

# 1 Quantifying the loss of methane through secondary gas mass transport (or 2 'slip') from a micro-porous membrane contactor applied to biogas upgrading

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8

## 9 Abstract

10 Secondary gas transport during the separation of a binary gas with a micro-porous hollow fibre  
11 membrane contactor (HMFC) has been studied for biogas upgrading. In this application, the loss or  
12 'slip' of the secondary gas (methane) during separation is a known concern, specifically since  
13 methane possesses the intrinsic calorific value. Deionised (DI) water was initially used as the physical  
14 solvent. Under these conditions, carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) absorption were  
15 dependent upon liquid velocity ( $V_L$ ). Whilst the highest CO<sub>2</sub> flux was recorded at high  $V_L$ , selectivity  
16 toward CO<sub>2</sub> declined due to low residence times and a diminished gas-side partial pressure, and  
17 resulted in slip of approximately 5.2 % of the inlet methane. Sodium hydroxide was subsequently  
18 used as a comparative chemical absorption solvent. Under these conditions, CO<sub>2</sub> mass transfer  
19 increased by increasing gas velocity ( $V_G$ ) which is attributed to the excess of reactive hydroxide ions  
20 present in the solvent, and the fast conversion of dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> to carbonate species reinitiating the  
21 concentration gradient at the gas-liquid interface. At high gas velocities, CH<sub>4</sub> slip was reduced to 0.1  
22 % under chemical conditions. Methane slip is therefore dependent upon whether the process is gas  
23 phase or liquid phase controlled, since methane mass transport can be adequately described by  
24 Henry's law within both physical and chemical solvents. The addition of an electrolyte was found to  
25 further retard CH<sub>4</sub> absorption via the salting out effect. However, their applicability to physical  
26 solvents is limited since electrolytic concentration similarly impinges upon the solvents capacity for  
27 CO<sub>2</sub>. This study illustrates the significance of secondary gas mass transport, and furthermore  
28 demonstrates that gas-phase controlled systems are recommended where greater selectivity is  
29 required.

30 *Keywords: Binary gas; slipping; slippage; fugitive; solvent recirculation; gas/liquid*

31 **1. Introduction**

32 Biogas is a renewable source of methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) produced on a large scale at wastewater treatment  
33 works during anaerobic digestion. Typically the biogas has a CH<sub>4</sub> content of 55-60 % by volume,  
34 compared to >90 % CH<sub>4</sub> for natural gas. Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) is the key balancing gas contributing  
35 35-50 % of the total gas volume. As an inert gas, CO<sub>2</sub> lowers the calorific value (CV) of the biogas  
36 from 36 MJ m<sup>-3</sup> for natural gas to 21 MJ m<sup>-3</sup> (Ryckebosch *et al*, 2011). Whilst the lower CV of biogas is  
37 appropriate for direct utilisation in combined heat and power (CHP) applications, the CV must be  
38 upgraded for use as 'biomethane', or natural gas alternative, principally through the selective  
39 separation of the CO<sub>2</sub>. As a result of incentivisation schemes, it is increasingly preferable to upgrade  
40 biogas for 'gas to grid' instead of electricity generation via CHP because of the disparity in value of  
41 the gas for these applications. For example, as a consequence of the 'renewable heat incentive' (RHI)  
42 in the UK, a cubic meter of biogas is worth approximately 32 pence (p) if used as a natural gas  
43 alternative but only 19 p when applied to CHP (Read *et al.*, 2011).

44 Several technologies exist for selective CO<sub>2</sub> removal, including pressure swing adsorption  
45 (PSA), dense membrane separation and absorption columns using either water or a chemical as the  
46 absorption solvent. Whilst the specific mechanism for gas separation differs between technologies,  
47 these current process options are not able to offer definitive selectivity during separation, thus some  
48 loss of the secondary gas can be expected. The term 'slip', corresponds to the loss of this secondary  
49 gas, in this case methane, from the product side due to either co-permeation, in the case of dense  
50 permeation membranes, or co-dissolution during absorption. The significance of slip to process  
51 operation is application specific. For example, in the case of dilute hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) absorption  
52 from air for odour treatment (Jefferson *et al.*, 2005; Esquiroz-Molina *et al.*, *In Press*), the co-  
53 solubilisation of the ternary gases nitrogen and oxygen (and low concentration CO<sub>2</sub>) are not  
54 quantified, or considered. However, for biogas upgrading the significance of methane 'slip' is  
55 considerable since methane possesses the intrinsic value as the product gas. Few published studies  
56 have sought to quantify slip. Early studies of full-scale dense gas membranes for CH<sub>4</sub> recovery from

57 landfill gas reported up to 18 % methane slip (Ho and Sirkar, 1992) though this has since been  
58 reduced using multiple membrane arrays to enable subsequent treatment of the retentate gas  
59 stream which comprises low concentration methane. By comparison, 8 % and 13.1 % CH<sub>4</sub> slip have  
60 been reported for PSA and absorption respectively, the latter using water as the solvent and a  
61 pressurised gas phase of between 20-25 bar (Baldwin, 2011; Läntelä *et al.*, 2011).

62 For biogas upgrading at sewage works, packed tower absorption is the predominant  
63 technology employed with water used as the absorption solvent, for process simplicity, and due to  
64 the wide availability of treated final effluent onsite. Water demonstrates a reasonable selectivity for  
65 CO<sub>2</sub> since methane is only a partially soluble gas. Consequently, analysis of methane transport during  
66 process evaluation is often neglected. However, high liquid flow rates are demanded in absorption  
67 technologies that result in high methane slip over long operational periods. Several authors have  
68 considered the application of hollow fibre membrane contactors (HFMCs) as an alternative  
69 absorption technology to conventional packed towers for biogas upgrading (Atchariyawut *et al.*,  
70 2007; Simons *et al.*, 2009). The hydrophobic membrane enables separation of the gas and liquid  
71 phases, with gaseous diffusion facilitated through the micro-porous membrane which enhances  
72 mass transfer and increases specific surface area availability compared to conventional absorbers.  
73 Consequently, Nii and Takeuchi (1992) noted an order of magnitude reduction in liquid flow rate  
74 when comparing a polydimethylsiloxane HFMC with a conventional packed absorption column to  
75 achieve comparable removal of CO<sub>2</sub> from flue gas. Whilst enhanced mass transfer has been  
76 ascertained, the fate of the secondary gas, or the slip, during absorption has not been examined and  
77 is central to understanding process efficacy. This study therefore seeks to quantify: (i) the mass  
78 transfer of the two principal biogas components methane and carbon dioxide to determine the  
79 significance of methane slip from HFMC applied to upgrading; (ii) the capacity to mitigate methane  
80 slip through manipulating solvent chemistry; and (iii) evaluating the impact of multiple solvent cycles  
81 on methane slip compared to single pass operation.

82

## 83 2. Materials and methods

### 84 2.1 Equipment setup and operation

85 Methane (99.995 %) and carbon dioxide (99.7 %) (BOC gases, Ipswich, UK) gases were controlled  
86 using mass flow controllers ( $0.01\text{-}1.0\text{ L min}^{-1}$ , Roxspur Measurement and Control Ltd., Sheffield, UK)  
87 and were mixed in-line to provide an initial 60/40  $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2$  gas composition to the shell-side of the  
88 HFMC (Liqui-Cel<sup>®</sup> 1.7x5.5 MiniModule<sup>®</sup>, Membrana GmbH, Wuppertal, Germany)(Figure 1). The  
89 outlet gas flow rate was measured using a bubble flow meter (50 mL, Restek, Bellefonte, USA).  
90 Absorbent was stored in a 50 L PVC tank and maintained at 24-26 °C by a thermostat circulator  
91 (GD120, Grant Instruments Cambridge Ltd., Shepreth, UK) sited in the water bath. The absorbent  
92 was passed through the fibre lumen in counter-current mode using a centrifugal pump (max.  $6\text{ L min}^{-1}$   
93 <sup>1</sup>, 50010 series, Jabsco GmbH, Norderstedt, Germany). The HFMC comprised 7400 polypropylene  
94 (PP) fibres, with a nominal outer diameter (OD) and length of 300  $\mu\text{m}$  and 0.113 m respectively,  
95 yielding a surface area of  $0.58\text{ m}^2$  (based on inner fibre diameter, ID of 220  $\mu\text{m}$ ). The fibres were  
96 characterised with a nominal pore size of 0.03  $\mu\text{m}$  and porosity of 40 %. The fibres were potted in  
97 polyurethane fixed in a polycarbonate shell with an ID of 0.0425 m resulting in a packing density of  
98 0.369.

99 Solvent recirculation was investigated to compare multiple passes (or cycles) of solvent use  
100 to single pass solvent use. For these experiments, a 10 L absorbent reservoir was incorporated into  
101 the liquid side of the experimental design to minimise the impact of sampling from the liquid phase  
102 on the resultant mass transfer data. The vessel was magnetically stirred to ensure complete mixing  
103 of the bulk solvent. During multiple-pass (MP) experiments, a smaller HFMC was employed to ensure  
104 that the MP tests could be conducted with a reasonably short timeframe. This smaller module (Liqui-  
105 Cel<sup>®</sup> 1x5.5 MiniModule<sup>®</sup>, Membrana GmbH, Wuppertal, Germany) comprised of 2300 identical  
106 hollow fibres (OD 300  $\mu\text{m}$ / ID of 220  $\mu\text{m}$ /pore size 0.03  $\mu\text{m}$ ) but 0.10 m in length, yielding a surface  
107 area of  $0.18\text{ m}^2$ .

108

109 2.2 Preparation and sampling

110 All absorbents were based on de-ionised (DI) water with a resistivity of 18.2 MΩ-cm. For  
111 experiments using chemically based solvents, either sodium chloride (NaCl) or sodium hydroxide  
112 (NaOH) was used (NaCl 99% and NaOH 98% pellets, Fisher Chemicals, Loughborough, UK). Chemical  
113 solutions were initially prepared as concentrates by adding 1755 g NaCl and/or 1320 g NaOH to 10 L  
114 of DI water with thorough mixing to ensure complete dissolution. Concentrates were then diluted in  
115 the absorbent tank to provide 1.0 M solutions. To determine liquid phase concentrations, the  
116 method adapted from Alberto *et al.*, (2000) was used in which evacuated vials were employed to  
117 ensure no exposure of aqueous solvent samples to the environment. Prior to use, the 22.7 mL GC-  
118 MS glass vials were capped and sealed with gas-tight PTFE/aluminium crimp caps (Fisherbrand,  
119 Fisher Scientific, Loughborough, UK). Vials were then evacuated for 20 s using a vacuum pump  
120 (CAPEX L2C, Charles Austen Pumps, Byfleet, Surrey, UK) at fixed pressure to ensure consistent  
121 vacuum pressures in each vial (0.3 atm). Aqueous solvent samples were collected from a luer lock  
122 needle fitted on the liquid outlet. The reduced vial pressure imposed a vacuum on the liquid side  
123 enabling collection of a liquid sample, which when complete, had equilibrated to atmospheric  
124 pressure. Liquid samples were agitated for 7 minutes (maximum speed, Multi Reax, Heidolph,  
125 Schwabach, Germany), and were subsequently left to equilibrate overnight. The resultant dissolved  
126 phase concentrations were calculated based on a mass balance (Alberto *et al.*, 2000). Methane flux  
127 was calculated using:

$$128 \quad J_{CH_4} = \frac{(Q_{l,i} \times c_f) - (Q_{l,o} \times c_r)}{M_{r,CH_4} \times A_m} \quad (\text{equation 1})$$

129 Where  $J_{CH_4}$  is methane flux ( $\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ),  $Q_{l,i}$  and  $Q_{l,o}$  are the inlet and outlet liquid flow rates  
130 respectively ( $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$ ),  $c_f$  and  $c_r$  are  $\text{CH}_4$  concentrations in the liquid feed and retentate respectively ( $\text{g}$   
131  $\text{m}^{-3}$ ),  $M_{r,CH_4}$  is the relative molecular mass of methane and  $A_m$  is the active surface area of the HFMC.  
132 Gas samples were taken from GC septa fitted on the gas-side upstream and downstream of the

133 contactor and injected onto a gas chromatograph. The CO<sub>2</sub> flux was calculated according to  
134 Atchariyawut *et al.* (2007):

$$135 \quad J_{CO_2} = \frac{[(Q_{gi} \times c_f) - (Q_{go} \times c_r)] \times 273.15 \times 1000}{22.4 \times T_g \times A_m} \quad (\text{equation 2})$$

136 Where  $J_{CO_2}$  is the CO<sub>2</sub> flux (mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>),  $Q_{gi}$  and  $Q_{go}$  are the inlet and outlet gas flow rates respectively  
137 (m<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>),  $c_f$  and  $c_r$  are the CO<sub>2</sub> mole fraction in the gas feed and gas retentate respectively,  $T_g$  is the  
138 gas temperature (K) and  $A_m$  is the active surface area (m<sup>2</sup>). Selectivity was calculated using  
139 (Rongwong *et al.*, 2011; Lu *et al.*, 2006):

$$140 \quad \text{Selectivity} = \frac{R_{CO_2} / R_{CH_4}}{F_{CO_2} / F_{CH_4}} \quad (\text{equation 3})$$

141 Where  $R_{CO_2}$  and  $R_{CH_4}$  are the CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations in the retentate liquid (g L<sup>-1</sup>), and  $F_{CO_2}$  and  
142  $F_{CH_4}$  are the CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations in the gas feed (g L<sup>-1</sup>). All samples were analysed in  
143 triplicate.

144

### 145 2.3 Analysis

146 A gas chromatograph (GC) fitted with a thermal conductivity detector (TCD) was used to analyse the  
147 gas and liquid samples (200 Series GC-TCD Cambridge Scientific Instruments Ltd., Witchford, UK).  
148 Gas solutes were separated on an Alltech® CTR I concentric packed column which has a concentric  
149 column with a 1/4" outer column surrounding an 1/8" inner column (Alltech Associates Inc.,  
150 Deerfield, Illinois, USA). Samples were introduced onto the column in a 1mL volume and eluted using  
151 Helium as the carrier gas at an entry pressure of 4.2 bar(g). The isothermal method used an injector  
152 temperature of 150 °C, an oven temperature of 30 °C and a detector temperature of 180 °C. The  
153 instrument was calibrated using certificated CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> gas standards (Scientific Technical Gases  
154 Ltd., Staffordshire, UK) prior to each analysis. A sharp methane peak eluted from the inner column  
155 containing mixed porous polymer packing at a retention time of 30 s followed by the CO<sub>2</sub> peak at 90  
156 s. Concentration of chemically absorbed CO<sub>2</sub> in NaOH containing solutions, existing as carbonate,

157 was ascertained by titration of retentate absorbent with 1.0 M HCl using BaCl<sub>2</sub> to neutralise the  
158 carbonate ions (Benedetti-Pichler Cefola, 1939).

159

### 160 **3. Results**

#### 161 *3.1 Impact of solvent chemistry on biogas component flux*

162 A CO<sub>2</sub> flux of  $7.6 \times 10^{-5}$  mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> was recorded when using DI water as the absorption solvent, at a  
163 fixed V<sub>G</sub> of 0.0047 m s<sup>-1</sup> and V<sub>L</sub> of 0.0054 m s<sup>-1</sup>, which corresponded to an L/G of 1.15, with a  
164 Reynolds number (*Re*) of 1.32 (Figure 2a). The L/G was progressively increased by increasing V<sub>L</sub> to a  
165 maximum of 0.024 m s<sup>-1</sup> (*Re* = 5.90), upon which a CO<sub>2</sub> flux of  $1.7 \times 10^{-4}$  mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> was recorded,  
166 representing an increase in CO<sub>2</sub> flux of approximately 200%. Analogous behaviour was observed for  
167 CO<sub>2</sub> flux when NaCl was added as a simple electrolyte, where V<sub>L</sub> ranged from 0.0074 m s<sup>-1</sup> (*Re* = 1.71)  
168 to 0.022 m s<sup>-1</sup> (*Re* = 5.12). *Re* values for the gas on the shell side ranged between an initial *Re* = 10.5  
169 (accounting for viscosity of initial gas mixture and V<sub>G</sub> of 0.0047 m s<sup>-1</sup>; Jackson, 1956) to a minimum  
170 *Re* = 4.2 (accounting for change in gas mixture composition and V<sub>G</sub>) at the HFMC outlet for DI  
171 solvent. Substitution of the DI and NaCl 'physical' solvents for a 1 M NaOH 'chemical' absorbent  
172 resulted in a CO<sub>2</sub> flux of  $2.98 \times 10^{-4}$  and > 99 % CH<sub>4</sub> concentration in the outgas, which remained  
173 unchanged when V<sub>L</sub> was varied from 0.0122 m s<sup>-1</sup> (*Re* = 2.47) to 0.0242 m s<sup>-1</sup> (*Re* = 4.90). This  
174 corresponded to a plateau in CO<sub>2</sub> flux with increasing V<sub>L</sub>, indicating that the process was gas phase  
175 controlled (Li and Chen, 2005; Esquiroz-Molina, In Press). Gas velocity (V<sub>G</sub>) was subsequently  
176 increased from 0.0047 m s<sup>-1</sup> to a maximum of 0.031 m s<sup>-1</sup> at a fixed V<sub>L</sub> of 0.0089 m s<sup>-1</sup> to reduce the  
177 L/G ratio and identify the impact upon CO<sub>2</sub> flux (Figure 2b). CO<sub>2</sub> flux was found to be dependent  
178 upon V<sub>G</sub>, with the highest CO<sub>2</sub> flux of  $1.74 \times 10^{-3}$  mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> recorded at a V<sub>G</sub> of 0.031 m s<sup>-1</sup>. Similarly to  
179 DI water, no quantifiable difference in CO<sub>2</sub> flux could be noted following the inclusion of NaCl to  
180 NaOH. Since both physical and chemical systems were ostensibly controlled by differing phases,  
181 direct comparison is difficult to ascertain. However, both V<sub>L</sub> (0.009 m s<sup>-1</sup>) and V<sub>G</sub> (0.0047 m s<sup>-1</sup>) were  
182 identical for DI and NaOH at an L/G of 1.92 which corresponded to the minimum CO<sub>2</sub> flux of  $2.98 \times 10^{-4}$

183  $4 \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  recorded for the chemical solvent. The flow regime for gas in the shell side during  
184 variable  $V_G$  experiments using NaOH absorbents was relatively consistent with that observed for DI  
185 experiments where  $V_G$  was fixed.  $Re = 70$  represents the greatest possible value, for an initial gas  
186 mixture and maximum  $V_G$  of  $0.031 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , although this declines with loss of  $V_G$  and change in  
187 composition via rapid  $\text{CO}_2$  absorption by NaOH.

188 The highest  $\text{CH}_4$  flux was recorded using DI water. At an L/G of 1.15,  $\text{CH}_4$  flux was  $2.03 \times 10^{-6}$   
189  $\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  which increased to a maximum flux of  $1.15 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at an L/G of 5.2 (Figure 3).  
190 Methane flux diminished markedly with the inclusion of NaCl to DI water. To illustrate, a  $\text{CH}_4$  flux of  
191  $6.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  was recorded at L/G 4.7 compared to  $8.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for DI water at the  
192 lower L/G of 4.2. For the NaOH solvent,  $\text{CH}_4$  fluxes were comparable to those of NaCl below L/G 2.6.  
193 However, at L/G greater than 2.6,  $\text{CH}_4$  flux recorded for the NaOH solvent apparently increased as an  
194 exponent of L/G, subsequently recording a  $\text{CH}_4$  flux of  $9.7 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at L/G 5.2, only 15 % below  
195 that observed for DI water. Addition of NaCl to NaOH introduced the greatest limitation to  $\text{CH}_4$  flux,  
196 recording between  $8.9 \times 10^{-7}$  and  $4.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for L/G ranging 1.4 to 5.

197 Following process optimisation using the rate limiting phase ( $V_G$  in the case of chemical  
198 based solvents NaOH and NaOH/NaCl; and  $V_L$  for the physical solvents DI water and aqueous NaCl),  
199 selectivity toward  $\text{CO}_2$  was estimated for each solvent (Figure 4). For physical solvents, selectivity  
200 was greater when using NaCl. However, a linear decrease toward  $\text{CO}_2$  selectivity was noted for both  
201 solvents when  $V_L$  was increased. For example, for DI water, selectivity decreased from 166 at L/G 2.4  
202 to 106 at L/G 5.2. The NaCl/NaOH solvent increased selectivity for  $\text{CO}_2$  at L/G 0.29 from 1030 for  
203 NaOH to 2250. At higher L/G, selectivity diminished to that observed for physical solvents.

204 Data was selected from the reported datasets to enable an approximate comparison of slip,  
205 from the solvents evaluated. To normalise the datasets, an outlet gas composition of 85 % methane,  
206 equivalent to North Sea natural gas (Persson et al., 2006), was selected (Table 1). The highest slip  
207 was observed when using DI water at 5.2 %. In comparison, the chemical solvent reduced methane



208 slip to 0.1 %. Adding the NaCl electrolyte reduced methane slip in both physical and chemical  
209 solvents to 4.0 % and 0.03 % respectively.

210

### 211 3.2 *Application of solvent recirculation to minimise slip*

212 Single pass solvent use was compared to recirculating the solvent in multi-pass (MP) to enable  
213 greater utilisation of the available solvent (Figure 5). Cumulative losses were compared following  
214 subsequent solvent uses (without regeneration) based upon a parameter normalised to CO<sub>2</sub> removal  
215 (CH<sub>4</sub> lost per gram CO<sub>2</sub> absorbed, g g<sup>-1</sup>). For both solvents, a pseudo-plateau was evidenced following  
216 one recirculation which can be explained by the saturation of the solvent with CH<sub>4</sub> after one  
217 circulation. This is supported by the measured dissolved phase methane concentration which  
218 stabilised following approximately one recirculation. However, methane losses were lower using the  
219 NaOH solvent. For example, following two solvent recirculations, losses were 0.086 g g<sup>-1</sup> and 0.709 g  
220 g<sup>-1</sup> for the NaOH and DI solvents respectively. Over five solvent recirculations, the chemical solvent  
221 supported an outlet gas phase concentration of >99% CH<sub>4</sub> (Figure 6). In contrast, outlet gas quality  
222 rapidly diminished for the DI solvent following less than one use.

223

## 224 4. Discussion

225 A significant finding in this study was that methane slip was dependent upon whether the process  
226 was gas phase or liquid phase controlled. For physical solvents such as DI water, the liquid phase  
227 presented the rate limiting condition to CO<sub>2</sub> mass transfer. This manifested as an increase in CO<sub>2</sub>  
228 flux, and therefore an enhancement in gas-side methane purity, when V<sub>L</sub> was increased. The DI  
229 solvent approached saturation for CH<sub>4</sub> at low V<sub>L</sub>. This can be explained by the partial solubility of  
230 methane in water, yielding a predicted saturation concentration of 13.5 mg L<sup>-1</sup> at a partial pressure  
231 of 60 % (Willhelm et al., 1977). A proportionate increase in methane flux was subsequently observed  
232 with an increase in V<sub>L</sub> and can be explained by the continual saturation of newly introduced solvent  
233 at the solvent-membrane boundary. In contrast, dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> concentration diminished at high V<sub>L</sub>

234 from a maximum of  $500 \text{ mgCO}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$  at  $V_L 0.011 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , to  $387 \text{ mgCO}_2 \text{ L}^{-1}$  at  $V_L 0.024 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . This can be  
235 explained by a combination of the lower residence time available for absorption which limited radial  
236 gas transport from the solvent-membrane boundary due to under-developed laminar flow  
237 conditions ( $Re \ll 2100$ ) observed throughout for DI water ( $Re_{max} = 5.90$ ) (Dindore *et al.*, 2005), and a  
238 reduction in gas-side  $\text{CO}_2$  partial pressure at higher  $V_L$ . This reduction in  $\text{CO}_2$  solvent concentration  
239 subsequently reduced selectivity toward  $\text{CO}_2$  with an increase in  $V_L$  (Figure 4). The hydrodynamic  
240 conditions were comparable for all solvents across the  $V_L$  ranges examined, with insufficient  
241 difference in viscosity and density of electrolytic solutions for any significant change in flow regime  
242 (Zhang *et al.*, 1996; Sipos *et al.*, 2000; Laliberte, 2007).

243 For the chemically reactive NaOH solvent, the process was gas phase controlled, which is  
244 illustrated by the negligible gradient recorded for  $\text{CO}_2$  flux following an increase in  $V_L$  (Figure 2a).  
245 This chemical reaction is described as 'fast' ( $11,000 \text{ m}^3 \text{ kmol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), such that dissolution can no longer  
246 be predicted by Henry's Law, as upon penetration the  $\text{CO}_2$  reacts to form bicarbonate ( $\text{HCO}_3^-$ ) (Kucka  
247 *et al.*, 2002; Pohoricki and Moniuk, 1988). Consequently, whilst operated within the low  $Gz$  number  
248 range applied to physical solvents, this conversion to carbonate species, in the presence of a high  
249 reactant concentration, was sufficient to re-establish the concentration gradient at the membrane-  
250 solvent boundary. The excess of reactive  $[\text{OH}^-]$  within the reaction zone further enabled a reduction  
251 in the operational L/G ratio. This limited  $\text{CH}_4$  flux, as the physical dissolution of  $\text{CH}_4$  in NaOH can be  
252 similarly described by Henry's law and is thus attributable to solvent flow rate. To illustrate, to  
253 achieve an equivalent outlet  $\text{CH}_4$  purity of 85 %, the L/G required for DI and NaOH solvents were 5.2  
254 and 0.33 yielding 'slip' of 5.2 % and 0.1 % respectively. Interestingly, when using the chemical  
255 solvent at  $L/G > 1$ , the gas-side  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration was reduced to below the limit of detection and  
256 was coincident with a non-linear increase in methane flux (Figure 3). It is posited that this  $\text{CH}_4$  flux  
257 enhancement arises from the increase in gas-side  $\text{CH}_4$  partial pressure suggesting that an optimum  
258 L/G should be identified to limit 'slip' in addition to gas-side  $\text{CO}_2$ .

259 Selectivity was enhanced in both chemical and physical absorption systems by the inclusion  
260 of NaCl (Figure 4). The NaCl behaved as an electrolyte, which induced 'salting out' of the physically  
261 absorbed gas species resulting in a reduction in the attainable saturation constant. Setschenow  
262 (1889) supposed that 'salting out' was induced by a preference of water molecules to hydrate and  
263 dissolve ionic species rather than the uncharged gas candidates. Latterly Masterton and Lee (1970)  
264 used 'scaled particle theory' (SPT) to suggest that salting out increased the work required to form a  
265 cavity (within the condensed liquid phase) of sufficient size to accommodate a gas solute.  
266 Consequently, electrolyte addition to the physical solvent (DI) reduced methane slip to 4 %  
267 compared to 5.2 % for DI water. The use of NaCl to improve outlet gas quality was also assessed by  
268 Atchariyawut *et al.* (2007). The authors based the improvement in outlet gas quality on the  
269 electrolytes capacity to reduce water vapour content. Whilst the author's hypothesis of reduced  
270 water activity is valid, clearly the contribution of reduced methane 'slip' must also be considered.

271 Due to the inclusion of NaCl, the CO<sub>2</sub> saturation constant was reduced by 22 %. However,  
272 the measured dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> concentration was below this saturation concentration and hence the  
273 impact on CO<sub>2</sub> flux was seemingly negligible (Figure 2a). It is posited that further lowering of the  
274 solubility constant will impede absorption performance. Interestingly, whilst the chemical solvent  
275 reduced slip through enabling lower L/G operation, NaOH similarly dissociates into ionic form,  
276 presenting a synergistic effect since slip is therefore also retarded through salting out of the [Na<sup>+</sup>]  
277 and [OH<sup>-</sup>] ions (Weisenberger and Schumpe, 1996), and is supported by the diminished CH<sub>4</sub> flux  
278 recorded for NaOH when compared to DI (Figure 3). Consequently, the addition of NaCl to NaOH  
279 absorbent effectively doubled the electrolytic solvent concentration, further inhibiting CH<sub>4</sub> flux and  
280 subsequently enhanced selectivity for CO<sub>2</sub> by approximately 200 %. Since the chemical solvent's  
281 reactivity offsets the lower physical absorption constant for CO<sub>2</sub>, it is suggested that higher  
282 electrolytic concentrations can be implemented and methane 'slip' further decreased.

283 Using multi-pass absorption enables further cessation of 'slip' since both physical and  
284 chemical solvents are essentially saturated with CH<sub>4</sub> in a single pass, thus subsequent solvent

285 recirculation should retard further CH<sub>4</sub> flux, tending measured CH<sub>4</sub> flux to zero. However, the  
286 capacity to utilise physical solvents in multi-pass absorption is limited as approximately 50 % of the  
287 maximum CO<sub>2</sub> load is also reached in single-pass. In comparison, the CO<sub>2</sub> flux and outlet gas quality  
288 recorded for the chemical solvent following five recirculations was analogous to single pass,  
289 demonstrating a sustained excess of highly reactive hydroxide [OH<sup>-</sup>] ions. Based on an idealised  
290 stoichiometric conversion of 2:1, [OH<sup>-</sup>]: CO<sub>2</sub> (Vas Bhat *et al.*, 2000) and an L/G of 5.2, approximately  
291 37 chemical solvent recirculations are possible before reaching a [OH<sup>-</sup>] concentration of 0.1 M.  
292 Interestingly, whilst an order of magnitude lower in chemical concentration, 0.1 M NaOH has been  
293 shown sufficient to maintain a >99 % CH<sub>4</sub> outlet gas concentration under analogous hydrodynamic  
294 conditions (Galan-Sanchez, 2011).

295 Physical absorption in HFMC demonstrated methane slip of 5.2 %. Although direct comparison to  
296 conventional water scrubbers cannot be made due to differences in gas-side preconditioning and  
297 scale, this is markedly lower than the 13.1% slip recorded for a pilot scale unit applied to landfill gas  
298 (Läntelä *et al.*, 2011) and is ostensibly a function of lower solvent consumption; an observation  
299 which is supported by previous authors (Nii and Takeuchi, 1992; Herzog and Pederson, 2000). Lower  
300 'slip' values of 4 % to 5 % have been recorded for full-scale water scrubbers, though it is unclear  
301 whether the balance includes the use of abatement technologies such as thermal oxidisers which  
302 oxidise the slipped methane to CO<sub>2</sub> (Patterson *et al.*, 2011; Wolf and Nettelbreker, 2011). In  
303 addition, to the financial significance of enhancing the recovery of biomethane through minimising  
304 slip, financial incentivisation now also rewards installations which operate at 'slip' below 0.5 % (Wolf  
305 and Nettelbreker, 2011). Based on this study, to reach this target without the use of abatement  
306 technologies, chemical solvents are required as this enables the shift to gas-phase control which  
307 minimises 'slip' through minimum solvent consumption; though the energy penalty associated with  
308 solvent regeneration must also be considered. The characteristically low absorbent demand of  
309 HFMCs could conceivably limit the energy necessary for chemical regeneration through a reduction  
310 in liquid volume, which is also coupled to a significantly reduced pumping requirement. This is in

311 addition to the revenue from the methane that would otherwise have been lost at higher slip. For  
312 example, assuming biogas production of  $1000 \text{ m}^3 \text{ hour}^{-1}$  (a moderate full-scale flow rate) with 60 %  
313 initial  $\text{CH}_4$  content, an upgrading plant operating at 5.2 % slip would lose approximately £87,500  
314  $\text{year}^{-1}$  at  $32 \text{ p m}^{-3}$ . In contrast, a NaOH solvent with 0.1 % slip would only lose £1,700  $\text{year}^{-1}$ . Only  
315 £500  $\text{year}^{-1}$  would be lost at 0.03 % slip in a NaOH + NaCl absorbent.

316 In practice, there is a trade-off between CAPEX and OPEX, such that the application of highly  
317 reactive chemical solvents will be used to reduce asset scale by increasing throughput, consequently,  
318 the number of achievable solvent recirculations could be lower than presented in this study.  
319 However, both energy and carbon returns demonstrate that operation greater than one  
320 recirculation is sufficient to derive a net energy benefit through minimising methane slip (Figure 7).  
321 A criticality in L/G was also demonstrated where unnecessary operation at  $L/G > 1$  could impinge  
322 upon methane losses. This underpins a tacit advantage of HFMCs versus conventional packed  
323 columns in that the latter are operationally limited to turnup/turndown during process perturbation  
324 such as inlet gas composition or flow variation. By comparison HFMCs can achieve more rapid  
325 transitions in  $V_L$  due to phase separation which enables HFMCs to operate at minimum  $V_L$  and thus  
326 limit further 'slip'.

327

## 328 **5. Conclusion**

329 The significance of methane slip during biogas upgrading was dependent upon whether the process  
330 was gas phase or liquid phase controlled since methane transport was governed by Henry's law and  
331 hence independent of chemical reactivity.

- 332 • For physical solvents, absorption was dependent upon  $V_L$ . However, at high  $V_L$ , selectivity  
333 toward  $\text{CO}_2$  declined due to low residence times and an underdeveloped regime;
- 334 • For chemical solvents,  $\text{CO}_2$  mass transfer was dependent upon  $V_G$  which was driven by an excess  
335 of  $[\text{OH}^-]$  ions available in the solvent for chemical reaction;

- 336 • Electrolytes can retard CH<sub>4</sub> absorption via the salting out effect. In physical solvents, electrolytic  
337 concentration is limited by the effect upon CO<sub>2</sub> solubility. However, in chemical solvents, CO<sub>2</sub>  
338 absorption is decoupled from physical constants, thus an excess of electrolyte can enhance  
339 selectivity further; and
- 340 • Multi-pass chemical solvent recirculation enables further methane slip prevention. Initial  
341 saturation of the solvent for CH<sub>4</sub>, ensures that CH<sub>4</sub> flux tends toward zero following subsequent  
342 uses for CO<sub>2</sub>.

343

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348

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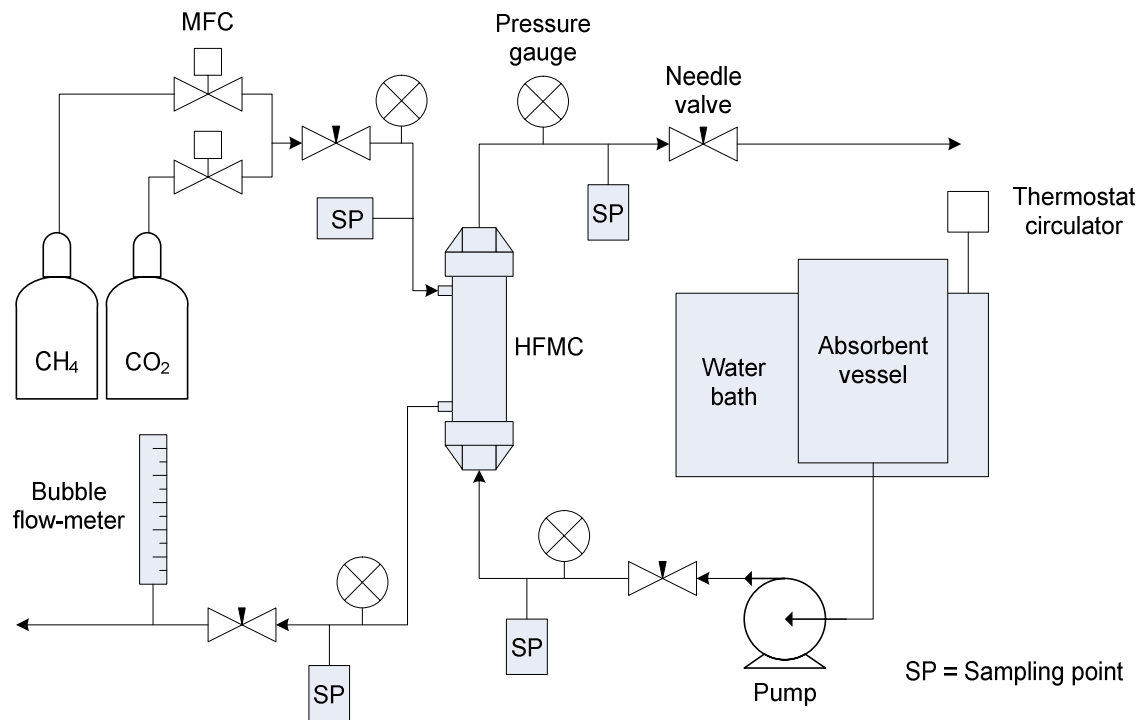


Figure 1. Schematic of the experimental set-up used for determining 'slip' from a polypropylene microporous hollow fibre membrane contactor (HFMC, 0.03  $\mu\text{m}$  pore size).

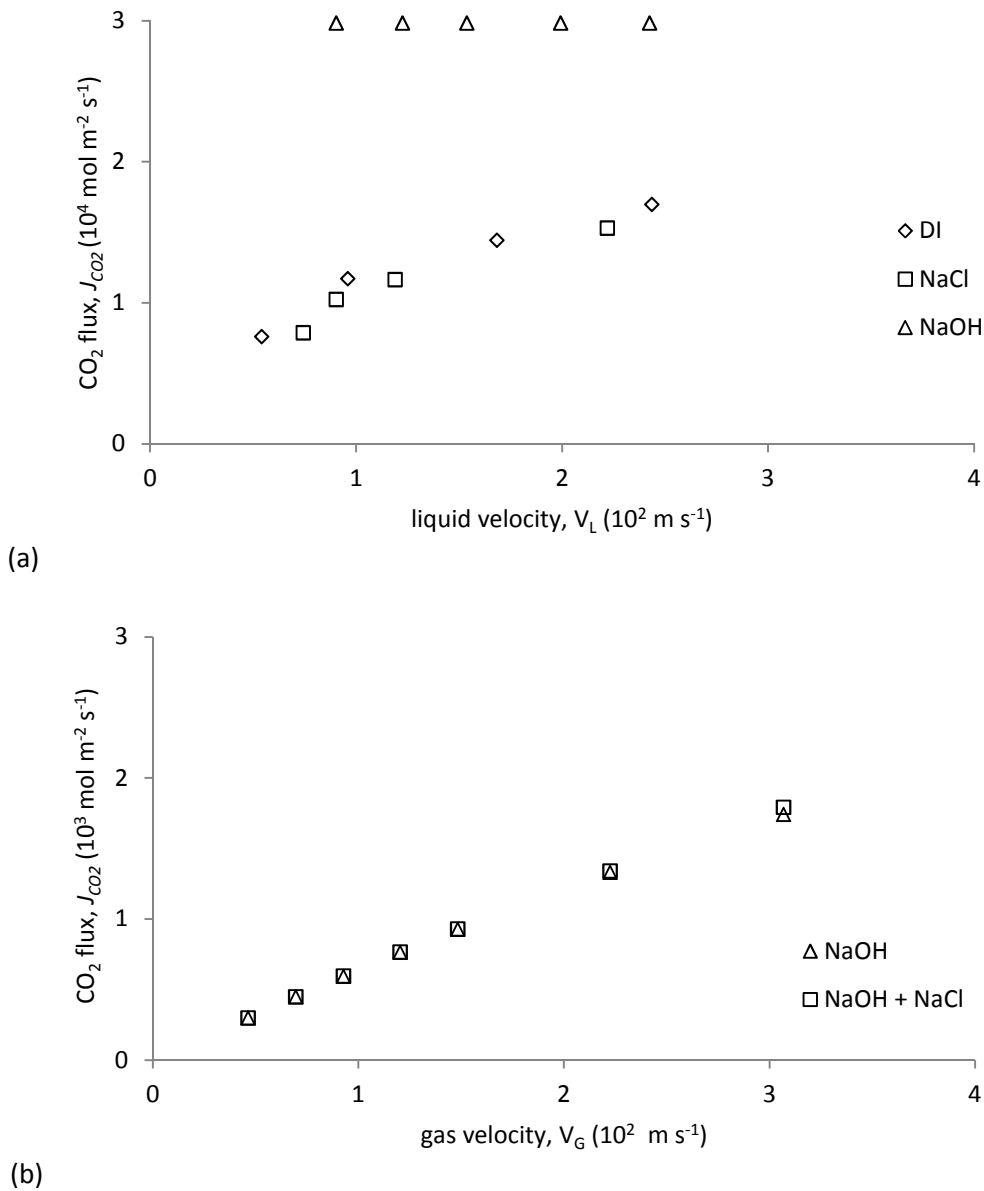


Figure 2. (a) Impact of liquid velocity ( $V_L$   $0.0054 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  to  $0.024 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) with fixed initial gas velocity ( $V_G$   $0.0047 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) on  $CO_2$  flux in DI, NaCl, and NaOH absorbents fixed at 24-26 °C (b) Impact of gas velocity ( $V_G$   $0.0017 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  to  $0.031 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) with fixed liquid velocity ( $V_L$   $0.0089 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) on  $CO_2$  flux in NaOH and NaOH + NaCl absorbents fixed at 24-26 °C

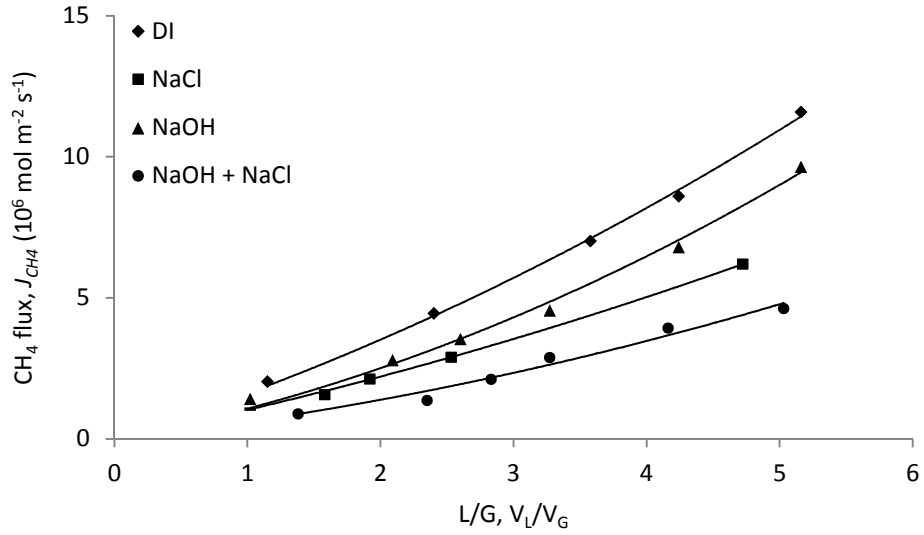


Figure 3. The impact of liquid velocity ( $V_L$  0.0046  $\text{m s}^{-1}$  to 0.024  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) on  $\text{CH}_4$  flux in four solvents DI, NaCl, NaOH, and NaOH/NaCl. Absorbent solvent temperature fixed at 24-26  $^\circ\text{C}$ .

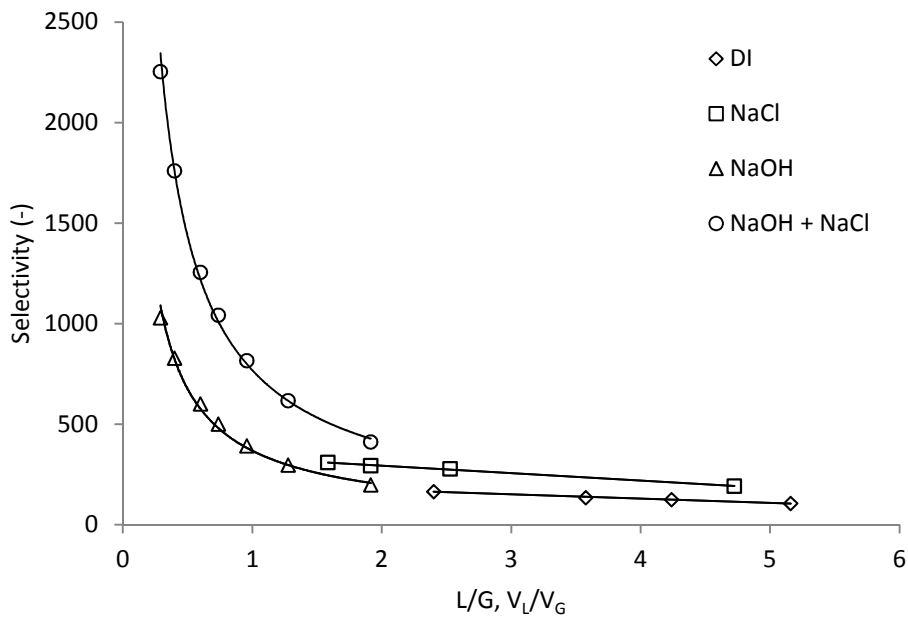


Figure 4. Influence of hydrodynamic conditions on  $\text{CO}_2$  selectivity. Liquid velocity ( $V_L$ ) varied from 0.0074  $\text{m s}^{-1}$  to 0.024  $\text{m s}^{-1}$  for DI and NaCl solvents and gas velocity ( $V_G$ ) fixed to 0.0047  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ . For NaOH and NaOH/NaCl,  $V_G$  varied between 0.0046  $\text{m s}^{-1}$  and 0.031  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ , with  $V_L$  fixed at 0.0089  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ .

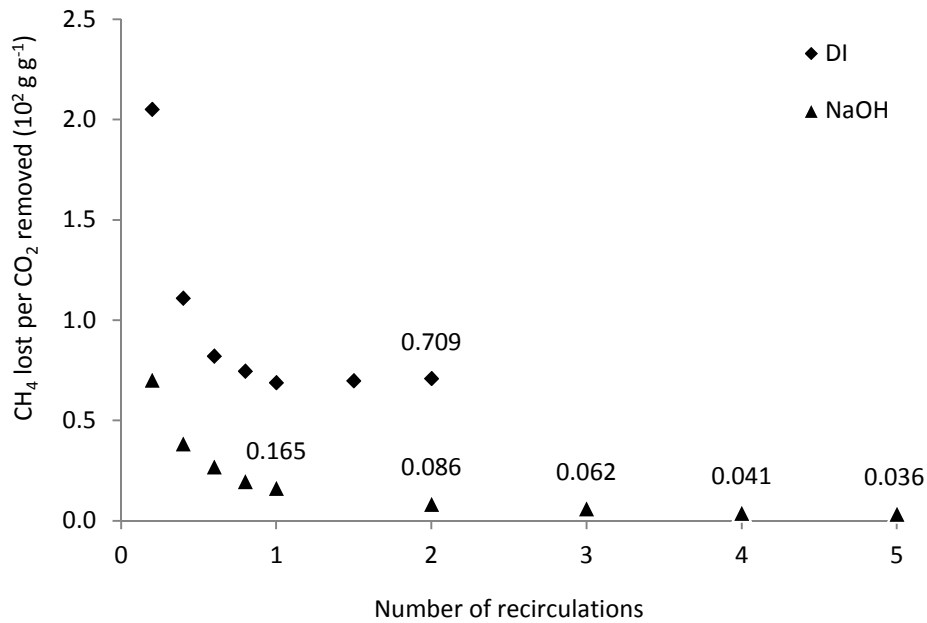


Figure 5. Methane losses measured over multiple solvent recirculations with DI or NaOH solvents. Methane losses normalised to CO<sub>2</sub> removed during gas separation. Operating L/G were selected that enabled effective CO<sub>2</sub> separation based on favourable CO<sub>2</sub> flux and gas-side purity. DI solvent V<sub>l</sub> 0.024 m s<sup>-1</sup> and V<sub>g</sub> 0.0031 m s<sup>-1</sup> (L/G 7.7); NaOH solvent V<sub>l</sub> 0.032 m s<sup>-1</sup> and V<sub>g</sub> 0.058 m s<sup>-1</sup> (L/G 0.42).

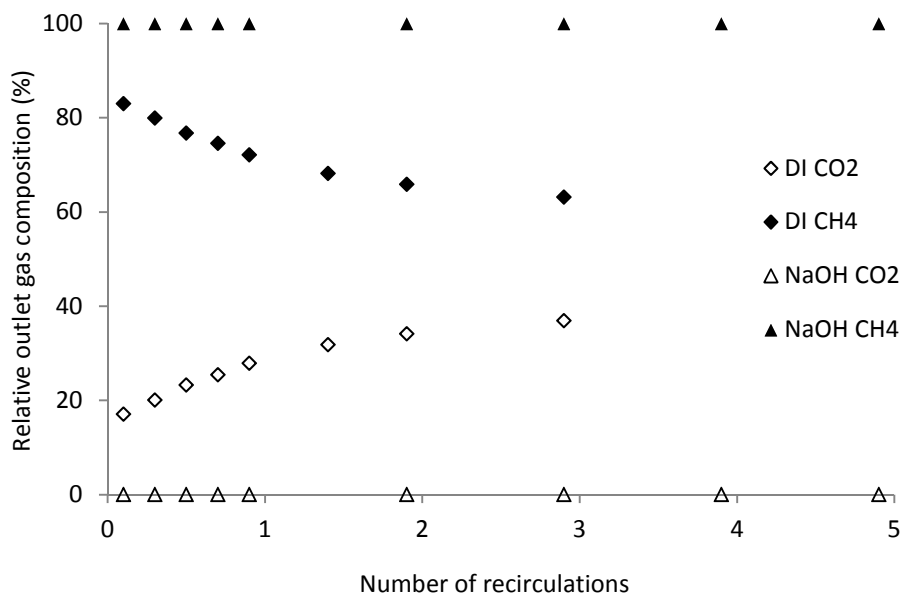


Figure 6. Outlet gas composition measured during sequential solvent recirculations using DI and NaOH absorption solvents. Solvent temperature 24-26 °C, V<sub>l</sub> 0.024 m s<sup>-1</sup> and V<sub>g</sub> 0.0031 m s<sup>-1</sup> for DI (L/G 7.7) and V<sub>l</sub> 0.032 m s<sup>-1</sup> and V<sub>g</sub> 0.058 m s<sup>-1</sup> for NaOH (L/G 0.42).

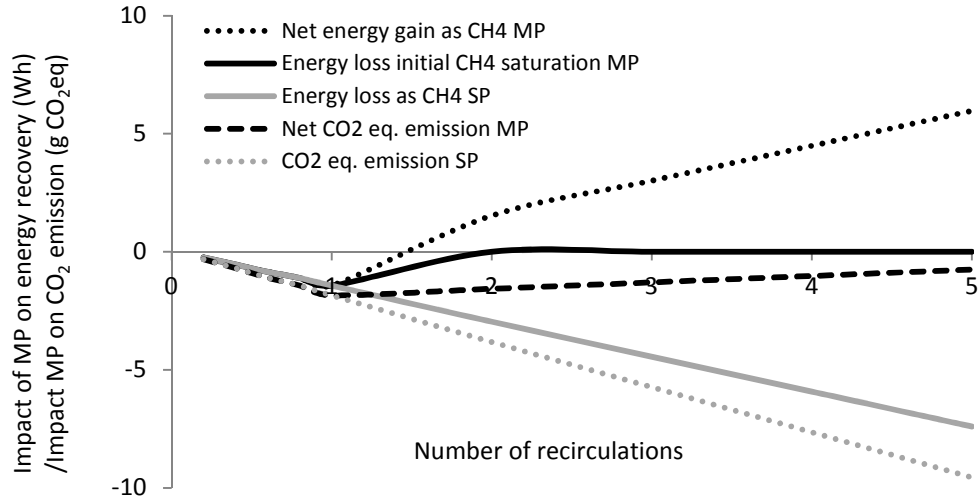


Figure 7. Energy and carbon balance based on methane slip during single pass (SP) and multi-pass (MP) solvent recirculation. A net energy gain is determined once solvent is recirculated more than once. Carbon neutrality requires greater than five solvent recirculations based on the modelled hydrodynamic conditions (assumptions  $0.52 \text{ kgCO}_2 \text{ kWh}^{-1}$ ; 40% electrical efficiency).

Table 1. Methane slip in DI, NaCl, NaOH, and NaOH + NaCl absorbents at 24-26 °C under conditions affording a relative output gas composition of 85 % CH<sub>4</sub>.

Absorbent	L/G	Liquid velocity	Gas velocity	CH <sub>4</sub> slip	CH <sub>4</sub> slip vol.	Q <sub>CH<sub>4</sub></sub> out	CH <sub>4</sub> slip
	V <sub>L</sub> /V <sub>G</sub>	V <sub>L</sub> , m s <sup>-1</sup>	V <sub>G</sub> , m s <sup>-1</sup>	g m <sup>-3</sup>	10 <sup>4</sup> m <sup>3</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	m <sup>3</sup> h <sup>-1</sup>	% CH <sub>4</sub> out
DI	5.18	0.0241	0.0047	16.0	5.8	0.011	5.22
1 M NaCl	5.00	0.0233	0.0047	9.6	4.1	0.010	4.00
1 M NaOH	0.33	0.0089	0.0300	10.0	1.3	0.136	0.10
1 M NaOH + 1 M NaCl	0.55	0.0089	0.0173	4.6	0.6	0.179	0.03