



# The Role of Alkaline/alkaline Earth Metal Oxides in CO<sub>2</sub> Capture: A Concise Review

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## Authors' contributions

*This work was carried out in collaboration among all authors. Author EV conceptualisation, data curation, investigation, methodology, writing -original draft, writing - review & editing, supervision, validation of the manuscript. Author BN writing - original draft of the manuscript. Author CUG, supervision, validation, visualisation, writing – original draft, review & editing, validation of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.*

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## ABSTRACT

Reducing the concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> from the atmosphere has attracted a lot of attention given the rapid level of industrialization in the world. Process Industries are one of the major contributors to this pollution in terms of the incessant release of CO<sub>2</sub> from flue gas streams. In recent times metal oxides have received a lot of attention as potential adsorbents for solving this problem. They find application in post-, pre-, and oxy-combustion conditions. Their basic sites plus a lower charge to radius ratio increase their ionic nature and site basicity and facilitate the capture of this pernicious gas from flue gas streams by reacting to form carbonates, which when heated liberates an almost pure stream of CO<sub>2</sub> which can be sequestered, thereby, aiding the release of environmentally benign flue gas streams to the atmosphere. This work takes a concise review of these metal oxides that have been widely studied.

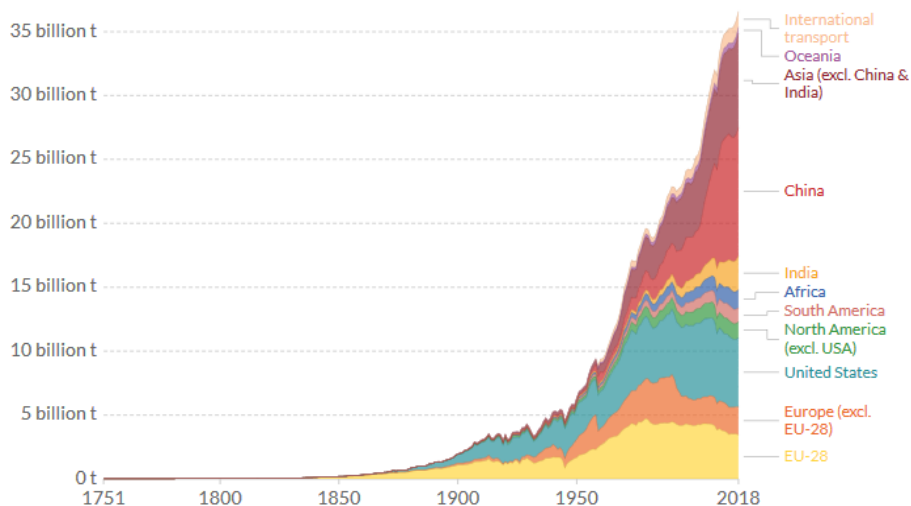
**Keywords:** CO<sub>2</sub>; capture technology; carbonation; capture capacity; thermal stability; regeneration heat; structural properties.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The rise in industrial activities in the world today has necessitated an increase in the world's energy demand. This energy demand is predominantly being met in the form of coal, petroleum, and natural gas. However, these fuels have been identified to have a deleterious effect on the environment due to the emissions such as CO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>x</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, Mercury, and Particulate matter that result from the combustion of these fuels. Recently, major attention has been focused on CO<sub>2</sub> because they have been regarded as the major cause of global warming, ocean acidification, sea-level rise, and climate change. The need to curb these emissions has led to a renaissance in the research industry [1-3], to develop strategies that would significantly reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions both from the stationary sources with high CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (e.g. Process Industries, and Coal-fired Power plants) and directly from the air have attracted increasing attention worldwide. Nonetheless, this decrease in carbon-intensive fuel consumption has not been achieved as the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration on the earth has been steadily increasing as seen in Fig. 1, as of December 2019, CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the atmosphere had reached 412 ppm accounting for about 31% increase of that in 1958 with reports prognosticating that the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the air would surpass 550ppm by 2050 [4] if no further drastic actions are taken to curb these CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Although the supply of alternative energies such as biomass,

solar, and wind is increasing, they are still inchoate and are still far from ready to replace fossil energy completely.

Recently carbon capture, utilization, and sequestration (CCUS) have been touted as a viable option to mitigate these CO<sub>2</sub> emissions within a short term. This technology involves using various sorbents to capture the CO<sub>2</sub> from stationary sources such as Process Industries followed by recycling for utilization or storing underground. CCUS has the potential to lead to a closed carbon cycle especially if the captured CO<sub>2</sub> is utilized as a carbon source feedstock for industrial chemicals and fuels production. It offers a cost-competitive way to fill the gap between the ever-increasing energy demand and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions reduction campaign [6]. The various capture process that exists for CCUS includes physical absorption [7-8], chemical absorption [9-10], adsorption [11], and membranes [12]. Currently, absorption by amine-based solvents is the predominant technology commonly used in the industry [13-15], but the high energy cost of absorbent regeneration, high corrosion rate, high absorbent cost, associated with these absorbents has inspired research into other sorbents which can be used for carbon capture such as metal oxide. This work as depicted in Fig. 2 therefore aims to present a clear and concise review on some selected metal oxides in terms of their capture capacity, reversibility rate, carbonation kinetics and multi-cycle durability.



**Fig. 1. Global carbon emission from 2006 – 2019, reproduced from [5]**

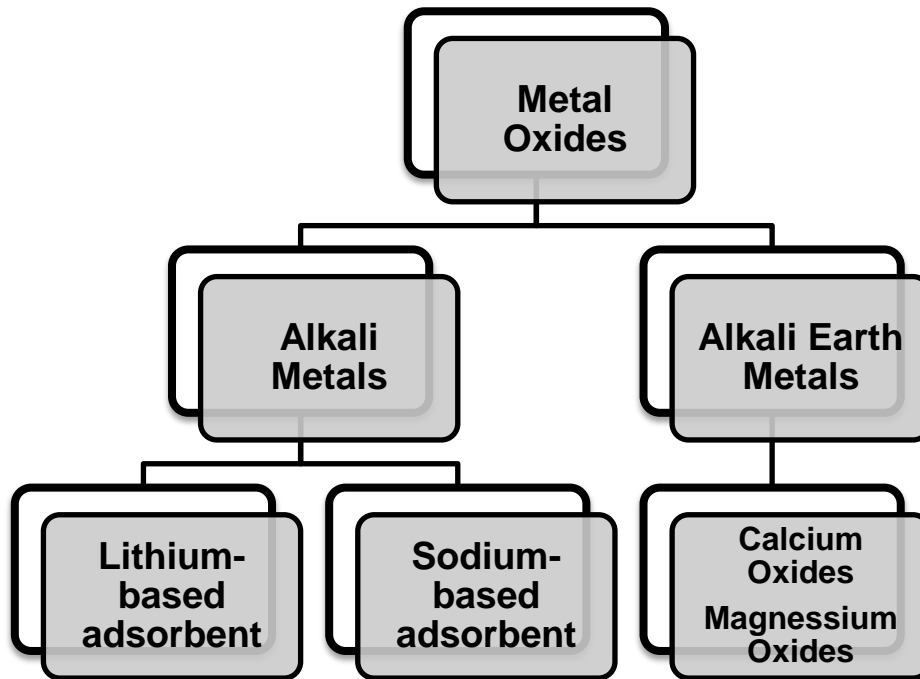


Fig. 2. Classification of metal oxide adsorbents as discussed in this review

## 2. METAL OXIDES

Metal oxides are regarded as promising chemisorbents for CO<sub>2</sub> capture due to their thermodynamic stability, abundance in nature, low cost of production, and reduced toxicity [16]. Coupled with the basic sites of some selected metal oxides that possess a lower charge to radius ratio which increases their ionic nature and site basicity [17], they exhibit good performance for CO<sub>2</sub> capture. In addition, with applicability within a wide range of temperatures from ambient conditions to temperatures of about

700°C [18], research into the use of metal oxides for CO<sub>2</sub> capture has become a hot area of research. The mode of operation of metal oxides follows a cyclic process of exothermic carbonation and endothermic calcination as depicted in Fig. 3. The metal oxide forms stable carbonates as the flue gas is passed through it, and this metal carbonates upon heating releases a pure stream of CO<sub>2</sub> gas which regenerates the oxides. Eventually, the generated pure CO<sub>2</sub> gas can either be sequestered underground or used for enhanced oil recovery [19].

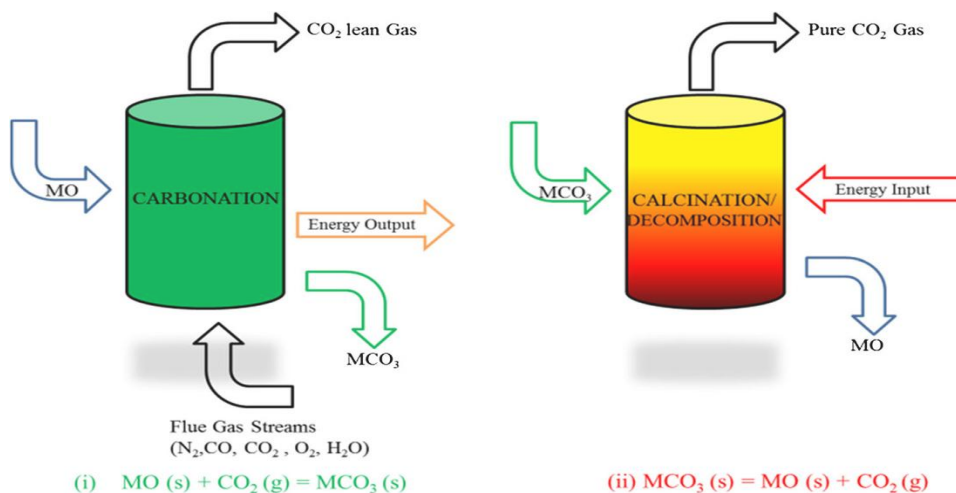


Fig. 3: Cyclic CO<sub>2</sub> capture process for metal oxides (MO) and metal carbonates (MCO<sub>3</sub>) reproduced from [20]

However, the process efficiency of metal oxides for CO<sub>2</sub> capture is limited in process applications due to the effect of sintering [20] which reduces sorbent performance especially at high temperatures when metal oxides are repeatedly cycled for optimum functionality. This reduction is facilitated through a decrease in the pore sizes, consequent change in shapes of pores, and even closure of small pores during the heating process. Also, it is reported in the structure of metal oxides, that bimodal pore size distribution exists as an after effect of sintering; in this case, pores of larger sizes are identified [21]. Again, this is facilitated by the conversion of small pores to large pore sizes via the reduction in surface energy during the recycling process.

In general, The CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity of metal oxide adsorbents depends mainly on available active sites (basic sites) accessible to CO<sub>2</sub> molecules. The reaction rate is largely dependent on the rate of CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion into the inner layer or pores and is the rate-determining step. Pore characteristics and chemical affinity determine the selectivity of the adsorbent. The energy requirement for regeneration is associated with the heat of adsorption. The poor cyclic capacity can be related to thermo-mechanical strength and drastic changes in morphology during multi-cycle operation. Hence, the physical, as well as chemical properties of the material such as surface area, pore volume, pore size distribution, chemical composition, particle size, surface geometry at the atomic scale, and stability, are very critical for better CO<sub>2</sub> capture characteristics [22]. As a guiding rule, metal oxides that can qualify for CO<sub>2</sub> capture must be; bountiful, react with CO<sub>2</sub> at low temperature, require low regeneration energy, should have suitable reaction kinetics, and must form a carbonate that is stable in the environment at ambient conditions. Below are some of these metal oxides that have been investigated and considered for CO<sub>2</sub> Capture:

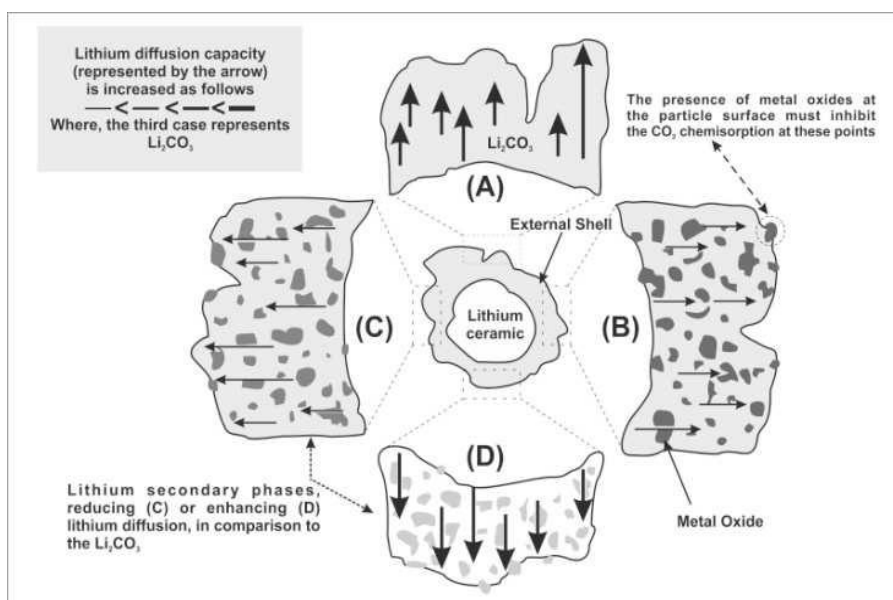
## 2.1 Alkali Metal Based Oxides

Porous oxides such as alkali and alkaline-earth metals have been reported as promising candidates for CO<sub>2</sub> capture. They are usually binary-metal oxides made up of a minimum of one alkaline element. These metal oxides possess long durability, good mechanical strength, wide availability, and low cost since they are present as natural minerals and have

high CO<sub>2</sub> absorption capacity at moderate working temperatures [23].

Recently attention has been drawn to lithium-based silicates (Li<sub>4</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub>, Li<sub>8</sub>SiO<sub>6</sub>, and Li<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>3</sub>), lithium-based zirconates (Li<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub>, Li<sub>6</sub>Zr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>, and Li<sub>8</sub>ZrO<sub>6</sub>), lithium based- aluminate (Li<sub>5</sub>AlO<sub>4</sub>), lithium cuprate (Li<sub>2</sub>CuO<sub>2</sub>), lithium ferrite (LiFeO<sub>2</sub>), lithium titanate (Li<sub>4</sub>TiO<sub>4</sub>), and sodium ceramics (Na<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub>, Na<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>3</sub>, and Na<sub>2</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub>) due to their favourable characteristics. Also, the precursors of these compounds lithium oxide (Li<sub>2</sub>O), lithium hydroxide (LiOH), and sodium hydroxide (NaOH) have also been studied for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption but however have shown difficulty in regeneration, high reactivity, instability, and huge volume expansions during absorption [24]. Among these materials, Li<sub>4</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> has shown great promise given its higher CO<sub>2</sub> sorption capacity and cyclic stability. Additionally, the regeneration temperature of Li<sub>4</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> material is much lower when compared with the calcium-based CO<sub>2</sub> sorbents, indicating that lower energy consumption is required for its regeneration [25]. The efficacy of these sorbent materials is closely determined by temperature, pressure, CO<sub>2</sub> concentration, CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate, particle size, crystalline structure, and structural phase transitions during ceramic synthesis. A double sorption mechanism has been proposed for the sorption of these compounds, first beginning with chemical sorption of CO<sub>2</sub> over the surface of these ceramics which leads to the formation of an external layer of alkaline carbonate and subsequent diffusion of the alkaline element throughout the external layer formed in order to reach the surface and continue reacting with the CO<sub>2</sub> [26-27]. This diffusion process is one of the rate determining steps of this mechanism [28].

It has been reported by Romero-Ibarra et al [29] that a secondary lithium phase which depends on the initial composition of the lithium ceramic is also formed on the particle surface which can either reduce or increase the diffusion process depending on the composition of the external shell as depicted in Fig. 4 is composed of Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> and metal oxides or another lithium phase. According to their work, the presence of metal oxides reduces CO<sub>2</sub> chemisorption while the presence of Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> and another lithium phase, can either enhance or decrease the CO<sub>2</sub> chemisorption process depending on whether the secondary lithium phases have better lithium diffusion properties than Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> or not; although it should be noted that this only applies to cases where Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> is a solid.



**Fig. 4. Possible compositions of external shell reproduced from [23]**

A faster reaction rate has been reported for  $\text{Na}_2\text{ZrO}_3$  when compared to synthetic adsorbents such as  $\text{Li}_2\text{ZrO}_3$  and  $\text{Li}_4\text{SiO}_4$  this has been attributed to the lamellar structure of  $\text{Na}_2\text{ZrO}_3$  which enhances sodium mobility, unlike the more packed structure seen in  $\text{Li}_2\text{ZrO}_3$  [30]. Alkaline ceramics have also been reported to show good selectivity in separation of  $\text{CO}_2$  from flue gas with  $\text{Li}_2\text{ZrO}_3$  showing no affinity for nitrogen at all leading to an infinitely large  $\text{CO}_2/\text{N}_2$  selectivity ratio [31]. It has also been commonly reported that the presence of steam improves the performance of these ceramics by dissolution of the external shell ultimately leading to an increase in absorption rate, absorption capacity, and regeneration [32]. Several researches attest to this fact such as that carried out by Santillan-Reyes and Pfeiffer [33] who reported a beneficial effect of adding water when absorbing  $\text{CO}_2$  over  $\text{Na}_2\text{ZrO}_3$  at low temperature range.

Similarly Ochoa et al [34] investigated the effect of steam addition on stability, capacity, and regeneration properties of  $\text{Li}_2\text{ZrO}_3$ , K-doped  $\text{Li}_2\text{ZrO}_3$ ,  $\text{Na}_2\text{ZrO}_3$ , and  $\text{Li}_4\text{SiO}_4$  under sorption enhanced steam methane reforming (SESMR) relevant conditions they reported that the presence of steam enhanced absorption/desorption rate whereas a large decay was observed under dry conditions which was attributed to sintering.

The regeneration of these alkaline ceramics has also been studied although only  $\text{Li}_2\text{ZrO}_3$  and

$\text{Li}_4\text{SiO}_4$  have been extensively studied. Reports have it that they require significantly lower temperature than  $\text{CaO}$  based sorbents, and as a result require low regeneration energy. Although the desorption rate of unmodified lithium ceramics is low.  $\text{Li}_2\text{ZrO}_3$  is the easiest to regenerate followed by  $\text{Li}_4\text{SiO}_4$  [35] and  $\text{Na}_2\text{ZrO}_3$  having a much lower regeneration rate than  $\text{Li}_4\text{SiO}_4$  [36].

$\text{Li}_2\text{ZrO}_3$  and  $\text{Li}_4\text{SiO}_4$  have also been proven to show good cyclic stability for a limited number of cycles (<100) with minimal loss of capacity, although not much study has been carried out regarding the stability of other alkaline ceramics. More studies are still required on these alkaline ceramics to determine cheaper precursor sources for these alkaline ceramics as they are relatively expensive when compared to mineral based sorbents [37]. Studies are currently on-going as regards the modification of the different properties of these alkaline ceramics such as kinetics, efficiency, and working temperature. Promising among these modification alternatives are the use of dopants, preparation of solid solutions, development of novel synthetic routes to obtain ceramic with desirable properties, and use of eutectic mixture. Furthermore each of these ceramics would be scrutinized for their individual capture properties in the following sections that follows. Additionally a summary of their sorption properties is given in the Table 1.

Table 1. Absorption properties of alkaline ceramics

S/N	Ceramic Adsorbent	Calcination temperature (°C)	CO <sub>2</sub> Uptake			Gas Composition	Ref.
			Ads. Cap. (wt%)	Temp	P (bar)		
1	Li <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub>	900	27.0	580	1	4% CO <sub>2</sub>	38
2	Li <sub>2</sub> ZrO <sub>3</sub>	600	22.0	600	5	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	39
3	Nano Li <sub>2</sub> ZrO <sub>3</sub>	600	27.0	575	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	40
4	K-Li <sub>2</sub> ZrO <sub>3</sub>	-	22.0	550	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	41
5	Y-Li <sub>2</sub> ZrO <sub>3</sub>	700	29.9	500	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	42
6	Promoted Li <sub>2</sub> ZrO <sub>3</sub>	850	23.0	550	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	43
7	Li <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> from rice husk	700	30.5	680	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	44
8	Li <sub>4</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> from diatomite	-	28.6	700	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	45
9	Li <sub>2</sub> CuO <sub>2</sub>	-	13.6	650	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	46
10	Li <sub>2</sub> CuO <sub>2</sub>	1000	40.2	875	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	47
11	Li <sub>4</sub> TiO <sub>4</sub>	-	27.0	900	1	CO <sub>2</sub> /Ar	48
12	Li <sub>4</sub> TiO <sub>4</sub>	600-1000	42.0	856	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	49
13	Li <sub>8</sub> SiO <sub>6</sub>	800	42.0	550	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	50
14	Li <sub>8</sub> SiO <sub>6</sub>	800	52.1	650	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	51
15	Na <sub>2</sub> ZrO <sub>3</sub>	850	47.5	70	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	33
16	Na <sub>2</sub> ZrO <sub>3</sub>	850	23.8	550	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	52
17	Na <sub>2</sub> SiO <sub>3</sub>	700	37.4	50	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	53
18	Na <sub>2</sub> TiO <sub>3</sub>	850	12.0	610	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	54

### 2.1.1 Lithium based adsorbents

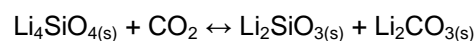
Lithium based sorbents has being considered for use in CO<sub>2</sub> capture due to its ionic mobility and it's affinity for CO<sub>2</sub> [55]. These compounds are quite promising and have being thoroughly investigated for their CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption properties. Notably among them are LiFeO<sub>2</sub> [56], Li<sub>2</sub>CuO<sub>2</sub> [57], Li<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> [58], Li<sub>8</sub>SiO<sub>6</sub> [59], and Li<sub>4</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> [60-62].

#### A. Lithium Orthosilicates (Li<sub>4</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub>)

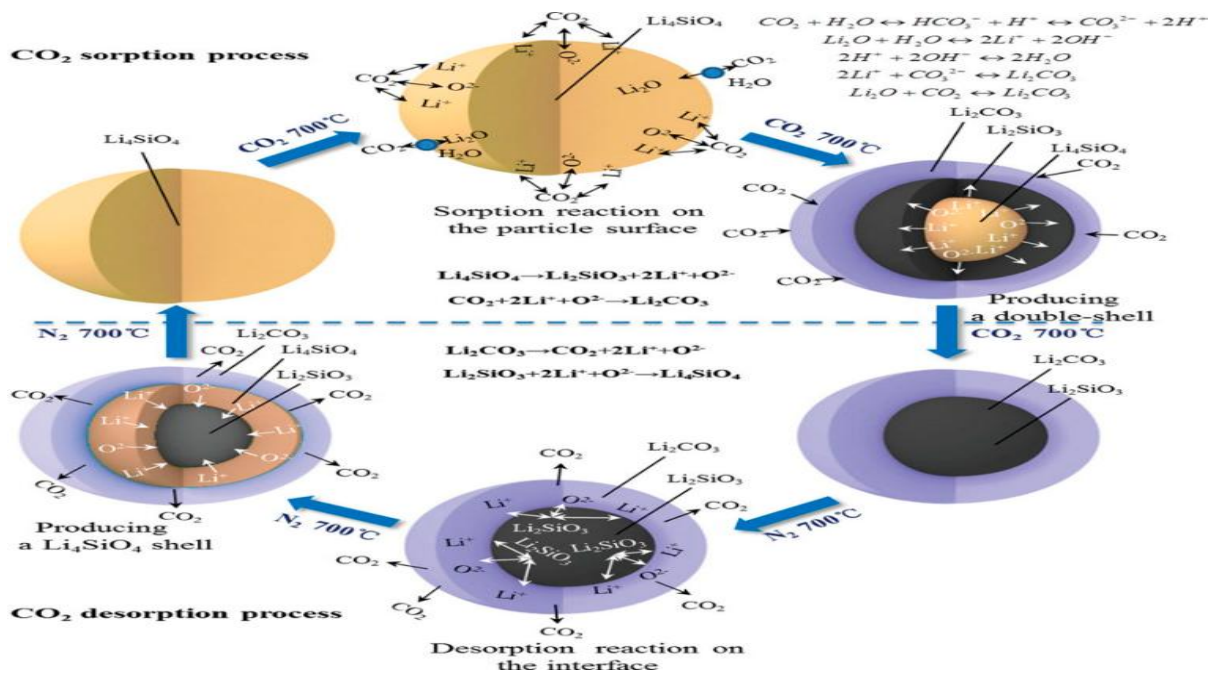
Attention has being drawn to Lithium orthosilicates due to their high theoretical CO<sub>2</sub> sorption capacity (36.7 wt %, approximately 8.34 mmol CO<sub>2</sub>/ Li<sub>4</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> g) and good cyclic stability [17]. Research shows that Li<sub>4</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> are high temperature CO<sub>2</sub> absorbers and can absorb different concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> within the temperature range of 450-700°C but suffers from high decomposition temperature (>800°C) which may require more heat and costly equipment ultimately increasing capital and operational cost.

The chemisorption sorption process is limited by the rate of the formation and growth of the

crystals with double-shell structure consisting of Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> and Li<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>3</sub> as depicted in Fig.5. The reaction occurs mainly due to the lithium ion mobility in the ceramics; they diffuse from the core of the particles to the surface and react with CO<sub>2</sub> to form Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>. The diffusion of CO<sub>2</sub> in the solid Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> is recognised as the rate limiting step:



In a research done by Rodriguez et al [64], where they evaluated the CO<sub>2</sub> chemisorption capacity as a function of CO<sub>2</sub> flow rate and sorbent particle size they revealed that the CO<sub>2</sub> capture rate is controlled by CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion through the Gas-film system, whereas at high CO<sub>2</sub> flows it is controlled by the CO<sub>2</sub> chemisorption reaction rate. After formation of the carbonate oxide external shell, the whole CO<sub>2</sub> capture process is controlled kinetically by lithium diffusion. Li<sub>4</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> also finds application in Sorption-enhanced Hydrogen production which mainly consists of sorption enhanced steam methane reforming or sorption enhanced steam ethanol reforming. In these processes,



**Fig. 5. Double-shell mechanism of  $\text{Li}_4\text{SiO}_4$  material for  $\text{CO}_2$  absorption and regeneration [63]**

in-situ  $\text{CO}_2$  removal with  $\text{Li}_4\text{SiO}_4$  material as the  $\text{CO}_2$  acceptor shifts the reaction equilibrium to hydrogen production, and exothermal absorption of  $\text{CO}_2$  by the  $\text{Li}_4\text{SiO}_4$  material provides heat for reforming, thus high hydrogen yield can be achieved [65]. Despite their excellent  $\text{CO}_2$  sorption capabilities at high temperatures,  $\text{Li}_4\text{SiO}_4$  face certain constraints such as slow capture kinetics and poor stability–recyclability which limits their application. The slow capture kinetics is due to the formation of a lithium carbonate shell which limits  $\text{CO}_2$  diffusion, thus limiting kinetic performance. Poor stability occurs as a result of sintering which reduces the cyclic stability necessary for practical applications.

A lot of research has been done aimed at improving the reaction kinetics of this lithium ceramics by altering the synthesis routes and reducing the particle size of this ceramics since one of the limiting steps is the diffusion process, which may be avoided or at least reduced by the synthesis of smaller particles [66]. Various methods such as solid-state reaction method, sol-gel method, Precipitation method, combustion method etc. have been developed for the synthesis of  $\text{Li}_4\text{SiO}_4$  sorbents. The solid-state reaction method is easy and the most commonly used technique to synthesize  $\text{Li}_4\text{SiO}_4$  sorbents [67]. In Sol–gel method the lithium and silicon precursors are mixed in a liquid phase, followed by the formation of a three-dimensional gel network by the gelatinized particles and

finally the drying and calcination of the gel to obtain the  $\text{Li}_4\text{SiO}_4$  sorbent. Sol–gel method facilitates the formation of relatively homogeneous material at lower temperatures [68]. In precipitation method, the silicon source is first mixed with a solution of lithium source and the mixture suspension is stirred, dried and calcined at high temperatures to produce  $\text{Li}_4\text{SiO}_4$  sorbent [69-74]. In combustion method, the silicon source is mixed with the lithium solution and the fuel (i.e., citric acid, urea, and glycine) followed by vaporization, during which it begins to foam and swell and finally burns itself (autoignition) due to strong exothermic reaction. The charred ash is grinded and calcined at high temperatures to produce  $\text{Li}_4\text{SiO}_4$  sorbents [75-76].

The structures and properties of the synthesized lithium silicates is largely a function of the synthesis method adopted, type of raw material used and the synthesis temperature (synthesis temperature affect the micro structure which can in turn affect the sorbent performance) [72]. Normally the lithium is sourced from lithium nitrate, lithium carbonate, lithium acetate and lithium hydroxide. The silicon source is derived from raw materials like natural silicon containing minerals, biomass ashes, fly ashes, zeolite based materials, organosilicone compounds, silica powder and its different forms like fumed silica, amorphous silica gel, colloidal silica, aerosol silica, silica sol and quartz powder [77-

81]. Research also shows that the addition of dopants such as Al, Fe, Na, K and Cs increases the CO<sub>2</sub> uptake of lithium orthosilicate. In an experiment carried out by Walther-Dari et al. [82] using steel metallurgical slags as silica source with and without addition of 10-30wt% K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>, he observed that the CO<sub>2</sub> Capture efficiency improved with the addition of K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> because of the formation of a eutectic phase between K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> and Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>, which facilitated CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion into the material bulk. The best capture capacity value (104mg CO<sub>2</sub>/g material) was obtained using the material produced from steel metallurgical slag with 20wt% K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>. Also Olivares-Marin et al. [83] reported that K-doped Li<sub>4</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> obtained using fly ash as source of SiO<sub>2</sub> exhibited a capacity of 101 mg g<sup>-1</sup> under optimum conditions (at 600°C with 40 mol % K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>).

Further studies are focused on decreasing the precursor particle size or choosing more sintering-resistant precursors to result in a smaller product grain size. Such is evident by the recent research done by Rajesh Belgamwar et al. [84], they synthesized lithium silicate nanosheets (LSN) which showed a high CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity (35.3wt% CO<sub>2</sub> capture using 60% CO<sub>2</sub> Feed gas close to the theoretical value) with ultra-fast kinetics and enhanced stability at 650°C. Their work showed that the nanosheet morphology of the lithium silicon nanosheets allow for efficient CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion to ensure reaction with the entire sheet as well as providing extremely fast CO<sub>2</sub> capture kinetics (0.22 g g<sup>-1</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>). It was also reported that the LSNs were stable for at least 200 cycles without any loss in their capture capacity or kinetics and neither formed a carbonate shell unlike conventional lithium silicates which are known to rapidly lose their capture capacity and kinetics within the first few cycles due to thick carbonate shell formation and also due to the sintering of sorbent particles. In a similar report by Wang et al. [44] who synthesized Li<sub>4</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub>-based adsorbent using rice husk ash as silicon source, he reported that the adsorbent showed better CO<sub>2</sub> sorption capacity (32.4 wt%) and cyclic stability compared with pure Li<sub>4</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> (22.1 wt%), due to high pore volume and high surface area.

## B. Lithium metazirconates (Li<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub>)

The pioneering work of Nakagawa and Ohasi in 1998 [85], where they investigated the capture of CO<sub>2</sub> using Li<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> at high temperatures of (400-700°C) and reportedly captured about 4.5mol/kg

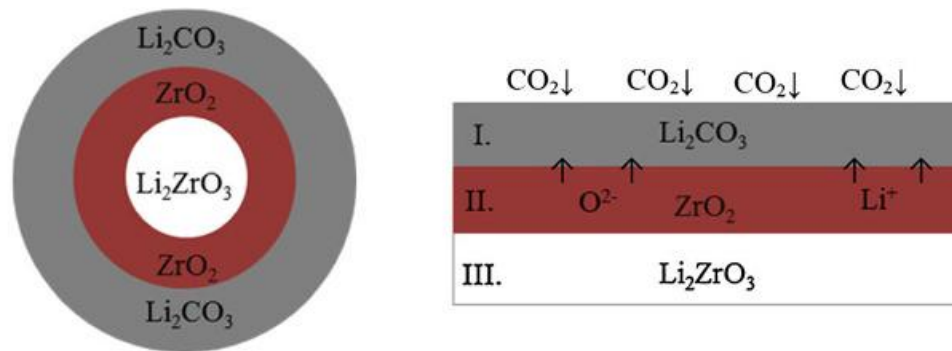
(28wt%) was what sprung up massive interest in lithium zirconates as possible CO<sub>2</sub> capture adsorbents plus unlike other sorbents that had a limited CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity, lithium zirconate does not absorb nitrogen at all and would result to infinitely large CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity. Lithium zirconates also showed good stability over carbonation/calcination cycles. Furthermore, lithium zirconates have been used in the CO oxidation, showing complete conversion to CO<sub>2</sub> between 450 and 600°C and subsequent capture of CO<sub>2</sub> that was produced [86]. Similarly to lithium silicates Li<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> also suffers from a slow reaction rate due to the formation of Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> shell which prevents the mobility or access of Li ions to CO<sub>2</sub>, hence Ultimately reducing the reaction rate almost making them impossible for industrial use [87], the mechanism for CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption on Li<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> is as depicted in Fig.6.

Recent studies have shown that adding dopants such as Iron, Potassium, Sodium and Yttrium to Li<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> increases the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption rate. These dopants change the melting point of the system to produce a liquid eutectic mixed-salt molten shell on the outer surfaces which offers much less resistance to CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion and consequently increasing absorption rate [88]. Presence of iron improved the kinetics of lithium zirconates and this can be explained based on partial iron reduction, implying an oxygen release, which promoted the CO<sub>2</sub> chemical transformation to carbonate ions. Presence of Potassium as a dopant increases the CO<sub>2</sub> diffusion rate (which is usually the rate limiting step) towards the inner unreacted particles by forming a eutectic mixture with Li<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> at 500°C. Presence of Yttrium as a Dopant on the other hand shifts the rate limiting step for CO<sub>2</sub> sorption to the diffusion of ions in the ZrO<sub>2</sub> formed during the adsorption process and did not increase the CO<sub>2</sub> sorption kinetics of Li<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>2</sub> [89]. For Lithium–sodium based zirconates, experiment show that sodium increased the absorption kinetics and the higher the lithium content in the mixture the faster the regeneration kinetics [90].

### 2.1.2 Sodium based sorbents

The CO<sub>2</sub> capture properties of certain sodium based compounds were first reported by Lopez-Ortiz et al. who stated that Na<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub>, Na<sub>2</sub>SbO<sub>3</sub>, and Na<sub>2</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub> could absorb CO<sub>2</sub> in the temperature range of 600-700°C. Observed that the reactivity followed the order Na<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> > Na<sub>2</sub>SbO<sub>3</sub> > Na<sub>2</sub>TiO<sub>3</sub>, Na<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> exhibited better absorption rate and inferior regeneration





Reaction at

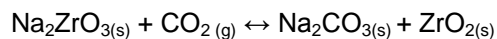


**Fig. 6. Proposed mechanisms for CO<sub>2</sub> sorption on Li<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> reproduced from [20]**

performance compared to Li<sub>4</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> and Li<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub>. The following sections that follow give an insight on this ceramics.

#### A. Sodium Meta Zirconate (Na<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub>)

With a CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity of 23.75wt% and a lower cost compared to lithium based oxides Na<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> has gained attention as a good CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbent. They can operate at higher temperature plus a higher reaction rate has also being observed compared to other lithium based adsorbents [91]. Though Na<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> is able to absorb CO<sub>2</sub> even at room temperature the best temperature for CO<sub>2</sub> Absorption on Na<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> is said to be 600°C [92].



According to the work of Alcerra-Corte et al. who studied the kinetics for the chemisorption of CO<sub>2</sub> on Na<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> particles in the temperature range of 150-700°C, a fast kinetics was observed between 550 and 700°C, however at low temperatures, kinetics was relatively low and was attributed to the sintering effect as well as diffusion problems. It was also concluded that sodium diffusion was the rate limiting step for the process. Jimenez et al [93] suggested that the rate limiting step for the CO<sub>2</sub> sorption kinetics of Na<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> at a similar temperature and partial pressure of 0.4-0.8atm was the surface reaction. Further studies have also revealed that the presence of steam favours the kinetics of the reaction and regeneration because steam increases the mobility of alkaline ions and

therefore accelerates the reactions. In another study done by Santillan-Reyes at a temperature of 30-70°C it was reported that Na<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> was able to absorb 5.8mmol/g of CO<sub>2</sub> in the presence of water, therefore enabling it's CO<sub>2</sub> application in low temperature condition.

In 2007 Zhao et al. [94] synthesized nanosized Na<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> with well-controlled crystal phase using a soft-chemical route. it was reported that monoclinic Na<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> showed much faster CO<sub>2</sub> capture rate than hexagonal Na<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> even at low CO<sub>2</sub> partial pressures (0.025 bar). Thus, a higher CO<sub>2</sub> capture rate is obtained for Nanosized Na<sub>2</sub>ZrO<sub>3</sub> due to the dual effect of its crystal size and structure showing that reducing particle size can help increase the kinetics of the reaction.

#### B. Sodium meta-silicate (Na<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>3</sub>)

Na<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>3</sub> has been reported to show a low CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption rate 1-2wt% at temperatures ranging from room temperature to 130°C, following a two-step process first: Superficial chemical sorption and Sodium Diffusion Process, with sodium diffusion process being recognised as the rate determining step [95].

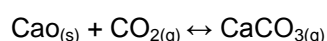
The CO<sub>2</sub> absorption rate has also been observed to increase with decreasing particle size of Na<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>3</sub> and can be attributed to an increase in surface area [96]. Conditions of thermal humidity has also being known to increase CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption rate enabling Na<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>3</sub> absorb up to 16.39 mmol of CO<sub>2</sub>/gm of ceramic, much more than that absorbed under dry conditions.

Synthesis method also affects the CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity. CO<sub>2</sub> absorption capacity of Na<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>3</sub> is governed by the combined effect of water vapour and surface area, in a recent research carried out by Rodriguez- Mosqueda et al. [97], involves the synthesis of Na<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>3</sub> using solid-state reaction and combustion method. They reported that Na<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>3</sub> sample prepared by the combustion method presented a surface area 3 times larger than the solid-state reaction sample. He also performed different water vapor sorption experiments. The experiment showed that, The Na<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>3</sub> sample prepared by the combustion method captured up to 8.5 mmol of CO<sub>2</sub> per gram of ceramic (efficiency of 52%), a considerably high CO<sub>2</sub> amount among different materials. Also, the presence of water vapor strongly favored the CO<sub>2</sub> chemisorption on Na<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>3</sub>. Thus, the recent results support the potential of Na<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>3</sub> as a CO<sub>2</sub> Capture sorbent at moderate or environmental temperatures.

## 2.2 Alkali Earth Metals

### 2.2.1 Calcium Oxide (CaO)

Focus has been placed on CaO as possible adsorbents for CO<sub>2</sub> due to its availability and its ability to absorb CO<sub>2</sub> at high temperatures. It has a high CO<sub>2</sub> Capture (up to 17.8mmol CO<sub>2</sub> Per gram of sorbent) and can operate at high temperature (>600°C).



In a study conducted by Abanades group [98-99] on the cost of calcium oxide for capturing CO<sub>2</sub>, they reported that it would cost 0.0015 dollars per mole of CO<sub>2</sub> captured with CaO, compared to the cost of activated carbons (0.25 dollars), zeolites (0.20 dollars) and hydrotalcites (4.00 dollars) per mole of CO<sub>2</sub>. Thus, this shows CaO is relatively inexpensive.

CaO has been reported to have regeneration issues, as the ability of CaO to regenerate the carbonate decreases strongly with the increasing number of cycles. It is known to have poor attrition resistance which is quite common with natural sorbents [100-101].

Research such as that done by Baker et al proves that the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbed dropped significantly as CaO was cycled up to 40 times and he attributed this decreased capacity to a loss of pore volume and sintering, Baker also reported that carbonation initially occurred very

rapidly, however the reactivity of the sorbent subsequently decreased over time due to the formation of a carbonate shell through which the rate of reaction was controlled by diffusion process. Although current research suggests that KMnO<sub>4</sub>-doped CaO-based sorbent has the potential to reverse this trend as Li et al. [102] reported a better cyclic carbonation rate and conversion over 100 cycles compared with the pristine sorbent. The Dopants are able to achieve this by controlling the surface area and pores to a specific range. In a related experiment Reddy and Smirniotis [103] investigated the role of alkali metals as dopants for CaO the results were in the order of Li < Na < K < Rb < Cs, which indicates a possible relationship between sorption properties and increase of the atomic radii of the alkali metals.

CaO has a tendency to react with SO<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> at the same time to form both CaCO<sub>3</sub> and CaSO<sub>4</sub>(sulphation) this sulphation process increases with increasing number of cycles which may necessitate the need for desulphurization of flue gas before CO<sub>2</sub> Capture in post combustion applications. The reaction mechanism of this sorbents also follows a two-step mechanism, where the first step involves kinetically-controlled rapid chemical reaction at the beginning followed by the diffusion of CO<sub>2</sub> through the product layer formed in the first step to reach unreacted CaO core this is the slowest step in the process and is dependent on the pore size of the sorbents.

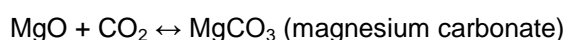
Skorfa et al [104] performed an analysis between synthetic and natural based CaO based sorbents he posited that natural sorbents derived from industrial hydrated lime presented promising results; the preparation procedure seems not to significantly affect activity and stability. They also carried out some tests using the most promising synthetic Ca-Zr, and Ca-Al and natural pure CaO derived from Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> direct calcination and MgO- doped Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub>, were tested in a fixed bed reactor under realistic flue gas feed composition, and discovered that the natural sorbents presented inferior results. Several modifications have been done to improve the properties of this calcium based compounds which includes modification of precursors, use of dopants, Preparation of Nano Sorbents, reactivation through steam/water hydration.

Calcium silicate has also been investigated and reports show that it starts to absorb CO<sub>2</sub> At 400°C with about 28.72% sorption efficiency using 15% CO<sub>2</sub> and the rest Nitrogen. However

the CO<sub>2</sub> Capture capacity also drastically decreases from large number of cycles and could be attributed to sintering of the material which leads to the loss of specific surface area [105].

### 2.2.2 Magnesium Oxide (MgO)

MgO has being considered for CO<sub>2</sub> capture given its high abundance, cost effectiveness, low toxicity, and thermodynamic stability of the products of the reaction.

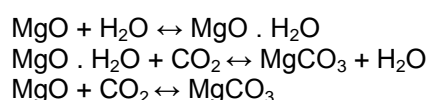


It finds application in both pre and post combustion due to its low regeneration temperatures and has being reported to have good selectivity for CO<sub>2</sub> over N<sub>2</sub> in the presence of steam. The disadvantages of MgO as an adsorbent include low kinetics, poor thermal as well as mechanical stability [111-112]. Mayorga et al [113] reported a sorption capacity of 0.13mmol/g(0.57wt%) for MgO under moderate temperature and dry environment. Studies have also shown that the presence of water catalysed the reaction kinetics, together with surface properties of MgO (such as surface area, Particle size and Porosity).

Research also shows that mesoporous MgO is a better CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbent than non-porous commercial MgO due to high surface area and a narrow pore size distribution the role of porosity was clearly shown by Bhagiyalakshmi et al. [114-118] on carbon templated mesoporous MgO, who showed that the mesoporosity

enhanced CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption up to 1.81mmol/g (8 wt %) at 298k and 2.27mmol/g(10wt%) at 373k whereas non porous MgO only displayed 0.23-45mmol/g(1-2wt%) of adsorption at 298k under atmospheric pressure. Investigations has also being carried out to improve CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity using K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> modified MgO, as both MgO and K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> can adsorb CO<sub>2</sub> in the presence of water vapour at low temperatures. The modified materials absorbs CO<sub>2</sub> effectively over a temperature range of 50-100<sup>0</sup>C and can be regenerated around 150-400<sup>0</sup>C.

From H<sub>2</sub>O:- According to the reaction



Although water catalyzes the reaction but the formation of MgCO<sub>3</sub> layer resists the mobility of CO<sub>2</sub> molecules to come in contact with the unreacted MgO, this means that water vapour alone cannot lead to the complete carbonation conversion of MgO therefore besides the amount of steam, surface properties of MgO such as surface area, Particle size, and Porosity are also very crucial parameters for the carbonation process.

So far, the role of water vapour, porosity, surface area and particle size with the carbonation yield has been established but factors such as carbonation kinetics, sorbent reversibility and durability are still not completely resolved and thus need to be investigated more.

**Table 2. Sorption properties of CaO based sorbents**

S/N	Ceramic Adsorbent	Calcination temperature (°C)	CO <sub>2</sub> Uptake			Gas Composition	Ref.
			Ads. Cap. (wt%)	Temp (Ads)	P (bar)		
1	CaO- based mesoporous silica	950	80	580	-	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	106
2	Mesoporous Nano crystalline CaO	700	22	600	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	107
3	CaO-MgO	800	53	575	-	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	108
4	CaO / Ca <sub>12</sub> Al <sub>14</sub> O <sub>33</sub>	850	41	550	1	20% of CO <sub>2</sub>	109
5	NiO-CaO- Ca <sub>12</sub> Al <sub>14</sub> O <sub>33</sub>	700	56	500	1	15% of CO <sub>2</sub>	110

**Table 3. Sorption properties of various MgO based sorbents**

S/N	Ceramic Adsorbent	Calcination temperature (°C)	CO <sub>2</sub> Uptake			Gas Composition	Ref.
			Ads. Cap. (wt% CO <sub>2</sub> )	Temp (Ads)	P (bar)		
1	Mg/K-SBA-15	300	3.6	20	-	-	115
2	Mg/K-SBA-16	300	2.0	20	1	-	115
3	Mg/K-MCM-48	300	2.5	20	1	-	115
4	Na <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub> -MgO	400	15.0	380	-	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	116
5	Mesoporous MgO	800	10.0	100	1	100% of CO <sub>2</sub>	117
6	MgO/TiO <sub>2</sub>	150	2.1	25	-	-	118

### 3. OUTLOOK AND CONCLUSION

The potential of metal oxides in ameliorating CO<sub>2</sub> emissions within the purview of sustainable chemical and energy production has being firmly established, with a lot of research on-going on the application of this metal oxides in Sorption Enhanced Steam Methane/Methanol Reforming in which these oxides are able to catalyse the conversion of CO to CO<sub>2</sub> and subsequently capturing the CO<sub>2</sub> produced in the process, Also there application as Dual functional materials in reactive capture of CO<sub>2</sub> in which these metal oxides are combined with a hydrogenation catalyst for CO<sub>2</sub> capture and conversion has sparked off alot of interest in this materials. These materials, though auspicious quite sadly face certain challenges which must be addressed before they can be employed commercially. It is highly recommended in order to scale –up the application of these sorbents that more studies should be done in terms of capture capacity, reversibility rate, carbonation kinetics, multi-cycle durability plus an In-depth analysis of the performance of these adsorbents under real life flue gas conditions, because research shows that some of these sorbents tend to lose their capture capacity in the presence of sulphur and Nitrogen oxides which are typical components of real life flue gas streams.

### DISCLAIMER

The products used for this research are commonly and predominantly use products in our area of research and country. There is absolutely no conflict of interest between the authors and producers of the products because we do not intend to use these products as an avenue for any litigation but for the advancement of knowledge. Also, the research was not funded by the producing company rather it was funded by personal efforts of the authors.

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### COMPETING INTERESTS

Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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