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# Catalytic CO<sub>2</sub> absorption in an amine solvent using nickel nanoparticles for post-combustion carbon capture



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#### ABSTRACT

In industrial post-carbon capture processes, monoethanolamine (MEA) has been mainly used as an absorption solvent. However, this approach generates significant amounts of toxic wastewater containing a heavy chemical difficult to treat and also raises concerns about acute corrosion of metal structures in the facility. To reduce the use of MEA in carbon capture, this work evaluates the catalytic performance of nickel nanoparticles (NiNPs) for CO<sub>2</sub> capture as a possible additive in an MEA solvent. We test the CO<sub>2</sub> absorption rate in MEA catalyzed by NiNPs in both limited and high mixing conditions to model real capturing processes in the packed column of industrial absorption reactors. For this purpose, a microreactor and a long serpentine microchannel are employed. The catalytic absorption performance of NiNPs for CO<sub>2</sub> in aqueous MEA is evaluated using CO<sub>2</sub> microbubbles by monitoring changes in size upon their time-dependent absorption. We find that the average CO<sub>2</sub> absorption rate with NiNPs is accelerated by 34% in the limited mixing condition in the microreactor. This increase is mainly due to NPs' catalytic CO<sub>2</sub> absorption driven by a Brownian motion. On the other hand, in the high mixing condition in the long serpentine microchannel, the catalytic activity of NiNPs improves the average CO<sub>2</sub> absorption rate further to 54%. This improvement makes it possible to shorten the timescale for reaching CO<sub>2</sub> absorption equilibrium and therefore to reduce the size of the reactors significantly. The test results demonstrate that NiNPs serve as suitable additives in the MEA-based CO<sub>2</sub> absorption system.

# 1. Introduction

Over the last 150 years, the consumption of petroleum energy reserves has been continuously increased to meet global fuel demands for power generation. Due to the combustion processes for fossil fuels, atmospheric emissions of greenhouse gas, particularly carbon dioxide (CO2), have been rapidly doubled for the last four decades. The increased greenhouse gas emissions cause serious international concerns about global warming, sea-level rise, and ocean acidification. Postcarbon capture technology that separates CO2 from flue gas in fossil fuel-fired power plants has contributed to the significant migration of atmospheric CO2 emissions. The post-carbon capture can be accomplished by several approaches including chemical and physical absorption [1], adsorption [2], cryogenics [3], membranes [4], and biological separation methods [5]. Among these options, amine scrubbing and stripping using solvent absorption of CO<sub>2</sub> are the only technology conveniently retrofitted to the existing power plants. The most dominant absorption solvent is the amine derivatives because of their superior absorption efficiency, fast reaction kinetics, and low costs [6]. Specifically, monoethanolamine (MEA), diethanolamine, methyl diethanolamine, and 2-amino-2-methyl-1-propanol have been dominantly used in most industrial applications [7,8]. As a result, the consumption of ethanolamine (EA) has been significantly escalated as increasing the demand for  $CO_2$  capture [9–12]. For example, the EA market in North America has accounted for revenue of \$794 million in the year 2017 and is expected to grow at \$1224 million by the year 2025 [13].

The huge consumption of EA has been significantly escalated as increasing the demand for  $CO_2$  capture [9–12]. The use of EA in post-combustion  $CO_2$  capture processes creates several concerns and challenges. First, it is known that the amine-based carbon capture produces a large amount of wastewater. For example, EA at high concentrations in the solvent increases chemical oxygen demand and total nitrogen induced by its bifunctional properties of the primary alcohol and amine [10,11,12]. To treat wastewater containing the amine solvent, various techniques including ozonation chemical processes [14], electrodialysis reversal with electrolysis [15], microbial electrochemical system [11,12,16], fluidized-bed Fenton technology [17] and titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) photocatalyzed oxidation [18] have been suggested. However, these processes involve high energy consumption and expensive

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treatment processes. Second, corrosive fume is generally released during the solvent regenerative processes due to the acid gas that the amine absorbs [19,20]. Also, it is very susceptible to occur corrosion in carbon steel exchangers, condensers, and reboiler-type bundles [21]. Therefore, EA concentrations are typically limited to 15-30 wt% in the power plant facilities to avoid wastewater and corrosion issues [22]. Third, to achieve high capturing efficiency at a low concentration of the amine solvent, a regeneration process that involves a stripper column with reflux and reboiler sections is necessary [23]. However, these operational requirements make the amine-based  $\rm CO_2$  capture complicated and expensive [8].

As a result of increased environmental and energy concerns, many additives in the amine-based CO<sub>2</sub> capture have been developed for the enhancement of CO2 absorption. The application of amine blends as absorbent is commonly used to accelerate the CO2 absorption rate in traditional amine solvents [24]. Especially, the amino acid ionic liquid (AAIL), such as 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium glycinate ([Bmim][Gly]), 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium lysinate ([Bmim][Lys]) and tetramethylammonium glycinate ([N1111][Gly]) has been attempted to improve the CO<sub>2</sub> absorption performance [24-26]. The addition of AAIL into the MDEA aqueous solution significantly improves the CO<sub>2</sub> removal efficiency and overall volumetric mass transfer coefficient in the order of [N1111][Gly] > [Bmim][Lys] > [Bmim][Gly]. As another approach to improve the CO2 absorption performance, catalytic additives for enhanced CO2 absorption such as the zinc(II) and cobalt (III) complexes [27], boric acid [28], and carbonic anhydrase [29] have been employed. These catalysts increase the CO2 absorption rate greatly and therefore help reduce the operating costs and the amount of the amine solvent. Besides, the improved absorption efficiency facilitates the reduction of the CO<sub>2</sub> absorber size [29].

Compared with the aforementioned additives, nickel nanoparticles (NiNPs) could be a suitable additive for carbon capture in the MEA solvent that satisfies the requirements. To suit the catalytic additives to the amine scrubbing and stripping processes, the following required properties are desired. First, superior corrosion resistance to EA is required to avoid degradation of its catalytic characteristics. Ni element is a ductile transition metal that is generally considered corrosion-resistant [30]. Second, high-temperature resistance is needed during the regeneration process due to its high operation temperature [31]. NiNPs have high resistance to deformation induced by high-temperature conditions in the amine regeneration process because the initiation of oxidation altering NiNPs' characteristics occurs at approximately 300 °C [32]. Since the temperature of stripper and reboiler is no more than 120 °C in practical applications [33], the thermal degradation of NiNPs by high-temperature is unlikely to occur. Lastly but most importantly, the pH-independent performance is required because the solution pH rapidly decreases as CO2 is continuously dissolved during carbon capture [7]. Unlike many leading catalysts, e.g., arsenate, borate, carbonic anhydrase enzyme, and selenite [34], NiNPs maintain their catalytic performance consistent regardless of pH [35-37].

Here, we examined the catalytic performance of NiNPs as additives for enhanced  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  absorption in an amine-based solvent. Their catalytic activity in different mixing conditions., i.e., the limited and high mixing was thoroughly studied because the mixing scale inside the actual  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  absorber column varies depending on the design of the chemical solvent absorption process. To study the absorption reactions in different mixing conditions, a microfluidic technique that provides excellent controllability of reaction times and mixing scales of multiphase flows was employed. The rates of  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  absorption across the gas/liquid interface were quantified via changes in the size of a series of spherical microbubbles.

## 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Materials

Monoethanolamine ( $\geq$  99% purity), NiNPs powder ( $\geq$  99% purity, < 100 nm average particle size), phosphate buffer powder, and sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS, > 99% purity) were purchased from Alfa Aesar (Ward Hill, MA) and Sigma – Aldrich (St. Louis, MO), respectively. PDMS elastomer kits (Sylgard 184) were purchased from Dow Corning Corp. (Midland, MI) for preparing microfluidic devices.

#### 2.2. Microfluidic device fabrication

The standard soft lithography method was used to fabricate the microfluidic chips. The designs of microchannel geometries were drawn with computer-aided design (CAD) software (AutoCAD 2017, Autodesk, Inc., Sausalito, CA). The geometry designs were printed at a high resolution (25,400 dpi, CAD/ART Services Inc., Bandon, OR) on a transparency sheet to make a patterned photomask. The UV light was exposed to a layer of negative photoresist (KMPR 1025, Microchem, Newton, MA) coated on a silicon wafer (UniversityWafer, Inc., Boston, MA). Photomask patterns were transferred to the silicon wafer creating a master mold. Poly(dimethylsiloxane) (PDMS) and its cross-linker were mixed at a ratio of 10:1 (weight:weight). After degassing using a vacuum pump, this mixture was poured onto the master mold. The cured PDMS layer was peeled off the mold after curing in an oven at 70 °C for 1 h. We made inlet and outlet ports on the PDMS layer using a 1.0 mm diameter biopsy punch (Integra Miltex, Inc., Germany). The PDMS layer and glass microscope slide (25  $\times$  75  $\times$  1.0 mm, Fisher Scientific, Fair Lawn, NJ) were bonded by an oxygen plasma treatment (Harrick Plasma, Ithaca, NY). Furthermore, this process changes the surface of the microchannel to hydrophilic which makes water wet of the surface so that CO<sub>2</sub> bubbles remain in the liquid phase.

# 2.3. Configuration of reactors

To model dynamic  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  reactions with the aqueous-amine solution in the industrial absorbers, two different mixing conditions were considered. Fig. 1 shows schematic diagrams of these test platforms and associated approaches for the evaluation of  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  capture performance: a microreactor for the limited mixing condition (Fig. 1a) and a long serpentine microchannel for the high mixing condition (Fig. 1b). In both geometries, a series of  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  microbubbles was generated in a flow-focusing geometry consisting of two inlets (a continuous phase on both side channels) and one outlet (a discrete phase in the center channel). The width  $(W_a)$  of the aqueous solutions and the downstream is 100 µm and the width  $(W_g)$  of the  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  gas channel is 50 µm. The height (h) of all microchannels is 75 µm.

# 2.4. Experimental setup and procedure

One mM PBS was prepared using ultrapure water (resistivity  $18.2\,\mathrm{M}\Omega\,\mathrm{cm}$ ) obtained from a Millipore Milli-Q integral 5 purification system (Millipore, Bedford, MA). SDS at a concentration of  $625\,\mathrm{mg/L}$  was used to enhance the stability of  $\mathrm{CO_2}$  bubbles: SDS helps significantly avoid the coalescence of bubbles due to their collision and the burst of bubbles [38]. While the concentration of SDS was kept constant in all experiments, the concentration of MEA in the continuous phase was varied as a control parameter (Fig. 1). Except for the experiment on NiNPs' dissolution in an aqueous MEA solution, the concentration of NiNPs was kept constant to be  $30\,\mathrm{mg/L}$  in all experiments that creates the maximum NPs' catalytic performance of  $\mathrm{CO_2}$  capture in pure water derived from our previous study [36]. Suspension of  $1000\,\mathrm{mg\,L^{-1}}$  NiNPs with 10% MEA was used for absorbance measurements due to the limit of detection in the UV–vis spectrophotometer (Evolution 201, Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA). To study the authentic effect of

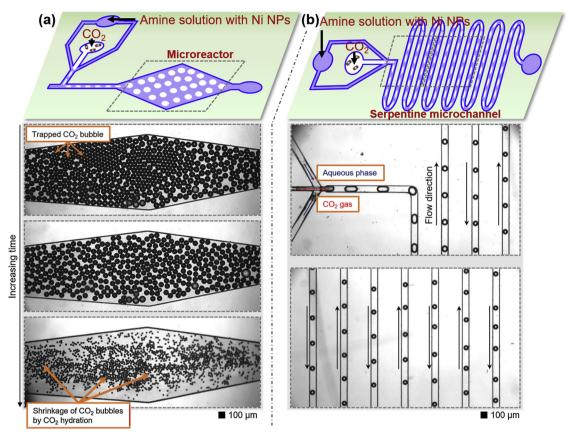


Fig. 1. Schematic of the microfluidic approaches for evaluation of  $CO_2$  absorption. (a) Design of a microreactor under the limited mixing condition and sequential images of changes in  $CO_2$  microbubble size. (b) Design of a long serpentine microchannel under the high mixing condition and images of  $CO_2$  microbubbles at two different locations. A scale bar represents  $100 \, \mu m$ .

NiNPs' catalytic performance for CO<sub>2</sub> absorption in the amine solvent under the limited mixing condition (Fig. 1a), four different experimental conditions were tested. In the presence and absence of NiNPs, 0 and 10% MEA with SDS were tested. On the other hand, in the chaotic mixing condition (Fig. 1b), NiNPs' catalytic performance was tested at 0, 1.25, 5, and 10% MEA with SDS. All experiments were carried out at room temperature of 25 °C under ambient pressure. The test solutions were introduced to the microfluidic chip at a flow rate of 0.3 mL/min through PTFE (polytetrafluoroethylene) tubing using a syringe pump (PHD ULTRA 4400, Harvard Apparatus, Natick, MA). The pure CO2 gas was introduced to the chip at 1 psi using a precise gas controller (Alicat Scientific, Tucson, AZ) connected to a CO2 cylinder (99.9% purity, Airgas, USA) through PTFE tubing. Optical microscopy images of CO2 microbubbles under different experimental conditions were captured using a high-speed camera (1920 × 1080-pixel resolution, 400 Hz frame rate, 12-bit depth; Fastec IL5S, Fastec Imaging Corp., San Diego, CA) attached to an inverted microscope (IX73, Olympus Corp., Japan) with a 4x objective lens (Numerical Aperture = 0.13, UplanFLN4X, Olympus Corp., Japan). A halogen lamp (a 100 W, 12 V, U-LH100-3, Olympus Corp., Japan) was used as a light source. Because the interface between gas and liquid appears dark, a binary function in the ImageJ software, an open-source image processing program, was used for estimating the CO<sub>2</sub> bubble size.

# 3. Results and discussion

## 3.1. CO<sub>2</sub> absorption by NiNPs in a microreactor

The  ${\rm CO_2}$  absorption into the aqueous solvent is governed by Henry's law:

$$CO_{2(g)} + H_2O \stackrel{k_H}{\leftrightarrow} CO_{2(aq)}, \ \left(k_H = \frac{P_{CO_2}}{[CO_2]_{aq}}\right)$$
 (1)

where  $P_{CO2}$  is the partial pressure of gaseous  $CO_2$ ,  $k_H$  is the Henry's constant for  $CO_2$  in pure water  $(3.45 \times 10^3 \text{ kPa L/mol})$ , and  $[CO_2]_{aq}$  is the concentration of dissolved  $CO_2$  in the aqueous phase. Based on Henry's law, the size of  $CO_2$  bubbles will be decreased as the mass transfer from the gas to aqueous phases increases. In other words, visualization of  $CO_2$  bubbles in an aqueous solution at different times provides a unique venue to estimate the rate of  $CO_2$  diffusion into the water and therefore overall  $CO_2$  absorption. Besides, it is known that the mass transfer of  $CO_2$  from a gas phase to an aqueous phase increases as a mixing rate of the aqueous phase is increased [39]. This suggests that the rate of physical absorption of gaseous  $CO_2$  into the aqueous phase in the microreactor (i.e., limited mixing condition) is expected to be lower than that in the serpentine channel (i.e., high mixing condition) due to the difference in the degree of mixing.

To test the feasibility of the estimation of absorption performance using size variations in  $CO_2$  bubbles, the changes in the size of  $CO_2$  microbubbles in the limited stirring condition (i.e.,  $CO_2$  microbubbles in a microreactor) were examined. This method also provides a way to estimate the catalytic performance of NiNPs as effective additives for improved  $CO_2$  absorption. We first tested the  $CO_2$  absorption rate in pure water in order to evaluate NiNPs' intrinsic catalytic properties. Fig. 2a shows representative images of  $CO_2$  microbubbles in the aqueous solution entering the microreactor. To generate a series of microbubbles in uniform size, the inlet pressure of  $CO_2$  gas and the flow rate of the aqueous solution were maintained constant over the entire test. Since the reaction of gaseous  $CO_2$  with the aqueous solution occurs immediately after the bubble formation, the geometry (the microreactor + the flow-focusing structure) was designed to collect  $CO_2$ 

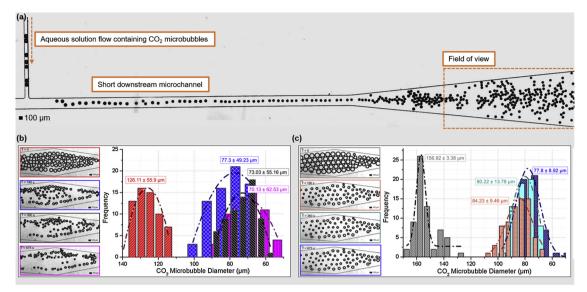


Fig. 2. (a) A representative microscopy image of  $CO_2$  microbubbles in the aqueous solution in a microreactor. (b, c) Statistical distributions of microbubble's diameters in the (b) absence and (c) presence of NiNPs. These diameters were determined from sequential images of changes in  $CO_2$  bubble size at different times. The numbers in (b, c) represent an average diameter  $\pm$  standard deviation. The bin size for all histograms is  $5-10 \,\mu m$  and a scale bar is  $100 \,\mu m$ .

microbubbles in the microreactor at a short retention time. Once a number of CO<sub>2</sub> microbubbles were sufficient to fill-up the microreactor, CO<sub>2</sub> gas and the solution were instantly stopped together by controlling a solenoid valve. After collecting a number of CO2 bubbles, we observed the changes in their size when the physical absorption of CO<sub>2</sub> (g) into the surrounding aqueous solvent occurs. Figs. 2b and 2c present sequential images of changes in CO2 microbubbles in the absence and presence of NiNPs in the microreactor, respectively. Statistical distributions of bubble diameters at different times were obtained from more than 50 CO2 bubbles (Figure S1 and S2). The average bubble diameters were estimated using a curve-fit to the Gaussian function and the average diameters with the standard deviations were determined to be 126.11  $\pm$  55. 9 (156.92  $\pm$  3.38), 77.3  $\pm$  49.23 (84.23  $\pm$  9.46),  $73.03 \pm 55.16$  (80.22  $\pm 13.78$ ), and  $70.13 \pm 62.53$  (77.8  $\pm 8.92$ )  $\mu$ m at time t = 0, 180, 360, and 675 s in the absence and (presence) of NiNPs. The faster decrease of bubble size can be explained by the catalytic reaction between NiNPs and water molecule. It has been known that NiNPs accelerate the mass transfer of gaseous CO2 into the aqueous solution as a result of their catalytic activity [36,37]. A single NiNP in the water reacts with a water molecule to form a hydroxyl group (OH-) on its surface.

$$Ni NP + H_2O \rightarrow Ni NP - OH^- + H^+$$
 (2)

Then, OH- reacts with CO<sub>2</sub> (aq) to form bicarbonate (HCO<sub>3</sub>-).

$$Ni NP - OH^- + CO_2(aq) \rightarrow Ni NP - HCO_3^-$$
 (3)

 $HCO_3$ - is replaced by  $H_2O$  and dissociates further into  $H^+$  and  $CO_3^{\ 2}$ ions.

$$Ni NP - HCO_3^- + H_2O \rightarrow Ni NP - H_2O + HCO_3^-$$
 (4)

This series of reactions accelerates the formation of  $HCO_3$ - ion near surrounding  $CO_2$  microbubbles thereby increasing the rate of shrinkage of the bubble size.

# 3.2. CO2 absorption by NiNPs and MEA in a microreactor

To understand how effectively NiNPs accelerate  $CO_2$  absorption in an amine-based solvent, quantitative analysis of changes in  $CO_2$  bubble size was carried out in the aqueous solution containing 10% MEA with and without NiNPs. The microfluidic chip used in this test is a microreactor because the  $CO_2$  absorption was observed in the limited mixing condition. Fig. 3 summarizes the experimental results for the relative

changes in the CO<sub>2</sub> bubble size in the pure water (Fig. 3a) and aqueous MEA (Fig. 3b) with and without NiNPs, respectively. Fig. 3a shows that the rate of CO<sub>2</sub> absorption in the aqueous-NiNPs solution was slightly improved; it takes 300 s to reach a 40% decrease in the size of microbubbles in the pure aqueous solution while it takes 100 s with NiNPs. This infers that the time to reach equilibrium in the aqueous-NiNPs solution is slightly decreased due to the limited catalytic activity of NiNPs when compared with that in the pure water. This behavior can be explained by the Brownian motion of NPs. When there is no external disturbance, the Brownian motion of NPs (which occurs when NPs are bombarded by fluid particles) is mainly responsible for their movement inside the microreactor [40,41]. NiNPs' surface reaction is activated by physical contact between NiNPs and CO<sub>2</sub> (aq) molecules, mainly driven by the Brownian motion, and therefore induces increased CO2 absorption. Based on the Stokes-Einstein equation, the value of NPs' translational diffusion coefficient (D<sub>T</sub>) defines the velocity of Brownian motion:  $D_{\rm T} = k_{\rm B}T/3\pi\eta d_{\rm H}$ , where  $D_{\rm T}$  is the translational diffusion coefficient (m $^2$ /s),  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann's constant, T is the absolute temperature,  $\eta$  is the dynamic viscosity, and  $d_{\rm H}$  is the hydrodynamic diameter which is determined by a dynamic light scattering system, Zetasizer Nano ZS90 (Malvern Instruments, UK). The  $D_{\rm T}$  of 30 mg/L NiNPs was determined to be 0.277  $\mu m^2/s$ .

Fig. 3b shows the changes in normalized  $CO_2$  bubble diameter in aqueous MEA with and without NiNPs. Owing to MEA's excellent  $CO_2$  absorption capacity, initial  $CO_2$  bubbles were disappeared within 40 s inside the microreactor. This rapid decrease in microbubble size can be explained by the chemical reaction between MEA and  $CO_2$  in addition to the  $CO_2$ -H<sub>2</sub>O reaction.  $CO_2$  is absorbed in aqueous MEA accompanied by the accelerated dissolution of  $CO_2$  in H<sub>2</sub>O to form  $HCO_3$ - by the NiNPs' catalytic activity. When  $CO_2$  is injected into the aqueous MEA solution, MEA is bound with  $CO_2$  to form MEA- $CO_2$  zwitterion (MEA<sup>+</sup>COO-) [42,43].

$$MEA + CO_{2(aq)} \overset{k_1, k_{-1}}{\leftrightarrow} MEA^+COO^-$$

Then, MEA $^+$ COO- is deprotonated by  $H_2O$  to generate the carbamate (MEACOO-) and hydronium ( $H_3O^+$ ).  $k_1$  and  $k_{-1}$  are the second-order forward and backward rate coefficients for the reaction.

$$MEA^{+}COO^{-} + H_2O \rightarrow MEACOO^{-} + H_3O^{+}$$
 (6)

Another MEA molecule reacts with MEACOO- and  $\mathrm{H_{3}O}^{+}$  to form the protonated MEA.

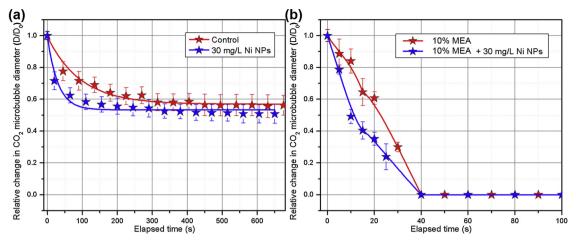


Fig. 3. Graphs for relative changes in  $CO_2$  bubble diameter in (a) water and (b) 10% aqueous MEA with ( $\star$ ) and without ( $\star$ ) NiNPs. Each data point and error bar in the graph are obtained from fifty measurements under each experiment condition.

$$MEA + MEACOO^- + H_3O^+ \rightarrow MEAH^+ + H_2O + MEACOO^-$$
 (7)

Then, MEACOO- reacts with  $\mathrm{H_{3}O}^{+}$  to generate carbamic acid (MEACOOH).

$$MEACOO^- + H_3O^+ \rightarrow MEACOOH + H_2O$$
 (8)

These additional cascade MEA- $CO_2$  reactions lead to the rapid removal of aqueous  $CO_2$  and therefore an increase in the gaseous  $CO_2$  absorption. From the zwitterion mechanism, the MEA reaction rate of  $CO_2$  is described as follows [44,45]:

$$r_{CO_2} = \frac{\left[CO_2\right]\left[MEA\right] - \frac{k_{-1}}{k_1}[MEACOO^{-}] \frac{\sum k_{-b}[MEAH^{+}]}{\sum k_b[B]}}{\frac{1}{k_1} + \frac{k_{-1}}{k_1\sum k_b[B]}}$$

where  $r_{CO2}$  is the overall  $CO_2$  absorption rate,  $k_b$  and  $k_{\cdot b}$  are the second-order forward and the backward rate coefficient for the reaction of the base (amine,  $H_2O$ , or OH- denote as B). Since the reaction of deprotonated  $MEA^+COO^-$  by  $H_2O$  to generate  $MEACOO^-$  is very fast,  $k_{\cdot 1}/k_1$  [MEACOO-]( $\Sigma k_{\cdot b}[MEAH^+]$ )/( $\Sigma k_b[B]$ ) is negligible and thereby the overall  $CO_2$  absorption rate can be simplified as follows:

$$r_{CO_2} = \frac{[CO_2] [MEA]}{\frac{1}{k_1} + \frac{k_{-1}}{k_1 \sum k_b [B]}}$$

Because the reverse rate of reaction between MEA and  $CO_2$  is much faster than MEA $^+COO^-$  formation  $(1/k_1 > > k_{-1}/(k1\Sigma k_b[B])$ , the overall  $CO_2$  absorption rate can be further simplified as follows:

$$r_{CO_2} = k_1 [CO_2] [MEA]$$

Since the reaction rate is to be the first order with respect to the concentration of MEA and  $CO_2$  according to this equation, the higher MEA concentration allows faster reactions with  $CO_2$  and leading rapid shrinkage of  $CO_2$  bubbles.

In Fig. 3b, aqueous MEA with and without NiNPs reaches the  $\rm CO_2$  absorption equilibrium simultaneously at 40 s. However, the rate of  $\rm CO_2$  bubble shrinkage was increased in the presence of NiNPs. Specifically, we estimated the rate of size changes (and therefore the rate of  $\rm CO_2$  diffusion) was increased from 40% without NiNPs to 60% with NiNPs over the first 10 s of the tests. This suggests that even though there is a limited mixing condition inside the microreactor inducing the limited diffusive transport, NiNPs still maintain their catalytic ability due to their free movement by the Brownian motion. We estimated the translational diffusion coefficient of NiNPs in aqueous MEA to be 0.285  $\mu \rm m^2/s$ , similar to that of NiNPs in the pure aqueous solution. This implies that NiNPs independently act as a catalytic additive to enhance  $\rm CO_2$  hydration regardless of the presence of MEA.

3.3. CO<sub>2</sub> absorption by NiNPs and MEA in a long serpentine microchannel

To simulate the higher rate of reactions between CO2 and the surrounding fluid (i.e., faster mixing than that happened in the microreactor) occurred in the industrial absorbers, we utilized a long serpentine microchannel associated with the visualization of the microbubble flow. It is well known that the flow in most microchannels is in a laminar flow regime characterized as low Reynolds (Re) number that induces slow mixing [46,47]. To achieve rapid mixing in a microchannel, a serpentine structure that enhances the mixing of miscible fluid [48] was employed. Fig. 4a shows raw optical images of CO2 microbubbles generated from the flow-focusing geometry at upstream (far-left) and downstream (far-right) in an aqueous MEA solution. The snapshots of microbubbles at these locations were used to estimate time-dependent changes in bubble diameter. The scattered data points in Fig. 4b is plotted as the changes in non-dimensional microbubble diameter over time. These data points were then curve-fitted to the exponential decay function with an  $R^2$  value of 0.97. To quantify how much the catalytic performance of NiNPs accelerates the CO<sub>2</sub> absorption rate in the aqueous MEA solution, the rate of the change in nondimensional CO<sub>2</sub> bubble diameter (s<sup>-1</sup>) was calculated by differentiating the predetermined exponential decay equation with respect to time (Fig. 4c). The average CO<sub>2</sub> absorption rate was determined using values of the rate of the change in non-dimensional CO2 bubble diameter (s<sup>-1</sup>) until equilibrium is reached. It should be noted that the catalytic activity of NiNPs enables CO2 absorption quickly but has no impact on increasing the total amount of CO2 absorption. The absolute value of the rate of change in non-dimensional CO2 bubbles diameter was initially determined to be a maximum and its plateau value was observed as time increases.

Fig. 5 shows the results of  $CO_2$  absorption at different MEA concentrations (0, 1.25, 5, 10%) with and without NiNPs at 30 mg/L, respectively. In all experiments, when microbubbles were generated at the junction in the flow-focusing geometry, they were rapidly absorbed into the aqueous phase and have stopped changing their sizes at later times, indicating the reaction reaches equilibrium. In pure water, the  $CO_2$  absorption equilibrium was reached at 2.5 s as shown in Fig. 5a ( $\blacksquare$ ). When compared with experiments in the microreactor (Fig. 3a), the time to reach equilibrium is decreased significantly from 200 s to 2.5 s. This implies that the long serpentine microchannel can provide approximately 80-folder higher mixing efficiency than that in the microreactor, which has a great improvement in  $CO_2$  absorption. The final relative change in  $CO_2$  bubble diameter (D/D<sub>0</sub>) is decreased from 0.54 to 0.24 at 2.9 s when compared with the control in pure water ( $\blacksquare$ ) and 1.25% of aqueous MEA ( $\bullet$ ) in the high mixing condition.

To better understand the impact of the NiNPs' catalytic activity on

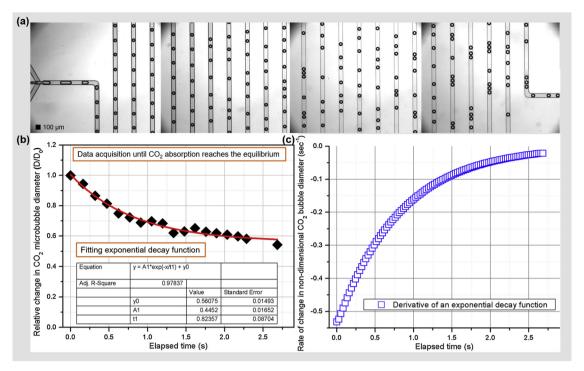


Fig. 4. (a) Representative micrographs of  $CO_2$  microbubbles in the long serpentine microchannel in an aqueous-MEA solution: upstream (left) and downstream (right). (b) Each black dot represents a relative change in  $CO_2$  microbubble diameter (D/D<sub>0</sub>) vs. elapsed time while the red line is a curve-fit of these data to an exponential decay function ( $y = 0.56e^{(-x/0.82)} + 0.56$ ). (c) A graph of the rate of change in non-dimensional  $CO_2$  bubble diameter ( $s^{-1}$ ), determined from the derivative of the exponential decay function (Fig. 4b).

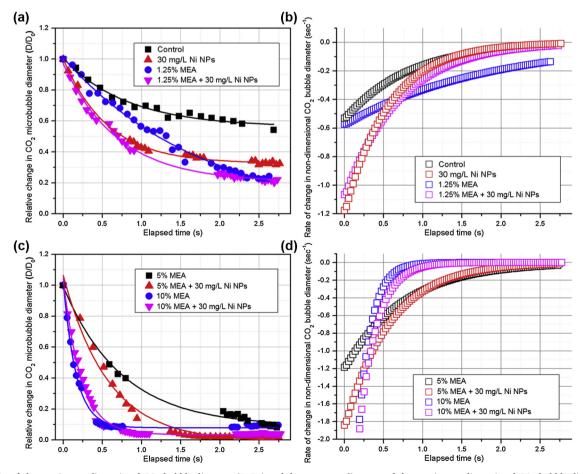


Fig. 5. Graphs of changes in non-dimensional  $CO_2$  bubble diameter  $(D/D_0)$  and the corresponding rate of changes in non-dimensional  $CO_2$  bubble diameter  $(s^{-1})$  at different aqueous MEA concentrations at 0% and 1.25% (a and b) 5% and 10% (c and d) in the presence and absence of 30 mg  $L^{-1}$  NiNPs, respectively.

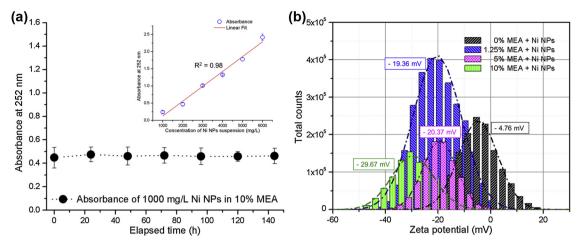


Fig. 6. (a) Changes in the concentration of  $1000 \,\mathrm{mg} \,\mathrm{L}^1$  NiNPs in 10% MEA vs. elapsed time over 140 h. The inset figure represents the relationship between absorbance and NiNPs concentration. (b) Variations in  $\zeta$  potential of NiNPs as a function of MEA concentration (0, 1.25, 5, and 10% MEA).

the CO2 absorption rate, the changes in non-dimensional bubble diameter at different MEA concentrations are plotted in Fig. 5b. The data points in Fig. 5b were determined by differentiating the graphs of relationships between relative change in CO2 bubble diameter and the elapsed time (Fig. 5a). The initial rates of changes in non-dimensional bubble diameter with NiNPs in the pure water (♠) and 1.25% MEA (♥) are 2-fold higher than those in the absence of NiNPs, respectively. This improvement is presumably because the curved paths in the long serpentine microchannel create a chaotic mixing flow pattern which increases the contact between CO<sub>2</sub> (aq) molecules and NiNPs and leads to an increase in the catalytic activity of NiNPs. As a result, the accelerated rate of the mass transfer of gaseous CO2 by NiNPs was observed. With a 5% aqueous MEA solution, the relative change in the CO2 bubble diameter was rapidly decreased over 2.9 s (Fig. 5c, ■). A greater reduction in the size of CO<sub>2</sub> microbubbles at a higher MEA concentration up to 5% was observed, which means the higher MEA concentration allows rapid reaction of CO<sub>2</sub> with the surrounding fluid and therefore increases the degree of bubble shrinkage. At 5% aqueous MEA, NiNPs still perform as catalysts to accelerate the CO2 absorption rate and thereby lead to a rapidly decreasing rate of non-dimensional bubbles diameter change as shown in Fig. 5d, (■ and ▲). However, at 10% aqueous MEA, the changes in CO2 bubble diameter and its rates were similar in both the presence and absence of NiNPs (◆ and ▼). This is because the reaction of MEA with CO2 is predominant due to the plenty of reactants (MEA) molecules and outweighs the impact of NiNPs. This result suggests that there will be no benefit of using NiNPs for carbon capture in the high mixing condition with high MEA concentrations. The relationship between the change in volume of CO<sub>2</sub> bubbles and the CO<sub>2</sub> absorption rate  $(\Delta m/\Delta t)$  can be expressed as  $\Delta m/\Delta t = \rho_{CO2} \Delta V/\Delta t,$  where  $\rho_{CO2}$  is the density of  $CO_2$  and  $\Delta V$  is the change in volume of  $CO_2$  bubbles over time Δt [49]. With a 10% aqueous MEA solution in the presence of NiNPs, the  $CO_2$  absorption rate was determined to be  $5 \times 10^{-9}$  g  $CO_2$ /s using  $1.77 \times 10^{-9} \, \mu \text{m}^3$  of  $\Delta V$ , 0.7 s of  $\Delta t$ , and 1.98 kg/m<sup>3</sup> of the density of CO2. The absorption rate of CO2 in MDEA-[Bmim][Lys] aqueous solutions is  $0.48\,\mathrm{g}$   $\mathrm{CO}_2/100\,\mathrm{g}$  aqueous solution/min  $(8\times10^{-5}~\mathrm{g}~\mathrm{CO}_2/1~\mathrm{g}$ aqueous solution/s, assuming a linear relationship between the absorption rate and quantity of aqueous solution) [25].

# 3.4. Compatibility of NiNPs with MEA

The experiment on NiNPs' dissolution in an aqueous MEA solution was conducted to confirm how long NiNPs sustain their catalytic function in the amine-based system. For this purpose, we obtained time-dependent changes in different NiNP concentrations by measuring the absorbance of NiNPs-MEA-aqueous solutions using a spectrophotometer. The absorbance of six different NiNP concentrations were

tested in a range from 190 nm to 300 nm. The peak wavelength of NiNPs' absorbance was found to be 252 nm [50]. The NiNPs' absorbance at 252 nm increases linearly with NiNPs concentrations with  $R^2 = 0.98$  (Fig. 6a). MEA's absorbance does not interfere with these measurements since the MEA's absorbance peak is at 340 nm [51]. Fig. 6a shows time-dependent changes in absorbance of the aqueous MEA solution containing NiNPs over 140 h. The measurement result shows that any significant dissolution of NiNPs was not observed. Another degradation mechanism of NiNPs' catalytic performance is oxidation. When NiNPs are oxidized, the oxidized Ni metal ion combines with carbonate  $(CO_3^{2-})$  and oxide  $(O^{2-})$  to form Ni(II) carbonate (NiCO<sub>3</sub>) and Ni(II) oxide (NiO) and their appearance is green crystalline solid. In our tests, oxidation of NiNPs was not observed. Aggregation of NPs could be another source of the degradation of catalytic performance. Fig. 6b shows changes in zeta (ζ) potential at different MEA concentrations. An increase in MEA concentration gradually changes the average ζ potential from -4.76 to -29.67 mV. It is well known when the absolute value of ζ potential is higher than 20 mV, high positive or negative potentials lead to NPs' monodispersity in solution according to DLVO (Derjaguin, Landau, Verwey, and Overbeek) theory [52,53]. Our data show excellent dispersity of NiNPs in the aqueous MEA solution and these dispersed NPs can improve their surface reaction as increasing concentration of aqueous MEA since the efficiency of catalytic activity correlates with the surface-to-volume ratio of NPs [54].

# 4. Conclusions

This study examined the catalytic performance of NiNPs as a possible additive for improved CO2 absorption efficiency in the aminebased absorption system. Using two microfluidic platforms that provide efficient controllability of multiphase flows, we were able to evaluate the NiNPs' catalytic CO2 absorption in an aqueous MEA solution under different mixing conditions, i.e., the limited and high mixing scenarios. We quantified CO2 absorption through the observation of changes in CO<sub>2</sub> microbubble size. This allowed us to delineate how NiNPs behave under different mixing conditions in terms of CO2 absorption. In the limited mixing condition, we found that NiNPs maintain notably their catalytic ability because of the NPs' Brownian motion. We found that MEA has no impact on NPs' catalytic performance by measuring NPs' translational diffusion coefficients in pure water and aqueous MEA. We also found that NiNPs accelerate the CO2-H2O reaction independently with the reaction of CO2 with aqueous MEA through a comparative analysis with the absence and presence of NiNPs. On the other hand, the catalytic performance of NiNPs under the high mixing condition was evaluated in the long serpentine microchannel. The catalytic potential of NiNPs accelerates the average CO2 absorption rate by 34% and 54% in the limited mixing and the high mixing conditions, respectively. NiNPs can successfully accelerate the required time to reach the  $\rm CO_2$  absorption equilibrium, which means NiNPs can sufficiently reduce the required amount of MEA in the system. The study found that NiNPs can sustain their catalytic function more than 140 h in the amine-based system.

## **Declaration of competing Interest**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcou.2019.11.011.

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