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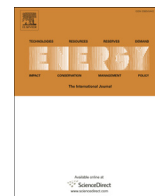
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# Drastic enhancement of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity by negatively charged sub-bituminous coal

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## ABSTRACT

Climate change is a key problem of the 21st century. Climate change is mainly caused by anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, and one solution to this problem is to capture and store CO<sub>2</sub> in deep coal seams, where it is immobilized by adsorption to the coal surface. Here we propose to modify the coal with methyl orange (MO), a typical dye that is also a major pollutant of the hydrosphere and removed thereby. Thus, raw and MO-modified coals were characterized to investigate their thermal stabilities, textural properties, carbon contents, surface characteristics, and CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on the coal samples was measured at typical storage conditions (323 K and pressures up to 37.5 bar). CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption dramatically increased in the MO-coal, from 1.95 mol. kg<sup>-1</sup> (raw coal) to 18.7 mol. kg<sup>-1</sup>.

This work thus aids in the development of improved methods for CO<sub>2</sub> storage, to significantly mitigate climate change.

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## 1. Introduction

Anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions to the atmosphere are a key problem of the 21st century as they cause global warming and consequently climate change [1]. Fossil fuel, such as oil and coal is a main source of energy throughout the world therefore the greenhouse gases such as CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> have been emitted as this fuel consumed for human activities [2–4]. To reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions to the atmosphere, different techniques have been used; sorption processes have been applied via physical and chemical methods [5,6]. Also, fuel modifications, using CO<sub>2</sub> produced in industry, and using clean energy resources are still targeted for that purpose [7]. However, these methods are not sufficient to reduce the accumulated concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> from the atmosphere to standard levels. Therefore, modern countries have focused on deep ocean and geological sequestrations [8]. Recently, depleted oil and gas reservoirs have been widely used as bulky tanks for storing CO<sub>2</sub> gas [9–11,68,69]. Besides, deep underground coal seams have been used to drastically reduce these CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, and to capture and

store CO<sub>2</sub> [12–17]. The storage capacity of a deep coal seam is thus directly linked to its CO<sub>2</sub>-adsorption capacity at high pressures (note that pressure in the subsurface increases with depth due to hydrostatic and overburden pressures) [18]. The adsorption capacity depends on the applied pressure; note that typical pressures prevailing in deep coal seams range from 35 to 60 bar [19] as coal seam depths are normally shallow when compared to oil reservoirs [20]. Typical CO<sub>2</sub>-adsorption capacities range between 0.6 and 1.9 mol. kg<sup>-1</sup> depending on the temperature, pressure, and coal rank [21]. Numerous chemical modifications have been used to improve physiochemical properties of porous materials and consequently enhancing their affinity toward adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> [22,23]. The chemical and physical characteristics of coal are a prime factor that might affect the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on coal [10,24]. Accordingly, to enhance the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity on the coal, the modification of the surface and pore structure of the coal by inserting other materials is required. However, a scientific inquire about the ability of researchers to insert other chemicals into the pore structure of the coal to increase its affinity to adsorb CO<sub>2</sub> has been currently emerged [25,26]. That means the study of enhancing CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on the coal by inserting another chemical is still not gotten birth yet. Because the coal is classified as a porous material enriched with abundant oxygen functional groups, it has been used as an outstanding adsorbent to remove dyes from wastewater [27]. Dual treatment is now important to seizure dyes in the coal

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reservoir and consequently to increase the total amount of CO<sub>2</sub> which can be stored there. Methyl orange (MO), a classic dye used in various industries such as textile, paper, rubber, cosmetic, wool, and nylon industry [28–32]. MO is therefore a major pollutant that is discharged into the hydrosphere in large quantities [33,34] – however, it can be efficiently adsorbed on the coal [35]. Here we propose to prime coal with methyl orange (MO). The target of this study is to enhance the density of ionic charge on the surface of the pores in the coal structure which can significantly improve the adsorptive characteristics of the coal toward increasing the adsorption capacity of CO<sub>2</sub>. Crucial characterization of the coal samples is reported. CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption at conditions near to the reservoir conditions is carried out for the coal sample before and after the modification. As described in detail below, this MO-priming dramatically increases CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacities of coal – this work thus aids in the development of improved methods for CO<sub>2</sub> storage, to significantly mitigate climate change.

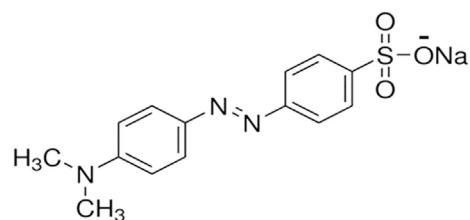
## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Materials and sample preparation

Sub-bituminous coal (Pan Upper; maximum vitrinite reflectance: 0.38%) was supplied by Premier Coal (Collie, Western Australia), the coal properties were measured, and essential analysis; Proximate, Petrographic and Ultimate Analysis of coal samples were performed by Bureau Veritas Mineral Pty Ltd (NSW, Australia) and the results are tabulated in Table 1. Methyl orange (MO; C<sub>14</sub>H<sub>14</sub>N<sub>3</sub>NaO<sub>3</sub>S, dye content 85 wt%; Fig. 1) was supplied by Sigma Aldrich, and deionized ultrapure water was produced via a Membrane RO100 instrument (Aquatec-CDP-8800- USA). The coal samples were first crushed with a blade grinder (700G high speed chinses electric medicine crusher) to produce fine powders. The powder was sieved with a sieve shaker (Analyser- Endicotts EFL 300) to a homogenous powder with a suitable particle size (<250 μm). The powder was initially washed by DI water to leach salt (NaCl) out. A 250-ppm methyl orange solution was then prepared in DI water (the average pH value was 8.7 measured with a Portable pH/conductivity meter-WP-90), and 1.5 g of the raw coal was dispersed in 40 mL of the methyl orange solution with ongoing mixing for 3 days. Subsequently, the resulting MO-coal powder was separated from the dispersion via vacuum filtration. The sample was dried in a preheated oven at 60 °C for 3 days. Finally, the MO-coal was degassed under vacuum using a VacPrep 061-Micromeritics system for 2 h at 343 K prior to the adsorption experiments. Zeta potentials of the raw coal and the MO coal powders were measured with a Zetasizer Nano- ZS instrument (Malvern Panalytical Company, Australia) (S1).

**Table 1**  
Essential analysis properties of Pan upper raw coal.

Approximate Analysis			
Moisture Content (wt%)	Ash Content (wt%)	Volatile Content (wt%)	Fixed Carbon (wt%)
21.1	2.5	28.0	47.8
Petrographic Analysis			
Vitrinite (Vol %)	Liptinite (Vol %)	Inertinite (Vol %)	Mineral Matter (Vol %)
33.3	11.3	43.9	11.5
Ultimate Analysis			
Carbon (wt%)	Hydrogen (wt%)	Nitrogen (wt%)	Relative Density
58.1%	2.98%	1.15%	1.39



**Fig. 1.** Chemical structure of Methyl Orange.

### 2.2. Coal characterization

The decomposition temperature of the raw and MO-coals was measured via thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA) using a PerkinElmer-Thermogravimetric Analyzer-TGA 4000 (S.2). Furthermore, FTIR spectra were measured with a PerkinElmer-FT-IR Spectrometer (Model 100-FT-IR), and N<sub>2</sub> (Coregas, HPG, purity = 99.99 vol%) adsorption-desorption measurements were performed (at 77 K) to determine the BET (Brunauer, Emmett and Teller) surface areas and pore size distributions (using the Tristar II 3020) (S.3). Carbon content was measured with an elemental analyzer (PerkinElmer, Series II-CHNS/O Analyzer), and energy-dispersive X-ray mapping was performed with a Hitachi SU3500 Scanning Electron Microscope.

### 2.3. High pressure adsorption study

Pure CO<sub>2</sub> (purity = 99.99 vol %), He (HPG, purity = 99.99 vol %) and Air (Instrument Grade- Compressed, purity = 99.995 vol %) were supplied by Coregas. CO<sub>2</sub> was the adsorbate gas, while He was used to calibrate the void volume of the sample and to check the gas leakage. Air was used to operate the valves of the adsorption instrument pneumatically. The high-pressure adsorption measurements were performed on a PCTpro adsorption analyzer (Setaram Instrumentation, Figure S2) (S.4). The measurements were repeated three times; the standard error ranged from ±0.047 at 2.7 bar to ±0.102 at around 37 bar for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption measurements in raw coal and it was ranged from ±0.079 at 5 bar to ±0.24 at around 37 bar in MO-coal.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Coal modification with methyl orange

80 wt % of MO was incorporated into the raw coal (5.33 mg. g<sup>-1</sup>, (S5, Figure S3)) by non-covalent π-π interactions between the polycyclic aromatic rings (present in the coal) and the phenyl rings in the MO; in addition, hydrogen bonding between MO nitrogen atoms and hydroxyl groups of coal might have further enhanced adsorption [35–38]. Furthermore, it was established earlier that higher negative charge densities on the coal surface decrease MO adsorption [39,40]. Consequently, in comparison with Methylene Blue (MB) [27], the adsorption rate of MO on the tested raw coal was relatively low because this untreated coal had a very low zeta potential of  $-70 \pm 0.88$  mV at pH 8.7. This is consistent with literature data [41–43]. The zeta potential increased to  $-60 \pm 1.5$  mV in the MO-coal due to the incorporation of MO into the coal matrix; therefore, the concentration of ionizable chemical groups on the MO-coal surface was higher than that on the raw coal; consequently, the adsorption capacity of the coal toward Lewis acid adsorbates was enhanced [44,45]. EDX mapping demonstrated that sodium (Na) was an indicator of MO incorporation into the MO-coal, Fig. 2a–c. The main source of Na in the raw coal was the

sodium chloride initially present into the raw coal, which was leached out of the raw coal during MO-coal preparation as shown in Fig. 2a and b, respectively. Furthermore, the carbon content increased after MO modification (from 60 wt % to 65 wt %). MO incorporation into the coal was also confirmed by FTIR, thus the sulfonic groups of the MO were detected in the coal, Fig. 3. Note that the sulfonic group is recognized by two peak clusters, namely the peaks at 685 and 755  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (which are related to the C–S stretching vibrations) and the peaks at 913, 1032 and 1091  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (which are related to the  $\text{SO}_3^-$  stretching vibrations). In addition, the peaks at 2850 and 2923  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  were caused by C–N bond vibrations and asymmetric  $\text{CH}_3$  stretching vibrations – mainly caused by the incorporation of MO [46]. Moreover, the peaks at 1373 and 1434  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  were caused by the N=N stretching vibration which increased with MO content, again confirming the incorporation of MO into the coal. The peaks at 1229 and 1592  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  are linked to  $\text{CH}_3$  and C=C stretching vibrations, respectively, which were also enhanced in MO-coal. Finally, the peak at 1698  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  was caused by the C=O stretching of aromatic rings in the raw coal [47,48].

Furthermore, during TGA analysis, the raw coal experienced a two-step weight loss, Figure S1. Initially (first step) moisture content was released when the temperature increased to 330 K; subsequently, (second step) the organic matter (macerals) in the coal started to degrade at 580 K; this is consistent with the results reported by Buratti et al. (2015) and Saikia et al. (2008) [49,50]. However, MO-coal experienced three weight loss steps; in addition to moisture loss (330–376 K) and maceral degradation (550–683 K), the MO molecules were pyrolyzed at 720 K. Interestingly, the MO-coal had higher thermal stability (749–834 K) than the raw coal (550–720 K), apparently due to the incorporation of MO into the coal structure.

Moreover, both, raw coal and MO-coal showed hysteresis in their  $\text{N}_2$  adsorption/desorption isotherms; Fig. 4a and b. This hysteresis was more significant in raw coal. Hence, ink-bottle pores were dominated in raw coal because the diameter of the mesopore was equal to the critical diameter of hysteresis (4 nm for  $\text{N}_2$  at 77 K).  $\text{N}_2$  isotherm shows that with increasing relative pressure,  $\text{N}_2$  condensed first in the pore necks, followed by  $\text{N}_2$  condensation in the pore cavities [51,52]. However, when the relative pressure

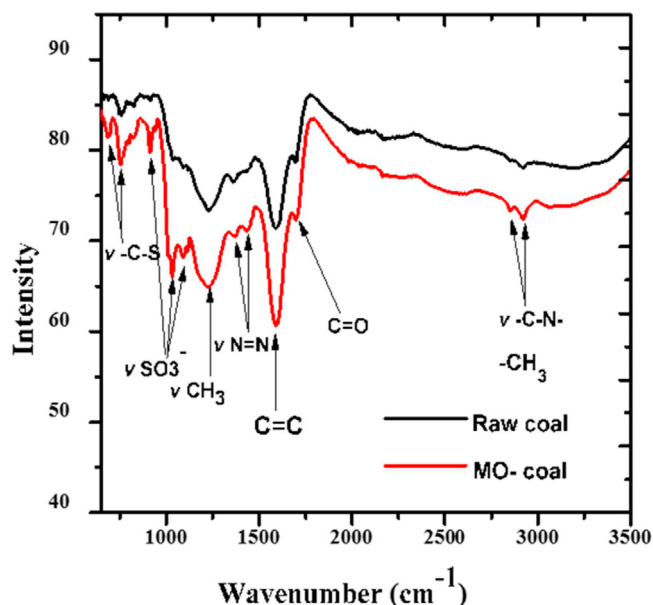


Fig. 3. Fourier-transformed infrared spectra of raw coal and MO-coal.

decreased during desorption, slow evaporation emptied pore bodies and pore throats simultaneously [53,54]. The sharper rise in the MO-coal adsorption isotherms (when the relative pressure approached unity) indicated a higher percentage of macropores [5,55]. Noteworthy, during the pre-treatment of coal by deionized water, chloride salts were dissolved, therefore the coal network was enriched by vacant sites for MO adsorption. Consequently, the diffusion rate of MO via coal was increased and might create new pores. Accordingly, the specific surface area increased from 5.70  $\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$  in the raw coal to 7.02  $\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$  in the MO-coal, the pore volume did not change (it was 0.02  $\text{cc} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$  for both coal types). Furthermore, the average pore size decreased slightly in the MO-coal, from 13.82 nm (in the raw coal) to 12.99 nm, consistent with a decrease in mesopore size (from 4 to 2.75 nm in the raw coal to 3.50 and 2.50 nm in the MO-coal), Fig. 4c.

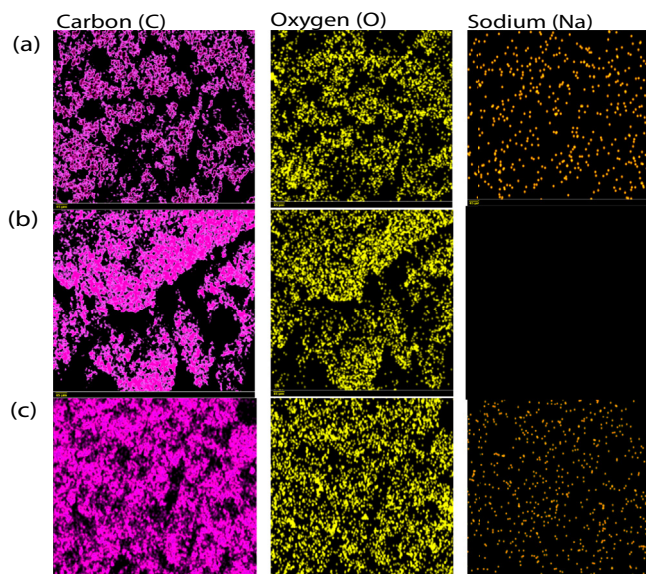


Fig. 2. Energy-dispersive x-ray spectrographic mapping of C, O and Na on a) raw coal, b) raw coal after washing with DI water and c) MO-coal.

### 3.2. $\text{CO}_2$ adsorption

The  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption capacity of the raw coal dramatically increased by MO modification, from 1.95  $\text{mol} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  to 18.7  $\text{mol} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$  (at 323 K and 37.5 bar), Fig. 5.

We hypothesize that this drastic increase in  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption was due to the negatively charged MO incorporated into the coal pores. This increase in the negative surface charge density strongly attracted the  $\text{CO}_2$  molecules [56], due to their high quadrupole moment ( $-13.4 \pm 0.4 \times 10^{-40} \text{ C m}^2$ ); compare Zou and Rodrigues (2001) or Iglauer (2017) [57,58]. Mechanistically, the positive carbon atom in the (stiff and linear)  $\text{CO}_2$  molecule interacts with the negative surface charge and orients the  $\text{CO}_2$  molecules parallel to the adsorbent's surface [59]. This flat adsorption profile significantly enhances  $\text{CO}_2$ – $\text{CO}_2$  intermolecular interaction [60]. This effect was further enhanced by the increased surface area and slightly reduced pore size in the MO coal (see above); and recall that  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption increases with higher surface area and smaller pore sizes; [61,62]. In addition, secondary van der Waals interaction between the nitrogen atoms of incorporated MO in MO-coal and carbon atoms of  $\text{CO}_2$  molecules highly contributed to increase the  $\text{CO}_2$  adsorption capacity [63]. Finally, carbon is an imperative constituent of organic matter in coal. It represents the main element of

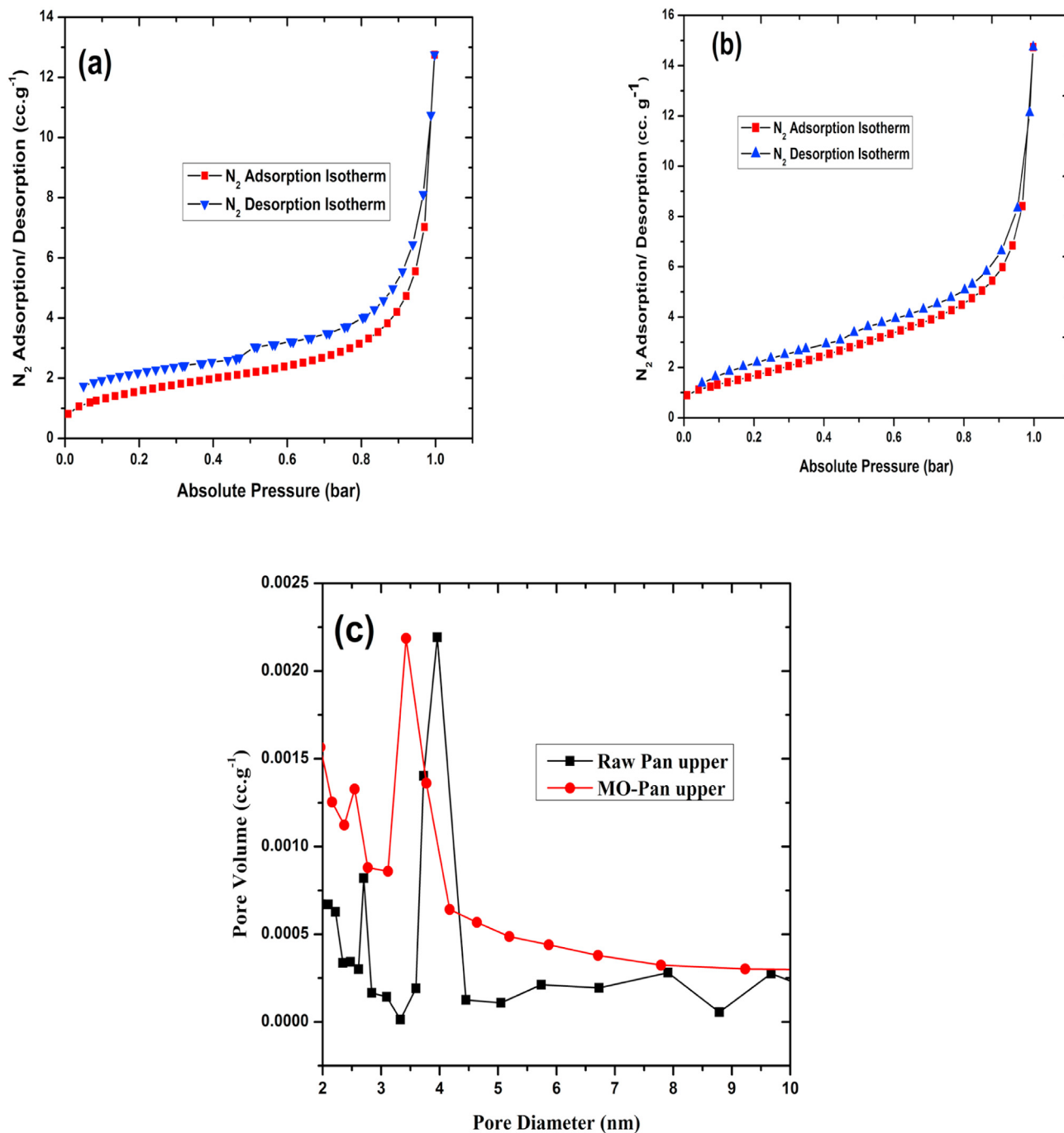


Fig. 4. N<sub>2</sub> adsorption/desorption isotherms measured for raw coal (a), MO-coal (b) and associated raw coal/MO-coal mesopore distribution (c).

hex-acyclic-ring in the structure of coal. It was previously reported the gas adsorption capacity of coal upsurges when the carbon content increases, and at the coal of low carbon content, the rate of gas adsorption slowly increases [64,65], consequently, the slight increase in carbon content in the MO-coal probably further contributed to the enhanced CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption [66]. Fig. 5 shows the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption in MO-coal reached the maximum capacity when the pressure increased up to 37.7 bar. That is interpreted by that when the pressure increases and the electrostatic interactions enhance, the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption rate increases. Consequently, the pores expand, and an extraordinary amount of CO<sub>2</sub> is adsorbed [67].

#### 4. Conclusions

CO<sub>2</sub> storage in deep coal seams is the best option to dispose of large amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> that would otherwise emit into the atmosphere (IPCC 2005). Improved affinity of coal to adsorb CO<sub>2</sub> increases CO<sub>2</sub> storage capacity and can enhance methane recovery (via CO<sub>2</sub>-ECBM). To increase associated storage capacities of coal, coal samples were prepared and aged with MO. The raw coal and MO-coal were characterized thoroughly to identify surface functional groups, thermal stability, texture, pore size, and specific surface areas, and CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption tests were performed on the coal samples. CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity dramatically increased in MO-

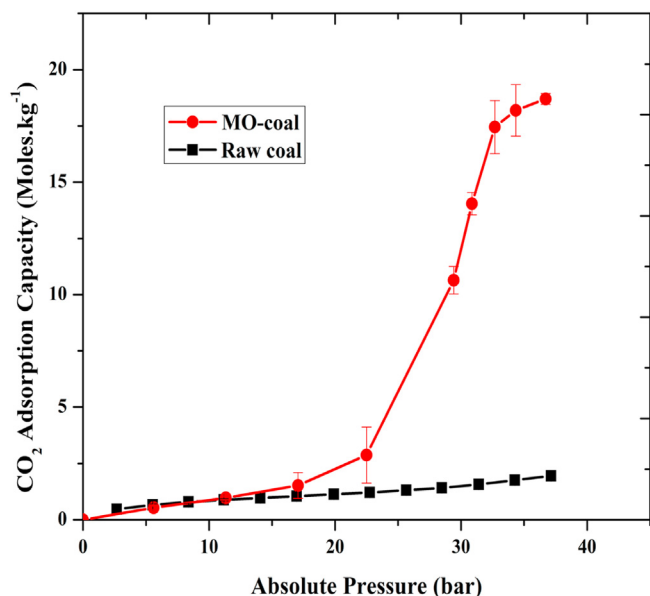


Fig. 5. CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption isotherms of raw and MO-coal at 323 K.

coal (reaching 18.7 mol. kg<sup>-1</sup> at 37 bar and 323 K, 10 times the adsorption capacity of the raw coal, 1.95 mol. kg<sup>-1</sup>). Note that these CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacities are substantially higher than those reported previously. Note that the molecular structure and the charge distribution on CO<sub>2</sub> molecules significantly affect the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on the charged coal. Therefore, this drastic increase in CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption was due to incorporating negative charges on the modified coal surface, which oriented the adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> molecules parallel to the coal surface. This adsorption orientation strongly increased CO<sub>2</sub>–CO<sub>2</sub> intermolecular interactions, leading to the drastic adsorption increase.

This study aids a novel concept of improved CO<sub>2</sub> storage techniques in deep coal seams, and thus the industrial-scale implementation of CO<sub>2</sub> disposal, supporting climate change mitigation efforts.

#### Declaration of competing interest

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

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#### Credit author statement

Hussein Rasool Abid: Conceptualization, Methodology, experimental work, Writing, Visualization. Stefan Iglauer: Methodology, Writing – review & editing. Ahmed Al-Yaseri: Review & Editing. Alireza Keshavarz: Conceptualization, Review & Editing, Supervision.

#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.energy.2021.120924>.

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