



Fixed-bed CO₂ adsorption onto activated char from the pyrolysis of a non-recyclable plastic mixture from real urban residues

Ana Ligeró^{*}, Mónica Calero, M. Ángeles Martín-Lara, Gabriel Blázquez, Rafael R. Solís^{*}, Antonio Pérez

Department of Chemical Engineering, University of Granada, 18074 Granada, Spain

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ABSTRACT

The potential use of activated char obtained from the pyrolysis of a mixture of non-recyclable plastics for the adsorption of CO₂ in fixed-bed columns has been explored. The rejected fraction of plastics collected in a municipal solid treatment plant was pyrolyzed and the resulting char residue was activated to develop a porous carbonaceous material. The dynamic behavior of CO₂ adsorption was assessed by the breakthrough curves obtained in continuous column tests. Among all the available models, the curves were successfully fitted to the dose-response model. The effect of adsorption temperature (15–45 °C), the inlet CO₂ concentration (10–40 %, vol.), and the adsorbent length of the bed (loadings, 1–2 g) on the efficiency of the process was evaluated by the surface response methodology applying an adaptive neural fuzzy inference system (ANFIS). A temperature rise exerted a negative effect on the adsorption capacity due to the physisorption properties of the process, the fixed CO₂ concentration displayed a positive effect and the fixed-bed length did not play a remarkable influence.

1. Introduction

Plastic polymers have turned into an essential item in current society since they are ubiquitously present in almost all human activities such as packaging, construction, agriculture, transport, textiles, and healthcare, among others [1]. However, the management of plastics has become a worldwide issue that requires urgent attention due to the negative environmental impact associated with their unsustainability. The vast majority of plastic polymers are non-biodegradable, display a very short lifetime, are produced in vast volumes, and are bound to be landfilled [2].

Plastic waste possesses high potential as a hydrocarbon source for the chemical industry. Chemical recycling via pyrolysis is gaining attention for those plastic fractions that cannot be submitted to a mechanical recycling process, due to its complexity or lack of interest [3], addressing moreover the challenges of plastic waste management. This scheme also promotes the development of the circular economy, feeding the vast majority of the materials within the ‘loop’ instead of the exploitation of new natural resources. Chemical recycling entails the conversion of end-of-life plastics into lower molecular weight products that can potentially be used as a feedstock in the production of new

petrochemicals or even new polymers [4]. The conversion process involves the chemical transformation of the polymer structure into lighter fractions by the lysis action of the temperature [5]. Furthermore, the use of solid catalysts during the process can potentiate the yield of lighter fractions or improve the efficiency of diesel fuel [6].

The char yield in the pyrolysis of plastics is estimated at around 1–10 %, depending on the operational conditions [7], or the nature of the raw polymer [8]. Low temperatures and heating rates promote the formation of the char [9]. The char can be used as a fuel [10], an additive for epoxy composites with a previous functionalization [11,12], for asphalt binder [13], or as an adsorbent [14], with limited adsorption capacity. Upgraded properties have been reported for adsorption applications after activation of the char. Different activation methodologies based on physical or chemical agents have been applied to enhance the textural properties rising the surface area and microporosity [15] and boosting the adsorption capability of the activated char [16]. The resulting material has proved to be effective in the removal of heavy metals [17], aqueous organic pollutants [18,19], or gas purification [20,21].

The reduction in emissions of greenhouse gases is a paramount issue that must be addressed to reduce the consequences of climate change. Carbon capture and storage have been outlined as a plausible solution

^{*} Corresponding authors.

E-mail addresses: aliger@correo.ugr.es (A. Ligeró), mcalero@ugr.es (M. Calero), marianml@ugr.es (M.Á. Martín-Lara), gblazque@ugr.es (G. Blázquez), rafarsolis@ugr.es (R.R. Solís), aperezm@ugr.es (A. Pérez).

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for the reduction of CO₂, especially the release after post-combustion. There are some technical solutions such as absorption, membranes, cryogenics, adsorption onto solid materials, and calcium looping cycle. Although the amine absorption process is industrially mature, the corrosive properties of amine, their environmental impact, and the regeneration of the amine are energy-demanding and force the implementation of complex installations resistant to corrosion [22]. In this sense, adsorption outstands as a competitive alternative. Diverse highly porous materials have been researched as potential candidates for CO₂ adsorption such as carbonaceous materials [23], zeolites [24,25], and metal-organic frameworks [26] which are the most widely investigated to date. Carbon materials display low density and limited adsorption capacity which makes them less competitive than other more effective ones such as zeolites; however, their easy preparation, abundance, and low cost make them competitive at real large-scale applications. Moreover, the regeneration of the spent adsorbent after use, an aspect of paramount importance, can be carried out by temperature swing, pressure swing, or under vacuum conditions [27]. Furthermore, the combination of these strategies, i.e. temperature, and pressure, has been postulated as promising results [28].

This work provides a fixed-bed study of CO₂ adsorption using an activated char obtained from the pyrolysis of a rejected mixture of plastics not suitable for mechanical recycling. The residue of the pyrolysis, named char and poorly porous, was chemically activated with KOH to develop a microporous texture able to capture CO₂ by adsorption. In a previous work, the effect of the preparation method on the characteristics and CO₂ adsorption capacity of the char from the pyrolysis of mixed plastic waste was studied [29]. The char was activated using physical and chemical methods and adsorption tests were performed by thermogravimetric analysis. The highest CO₂ adsorption capacity achieved was 62 mg CO₂ g⁻¹ using char activated with KOH and an operating temperature of 15 °C. This work provides a continuation of the study, providing an analysis of dynamic tests in a continuous fixed-bed column, paying attention to the analysis of the breakthrough curves of the activated char. The influence of operational variables affecting the continuous adsorption of CO₂ such as temperature, inlet CO₂ concentration, and length of the bed was explored. A design of experiments and a modeling analysis by an adaptive neuro-fuzzy inference system (ANFIS) was carried out to optimize the operational conditions that maximize the CO₂ adsorption capacity and the removal percentage.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Preparation and activation of the char

The char was generated during the thermal pyrolysis of a non-recyclable mixture of plastics from the rejected fraction of plastics collected in the municipal solid waste treatment plant located in Alhendín, Granada (Spain). This plastic residue was composed of polypropylene (PP), polystyrene (PS), as high impact PS (HIPS) and expanded PS (EPS), and film, mainly made of polypropylene and polyethylene. The plastics were classified by polymer families leading to the following composition (mass percentages): PP (55 %), HIPS (8.6 %), EPS (10.1 %), and Film, (27.7 %). The mixture was crushed to a particle size lower than 1 mm.

The crushed mixture was submitted to pyrolysis in a tubular furnace under an N₂ flow (50 L h⁻¹) for 90 min, with an initial heating rate of 50 °C min⁻¹ and a holding temperature of 500 °C. After, the residue solid obtained (approx. 6.2 % of initial mass) was ground. The obtained char was chemically activated with KOH based on previous work [29]. For the activation process, 5 g of char was mixed with KOH at char: KOH ratio of 2:1. The resulting mixture was heated under an N₂ atmosphere (200 mL min⁻¹) to 300 °C, at a rate of 10 °C min⁻¹. The temperature was kept for 1 h at 300 °C leading to the melting of the KOH. Next, the temperature was risen to 760 °C (heating rate, 10 °C min⁻¹) and kept for 1

Table 1

Characterization properties of the char before and after activation [29].

Technique	Parameter	Char	Activated char (AC)
Elemental analysis	N (%)	0.86	0.72
	C (%)	35.62	28.76
	H (%)	2.23	0.86
	O (%)*	15.08	3.98
Proximate analysis	Moisture (%)	3.10	2.48
	Volatile (%)	27.89	11.89
	Ash (%)	46.21	66.01
	Fixed carbon (%)	22.81	19.62
Textural analysis	S _{BET} (m ² g ⁻¹)	14.7	487.0
	S _{MP} (m ² g ⁻¹)	0.8	414.2
	V _T (cm ³ g ⁻¹)	0.025	0.300
	V _{MP} (cm ³ g ⁻¹)	-	0.180
	V _{MP} /V _T (%)	-	60.0

* Obtained as difference including ash. S_{BET}: total specific surface area by BET method; S_{MP}: micropore surface area; V_T: total pore volume; V_{MP}: micropore volume.

h. Finally, the sample was cooled down to room temperature. The resulting material was washed with HCl 1 M and water, dried (120 °C, overnight), ground, and sieved to 250 μm.

Table 1 shows the main physicochemical characteristics of the char and the activated material in terms of proximate analysis, elemental composition, and textural properties.

2.2. Breakthrough adsorption curves of CO₂

The fixed-bed adsorption tests of CO₂ were carried out in a glass column of 10 cm in length and 1.0 cm internal diameter. The temperature was controlled by the use of a cooler circulating through the annular space of the column. Glass balls were placed at both ends of the column to avoid sample fluidization. The activated carbon sample was loaded within 1–2 g and a mixture of N₂ and CO₂ (100 mL min⁻¹) at a desired concentration was passed through the column. The concentration of CO₂ leaving the column was continuously monitored with an infrared CO₂ sensor (NDIR Edinburgh Instruments Ltd.). The breakthrough curves were depicted as the temporal concentration at the outlet (C_t) normalized to the inlet (C₀), i.e. C_t/C₀.

The CO₂ adsorption capacity was determined as the area below the removed CO₂, that means the 1-C_t/C₀ curve, from the initial time until the saturation time (t_{sat}), defined this as the time in which C_t/C₀ = 0.95 [30]:

$$q_{\text{CO}_2} = \frac{v C_0 \int_0^{t_{\text{sat}}} \left(1 - \frac{C_t}{C_0}\right) dt}{m_{\text{AC}}} \quad (1)$$

where v (L s⁻¹) means the volumetric flow rate, C₀ (mol L⁻¹) is the inlet CO₂ concentration and m_{AC} (g) stands for the loaded mass of adsorbent in the column.

The removal capacity (R) was calculated as the amount of CO₂ retained in the column concerning the total fed CO₂:

$$R = \frac{q_{\text{CO}_2} m_{\text{AC}}}{v C_0 t_{\text{sat}}} = \frac{\int_0^{t_{\text{sat}}} \left(1 - \frac{C_t}{C_0}\right) dt}{t_{\text{sat}}} \quad (2)$$

The breakthrough curves were fitted to classical breakthrough curves for fixed-bed adsorption. The Thomas model has been deeply used for the estimation of the adsorption capacity and the rate constant [31]. It assumes that the plug flow takes place in the fixed bed, that the external and internal diffusion limitations are negligible and that the adsorption process is described by a second-order reaction kinetics, leading to the following expression for the normalized temporal evolution of the outlet concentration (C_t/C₀):

$$\frac{C_t}{C_0} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(k_T C_0 \left(\frac{q_0 m}{q_{C_0}} - t\right)\right)} \quad (3)$$

where k_T ($L \text{ mg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) stands for the Thomas rate constant; q_0 (mg g^{-1}) is equilibrium adsorption capacity; m (g) is the mass of the adsorbent in the column; and v ($L \text{ s}^{-1}$) the inlet flow rate.

The Yoon–Nelson model considers that the rate of decrease in the probability of adsorption for each molecule is proportional to the probability of adsorption and the probability of breakthrough, leading to the equation [32]:

$$\frac{C_t}{C_0} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(k_{YN}(\tau - t))} \quad (4)$$

where k_{YN} (s^{-1}) is the Yoon–Nelson rate constant independent of time and τ (s) is the time required to reach 50% breakthrough.

The Bohart-Adams model proposes that the adsorption process is not instantaneous and that the rate is proportional to the residual adsorption capacity of the adsorbent and the concentration of the adsorbate [33]. The equation to describe the temporal evolution of adsorbate concentration is:

$$\frac{C_t}{C_0} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\left(k_{BA} C_0 \left(\frac{a_0 x}{u C_0} - t\right)\right)} \quad (5)$$

where k_{BA} ($L \text{ mg}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$) is the Bohart-Adams rate constant; a_0 (mg L^{-1}) is the initially available adsorption capacity of the adsorbent; x (cm) is the bed height and u (cm s^{-1}) is the linear flow velocity.

The models of Thomas, Yoon-Nelson, and Bohart–Adams are equivalent in terms of their mathematical expressions. Thus, the terms $k_{BA} C_0$, $k_T C_0$, and k_{YN} have the identical dimension of reciprocal time (min^{-1}) leading to the following relationships [34]:

$$k_T C_0 = k_{YN} = k_{BA} C_0 \quad (6)$$

$$\tau = \frac{q_0 m}{q_{C_0}} = \frac{a_0 x}{u C_0} \quad (7)$$

As a consequence, from a mathematical point of view, the breakthrough curves are coincident and only the parameter values defined by the initial adsorbate concentration differ in each model.

The Clark model is based on the mass-transfer concept in combination with the Freundlich isotherm, describing the plug-flow behavior in a fixed-bed column [35]:

$$\frac{C_t}{C_0} = \frac{1}{(1 + A \exp(-rt))^{\frac{1}{n-1}}} \quad (8)$$

where A (dimensionless) and r (s^{-1}) is the Clark model constant, and n (dimensionless) is the Freundlich constant which represents a measure of adsorption intensity.

The dose-response model is another example of a simplified model that fits better the breakthrough curves at low and high times as it provides an asymmetric prediction [36]:

$$\frac{C_t}{C_0} = 1 - \frac{1}{1 + (k_{DR} t)^\alpha} \quad (9)$$

where α (dimensionless) and k_{DR} (s^{-1}) are the dose-response parameters. The dose-response model represents a sigmoidal curve only when the parameter α is more than unity ($\alpha > 1$) and decides the slope of the regression function. Thus, the breakthrough curve becomes more symmetric with the increase in α . The constant k_{DR} is related to the throughput volume that produces a half-maximum response.

2.3. Optimization by experimental design and ANFIS Model

A three-level centered composite design (CCD) was carried out by

Table 2
Experimental conditions of the CCD.

Exp. n°	C ₀ (% CO ₂ , vol.)	T (°C)	m _{AC} (g)
1	40	45	2.0
2	40	45	1.0
3	40	15	2.0
4	40	15	1.0
5	40	30	1.5
6	10	45	1.0
7	10	15	2.0
8	10	15	1.0
9	10	45	2.0
10	10	30	1.5
11	25	30	1.5
12	25	45	1.5
13	25	15	1.5
14	25	30	2.0
15	25	30	1.0
16	25	30	1.5

selecting three variables: temperature (15, 30, and 45 °C), CO₂ inlet concentration (10 %, 25 %, and 40%, vol. obtained with mixtures of CO₂ and N₂), and activated carbon amount in the bed (1.0, 1.5 and 2.0 g). Table 2 shows the conditions of all the experiments taken.

The operating conditions were optimized by the surface response methodology considering an adaptative neuro-fuzzy inference system (ANFIS) selecting two response variables, the CO₂ adsorption capacity (q_{CO_2}) and the percentage removed (R). The neuro-fuzzy model combines the advantages of fuzzy logic systems and neural networks for the prediction of responses by non-linear fitting [37,38]. It establishes a point as the central operating conditions and around it, a series of points within the maximum and minimum operating conditions. It is based on an equation with independent variables, the use of the rules, a constant, and a Gaussian dependency equation. The ANFIS equation is a mathematical expression that predicts the behavior of the response variable (Y) as a function of the independent variable [39]:

$$Y = \frac{\sum_{l=1}^{16} a_l FR_l}{\sum_{l=1}^{16} FR_l} \quad (10)$$

where a_l represents the constant parameters, one per variable and level. Furthermore, each $F \cdot R_l$ is the combination of levels (low, medium, and high) for each independent variable. The $F \cdot R_l$ term is a function of Gaussian function (μ) for the three independent variables (X_i) with three levels (low, medium, and high), which are defined as follows:

$$\mu_{low} = \exp\left(-0.5 \cdot \left(\frac{X - X_{low}}{L}\right)^2\right) \quad (11)$$

$$\mu_{medium} = \exp\left(-0.5 \cdot \left(\frac{X - X_{medium}}{L}\right)^2\right) \quad (12)$$

$$\mu_{high} = \exp\left(-0.5 \cdot \left(\frac{X - X_{high}}{L}\right)^2\right) \quad (13)$$

where L is the width of the associated Gaussian function distribution, and X_i is the value of each independent variable at the considered level.

The ANFIS model estimates the response variable with the following equation:

$$Y = \frac{a_1 FR_1 + \dots + a_{16} FR_{12}}{FR_1 + \dots + FR_{12}} \quad (14)$$

The calculations were conducted by using software with ANFIS calculation.

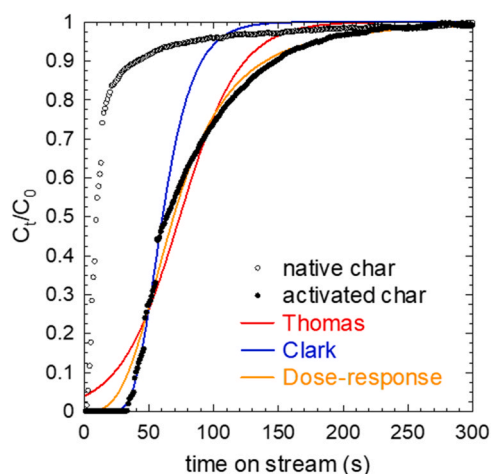


Fig. 1. Modeling fitting to the experimental CO₂ adsorption breakthrough. Experimental conditions: $T = 15\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $C_0 = 10\%$; $m_{AC} = 1\text{ g}$.

Table 3

Modeling fitting data results of CO₂ adsorption breakthrough. Experimental conditions: $T = 15\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $C_0 = 10\%$; $m_{AC} = 1\text{ g}$.

Model	Parameter	Value
Thomas	k_T ($\text{mL mg}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$)	0.2329
	q_0 (mg g^{-1})	22.9
	Adj. R^2	0.974
Yoon-Nelson	k_{YN} (s^{-1})	0.0434
	τ (s)	73.8
	Adj. R^2	0.974
Bohart-Adams	k_{BA} ($\text{mL mg}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$)	0.2329
	a_0 (mg L^{-1})	4515
	Adj. R^2	0.974
Clark	A	0.0489
	r (s^{-1})	0.0619
	N	1.0017
	Adj. R^2	0.927
Dose-response	k_{DR} (s^{-1})	0.0145
	α	3.0939
	Adj. R^2	0.994

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Modeling the breakthrough curves

The breakthrough curve of the CO₂ adsorption of the char before and after activation with KOH is depicted in Fig. 1. As it is illustrated, the native char immediately described the rise of the breakthrough curve from the beginning of the experiment, with a saturation time of 83 s, poorly retaining 6.2 mg CO₂ g⁻¹ and removing 7.3 %. The activated char improved these results by delaying the appearance of CO₂ until 33 s, the saturation time appeared at 183 s, retaining 27.4 mg CO₂ g⁻¹ and removing 26.1 %.

The experimental data were fitted to Thomas, Yoon-Nelson, Clark, and dose-response equations. The data were adjusted by non-linear regression techniques, using the adjusted determination coefficient (Adj. R^2) as the parameter to quantify the accuracy of the adjustment. Fig. 1 provides an example for the comparison of model suitability for the modeling of the breakthrough curves of CO₂ adsorption. Moreover, Table 3 provides the fitting results for the adjustment of the models. As can be appreciated, the model that best describes the evolution of the experimental data is the dose-response. The Yoon-Nelson model lacks confidence at low at high times of the curve. Although the Clark model fits well with the initial rise of the curve, at high times an important deviation is observed. The dose-response model due to the ability to describe asymmetric curves can predict with low error both parts of the

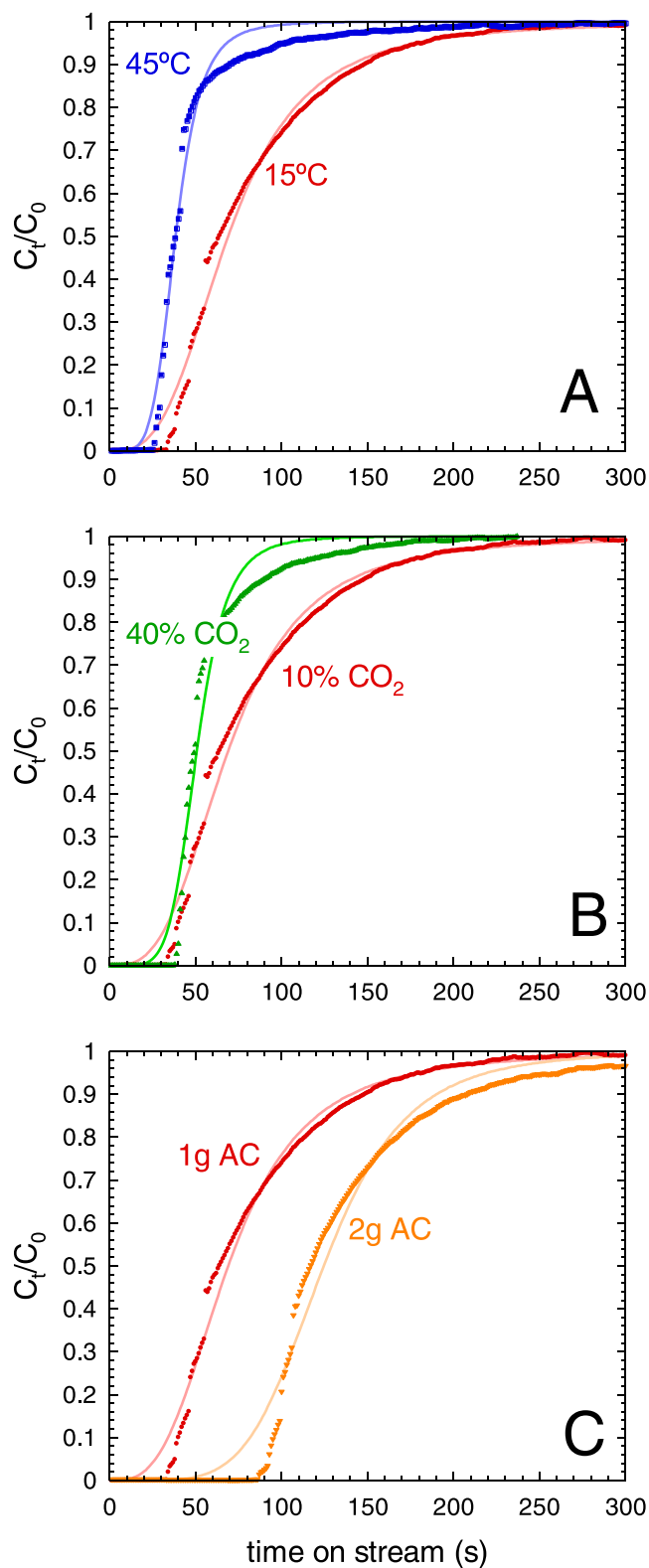


Fig. 2. Breakthrough curves of CO₂ adsorption. (A) Effect temperature ($C_0 = 10\%$; $m_{AC} = 1\text{ g}$). (B) Effect of the inlet CO₂ concentration ($T = 15\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $m_{AC} = 1\text{ g}$). (C) Effect of the bed height ($T = 15\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, $C_0 = 10\%$). Lines: fitting to the dose-response model.

Table 4
Breakthrough parameters of the fixed-bed CO₂ adsorption and fitting to the dose-response model.

Exp. n°	Experimental conditions			Response variables			Fitting parameters to the Dose-response model		
	C ₀ (% CO ₂)	T (°C)	m _{AC} (g)	Q _{total} (mg CO ₂)	q _{CO2} (mg CO ₂ g ⁻¹)	R (%)	k _{DR} (s ⁻¹)	A	Adj. R ²
1	40	45	2.0	78.62	39.31	14.98	0.0195	9.5260	0.990
2	40	45	1.0	63.13	63.13	16.60	0.0257	7.3055	0.984
3	40	15	2.0	126.10	63.05	22.75	0.0119	8.6039	0.990
4	40	15	1.0	78.59	78.59	25.13	0.0197	5.8572	0.985
5	40	30	1.5	77.89	51.93	27.65	0.0192	9.2035	0.986
6	10	45	1.0	19.07	19.07	15.85	0.0260	5.1296	0.989
7	10	15	2.0	45.84	22.92	32.13	0.0080	5.1954	0.991
8	10	15	1.0	27.41	27.41	26.15	0.0145	3.0939	0.994
9	10	45	2.0	25.22	12.61	21.71	0.0152	5.8503	0.991
10	10	30	1.5	25.02	16.68	25.02	0.0152	6.1322	0.983
11	25	30	1.5	72.39	48.26	29.52	0.0166	5.8160	0.986
12	25	45	1.5	71.08	35.54	21.66	0.0193	4.5897	0.983
13	25	15	1.5	75.40	50.27	28.76	0.0122	6.9175	0.989
14	25	30	2.0	71.98	35.99	25.76	0.0130	9.0300	0.990
15	25	30	1.0	39.65	39.65	34.55	0.0216	4.6006	0.992
16	25	30	1.5	57.78	38.52	25.26	0.0163	6.5760	0.989

curve. Recently, some modifications of classical equations such as the Yoon-Nelson family [40] and Clark model [41] have been improved based on the fractal-like strategy in which the adsorption rate constant is considered time-dependent, enhancing considerably the fitting results. Nonetheless, this improvement in the fitting entails higher mathematical complexity, as one extra parameter in the equation is added. The dose-response model, a two-parameters model, was selected based on the good ability to replicate the experimental curve.

By contrast, as observed in Table 3, although the Thomas model does not reproduce the breakthrough curve very well, the adsorption capacity value predicted by the model is very similar to that obtained experimentally, 22.9 vs 27.4 mg g⁻¹ respectively. Similarly, the Yoon-Nelson constant that represents the time when C_t/C₀ is equal to 0.5 (τ = 73.80 s) coincides with that obtained experimentally, i.e. 63 s. Although in this study the dose-response is the model that best fits the whole shape of the breakthrough curve, Yoon-Nelson has been used to model the behavior of CO₂ over Zeolite 5 A in fixed-bed column [42].

3.2. Influence of the operational parameters

The influence of the three operational parameters, i.e. temperature, inlet CO₂ concentration, and fixed-bed length, which affect the process, is represented in Fig. 2. In addition, Table 4 shows the experimental results obtained in terms of q_{CO2} and R and the fitting parameters to the dose-response model.

Either temperature or the inlet CO₂ concentration affected the shape and breakthrough time of the adsorbent, see Fig. 2. At a fixed inlet CO₂ concentration and adsorbent mass, a temperature rise favors mass transfer, and, consequently, the concentration profile becomes steeper and the mass-transfer zone becomes narrower [43]. The adsorption capacity decreased with a temperature rise due to the exothermic nature of CO₂ adsorption [43,44]. Moreover, the CO₂ molecular diffusion increases with the temperature rise [45]. This fact provides evidence of the physisorption nature of the process [46], in which CO₂ and the functional groups of the activated char are weakened with temperature, and prone to be desorbed [47]. On the other side, if the temperature is kept constant and the inlet CO₂ increases, the CO₂ capacity considerably increases. This positive effect exerted by inlet CO₂ concentration is linked to a greater probability of several CO₂ molecules interacting with the active points of the adsorbent. Furthermore, the CO₂ concentration gradient is greater and consequently, the resistance to mass transfer is lowered [46,48]. This opposite effect of temperature and inlet CO₂ concentration is easily verified in extreme conditions. Fixing m_{AC} = 1 g for the fixed bed, the conditions with the best adsorption capacity were 40 % CO₂ and 15 °C (78.59 mg CO₂ g⁻¹). On the contrary, the worst capacity was recorded at 10 % CO₂ and 45 °C (19.07 mg CO₂ g⁻¹). This

antagonism effect has also been reported in the CO₂ adsorption onto activated carbon from biomass origin [49].

The length of the fixed bed, represented by the adsorbent mass, as expected was translated in longer rupture times with no significant changes in the shape of the sigmoidal breakthrough curves, see Fig. 2C. The CO₂ capacity was within the same order, i.e. with 10 % of inlet CO₂ and 15 °C, the adsorption capacities were 22.92 and 27.41 mg CO₂ g⁻¹ for 1 and 2 g of adsorbent, respectively.

Several researchers have indicated similar behaviors in the study of the operating parameters in the adsorption of CO₂ with different adsorbent materials, using a fixed bed column. An increase in temperature produces a decrease in the adsorption forces and promotes desorption. Biochar obtained from marine algae activated with KOH was proved effective for the adsorption of CO₂, leading to an adsorption capacity decrease from 1.05 to 0.45 mmol g⁻¹ (46.2–19.8 mg g⁻¹) for *Sargassum*-activated chars and 0.52–0.37 mmol g⁻¹ (22.9–16.3 mg g⁻¹) for *Enteromorpha* activated chars when the temperature increased from 25 to 100 °C [50]. Besides, this study reports that the adsorption capacities increased with the rise of the initial CO₂ concentration from 3 % to 18 %, varying from 0.23 to 1.08 mmol g⁻¹ (10.1–47.5 mg g⁻¹) and from 0.13 to 0.56 mmol g⁻¹ (5.7–24.6 mg g⁻¹) for the activated carbons prepared with *Sargassum* and *Enteromorpha*, respectively. This effect is associated with the higher mass transfer rate as the inlet CO₂ concentration rises. Another example of operating variables study during the adsorption of CO₂ in a fixed-bed column is represented by the use of natural yellow tuff [51]. The adsorption capacity was reported to decrease the temperature because, although with a temperature increase more energy is transmitted to the CO₂ molecules in the gas phase, making diffusion faster, the more excited CO₂ molecules are less likely to be trapped by the solid and the adsorbed CO₂ can escape from the attractive forces exerted by the adsorbent surface. The natural tuff led to, for example, for an initial concentration of 10 % CO₂, the adsorption capacity within 0.561 mmol g⁻¹ at 25 °C (24.7 mg g⁻¹) to a value of 0.124 mmol g⁻¹ at 150 °C (5.45 mg g⁻¹). The use of biochar obtained after hydrothermal carbonization of pineapple peel waste was found to be affected negatively by temperature in the capacity in a fixed-bed column, decreasing from 2.04 mmol g⁻¹ (89.8 mg g⁻¹) to 1.25 mmol g⁻¹ (55.0 mg g⁻¹) when the temperature raised from 30 to 70 °C [52]. At higher temperatures, the adsorption equilibrium was reached faster due to the accelerated diffusion of CO₂ molecules in the pores of the adsorbent. Furthermore, as the temperature increased, the breakthrough times were found to decrease, indicating that the process was exothermic. In addition, the authors reported that as the initial concentration of CO₂ increased, the adsorption capacity increased, although the breakthrough and saturation times were shortened [52]. The effect of the feeding flow rate was also assessed, obtaining that with an

Table 5
Literature comparison of CO₂ uptake with carbon materials, zeolites, and MOFs.

Material	S _{BET} (m ² g ⁻¹)	V _T (cm ³ g ⁻¹)	T (K)	q _{CO₂} (mmol g ⁻¹)	Ref.	
Carbon materials	Commercial GAC	954	0.48	298	1.66	[54]
	Commercial carbon nanotubes	394	0.91	298	1.57	[54]
	Graphene	620	0.71	298	2.28	[55]
	Graphene oxide	145	0.02	298	0.50	[56]
Zeolites	Activated carbon from plastic char	487	0.30	298	1.79	This work
	LTA	140	0.35	298	3.07	[57]
	Z4A	39	0.13	298	3.39	[58]
	5 A	334	0.18	298	3.68	[59]
	HZSM-5	373	0.29	298	4.11	[60]
	13X	876	0.35	298	6.18	[61]
MOFs	HKUST-1	1466	0.60	298	4.16	[62]
	MIL-125	1510	0.68	298	2.18	[63]
	NH ₂ -MIL-125	1492	0.60	298	4.00	[63]
	UiO-66	1390	0.70	273	2.20	[64]
	NH ₂ -UiO-66	1258	0.51	298	3.15	[65]
	NH ₂ -MIL-53(Al)	400	1.03	296	1.88	[66]
	FJU-90	1572	0.65	298	4.60	[67]
	MIL-101(Cr)	2166	1.07	298	1.17	[68]
ZIF-8	880	0.46	298	0.67	[59]	

The total pressure of the system in all the cases is 1 bar.

Table 6
Fitting constants to ANFIS model for adsorption capacity and removal percentage modeling.

Constant	q _{CO₂} (mg g ⁻¹)	R (%)
a ₁	24.15	28.26
a ₂	32.32	21.74
a ₃	44.68	18.29
a ₄	25.32	10.39
a ₅	13.08	36.15
a ₆	22.45	52.19
a ₇	25.95	40.51
a ₈	21.08	34.75
a ₉	17.98	84.74
a ₁₀	29.84	66.12
a ₁₁	16.93	67.24
a ₁₂	13.55	38.76

increment of the flow rate from 30 to 70 mL min⁻¹, the adsorption capacity decreased from 2.04 to 1.55 mmol g⁻¹ (89.8–68.2 mg g⁻¹) also reducing the breakthrough time from 6 to 2 min. At higher flow rates, shorter breakthrough times occur because of the retention and contact time between the gas molecules and the adsorbent surface, which were reduced [52]. A similar effect of the flow rate and temperature has also been obtained using other very different materials such as a molecular sieve and silica gel type-III [53] which suggest that the effect of the operating variables is related to the properties of CO₂ rather than the material used.

To assess the competitiveness of the prepared material, the adsorption capacity has been compared to other similar materials typically used for CO₂ capture and storage, see Table 5. The maximum value of 1.79 mmol CO₂ g⁻¹ (40 % inlet CO₂, 15 °C, 1 g material) was compared to other studies, including other remarkable carbonaceous materials, zeolites, and metal-organic frameworks (MOFs). Carbonaceous materials display a moderate CO₂ adsorption capacity, some modified graphene-based materials being the most promising in this group. Zeolites generally outstand as the most effective adsorbents, with uptakes over 3 mmol CO₂ g⁻¹. Metal-organic frameworks can be also very competitive if conveniently designed. However, regarding zeolites and especially in the case of the MOFs, their use at large-scale implies an important increase in the cost. The activated carbon prepared from the char pyrolysis of the plastic mixture displayed a similar CO₂ adsorption capacity if compared to commercial formulas, which confirms the suitability of the valorization of this char residue for the preparation of a competitive adsorbent.

Table 7
Parameters of the ANFIS model for the q_{CO₂} and R modeling.

Variable	Level	q _{CO₂}		R	
		X	L	X	L
Inlet CO ₂ (% vol.)	Low	11.100	13.600	10.000	6.370
	Medium	-	-	25.000	6.369
	High	42.310	9.839	40.000	6.370
Temperature (°C)	Low	15.000	6.370	14.370	12.500
	Medium	30.000	6.370	-	-
	High	45.000	6.369	44.500	13.200
Adsorbent mass (g)	Low	0.874	0.213	0.874	0.233
	High	1.950	0.455	1.950	0.455

Table 8
Accuracy of ANFIS modeling to the adsorption capacity and removal percentage.

Exp. n°	q (mg g ⁻¹), Adj. R ² = 0.983			R (%), Adj. R ² = 0.969		
	q _{exp}	q _{calc}	q error (%)	R _{exp}	R _{calc}	R error (%)
1	39.31	39.59	0.73	14.98	15.29	2.11
2	63.13	63.22	0.15	16.60	16.61	0.09
3	63.05	63.26	0.34	22.75	22.59	0.68
4	78.59	78.63	0.06	25.13	25.12	0.01
5	51.93	51.37	1.08	27.65	28.01	1.30
6	19.07	19.07	0.03	15.85	15.85	0.04
7	22.92	22.63	1.23	32.13	31.86	0.84
8	27.41	27.40	0.02	26.15	26.13	0.07
9	12.61	12.29	2.53	21.71	22.58	4.02
10	16.68	17.30	3.74	25.02	25.89	3.51
11	48.26	41.38	14.24	29.52	26.50	10.20
12	35.54	34.59	2.66	21.66	20.37	5.94
13	50.27	49.44	1.64	28.76	29.10	1.20
14	35.99	41.46	15.20	25.76	26.31	2.15
15	39.65	39.91	0.68	34.55	34.49	0.15
16	38.52	41.38	7.44	25.26	26.50	4.94

3.3. Surface response curves by ANFIS model

The ANFIS model was applied to analyze the behavior of the operational parameters and explore the optimum conditions to maximize the CO₂ adsorption capacity and the removal percentage (R). The fitting constants of the ANFIS model are shown in Table 6, the parameters of the model regarding Eqs. 10 to 14 in Table 7, the accuracy is summarized in Table 8 and the surface response generated is illustrated in Fig. 3.

The ANFIS model applied was selected for two levels, high and low,

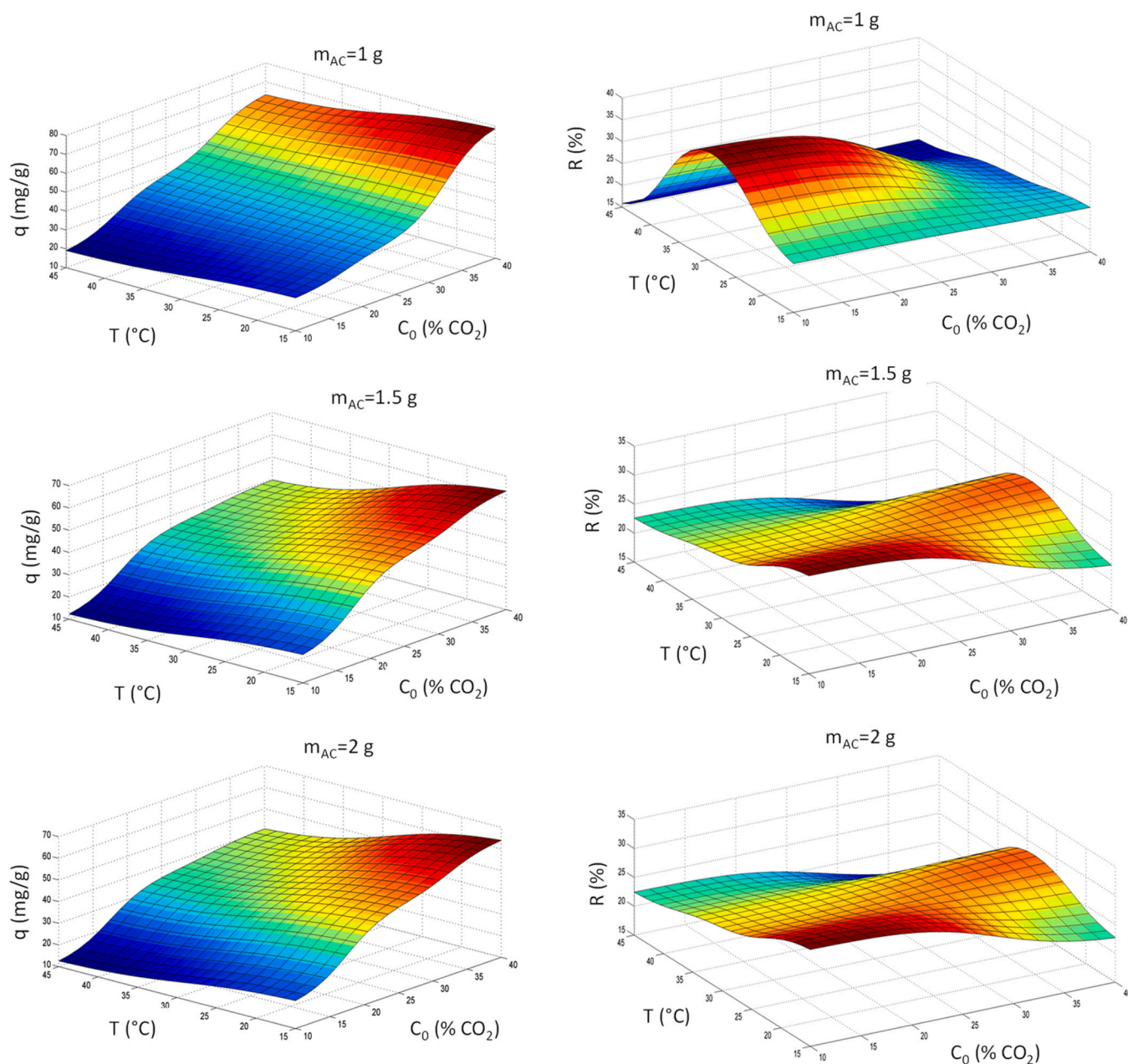


Fig. 3. Predicted surface response curves by ANFIS model for the adsorption capacity (q) and removal (R).

for the three variables (% CO₂, temperature, and adsorbent mass). An extra level, medium, was only added to one of the three variables due to the number of experiments conducted. The additional medium level was considered for the variables that affect the most to the response, i.e. inlet CO₂ concentration and temperature. Thus, as shown in Table 8 the best fitting results were acquired with the medium level in the temperature for the adsorption capacity and in the inlet CO₂ concentration for the removal as a response.

Table 8 also shows the experimental and calculated values and the relative error values for each studied response variable in all the experiments conducted. In general, the error between the model and the experimental data is lower than 5 %, and the Adj. R^2 for both responses, q_{CO_2} and R , were > 0.9 . The adjusted R^2 value was used as a tool to assess the goodness of the fitting model, leading to 0.983 and 0.969 in the modeling of the adsorption capacity and the removal percentage, respectively.

Fig. 3 corroborates that the higher the inlet CO₂ concentration and

the lower the temperature, the adsorption capacity was maximized with no significant interaction between both variables. The presence of a maximum within the study range was appreciated at the highest adsorbate concentration and lowest temperature. The adsorbent loading in the column exerted a slightly negative effect, being the adsorbed capacity higher at the lower adsorbent load, i.e. the maximum CO₂ capacity was close to 80 mg g⁻¹ (40 % CO₂, 15 °C, $m_{\text{AC}} = 1$ g). This inverse dependence between CO₂ concentration and temperature with a lack of an optimum in a wider range has been also reported with biochar from softwood bark as adsorbent [69], with no boundary definition of the maximum CO₂ adsorbed within the range of study, leading to a predicted value of around 16.5 mg g⁻¹ under $C_0 = 40$ % and $T = 20$ °C. Very similar capacity adsorption ($q_{\text{CO}_2} = 78$ mg g⁻¹) was reported under similar operating conditions (35 % CO₂ inlet, $T = 25$ °C) using as adsorbent biochar (white wood) after activation with KOH [70].

4. Conclusions

The char obtained as a residue in the chemical valorization of non-recyclable post-consumer plastics can be activated to develop an adsorbent with competitive properties for the adsorption of CO₂ in the gas phase. The adsorption process was studied in fixed-bed columns through the obtention of the breakthrough curves. The influence of inlet CO₂ concentration, temperature, and mass adsorbent in the bed was assessed, concluding that the two first are of paramount importance. The best result of CO₂ uptake was 78 mg g⁻¹ under the highest inlet CO₂ (40 %), the lowest temperature (15 °C), and moderate adsorbent load (1 g). The bed length displayed a minor influence. The ANFIS model was found as a useful tool to simulate the influence of the operational variables with a low deviation concerning the experimental data.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Ana Ligeró: Investigation, Methodology, Software, Writing – Original Draft; **Mónica Calero:** Investigation, Supervision, Writing – Review & Editing, Project Administration, Funding Acquisition; **María Ángeles Martín-Lara:** Investigation, Supervision, Writing – Review & Editing, Project Administration, Funding Acquisition; **Gabriel Blázquez:** Investigation, Supervision, Writing – Review & Editing; **Rafael R. Solís:** Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing – Original Draft, Visualization; **Antonio Pérez:** Conceptualization, Software, Supervision, Formal Analysis, Supervision, Writing – Review & Editing.

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.

Data Availability

Data will be made available on request.

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