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## Economic material for large-scale H<sub>2</sub> storage and H<sub>2</sub>-CO<sub>2</sub> separation

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## Research papers

Economic material for large-scale H<sub>2</sub> Storage and H<sub>2</sub>-CO<sub>2</sub> separationHussein Rasool Abid<sup>a,b,\*</sup>, Alireza Keshavarz<sup>a</sup>, Header Jaffer<sup>c</sup>, Basim K. Nile<sup>d</sup>, Stefan Iglauer<sup>a,\*\*</sup><sup>a</sup> Centre for Sustainable Energy and Resources, Edith Cowan University, 270 Joondalup Dr, Joondalup 6027, WA, Australia<sup>b</sup> Environmental Health Department, Applied Medical Sciences, University of Kerbala, Karbala 56001, Iraq<sup>c</sup> Physiology and Medical Physics Department, College of Medicine, University of Kerbala, 56001, Iraq<sup>d</sup> Civil Engineering Department, College of Engineering, University of Kerbala, Karbala 56001, Iraq

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## ABSTRACT

Hydrogen is a clean fuel that can potentially completely decarbonize the energy supply chain and mitigate global warming. Hydrogen – a highly volatile gas – however, needs to be separated from CO<sub>2</sub> during H<sub>2</sub> production, and also from cushion gas in H<sub>2</sub> geo-storage projects; in addition, large-scale H<sub>2</sub> storage is a key obstacle. We thus tested and chemically upgraded common sub-bituminous coal as a material for H<sub>2</sub>-CO<sub>2</sub> separation and H<sub>2</sub> storage.

The coal adsorbed significant amounts of H<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> and demonstrated an excellent H<sub>2</sub>-CO<sub>2</sub> separation efficiency if chemically modified. The work presented here thus provides fundamental data required for the economic production and storage of H<sub>2</sub>, so that an industrial-scale clean and sustainable energy supply can be established.

## 1. Introduction

Globing warming is increasingly affecting our climate in a detrimental way. Greenhouse gas emissions must thus be drastically reduced and associated clean and sustainable energy supplies need to be established [1,2].

CO<sub>2</sub> is the foremost gas emitted into the atmosphere when fossil fuels are burned; therefore, many techniques have been used to control its emission [3]. Carbon capture utilization and storage (CCUS) technologies are specifically used to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions [4]. The post-combustion techniques (Absorption, adsorption, and membrane) are worldwide used to capture CO<sub>2</sub> after occurring the combustion [5]. The adsorption technique based on the use of solid porous materials (adsorbents) is popularly utilized to capture or separate CO<sub>2</sub> [6]. Although the adsorption process can offer notable energy savings in comparison with other methods, this process has some drawbacks related to its performance and efficiency in the removal of CO<sub>2</sub> [7]. However, the best solution is to use zero-carbon emission fuel, therefore, hydrogen is the global candidate to replace conventional fossil fuels [8].

In this context, a hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>)-based economy, but also carbon capture and storage (CCS – typically combined with fossil fuel burning) solutions have been proposed, and, to a rather limited extent,

implemented [9]. Two main obstacles exist in this respect, namely firstly, how to store the highly compressible H<sub>2</sub> and the very large quantities of CO<sub>2</sub> (>50 Gt/a) [10], and secondly, how to separate H<sub>2</sub> from CO<sub>2</sub> (which is required after producing H<sub>2</sub> via steam reforming or when H<sub>2</sub> has to be separated from cushion gas in underground hydrogen storage) [11–14]. Various materials have been used to capture and separate gases [15]. Modification process was effectively used to improve the adsorption affinities of some adsorbents, enhancing their storage capacities for CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> and their separation [16,17]. Coal is the cheapest material that is hugely available, therefore it was considered to be an excellent alternative adsorbent instead of commercial ones. Sub-bituminous coal was successfully tested for H<sub>2</sub> adsorption with a competitive adsorption potential [13]. Also, this coal was chemically modified and utilized as a promising material for CO<sub>2</sub> storage and CO<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub> separation, which was unprecedentedly enhanced in modified –coal [16]. Huge amount of dyes is discharged into rivers as wastewater, therefore removing of this waste is an essential request to protect the public health and environment. Many techniques are used to remove cationic and anionic dyes from wastewater [18]. However, due to the chemical and electronic characteristics of the dyes, anionic dyes such as Congo red (CR), Xylenol orange (XO), Methyl orange (MO) and Bromothymol blue (BB) have been recently used to change the surface

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**Table 1**  
Chemical properties of the sub-bituminous coal used here [21].

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

functionalities of adsorbents toward enhancing CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption [19–21]. Accordingly, the injection of the dyes in the coal reservoirs is expected to dually work; firstly, to discard the waste of the dyes and secondly to improve their implication for gas storage.

We, therefore, tested, modified, and chemically improved common

sub-bituminous coal in terms of its gas adsorption (gas storage) and gas separation (separation efficiency) capabilities. We demonstrate that coal can adsorb large amounts of CO<sub>2</sub>, but also significant amounts of H<sub>2</sub>; the coals – especially the chemically improved ones – also showed excellent H<sub>2</sub>-CO<sub>2</sub> separation efficiencies. This work thus provides fundamental data for a novel gas storage and separation process, and aids in the implementation of a fully decarbonized energy supply chain.

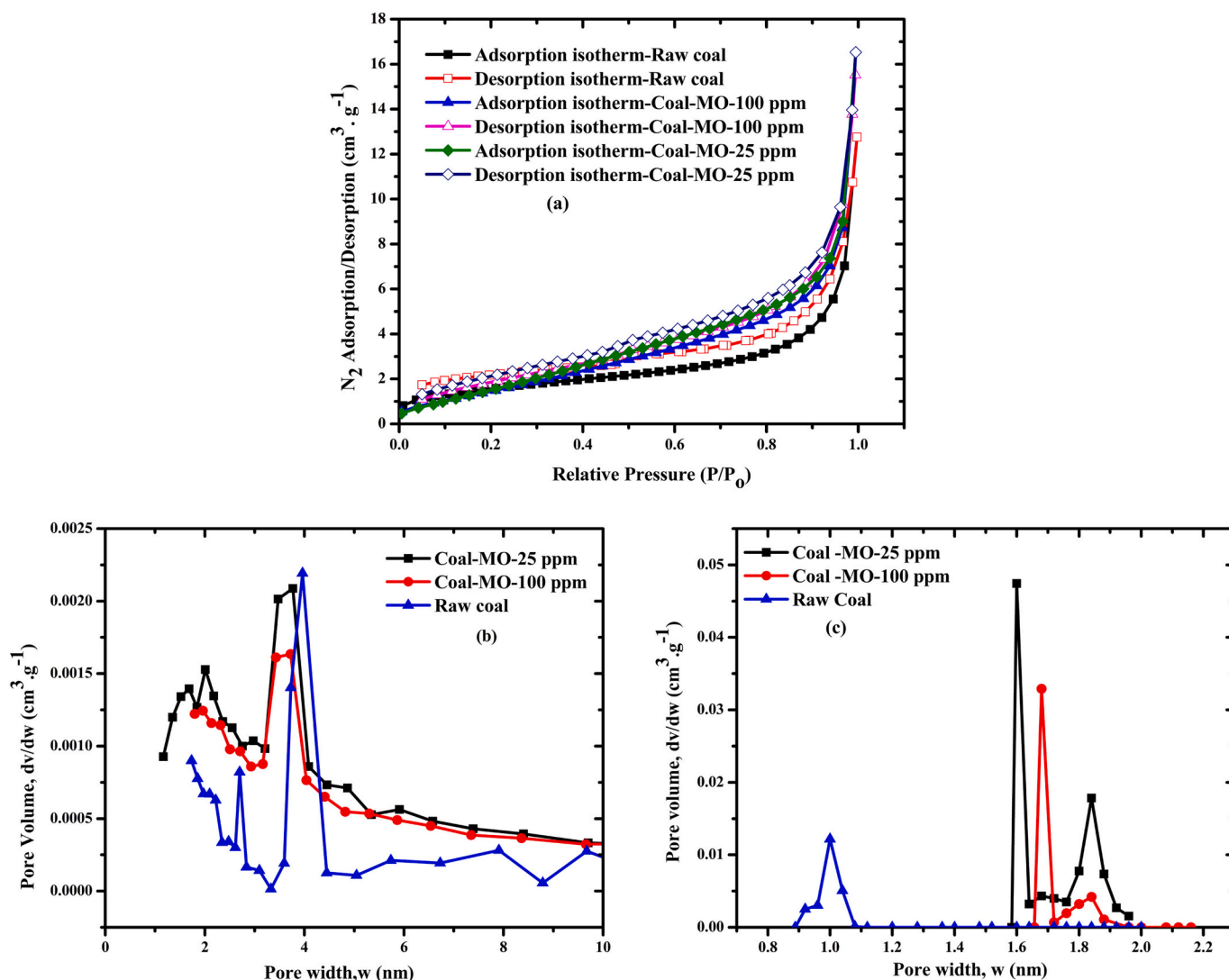
**2. Materials and methods**

**2.1. Coal material**

A sub-bituminous coal sample (Pan Upper; Collie, Western Australia) with a maximum vitrinite reflectance of 0.38 % was crushed and sieved to a homogenous particle size (250–450 μm). Ultimate and proximate analysis were previously performed on the same coal, compare Table 1.

**2.2. Modification of coals**

Sub-bituminous coal was modified with methyl orange (MO, dye content 85 wt%). Thus 25 and 100 ppm aqueous methyl orange solutions were prepared (at 303 K and pH 7) by adding 1 g of the raw coal into 40 mL of deionized (DI) water under ongoing mixing for 2 days. Subsequently, the resulting coal-MO powder was separated from the

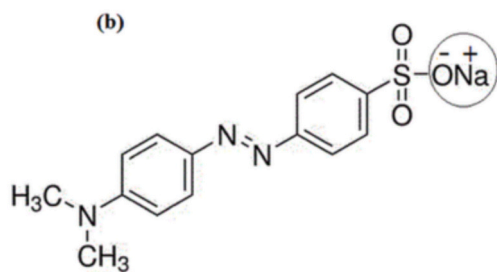
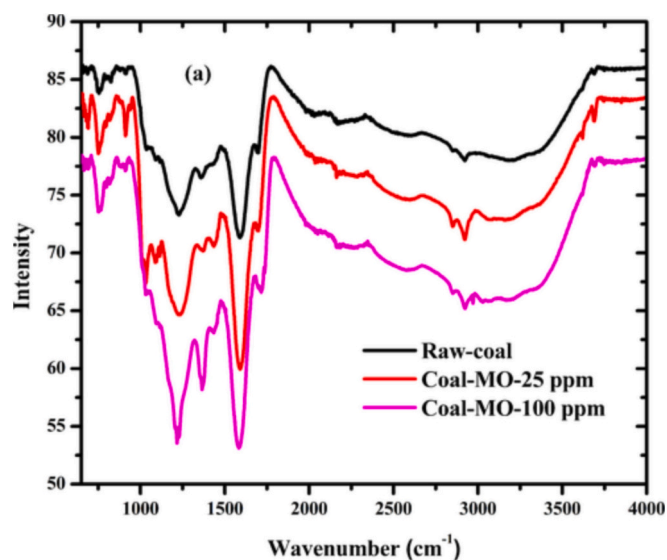


**Fig. 1.** N<sub>2</sub> Adsorption/desorption isotherms (a); and mesopore (b) and micropore (c) size distributions measured for the tested coals.

**Table 2**  
Textural properties of the coals examined.

Coal	BET surface area (m <sup>2</sup> /g)	Total pore volume (cm <sup>3</sup> /g)	Average micropore diameter (nm) <sup>a</sup>	Average pore diameter (nm) <sup>a</sup>
Raw coal	5.78	0.027	2.23	14.45
Coal-MO-25 ppm	6.45	0.025	1.73	15.85
Coal-MO-100 ppm	6.88	0.024	1.2	14.00

<sup>a</sup> Arithmetic average from BET analysis.



**Fig. 2.** FTIR spectra of raw and treated coals (a) and chemical structure of MO (b).

dispersions via vacuum filtration using filter paper grade 1 (11  $\mu\text{m}$  openings), and the MO-coal powder was dried at 343 K for 24 h in a preheated oven. Note that the raw coal used was washed with deionized water prior to use.

### 2.3. Coal characterization

The prepared coal samples were thoroughly analysed via a range of techniques, including ATR-FTIR (using a Perkin Elmer Spectrometer 100-FT-IR), N<sub>2</sub> adsorption/desorption isotherms and pore size distribution (PSD) measurements (using a Tristar 3020 instrument), Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) using a RAYONS X-Rays instrument (with a cobalt K $\alpha$  radiation source at 40 kV and 40 mA and phase identification

via High Score software) as well as SEM imaging and EDS mapping (performed with a Hitachi SU3500 Scanning Electron Microscope).

### 2.4. Adsorption measurements

CO<sub>2</sub> (HPG, purity  $\geq 99.99$  mol%), H<sub>2</sub> (Grade 5.0; UHPG, purity  $\geq 99.999$  mol%), He (HPG, purity  $\geq 99.99$  mol%) and Air (Instrument Grade-Compressed, purity  $\geq 99.99$  mol%) were supplied by Coregas. Static adsorption was measured on a PCTpro adsorption analyzer (SETARAM Instrumentation) as described earlier [21]. All adsorption tests were performed at prescribed pressures (7–42 bar) at 303 K. Several tests were repeated thrice, and the average standard deviation was estimated as 2.4 % based on these replicate measurements.

## 3. Results and discussion

### 3.1. Characterization of the raw and modified coals

All N<sub>2</sub> adsorption/desorption isotherms demonstrated desorption hysteresis, indicating type IV adsorption systems, Fig. 1a. Note that in a type IV adsorption systems, mesopores (2 nm – 50 nm) and macropores (>50 nm) dominate [22,23]. This hysteresis was narrower in the coal-MO samples due to the modification of the pore network (caused by MO incorporation) [24,25]. Incorporation of MO into the coal matrix also changed the PSD and the textural properties of the modified samples.

Specifically, BET surface area increased with increasing MO content. Furthermore, the coal-MO samples demonstrated higher microporosities than the raw coal, therefore, in contrast to average pore diameter, the average micropore was decreased with increasing the content of MO, Table 2. Whereas, Fig. 1b (mesopore size distribution) shows that, mesopore diameter decreased mainly from 4 nm in raw coal to 3.5 nm in both coal-MO samples and micropore diameter in Fig. 1c (micropore size distribution) increased from 1 nm in raw coal to 1.6 and 1.9 nm in coal-MO-25 ppm, and 1.7 nm in coal-MO-100 ppm.

MO incorporation into the coal was also confirmed by FTIR, and a slight shift in FTIR signals was observed for the treated samples, Fig. 2a. Thus MO functionalities increased the intensities of some peaks, including the broad band at wavenumber 3250 cm<sup>-1</sup> (caused by O–H stretching vibrations) [26], the peaks at 2850 and 2923 cm<sup>-1</sup> (C–N bond vibrations, and/or asymmetric CH<sub>3</sub> stretching vibrations) [27], the peak at 1698 cm<sup>-1</sup> (C=O stretching vibrations) [28,29], the peaks at 1373 and 1434 cm<sup>-1</sup> (N=N stretching vibrations), the peaks at 1229 and 1592 cm<sup>-1</sup> (CH<sub>3</sub> and C=C stretching vibrations), the peaks at 685 and 755 cm<sup>-1</sup> (C–S stretching vibrations), as well as the peaks at 913, 1032, and 1091 cm<sup>-1</sup> (SO<sub>3</sub> stretching vibrations).

In addition, with increasing MO concentration, the sodium (Na) content increased, compare EDS images in Fig. 3. This increase in Na concentration in the modified samples is stemming from the incorporation of MO into the coal as MO contained Na, see Fig. 3b.

XRD peak patterns overlapped, albeit their peak intensities varied between the samples, Fig. 4. This shift in XRD-peak intensities was caused by the changing kaolinite content, while the quartz content was reduced proportionally (e.g. an additional peak emerged at  $2\theta = 36.98^\circ$  for coal-MO-100 ppm, Fig. 5, this peak is one of the main kaolinite peaks [30]) (Table 3).

### 3.2. H<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacities

#### 3.2.1. H<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacities

H<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity  $\kappa(\text{H}_2)$  significantly decreased when MO was incorporated into the coal, Fig. 5a. Thus,  $\kappa(\text{H}_2)$  decreased from 0.24 mol/kg coal for raw sub-bituminous coal to 0.172 mol/kg for 25 ppm MO-coal and 0.058 mol/kg for 100 ppm MO (at 323 K and 42.5 bar); this reduction can be attributed to MO molecules being not uniformly incorporated into the coal as the coal is not a homogenous matrix [31].



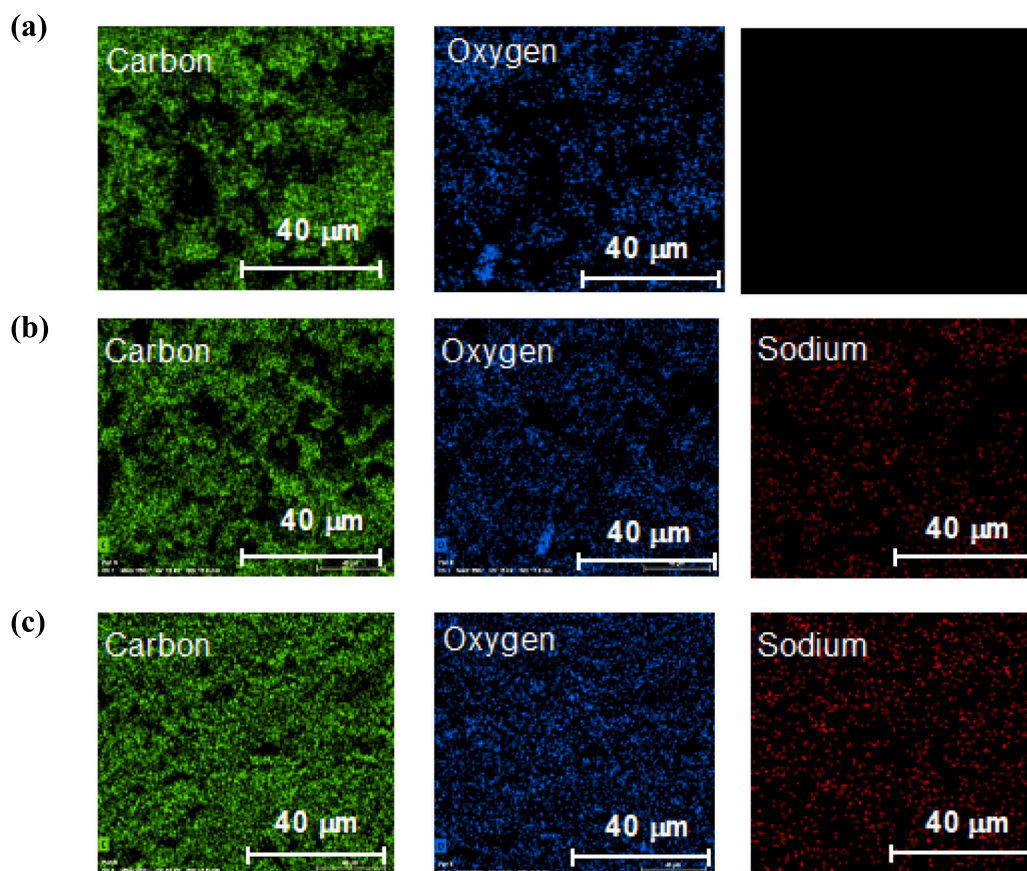


Fig. 3. Energy-dispersive x-ray spectrographic maps of carbon (C), oxygen (O) and sodium (Na) on a) raw coal, b) coal-MO-25 ppm and c) coal-MO-100 ppm.

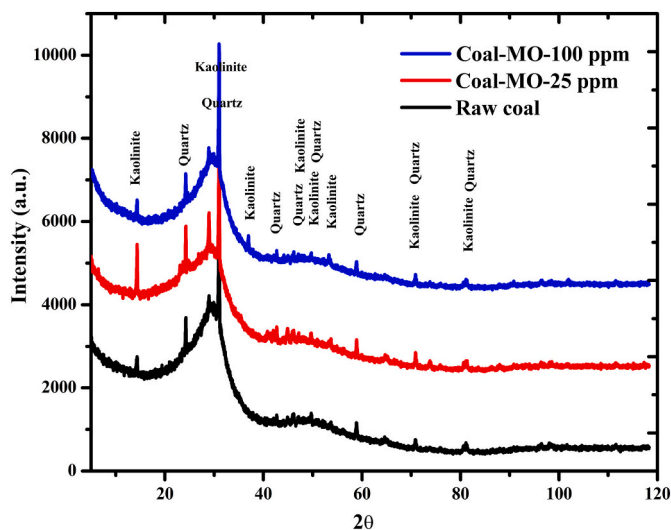


Fig. 4. XRD patterns of the coals tested.

Note that orbital interactions (induced by polarization of  $H_2$  molecules) are more dominant in adsorbents enriched with functional groups which contain free electrons (e.g. amine or carbonyl groups) [14,32]. Hence, the negative charge on one end and the dimethyl substituted nitrogen atom on the other end of the MO molecule induced weak interactions with hydrogen species [33]; however, as MO (and consequently the negative MO charges) were randomly distributed on the surfaces of modified coals,  $H_2$  polarization and thus  $H_2$  adsorption were reduced.

[34–36].

The  $\kappa(H_2)$  response to increasing pressure, was, however, more complex. While at highest MO loading (100 ppm),  $\kappa(H_2)$  increased monotonically with pressure on raw coal,  $\kappa(H_2)$  for the MO-100 ppm and the MO-25 ppm coal exhibited a non-linear response, and  $\kappa(H_2)$  went through a maximum (at  $\sim 35$  bar). This non-linear response was caused by two opposing factors, namely a) the increase in  $\kappa(H_2)$  with increasing pressure [13], and b) the decrease in pore accessibility due to the compression of the pores at high pressure.

### 3.2.2. $CO_2$ adsorption capacities

$CO_2$  adsorption capacity ( $\kappa(CO_2)$ ) strongly increased with MO incorporation, Fig. 5b; specifically,  $\kappa(CO_2)$  increased from 2.15 mol/kg in raw coal to 3.6 and 5.25 mol/kg in coal-MO-25 ppm and coal-MO-100 ppm. This was caused by electron-rich functional surface groups (such as -OH, C=O,  $-SO_3$ , N=N and C=C, compare Fig. 3), which were more concentrated on the MO-modified coal surfaces.

This increase in negative surface charge density (induced by these electron-rich functional groups) strongly attracted  $CO_2$  molecules (due to  $CO_2$ 's high quadrupole moment) [14,32], leading to increased  $CO_2$  adsorption. Specifically, an increase in  $CO_2$  adsorption was due to encapsulation of the anionic MO into the coal pores. This encapsulated negative charge dyes enhanced the polarity of the pores and strongly attracted positive moieties of the  $CO_2$  molecules and consequently oriented the adsorbed  $CO_2$  molecules parallel to the adsorbent's surface [20,21]. This flat adsorption profile significantly enhances  $CO_2$ - $CO_2$  intermolecular interaction and reducing the steric hindrance caused by perpendicular orientation of  $CO_2$  within the adsorption film inside the pores. The orientation is usually driven by the chemical nature of the pore wall and the strength of  $CO_2$ -surface interactions. The adsorption capacity was also further enhanced with slightly increasing the surface

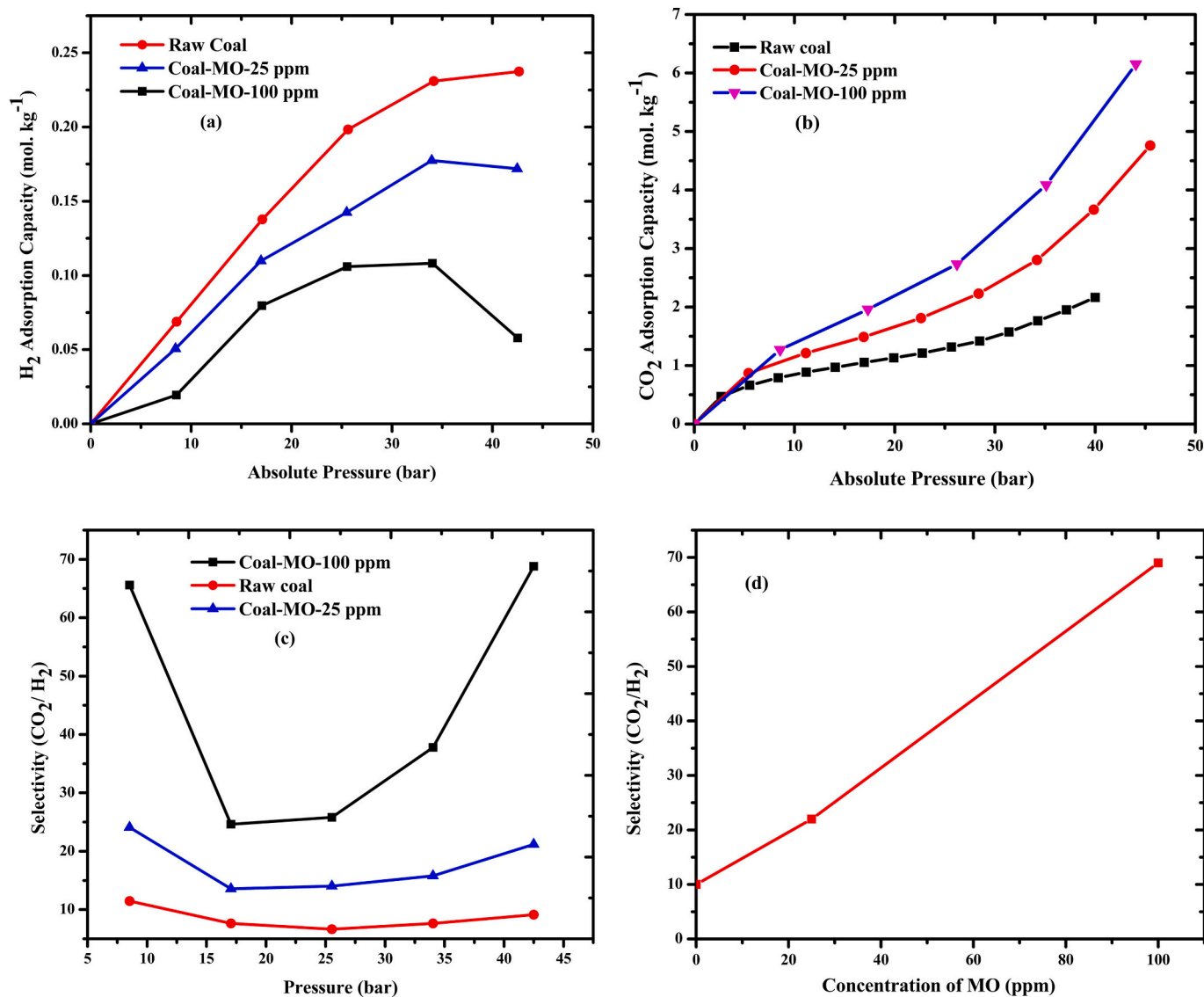


Fig. 5. Adsorption isotherms of (a) H<sub>2</sub> and (b) CO<sub>2</sub> as a function of pressure (measured at 323 K), and CO<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub> separation factor as a function of pressure (c) and MO concentration (d).

Table 3

Composition of mineral the coals tested (based on XRD analysis).

Coal	Quartz (wt%)	Kaolinite (wt%)
Sub-bituminous	56	44
Sub-bituminous-25	35	65
Sub-bituminous-100	31	69

area and reducing the pore size in the coal-MO samples [21,37].

Moreover,  $\kappa(\text{CO}_2)$  increased drastically and monotonically with increasing pressure, Fig. 5b. This is consistent with previous results on a large range of coal/coal ranks [38]. Again, the increased molecular CO<sub>2</sub> concentration at increased pressure led to stronger CO<sub>2</sub>-coal affinity and thus higher CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption [21,39]. Finally,  $\kappa(\text{CO}_2)$  was much higher than  $\kappa(\text{H}_2)$  (e.g.  $\kappa(\text{CO}_2)$ ) at 30 bar and 323 K was 0.11–0.21 mol/kg for H<sub>2</sub>, while it was 1.5–3.7 mol/kg for CO<sub>2</sub> (caused by the much higher CO<sub>2</sub> quadrupole moment [32]). Thus, we also conclude that steric hindrance effect observed for H<sub>2</sub> adsorption was insignificant in terms of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption.

### 3.3. CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> separation factor

CO<sub>2</sub> separation from a CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> mixture can be performed via preferential adsorption (if one gas has a higher adsorption capacity than the other); the efficiency of this process can be quantified by the CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> separation factor  $\Omega$  ( $= \kappa_{\text{CO}_2}/\kappa_{\text{H}_2}$ ; a specific value for a given thermo-physical condition). Here, for the coals examined,  $\Omega$  reached a high value (2–69), depending on pressure and coal type; this is discussed in more detail below.

#### 3.3.1. Effect of methyl orange on CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> separation factor

$\Omega$  drastically increased when MO was incorporated (compare  $\Omega = 2$ –12 for raw coal with  $\Omega = 15$ –25 for MO-25 ppm coal and  $\Omega = 27$ –69 for MO-100 ppm coal, Fig. 5). All  $\Omega$ -pressure curves (for all three coals tested) demonstrated a minimum at intermediate pressures (at 15–35 bar); these minima appeared at lower pressures when MO was incorporated (15–25 bar for MO-coal versus 22–30 bar for raw coal, Fig. 5c and d). Very high  $\Omega$  values ( $\sim 70$ ) could be achieved with MO-100 ppm coal at relatively low (<10 bar) pressures but also at high pressures (>40 bar); such  $\Omega$ -values are comparable to those of MOF [40], zeolites [41] and activated carbon [42] adsorbents. As such commercial

**Table 4**CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> adsorption and theoretical CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> selectivity.

Adsorbent	Temperature K	Pressure bar	CO <sub>2</sub> mmol/g	H <sub>2</sub> mmol/g	Selectivity CO <sub>2</sub> /H <sub>2</sub>	References
NOTT-101/OEt	313	20	14	1.2	11.6	[44]
T-MOF-5	298	23	15.22	0.61	24	[40]
HKUST-1	303	20	4	0.25	16	[45]
BeBTB	313	30	27	5	5.4	[46]
ZIF-8	333	30	7	0.25	28	[47]
Carbonate-2	333	20	0.4	0.2	2	[48]
Zeolite NaY	308	7.5	6.7	0.13	51.5	[41]
Zeolite X13	298	10	6.35	0.22	28	[49]
Activated carbon	303	20	7.6	0.52	14.62	[42]
Activated carbon-GCN	308	7.5	6.2	0.2	31	[41]
Activated carbon	298	20	8.8	2	4	[50]
MCM-41	298	20	8	0.45	17.7	[51]
Coal-MO-100 ppm	323	20	2.25	0.09	25	Current work
Coal-MO-25 ppm	323	20	1.6	0.12	13.33	Current work
Raw coal	323	20	1.2	0.16	7.5	Current work

adsorbents are much more expensive than coal [43], MO-coals might be a good economic alternative. Table 4 shows the adsorption capacity of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub> as pure component gases and the theoretical calculated selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> in different adsorbents compared with the adsorbents used in this study. It is obviously noticed that although MOF, zeolites and activated carbons have very high specific surface areas, coal-MO-100 ppm at 20 bar and 323 K exposed a distinguished selectivity among other adsorbents. For instance, selectivity of CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> in coal-MO-100 ppm was around double that in NOTT-110/OET (BET, 2023 m<sup>2</sup>. g<sup>-1</sup>) and equivalent to that in T-MOF-5 (BET, 1280 m<sup>2</sup>. g<sup>-1</sup>). Consequently, anionic MO modification significantly and chemically improved the nature of the pore surfaces in the coals, achieving unbelievable enhancement in the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption.

#### 4. Conclusions

H<sub>2</sub> storage and H<sub>2</sub> separation from CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> streams are required for the large-scale implementation of a decarbonized energy supply chain. We thus identified, tested, and further upgraded an economic material (common sub-bituminous coal) in terms of its H<sub>2</sub> storage and separation efficiencies. Clearly, very high H<sub>2</sub>-CO<sub>2</sub> separation efficiencies ( $\kappa = 60\text{--}70$ ) could be achieved with MO-100 ppm modified coal, comparable to that of (the much more expensive) MOFs ( $\kappa \sim 65$ ). The coal was also a good adsorbent for H<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>; coal can thus in principle also act as a gas storage material. The work presented here provides fundamental data related to the production and storage of H<sub>2</sub> and thus aids in the implementation of a full-scale clean energy supply chain.

#### CRedit authorship contribution statement

**Hussein Rasool Abid:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Experimental Work, Writing the First Draft, Visualization. **Alireza Keshavarz:** Conceptualization, Review & Editing.

**Header Jaffer:** Review & Editing. **Basim K. Nile:** Review & Editing. **Stefan Iglauer:** Methodology, 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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