

*MASS TRANSFER ANALYSIS OF CO₂ CAPTURE BY
PVDF MEMBRANE CONTACTOR AND IONIC LIQUID*

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This article contributes to carbon capture absorption studies strongly in order to advance in the intensified process. A novel technique using a PVDF hollow fibre membrane contactor and [emim][Ac] ionic liquid as absorbent has been performed. Competitive results compared with traditional absorption towers have been accomplished. Moreover, a theoretical simulation has been achieved in order to give the bases for scaling.

Abstract

Post-combustion processes based on ionic liquids and membrane contactors have emerged as new attractive alternatives to traditional systems. In this work, a gas stream composed of 15% CO₂ and 85% N₂ flowed through the lumen side of a hollow fibre membrane contactor containing PVDF-IL fibres. An ionic liquid, 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium acetate [emim][Ac], was used as an absorbent due to its high chemical absorption and high CO₂ solubility. The overall mass transfer coefficient, activation energy, and resistances of the hollow fibre membrane were quantified from 303 to 343 K. The K_{overall} value was one order of magnitude higher than those reported in previous works using conventional solvents, and the E_a was lower than previously reported values for other solvents.

A theoretical simulation was conducted to estimate the operational parameters required for 90% CO₂ capture and to quantify intensification effects related to CO₂ absorption in a packed column.

Keywords

CO₂ capture, PVDF membrane contactors, [emim][Ac] ionic liquid, mass transfer coefficient.

1. Introduction

Since the beginning of the industrial revolution, the demand for energy has dramatically increased and has typically been met by burning fossil fuels [1, 2]. The combustion of fossil fuels produces carbon dioxide gas, which should be removed from industrial flue gas streams to mitigate environmental effects [3]. The emissions of carbon dioxide the atmosphere need therefore to be drastically reduced in order to alleviate the proven effects of global warming [4]. CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere has increased by more than 100 ppm since their pre-industrial levels (280 ppm), reaching 384 ppm in 2007 and nowadays this value is around 400ppm [5]. This value implies that during this period, the CO₂ abundance in the atmosphere increased substantially: the average rate of increase in CO₂ determined by direct instrumental measurements over the period 1960 to 2005 is 1.4 ppm per year [6]. The reduction of greenhouse gas concentrations in the atmosphere, especially CO₂, has been a significant goal of the 21st century. The capture and reuse of CO₂ is typically referred to as carbon capture and utilization (CCU). Current CCU technologies and processes are at different stages of maturity. In general, technical and economical improvements are needed to make CCU competitive. The cost of synthesizing CO₂-based products is highly dependent on the cost or value associated with a CO₂ unit. Therefore, the processing of CO₂ into other valuable products to mitigate climate change requires the optimization of CO₂ capture systems. Roussanaly et al., (2016) reported that Carbon Capture and Storage (CCS) is regarded as one of the most promising technologies for reducing man-made carbon atmospheric emissions, and is projected to provide 14% of the reduction in manmade greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions by 2050 [7]. Three primary carbon dioxide capture methods are known: pre-combustion where CO₂ capture from gasified coal synthesis gas; oxy-combustion which separates oxygen from air prior to combustion and produces a nearly sequestration-ready CO₂ effluent and post-combustion, CO₂ capture from power plant flue gas [8, 9]. This work is focused on post-combustion CO₂ capture. Post-combustion carbon capture appears to be the most adequate strategy for integration with existing coal-fired power plants [10]. Flue gases from post-combustion processes typically comprise 10-15% CO₂, 90-85% N₂ and minor concentrations of other gases [11].

Many methods exist for removing CO₂ capture. One such method utilizes absorption in aqueous solutions of alkanolamines using conventional equipment, such as packed columns, bubble columns, and spray columns [12].

In a typical post-combustion capture process, treated flue gas is passed through a chemical absorption column where solvents absorb carbon dioxide. The CO₂-rich solvent is then regenerated by heating in a stripper unit. The freed CO₂ is then compressed for storage or use [13].

Most post-combustion processes are compatible with existing coal-fired power plant infrastructures without requiring substantial changes to basic combustion technologies. These processes are leading candidates for retrofitting gas-fired power plants and are promising for the development and commercialisation of integrated coal gasification combined cycle (IGCC) in power generation applications [14].

Hollow fibre gas-liquid membrane contactors are alternatives to conventional gas absorption systems for CO₂ capture. A membrane contactor combines the advantages of membrane technology with those of an absorption liquid [15]. Hollow fibre membrane contactors could potentially overcome the disadvantages of conventional absorption systems and develop more effective CO₂ capture technologies [16]. These membranes are flexible in operation and maintenance, modular, energy efficient, ease of install by skid-mounting, ability to be applied in remote areas (such as offshore) and have high specific surface areas [17]. The absorption process provide very high selectivity and high driving forces for mass transfer even at very low concentrations [18]. The separation of two phases by the membrane leads to the prevention of flooding and foaming of the absorbent liquid [19].

As a means for process intensification, membrane contactors were recently explored by Bounaceur et al. (2012), and Favre (2011) [20, 21]. The application of these contactors include a large number of fields where chemical or physical absorption is the natural separation technology, i.e., natural gas sweetening and dehydration and post and pre-combustion CO₂ capture. A rigorous comparison of the effective intensification potential of membrane contactors with packed columns is necessary to more accurately determine the mass transfer intensification factor, which has been reported over a broad range, i.e., from 0.8 to 10 (with MEA for CO₂ absorption) [20].

A literature review shows that most studies in this area have focused on the absorption of carbon dioxide by hollow fibre microporous membranes comprising hydrophobic polymers, such as poly(propylene) (PP), poly(ethylene) (PE), poly(tetrafluoroethylene) (PTFE) and poly(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF) [19].

Poly(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF) membranes have low surface energy values [22]. Many advantages make this polymer a promising candidate to capture carbon dioxide using hollow fibre membrane contactors. PVDF is a hydrophobic polymer and can be dissolved in common solvents to prepare asymmetric membranes via phase-inversion [23]. Hence it can easily be converted to asymmetric membranes via phase inversion method, resulting in easy controlled membrane structure and morphology [24]. PVDF, which has high fluorine content, is relatively cheap and easily available [25]. Moreover, PVDF fibres have high thermal and chemical resistance along with good mechanical strength [26]. Previous authors, proposed methods to improve the properties of PVDF membranes. One of these methods is the use of a relatively neutral coagulation bath instead of pure water to prevent formation of dense skin layer [24, 27, 28]. The coagulation bath could be formed by water and N,N-dimethylacetamide (DMAc) or N-Methyl-2-pyrrolidone (NMP). DMAc is the most commonly used solvent but NMP satisfies the kinetic criterion coagulation and allows the production of permeable membranes [28]. For this reason, the fabrication parameters during phase-inversion can be controlled to develop appropriate membrane structures for contactor applications [22]. Some previous works supported the use of PVDF membrane contactors in order to capture CO₂ [29-31].

Alkanolamines have been traditionally used for carbon dioxide capture due to their low costs and high reactivity with CO₂. Alkanolamines are able to form weakly bound complexes with CO₂ to produce effluent streams with very low CO₂ concentration. However, the regeneration temperature for the CO₂-rich solutions is usually higher than 393 K, which would induce thermal degradation and the volatile loss of solvents [32]. Other problems using these solvents are energy consumption for absorbent regeneration, corrosion of industrial equipment materials and foam production [33].

The combination of ionic liquids (ILs) with membrane technology provides new ways to make membrane-based separations a more competitive CO₂ separation technology [34]. Many studies have improved CO₂ absorption capacities by taking advantage of the tunable properties of ILs [11].

ILs have remarkable properties, such as negligible volatility, high thermal stability, inflammability, tunability, solvation properties, and high CO₂ solubility [35]. ILs could potentially replace traditional industrial solvents, which are often volatile organic

compounds (VOCs) [11]. A few ionic liquids have been found to have high solubility capacities for CO₂ and SO₂ and have been studied as potential absorption liquids [36, 37].

ILs with acetate anions possess high degree of absorption for CO₂ across a wide range of temperatures [38]. To achieve a high CO₂ absorption efficiency, a liquid with a high CO₂ diffusion coefficient and/or a high CO₂ solubility is required. For this reason. In this work, 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium acetate ([emim][Ac]) ionic liquid was used. This IL is an ideal candidate for CO₂ capture due to its high CO₂ solubility (8.6%) and physical and chemical absorption [39-42]. Additionally, this ionic liquid has been used in other applications, e.g., as a corrosion inhibitor [43]. Carbon dioxide chemisorption by [emim][Ac] has been demonstrated by previous works using NMR spectroscopy and X-ray diffraction [41, 44]. Gurau et al. (2011) proposed a possible reaction of CO₂ with [emim][Ac] [44]. Figure 1 shows the molecular structure of the IL, and a possible reaction mechanism with CO₂, and the formation of a corresponding imidazolium carboxylate. [emim][Ac] has been well-characterised in other studies [45-47]. Moreover, Carvalho et al. (2009) suggested a preferential interaction of the acid carbon of the CO₂ molecule with the carboxylate group of the acetate anion [48].

An intense study of self-made PVDF immobilized with [emim][Ac] hollow fibre membrane contactor using [emim][Ac] were used for the non-dispersive absorption of CO₂. PVDF membranes due to its high hydrophobicity could be used with ionic liquids and therefore allows working in non-wetted mode. On other hand, it is worth recalling that this ionic liquid possess a carboxylic anion and therefore is promising for CO₂ capture. Moreover, [emim][Ac] has a reversible interaction with CO₂. This property is a key factor for the regeneration ability of the IL in its industrial application. The CO₂ capture efficiency and mass transfer coefficient $K_{overall}$ were also evaluated. Gas, membrane and liquid resistances were also calculated. The obtained values were compared with those reported in the literature. A numerical analysis was carried out to estimate mass transfer effects. The membrane mass transfer coefficient, membrane dimensions, and module design were evaluated to determine whether a significant intensification effect was observed for a membrane contactor when compared with a conventional packed column. The aim of the numerical analysis performed in this work is to contribute to this objective. Additional work on membrane contactors may focus on optimizing membrane geometry and module design. Future work could develop rigorous

models essential for the successful scale-up and evaluation of membrane contactors in various applications [49].

2. *Experimental*

2.1 *Hollow fibre membranes*

Poly(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF) hollow fibre membranes with additives called 1AQ2 fibres were homemade-cast via phase-inversion. The PVDF material was HSV900 grade from Arkema (France). N-methyl-pyrrolidone (NMP) was used as a solvent, and LiCl (Aldrich-France) with a block copolymer were used as additives. The 1AQ2 fibres were composed of 15% PVDF HSV900, 3% block copolymer, 3% LiCl and 1% water [28, 50]. The fibre manufacturing method was explained in detail in previous works [28, 50-53]. The composition of the fibres were water/NMP:70/30% [28]. Additives first are dissolved in the solvent for 24 hours under mechanical stirring in a water bath at 323K by condensing vapors to prevent solvent evaporation. PVDF is then added raising the temperature to 330K to facilitate dissolution. Removing air bubbles trapped in the collodion by putting the primary vacuum to 353K. Collodions then stored at 323K until use. Besides the dimensions and design of the extrusion die, the operator can play during manufacture of flow rates and temperatures of the internal liquid collodion and the composition of the internal fluid, the air gap (distance between the die and the coagulation bath), the humidity in the air, the composition and temperature of the coagulation bath and the spinning speed imposed by the cylinders, ten operating parameters, to modify the properties of the manufactured fibre [28]. After phase-inversion, 150mL of IL was added to the developed membrane in continuous stirring during 48h at room temperature. Finally, the virgin fibres were dried after adding the IL. Subsequently, 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium acetate [emim][Ac] was immobilized into the fibres.

During drying, the fibres were maintained for approximately 72 hours in an oven at 323 K and atmospheric pressure.

The membrane contactor was manufactured by gluing hollow fibres in a PVC shell. In the 1AQ2 hollow fibre membrane contactor, 11 fibres were assembled. The main characteristics of the membrane contactors are shown in Table 1.

2.2 CO₂ capture process

A gas-liquid membrane contactor module was used in order to determine the membrane mass transfer resistance and study the effect of operating parameters on CO₂ absorption. The membrane has been checked with pure CO₂ from 0 to 14 bar. At these pressures the fibres were stable and the membrane did not suffer degradation. This could imply that the ionic liquid filled the pores, and thus, the gas was unable to enter fibres. This is a good quality for the fibres because the membrane works in non-wetted mode because the pores are completely filled.

The experimental setup is shown in Figure 2. The feed Gas stream contained 15 vol.% CO₂ and 85 vol.% N₂. The flow gas was adjusted using a mass flow controller (Brooks Instrument MFC 5850, Emerson Process Management, Spain). As can see, there is a rotameter in order to check that the mass flow controllers are calibrated. Feed gas was directed through the inside of the hollow fibres. The gas flow rate varied from 20 to 70 mL min⁻¹. 1-Ethyl-3-methylimidazolium acetate flowed in a counter-current direction through the shell side. The IL was pumped from a storage tank. The liquid line (50 mL min⁻¹) was maintained by a digital gear pump (Cole Parmer Instrument Company, Hucoa-Erloss S.A, Spain).

The experiments were performed over the temperature range of 303-343 K. Each experiment was replicated three times, and the average value was calculated. To maintain isothermal conditions, the hollow fibre membrane contactor and the liquid line were kept in an oven.

Previous studies have reported that [emim][Ac] can be regenerated without degradation [38, 51]. For this propose, a N₂-rich gas stream was directed through the lumen side of the hollow fibre membrane until the analyser indicated that the CO₂ concentration was constant and near zero. Previous works have demonstrated that [emim][Ac] exhibited a strong but reversible chemical absorption for CO₂ and that [enim][Ac] is similar to other ionic liquids, such as [bmim][Ac], due to the presence of an imidazolium cation and an acetate anion [40, 53]. It was not necessary change the ionic liquid during the whole experimental planning.

The CO₂ concentration of the outlet gas stream was continuously monitored by sampling a fraction of the stream using a gas analyser (Emerson Process) based on non-dispersive infrared (NDIR) spectroscopy. Before sending the gas sample to the analyser, the sample was diluted with N₂ to maintain a constant concentration range for the NDIR analyser (at least 200 mL min⁻¹). A steady state condition was indicated by a constant CO₂ concentration in the exit gas stream.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. CO₂ capture efficiencies with [emim][Ac] in a PVDF membrane module.

Carbon dioxide absorption experiments with 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium acetate were carried out in a PVDF membrane contactor to evaluate the CO₂ capture efficiency at different temperatures. The outlet concentration of carbon dioxide at pseudo-steady-state was calculated using equation 1:

$$Efficiency (\%) = \left(1 - \frac{C_{CO_2,out}}{C_{CO_2,in}} \right) \cdot 100 \quad (1)$$

where $C_{CO_2,out}$ is the outlet concentration of CO₂ and $C_{CO_2,in}$ is the inlet concentration of CO₂ (15%).

The CO₂ removal efficiencies were calculated from the inlet and outlet CO₂ concentrations for the absorption experiments (Table 2). The experiments were performed at different temperatures with gas flow rates of 20 mL min⁻¹ and 70 mL min⁻¹ using a 1AQ2-PVDF membrane contactor. The efficiency increased when the temperature increased, especially from 303 to 313 K. The experimental error in Table 2 is the deviation of the results of at least three replicated experiments. Within this range, there was a sharp drop in viscosity and low solubility losses.

Based on the results, the following observations were made: (i) as the gas flow decreased, higher residence times were recorded in the contactor and the efficiency increased; and (ii) the efficiency also increased when the temperature increased. At a gas flow rate of 20 mL min⁻¹, the absorption efficiency was 20.5% at 303 K and 29.3% at 333 K. These values allow the non-dispersive absorption using PVDF membranes and [emim][Ac] ionic liquid be considered as a promising technique for carbon dioxide capture. In

addition, working at 333K, coupled seven modules in series disposition with a gas a flow rate of 20 mL min⁻¹ around 90% of CO₂ recovery could be reached. On the other hand it is possible to place as many modules in parallel as be necessary for other gas flow rates.

3.2 Overall mass transfer parameter of CO₂ absorption with [emim][Ac] in a PVDF membrane module.

In industrial applications, the mass transfer coefficient is a crucial parameter used to estimate the size of a contactor [54]. This parameter is a diffusion rate constant that relates the mass transfer rate, mass transfer area, and concentration change as driving force.

The overall transfer coefficient, $K_{overall}$, can be experimentally determined from the CO₂ flux through the membrane. This parameter is calculated using equation 2 (Table 3):

$$N_{CO_2,g} = \frac{Q_g}{A} (C_{CO_2,in} - C_{CO_2,out}) = K_{overall} \frac{\Delta y_{lm} \cdot P_T}{RT} \quad (2)$$

where Q_g is the gas flow rate (m³ s⁻¹), A is the membrane area (m²), P_T is the total pressure in the gas phase, and Δy_{lm} is the logarithmic mean of the driving force based on the gas phase molar fractions.

Table 3 shows the values $K_{overall}$ at different gas flow rates using a hollow fibre membrane contactor with 1AQ2 fibres. The temperature was varied from 303 to 343 K. Figure 3 shows the different values obtained at flow rates of 20 and 70 mL min⁻¹. The trend was the same as that in the previous section. The differences were greater from 303 to 313 K due to the influence of viscosity and minimal variation in solubility.

3.3. A resistance-in-series approach for CO₂ absorption with [emim][Ac] in the PVDF membrane module.

The resistance-in-series approach can be used to correlate individual mass transfer resistances to the overall mass transfer resistance, $K_{overall}$. $K_{overall}$ is given by the summation of the gas, membrane and liquid film resistances, as indicated in equation 3 [36, 51, 55]:

$$R_{overall} = R_g + R_m + R_l \quad (3)$$

The liquid phase and gas phase were directed through a hollow fibre configuration in the shell side and lumen side, respectively. The mass transfer process consisted of three consecutive steps: diffusion of a gaseous component from the bulk gas phase to the outer surface of the membrane, diffusion through membrane pores to the gas-liquid interface and chemical reaction at the gas-liquid interface [56].

CO₂ absorption essentially takes place at the gas-liquid interface. The role of liquid hydrodynamic distribution (i.e., solvent velocity profile) can be expected to play a minor role [20].

The resistance in series approach (Equation 3) can also be expressed as Equation 4:

$$\frac{1}{K_{overall}} = \frac{d_o}{k_g d_i} + \frac{d_o}{k_{mg} d_{lm}} + \frac{1}{k_l H_d E} \quad (4)$$

where d_o , d_i and d_{lm} are the outside, inside and log mean diameters (m) of the hollow fibres; k_g , k_{mg} , and k_l are the individual mass transfer coefficients of the gas phase, membrane and liquid phase, respectively (m s^{-1}); E is the enhancement factor, this factor can quantify the chemical reaction effect [39, 55, 57]; $K_{overall}$ is the overall mass transfer coefficient (m s^{-1}) and H_d is the dimensionless Henry constant. H_d was calculated by Eq. 5 using the Henry's law constant (H_c) [55]:

$$H_d = H_c RT \quad (5)$$

Finally, k_l was estimated using Kartohardjono's correlation (Eq. 6) because the packing factor and Reynolds number were within range ($0.029 < \phi < 0.53$; $Re < 400$) [39]:

$$Sh = \left(\frac{k_l d_h}{D_{CO_2,l}} \right) = 0.1789 (\phi^{0.86}) Re^{0.34} Sc^{\frac{1}{3}} \quad (6)$$

where $D_{CO_2,l}$ is the diffusion coefficient of carbon dioxide in the liquid, L is the fibre length and d_h is the hydraulic diameter.

The gas and membrane phases had resistances of 0.02% and 0.23% of the overall resistance, respectively (Table 4). The liquid phase had the highest resistance to mass transfer at nearly 100% of the overall resistance. This was consistent with the obtained results in previous works [36, 39, 51, 55].

Figure 4 shows the logarithm plot of the different resistances against temperature. As expected, different resistance values of gas, liquid and membrane overlapped for different gas flow rates.

3.4. Mass transfer enhanced by the chemical reaction for CO₂ absorption with [emim][Ac] in the PVDF membrane module.

Gurau et al. (2011), reported on the single-crystal X-ray structures of solid-state products obtained from the reaction of CO₂ with acetate ILs, which confirm the reaction mechanism: the crystal structure confirmed the formation of imidazolium carboxylate molecules (Figure 1) [44].

In order to contribute to the analysis of the chemical reaction, an approach from the mass transfer results was carried out. The obtained values of $K_{overall}$ were transformed using equation 7 to compare the results from the 1AQ2 hollow fibre module with previously reported values. The transformed constant, K_r (s⁻¹) may agreed with a first-order, gas–liquid chemical reaction, indicating the accumulation of CO₂ in the liquid media [36].

$$K_r = K_{overall} \frac{\text{fiber area}}{\text{shell volume}} \quad (7)$$

The component diffusivities and the reaction rate steadily increased with the temperature. The solubility decreased as the temperature increased. The temperature increased as a response to competing phenomena and had an opposite effect on the reaction rate and solubility. This could lead to a complex absorption behaviour [56].

Table 5 compares the overall rate constant and transformed rate constant of the PVDF hollow fibre membrane contactor with other reports in the literature for different types of solvent [54, 59-65]. The fibre sizes in the 1AQ2 membrane contactor agreed with those of the literature. Mansourizadeh et al., used fibres with similar inner and outer diameters, $7.50 \cdot 10^{-4}$ and $4.20 \cdot 10^{-4}$ m, respectively [60, 61]. Taking into account the number of fibres, several authors used between 5 and 11 [54, 60-64]. However, Rongwong et al. and Wang et al., each used 35 and 150 fibres, respectively [59, 62]. For this reason, the ratios between the fibre area and the shell volume were higher in these cases.

Regarding K_{overall} , the obtained values for this study were almost one order of magnitude higher than previous works (Table 5) that used traditional solvents, such as monoethanolamine (MEA), diethylamine (DEA), adenosine monophosphate (AMP) and water. As the different parameters such as outer and inner fibre diameter, module length, number of fibres and the fibre area/shell volume are in concordance with the previous articles, the high overall mass transfer coefficient implies that the transfer carbon dioxide-ionic liquid is more facilitated than with traditional solvents. Moreover, these solvents have been traditionally associated with some operational problems due to volatility and solvent losses. Ionic liquids can be used to eliminate these drawbacks. Therefore it is worth recalling that the ILs have a number of advantages over traditional solvents, such as negligible vapour pressures, high thermal, electrochemical and chemical stability and loss less regenerative abilities [11, 35].

As in the previous sections, different values of K_r were calculated for the different temperatures and flow gas streams (Table 6).

Using the Arrhenius equation and the different values of K_r at different gas flow rates (Table 6), the activation energy was calculated according to equation 8.

$$Kr = B \cdot e^{\frac{-Ea}{R \cdot T}} \quad (8)$$

where B is a pre-exponential factor, Ea is the activation energy (J mol^{-1}), R is the gas constant $8.31 \text{ (J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}\text{)}$, and T is the temperature (K). The activation energy for [emim][Ac] in CO_2 was 9.2 kJ mol^{-1} with a confidence of $R^2=0.92$.

Table 7 compares the activation energy obtained in the present work with values for different ionic liquids in the literature [66-70]. A few observations can be made: (i) ionic liquids in the presence of other solvents, such as MEA, AMP, aprotic heterocyclic anions (AHA) or water, have higher activation energies than the value obtained herein [65-68]; and (ii) when ILs were not mixed with other solvents, the reported activation energy value agreed with the value calculated in this work. For the same [P₆₆₆₁₄] cation, Burkan et al., reported activation energies of 18 and 11 kJ mol^{-1} for the anions [3-CF₃pyra] and [2-CNpyr], respectively [70].

The reported Ea values for conventional solvents, such as amines (which react with CO_2), ranged from 40-55 kJ mol^{-1} [70]. These values were significantly higher than the results

obtained in this work using the ionic liquid [emim][Ac]. This phenomenon can be explained by a differences in the coupling mechanisms, interfacial reactions and mass transfer in the liquid phase.

An approach to describe the overall temperature dependence in reactive absorption processes has been applied to hollow fibre membrane contactors by Boucif et al. (2015) [58], based on the Shah criterion [71]. The use of an effective activation energy was proposed in terms of a parameter γ_{eff} calculated using the Equation 9.

$$\gamma_{eff} = \frac{1}{2}(\gamma_{Da} + \gamma_R) - \gamma_s \quad (9)$$

where γ are dimensionless activation energies, assuming that the solubility, the diffusivity and the reaction rate constant are Arrhenius type dependent on temperature.

γ_{eff} explains two different phenomena, on one hand an increase in diffusivity and reaction rate and on the other hand a reduction in solubility for a rise in temperature. Boucif et al., reported the different meanings of γ_{eff} as a function of its positive, negative or zero value [58].

The values of γ_{eff} obtained in this work for the interaction CO₂-[emim][Ac] are slightly upper than zero (0.4). Thus, the increase in reaction rate coefficient and diffusion coefficient with temperature may play dominant role in the overall temperature dependence.

3.5. Simulation task to estimate mass transfer and operational effects.

A set of module conditions have been evaluated (i.e., membrane mass transfer coefficient, membrane dimensions, and module design) to determine whether a significant intensification effect was present for a membrane contactor when compared with a packed column.

A long-term, stable operation of the hollow fibre membrane contactor requires that the pores of the membrane remain completely gas-filled over prolonged operational periods. If the membranes are even partially wetted, the overall mass transfer resistance increases because the absorbed gas has to diffuse through stagnant liquid inside the pores. Because aqueous alkanolamine solutions increase the potential for membrane wetting, other

absorption liquids, such as ILs, may offer higher surface tensions and more consistent performance.

The modelling of the transfer of CO₂ from the gas phase to the liquid phase through the membrane barrier was simulated using Aspen Custom Modeler software (Aspen Technology, Inc.). Figure 5 shows the coordinates of the fibre. The radial position $r=0$ is the centre of the fibre, and the axial distance of $z=0$ indicates the initial position of the gas in the fibre. The differential mass balance on CO₂ (eq. 10) was based on the following assumptions: a negligible concentration of the soluble gas in the absorption liquid, steady state and isothermal conditions, no axial diffusion, ideal gas behaviour and constant tube side and shell side pressures [72, 73].

$$u_z \frac{\partial C_{CO_2}}{\partial z} = D \left[\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\partial C_{CO_2}}{\partial r} \right) \right] \quad (10)$$

Equation 10 can be transformed assuming the gas velocity is a fully developed laminar flow [72]:

$$2u_m \left[1 - \left(\frac{r}{R} \right)^2 \right] \frac{\partial C_{CO_2}}{\partial z} = D \left[\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\partial C_{CO_2}}{\partial r} \right) \right] \quad (11)$$

Equation 11 can be rewritten in the dimensionless form:

$$\frac{Gz}{2} [1 - \bar{r}^2] \frac{\partial \bar{C}_{CO_2}}{\partial \bar{z}} = \frac{1}{\bar{r}} \frac{\partial}{\partial \bar{r}} \left(\bar{r} \frac{\partial \bar{C}_{CO_2}}{\partial \bar{r}} \right) \quad (12)$$

where the dimensionless variables are defined as:

$$\bar{r} = \frac{r}{R} \quad (13.a)$$

$$\bar{z} = \frac{z}{L} \quad (13.b)$$

$$\bar{C}_{CO_2} = \frac{C_{CO_2}}{C_{CO_2,inlet}} \quad (13.c)$$

The boundary conditions used were the following:

$$\bar{r} = 0 \rightarrow \frac{\partial \bar{C}_{CO_2}}{\partial \bar{r}} = 0 \quad (14.a)$$

$$\bar{r} = 1 \rightarrow \frac{\partial \bar{C}_{CO_2}}{\partial \bar{r}} = -\frac{Sh}{2} \bar{C}_{CO_2} \quad (14. b)$$

$$\bar{z} = 0 \rightarrow \bar{C}_{CO_2} = 1 \quad (14. c)$$

and the dimensionless numbers:

$$Gz = \frac{u_m di^2}{D L} \quad (15. a)$$

$$Sh = \frac{K_{overall} di}{D} \quad (15. b)$$

The CO₂ concentration at the outlet of the module is calculated as a dimensionless mixing cup:

$$\bar{C}_{CO_2=L} = 4 \int_0^1 \bar{C}_{CO_2} [1 - \bar{r}^2] \bar{r} d\bar{r} \quad (16)$$

The modelling results for a gas flow rate of 20 mL min⁻¹ and the parameters specified in Table 1 are shown in Figure 6. The $K_{overall}$ (1.7·10⁻⁵ m s⁻¹) obtained in paragraph 3.2 was used. Figure 6a shows the dimensionless carbon dioxide concentration and the capture efficiency along the dimensionless length at 303 K (corresponding to $K_{overall}$ value of 1.7·10⁻⁵ m s⁻¹). Figure 6b shows the simulation results for the temperature interval 303-333 K. These results closely matched the experimental values.

Different radial nodes are shown in these figures from the centre of the fibre (r=0) to the membrane surface layer (r=1). To show the difference between non-wetted and wetted modes, Figures 6a, 6c and 6d were prepared. Different nodes in the radial dimension are provided from the centre of the fibre (r=0) to the membrane surface layer (r=1). In the wetted mode, as the Graetz number is large, the concentration profile in the radial dimension builds up, and a significantly lower efficiency (8%) than that of the non-wetted mode was observed.

A sensitivity analysis was performed to estimate the mass transfer effect on the CO₂ capture efficiency operating in non-wetted mode. A 90% efficiency was the design target

[21]. Previous works that reported 90% CO₂ capture efficiencies using PVDF membrane contactors used alkanolamines, i.e., primarily MEA [74-77]. The aim of this simulation was to determine the parameters necessary to reach this efficiency using ionic liquids to provide a cleaner process without solvent loss.

Figure 7 shows different capture efficiencies for varying values of the mass transfer coefficient, $K_{overall}$ (baseline, $1.7 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$). Values greater than $1.7 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ yielded efficiencies above 90% (Figure. 7a). A more detailed analysis was carried out in Figure 7b. Values were analysed varying the Sherwood number using a fixed Graetz number. For Sherwood number values greater than $4.7 \cdot 10^{-3}$ and a fixed Graetz number ($8.0 \cdot 10^{-3}$), at least 90% efficiencies were achieved.

The intensification factor I was also calculated and shown in Figure 7a. The intensification factor reached the value of 4.5 for the target CO₂ efficiency of 90% and was calculated as the volumetric absorption capacity of the membrane contactor divided by the average volumetric absorption capacity of a packed column. The reference value of a classical packed column was estimated for $1 \text{ mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ using a 30 wt.% MEA solution [20].

Because 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium acetate provided higher $K_{overall}$ values than values reported in the literature, the use of ionic liquids is vital to making membrane contactors competitive at the industrial scale.

In the design of a membrane unit module, membrane elements can be coupled in parallel and in series. In this way, the module can be easily adjusted to achieve a desired removal efficiency. In this simulation, the fibre length was also modified to estimate the number of hollow fibre membrane contactors in series necessary to achieve at least a 90% efficiency. Figure 8a shows the influence of the fibre length. Seven membrane contactors in series (a total length of 2 m) was necessary to reach the target capture efficiency. For a constant, dimensionless Sherwood number, the Graetz number was varied (Fig. 8b). Graetz values smaller than $9.5 \cdot 10^{-4}$ allowed for high efficiencies over 90%.

Based on these simulation results, the total fibre length of 2 m of the membrane unit should be considered during scale up. The efficiency of CO₂ capture processes based on sets of membrane modules in series or in parallel that can be estimated based on the

desired flue gas flow rate. Furthermore, the footprint size of the contactors could be reduced by more than 65 % if intensification factors are considered [78].

4. Conclusions

The evaluation of carbon dioxide absorption using a poly(vinylidene fluoride) (PVDF)-[emim][Ac] hollow fibre contactor and 1-ethyl-3-methylimidazolium acetate [emim][Ac] absorption ionic liquid was experimentally verified. The results show that approximately 20-30% of carbon dioxide was recovered under a gas flow rate of 20 mL min⁻¹ from 303 to 333 K. Gas and membrane resistances were negligible compared with the overall mass transfer resistance. Liquid resistance accounted for essentially all mass transfer resistance in the contactor modules.

The mass transfer coefficients of the PVDF membrane contactors were compared with reported values in the literature. Polymeric membranes are of great interest for this application because of their hydrophobic character, their commercial availability and reasonable price.

CO₂ capture using PVDF fibres achieved a $K_{overall}$ higher than values reported in the literature for other PVDF hollow fibre membrane contactors using conventional solvents. For a gas flow rate of 20 mL min⁻¹ at 303 K, the mass transfer coefficient was 1.7·10⁻⁵ m s⁻¹.

Regarding the activation energy calculations, the hollow fibre membrane contactor with ionic liquid solvent had an activation energy of 9.2 kJ mol⁻¹. This energy barrier was much smaller than those obtained with conventional solvents reacting with CO₂ (such as MDEA at 43-44 kJ mol⁻¹). This may be explained by a coupling mechanism of the interfacial reaction between CO₂ and [emim][Ac] and the mass transfer in the liquid phase.

A theoretical simulation was carried out. For a target 90% CO₂ capture, the simulation revealed that (i) the mass transfer coefficient should be greater than 1.7·10⁻⁴ m·s⁻¹ or (ii) seven hollow fibre membrane modules in series (total length of 2 m) were necessary, being proposed for the scaling-up a network of modules in series and as many in parallel as the flue gas flow rate increases.

The intensification potential of the membrane contactor compared with a packed column performance with 30 wt.% MEA solution was estimated by the intensification factor, which reached a value of 4.5 for 90% CO₂ capture.

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Symbols used

A	[m ²]	effective membrane area
B	[-]	pre-exponential factor
D	[m ² s ⁻¹]	diffusivity
d_h	[m]	hydraulic diameter
d_i	[m]	inside diameter of the fibre
d_{lm}	[-]	log mean diameter of the fibre
d_o	[m]	outside diameter of the fibre
E	[-]	enhancement factor
E_a	[J mol ⁻¹]	activation energy
Gz	[-]	Graetz number
H_d	[-]	dimensionless Henry's law constant
H_c	[mol bar ⁻¹ L ⁻¹]	Henry's law constant
k_g	[m s ⁻¹]	mass transfer coefficient in the gas phase
k_l	[m s ⁻¹]	mass transfer coefficient in the liquid phase

k_{mg}	[m s ⁻¹]	mass transfer coefficient of the membrane
$K_{overall}$	[m s ⁻¹]	overall mass transfer coefficient
L	[m]	fibre length
n	[-]	number of fibres
N_{CO_2}	[mol m ² s ⁻¹]	absorption flux of carbon dioxide
P_T	[bar]	total pressure
Q	[m ³ s ⁻¹]	flow rate
R	[bar L mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹]	ideal gas constant
Re	[-]	Reynolds number
R_g	[s m ⁻¹]	resistance in the gas side
R_l	[s m ⁻¹]	resistance in the liquid side
R_m	[s m ⁻¹]	resistance of the membrane
$R_{overall}$	[s m ⁻¹]	overall resistance to mass transfer
Sc	[-]	Schmidt number
Sh	[-]	Sherwood number
t	[s]	time
T	[K]	temperature
u_m	[m s ⁻¹]	linear velocity

Subscripts

g gas

l liquid

in inlet of the contactor

outlet of the contactor

Greek letters

φ	[-]	packing factor
γ	[-]	dimensionless activation energy

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Figure captions

Figure 1. Proposed reaction of CO₂-[emim][Ac] [44].

Figure 2. Experimental setup for CO₂ gas capture.

Figure 3. Representation of K_{overall} values versus temperature.

Figure 4. Log Rx Vs Temperature.

Figure 5. Coordinates of the fibre.

Figure 6. Modelling results for non-wetted mode: (6a) profiles of dimensionless CO₂ concentration and process efficiency (%) along the fibre length; (6b) experimental Vs. modelling results at different temperatures. Modelling results for wetted mode: (6c, 6d).

Figure 7. Sensitivity analysis of mass transfer coefficient, K (7a), and the corresponding Sherwood number (7b).

Figure 8. Sensitivity analysis of length module, L (8a), and the corresponding Graetz number (8b). K_{overall} obtained at 333K ($2.5 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$) was used as reference value.

Table captions

Table 1. Hollow fibre membrane contactor characteristics.

Table 2. Experimental CO₂ absorption efficiency.

Table 3. K_{overall} values of CO₂ absorption with [emim][ac] in a PVDF hollow fibre membrane modules.

Table 4. Contributions to mass transfer. CO₂ absorption with [emim][Ac] in a PVDF membrane module.

Table 5. Fibre size, K_{overall} (m s^{-1}) and K_r (s^{-1}) comparison with literature values in PVDF hollow fibre membrane contactors.

Table 6. Interfacial rate constant versus temperature, CO₂+ [emim][ac], PVDF hollow fibre contactor.

Table 7. Activation energy comparison with literature values.

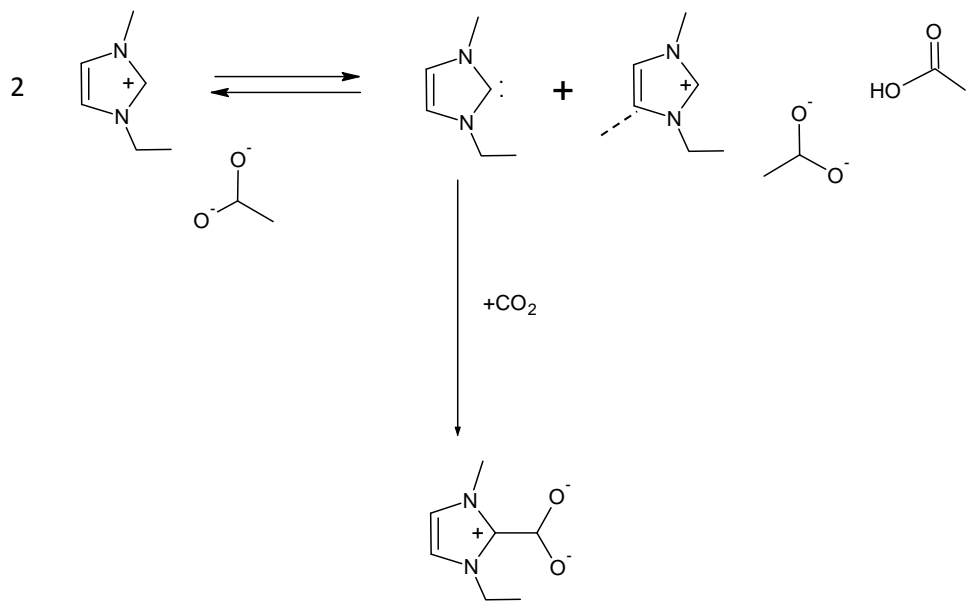


Figure 1.

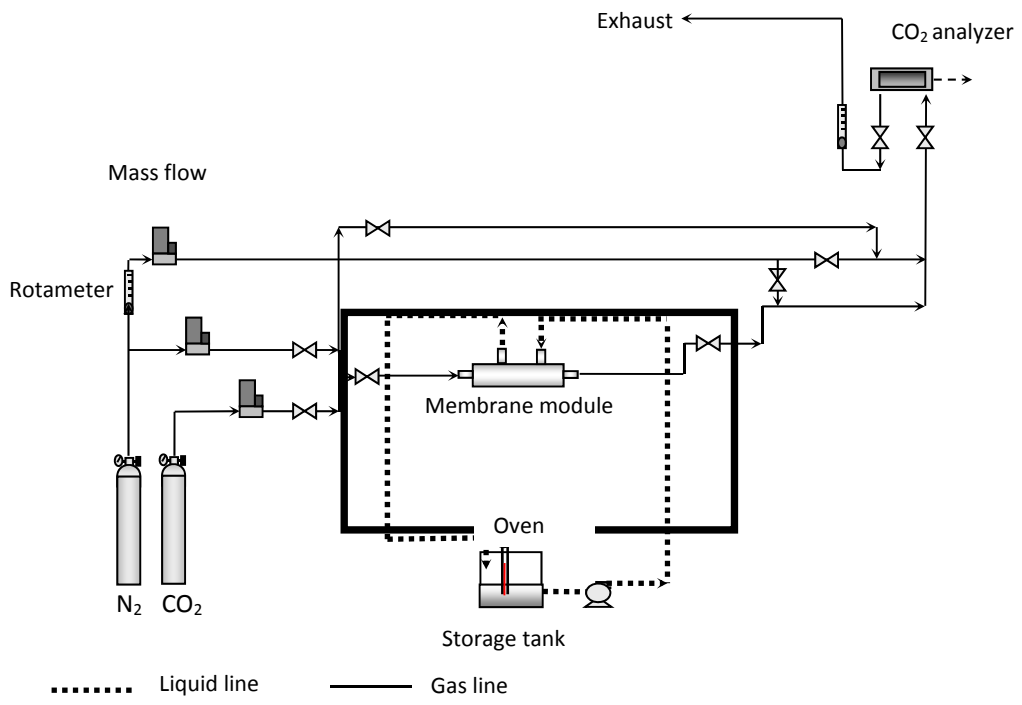


Figure 2.

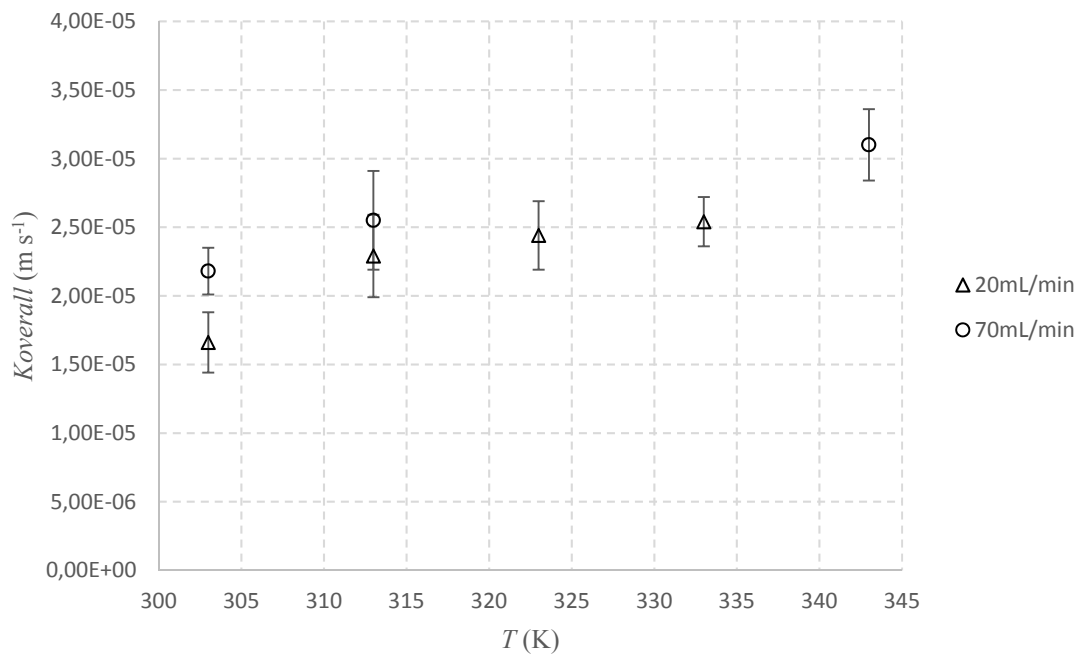


Figure 3.

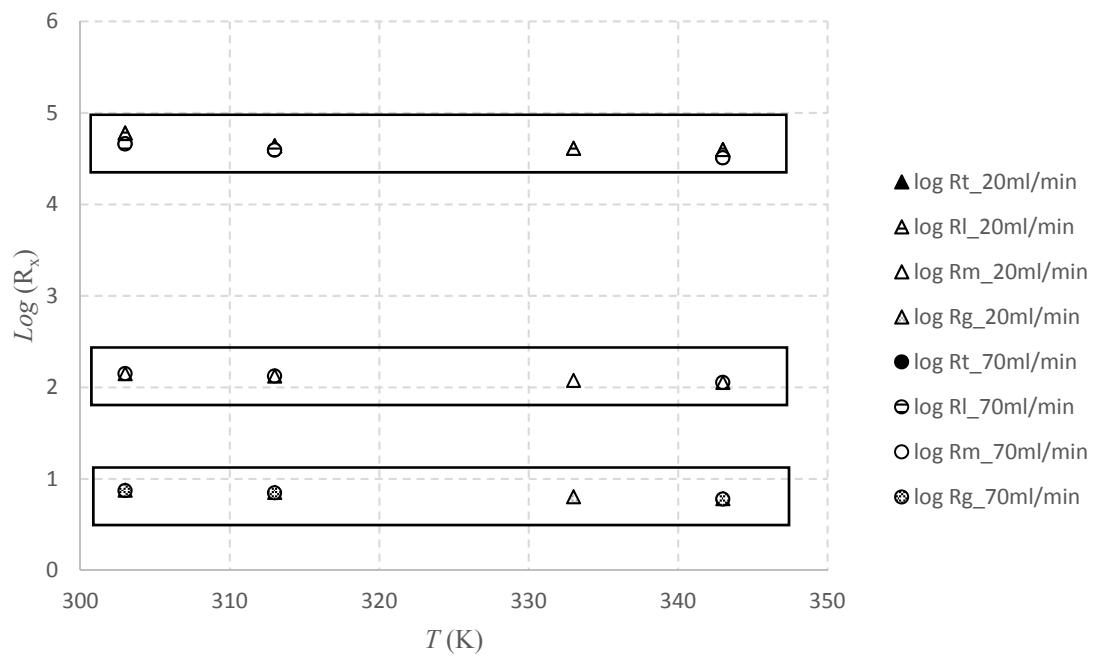


Figure 4.

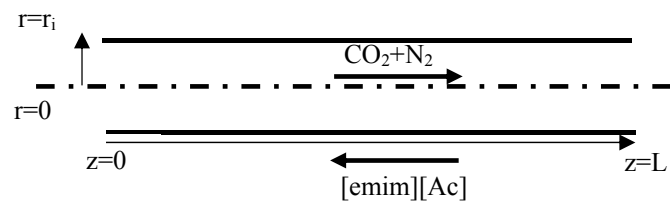


Figure 5.

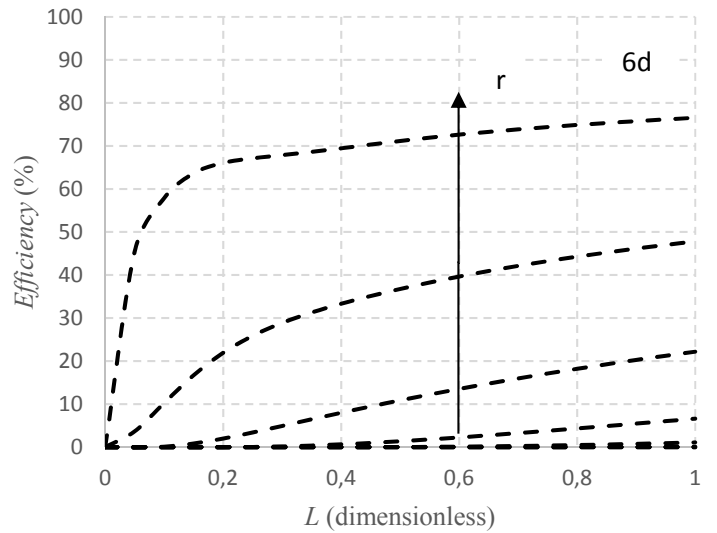
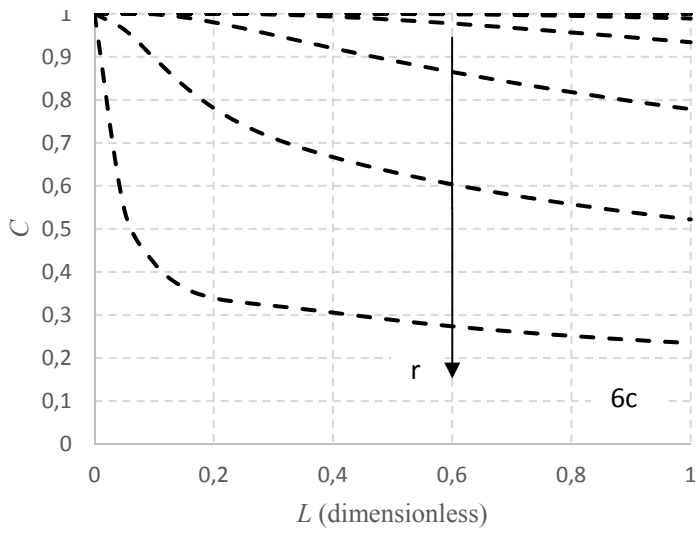
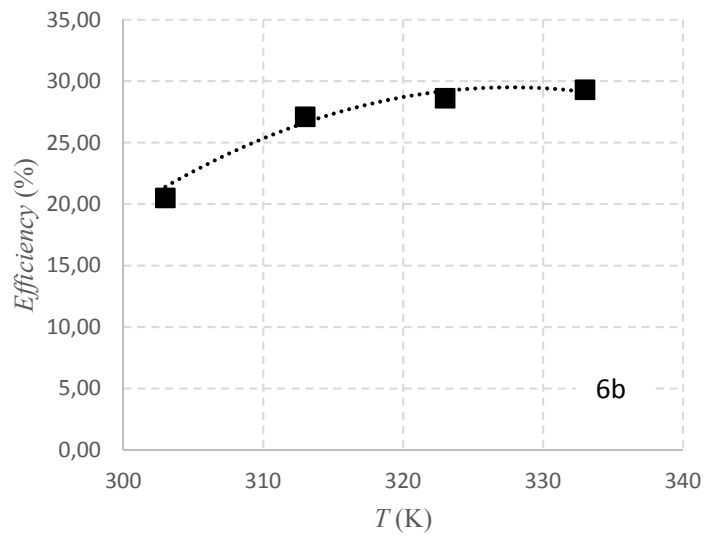
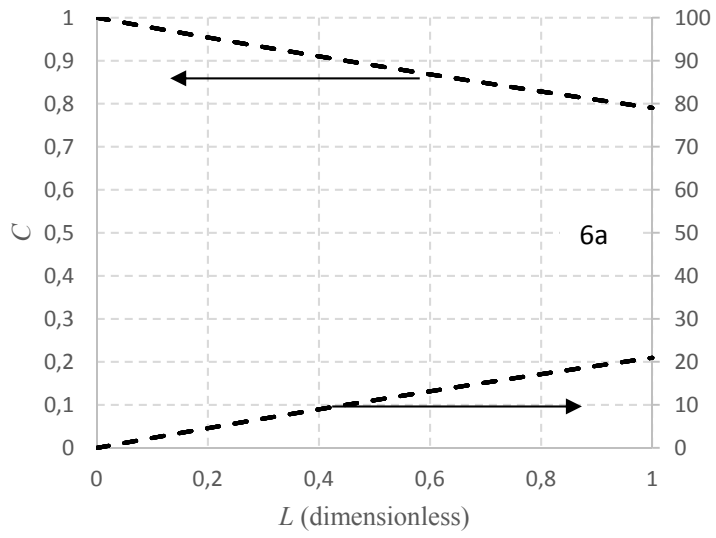


Figure 6.

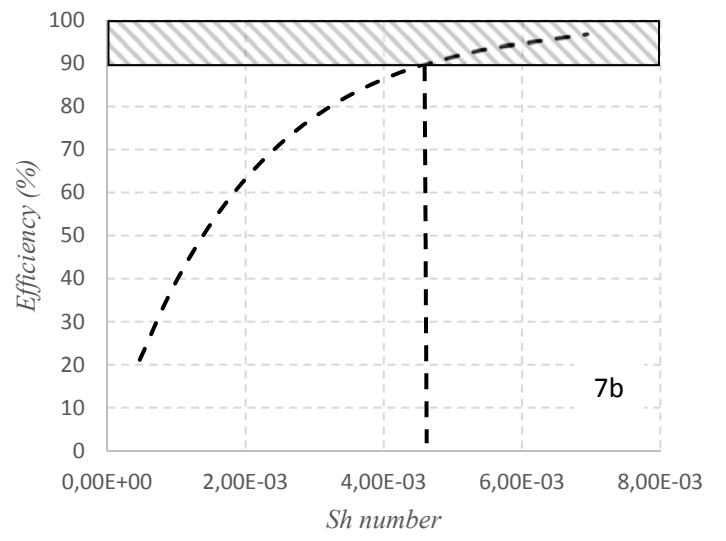
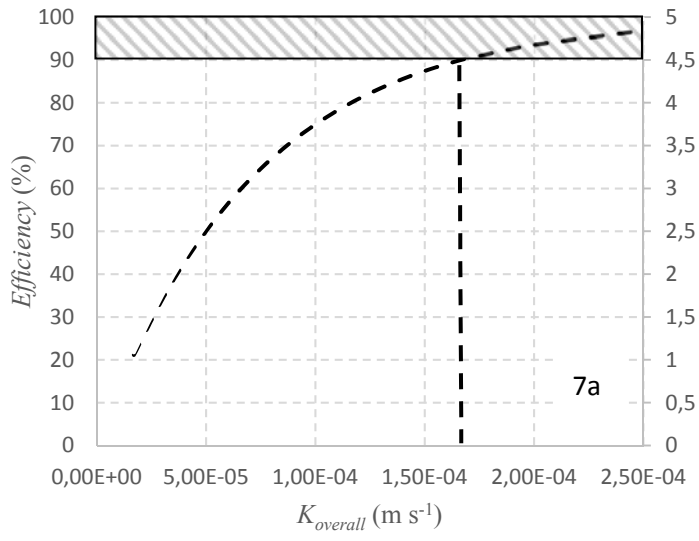


Figure 7.

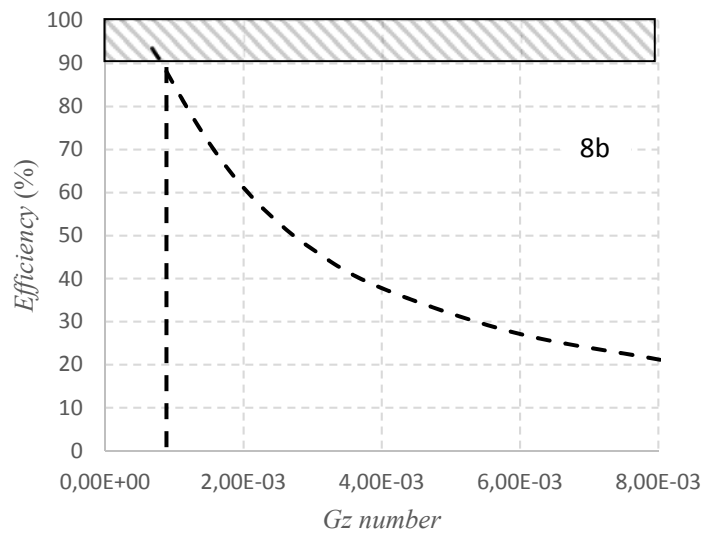
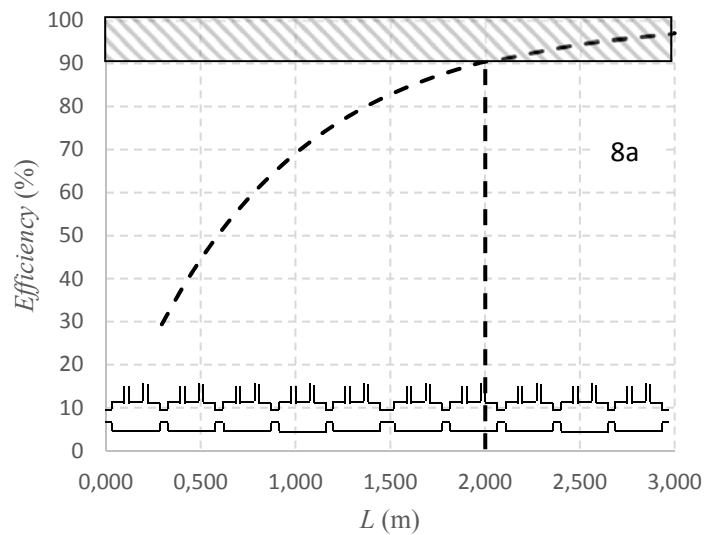


Figure 8.

Table 1.

Membrane material	1AQ2-PVDF
Fibre o.d. d_o , (m)	$7.7 \cdot 10^{-4}$
Fibre i.d. d_i , (m)	$4.51 \cdot 10^{-4}$
Fibre length, L (m)	0.295
Number of fibres, n	11
Effective inner membrane area, A (m ²)	$4.60 \cdot 10^{-3}$
Porosity (%)	30
Packing factor	0.04
Tortuosity ^a	3.33

^a Assumed $1/\text{Porosity}$

Table 2.

Qg (mL min ⁻¹)	T (K)	Efficiency (%)
20	303	20.5±2.27
	313	27.1±3.01
	323	28.6±2.51
	333	29.3±1.83
70	303	8.2±0.18
	313	9.6±0.35
	343	11.5±0.26

Table 3.

Qg(mL min ⁻¹)	T(K)	K _{overall} ·10 ⁵ (m s ⁻¹)
20	303	1.7±0.2
	313	2.3±0.3
	323	2.4±0.3
	333	2.5±0.2
70	303	2.2±0.2
	313	2.6±0.4
	343	3.1±0.3

Table 4.

Qg(mL min ⁻¹)	T (K)	Rtotal·10 ⁻⁴ (s m ⁻¹)	Rg (s m ⁻¹)	Rm·10 ⁻² (s m ⁻¹)	Rl·10 ⁻⁴ (s m ⁻¹)
20	303	6.02	7.5	1.4	6.0
	313	4.37	7.1	1.3	4.4
	323	4.10	6.4	1.2	4.1
	333	3.98	6.0	1.1	4.0
70	303	4.59	7.4	1.4	4.6
	313	3.92	7.0	1.3	3.9
	343	3.23	6.0	1.1	3.2

Table 5.

Reference	Fibre o.d., m	Fibre i.d., m	Fibre length, m	Module length, m	Module diameter, m	Number of fibres, n	Fibre Area/Shell volume, $\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$	Solvent	$K_{\text{overall}} \cdot 10^5 (\text{m s}^{-1})$	$K_r \cdot 10^3 (\text{s}^{-1})$
This work	$7.70 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.51 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.95 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$2.95 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$1.30 \cdot 10^{-2}$	11	122	IL [emim][ac]	1.70	2.00
[41]	$8.00 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$5.50 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.10 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$2.50 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$1.50 \cdot 10^{-2}$	10	84	Distilled water	1.26	1.06
[46]	$1.30 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$8.00 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.95 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$2.95 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$1.00 \cdot 10^{-2}$	35	2742	1M MEA	0.08	2.06
								1M AMP	0.04	1.10
								1M DEA	0.03	0.82
								Pure water	0.01	0.27
[47]	$7.50 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.20 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.50 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$2.70 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$1.40 \cdot 10^{-2}$	10	48	Distilled water	0.25	0.12
[48]	$7.50 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.20 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.50 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$2.70 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$1.40 \cdot 10^{-2}$	10	48	Distilled water	0.43	0.21
[49]	$1.10 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$8.00 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.40 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$2.40 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$4.00 \cdot 10^{-2}$	150	338	1M MEA	0.09	0.32
[50]	$8.50 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.75 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$1.50 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$2.70 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$1.40 \cdot 10^{-2}$	10	55	Distilled water	0.49	0.27
[51]	$1.27 \cdot 10^{-3}$	$7.52 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.50 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$4.50 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$8.05 \cdot 10^{-3}$	5	265	MEA	0.33	0.88
[52]	$8.09 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$4.54 \cdot 10^{-4}$	$2.70 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$1.75 \cdot 10^{-1}$	$1.40 \cdot 10^{-2}$	7	104	Distilled water	0.32	0.33

Table 6.

Qg(mL min ⁻¹)	T(K)	K _r ·10 ³ (s ⁻¹)
20	303	2.0
	313	2.8
	323	3.0
	333	3.1
70	303	2.7
	313	3.1
	343	3.8

Table 7.

Reference	Liquid	Ea kJ mol ⁻¹
This work	[emim][ac]	9.2
[53]	[n2224][CH ₃ COO]-nH ₂ O	21.1
[54]	4mol·L ⁻¹ MDEA	43.32
[54]	4mol·L ⁻¹ MDEA+2mol·L ⁻¹ [Bmim][BF ₄]	8.65
[55]	[N ₁₁₁₁][Gly] + AMP	40.7
[56]	30%MEA+65%[Bmim][NO ₃]+5%H ₂ O	77.11
[56]	30%MEA+60%[Bmim][NO ₃]+10%H ₂ O	63.69
[57]	[P ₆₆₆₁₄][3-CF ₃ pyra]	18
[57]	[P ₆₆₆₁₄][2-CNpyr]	11
[57]	[P ₆₆₆₁₄][Pro]+(AHA)	43
[57]	[N ₁₁₁₁][Gly]	15.4
[57]	2-((2-Aminoethyl)amino)-ethanol	32.5