



Process analysis overview of ionic liquids on CO₂ chemical capture

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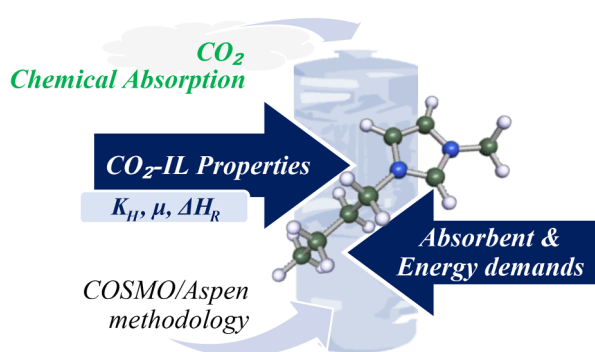
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HIGHLIGHTS

- Different ILs are evaluated as CO₂ chemical absorbents by process analysis.
- CO₂ solubility, viscosity and heat of reaction are stated as key IL properties.
- Major exothermic reactions overcome kinetic limitations at adiabatic conditions.
- Reaction enthalpy determines solvent requirement, energy demand and column sizes.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

A process analysis overview of the ionic liquids (ILs) performance as chemical absorbents in post-combustion, biogas and pre-combustion CO₂ capture systems was carried out. Six representative ILs, among them carboxylate, aminoacid and aprotic heterocyclic anion-based ILs -with remarkably different CO₂ absorption thermodynamics and kinetics- were selected. COSMO-based/Aspen Plus methodology, supported with available experimental data, was successfully applied to design the absorption and regeneration stages in commercial packed columns to reach a 90% CO₂ recovery at different CO₂ partial pressures and given operating conditions, for comparison purposes. The IL performance in CO₂ capture process was evaluated by means of solvent need, energy consume and column size. The CO₂-IL reaction enthalpy and IL viscosity were identified as key properties to guide solvent selection. For the considered ILs, increasing the reaction exothermicity means lower solvent, energy and equipment requirements as liquid viscosity descends, overcoming mass transfer limitations at adiabatic conditions. The CO₂ capture process efficiency was successfully related to the thermodynamic gap capacity given by CO₂-IL isotherms at the absorption/regeneration operating conditions. AHA-IL family is aimed as a promising alternative to industrial CO₂ chemical absorbent benchmark (aqueous amine solution) due to their advantageous key properties: moderate viscosity and adequate compromise between high CO₂ solubility and reaction enthalpy. Current results indicated the technical viability of ILs-based CO₂ capture processes compared to available technologies, but further analysis (*i.e.* cost estimations, environmental impacts and life cycle assessment) are required to ensure the sustainability of a new process.

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1. Introduction

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) capture and storage (CCS) is a demanding technology for the decarbonization of our global economy. Fossil fuel power plants are still the major source of this main greenhouse gas [1,2]. Solvent-based CO₂ capture through both physical and chemical absorption has been widely studied and proposed as an available technique [3]. Regarding physical absorption, organic solvents such as Selexol are currently applied in industrial processes like natural gas purification or Integrated Gasification Combines Cycle power plants as a pre-combustion capture technique. These processes work at high operating pressures, showing elevated electric power consumption [3–5]. Amine-based processes are the most established and economically viable chemical absorption technology for carbon capture nowadays [6–8]. This technique is more versatile, being employed at both low and high CO₂ partial pressures [5]. Monoethanolamine (MEA) aqueous solution (30 wt%) is the most common solvent used for post-combustion flue gas treatments [9,10] or biogas upgrading [11] due to its high absorption capacity at low CO₂ partial pressure and low viscosity [12]. However, relevant drawbacks such as an energy intensive regeneration unit for the desorption of CO₂ (–85 kJ/mol exothermic reaction), great solvent loss, degradability and corrosiveness [13,14] promote the research of alternative solvents with better properties to address these deficiencies.

In this sense, ionic liquids (ILs) are being investigated as potential CO₂ absorbents since they present favorable properties for CO₂ capture like high uptake capacity, negligible vapor pressure, wide liquid temperature range and tunable solvent capacity [15–19]. First, ILs presenting CO₂ physical absorption were initially put forward as suitable solvents. Their CO₂ solubility was enhanced by the appropriate choice of the anion and cation forming the IL. Rising the cation alkyl side chain and fluorinating the anion improved the molar solubility [20] but, it was demonstrated that the mass CO₂ solubility was not especially higher than conventional organic solvents in ILs with high-ranking molar weights [21]. Furthermore, it was recently reported that CO₂ uptake is also determined by the transport properties when realistic operating conditions are considered in packing columns, hence CO₂ physical absorption using ILs is strongly kinetically controlled owing to their huge viscosity [22–24]. To overcome the mass transfer limitations, different strategies have been followed: i) enhancing the CO₂ diffusivity by proposing ILs based on anions like dicyanamide [DCN][–] or tricyanomethanide [TCM][–] resulting in relatively low viscosity besides good mass solubility [23,25,26]; and ii) increasing the gas–liquid contact surface by supporting [27] or encapsulating [24,28] the IL solvent.

Alternatively, ILs were functionalized to chemically react with CO₂, upgrading the absorption capacity [16,29–32]. It is possible to improve the absorption capacity modifying the structure of the IL, leading to an increase of the stoichiometry and reaction enthalpy or reducing the CO₂-IL mixture viscosity. Consequently, some IL families can be found depending on the selected functional group [18]. Carboxylate-based imidazolium ILs may be considered the pioneers and most widely studied ILs for CO₂ chemical absorption [33–35]. Particularly, [Bmim][acetate] is a reference solvent when using ILs as CO₂ chemical absorbents [36,37]. It has been demonstrated that the reaction follows a 1:2 stoichiometry by both experimental and computational works, showing that CO₂ reacts with the cation to form a carboxylate [36,38]. Acetate-based ILs heats of reaction were measured resulting in almost –39 kJ/mol [39], significantly lower exothermicity than that found for the benchmark MEA reactant (–85 kJ/mol [12]). The available publications warn in regards to their thermal stability reporting relevant weight loss above 373 K at isothermal TGA runs for [Bmim][acetate] [40]. Moreover, strongly unfavorable mass transport properties of this IL and its reaction product were found, mainly because of their high viscosity [41,42]. Additional troubles were discovered when regenerating this IL, suggesting an irreversible reaction between CO₂ and [Bmim][acetate] [38,43]. Encapsulated or supported ILs [44,45],

or co-solvent mixing [46] has been proposed to get over the mass transfer kinetic control. Recently, ILs derived from safe amino acid anions (aa-ILs), particularly hopeful from an eco-friendly and sustainable point of view due to their non-toxic biodegradability and plenty availability have also been reported as good CO₂ chemical absorbents attending to thermodynamics [47–49]. Although the exact reaction mechanism of CO₂ in aa-ILs is still under discussion, the zwitterion type mechanism with a 1:2 stoichiometry of reaction has been commonly proposed [50]. These ILs present moderate enthalpy of reaction (from –16 to –35 kJ/mol) and thermal stability [50] but huge viscosity values (specially while reacting with CO₂), needing to be supported or encapsulated to solve their kinetic limitations in CO₂ capture [48,50]. On the other hand, ILs with aprotic heterocyclic anions (AHA-ILs), chiefly those based on the 2-cyanopyrrole anion ([CNPyr][–]), are promising candidates for CO₂ chemical absorption because of their high solubility even at low CO₂ partial pressures, high thermal and chemical stability and high reaction rates [51–55]. Their advantageous 1:1 stoichiometry chemical reaction consists in the CO₂ bonding with the anion by reversible carboxylation without a significant increase in viscosity [19]. The reaction enthalpy of these ILs with CO₂ (from –37 to –54 kJ/mol) is also tunable and they present high decomposition temperatures [52]. Nevertheless, AHA-ILs viscosity is relatively low compared to other ILs used as CO₂ chemical absorbents (around 100 mPa·s at 323 K for [CNPyr]-based AHA-ILs), but still high respect to aqueous amine solutions or organic industrial CO₂ absorbents [53]. Supporting or encapsulating AHA-ILs [56] as well as using co-solvents, such as tetraglyme [57,58], are alternatives to overcome these transport limitations.

In order to evaluate the CO₂ absorbent performance at industrial scale, lots of researching efforts have been driven towards the description of solvent-based CO₂ capture processes using process simulation. Several publications studied CO₂ physical absorption with organic solvents [4,5], CO₂ chemical absorption using amine-based systems [9,10,13] or aqueous ammonia [59], some of them performing detailed energetic and economic analyses and considering mass transfer in the simulation through rigorous Rate-based calculation. Recently, some papers have emphasized the need of addressing the challenges associated with thermophysical and transport properties of common CO₂ absorbents because of their significant contribution over process performance and cost [12,60]. Regarding CO₂ capture processes based on absorption with ILs, process simulation was used to carry out thermodynamic, kinetic and process analyses using ILs that present CO₂ physical absorption, evaluating solvent and energy requirements, performing cost estimation and comparing to amine aqueous solutions [14,22,60–63]. The resulting mass flows of IL needed were found higher than other technologies but showing lower energy demand. ILs that chemically absorb CO₂ have been also studied using process simulation. The post-combustion CO₂ capture process based on [Bmim][acetate] was modeled taking into account only the thermodynamic behavior, reporting lower energy needs (3.2 GJ/t_{CO2}) and investment costs than MEA [64]. The [P₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyr], an aprotic hetero-cyclic anion (AHA)-based IL, performance for post-combustion CO₂ capture was also evaluated through process simulation, determining an energy for IL regeneration of 3.6 GJ/t_{CO2} [65]. Taking into account the kinetics in the process, mixtures of tetraglyme and AHA-ILs has been proposed to improve the CO₂ absorbent performance in packed columns, descending the energy demand to 1.4 GJ/t_{CO2} [57].

This work aims to identify key properties that govern the IL performance in CO₂ capture processes by chemical absorption, with the purpose of establishing reliable IL selection criteria. To ensure that, an Aspen Plus supported evaluation of 6 representative IL chemical absorbents in three different CO₂ capture process configurations (post-combustion, pre-combustion and biogas upgrading) was carried out and compared at given operating conditions. The ILs analyzed were triethyloctylphosphonium 2-cyanopyrrole ([P₂₂₂₈][CNPyr]), trihexyltetradecylphosphonium 2-cyanopyrrole ([P₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyr]), 1-butyl-3-

methylimidazolium acetate ([Bmim][acetate]), 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium isobutyrate ([Bmim][i-but]), 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium glycinate ([Bmim][GLY]) and 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium proline ([Bmim][PRO]) (Table S1). A multiscale COSMO-based/Aspen Plus methodology is applied to perform the detailed assessment [66]. For this purpose, thermodynamic and kinetic models were fitted to experimental data at different temperatures in order to determine the parameters required to describe both the physical and chemical CO₂ absorption in IL (viscosity, reaction enthalpy, equilibrium and Henry's constants) using Aspen Plus software. RADFRAC packed columns on Rate-based mode were used to design the individual absorption and regeneration (stripping) operations to achieve a 90% of CO₂ recovery with the 6 different ILs. Finally, the stripping column was interconnected to the absorption operation with the purpose of analyzing the recirculation effect on the complete CO₂ capture process for the best three ILs. Solvent need, regeneration energy duty and column size were analyzed as the main metrics for reviewing the CO₂ capture performance of the ILs, focusing on detecting absorbent properties impacts on the overall CO₂ capture process for post-combustion, biogas and pre-combustion systems. The obtained results were conveniently compared to other available technologies in order to revise the viability of using ILs as alternative CO₂ chemical absorbents.

2. Computational details

2.1. Component definition and property method

CO₂ capture process was modeled employing Aspen Plus v10 commercial process simulator using three different process configurations: post-combustion, biogas and pre-combustion in order to analyze CO₂ partial pressure and gas flow effects with representative industrial cases. The six ILs and their reaction products were added as pseudo-components into the simulator following a multiscale COSMO-based/Aspen Plus methodology previously reported by our group [46,57,66]. The complete procedure employed to include new non-databank compounds into Aspen Properties and to generate simulations entailing them was described in detail in prior works of our group [66]. As summary, quantum chemical structure optimizations and COSMO-RS calculations of the ILs and their reaction products were carried out to fully specify the COSMOSAC property method. COSMOSAC in code 1 was selected to carry out the simulations [66]. To allow better description of the CO₂ mass transfer process, the experimental temperature dependent ILs viscosity data is included into the Aspen Properties in the form of Andrade equation (Eq. (1)).

$$\ln \mu_i = A_i + \frac{B_i}{T} \quad (1)$$

To describe the chemical absorption of CO₂ in the selected ILs using Aspen environment, the ILs experimental isotherms performed by gravimetric measurements were adjusted to a thermodynamic model in which the physical absorption is described by Henry's Law (Eq. (2)) and the chemical equilibrium reaction by Eqs. (3) and (4) depending on the stoichiometry:

$$x_{CO_2} = \frac{P_{CO_2}}{K_H} \quad (2)$$

$$K_{eq} = \frac{x_{PROD}}{x_{IL} \cdot x_{CO_2}} \quad (3)$$

$$K_{eq} = \frac{x_{PROD}}{x_{IL}^2 \cdot x_{CO_2}} \quad (4)$$

A combination of these equations leads to Eqs. (5) and (6) that describe both CO₂ physical (first term) and chemical (second term) absorption according to the right stoichiometry of reaction with CO₂ depending on the IL.

AHA-ILs 1:1 stoichiometry ($IL + CO_2 \rightleftharpoons PROD$):

$$z = \frac{P_{CO_2}}{K_H - P_{CO_2}} + \frac{K_{eq} \cdot P_{CO_2} \cdot C}{K_H + K_{eq} \cdot P_{CO_2}} \quad (5)$$

Carboxylate based ILs and aa-ILs 1:2 stoichiometry ($2IL + CO_2 \rightleftharpoons PROD$):

$$z = \frac{P_{CO_2}}{K_H - P_{CO_2}} + \frac{-2 \cdot K_{eq} \cdot \frac{P_{CO_2}}{K_H} + \sqrt{4 \cdot K_{eq}^2 \cdot \frac{P_{CO_2}^2}{K_H^2} + K_{eq} \cdot \frac{P_{CO_2}}{K_H}}}{1 - 4 \cdot K_{eq} \cdot \frac{P_{CO_2}}{K_H}} \quad (6)$$

where z is the molar ratio of CO₂ absorbed per mol of IL, P_{CO_2} is the CO₂ partial pressure in bar, K_H is the CO₂ Henry's law constant in the IL in bar, K_{eq} is the reaction equilibrium constant and C is the ratio of AHA-IL available to react with CO₂ molecule and the total AHA-IL as reported in previous literature [52]. In this work, $C = 0.92$ for [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyr] and 0.89 for [P₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyr] is used.

The equilibrium constant of Eq. (7) was incorporated into Aspen Plus Reactive-Distillation equilibrium reaction and it was used to determine the parameters needed by Aspen Plus to perform the reactions between CO₂ and each IL. Therefore, Aspen Plus estimates the right equilibrium constant value that fits the isotherm equation (Eqs. (5) or (6)) at different temperatures.

$$\ln K_{eq_i} = A_i + \frac{B_i}{T} \quad (7)$$

The enthalpy of reaction (expressed per mole of reacted CO₂) is obtained as the product of the estimated parameter B_i of Eq. (7) multiplied by the ideal gas constant (8.314 J/mol·K), which was translated into IL enthalpy of formation using the equilibrium reactor model, so as to be introduced into Aspen Properties.

CO₂ was defined as Henry component into Aspen Properties. Aspen Plus Henry's component definition requires the temperature dependence of the parameter (Eq. (8)), used to estimate the ILs Henry's constants that suit the experimental isotherms.

$$\ln K_{H_i} = A_i + \frac{B_i}{T} \quad (8)$$

Henry's constant value cannot be introduced directly as calculated in the Aspen Plus software as it considers the CO₂ activity coefficient (γ_{CO_2}) in the simulator definition: $x_{CO_2} = \frac{P_{CO_2}}{K_H \cdot \gamma_{CO_2}}$, so it needs a correction to Henry's constant value. An iterative procedure was used to adjust Aspen Henry's constant (K_H) to experimental physical solubilities predicted by the isotherms (Eqs. (5) and (6)). All thermodynamic and kinetic parameters used to define the CO₂-IL systems in Aspen Plus software are collected in Table S2 of Supplementary Material.

2.2. Stream models and complete processes design

This work comprises post-combustion and pre-combustion gas treatment as well as biogas upgrading operating conditions. The characteristic inlet gas stream for each case was specified according to the data summarized in Table 1. Compositions are simplified to two major constituents (CO₂ plus a priori inert gas: N₂, H₂ or CH₄), so other typical compounds such water or sulfur dioxide are not included in this study.

Table 1
Feed gas streams properties.

	Post-combustion	Biogas	Pre-combustion
Inlet temperature (K)	313	313	313
Total pressure (MPa)	0.10	0.32	3.27
CO ₂ partial pressure (MPa)	0.01	0.12	1.31
CO ₂ molar flow (kmol/h)	100	100	100
Composition			
x_{CO_2}	0.13	0.38	0.40
x_{N_2}	0.87	–	–
x_{CH_4}	–	0.62	–
x_{H_2}	–	–	0.60

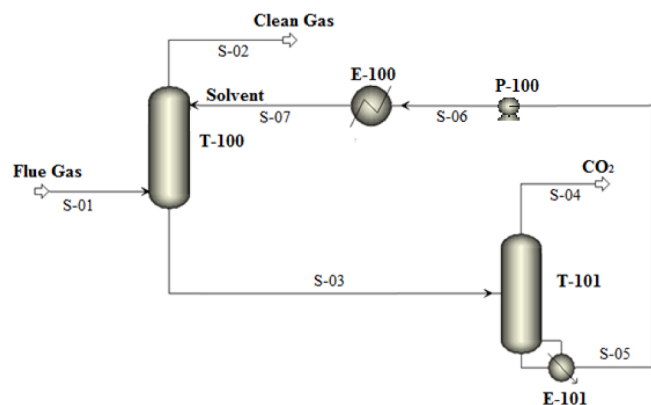


Fig. 1. Complete ILs-based process diagram proposed for CO₂ chemical absorption.

The conceptual engineering of the ILs-based process proposed for CO₂ capture through chemical absorption is shown in Fig. 1. The gas stream to be treated (S-01) is fed to the absorption column (T-100) at the inlet conditions summed up in Table 1 where contacts the recirculated IL from the regeneration stripping column (S-07) at adiabatic operating conditions. After absorbing a 90% of the CO₂ fed, the treated gas stream (S-02) exits the absorber through its head. The regeneration unit (T-101) receives the saturated absorbent stream (S-03). In this configuration, there is not preheating step, so the column reboiler (E-101) supplies the heating required to achieve the IL regeneration in which the obtained IL purity is around 90 wt% in all cases. The CO₂ captured leaves the column after its desorption (S-04) and the IL regenerated (S-05) is pressurized (P-100), cooled (E-100) and recirculated to the absorption column (S-07).

2.3. CO₂ absorption column

CO₂ absorption column (T-100 in Fig. 1) was modeled as a packed column using RADFRAC rigorous model implemented as default in Aspen Plus v10, considering adiabatic operating conditions and performing the calculations in Rate-based mode with the reaction module enabled. The chemical reaction between each IL and CO₂ was specified using the Reactive-Distillation equilibrium reaction equation included by default in Aspen Plus to specify reactions to be used with RADFRAC column model. The K_{eq} equation (Eq. (7)) is specified with parameters A_i and B_i that were estimated from the experimental isotherms as explained before. The liquid is the reaction phase for all cases and the equilibrium constant basis is the mole fraction.

The gas was fed with a constant flow of 100 kmol/h of CO₂ at 313 K and CO₂ partial pressures from 0.013 to 1.3 MPa in order to study its influence in the CO₂ capture, thus the absorber operates at inlet stream total pressure. The three different inlet gas stream models for pre-combustion, biogas and post-combustion CO₂ capture are grouped in Table 1. The column is 15 m of height, discretized by 10 stages, and with a variable diameter able to keep a fractional capacity of 80% in all the simulations. The Flexipac 700Y structured packing was selected in the absorber. The required IL mass flow to achieve a 90% of CO₂ uptake

rate, the IL conversion and column diameter were calculated for each system.

2.4. ILs regeneration column

The column T-101 of the process diagram (Fig. 1) is the absorbent regeneration unit. It consists in a stripping column in which the reboiler supports the sensible heat to achieve the regeneration temperature, the energy needed to generate the vapor stripping stream (mainly the CO₂ desorbed) and the energy required to turn back the chemical reaction between CO₂ and each IL. A temperature of 373 K and 0.01 MPa of vacuum pressure are fixed as regeneration conditions in order to avoid IL thermal decomposition [40]. The vacuum energy was estimated by Aspen Plus compressor model emulating the pressure drop from 0.1 to 0.01 MPa directly to the vapor. The liquid stream (S-03) that leaves the absorber (T-100) is the inlet stream of this regeneration column (T-101) without carrying out any preheating that involves energy saving. The RADFRAC model operating in Rate-Based mode -including the same Reactive-Distillation reaction, equal height (15 m) and type (Flexipac 700Y) of packing and 6 calculation stages- was utilized to simulate the stripping column. The regeneration energy required and column diameter for a fractional capacity of 80% were determined in each case.

2.5. Complete process

Once both absorption and desorption operations were evaluated at open cycle, IL recirculation was closed as depicted in Fig. 1 for the best three ILs to study the effect of the partial regeneration in the process performance. Secondary blocks for conditioning (E-100 and P-100) the solvent stream that enters the absorber (S-07) were added on, although their energy demands are not taken into account in this work. In this section, the influence of recirculating the absorbent is analyzed. Gap capacity variable is introduced to discuss the complete process results and differentiated in 2 types: i) Process gap capacity describes the difference between rich (S-03) and lean absorbent (S-07) loading capacity, which represents the real absorbent capacity in the complete process (considering the solvent regeneration), hence it is particularly useful to explain the absorbent demand and ii) Thermodynamic gap capacity that define the same difference but calculated through the ILs isotherms at 313 K (absorber inlet conditions) and 373 K (reboiler temperature) at the corresponding CO₂ partial pressure.

3. Results

3.1. Absorption properties

The physical and chemical properties of the 6 studied CO₂-IL systems estimated by current approach in Aspen Plus are collected in Table 2. The considered ILs present a relatively wide range of molar weight (200–600 g/mol), being [P₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyrr] the heaviest IL, whereas [Bmim][acetate] is the lightest. On the other side, all ILs present similar density but remarkably different viscosity. AHA-ILs are the lowest viscous (163–166 mPa·s) whereas aa-ILs have significant high viscosity values (424–891 mPa·s) and caboxylate-based ILs present intermediate values, but all of them two magnitude orders ahead of

Table 2

Estimated physical properties, Henry's (K_H) and reaction equilibrium (K_{eq}) constants and enthalpy of reaction (ΔH_R), of selected ILs at 313 K, using Aspen Plus.

	MW (g/mol)	ρ (kg/m ³)	μ (mPa·s)	K_H (MPa)	K_{eq}	ΔH_R (kJ/mol)
[P ₂₂₂₈][CNPyrr]	322.47	940	163.45	6.70	1389.84	−47.72
[P ₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyrr]	574.95	900	166.42	3.93	421.61	−39.77
[Bmim][acetate]	198.26	1030	179.79	9.31	65.56	−35.12
[Bmim][i-but]	226.32	1010	198.02	13.57	25.40	−19.38
[Bmim][GLY]	213.28	1030	423.87	18.06	6.78	−22.92
[Bmim][PRO]	253.34	1060	891.32	17.15	5.60	−14.03

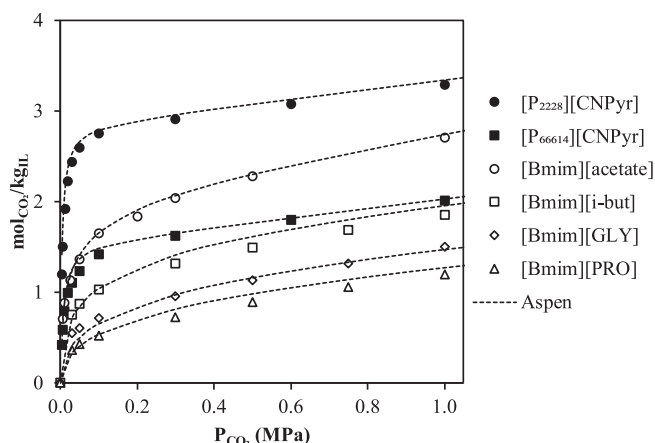


Fig. 2. Experimental (symbols) vs. calculated (lines) CO₂ absorption isotherms of 6 ILs at near 313 K.

current amine-based solutions [12] or organic physical solvents like tetraglyme [32] (1–3 mPas).

The available experimental isotherms are successfully fitted to the proposed thermodynamic models (Eqs. (5) and (6)). For comparison purposes, Fig. 2 and Table 2 show the results at 313 K. The CO₂ physical absorption capacity of ILs can be compared according to Henry's constant. The lowest K_H values -what mean advantageous physical solubility- were found for AHA-ILs, especially for [P₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyrr] (3.9 MPa) which own similar K_H to industrial physical CO₂ absorbents such as tetraglyme [32]; in contrast, aa-ILs presents comparatively high Henry's constants ($K_H > 17$ MPa), whereas carboxylate-based ILs present intermediate CO₂ physical absorption capacity. The chemical CO₂ absorption is related to the obtained reaction equilibrium constant (K_{eq}) and heat of reaction (ΔH_R) in Table 2, which are in good agreement with experimental values reported in previous publications for [P₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyrr] (4.7 MPa and -43 kJ/mol at 313 K) [56], [Bmim][acetate] (-39 kJ/mol) [39], [Bmim][GLY] (19.5 MPa and -19 kJ/mol at 318 K) and [Bmim][PRO] (18.6 MPa and -16 kJ/mol at 318 K) [50].

As can be seen, AHA-ILs also present a favored chemical reaction with CO₂ in comparison to carboxylate anion-based ILs and aa-ILs, because of their higher K_{eq} (reaction more displaced to products) and more negative ΔH_R values (more exothermic reaction). Anyhow, the reversibility of all CO₂-IL reactions is more favorable compared to MEA (-85 kJ/mol at 313 K) [12,52].

The calculated thermodynamic and thermochemical properties previously presented allow the simulation of CO₂ absorption phenomena in ILs by Aspen Plus. The equilibrium isotherms estimated by the process simulator were compared to the experimental CO₂ solubility data so as to validate our multiscale methodology. Fig. 2 represent the experimental and calculated CO₂-IL isotherms at 313 K (inlet absorption temperature) for the studied six ILs.

As can be seen in Fig. 2, the 6 CO₂ isotherms at 313 K are properly represented by Aspen calculations ($R^2 > 0.99$) (see also Figs. S1 and S2 in Supplementary Material for other temperatures) and also illustrates that chemical absorption dominates at low CO₂ partial pressures and how physical absorption takes place at high pressure ($P > \sim 0.2$ MPa). [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyrr] is the best overall absorbent when attending to thermodynamics, particularly at low pressure. The trend of CO₂ absorption capacity per mass of IL is as follow, [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyrr] > [Bmim][acetate] > [P₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyrr] > [Bmim][i-but] > [Bmim][GLY] > [Bmim][PRO], and it can be related to both favorable physical and chemical absorption (low K_H and high K_{eq} , respectively) and low molar weight (Table 2).

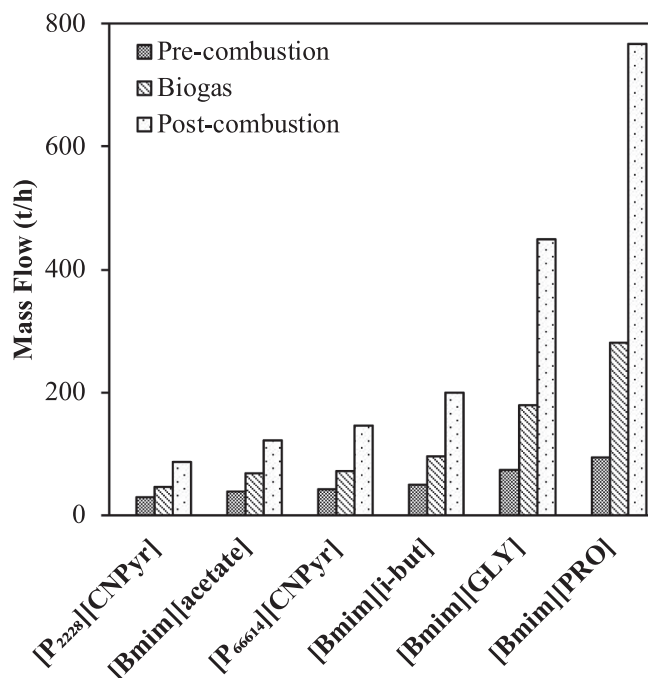


Fig. 3. IL requirement to achieve 90% of CO₂ capture rate at post-combustion, biogas and pre-combustion configurations (Table 1) and adiabatic conditions.

3.2. CO₂ absorption column

The RADFRAC column implemented in Aspen Plus was used to simulate the absorption operation at CO₂ partial pressures of 0.013 (post-combustion), 0.12 (biogas) and 1.3 MPa (pre-combustion) and adiabatic conditions. IL needs to achieve a 90% of CO₂ capture is analyzed. Fig. 3 shows the amount of absorbent required depending on the IL and CO₂ partial pressure.

As can be seen in Fig. 3, IL requirement in the absorption column is strongly determined by the inlet CO₂ partial pressure, drastically decreasing from post-combustion to biogas and to pre-combustion system. Comparing by absorbent, AHA-ILs are those with less consumes (the best case is [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyrr], 30–87 t/h), aa-ILs have the highest mass flow demand (74–767 t/h) and carboxylate-based IL present intermediate behavior.

In order to state the key properties of CO₂-IL systems that determines absorbent performance, Fig. 4 show the estimated viscosity and CO₂ solubility at absorber inlet conditions (313 K and CO₂ partial pressures from 0.013 to 1.3 MPa). It is clearly observed that ILs that present higher CO₂ solubility reduce the solvent demand. In addition, Fig. 4 also illustrates how the IL flow rate descends by increasing the pressure, since CO₂ solubility is improved. Thus, pre-combustion operating conditions are the most favorable for CO₂ capture. In fact, the minimum solvent demand (30 t/h) is obtained for [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyrr] at pre-combustion CO₂ partial pressure (40% lower than [Bmim][acetate] at the same conditions). Moreover, the role of viscosity is highlighted in the case of aa-ILs. Despite having solubilities only slightly lower than [Bmim][i-but], they do need higher mass flow rates to meet the required purity. Thereby, evident mass transfer limitations are found for these ILs due to their viscosity as it was demonstrated in previous publications [50].

Fig. 5 shows the viscosity dependence with the temperature of absorber outlet liquid (S-03 stream in Fig. 1). Since the absorption column works at adiabatic conditions, the IL is being heated because of the heat of reaction. A synergistic effect between thermodynamics and kinetics is observed for the studied ILs. IL with higher CO₂ absorption capacity (lower IL flow requirement) implies a higher outlet temperature, up to 368 K for [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyrr], which reduces its viscosity, consequently

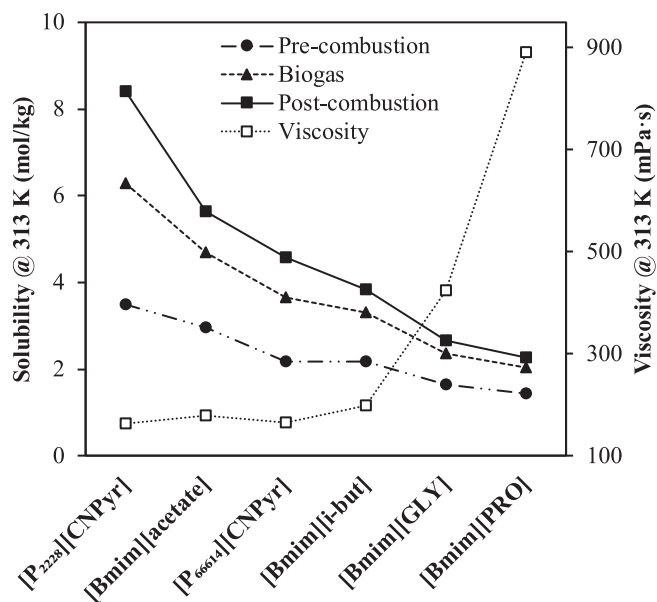


Fig. 4. CO₂ solubility in IL along with IL viscosity (S-07 stream) at 313 K and post-combustion, biogas and pre-combustion pressures (Table 1).

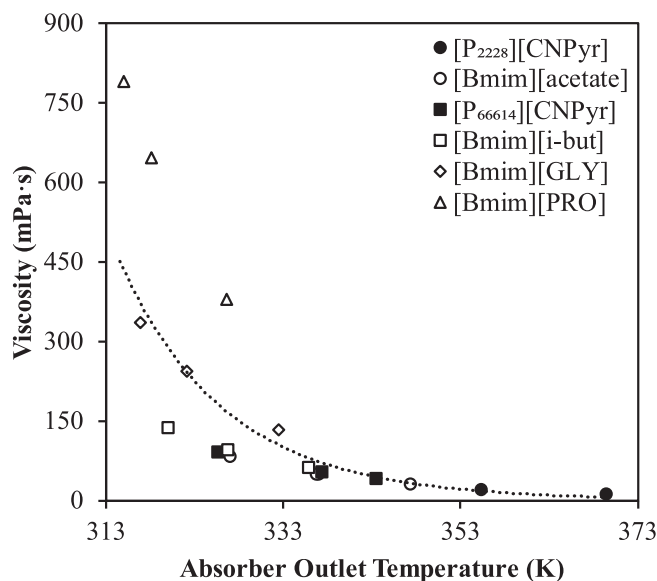


Fig. 5. ILs viscosity at absorber outlet liquid flow (S-03) temperature.

improving the mass transfer rates and reducing further the solvent requirements, effect that magnifies at higher partial pressures. Although an increase of the outlet temperature reduces the solubility of CO₂ in IL, the increase in mass transfer compensates this effect improving the efficiency of the global process. In the case of aa-ILs, viscosity is not reduced enough (133–790 mPa·s) to avoid the kinetic control as it does for [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyr] (49–12 mPa·s) due to its hottest outlet temperature (more exothermic reaction) [57]. Therefore, the viscosity and the CO₂ solubility can be interpreted as two IL key properties to predict the absorption performance and then solvent requirements.

The grade of utilization of IL reactant is evaluated in terms of conversion. The IL conversion in the reaction with CO₂ at the proposed operating conditions as well as their equilibrium constants (Table 2) are presented in Fig. 6.

As expected, the IL conversion increases with CO₂ partial pressure, because the bigger CO₂ concentration favors the reaction toward products. At the same time, the ILs with highest IL conversion are those with the greatest reaction equilibrium constants. Two different slopes

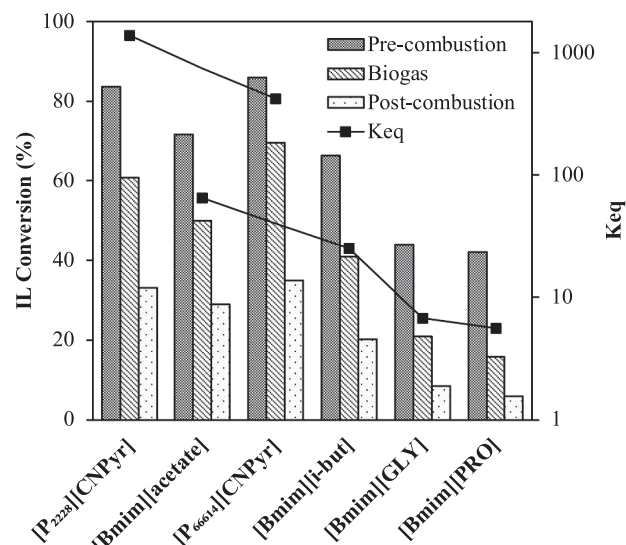


Fig. 6. IL conversion in the absorber and K_{eq} values for CO₂ + IL reaction at 313 K and post-combustion, biogas and pre-combustion pressures.

(dots in Fig. 6) are marked in regards on whether the stoichiometry of reaction is 1:1 or 2:1. AHA-ILs (1:1 stoichiometry), give the best conversions overall, so it means that 1:1 stoichiometry is the most favorable for an efficient use. Although [P₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyr] presents lower equilibrium constant (421.6) than [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyr] (1389.8), it reaches little upper conversion because at adiabatic conditions [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyr] suffers major heating, what slightly decreases the K_{eq} value. [P₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyr] is the IL that achieves the best conversion values that goes from a 35% for post-combustion CO₂ capture to a 86% for pre-combustion followed from behind by [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyr] with 33% and 84%, respectively. [Bmim][acetate] is the IL with 2:1 stoichiometry having superior K_{eq} (65.6) besides better conversion (29–72%) and [Bmim][PRO] is the worst one (K_{eq} = 5.6 and conversion from 6 to 42%).

Fig. 7 illustrates the relationship between the equilibrium constant (K_{eq}) and the reaction enthalpy (ΔH_R) for the 6 CO₂-IL systems at 313 K. ILs with higher K_{eq} and conversion values (AHA-ILs and [Bmim][acetate]) exhibit more exothermic reactions (from –35 to –48 kJ/mol). Thus, obtained equilibrium constants are directly governed by the

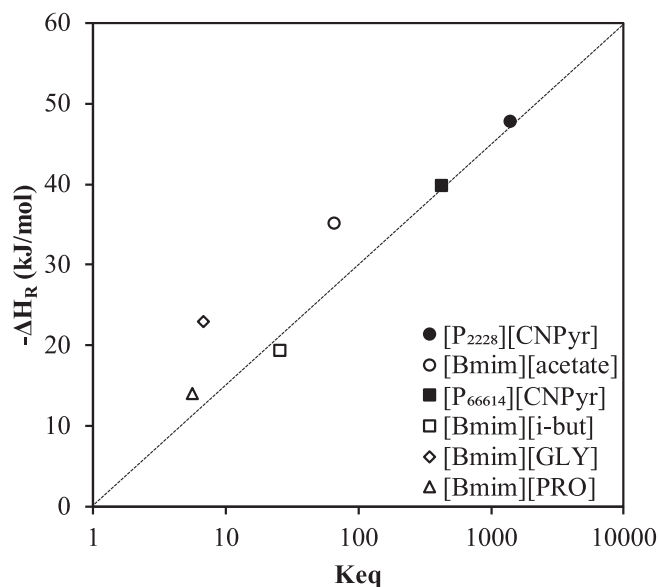


Fig. 7. Comparison of reaction enthalpy ($-\Delta H_R$) vs. equilibrium constant (K_{eq}) for the studied CO₂ + IL systems at 313 K.

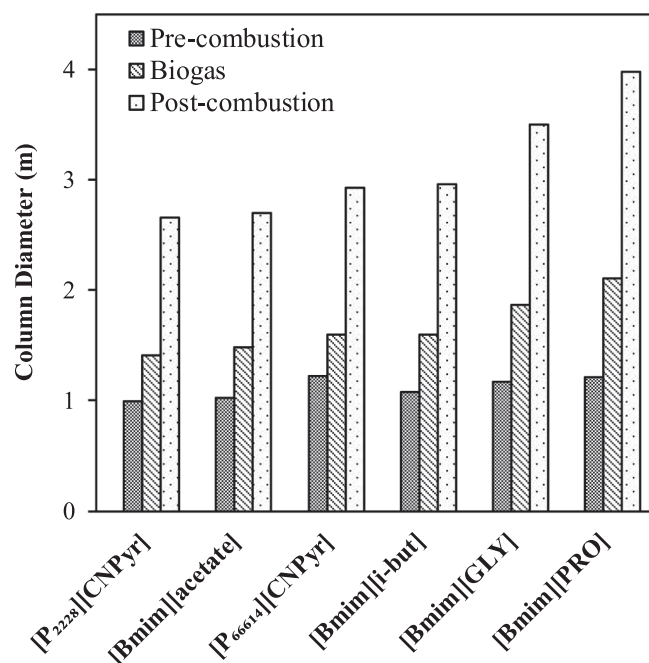


Fig. 8. Absorption column diameter depending on the IL and the process configuration.

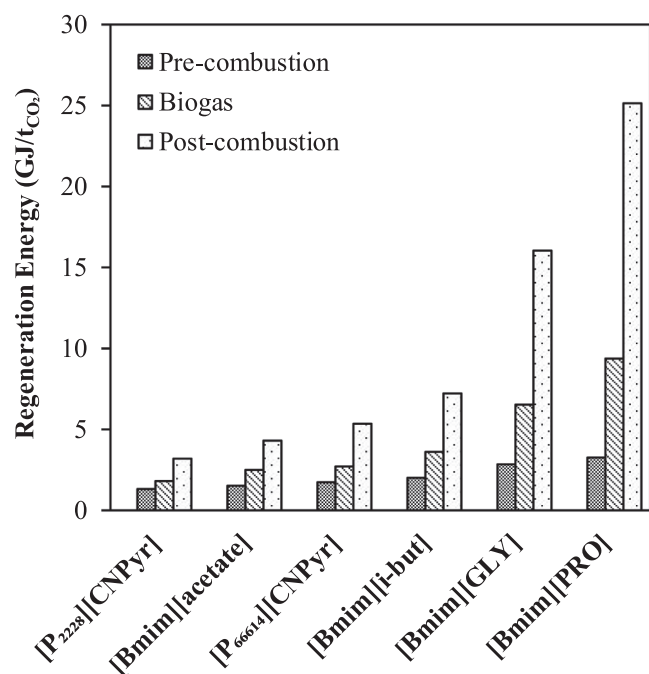


Fig. 9. Regeneration energy needs for each IL depending on the absorption process configuration.

enthalpic contribution to CO₂ chemical absorption in these ILs. Thereby, AHA-ILs are placed as the IL-family that present the greatest K_{eq} and hence clearly higher conversions owing to their raised enthalpies of reaction (around -40 kJ/mol, see Table 2). Current results indicate that the heat of reaction can be considered a key property to predict the IL utilization in the absorber unit as the heating effect at adiabatic conditions greatly improves the efficiency of the operation.

After analyzing the IL performance regarding solvent demand and conversion, preliminary column sizing was carried out. Fig. 8 reports the absorption column diameter calculated for each IL at the three different operating conditions.

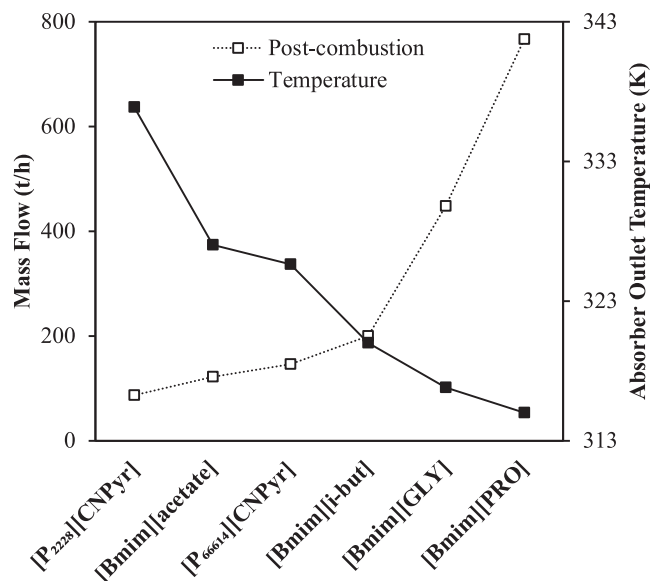


Fig. 10. Temperature and mass flow of the CO₂-IL saturated stream (S-03) fed to regeneration column for post-combustion CO₂ capture.

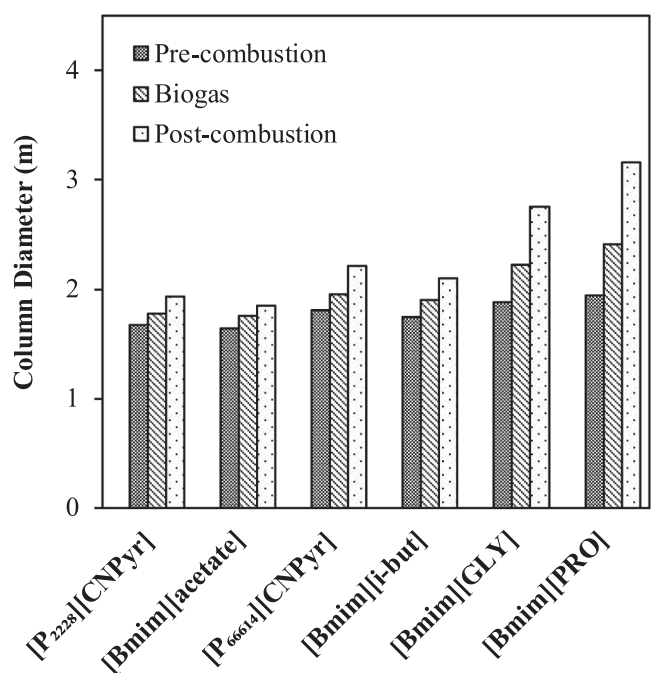


Fig. 11. Stripping column diameter depending on the IL and the process configuration.

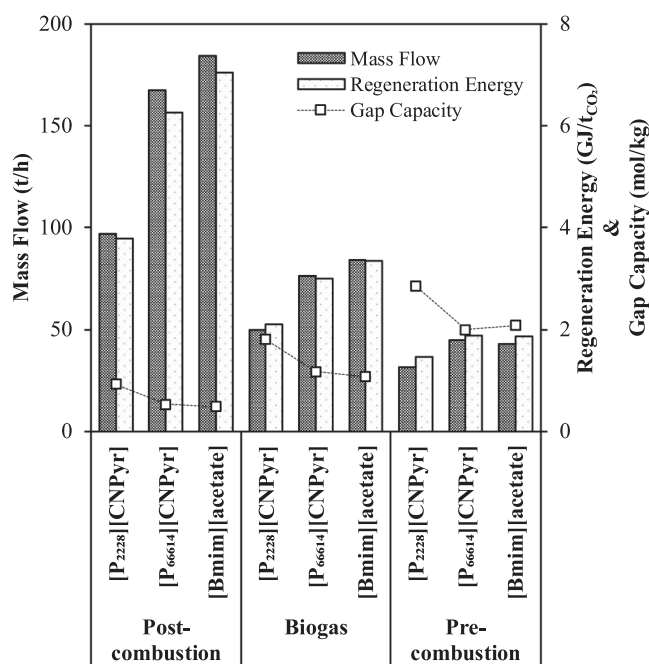
Fig. 8 shows the same trend than the required amount of IL (Fig. 3). Thereby, [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyr] needs smaller column diameters (from 1 m for pre-combustion to 2.7 m for post-combustion capture) than the worse aa-ILs (with values between 1.2 and 4 m). Likewise, post-combustion gas flow is moderately higher than in the other cases, contributing to bigger column sizes. Designed columns (15 m high) present industrial-range length to diameter ratios (5–30) [67], with the exception of those for aa-ILs at post-combustion CO₂ capture.

3.3. ILs regeneration column

The following part of the study discusses the simulation results of IL regeneration stage. The regeneration column (T-101 in Fig. 1) was

Table 3Complete process and individual operation results for CO₂ capture using [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyr], [P₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyr] and [Bmim][acetate] absorbents.

		Post-combustion		Biogas		Pre-combustion	
		Individual columns	Closed process	Individual columns	Closed process	Individual columns	Closed process
[P ₂₂₂₈][CNPyr]	S-07 IL mass flow (t/h)	87.0	96.9	46.7	49.9	29.8	31.5
	S-07 IL mass purity (%)	100.0	93.4	100.0	93.4	100.0	93.4
	IL conversion (%)	33.2	30.1	60.8	57.5	83.7	78.9
	Regeneration energy (GJ/tCO ₂)	3.2	3.8	1.9	2.1	1.3	1.5
	Absorber diameter (m)	2.7	2.7	1.4	1.4	1.0	1.0
	Stripping diameter (m)	1.9	2.1	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7
[P ₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyr]	S-07 IL mass flow (t/h)	146.8	167.6	71.8	76.2	43.4	45.0
	S-07 IL mass purity (%)	100.0	94.8	100.0	94.8	100.0	94.8
	IL conversion (%)	35.0	30.9	69.5	65.6	85.8	81.2
	Regeneration energy (GJ/tCO ₂)	5.3	6.3	2.8	3.0	1.8	1.9
	Absorber diameter (m)	2.9	3.0	1.6	1.6	1.2	1.2
	Stripping diameter (m)	2.2	2.4	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.8
[Bmim][acetate]	S-07 IL mass flow (t/h)	122.0	184.6	68.8	84.0	38.7	43.2
	S-07 IL mass purity (%)	100.0	87.5	100.0	87.5	100.0	87.5
	IL conversion (%)	29.0	19.5	49.9	41.1	71.7	62.2
	Regeneration energy (GJ/tCO ₂)	4.3	7.0	2.6	3.4	1.6	1.9
	Absorber diameter (m)	2.7	2.9	1.5	1.5	1.0	1.1
	Stripping diameter (m)	1.8	2.3	1.8	2.0	1.6	1.7

**Fig. 12.** Correlation between the process gap capacity, mass flow and energy requirements for AHA-ILs and [Bmim][acetate] in post-combustion, biogas and pre-combustion closed processes.

modeled as a packed stripping column using the RADFRAC rigorous model implemented in Aspen Plus, working at 373 K in the reboiler and 0.01 MPa with Rate-based calculations and the reaction module enabled. The energy demand for each IL regeneration depending on the absorption operating conditions is shown in Fig. 9.

As can be observed in Fig. 9, the energy demand in IL regeneration stage drastically decreases at higher CO₂ partial pressure conditions (post-combustion > biogas > pre-combustion system), due to the higher temperatures and lower mass flows (Figs. 3 and 5) of the inlet stream (S-03 in Fig. 1). Regarding the absorbent effect, aa-ILs presents uncompetitive energy requirements upper than 15 GJ/tCO₂ (post-combustion) compared to the best AHA-IL, [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyr], which needs 3.2 GJ/tCO₂ in the same conditions and only 1.3 GJ/tCO₂ after pre-combustion absorption. Most of the energy, > 80%, comes from the reboiler. The analogy between Fig. 9 and the IL demand shown in Fig. 3

proves that the solvent flow rate governs the energy consumption.

In fact, Fig. 10 represents ILs needed mass flow rate in post-combustion configuration and the inlet temperature to the regenerator column. The synergetic effect found in the absorption column plays a major role on improving energy requirements in the regeneration step. Theoretically, a higher enthalpy of reaction should increase the energetic demand in the regeneration, but, in these IL-based cases, the reduction in mass flows and higher temperatures achieved during absorption, fully compensate this drawback, and also reduce further the energy needs on the reboiler.

The stripping column is sized in order to fully describe this unit. Fig. 11 shows the calculated stripping column diameter for the three considered processes depending on the IL employed.

As expected, the stripping column volume decreases at higher CO₂ partial pressures because of the lower inlet flow. Attending to IL selected, [Bmim][acetate] and [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyr] maintain diameters between 1.7 and 2 m for the three CO₂ capture systems and it was slightly increased for [Bmim][i-but] and [P₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyr] cases. Fig. 11 depicts that aa-ILs need bigger column diameters to regenerate them in comparison to the others ILs studied, particularly attending to the post-combustion process. On the other hand, the difference between operating conditions is not as relevant as in the absorption column because of the lack of CO₂ rich gas flow to be treated and the negligible mass transfer limitations thanks to the elevate operating temperature. Excepting [Bmim][PRO] at post-combustion conditions, all stripping columns respect the industrial range of length to diameter ratio [67].

3.4. Complete processes

After analyzing the CO₂ absorption and IL regeneration operations individually, the complete process was finally closed for the best three resulting ILs ([P₂₂₂₈][CNPyr], [P₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyr] and [Bmim][acetate]), interconnecting both units and adding on the secondary operations as depicted in Fig. 1. When joining the absorption and the stripping columns, the solvent stream (S-07) that gets into the absorber usually suffers a change in its composition since other compounds are re-circulated in minor rates (CO₂-IL product, non-reacted IL, physically absorbed CO₂ and very little traces of N₂, CH₄ or H₂). Table 3 reports the results for the closed processes against the individual units that were previously interpreted in order to study the recirculation effect, in which the S-07 solvent stream is a fresh/neat IL feed.

Regarding the IL needs of the three processes considered, Table 3

Table 4Process gap capacity vs. thermodynamic gap capacity at post-combustion, biogas and pre-combustion CO₂ partial pressures.

Ionic Liquid	Post-combustion		Biogas		Pre-combustion	
	Process Gap Capacity (mol/kg)	Thermodynamic Gap Capacity (mol/kg)	Process Gap Capacity (mol/kg)	Thermodynamic Gap Capacity (mol/kg)	Process Gap Capacity (mol/kg)	Thermodynamic Gap Capacity (mol/kg)
[P ₂₂₂₈][CNPyrr]	0.94	1.92	1.82	2.62	2.88	3.31
[P ₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyrr]	0.54	0.83	1.18	1.41	2.01	2.08
[Bmim][acetate]	0.49	0.67	1.09	1.42	2.11	2.68

shows slightly higher IL request when closing the process, particularly for the post-combustion CO₂ capture, because of not only the lower CO₂ solubility, but also the lower IL conversion as CO₂-IL reaction products are recirculated. Thus, the main effect that recirculated components generate in the absorption operation is slightly increasing the solvent demand. [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyrr] gets minimum solvent requirement for all the processes (97 t/h for post-combustion, 50 t/h for biogas and 32 t/h for pre-combustion) and less amount of [P₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyrr] is consumed for post-combustion CO₂ capture (168 t/h) and biogas upgrading (76 t/h) compared to [Bmim][acetate] (185 t/h and 84 t/h, respectively). The calculated absorbent flow needs are remarkably lower than those reported for IL physical solvents using larger columns [22,23] and there is no loss of solvent as is the case, when using conventional amines aqueous solutions.

Concerning the energy balance, Table 3 indicates that regeneration energy required to recover 3.96 t/h of CO₂ with mass purity > 99% suffers a minor increase for AHA-based ILs, but more appreciable for [Bmim][acetate] in the complete process, due to the recirculation effect over the flow rate. Nevertheless, there is no significant differences in the column diameters of closed process results and those of the individual operations. The calculated energy consumptions are in reasonable agreement with those values reported in the literature for [P₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyrr] [65] and [Bmim][acetate] [64], when using simulations that only considered the thermodynamic aspects of the process. [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyrr] energy demand is the least. For example, its energy invested for post-combustion CO₂ capture (3.8 GJ/t_{CO2}) is lower compared to other existing technologies for CO₂ capture such as amine-based (4.2 GJ/t_{CO2}) [13] or aqueous ammonia processes (4.1 GJ/t_{CO2}) [59], without involving any energy integration and the mandatory investment cost of the heat-exchanger to carry it out. Moreover, [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyrr] is even more promising at higher absorption CO₂ partial pressure conditions. A minimal 1.5 GJ/t_{CO2} was found for pre-combustion capture, close to ILs physical absorbents values at similar working CO₂ partial pressures [22], but much less energy demand than methyl di-ethanol amine (MDEA) in similar processes (3.7 GJ/t_{CO2}) [5].

Rich and lean absorbent loading capacities are frequently reported as their difference, called here process gap capacity, is a useful parameter to explain the absorbent performance in CO₂ capture processes [13,14,59]. It can be calculated as the difference between the CO₂ loading at the absorber inlet (S-07 stream in Fig. 1) and outlet (S-03 stream in Fig. 1) as explained before. Fig. 12 presents the clear relationship between the process gap capacity, mass flow and energy requirements for AHA-ILs and [Bmim][acetate] in post-combustion, biogas and pre-combustion CO₂ capture complete processes. Higher process gap capacity at the CO₂ capture operating conditions implies both lower absorbent and consequently, energy demands.

As can be seen in Fig. 12, [P₆₆₆₁₄][CNPyrr] has 8% superior gap capacity than [Bmim][acetate] for post-combustion treatment (0.54 vs. 0.49) and biogas upgrading (1.18 vs. 1.09), hence it requires less circulation rate and energy to be regenerated, but at high pressure, [Bmim][acetate] is a more effective alternative for solvent and energy saving due to its greater CO₂ solubility. [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyrr] presents the highest gap capacity values in all cases, in agreement with the minimum solvent and energy consumptions obtained for this IL. Table 4 compares the simulated processes gap capacity to the thermodynamic

gap capacity, determined through the ILs isotherms at 313 K and 373 K (see Figs. S1 and S3 of Supplementary Material). As can be seen, the thermodynamic gap capacity presents a similar trend to the process gap capacity with independence of the IL type and the CO₂ capture system. Therefore, current analysis concludes that thermodynamic gap capacity can be used to reasonably predict the IL behavior in the complete CO₂ capture process at different operating conditions and, consequently, applied as useful parameter for the adequate selection of IL as CO₂ chemical absorbent.

4. Conclusions

Absorption and desorption operations were simulated for 6 representative ILs in order to evaluate their performance in the complete CO₂ capture processes by chemical absorption using a COSMO-based/Aspen Plus multiscale methodology. Post-combustion, pre-combustion and biogas upgrading operating conditions were analyzed fixing a 90% CO₂ recovery. The results indicate how the solvent flow rate takes a relevant influence on regeneration energy, column sizes and thus it will in the overall CO₂ capture process economics. In this sense, CO₂ solubility, viscosity and enthalpy of reaction were identified as key properties determining the IL performance as CO₂ chemical absorbent. For the studied ILs, major exothermic reactions were proved to both favor the reaction toward product and heat the solvent during the chemical absorption, descending viscosity and allowing CO₂ solubility to control the process over mass transfer kinetics. Therefore, lower solvent flow and regeneration energy are required. Gap capacity is found out to be an adequate parameter to select IL for CO₂ capture by chemical absorption, anticipating the solvent behavior in the complete process. AHA-ILs are consolidated as the most promising ILs-family for CO₂ capture at all the studied CO₂ partial pressures. [P₂₂₂₈][CNPyrr] presents the lowest circulation rate and regeneration energy due to its advantageous key properties: moderate viscosity and both highest solubility and heat of reaction. Our results illustrate that IL chemical absorbents can be competitive to current amine-based or aqueous ammonia technologies for post-combustion, biogas and pre-combustion CO₂ capture. Future works should be focused on energy integration and process optimization to perform an economic evaluation.

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 data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2020.124509>.

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