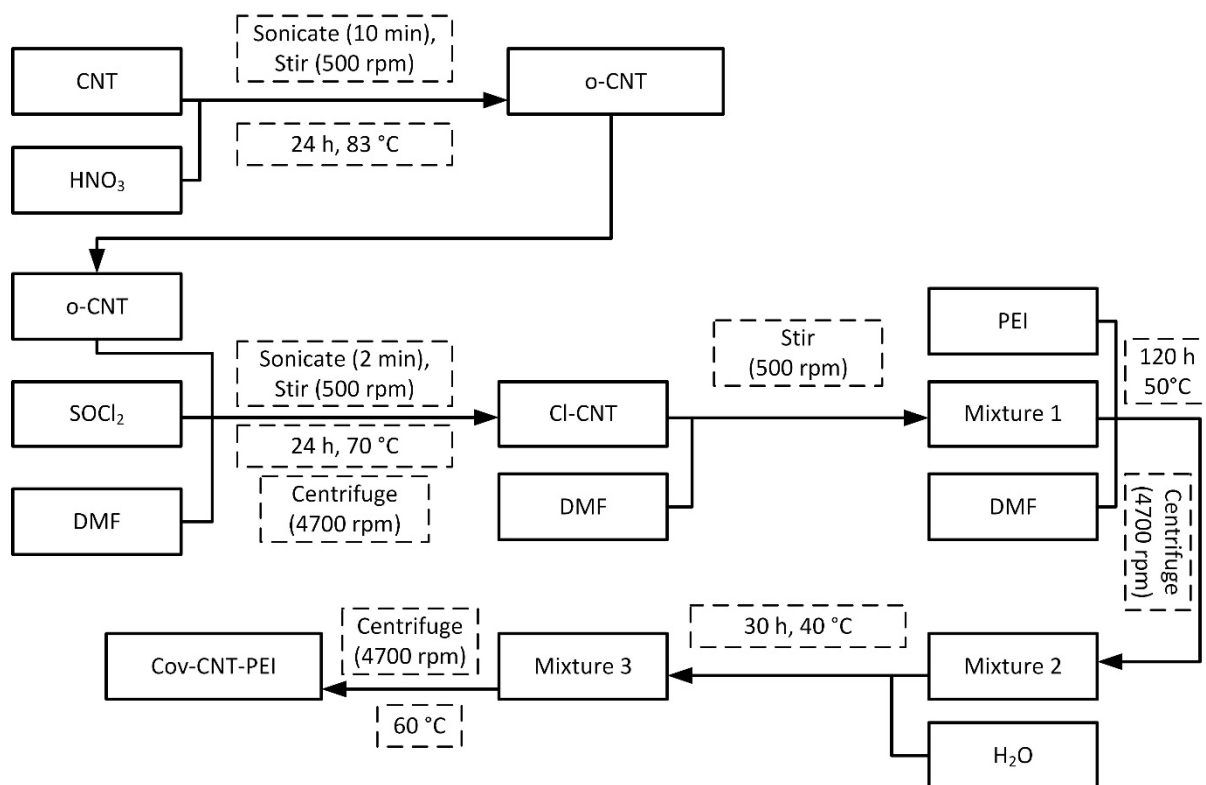


Figure 2. System boundaries and schematics of CNT-PEI (covalent & physical) syntheses (additional syntheses, including CNT, PEI, DMF, are illustrated in the SI). CNT, PEI and DMF are denoted as carbon nanotube, polyethyleneimine and dimethylformamide, respectively.

Table 1. Summary of the initial CO₂ adsorption capacity for each adsorption/desorption (A/D) cycle. Dry condition: introducing CO₂ at a flow rate of 10 mL·min⁻¹ with 40 mL·min⁻¹ N₂. Wet condition: 3 H₂O steam by volume was introduced in the system by bubbling 40 mL·min⁻¹ N₂ into H₂O bath. CO₂ flow rate is still 10 mL·min⁻¹.

| Type of material | Capacity (mmol/g) | | kg CO ₂ /kg material | |
|--------------------|-------------------|------|---------------------------------|------|
| | Dry | Wet | Dry | Wet |
| Cov-CNT-PEI | 0.98 | 1.12 | 0.04 | 0.05 |
| Phy-CNT-PEI | 6.18 | 0.3 | 0.27 | 0.01 |
| MEA | 6.82 | | 0.30 | |

2.1.2 Life cycle inventory

Information on materials and reagents used for the laboratory syntheses was from Zhou *et al* (2017). The CNT used here was synthesized through the chemical vapor

deposition (CVD) method, which has also been identified as one of the most utilized methods for industrial growth of carbon nanotubes (Kushnir and Sandén, 2008; Zhang et al., 2011). In this study, materials and energy inputs were collected from a pilot scale multi-wall CNT (MWCNT) production plant (Table S1&S2) (Fan et al., 2006). The life cycle impacts of the MWCNT in this study was also compared to a suite of other MWCNT synthesis studies to understand the relative impact of the production scale.

Due to the limited information from the chemical vendor, PEI synthesis procedures were obtained from multiple literature sources (Bieber and Elsässer, 2001; Chaikittisilp et al., 2013; Tauhardt et al., 2011). The flow chart of PEI synthesis and material inputs are presented in Figure S1 and Table S3&S4, respectively. Materials and energy inputs for synthesizing both CNT-PEI are listed in Table S5&S6. The electricity and energy usage to produce CNT-PEI were either collected directly from the laboratory equipment, or estimated based on the first law of thermodynamics (equations S1 and S2) when the materials were not synthesized on-site (Wu et al., 2019). Detailed equations and numbers are presented in the supporting information (SI).

2.1.3 Life cycle impact assessment and interpretation

The life cycle environmental and human health impacts were modeled using the SimaPro software (version 8.5) with Ecoinvent and USLCI (U.S. Life Cycle Inventory) databases as inventories (Wernet et al., 2016). SimaPro is one of the most widely used LCA softwares, which provides a modeling environment from simple to complex products or systems. TRACI 2.1 (tool for the reduction and assessment of chemical and other environmental impacts) was used as the assessment method to represent an United States based study (USEPA, 2012). The midpoint categories considered include ozone depletion

(OD; kg CFC-11 equivalent), global warming (GW; kg CO₂ eq), smog (PS; kg O₃ eq), acidification (AC; mol SO₂ eq), eutrophication (EU; kg N eq), carcinogenic (HHC; CTUh), non-carcinogenic (HHNC; CTUh), respiratory effects (RE; kg PM_{2.5} eq), ecotoxicity (EC; CTUe), and fossil fuel depletion (FF; MJ surplus) (Wu et al., 2019).

2.1.4 Sensitivity and uncertainty analysis

Sensitivity analysis determines the output parameter percentage change by varying an individual input parameter, while all the other parameters are constant (Stoykova, 2010), which shows the influence of one parameter (the independent variable) on the value of another (the dependent variable). In this case, the purpose of the sensitivity analysis is to monitor how sensitive of each synthesis procedure is to the overall CNT-PEI production. Therefore, the sensitivities of CNT-PEI syntheses were assessed by varying a single parameter value (increased by 25%), and compare the change of the overall impact for each impact category. The uncertainties associated with the unit processes in the life cycle database were analyzed using Monte-Carlo simulations in SimaPro for 1000 runs to the 95th confidence interval.

2.2 Carbon payback analysis

As the targeted application of the studied technology is to store CO₂, global warming potential was selected as a major indicator to analyze the environmental payback in this study. The concept of environmental payback is well established and has been used to compare the relative environmental impact of numerous conventional and emerging technologies, particularly in energy applications such as fuels and photovoltaics (Gibbs et al., 2008; Jonker et al., 2014; Rankine et al., 2006). Here, the carbon payback is calculated as the number of

adsorption/desorption (A/D) cycles required to obtain CO₂ saving equivalent to the initial CO₂ cost, which is generated from the material syntheses. The carbon paybacks of carbon capture technologies were compared with a commonly adapted MEA strip method to gain further understanding on the potential of application.

The summaries of CO₂ adsorption capacity under varying scenarios are presented in Table 1. From previous experiments, results suggest that Cov-CNT-PEI has a higher CO₂ adsorption capacity than Phy-CNT-PEI under wet adsorption scenario, whereas the CO₂ adsorption capacity for Phy-CNT-PEI is much higher under dry condition than Cov-CNT-PEI, and similar to MEA (Zhou et al., 2018, 2017; Zoannou et al., 2013). Most industrial CO₂ exhaust streams are generated in post-combustion processes, where the concentration of CO₂ in the gas mixture ranges from 3-20% by volume (Markewitz et al., 2012). Therefore, the CO₂ concentration used in the adsorption capacity test was 20% in N₂ by volume. Phy-CNT-PEI under dry condition was investigated further for the environmental payback comparison due to the comparatively high adsorption capacity. Two scenarios were considered to evaluate the carbon payback of the targeting technology.

2.2.1 Scenario 1: CO₂ payback period comparison

In scenario 1, the number of A/D cycles required to match with the initial MEA and CNT-PEI CO₂ cost during syntheses are calculated. The net amount of CO₂ remission by 1 kg of adsorbents are expressed as equation 1.

$$\text{Life time CO}_2 \text{ remission} = \sum_{K=0}^n (K - D) - I \quad (\text{equation 1})$$

In which, K represents the CO₂ adsorption after corresponding cycle (kg CO₂), and D represents the CO₂ generated from the desorption energy use (kg CO₂). $(K-D)$ represents the

net gain of CO₂ remission for each corresponding cycle. *I* represents the initial synthesis cost (kg CO₂).

2.2.2 Scenario 2: CO₂ remission rate comparison

The rates for CO₂ remission between Phy-CNT-PEI and MEA were compared in scenario 2. More industrial relevant approach was considered by replenishing fresh MEA once the capacity decrease to a certain level. During industrial application, the CO₂ adsorption capacity should be maintained at a relatively stable level. Since liquid MEA can degrade after each A/D cycle, MEA was replenished when the adoption capacity is decreased to 95% of the original capture capacity (which equals to every 10 cycles). No replenishing or replacement was considered for CNT-PEI due to their stability nature.

3. Results and discussion

The results are presented in the following order: life cycle impact comparison between two CNT-PEI syntheses with different functional units (Figure 3); impact contribution for two CNT-PEI synthesis (Figure 4); carbon emission for synthesizing 1 kg of each absorbent (Figure 5); carbon payback analysis: scenario 1 and scenario 2 (Figure 6 and Figure 7).

3.1 Life cycle impact of CNT-PEI production

3.1.1 Impact comparisons between two types of CNT-PEI

Figure 3 shows the relative environmental impacts comparison between Phy-CNT-PEI and Cov-CNT-PEI by using two different functional units. When the mass based functional unit was used, the environmental impacts generated from synthesizing Phy-CNT-

PEI were ranged from 40-80% compared to Cov-CNT-PEI in all impact categories, suggesting that the Phy-CNT-PEI has low environmental burdens during synthesis phase. Only the consideration of mass may not accurately estimate the impact of CNT-PEI with respect to the utility of CO₂ remission. The functional units should specifically focus at the targeted material function, which in this case, amount of CO₂ adsorption was added as the additional functional unit for comparison. When the results were rescaled based on the CO₂ adsorption efficiency, Cov-CNT-PEI showed even higher impacts, with nearly 10 times higher impacts than Phy-CNT-PEI (Figure 3b). This is mainly due to the lower CO₂ adsorption capacity in Cov-CNT-PEI than Phy-CNT-PEI. The CO₂ adsorption capacity of Phy-CNT-PEI is nearly 6 folds higher than Cov-CNT-PEI under dry CO₂ condition (Table 1). From the previous material characterization on both types of CNT-PEI, it shows that 40% PEI was physically adsorbed on CNT (Phy-CNT-PEI), whereas only 16% PEI was covalent bound to CNT (Cov-CNT-PEI). Therefore, improve amine group that bound to CNT could potentially enhance their CO₂ capture capacity, meanwhile decrease the corresponding environmental burdens generated from material production. Overall, both functional units illustrate that the Cov-CNT-PEI has higher overall impacts than Phy-CNT-PEI.

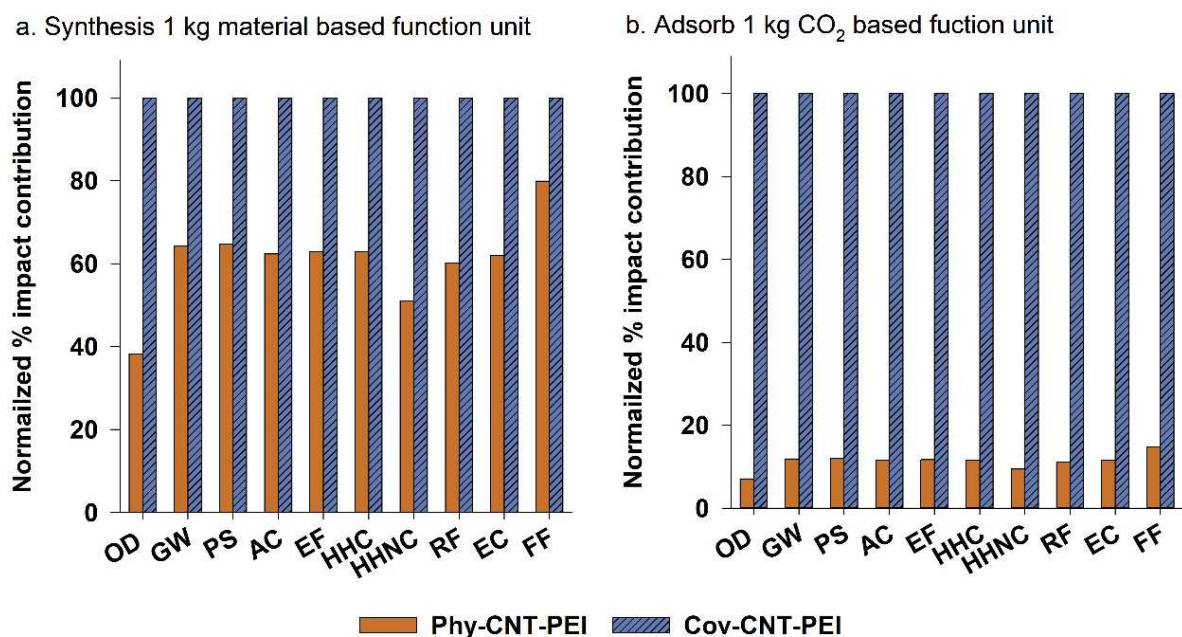


Figure 3. Normalized percent impact for all assessed categories by comparing both CNT-PEI when (a) synthesis 1 kg CNT-PEI and (b) adsorb 1 kg CO₂ as function unit, respectively. Ozone depletion (OD), global warming (GW), smog (PS), acidification (AC), eutrophication (EU), carcinogenic (HHC), noncarcinogenic (HHNC), respiratory effects (RE), ecotoxicity (EC), and fossil fuel depletion (FF).

3.1.2 Impact contributions of each procedure

Figure 4 illustrates the environmental impact contributions of each main procedure during both CNT-PEI syntheses. In Figure 4a, CNT manufacturing is the driving environmental burden in all impact categories, it contributes more than 50% of environmental burdens to all the categories due to its intense synthesis condition such as high temperature and large amount of feedstocks (Figure S5). PEI synthesis was identified to be the second largest contributor (~20%). Compared to the materials, the contribution by electricity consumption is negligible in Phy-CNT-PEI. For Cov-CNT-PEI, additional chemical compounds (i.e. DMF, thionyl chloride) were involved in the synthesis to form strong covalent bonds between the CNT and PEI, which generate additional environmental burdens due to the large quantity being utilized (Figure 4b).

Furthermore, the sensitivity analyses for both CNT-PEI syntheses are listed in Table S15&S16. Results show that CNT and PEI syntheses are the most sensitive parameters during material synthesis throughout life cycle, which again confirms that the CNT and PEI production dominate the environmental impacts in the both CNT-PEI syntheses. Additionally, the use of organic compounds, especially thionyl chloride (SOCl₂) and dimethylformamide (DMF) showed high sensitivity to the impacts associated with Cov-CNT-PEI. The associated uncertainties around both CNT-PEI syntheses were analyzed and revealed to be low (Figure S4). The environmental impacts related to all materials synthesis are tabulated in Table S7-S14, and the environmental impact contributions are graphically presented in Figure S5-S8.

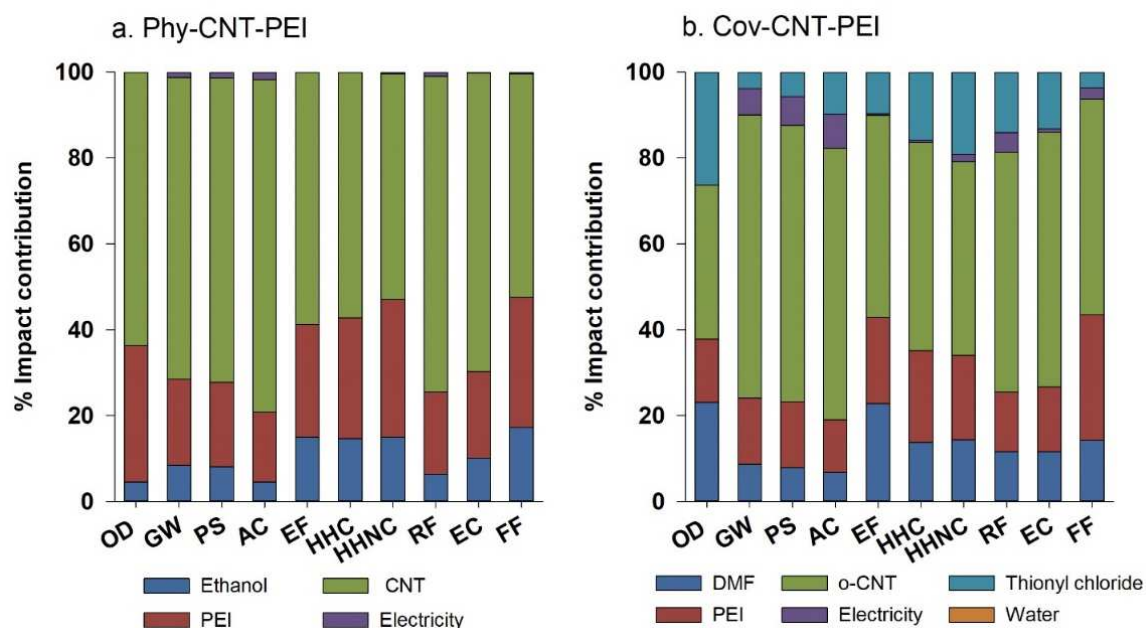


Figure 4. Impacts contribution during CNT-PEI syntheses. a) impact contribution of Phy-CNT-PEI; b) Cov-CNT-PEI. (higher categories normalized as 100%). Ozone depletion (OD), global warming (GW), smog (PS), acidification (AC), eutrophication (EU), carcinogenic (HHC), noncarcinogenic (HHNC), respiratory effects (RE), ecotoxicity (EC), and fossil fuel depletion (FF).

By using global warming potential as an indicator, Figure 5 illustrates the CO₂ produced through the manufacturing of 1 kg of adsorbent. MEA requires much less materials and energy input than CNT-PEI due to their industrial scale manufacture. The CO₂ generation associated with CNT-PEI syntheses are 72 (Phy-CNT-PEI) and 113 (Cov-CNT-PEI) times higher than MEA. CNT contributes over 50% of GW to the overall production process in both CNT-PEI. Meanwhile, Cov-CNT-PEI generates more GHG emission than Phy-CNT-PEI, largely attributed to the pre-treatment of CNT (for creating covalent bonds) and organic chemical compounds (e.g. DMF) used.

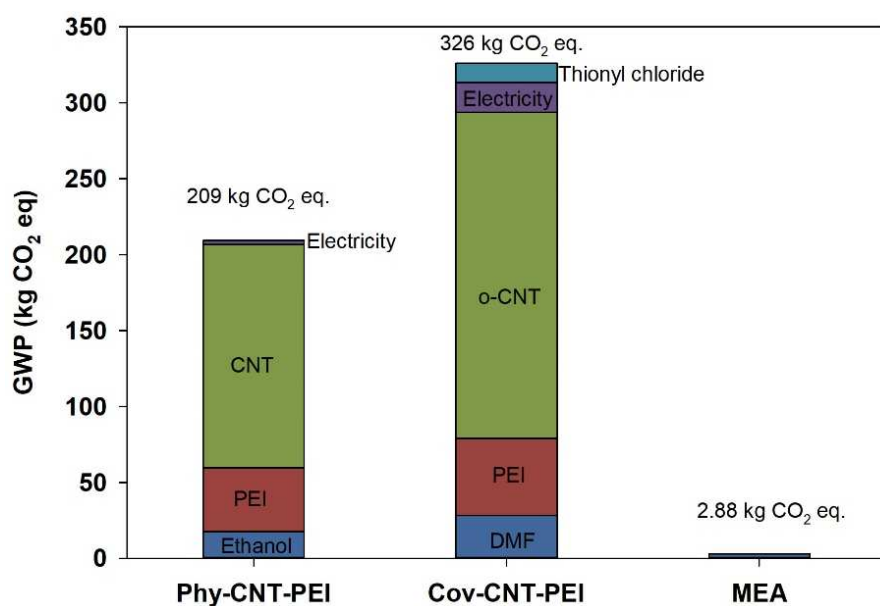


Figure 5. Quantity of CO₂ generated by synthesizing 1 kg of Phy-CNT-PEI, Cov-CNT-PEI, and MEA. Color schemes represent the materials and processes contribution in each type of product synthesis. GWP: global warming potential.

3.1.3 Major GW contributor and implication

Life cycle inventory for CNT production were compiled based on a pilot scale manufacturing plant (up to 20 g MWCNT/h) (Fan et al., 2006). LCA analysis indicates supporting gas and electricity are the two major contributors for the overall CNT production (Figure S6). Especially for GW impact category, electricity contributed over 80% of the greenhouse gas emission. Other LCA research also investigated the environmental impacts of CNT syntheses under laboratory conditions, and identified the largest impact was due to the energy consumption, followed by the equipment infrastructure (Griffiths et al., 2013). Thus, converting to cleaner energy sources may decrease future CO₂ emissions associated with the environmental manufacturing cost. For PEI and other chemical syntheses, material usage, including organic and inorganic chemicals, and electricity dominated the environmental impacts for the production (Figure S6-S8).

Although environmental impact results analyzed based on laboratory scale production cannot be scaled up directly, it is helpful to identify the energy and material intensive processes, and to minimize the corresponding cost and lower the associated environmental impacts before scaling up. In addition, it provides the maximum environmental impacts possible during the material synthesis phase, which generates the most conservative comparison in CO₂ paybacks to our study.

It has to be recognized that scale up from laboratory level to pilot scale can potentially save materials and energy sources due to higher reaction yields, recycling of reagents and efficient equipment (Gao et al., 2013). Research also suggests scaling up the process could potentially save up to 6.5 times more material and energy inputs than a typical laboratory synthesis (Piccinno et al., 2018). Compared to other laboratory scale CNT syntheses, results using a pilot plant data generated up to 40 times less CO₂ emission than the most intensive chemical vapor deposition method (Figure S2). Since industrial scale production could further decrease the corresponding environmental impacts by improving the materials and energy efficiency, there still is a large potential for lowering the associated environmental burdens for PEI-CNT to be manufactured when scaling up.

3.2 Carbon payback comparison

Although CNT-PEI shows large CO₂ cost during synthesis, the high stability and consistency in CO₂ remission overtime provides potential for them to achieve environmental benefits in the long run. Thus, the carbon payback of Phy-CNT-PEI was analyzed and further compared with MEA.

3.2.1 Scenario 1: CO₂ payback period comparison

Table 2 summarizes the net CO₂ remission between 1 kg of Phy-CNT-PEI and MEA during one A/D cycle. Phy-CNT-PEI saves up to 60% energy demand compare to the MEA method for each A/D cycle due to its lower heat capacity. With a lower CO₂ remission capacity, Phy-CNT-PEI still shows a similar net CO₂ remission per cycle compared with MEA, due to the lower energy required per A/D cycles. This is also a benefit of utilizing solid supported amine for CO₂ capture due to the low heat capacity compared to liquid phase materials.

Table 2. Comparison of the net CO₂ remission between Phy-CNT-PEI and MEA.

| Type of material | Heat capacity (KJ/kg-K) | kg CO ₂ saving/kg of Product | Energy required/cycle (KJ) | Corresponding CO ₂ produced/cycle (kg) | Net CO ₂ remission/cycle (kg) |
|------------------|-------------------------|---|----------------------------|---|---|
| Phy-CNT-PEI | 1.40 | 0.27 | 70.20 | 0.02 | 0.26 |
| MEA | 3.46 | 0.30 | 172.85 | 0.04 | 0.26 |

CO₂ payback period of utilizing 1 kg MEA and Phy-CNT-PEI are calculated (based on equation 1) and compared in Figure 6. For MEA, the maximum CO₂ capture has been modeled to be 11.76 kg after considering the degradation (Figure 6a). Since the CO₂ cost for manufacturing 1 kg MEA equals to 2.88 kg CO₂, the net cumulative CO₂ remission is 8.88 kg CO₂/kg MEA. The CO₂ payback period is estimated to be 21 A/D cycles. There will be no CO₂ saving after 176 cycles because the amount of CO₂ generated from the desorption process is higher than the remission savings.

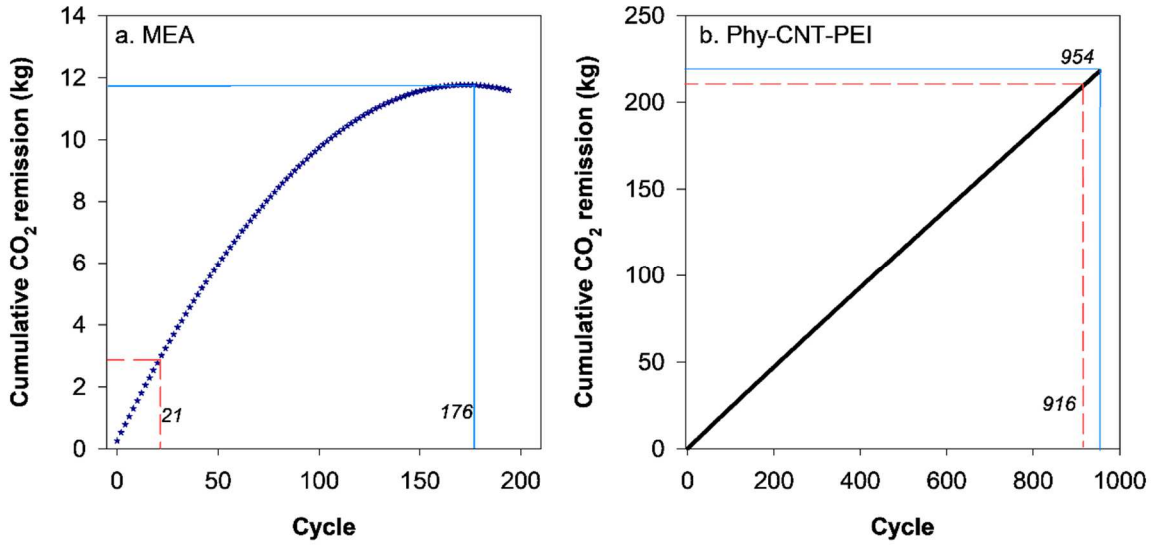


Figure 6. Lifetime cumulative CO₂ remission and payback cycles for MEA (a) and physiosorbed CNT-PEI (b) (scenario 1). Red dash line in both panels indicates the corresponding CO₂ payback after cycles of use. Blue solid line in panel a indicates the lifetime payback and cycles of use for MEA, in panel b indicates the cycles required to remediate the same quantity of CO₂ compared to MEA.

For Phy-CNT-PEI, the cumulative CO₂ remission tends to follow a linear trend because of the slow degradation rate and relative stable CO₂ recovery capacity over cycles. However, Phy-CNT-PEI has a nearly 72 times higher initial manufacturing CO₂ cost than MEA, with 209 kg CO₂ generation when synthesizing 1 kg Phy-CNT-PEI (Figure 5). The initial CO₂ cost requires an estimate of 916 A/D cycles to obtain a payback breakeven point (Figure 6b). Due to the relatively high and stable CO₂ capacity, only additional 38 A/D cycles (954 in total) reach equivalent lifetime CO₂ remission with 1 kg MEA.

3.2.2 Scenario 2: CO₂ remission rate comparison

Research indicates that MEA can be degraded to other products with much lower CO₂ adsorption capacity, such as 2-oxazolidone, N-(2-hydroxyethyl)-ethylenediamine, and 1-(2-hydroxyethyl)-2-imidazolidinone over time (Zoannou et al., 2013). During this 8 weeks study,

the thermal degradation of MEA has shown a reduction by 95% at 160 °C (Zoannou et al., 2013). Another study showed a MEA degradation by 2.5 to 6% every 2-week cycles (Davis and Rochelle, 2009). In contrast, the recovery rate of CNT-PEI has been proven to be much higher and more stable than MEA. CNT-PEI has previously been proven experimentally to maintain a stable recovery rate up to 100 cycles (Su et al., 2014). Su *et al.* also showed a slow degradation for CNT-PEI, where recovery after 1, 50, and 100 A/D cycles are 100, 94.37, and 92% (2014). The CO₂ adsorption capacity for Phy-CNT-PEI and MEA through cycles were fitted with an exponential and linear decay curve, respectively. The exponential decay curve (equation 2) was fitted following a recovery study conducted by Zhang *et al.* (2012). They showed a 10-cycle data points including the initial state and the steady state during the capture process (Zhang et al., 2012). In order to accurately estimate the material stability for CO₂ capture, the data was used to establish a prediction for material stability in a long-term CO₂ capture. For MEA, the degradation rate was fitted using equation 3, with a conservative estimation approximately 0.5% MEA loss per cycle (Davis and Rochelle, 2009). The fitted models are presented in Figure S3 and S4.

For CNT-PEI (exponential decay):

$$y1 = -1.72 \times \ln(x) + 98.8 \quad (\text{equation 2})$$

For MEA (linear decay):

$$y2 = -0.51x + 99.9 \quad (\text{equation 3})$$

In equations 2 and 3, y1 and y2 are the adsorption/absorption capacities of CNT-PEI and MEA at x cycle, respectively.

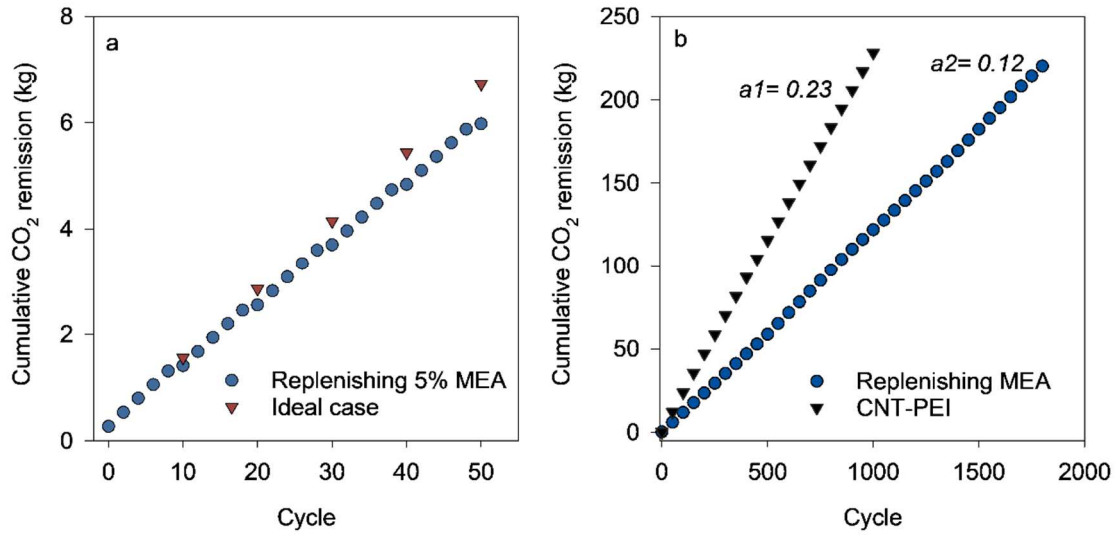


Figure 7. a) Cumulative CO₂ remission when replenishing 5% MEA back after every 10 cycles (red triangle represents an ideal condition where no degradation of MEA, blue circle represents the loss of cumulative CO₂ remission after replenishing 5% MEA every 10 cycles); b) comparative cumulative CO₂ remission between replenishing MEA scenario with Phy-CNT-PEI.

In reality, replenishing degraded and lost MEA after certain cycles could maintain a consistent and stable CO₂ capture capacity. Since approximately 5% of MEA degradation is expected with every 10 A/D cycles, to maintain a consistent capture capacity, an additional 5% of MEA was replenished after every 10 cycles for comparison in this scenario. The corresponding CO₂ generation associated with the 5% MEA replenished was included as a loss for the cumulative CO₂ remission (demonstrated in Figure 7a). The results suggest that during the 10 cycles, replenishing the first A/D cycle offsets the 5% MEA CO₂ manufacturing cost. Therefore, the remaining 9 cycles are the actual net CO₂ remission.

The rate for CO₂ remission between Phy-CNT-PEI and replenishing MEA are compared in Figure 7b. Results show that Phy-CNT-PEI has a much higher CO₂ remission rate (0.23 kg CO₂/cycle) than the replenishing MEA scenario (0.12 kg CO₂/cycle). By simply assuming 1000 A/D cycles as a lifetime for CNT-PEI, the cumulative CO₂ remission in Phy-CNT-PEI at 1000 cycles are more than doubled compared to the MEA. Therefore,

operational lifetime of CNT-PEI is the determining factor and critical for the overall environmental performance in CO₂ remission.

3.3 Environmental implications

Although many studies have conducted LCA on the capture of CO₂ under industrial post-combustion, and have found that post-combustion CO₂ capture can decrease the global warming potential (Castelo Branco et al., 2013; Young et al., 2019), there are other environmental impacts associated and additional fuels demanded (Chisalita et al., 2019). With the limitations of current CO₂ capture technologies, novel materials are in urgently needed to improve the efficiency. Previous studies investigated the life cycle impacts of a membrane separation technology, where they found membrane separation has lower life cycle emissions compared to conventional MEA absorption process (Giordano et al., 2018). The authors indicate that the environmental impacts are strongly related to the membrane material, which is similar in our case where the materials usage are the determine factor in terms of life cycle emissions. In another study, researchers used potassium carbonate as an alternative for CO₂ capture, and the LCA results suggest potassium carbonate is better than MEA in all environmental categories (Grant et al., 2014). Although these studies compared the life cycle impacts of different carbon capture technologies, none of these considered the environmental payback period from manufacturing and the environmental tradeoffs over the life time. Solid amine as a novel absorbent in CO₂ capture, the life cycle emissions have not been previously investigated. In addition, researchers summarize that energy penalty, functional units, scale-up issues, market effects and several other issues are the major challenges, which are overlooked in carbon capture and storage investigations (Sathre et al.,

2012). Thus, the present study attempts to serve as a case study and discuss some of the current major challenges.

The results suggest that carbon payback analyzed in present study is largely dependent on the lifetime (A/D cycles) of CNT-PEI. Although many studies only showed consistent recovery rate up to 100 cycles, our results indicate that a total of 912 A/D cycles are required to be able to obtain a breakeven CO₂ payback for Phy-CNT-PEI (Figure 6b). Currently, very limited number of studies reported the actual lifetime and the A/D cycles of CNT-PEI that can be achieved. Begag *et al.* studied the capacity of a solid state amine (amine-functionalized aerogel) over 2000 A/D cycles in a fixed bed (Begag et al., 2013). They found that the capacity was decreased by only a small amount (from 1.5 to 1.4 mmol CO₂/g sorbent) over such a large number of cycles (Begag et al., 2013). This study provides evidence suggesting solid state amine should have a long lifetime to achieve environmental benefits. In addition, to optimize the synthesis procedures and enhance the CO₂ adsorption capacity, future research should also investigate and ensure the maximum lifetime capacity of current CNT-PEI under extreme conditions in order to receive more concise payback outcomes. Importantly, this present study simplifies the A/D process by assuming no additional adverse environmental impact caused by the degradants of MEA. In reality, MEA degradants can also dilute the MEA concentration, which decrease the CO₂ capture capacity. These technical challenges minimize the benefits of liquid phase capturing technologies, and highlight the benefits of developing solid supported amine for CO₂ remission.

Although research related to solid state amines for CO₂ capture is still in the early stage and many technical challenges needed to be overcome, solid state amines have become more attractive in CO₂ capture recently since the technology is solvent free (Min et al., 2018a), which reduces the energy penalty from regeneration compared to traditional liquid capture methods (Table 2). However, the large energy requirement for the adsorbent

preparation (production and characterization) is still an issue that can almost counteract the energy requirement for regeneration. Substantial studies should be conducted to optimize the reduction of energy required in adsorbent preparation, improvement of adsorbent stability (e.g. thermal and steam) and CO₂ capture capacity under realistic flue gas conditions (D'Alessandro et al., 2010). Moreover, reactor and process design should be optimized for solid state amines since very few publications are involved in this field (Dutcher et al., 2015).

3.4 Economic implications

From a business perspective, the cost of reducing emissions should be taken into account when making economically sustainable decisions (Schwartz et al., 2020). Table 3 shows the estimated price for CO₂ adsorbents and electricity used per cycle based on the material flow. For the synthesis of 1 kg Phy-CNT-PEI, 0.6 kg CNT, 0.4 kg PEI and 50 kg ethanol was used. Ethanol was recycled during syntheses and adjusts the total cost of manufacturing 1 kg Phy-CNT-PEI at \$580. CNT contributes 72% of the cost. Monoethanolamine (MEA, 98%) has been commercialized and can be directly purchased with the price of \$40/kg. Since the concentration of MEA is 30% in the industrial CO₂ capture and thus the price can be adjusted to \$12/kg. The syntheses cost of Phy-CNT-PEI is 48 times higher than MEA. However, since MEA suffers from chemical degradation and caused equipment erosion, additional material usage and maintenance are required. In addition, extra electricity will be consumed each desorption cycle, the energy cost of MEA is 2.5 times higher than Phy-CNT-PEI. Although Phy-CNT-PEI shows benefits in costs during the use phase, the high synthesis cost limits the widespread industrial application. The total cost of Phy-CNT-PEI can be reduced to be the same as MEA after 8900 cycles. By

integrating economic analysis, energy stakeholders and general public would gain better interests towards environmental technologies in the future research (Sun et al., 2020).

It is relevant to note that it is an overestimation based on the assumptions such as laboratory scale and high grade of chemicals used for CNT-PEI. However, from the economic point of view, traditional MEA remains to be a better alternative for industrial application. Same as the environmental payback outcomes, decreasing the CNT and other material costs will benefit the application of solid amine adsorbents in CO₂ capture.

Table 3. Summary of the CO₂ adsorbents price and electricity used per cycle. Detailed material price are presented in Table S17.

| Type of material | Market price (\$/kg) | Energy (kWh/cycle) | Mean price (\$/cycle) |
|--------------------|----------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| Phy-CNT-PEI | 580 | 0.02 | 0.0026 |
| MEA | 12 | 0.05 | 0.0064 |

In general, CO₂ capture phase contributes 70% - 80% of total costs during carbon capture and storage (Lee and Park, 2015), therefore, develop novel CO₂ sorbents that satisfy technical and economic needs is the ultimate goal to achieve sustainability. Metal oxides, such as alumina, have low production cost, but easy to corrode over time could enhance the maintenance cost dramatically, meanwhile, high energy consumption during CO₂ desorption indicates an overall low sustainability. Zeolites, silica materials, and metal organic frameworks are known for their poor economic efficiency due to high production cost. Especially for metal organic frameworks, which typically cost several thousand dollars per kilogram, therefore limit the application at larger scales (Lee and Park, 2015). In addition, other carbon-based materials such as carbonaceous materials, are potential alternatives for CO₂ capture. They are thermal and steam stable, with reasonable production cost, and low energy consumption in the desorption process. Although the cost and the economic

implication of these alternatives have not been investigated extensively. In addition to the environmental burdens generated during materials production, the economic efficiency of alternative materials should be considered and investigated thoroughly for the future work to benefit decision making.

4. Conclusions

Many researchers develop novel CO₂ capture adsorbents generally put emphasis on improving adsorption efficiency and stability during the capture processes. However, the environmental burdens generated through material syntheses and utilization are largely overlooked. Our study serves as an example, to investigate the environmental impacts of solid amine as a carbon capture application, and performed environmental and economic trade-off comparisons with a traditional carbon capture method for the first time. The key findings of this study are:

1) CNT-PEI as a solid amine absorbent, showed much higher environmental costs than the traditional MEA method during their initial manufacturing phase. CNT production identified as the major contributor during the life cycle environmental impacts. There is still potential to optimize current technology, such as using more sustainable energy source, scaling up and recycle to enhance the production efficiency.

2) The carbon payback period for Phy-CNT-PEI are 917 cycle. With higher CO₂ remission rate, consistent capture capacity and reusability, Phy-CNT-PEI provided great potential to overcome some barriers such as offset CO₂ cost and increase the sustainability of current CO₂ capture techniques, however, high initial environmental and economic costs do not favor CNT-PEI to be used in industrial application with current performance.

Given that CO₂ emission plays a major role in global climate change, developing novel technologies that mitigate CO₂ emissions is critical. However, when implementing a novel technology, the corresponding environmental impacts associated should be taken into consideration. Our study highlights that unilateral emphasis of the CO₂ capture efficiency by novel materials is not enough, comprehensive environmental and economic impact comparisons throughout material life cycles should be investigated. In this study, an understanding of hotspots in the material life cycle allows researchers and developers to work towards optimizing the production processes (CNT and PEI syntheses in the present study), and to limit negative environmental impacts that may be associated with CNT enabled adsorption technologies. In addition, future development for solid amine adsorption that enhances the CO₂ remission capacity and extends product lifetime are important in making this technology more valuable and competitive.

Conflicts of interest

There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

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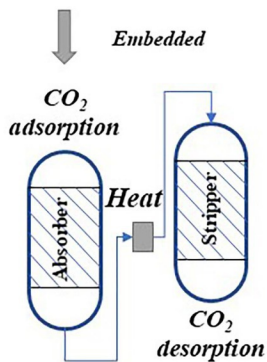
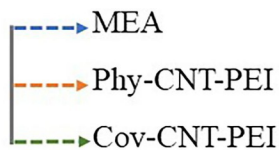
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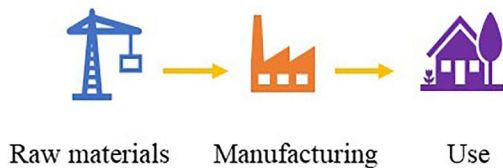
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CO₂ capture materials



Life cycle impact



CO₂ payback period

