- 1 The impact of ethylene glycol and hydrogen sulfide on the performance of cellulose 2 triacetate membranes in natural gas sweetening
 - Authors: H. T. Lu¹, S. Kanehashi², C. A. Scholes¹, S. E. Kentish^{1,*}
- ¹Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering, The University of Melbourne,
 Parkville, VIC3010 Australia

²Department of Organic and Polymer Materials Chemistry, Tokyo University of Agriculture
 and Technology, 3-8-1 Harumi-cho, Fuchu-shi, Tokyo 183-8538 Japan

8 Abstract

3

In natural gas sweetening, gas dehydration with glycols is typically carried out upstream of 9 membrane separation of carbon dioxide. This means that when process upsets occur, these 10 glycols can reach the membrane unit. In this work, we study the impact of two common 11 glycols (monoethylene glycol and triethylene glycol) on the gas transport performance of 12 CTA. We find that the glycol absorbed into the membrane initially obstructs the permeation 13 14 of CH₄ and CO₂ due to pore filling or antiplasticisation effects, but the permeability then increases again, indicative of polymer relaxation and a loss of crystallinity in the polymer. 15 The smaller helium molecule is significantly less affected by the presence of the glycols, 16 possibly because its lower solubility within glycol limits its movement through the swollen 17 structure. However, after removing the glycols with a methanol wash, the membrane 18 performance recovers with only a slight residual plasticisation observed. In addition, the 19 permeation of H₂S, a common contaminant within natural gas streams, was studied across a 20 range of temperatures. At the partial pressures studied (up to 0.75 kPa), H₂S had very little 21 22 effect on the membrane performance even in long-term exposure for up to 300 days.

- 23
- 24

25 Keywords: Cellulose triacetate; hydrogen sulphide; ethylene glycol; triethylene glycol;

26 plasticization.

- 27 * Corresponding author: Tel: +61 3 8344 6682; fax: +61 3 8344 4153
- 28 E-mail address: sandraek@unimelb.edu.au (S.E. Kentish)
- 29
- 30

1 1. Introduction

Natural gas is a primary energy resource that will occupy over 25% of the global electricity 2 market in the next decades, as well as acting as a transport fuel and direct heating resource 3 [1]. The composition of raw natural gas varies widely but typically contains impurities such 4 as nitrogen (N₂), carbon dioxide (CO₂), water (H₂O) and hydrogen sulphide (H₂S) that 5 require removal to meet pipeline specifications. Membrane separation has been used for 6 7 many decades for acid gas removal, known as natural gas sweetening, with advantages in energy efficiency, land footprint and a lack of chemical consumption [2]. Although many 8 new membrane materials have been developed, cellulose triacetate (CTA) membranes still 9 retain the bulk of this separation market because of their high CO_2 – methane (CH₄) 10 selectivity, commercial readiness and acceptance as a low risk option by the industry [3, 4]. 11

Raw natural gas is usually saturated with water which is generally removed upstream of the 12 membrane unit to avoid pipeline corrosion and hydrate formation [5-7]. Glycols such as 13 monoethylene glycol (MEG), diethylene glycol (DEG) and triethylene glycol (TEG) are the 14 15 most common solvents utilised for this purpose [8, 9]. Due to the extremely low vapour pressure of glycols (28Pa for monoethylene glycol [10] and <1Pa for triethylene glycol [11] 16 at 35°C), carryover of these solvents in the vapor state is usually limited. However, carryover 17 of entrained glycol droplets can occur [7]. This is a significant issue, because glycol is known 18 to plasticise polymers [12], and the entrainment of the glycol solution into the membrane unit 19 can thus alter the permselectivity of the membrane [13]. A study on the effect of MEG and 20 TEG vapours on CO₂/CH₄ separation across a facilitated transport membrane has been 21 22 reported [14]. However, to the best knowledge of the authors, there is no study on the effect of glycol solutions on the gas separation performance of CTA membranes. 23

Hydrogen sulfide is a common species in natural gas with concentration varying from 4 -24 10000 ppm [15] that will enter the membrane unit with the natural gas. Many studies on CO₂ 25 26 removal from natural gas by cellulose acetate membranes have observed the co-permeation of H₂S with CO₂ in the membrane unit [15-17]. Li et al (1987) reports the performance of 27 cellulose acetate membranes in the presence of H₂S - H₂O mixtures [18]. However, the 28 29 impact of temperature on H₂S permeation through the CTA membrane has not been well studied. Heilman et al. [19] reported the permeability and sorption of H₂S into several 30 polymer films including a cellulose acetate film manufactured by Polaroid but the results 31 presented were limited. Data on the long term effect of H₂S on CTA gas separation 32 performance is also limited. 33

In this investigation, the effect of two standard glycols, MEG and TEG, on the gas separation of CTA membranes over a 2000 hour period is investigated. The permeation of H₂S through CTA membrane at different partial pressures (0.2 - 0.75 kPa) and temperatures $(22 - 80^{\circ}\text{C})$ is

also reported, as is the long term impact of H_2S on the membrane performance over a 7200

38 hour period.

39

1 2. Experimental

2 2.1. Membrane fabrication

The polymer utilised in the investigation was a commercial cellulose triacetate powder supplied by Cellulose Company – Daicel Corporation, Japan. The degree of substitution of acetyl groups on the polymer is 2.85, corresponding to a degree of acetylation of 61.6%.

6 Dense CTA membranes were fabricated by a solvent casting method. The polymer powder was dried under vacuum at 100°C overnight prior to membrane fabrication. The dried powder 7 was then dissolved in dicholoromethane (ChemSupply, Australia) to form a 1 wt % solution. 8 The solution was filtered to remove any impurities before casting into glass petri-dishes. The 9 petri-dishes were kept covered for 24 hours for solvent evaporation. Afterward, the 10 membranes were dried under vacuum at 35°C for 24 hours and 100°C for another 24 hours 11 and the final membranes stored in a desiccator to prevent exposure to moisture. The 12 membranes were stored for two weeks before utilisation in permeability measurements, to 13 allow the initial rapid loss of permeability due to physical aging to occur. The thickness of 14 each membrane was measured with a micrometer to be in the range of 65 to 75 µm. At least 15 16 two membranes were tested for each experimental condition to confirm the reproducibility.

17 The membrane density (ρ) was determined by the buoyancy technique using a XS205 18 DualRange balance (Mettler Toledo, Australia) with maximum 0.06% error. The density was 19 based on the difference in weight of membrane samples in air (m_{air}) and in n-hexane (m_{hexane}) 20 at room condition (22 ± 1°C) (Equation 1). The density (ρ_{hexane}) of *n*-hexane (Chem-supply, 21 Australia 95%) was 0.655 g/ml as measured by a calibrated pycnometer

$$\rho = \frac{m_{\rm air}}{m_{\rm air} - m_{\rm hexane}} \rho_{\rm hexane} \tag{1}$$

23 2.2. Gas permeation measurement

A variable volume constant pressure (VVCP) gas permeation apparatus was utilised to 24 measure the permeability of gas mixtures through CTA membranes across the pressure range 25 from 100 to 900 kPa gauge and temperature range from 22 to 80°C. The gas permeation set-26 27 up has been reported in previous studies [6, 20, 21]. The H₂S mixed gas (1000ppm H₂S in balance N₂, Coregas Australia) was fed into the feed side of the permeation cell with stage 28 cut less than 0.2%. A sweep gas of absolute helium (99.99% purity, Coregas Australia) at 1 29 atm absolute pressure flowed across the permeate side of the membrane cell at 35 ml/min and 30 was directed to a gas chromatograph (490 micro GC, Agilent technologies Australia) for 31 concentration analysis. The GC was calibrated against pure N₂ and a mixture of 1000 ppm 32 H_2S in N_2 to generate the calibration curve. 33

34

22

For measuring the permeability of individual gases (He (99.99% purity, Coregas Australia), CH₄ (99.9% purity, Coregas Australia) and CO₂ (99.5% purity, BOC Australia), a constant volume - variable pressure (CVVP) gas permeation apparatus was used. The gas permeation rig was operated at 35°C and the setup was also as reported in previous studies [21, 22]. The membrane with an effective area of 10.75 cm² was installed into the permeation cell and placed under a vacuum overnight prior to the gas permeation measurement. The gas permeation coefficient, *P* (Barrer or 10⁻¹⁰ cm³(STP).cm/cm².s.cmHg), was determined from

42 the slope of the pressure versus time curve, under steady state conditions.

2.3. Static long-term aging of CTA in glycol solutions and H_2S 1

The long term impact of ethylene glycol (MEG, 99.8% purity - anhydrous, Sigma Aldrich 2 3 Inc., America) and triethylene glycol (TEG, 99% purity - 0.1% water, Chemsupply, Australia) on the CTA membranes was determined by immersing the membranes into pure 4 glycol solutions, separately at ambient conditions $(22 \pm 2^{\circ}C)$ for up to 2000 h (80 days). The 5 solutions were stored in glass containers and kept inside a desiccator to prevent exposure to 6 7 moisture. The water content of the glycol solutions was regularly determined by a volumetric Karl Fischer titrator (915 KF Ti-Touch, Metrohm AG Switzerland) to ensure the glycol 8 9 concentration remained above 99.0%, which is similar to the concentration of lean glycol in industrial dehydrators [7]. Membrane samples were removed regularly to test the sorption 10 uptake and the pure gas permeability in a "wet" state. 11

12 To determine the sorption uptake, the membrane was removed from the solution and excess liquid droplets on the membrane surfaces removed by wiping with a tissue. The membranes 13 were then weighed to record the mass uptake (m_i) . The total glycol uptake was calculated via 14 Equation 2 where m_o is the original mass of the membrane and m_{∞} the value at equilibrium 15 11 tion.

Some "wet" membrane samples were also immersed in methanol (MeOH, 99.8% purity -18 0.1% water, Chemsupply Australia) for 168 hours (1 week) to extract the glycol from the 19 membrane structure. The washed membranes were removed from the MeOH solution and 20 dried by vacuum overnight before testing the gas permeation in this "dry" state. To confirm 21 22 the extraction efficiency of MeOH, thermogravimetric analysis was conducted (TGA 209 F1 Libra®, Netzsch Australia). 23

Fresh CTA membranes were also aged in pure methanol at ambient conditions for up to 550 24 hours. The wet membranes were removed from the solution and dried in vacuum overnight to 25 evaporate all methanol before testing. 26

Similarly, the long-term impact of H₂S on the performance of CTA membranes was 27 conducted by placing dense membranes in a sealed chamber at room temperature $(22 \pm 2^{\circ}C)$. 28 29 The chamber was evacuated and then filled with the experimental gases (1000ppm H₂S in balance N₂ or pure N₂) to 750 kPa absolute pressure. After a specified aging period of up to 30 7200 hours (300 days), the membranes were removed and the permeability recorded. The 31 chamber was evacuated for around 5 minutes to remove the toxic gases before opening and 32 33 removing the membranes.

- Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) was used to determine the glass transition 34 35 temperature (T_g) of original and "wet" state CTA using a differential scanning calorimeter DSC 8500 with a DSC high pressure cell addendum (Perkin Elmer, Australia). The heating 36 rate was 20°C/min, from 22°C to 250°C, under 1600 kPa nitrogen pressure to prevent glycol 37 38
- evaporation. The T_g was determined by the centre point of the endothermic transition. The result for MEG was compared to the Fox equation for ideal mixtures (Equation 3) [23, 24]. 39

1
$$\frac{1}{T_g} = \frac{w_1}{T_{g1}} + \frac{w_1}{T_{g2}}$$
 (3)

where $w_{l_{i}} T_{gl}$, $w_{2_{i}} T_{g2}$ are the weight fraction and glass transition temperature in Kelvin of CTA and glycol, respectively. The Tg of pure CTA was taken as $190 \pm 5^{\circ}$ C [25] while that of MEG was -118°C [26]. It was not possible to find the glass transition temperature for pure TEG.

6 Wide angle X-ray diffraction (WAXD) analysis was conducted to study the impact of glycols 7 on the crystallinity of the CTA polymer. A D8 Advance Diffractometer (Bruker, Germany) 8 was used to analyse the membranes over a 2 θ range from 5° to 35° at a rate of 0.02° every 5 9 seconds with a Ni-filtered CuK_{α} radiation source, 30mA and 40kV. Bragg's equation was 10 applied to calculate the mean distance, *d*-spacing, between polymer chains (Equation 4),

11 $\lambda = 2d \sin \theta$

(4)

12 Where λ is the radiation wavelength (1.54 Å) and θ is the incident angle.

13 **3. Results and discussion**

14 *3.1. Sorption Uptake of glycol liquids in Cellulose Triacetate*

The sorption uptake of both MEG and TEG (**Figure 1**) shows a sigmoidal shape which indicates that while the glycols initially swell the CTA membrane by Fickian diffusion, polymer relaxation or plasticisation occurs as the solute concentration increases [27-30]. The transition from Fickian diffusion to non-Fickian polymer relaxation occurs at roughly 30 hours of exposure of these 70µm membranes to the solution. It should be noted that the transition time would be of the order of seconds for commercial membranes where the active layer is of the order of a hundred nanometers in thickness.

The equilibrium solubilities of the two penetrants are summarised in **Table 1**. The solubility of the glycols is greater for TEG than MEG by mass (**Figure 1**). However, comparison on a

molar basis indicates that the CTA membrane accommodates similar amounts of both glycols.

25

26 Table 1 Solubility of glycols in the CTA membrane

Liquids		MEG	TEG
Molecular Weight (g/mol)		62.1	150.2
Salubility	wt %	18.8 ± 0.4	37.7 ± 0.7
Solubility	mol/100g polymer	0.30 ± 0.006	0.25 ± 0.005



Figure 1 The sorption kinetics of ethylene glycol (MEG) and triethylene glycol (TEG)
solutions in a CTA membrane (70μm thickness) at 22°C: (a) mass basis and (b) molar basis.
The dashed lines are added to guide the eye.

1 3.2. Impact of glycol liquids on CTA membrane performance

2 3.2.1. The impact of methanol on CTA membrane in glycol extraction step

3 The impact of these glycols on CTA membrane performance was determined by testing the

4 permeation of pure He and CH_4 through the original fresh membranes, the "wet" membranes 5 (after absorbing glycols for a specified time) and the "dry" membranes (after removal of the

6 glycols). As the saturation partial pressures of the glycols are relatively low (11 Pa for MEG

7 and <1 Pa for TEG at 20°C [7, 14]), the removal of the glycols from "wet" CTA membranes

8 was not possible by simple drying, but was instead conducted by solvent exchange with

9 methanol prior to drying. Thermogravimetric analysis for the "dry" CTA confirmed that both

10 glycols and methanol were removed totally by this solvent exchange.

11 The selection of methanol as a glycol solvent was based on Hildebrand and Hansen solubility

theory, which suggests that effective solubilisation is favoured between components having least heat of sorption per unit volume [31-33]. The approach defines three solubility

parameters, a hydrogen bonding component (δ_h), a polar interaction component (δ_p) and a

- nonpolar interaction component (δ_d). The Hansen solubility parameter is the square root of
- the sum of squares of these components [31, 33] with similar values indicating good mutual
- 17 solubility. Specifically, the mutual solubility of components is strongest when the radius of
- interaction between the Hansen solubility parameters is smallest [31] (**Table 2**). As a result,

19 the solubility of methanol – glycol mixtures system is more favoured than methanol – CTA

20 or glycol – CTA mixtures. A solubility envelope for CTA polymer was constructed by Klein

et al. (1975) based on Hansen's approach [34] and the liquids utilised in this study are outside

- the boundary. This further indicates that there will be no dissolution of the CTA polymer into
- the solutions during the sorption and aging experiments.

Components	MEG	MeOH	TEG	СТА
Hydrogen bonding components (δ_h) , MPa ^{0.5}	26.0	22.3	18.6	11.0
Polar interaction components (δ_p) , MPa ^{0.5}	11.0	12.3	12.5	12.7
Nonpolar interaction components (δ_d) , MPa ^{0.5}	17.0	15.1	16.0	18.6
Hansen solubility parameter [*] (<i>ð</i>), MPa ^{0.5}	33.7	29.6	27.5	25.1
Radius of interaction ^{**} between components and CTA ($R_{component - CTA}$), MPa ^{0.5}	15.4	13.3	9.2	0
Radius of interaction ^{**} between components and methanol $(R_{component - methanol}), MPa^{0.5}$	5.5	0	4.1	13.3
*Hansen solubility parameter $\delta = \sqrt{\delta_h^2 + \delta_p^2 + \delta_d^2}$, MPa ^{0.5}				

Table 2 Hildebrand and Hansen solubility parameters of different liquids and CTA [31, 33]

** Radius of interaction:
$$R_{ij} = \sqrt{({}^{i}\delta_h - {}^{j}\delta_h)^2 + ({}^{i}\delta_p - {}^{j}\delta_p)^2 + 4({}^{i}\delta_d - {}^{j}\delta_d)^2}$$
), MPa^{0.5}

25

1 *3.2.2.* The impact of glycols on CTA membrane performance

The impact of contact with MEG on the permeability of He and CH₄ through the CTA 2 membrane is shown in Figure 2. Over the first 30 hours, the "wet" membranes showed a 3 significant decline in both helium and methane permeability (Figure 2a). This decline is too 4 great to be caused by physical aging alone (see Section 3.4). Rather, it suggests that the 5 absorbed MEG reduces either the diffusivity and solubility of penetrants through the 6 membrane matrix [35]. As helium is not strongly adsorbed to any polymer, it is unlikely that 7 the decline in He permeability results from competitive sorption. This suggests that the 8 decline in this permeability occurs through a 'pore blocking' mechanism [35, 36], where 9 MEG molecules occupy the free volume and block pathways through the polymer structure, 10 causing a loss of diffusivity. This phenomenon is often referred to as "anti-plasticisation" [37, 11 Conversely, the loss in CH₄ permeability could occur through either competitive 12 381. sorption or pore blocking, or a combination of both. 13

14 A dramatic increase in CH₄ permeation occurs at the 30 hour mark, which is a time roughly 15 comparable to that observed earlier for the onset of polymer relaxation (Figure 1). However, no comparable impact is observed in He permeability. Polymer relaxation will impact the 16 larger molecule (CH₄) significantly more than He, as larger free volume elements are created 17 [39, 40]. It is also likely that CH₄ can more readily penetrate the glycol-rich regions that form 18 in the membrane, as it has significantly greater solubility in MEG than Helium (see Table 3). 19 20 Therefore, the MEG continues to obstruct the diffusion of He in the "wet" membrane, resulting in a continuous decline of He permeability (Figure 2a). Consequently, the He/CH₄ 21 gas selectivity also drops significantly once polymer relaxation commences (Figure 2c). 22

23

24	Table 3 Henry's Law coefficient (MPa) for gases in glycols at 298K

	CO_2	CH_4	He
MEG	78.5 ^a [62]	968.6 ^a [62]	6775[63]
		656.3[63, 64]	
TEG	11.95[65]	179.2[65]	1410 ^b
	10.5 ^b	177 ^b	

²⁵ ^aData is at 303K

²⁶ ^bCalculated using the Glycol package within Aspen HYSYS V8.6 at 1 Bar total pressure.







Figure 2 Change in permeability of He and CH₄ as time progresses at 35°C and 750 kPa feed pressure for CTA membranes: (a) aged in ethylene glycol (MEG) solution at 22°C; (b) aged in MEG and washed by methanol for 168 hours at 22°C; and (c) He/CH₄ selectivity. The dashed lines are added to guide the eye.

6

After extracting MEG from the CTA membrane with methanol, both He and CH_4 show a small, but significant increase in permeability with time (**Figure 2b**). The increase is greater for the larger CH_4 than for He, again suggesting that it is caused by a net increase in free volume. This implies that even after the complete removal of the glycol, the polymer structure is not fully recovered from the effects of polymer relaxation. This result is also supported by a decrease in the density of the "dry" membranes after aging in glycols in comparison with fresh CTA (**Table 4**).

14 **Table 4** Density of CTA membranes before and after aging in glycol and methanol.

		Density (g/ml)	
Glycols	"Dry" CTA membranes after aging in glycols for 2000 hours	"Dry" CTA membranes after aging in methanol for 550 hours	Original CTA membranes
MEG	1.277 ± 0.008	1 207 + 0.002	1 200 + 0 001
TEG	1.270 ± 0.010	1.297 ± 0.003	1.299 ± 0.001

- 1 Control membranes aged in methanol alone did not show the same increase in permeability
- 2 with time (Supporting information, Fig. S1). Methanol has been reported to plasticise CTA
- 3 in a pervaporation study [41], but the effect is minimal here, relative to the greater impact of
- 4 the glycol exposure.
- 5 The impact of TEG on the CTA membrane was also studied as shown in **Figure 3**. The trends
- 6 in performance are identical, with the magnitude significantly greater. This reflects the higher
- 7 solubility of TEG in CTA (**Table 1**) and in turn, the higher solubility of CH₄ in TEG (**Table**
- 8 **3**).





Figure 3 Change in permeability of He and CH₄ as time progresses at 35°C and 750 kPa feed pressure for CTA membranes: (a) aged in triethylene glycol (TEG) solution at 22°C; (b) aged in TEG and washed by methanol for 168 hours at 22°C; and (c) He/CH₄ selectivity. The dashed lines are added to guide the eye.

It is notable that the permeability enhancement after removal of the glycols with methanol is quite similar, at around 10% over the aging period. The plasticising effect of TEG on the CTA membrane is likely stronger than MEG given the lower Hansen radius of interaction for the TEG – CTA pair (Table 2). However, there are fewer moles of TEG absorbed per unit of CTA membrane and the solution uptake is slower (**Figure 1b**), meaning that the effective plasticising molar concentration is lower at any given time during the aging process. All these aspects result in the similar plasticisation effect of TEG and MEG on the CTA membrane.

13

14 3.2.3. The impact of glycols on CO_2 permeation through CTA membrane

The impacts of MEG and TEG on the permeation of CO₂ were also studied by testing the 15 permeability of CO₂ with 200 kPa feed pressure (Table 5). The feed pressure was selected to 16 prevent CO_2 – induced plasticisation which can occur between 500 – 1200 kPa CO_2 pressure 17 18 depending upon the degree of acetylation, membrane thickness and testing temperature [39, 42, 43]. In general, the impact of glycols on CO₂ permeation is similar to the impact on CH₄. 19 The absorption of glycols into membranes enhanced the permeability of CO₂ and the impact 20 was more significant in membranes aged in TEG. In addition, the CO₂ permeability through 21 22 the "dry" membranes was also enhanced due to the residual plasticisation arising from the glycol absorption. 23

The permeability ratio for CO₂ in both the "wet" and "dry" membranes was lower than that of 1 CH_4 . This reflects the smaller kinetic diameter of CO_2 [40], which means that its diffusivity is 2 less affected by polymer relaxation. Further, while CO₂ has a stronger affinity for glycol than 3 CH₄ (see Table 3), the ratio of the Henry's Law coefficients suggests a solubility selectivity 4 5 for CO₂/CH₄ in pure glycol of around 12. This selectivity ratio is lower than that observed for pure CTA (28 \pm 1), suggesting that movement through glycol rich regions of the membrane is 6 less CO₂ selective than in the dry polymer. Consequently, the selectivity of CO₂/CH₄ declines 7 8 slightly in the 'wet' polymer.

9

Table 5 The impact of glycols on the change of permeabilities (*P*) of CH₄ and CO₂ and CO₂/CH₄ gas selectivity ($\alpha_{CO2/CH4}$) of CTA membrane at 35°C

		Ratio of P(CO ₂)*	Ratio of P(CH ₄)*	Ratio of $\alpha_{CO2/CH4}$
"Wat" OT * *	Aged in MEG	1.34 ± 0.04	1.44 ± 0.02	0.93 ± 0.03
wet CIA	Aged in TEG	2.88 ± 0.1	3.61 ± 0.04	0.80 ± 0.03
"D" CT A	Aged in MEG	1.19 ± 0.01	1.21 ± 0.04	0.98 ± 0.04
DIY CIA	Aged in TEG	1.18 ± 0.04	1.20 ± 0.02	0.99 ± 0.04

* Permeability relative to the fresh CTA membrane i.e. $P(CO_2) = 7.20 \pm 0.2$ barrer, $P(CH_4) = 0.254 \pm 0.007$ barrer and $\alpha_{CO2/CH4} = 28 \pm 1$. The permeation pressures were 200 kPa absolute for pure CO₂ and 750 kPa absolute for pure CH₄.

 ** The aging times for CTA membranes in MEG was 1440 hours in comparison with 2000 hours in case of TEG

12

13

14 *3.2.4.* The impact of glycols on the glass transition temperature and crystallinity

15 The dramatic changes in solubility and permeability that occur after 30 hours of immersion of the membranes in glycol are clearly caused by polymer relaxation of some type. Such 16 changes are also often related to a fall in the glass transition temperature as the composition 17 of the membrane material changes, so that this dramatic shift also correlates to a transition 18 from a glassy to a rubbery state. However, DSC measurements of the glycol-swollen 19 membranes suggest that the transition to a rubbery state does not occur under the conditions 20 shown here, as this temperature does not fall to the experimental temperature (22 - 35°C) 21 (Figure 4). 22





Figure 4 The change in glass transition temperature as glycol is sorbed into CTA, measured
 by dynamic scanning calorimetry (DSC) and calculated from the Fox Equation (T_g of MEG is
 -118°C [26]).

5 It is well known that the CTA polymer can contain areas of crystallinity. WAXD analysis was consistent with these reports with two typical semi-crystalline peaks observed at $2\theta \sim 10^{\circ}$ 6 7 [35, 44, 45] and 17° [46, 47], and a van der waals amorphous halo at $20 - 21^{\circ}$ [45, 46, 48, 49] 8 in the fresh CTA membrane (Figure 5). By using an X-ray diffraction deconvolution method 9 [50], the crystallinity index of this membrane was calculated to be $56 \pm 5\%$ which is compatible with the literature [51]. However, exposure of this membrane to liquid MEG and 10 TEG resulted in an increase in the relative intensity of the amorphous peak in comparison 11 with the crystalline peaks of the WAXD scan. The crystallinity index dropped to $47 \pm 3\%$ 12 when aged in MEG and $32 \pm 6\%$ when aged in TEG. This increase in the amorphous nature 13 of the "wet" membrane arises from the polymer relaxation described above. The greater 14 decrease in crystallinity caused by TEG is also consistent with the stronger affinity of TEG to 15 CTA than MEG (Table 2). 16



Figure 5 Wide angle X-Ray Diffraction (WAXD) results for CTA membranes when (a)
saturated with glycols; and (b) after washing with methanol; in comparison with a fresh CTA
membrane.

After removal of the glycols by methanol, the relative intensity of the amorphous peak reduced again and the crystallinity index recovered to $53 \pm 1\%$ and $50 \pm 3\%$ for membranes aged in MEG and TEG, respectively. Again, the lower crystallinity of "dry" membranes in comparison with fresh CTA confirmed the partial recovery of the polymer as concluded in section 3.2.2.

6

7 3.3. Permeation of hydrogen sulphide on CTA membrane

8 The permeability of H₂S and N₂ through the CTA membranes was studied at different feed pressures (Figure 6). For the temperature range $22 - 80^{\circ}$ C, the permeability of H₂S was 9 independent of the feed gas pressure within the error margins, and was between 4.7 and 10.2 10 Barrer, rising with temperature. The H₂S permeability coefficient measured in this 11 investigation is higher than reported in the literature (summarised in Table 6). The deviation 12 may due to the difference in degree of acetyl substitution (DS). A lower degree of acetyl 13 14 substitution results in less free volume within the membrane matrix and thus a lower diffusivity [51]. However, it also probably reflects the lower H₂S partial pressures applied in 15 this study. At these lower partial pressures the Langmuir component of the sorption isotherm 16 is more dominant, resulting in higher solubility [36, 52]. There was no evidence of H₂S 17 18 plasticization of the CTA membrane, as indicated in Figure 6a. To the best knowledge of the authors, only one study has observed plasticisation of CTA by H₂S, and this was at a much 19 higher partial pressure of 69 kPa [18, 53, 54]. 20

Polymer	Feed gas conditions	Partial pressure (kPa)	Temperature (°C)	P _{H2S} (Barrer)	Reference
			22	4.7 ± 0.2	
СТА	1000 ppm H_2S in	0.1 0.0	35	5.9 ± 0.1	– This
(DS 2.9)	balance N ₂	0.1 - 0.8 508.1	8.1 ± 0.1	study	
			80	10.2 ± 0.1	_
		94	0	1.3	
		94	94 0 1.3 94 15 2.0 $23 - 94$ 30 3.3 ± 0.2	-	
CA film (DS not stated)	H ₂ S 99.9% purity	23 - 94		3.3 ± 0.2	[19]
(DS not stated)	-	98	45	4.5	_
		93	60	6.1	_
Cellulose diacetate (DS 2.45)	H ₂ S/CO ₂ /CH ₄ (6/29/65)	60	35	2.1	[66]
Asymetric CA (DS not stated)	H ₂ S/CO ₂ /CH ₄	68.9	25	4.17	[16]

22 **Table 6** The permeability of hydrogen sulphide in cellulose acetate membranes







1

Figure 6 Gas permeability in CTA membranes with a feed gas of 1000ppm H₂S in balance N₂ (a) permeability of H₂S; (b) permeability of N₂: (c) H₂S/N₂ gas selectivity.

5 The permeability of nitrogen was also independent of feed pressure, indicative of standard 6 behaviour for this inert gas (**Figure 6b**). The H_2S/N_2 gas selectivity (**Figure 6c**) showed the 7 favourable permeation of H_2S in the membrane over N_2 . Similar phenomena has been 8 observed when introducing $H_2S - N_2$ gases through other glassy polymers, such as 9 polysulfone and cyclic perfluoroether [55]. This is due to the higher critical temperature of 10 H_2S which results in greater solubility.

11

12 The permeability coefficients of H₂S and N₂ at a zero partial pressure differential ($\Delta p_i \rightarrow 0$ 13 kPa) were extrapolated from the data presented in **Figure 6**. This enables the activation 14 energy for permeation (E_P) to be determined (**Table 7**). The positive values of E_P for all gas 15 species in this investigation suggest that diffusivity is dominant over solubility [56]. 16 Furthermore, the activation energy is higher for the gas species with lower critical 17 temperature (lower gas sorption), again reflecting a lower heat of sorption [57, 58].

18 Table 7 Activation energy for permeation in CTA membrane at zero pressure

	${\rm CH_4}^*$	N_2	$\mathrm{CO_2}^*$	H_2S	$\mathrm{SO_2}^*$
Kinetic diameter (Å) [67]	3.80	3.64	3.30**	3.60	3.60
Critical temperature (K) [68]	190.6	126.2	304.2	373.2	430.8
Activation energy for permeation,	18.6	18.7	8.5	10.1	7.3
E _p (kJ/mol)	± 0.2	± 2	± 0.7	± 0.7	± 0.7

19 * The permeability of methane and carbon dioxide were reported in a previous study [21]

20 ** Some recent studies argue that the kinetic diameter of CO_2 relevant to diffusion could be larger at 3.43 - 3.63

21 Å [40, 69, 70]

- 1 Heilman et al. reported an activation energy for H_2S permeation of 19 kJ/mol [19] when
- 2 operating with a feed pressure of 94 kPa in comparison with 10.1 kJ/mol calculated in this
- 3 study (Figure 7). Again, the deviation may be due to differences in both degree of acetylation
- 4 and operating pressures.



Figure 7 The permeability coefficients of H₂S as a function of temperature at zero partial
pressure differential (this study) and 94 kPa (Heilman et al.[19])

8

9 3.4. Long-term aging of CTA membrane in H_2S

10 The long-term impact of H_2S on CTA membranes was studied by aging the membranes 11 separately in 1000 ppm H_2S in balance N_2 and in pure N_2 . After a specified aging period up 12 to 7200 hours, the membranes were tested for the permeation of pure He and CH₄ at 35°C and 13 750 kPa absolute feed pressure. To reduce the variability between membrane samples, the 14 change of permeability and selectivity of the aged membranes as time progresses is expressed 15 as the ratio of permeability and He/CH₄ selectivity of the aged membranes to the original 16 fresh membrane (**Figure 8**).



Figure 8 Change in (a) permeability of He and CH_4 and (b) He/CH₄ selectivity as time progresses for CTA membranes at 35°C, 750 kPa after aging separately in 1000 ppm H₂S in balance N₂ and pure N₂ at 750 kPa and 22 ± 2°C. The permeability of He and CH_4 in a fresh CTA membrane was 21.6 ± 0.2 barrer and 0.265 ± 0.009 barrer, respectively, giving an He/CH₄ gas selectivity at 81 ± 3. The dashed lines are added to guide the eye.

- 1 Gas permeability generally falls with time due to the densification of membrane matrix as
- 2 observed in Figure 8a and in other studies [21, 56, 59, 60]. As observed in section 3.2.2, the
- 3 changes in free volume impact most the penetrant of larger kinetic diameter (CH_4) [21, 56,
- 4 59]. Consequently, the He/CH_4 selectivity is enhanced during aging as indicated in Figure
- 5 **8b**.

Figure 8 showed that the aging process of CTA membranes was not affected by the presence of 0.75 kPa partial pressure of H_2S . This is consistent with the H_2S permeability result in **Figure 6**, where no plasticisation is observed for these partial pressures of H_2S on the CTA membranes at the same pressure and temperature. The partial pressure of H_2S in a natural gas sweetening process is typically 0.02 - 3 kPa (assuming 30 bar operating pressure) [15], which is much lower than the plasticisation pressure for H_2S , observed to be up to 69 kPa in the presence of $CO_2[18, 54]$. This result is confirmed by the present work.

13

14 4. Conclusions

The impact of glycols on dense CTA membranes has been studied for up to 2000 hours. The 15 absorption of ethylene glycol and triethylene glycol into the CTA membrane enhanced the 16 permeation of CH₄ and CO₂ through the wet membranes but resulted in a gradual decline in 17 the permeation of He. This reflected relaxation of the polymer structure. In particular, 18 WAXD analysis confirmed that a significant loss of crystallinity occurred during exposure to 19 20 these glycols, providing more accessible free volume in the structure. Methane and CO₂ were able to move through the glycol-rich regions within the swollen membrane, whereas these 21 regions blocked the movement of He. It should be noted that the changes in free volume 22 observed here, while similar in magnitude, are expected to occur much faster in the thinner 23 active layers (<1 micron) used in industrial membrane systems [59, 61]. 24

Importantly, the use of a methanol wash was able to reverse these effects, with only small residual swelling observed after removal of the glycol. The use of such a methanol wash may be an important mitigation strategy when glycol overflow into the membrane unit occurs in industrial practice. However, it would require careful application to prevent a collapse of the structure of the porous support layer of the membrane during methanol removal due to surface tension effects.

This study has also shown that cellulose triacetate membranes are stable upon exposure to 0.75 kPa H₂S for up to 7200 hours. No plasticisation was observed after aging the membranes at 0.75 kPa H₂S and 22°C for 7200 hours. However, it should be noted that in many applications of CTA in natural gas sweetening, the H₂S partial pressures are considerably higher than studied here and the onset of plasticisation cannot be discounted in such scenarios.

37

38 Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge the funding support for this research project from The University of Melbourne, Particulate and Fluid Processing Centre (PFPC), the Peter Cook

- 40 University of Melbourne, Particulate and Fluid Processing Centre (PFPC), the Peter Cook
 41 Centre for Carbon Capture and Storage Research at the University of Melbourne and Brown
- Centre for Carbon Capture and Storage Research at the University of Melbourne and Brown
 Coal Innovation Australia (BCIA). The X-ray diffraction anlaysis was performed within the

Materials Characterisation and Fabrication Platform (MCFP) at the University of Melbourne and the Victorian Node of the Australian National Fabrication Facility (ANFF). The specialist gas infrastructure was funded by the Australian Research Council (LE120100141) and by the Australian Government Education Investment fund and this support is also gratefully acknowledged.

6

7 **References**

8	1.	Cole, W.J., K.B. Medlock Iii, and A. Jani, A view to the future of natural gas and
9		electricity: An integrated modeling approach. Energy Economics.
10	2.	Wang, M., et al., <i>Post-combustion CO2 capture with chemical absorption: A state-of-</i>
11		<i>the-art review</i> . Chemical Engineering Research and Design, 2011. 89 (9). p. 1609-
12	2	
13	3.	Baker, R.W., Membrane Technology and Applications. 2nd Ed. 2004, California,
14		U.S.: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
15	4.	Henis, J.M.S. and M.K. Tripodi, A Novel Approach to Gas Separation Using
16		Composite Hollow Fiber Membranes. Separation Science and Technology, 1980. 15:
17		p. 1059.
18	5.	Løkken, T., et al. Water content of high pressure natural gas: data, prediction and
19		experience from field. in IGRC (International Gas Union Research Conference).
20		2008.
21	6.	Anderson, C.J., et al., The performance of carbon membranes in the presence of
22		condensable and non-condensable impurities. Journal of Membrane Science, 2011.
23		378 (1–2): p. 117-127.
24	7.	Kohl, A.L. and R.B. Nielsen, Chapter 11 - Absorption of Water Vapor by
25		Dehydrating Solutions, in Gas Purification (Fifth Edition). 1997, Gulf Professional
26		Publishing: Houston. p. 946-1021.
27	8.	Lokhandwala, K.A., R.W. Baker, and K.D. Amo, Sour gas treatment process. 1995,
28		Membrane Technology and Research, Inc., Menlo Park, California.
29	9.	Gavlin, G. and B. Goltsin, Gas dehydration process. 1998, Gas Research Institute.
30		Chicago. Illinois.
31	10.	MEGlobal. Ethylene Glycol - Product Guide. 2008 [cited 2014 9-Oct]; Available
32		from: http://www.meglobal.biz/media/product_guides/MEGlobal_MEG.pdf.
33	11.	DOW. Triethylene glycol. 2017 [cited 2017 9-May]; Available from:
34		http://www.meglobal.biz/media/product_guides/MEGlobal_MEG.pdf.
35	12.	Sata, T., K. Mine, and K. Matsusaki, <i>Change in Transport Properties of Anion</i> -
36		Exchange Membranes in the Presence of Ethylene Glycols in Electrodialysis. Journal
37		of Colloid and Interface Science, 1998, 202 (2); p. 348-358.
38	13.	Lokhandwala, K., A. Jariwala, and M. Malsam, High Performance Contaminant
39		Resistant Membranes Minimize Pretreatment and Improve CO ₂ Removal Economics
40		in The 57th Laurance Reid Gas Conditioning Conference 2007 Norman OK
41	14	Washim Uddin M and M -B Hägg Effect of monoethylene glycol and triethylene
42	1	s solution of a facilitated transport membrane for
43		natural gas sweetening. Journal of Membrane Science 2012 423–424(0): p 150-158
44	15	Lokhandwala K A R W Baker and K D Amo Sour gas treatment process 1995
45	10.	Google Patents
46	16	Funk E S Kulkarni and A Swamikannu <i>Effect of impurities on cellulose acetate</i>
47	10.	membrane performance in Recent Adv in Separation Tech AIChE Symposium
48		Series 1986

1	17.	Bhide, B.D. and S.A. Stern, Membrane processes for the removal of acid gases from
2		natural gas. I. Process configurations and optimization of operating conditions.
3		Journal of Membrane Science, 1993. 81 (3): p. 209-237.
4	18.	Li, N.N., et al., Membrane separation processes in the petrochemicalindustry: Phase
5		II. in Final Report for U.S. Department of Energy, 1987, Allied-Signal: Des Plaines.
6		IL
7	19	Heilman W et al Permeability of Polymer Films to Hydrogen Sulfide Gas
, 8	17.	Industrial & Engineering Chemistry 1956 48 (4): n 821-824
0	20	Chen $G \cap A$ at al. Water vanor normaation in polyimida membranes. Journal of
7	20.	Membrane Seignee 2011 370 : p. 470.497
10	21	Ly, HT, et al. The notential for use of callulose triggetate membranes in post
10	<i>2</i> 1.	Lu, 11.1., et al., The potential for use of certaiose in acetale memoranes in post
12		<i>combustion capture</i> . International journal of Greenhouse Gas Control, 2010. 55. p.
13	22	9/-104.
14	22.	Dutnie, X., et al., Operating temperature effects on the plasticization of polyimide gas
15	•••	separation membranes. Journal of Membrane Science, 2007. 294(1–2): p. 40-49.
16	23.	Fox, T.G.B., Influence of diluent and of copolymer composition on the glass
17		temperature of a polymer system. Am. Phys. Soc., 1956. 1: p. 123-125.
18	24.	Marcilla, A. and M. BeltrAN, 5 - MECHANISMS OF PLASTICIZERS ACTION A2 -
19		Wypych, George, in Handbook of Plasticizers (Second Edition). 2012, William
20		Andrew Publishing: Boston. p. 119-133.
21	25.	Kamide, K. and M. Saito, Thermal Analysis of Cellulose Acetate Solids with Total
22		Degrees of Substitution of 0.49, 1.75, 2.46, and 2.92. Polym J, 1985. 17(8): p. 919-
23		928.
24	26.	Angell, C.A., J.M. Sare, and E.J. Sare, <i>Glass transition temperatures for simple</i>
25		molecular liquids and their binary solutions. The Journal of Physical Chemistry,
26		1978. 82 (24): p. 2622-2629.
27	27.	Harogoppad, S.B. and T.M. Aminabhavi, <i>Diffusion and sorption of organic liquids</i>
28		through polymer membranes. 5. Neoprene, styrene-butadiene-rubber, ethylene-
29		propylene-diene terpolymer, and natural rubber versus hydrocarbons (C8-C16).
30		Macromolecules, 1991, 24 (9); p. 2598-2605.
31	28	Wessling M et al Dilation kinetics of glassy, aromatic polyimides induced by
32	-0.	carbon dioxide sorntion Journal of Polymer Science Part B. Polymer Physics 1995
33		33 (9): n 1371-1384
34	29	Kesting R F and A Fritzsche Membrane Polymers in Polymeric gas separation
35	<i>_)</i> .	membranes 1993 Wiley-Interscience: New York
36	30	Immergut E H and H F. Mark <i>Principles of Plasticization</i> in <i>Plasticization and</i>
37	50.	Plasticizer Processes 1965 American Chemical Society n 1-26
38	31	Archer WI Determination of Hanson solubility parameters for selected cellulose
20	51.	ather derivatives. Industrial & Engineering Chemistry Research 1001 30 (10): n
40		2202 2208
40	22	2272-2270. Delmarza M at al Uildahuand and Hanson achthility naugu store from Molecular
41	52.	Demandes, M., et al., Illideorana and Hansen soluolilly parameters from Molecular
42		Dynamics with applications to electronic nose polymer sensors. Journal of
43	22	Computational Chemistry, 2004. $25(15)$: p. 1814-1826.
44	<i>33</i> .	Hansen, C.M., Hansen solubility parameters: a user's handbook. 2007: CRC press.
45	34.	Klein, E., et al., Evaluation of semi permeable membranes for determination of
46		organic contaminants in drinking water. Water Research, 1975. 9(9): p. 807-811.
47	35.	Chen, G.Q., et al., Water vapor permeation through cellulose acetate membranes and
48		its impact upon membrane separation performance for natural gas purification.
49		Journal of Membrane Science, 2015. 487 (0): p. 249-255.
50	36.	Wijmans, J. and R. Baker, The solution-diffusion model: a review. Journal of
51		Membrane Science, 1995. 107(1): p. 1-21.

1	37.	Lee, J.S., et al., An advanced gas/vapor permeation system for barrier materials:
2		Design and applications to poly(ethylene terephthalate). Journal of Polymer Science
3		Part B: Polymer Physics, 2012. 50(17): p. 1262-1270.
4	38.	Maeda, Y. and D.R. Paul, Effect of antiplasticization on gas sorption and transport. I.
5		Polysulfone. Journal of Polymer Science Part B: Polymer Physics. 1987. 25(5): p.
6		957-980.
7	39.	Sada, E., et al., Permeation of carbon dioxide through homogeneous dense and
8	• • •	asymmetric cellulose acetate membranes. Journal of Polymer Science Part B.
9		Polymer Physics 1988 26(5): n 1035-1048
10	40	Robeson L.M. et al. Contributions of diffusion and solubility selectivity to the upper
11	10.	hound analysis for glassy gas separation membranes. Journal of Membrane Science
12		2014 453 n 71-83
13	41	Vang IS et al Analysis of nervaporation of methanol-MTRF mixtures through
1/	11.	cellulose acetate and cellulose triacetate membranes. Polymer 1998 39 (6–7): n
15		1381_1385
16	12	Houde AV et al Parmaghility of danse (homogeneous) cellulose acetate
10	42.	membranes to methane, carbon dioxide, and their mixtures at elevated pressures
10		Journal of Applied Polymor Science, 1006, 62(12): p. 2181-2102
10	42	Journal of Applied Polylief Science, 1990. 02(15). p. 2101-2192.
19	43.	Dononue, M.D., B.S. Minnas, and S.Y. Lee, <i>Permeation behavior of carbon atoxiae</i> -
20		<i>methane mixtures in cellulose acetate memoranes.</i> Journal of Memorane Science,
21	4.4	1989. 42(3): p. 197-214.
22	44.	Ionita, M., et al., <i>Fabrication of cellulose triacetate/graphene oxiae porous</i>
23	45	memorane. Polymers for Advanced Technologies, 2016. 27(3): p. 350-357.
24	45.	Das, A.M., A.A. Ali, and M.P. Hazarika, Synthesis and characterization of cellulose
25		acetate from rice husk: Eco-friendly condition. Carbohydrate Polymers, 2014. 112: p.
26	16	342-349.
27	46.	Braun, J.L. and J.F. Kadla, CTA III: A Third Polymorph of Cellulose Triacetate.
28	47	Journal of Carbohydrate Chemistry, 2013. 32 (2): p. 120-138.
29	47.	Yang, J., et al., Application of cellulose acetate to the selective adsorption and
30	10	recovery of Au(III). Carbohydrate Polymers, 2014. 111: p. 768-774.
31	48.	Arous, O., M. Amara, and H. Kerdjoudj, Synthesis and characterization of cellulose
32		triacetate and poly(ethylene imine) membranes containing a polyether macrobicyclic:
33		Their application to the separation of copper(II) and silver(I) ions. Journal of Applied
34		Polymer Science, 2004. 93 (3): p. 1401-1410.
35	49.	Kulshreshtha, A.K. and N.E. Dweltz, A study on the further acetylation of SPA cotton.
36		Journal of Applied Polymer Science, 1979. 24(4): p. 1139-1141.
37	50.	Park, S., et al., Cellulose crystallinity index: measurement techniques and their impact
38		on interpreting cellulase performance. Biotechnology for biofuels, 2010. 3 (1): p. 10.
39	51.	Puleo, A.C., D.R. Paul, and S.S. Kelley, <i>The effect of degree of acetylation on gas</i>
40		sorption and transport behavior in cellulose acetate. Journal of Membrane Science,
41		1989. 47 (3): p. 301-332.
42	52.	Baker, R.W., Membrane technology. 2000: Wiley Online Library.
43	53.	Sridhar, S., B. Smitha, and T.M. Aminabhavi, Separation of Carbon Dioxide from
44		Natural Gas Mixtures through Polymeric Membranes—A Review. Separation &
45		Purification Reviews, 2007. 36 (2): p. 113-174.
46	54.	Bhide, B.D. and S.A. Stern, Membrane processes for the removal of acid gases from
47		natural gas. II. Effects of operating conditions, economic parameters, and membrane
48		properties. Journal of Membrane Science, 1993. 81(3): p. 239-252.
49	55.	Merkel, T. and L. Toy, Comparison of hydrogen sulfide transport properties in
50		fluorinated and nonfluorinated polymers. Macromolecules. 2006. 39(22): p. 7591-
51		7600.

- 1 56. Lin, W.-H. and T.-S. Chung, *Gas permeability, diffusivity, solubility, and aging* 2 characteristics of 6FDA-durene polyimide membranes. Journal of Membrane Science, 2001. 186(2): p. 183-193. 3 Ghosal, K. and B.D. Freeman, Gas separation using polymer membranes: an 4 57. overview. Polymers for Advanced Technologies, 1994. 5(11): p. 673-697. 5 6 58. Yampolskii, Y., I. Pinnau, and B.D. Freeman, Materials science of membranes for gas 7 and vapor separation. 2006: Wiley Online Library. 8 59. Huang, Y. and D.R. Paul, Effect of Film Thickness on the Gas-Permeation 9 Characteristics of Glassy Polymer Membranes. Industrial & Engineering Chemistry Research, 2007. 46(8): p. 2342-2347. 10 60. Landry, C.J.T., K.K. Lum, and J.M. O'Reilly, *Physical aging of blends of cellulose* 11 acetate polymers with dyes and plasticizers. Polymer, 2001. 42(13): p. 5781-5792. 12 61. Scholes, C.A., et al., Plasticization of ultra-thin polysulfone membranes by carbon 13 dioxide. Journal of Membrane Science, 2010. 346(1): p. 208-214. 14 Galvão, A.C. and A.Z. Francesconi, Solubility of methane and carbon dioxide in 15 62. ethylene glycol at pressures up to 14 MPa and temperatures ranging from (303 to 16 17 423) K. The Journal of Chemical Thermodynamics, 2010. 42(5): p. 684-688. Fernández-Prini, R., R. Crovetto, and N. Gentili, Solubilities of inert gases in ethylene 18 63. glycol. The Journal of Chemical Thermodynamics, 1987. 19(12): p. 1293-1298. 19 20 64. Jou, F.Y., F. Otto, and A. Mather, Solubility of methane in glycols at elevated pressures. The Canadian Journal of Chemical Engineering, 1994. 72(1): p. 130-133. 21 Jou, F.Y., et al., Vapor-liquid equilibria for acid gases and lower alkanes in 22 65. 23 triethylene glycol. Fluid Phase Equilibria, 1987. 36: p. 121-140. Chatterjee, G., A.A. Houde, and S.A. Stern, Poly(ether urethane) and poly(ether 24 66. 25 urethane urea) membranes with high H2S/CH4 selectivity. Journal of Membrane Science, 1997. 135(1): p. 99-106. 26 Robeson, L.M., et al., An empirical correlation of gas permeability and 67. 27 permselectivity in polymers and its theoretical basis. Journal of Membrane Science, 28 29 2009. 341(1-2): p. 178-185. Dean, J.A., Lange's handbook of chemistry. Knovel. 1973: Binghamton, N.Y.: 30 68. Knovel. 31 69. Dal-Cin, M.M., A. Kumar, and L. Layton, *Revisiting the experimental and theoretical* 32 upper bounds of light pure gas selectivity-permeability for polymeric membranes. 33 Journal of Membrane Science, 2008. 323(2): p. 299-308. 34 Shieh, J.J. and T.S. Chung, Gas permeability, diffusivity, and solubility of poly(4-35 70. 36 vinylpyridine) film. Journal of Polymer Science, Part B: Polymer Physics, 1999. **37**(20): p. 2851-2861. 37
- 38
- 39



































The impact of ethylene glycol and hydrogen sulfide on the performance of cellulose triacetate membranes in natural gas sweetening

Authors: H. T. Lu¹, S. Kanehashi², C. A. Scholes¹, S. E. Kentish^{1,*}

¹Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering, The University of Melbourne, Parkville, VIC3010 Australia

²Department of Organic and Polymer Materials Chemistry, Tokyo University of Agriculture and Technology, 3-8-1 Harumi-cho, Fuchu-shi, Tokyo 183-8538 Japan



SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

Figure S1

Change in permeability of He and CH₄ as time progresses for CTA membranes at 35°C, 750 kPa feeding pressure after aging in methanol solution

University Library



A gateway to Melbourne's research publications

Minerva Access is the Institutional Repository of The University of Melbourne

Author/s:

Lu, HT; Kanehashi, S; Scholes, CA; Kentish, SE

Title:

The impact of ethylene glycol and hydrogen sulphide on the performance of cellulose triacetate membranes in natural gas sweetening

Date:

2017-10-01

Citation:

Lu, H. T., Kanehashi, S., Scholes, C. A. & Kentish, S. E. (2017). The impact of ethylene glycol and hydrogen sulphide on the performance of cellulose triacetate membranes in natural gas sweetening. JOURNAL OF MEMBRANE SCIENCE, 539, pp.432-440. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.memsci.2017.06.023.

Persistent Link:

http://hdl.handle.net/11343/191142

File Description:

Accepted version