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## Comparative Analysis of Conventional vs Membrane-Based Carbon Capture: Technological, Economic, and Environmental Perspectives

Joseph Ezeani <sup>1\*</sup>, Taiwo Awojulu <sup>2</sup>, Oscar Oturu <sup>3</sup>, Sunday Ameh <sup>4</sup>, Kelechi Asogwa <sup>5</sup>

<sup>1</sup> University of Toledo, Toledo, OH, USA

<sup>2,4,5</sup> University of Benin, Benin City, Edo PMB, Nigeria

<sup>3</sup> University of Jos, Jos, Plateau State, PMB, Nigeria

\* Corresponding Author: **Joseph Ezeani**

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### Abstract

This review presents a comprehensive analysis of conventional carbon capture technologies compared with emerging membrane-based approaches. Carbon capture and storage (CCS) remains essential for meeting climate goals as fossil fuels continue to dominate the global energy portfolio. While conventional methods like solvent-based absorption have dominated industrial applications, membrane-based capture systems have advanced significantly, offering promising alternatives. This paper examines the technological principles, economic considerations, energy requirements, environmental impacts, and implementation challenges of both approaches. Current research trends, knowledge gaps, and future prospects are also discussed. The review concludes that membrane technologies show considerable promise for specific applications, though conventional methods remain more mature for large-scale deployment. Hybrid systems that leverage the strengths of both approaches may represent the most pragmatic path forward in the near term.

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### 1. Introduction

Climate change mitigation requires dramatic reductions in greenhouse gas emissions, with carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) being the primary concern due to its abundance and long atmospheric residence time (Pachauri *et al.*, 2014). Carbon capture and storage (CCS) technologies have emerged as critical tools for reducing CO<sub>2</sub> emissions while allowing continued use of fossil fuels during the energy transition (Boot-Handford *et al.*, 2014). The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) has identified CCS as a key component in most scenarios that achieve the 2°C target established in the Paris Agreement (Butnar, Cronin and Pye, 2020).

Carbon capture technologies can be broadly categorized as pre-combustion, post-combustion, or oxy-fuel combustion approaches. Among these, post-combustion capture has received the most attention due to its retrofit potential for existing infrastructure (Bui *et al.*, 2018). Within post-combustion technologies, conventional approaches such as amine-based absorption have been deployed commercially, while membrane-based technologies have emerged as promising alternatives with distinct advantages and limitations (Leung, Caramanna and Maroto-Valer, 2014).

This review examines both conventional and membrane-based carbon capture technologies with a focus on their technological principles, performance metrics, economic considerations, environmental impacts, and implementation challenges. By providing a comparative analysis, this paper aims to clarify the current state of these technologies, identify knowledge gaps, and suggest future research directions to advance carbon capture capabilities.

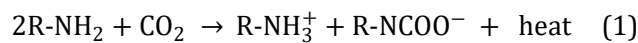
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## 2. Conventional carbon capture technologies

Conventional carbon capture technologies have undergone decades of development and optimization, with some reaching commercial deployment. These technologies primarily rely on thermodynamic principles such as differences in solubility, boiling points, or adsorption affinities to separate CO<sub>2</sub> from flue gas mixtures.

### 2.1 Amine-based absorption

Amine-based absorption represents the most mature carbon capture technology, with several large-scale implementations worldwide (Rochelle, 2009). The process involves the chemical reaction between CO<sub>2</sub> and amine solvents, forming carbamates or bicarbonates (equation 1) that can later be reversed through heating to release concentrated CO<sub>2</sub> as shown in equation 2 (Wang *et al.*, 2011).



The typical amine absorption process as shown in figure 1 consists of an absorber column where flue gas contacts the amine solution, followed by a stripper column where the

CO<sub>2</sub>-rich solution is heated to release CO<sub>2</sub> (Wang *et al.*, 2011). Monoethanolamine (MEA) has been the benchmark solvent, but advanced amines such as piperazine, methyldiethanolamine (MDEA), and proprietary blends have shown improved performance characteristics (Kothandaraman, 2010).

Key advantages of amine absorption include high CO<sub>2</sub> recovery rates (typically 85-95%), high product purity (>99% possible), and extensive operational experience (Metz *et al.*, 2005). However, significant challenges remain, including:

- High regeneration energy requirements (3.0-4.2 GJ/tonne CO<sub>2</sub>)
- Solvent degradation and makeup requirements
- Equipment corrosion
- Significant footprint requirements
- Environmental concerns related to amine emissions

Research efforts have focused on developing more efficient solvents with lower regeneration energy, improved stability, and reduced environmental impact (Puxty *et al.*, 2009). For instance, sterically hindered amines have demonstrated reduced regeneration energy requirements of 2.5-3.0 GJ/tonne CO<sub>2</sub> while maintaining capture efficiency (Goto *et al.*, 2011).

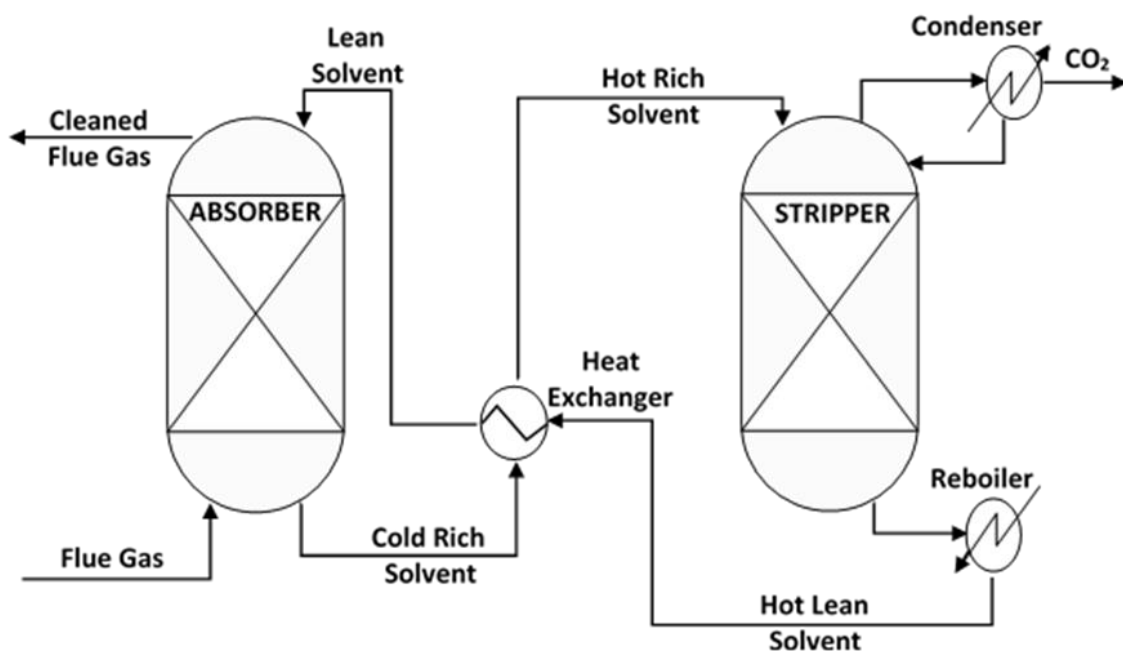


Fig 1: Amine Amine-based CO<sub>2</sub> absorption process flow adapted from (MacDowell *et al.*, 2010)

### 2.2 Cryogenic Separation

Cryogenic separation exploits the differences in CO<sub>2</sub> condensation temperature relative to other flue gas components. The process involves cooling flue gas to temperatures where CO<sub>2</sub> condenses (approximately -100°C to -135°C) or solidifies, allowing physical separation (Song *et al.*, 2004). While energy-intensive, cryogenic processes can achieve very high CO<sub>2</sub> purities (>99.9%) and are particularly valuable when high-purity CO<sub>2</sub> is required (Berstad, Nekså and Anantharaman, 2012).

The technology offers advantages for high-concentration CO<sub>2</sub> streams (>50%) but becomes prohibitively expensive for dilute streams typical of power plant flue gases (12-15% CO<sub>2</sub>) due to the energy penalty of cooling large gas volumes (Tuinier *et al.*, 2010). Consequently, cryogenic separation is

primarily considered for specific industrial applications or as part of integrated systems rather than as a standalone solution for power plant emissions.

### 2.3 Calcium Looping

Calcium looping employs the reversible reaction between calcium oxide (CaO) and CO<sub>2</sub> to form calcium carbonate (CaCO<sub>3</sub>) at high temperatures (630-680°C). The carbonation reaction occurs in a capture reactor, followed by calcination in a regeneration reactor at higher temperatures (850-950°C) to release concentrated CO<sub>2</sub> and regenerate the CaO sorbent (Chang *et al.*, 2014).



The technology offers several advantages:

- High theoretical capacity (0.78 g CO<sub>2</sub>/g CaO)
- Utilization of abundant, low-cost natural limestone
- Integration potential with cement production
- Recovery of high-quality heat from exothermic carbonation

However, calcium looping faces challenges including:

- Sorbent capacity decay over multiple cycles
- High makeup rates of fresh sorbent
- Energy-intensive calcination requiring pure oxygen combustion
- Handling of large solid flows between reactors

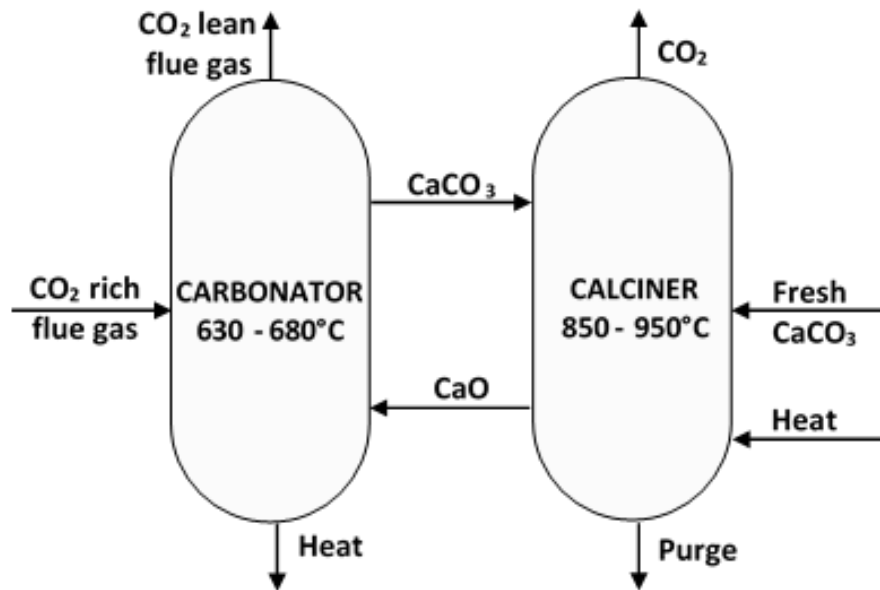


Fig 2: Calcium Looping process flow adapted from (Chang *et al.*, 2014)

Research has focused on enhancing sorbent stability through techniques such as thermal pretreatment, doping with stabilizing agents, and developing synthetic sorbents with improved cycling stability (Manovic and Anthony, 2007). Nevertheless, the technology remains at the pilot demonstration stage, with further scale-up required before commercial implementation.

#### 2.4 Pressure swing adsorption

Pressure Swing Adsorption (PSA) exploits the preferential adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> onto solid materials at high pressure and its release at lower pressures (Choi, Drese and Jones, 2009). The process typically employs porous adsorbents such as activated carbon, zeolites, or metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) arranged in parallel beds that cycle between adsorption and regeneration phases (Kadam and Panwar,

2017).

PSA systems offer several advantages:

- Relatively simple operation without high-temperature requirements
- Avoidance of liquid solvents and associated issues
- Modular design allowing flexible scaling
- Potential for high CO<sub>2</sub> purity (>95%)

Limitations include:

- Lower CO<sub>2</sub> recovery rates compared to amine systems
- High pressure requirements increasing compression costs
- Larger footprints for low-concentration streams
- Sensitivity to impurities such as SO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>

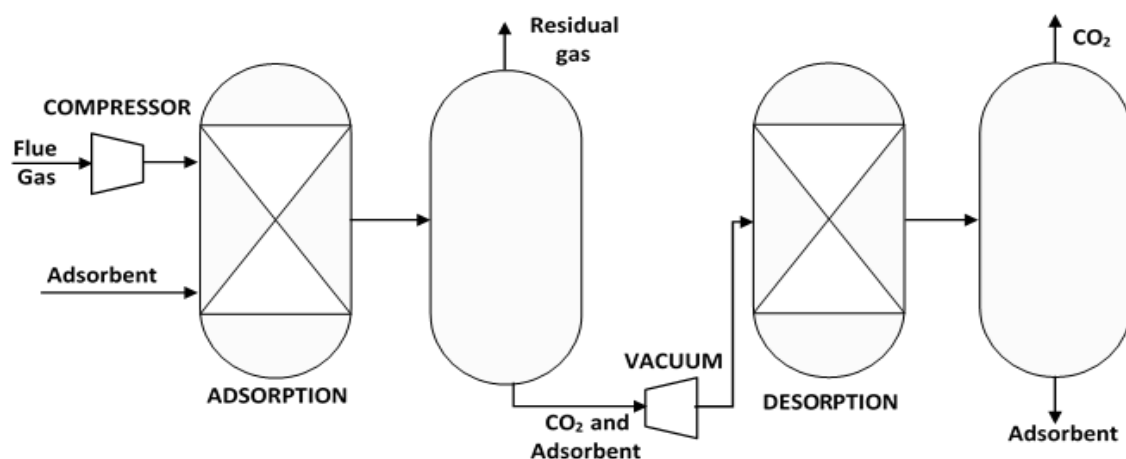


Fig 3: Pressure swing adsorption adapted from (Song *et al.*, 2015)

Research in this area has focused on developing advanced adsorbents with higher CO<sub>2</sub> selectivity and capacity, optimizing cycle parameters, and exploring vacuum swing adsorption (VSA) variants that operate at lower pressure differentials (Raganati, Miccio and Ammendola, 2021). While commercial PSA systems exist for various gas separations, their application to flue gas CO<sub>2</sub> capture remains limited to pilot demonstrations.

### 3. Membrane-based carbon capture

Membrane separation technologies represent an emerging class of carbon capture solutions that exploit selective permeation of gases through semi-permeable barriers. Unlike conventional thermally-driven separations, membrane processes can operate continuously with potentially lower energy requirements and simpler process configurations (Favre, 2011).

#### 3.1 Membrane Fundamentals

Membrane separation operates on the principle of selective permeation driven by partial pressure differentials across the membrane. The performance of a membrane is characterized by two key parameters: permeability, which measures the gas flow rate through the membrane, and selectivity, which describes the preferential transport of one gas over another (Baker, 2012).

These parameters are related through the equation:

$$P = D \times S \quad (4)$$

Where:

- P is the permeability coefficient
- D is the diffusion coefficient (kinetic factor)
- S is the solubility coefficient (thermodynamic factor)

For CO<sub>2</sub> separation, the ideal selectivity is defined as the ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> permeability to the permeability of other components (typically N<sub>2</sub> for flue gas applications) (Merkel *et al.*, 2010). However, actual or mixed-gas selectivity is generally lower than ideal selectivity due to competitive permeation effects.

A fundamental challenge in membrane development is the trade-off between permeability and selectivity, known as the Robeson upper bound, which has been empirically observed across various membrane materials (Robeson, 2008). This relationship implies that increasing permeability typically comes at the cost of reduced selectivity, creating a technological barrier that researchers have sought to overcome through novel material designs.

#### 3.2 Membrane Materials

Various membrane materials have been investigated for CO<sub>2</sub> separation, each offering distinct advantages and limitations. Major categories include:

**Polymeric Membranes:** Most commercially available gas separation membranes are polymeric due to their processability, mechanical stability, and moderate cost (Sanders *et al.*, 2013). Polymeric membranes can be generally classified as:

- Glassy polymers (polysulfone, polyimides, polycarbonates): These offer good selectivity but moderate permeability, with separation based primarily on size discrimination (Park *et al.*, 2007).
- Rubbery polymers (polyethylene oxide, poly(dimethylsiloxane)): These exhibit high permeability but

lower selectivity, with separation based on solubility differences (Lin and Freeman, 2005).

- Thermally rearranged polymers: These represent an advanced class with improved performance characteristics through controlled thermal treatment (Park *et al.*, 2010).

**Mixed Matrix Membranes (MMMs):** These composite materials incorporate inorganic fillers within a polymer matrix to enhance separation properties beyond the polymeric Robeson upper bound (Chung *et al.*, 2007). Typical fillers include zeolites, MOFs, silica, carbon nanotubes, and graphene oxide. By combining the processability of polymers with the superior separation properties of inorganics, MMMs aim to achieve synergistic performance improvements (Adams *et al.*, 2010).

**Facilitated transport membranes:** These membranes incorporate carriers (often amine-functional groups) that selectively and reversibly react with CO<sub>2</sub>, enabling transport through mechanisms beyond simple solution-diffusion. This approach can achieve exceptionally high CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity (>100) while maintaining reasonable permeability, thereby circumventing the traditional permeability-selectivity trade-off (Zou and Ho, 2006).

**Inorganic Membranes:** These include ceramic, carbon, zeolite, and metallic membranes characterized by excellent thermal and chemical stability (Lin, 2001). While offering superior separation properties and durability, their high cost and difficulty in fabricating defect-free large-scale modules have limited commercial application (Ockwig and Nenoff, 2007).

#### 3.3 Transport Mechanisms

Gas transport through membranes occurs through several mechanisms depending on membrane structure and operating conditions:

**Solution-Diffusion:** The dominant mechanism in dense polymeric membranes involves gas dissolution into the membrane followed by diffusion through the polymer matrix and desorption on the permeate side (Wijmans and Baker, 1995). Separation occurs due to differences in gas solubility and diffusivity.

**Knudsen Diffusion:** In porous membranes with pore diameters smaller than the mean free path of gas molecules, collisions with pore walls dominate, leading to separation based on molecular weight (Uhlhorn, Keizer and Burggraaf, 1992). This mechanism provides only modest CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity (~0.8) and is generally insufficient for post-combustion capture.

**Molecular Sieving:** For membranes with pore sizes approaching molecular dimensions, size-based exclusion becomes the primary separation mechanism, potentially offering high selectivity for appropriately sized pores (Ismail *et al.*, 2011).

**Facilitated Transport:** As previously mentioned, this mechanism involves reversible chemical reactions between CO<sub>2</sub> and carrier species within the membrane, enabling selective transport even against concentration gradients (Zou

and Ho, 2006).

Understanding these mechanisms is crucial for membrane design optimization, as different applications may benefit from specific transport characteristics based on feed composition, pressure differentials, and purity requirements.

### 3.4 Module Configurations

Practical implementation of membrane technology requires efficient module designs that maximize membrane area while minimizing pressure drop and concentration polarization effects. Common configurations include:

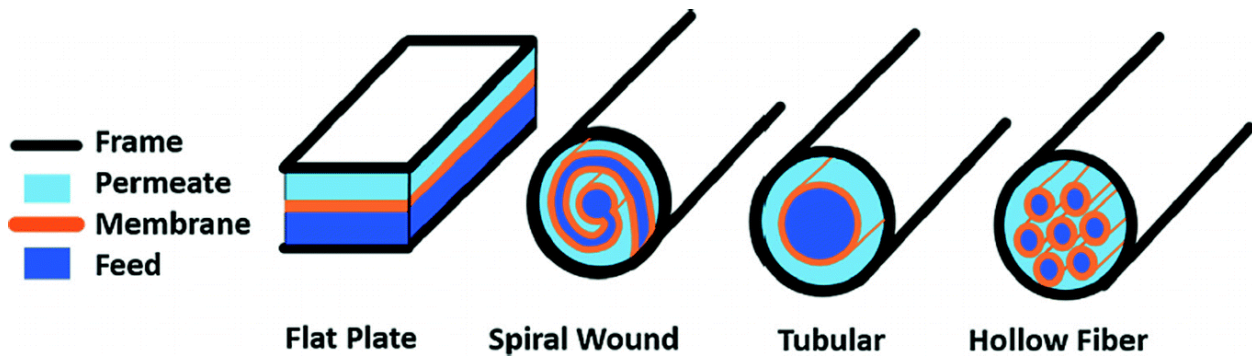


Fig 4: Membrane module configurations (Warsinger *et al.*, 2018)

**Spiral-Wound Modules:** These consist of membrane envelopes wrapped around a permeate collection tube, offering high packing density and moderate pressure drop characteristics (Baker, 2002). They represent the most common configuration for polymeric gas separation membranes.

**Hollow fiber modules:** These contain thousands of small-diameter hollow fibers, providing very high surface area-to-volume ratios (Baker and Lokhandwala, 2008). They are particularly suitable for large gas volumes but may suffer from flow maldistribution and are more susceptible to fouling.

**Plate-and-frame modules:** These consist of flat membrane sheets separated by spacers, offering good flow distribution but lower packing density (Vakharia *et al.*, 2018). They are often used for laboratory testing and specialized applications.

**Tubular Modules:** These larger-diameter tubes offer robustness against fouling and particulate matter but have lower packing densities and higher costs per unit area (Kohl and Nielsen, 1997). They are primarily used for liquid separations but have applications in harsh gas environments. Module selection involves balancing numerous factors including membrane properties, feed characteristics, pressure requirements, fouling potential, and economic considerations (Luis, Van Gerven and Van der Bruggen, 2012).

## 4. Performance metrics and comparison

Comparing conventional and membrane-based capture technologies requires examination of key performance metrics that impact overall system effectiveness and economics.

### 4.1 CO<sub>2</sub> Selectivity

Selectivity determines the purity of captured CO<sub>2</sub> and influences energy requirements for downstream purification. Conventional amine systems routinely achieve very high selectivity, producing CO<sub>2</sub> streams with >99% purity (Feron, 2010). In contrast, single-stage membrane processes typically achieve more modest purities (80-95%), though multi-stage configurations can reach higher levels at increased cost and

complexity (Belaissaoui *et al.*, 2012).

Facilitated transport membranes have demonstrated CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity values exceeding 200 under laboratory conditions, approaching the separation quality of amine systems (Deng *et al.*, 2009). However, maintaining such performance under realistic operating conditions with impurities, temperature variations, and long-term operation remains challenging.

### 4.2 Permeability

For membrane systems, permeability directly impacts the membrane area required and thus capital costs. Current commercial polymeric membranes exhibit CO<sub>2</sub> permeabilities in the range of 10-1000 Barrer, while laboratory-scale advanced materials have achieved values exceeding 5000 Barrer (Freeman, 1999). Higher permeability reduces the membrane area needed but often comes with reduced selectivity per the Robeson trade-off.

Conventional technologies have no direct permeability analog, but absorption rates in amine systems can be enhanced through advanced contactor designs, additives, and increased absorber sizing (Knudsen *et al.*, 2009). The kinetics of absorption generally do not represent the primary limitation in conventional systems, in contrast to membrane processes where permeation rates often constrain system design.

### 4.3 Energy Requirements

Energy consumption represents a critical performance metric that directly impacts operational costs and the net carbon benefit of capture systems. Conventional amine absorption typically requires 3.0-4.2 GJ/tonne CO<sub>2</sub> captured, primarily as thermal energy for solvent regeneration (Abu-Zahra *et al.*, 2007). Advanced solvents and process integrations have demonstrated potential reductions to 2.0-2.5 GJ/tonne CO<sub>2</sub> at the pilot scale (Raksajati, Ho and Wiley, 2016).

Membrane-based CO<sub>2</sub> separation from flue gas fundamentally relies on compression work to establish the necessary pressure gradient. Theoretically, the minimum energy required for this separation falls within the range of 0.1-0.2 GJ/tonne CO<sub>2</sub>. However, practical membrane systems demand significantly more energy. Single or multi-stage configurations typically consume up to 1.0 GJ/tonne CO<sub>2</sub> (Chiwaye, Majoji and Daramola, 2021), with multi-stage

setups, particularly those aiming for high CO<sub>2</sub> recovery, often exceeding this figure. While this appears advantageous, the comparison must account for the higher value of electrical energy compared to thermal energy and the efficiency losses in electricity generation

When considering primary energy equivalents, membrane systems can offer energy savings up to 40% compared to amine systems, with the advantage increasing for high-permeability membranes (Song *et al.*, 2013). However, this benefit diminishes in applications where waste heat is available for amine regeneration.

#### 4.4 Separation Efficiency

Separation efficiency encompasses both CO<sub>2</sub> recovery rate and product purity. Conventional amine systems typically achieve 85-95% CO<sub>2</sub> recovery with >99% purity (Kohl and Nielsen, 1997). Single-stage membrane systems generally face a trade-off between recovery and purity, with typical values of 60-80% recovery for reasonably high purity, though multi-stage or recycling configurations can improve these metrics at increased complexity and cost (Khalilpour *et al.*, 2015).

A comprehensive comparison study demonstrated that membrane systems require more complex configurations to match the separation efficiency of amine systems, partially offsetting their inherent simplicity advantage (Roussanaly *et al.*, 2017).

#### 4.5 Operational Stability

Long-term operational stability under industrial conditions represents a critical consideration for practical implementation. Conventional amine systems face challenges including solvent degradation (requiring makeup rates of 1-3 kg amine/tonne CO<sub>2</sub>), equipment corrosion, and performance decline due to impurities (Rao and Rubin, 2002). However, these issues are well understood after decades of industrial experience, with established mitigation strategies.

Membrane technologies face distinct stability challenges including plasticization (swelling and performance loss due to CO<sub>2</sub> sorption), physical aging (densification over time), and sensitivity to contaminants such as SO<sub>x</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, and particulates (Bernardo, Drioli and Golemme, 2009). While laboratory studies have demonstrated promising stability for advanced membrane materials, long-term performance under industrial conditions remains less proven than conventional technologies (Scholes, Stevens and Kentish, 2012).

### 5. Economic Analysis

Economic viability ultimately determines technology deployment prospects, with both capital and operational costs contributing to the overall cost of CO<sub>2</sub> avoided.

#### 5.1 Capital Expenditure

Conventional amine plants require substantial capital investment for absorber and stripper columns, heat exchangers, pumps, and ancillary equipment. For post-combustion applications at power plants, capital costs typically range from \$1,200-2,000 per kW of generating capacity (Rubin, Davison and Herzog, 2015). Economy of scale is significant, with specific capital costs declining appreciably for larger installations.

Membrane systems offer potential capital cost advantages through their modular nature and simpler process

configuration. Estimates suggest capital costs of \$800-1,500 per kW for membrane-based capture at power plants, though these figures exhibit greater uncertainty due to limited large-scale implementation (Bounaceur *et al.*, 2006). The relationship between membrane performance metrics and system capital cost is complex, with trade-offs between membrane area requirements, compression equipment sizing, and multi-stage configurations.

#### 5.2 Operational Costs

Operational costs comprise energy consumption, maintenance, replacement of consumables (solvents or membranes), labor, and other recurring expenses. For amine systems, energy costs typically represent 50-70% of operational expenses, with solvent makeup and maintenance accounting for most of the remainder (Abu-Zahra *et al.*, 2007).

Membrane systems incur operational costs primarily through compression energy, membrane replacement, and maintenance. Energy costs represent 40-60% of operational expenses, while membrane replacement (assuming 3-5 year lifetimes) constitutes another significant fraction (Merkel, Zhou and Baker, 2012).

The operational cost comparison depends significantly on local energy prices, particularly the ratio between thermal and electrical energy costs. In regions with low-cost waste heat availability, amine systems may maintain an operational cost advantage, while membrane systems tend to be more competitive where electricity costs are moderate and thermal energy is expensive.

#### 5.3 Cost of CO<sub>2</sub> Avoided

The most comprehensive economic metric is the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> avoided, which accounts for both direct capture costs and the "energy penalty" that reduces net plant output. For coal-fired power plants with amine systems, studies indicate costs of \$60-100 per tonne CO<sub>2</sub> avoided (Rubin and Zhai, 2012). Advanced amine formulations and process integrations have demonstrated potential reductions to \$40-70 per tonne in pilot studies (Franco *et al.*, 2011).

Membrane-based systems have projected costs of CO<sub>2</sub> avoided ranging from \$50-90 per tonne for current technology and potentially \$30-60 per tonne with advanced high-performance membranes (Ho, Allinson and Wiley, 2011). However, these projections contain greater uncertainty due to limited commercial-scale implementation experience.

A techno-economic analysis study compared various capture technologies for a standardized case study, finding that membrane costs become competitive with amine systems when CO<sub>2</sub> permeability exceeds 2000 Barrer while maintaining CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> selectivity above 50 (Roussanaly and Anantharaman, 2017). This performance level has been demonstrated in laboratory studies but not yet in commercial-scale modules.

#### 5.4 Scale Economics

Scale effects differ significantly between technologies. Conventional absorption systems exhibit strong economies of scale due to the cubic-square relationship between volume and surface area for process vessels. Consequently, specific capital costs can decrease by 30-40% when scaling from 100,000 to 1,000,000 tonnes CO<sub>2</sub>/year capacity (Kuramochi *et al.*, 2012).

Membrane systems, being modular in nature, exhibit more modest scale economies, with cost reductions of 10-20% over similar capacity increases (Zhai and Rubin, 2013b). This characteristic makes membrane technology potentially more attractive for smaller-scale applications or where phased implementation is desired.

For large-scale applications such as power plant retrofits, the superior scale economics of conventional technologies may outweigh other advantages of membrane systems unless membrane performance significantly exceeds current capabilities (Merkel *et al.*, 2013).

## 6. Environmental Impacts

Beyond direct CO<sub>2</sub> mitigation, capture technologies introduce additional environmental considerations that must be evaluated for comprehensive sustainability assessment.

### 6.1 Life Cycle Assessment

Life cycle assessment (LCA) studies indicate that both conventional and membrane-based capture reduce net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by 80-90% compared to unabated sources, even accounting for the energy penalty and upstream emissions (Cuéllar-Franca and Azapagic, 2015). However, conventional amine systems typically show increased impacts in categories such as human toxicity and freshwater eutrophication due to amine emissions, degradation products, and manufacturing impacts (Veltman, Singh and Hertwich, 2010).

Membrane systems generally demonstrate lower non-CO<sub>2</sub> environmental impacts, particularly regarding toxicity and acidification potentials (Merkel *et al.*, 2010). However, the manufacturing of specialized membrane materials, particularly those incorporating nanomaterials or energy-intensive syntheses, may introduce additional environmental burdens that require careful evaluation (Lee *et al.*, 2010).

### 6.2 Water Usage

Water consumption represents another important environmental consideration, particularly in water-stressed regions. Conventional amine plants consume water through cooling requirements, solvent makeup, and water washing sections. Total water usage typically ranges from 0.5-2.0 m<sup>3</sup> per tonne CO<sub>2</sub> captured (Zhai, Rubin and Versteeg, 2011).

Membrane systems generally require less direct water input, with consumption of 0.1-0.5 m<sup>3</sup> per tonne CO<sub>2</sub> primarily associated with compression equipment cooling (Koorneef *et al.*, 2011). This reduced water footprint may represent a significant advantage in water-constrained regions.

### 6.3 Waste Generation

Solvent degradation in amine systems produces waste streams requiring treatment and disposal. Typically, 0.2-0.5 kg of degradation products are generated per tonne CO<sub>2</sub> captured, containing potentially hazardous compounds such as nitrosamines and nitramines (Thitakamol, Veawab and Aroonwilas, 2007). While reclaiming technologies exist to reduce waste generation, they add complexity and cost to the overall system.

Membrane technologies generate waste primarily through spent membrane modules at the end of their operational life. With current lifetimes of 3-5 years and membrane area requirements of 5,000-15,000 m<sup>2</sup> per MW of power plant capacity, this represents a significant material stream (Zhai and Rubin, 2013a). However, research into membrane

recycling and environmentally benign materials may mitigate this impact in future designs.

## 7. Implementation Challenges

Both technology families face implementation barriers that extend beyond technical performance and economics to include practical deployment considerations.

### 7.1 Scale-up Barriers

Conventional technologies have demonstrated successful scale-up to commercial applications, with the largest amine-based systems capturing over 1 million tonnes CO<sub>2</sub> annually (Bhown and Freeman, 2011). While challenges remain in optimizing large-scale implementations, the fundamental scaling relationships are well understood.

Membrane technologies face more significant scale-up challenges, including:

- Fabrication of defect-free membranes at industrial scales
- Development of large-scale module manufacturing capabilities
- Verification of long-term performance under industrial conditions
- Management of flow distribution in large parallel module arrangements

The largest membrane-based CO<sub>2</sub> capture systems currently operate at scales of thousands of tonnes per year rather than the millions required for power plant applications (Hou *et al.*, 2022). This scale gap represents a significant barrier requiring substantial investment in demonstration projects.

### 7.2 Process Integration

Integration with existing facilities impacts both performance and costs, particularly for retrofit applications. Conventional amine systems require significant thermal integration to minimize energy penalties, necessitating modifications to steam cycles in power plants or process steam networks in industrial facilities (Gibbins and Chalmers, 2008). Such modifications can be complex and costly but are generally well understood.

Membrane systems primarily require flue gas conditioning to remove particulates and other contaminants, followed by compression infrastructure (Brunetti *et al.*, 2010). While potentially simpler than thermal integration, the electrical requirements may necessitate electrical system upgrades and affect plant operating strategies.

Both technologies face similar challenges regarding CO<sub>2</sub> compression and transportation infrastructure for storage or utilization, though these aspects lie beyond the capture system itself (Wilcox, 2012).

## 8. Applications

Examination of specific applications provides context for comparing these technologies in realistic deployment scenarios.

### 8.1 Power plant applications

Coal-fired power plants represent the most challenging and important application for post-combustion capture due to their large CO<sub>2</sub> output and relatively low CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (12-15%). Multiple commercial-scale demonstrations of amine technology have been implemented, including Boundary Dam (Canada) and Petra Nova (USA), capturing approximately 1 million tonnes CO<sub>2</sub> annually (Folger, 2013).

These projects have demonstrated the technical feasibility of amine-based capture but also highlighted challenges including higher-than-projected energy penalties, operational complications, and significant capital requirements (Idem *et al.*, 2006). Performance improvements have been observed through operational experience, with energy requirements declining and availability increasing over time.

Membrane technologies have not yet been deployed at comparable scales for power plant applications, though modeling studies suggest potential advantages for specific scenarios. Ho *et al.* conducted a comparative analysis indicating that membrane systems could offer cost advantages for natural gas combined cycle plants, particularly when employing membranes with permeability above 1000 Barrer and selectivity above 40 (Ho, Bustamante and Wiley, 2013).

## 8.2 Industrial Applications

Industrial sources often present more favorable conditions for carbon capture due to higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, potential waste heat availability, and higher-value products that can better absorb increased costs. In applications such as natural gas processing, amine-based systems have been employed for decades with established performance characteristics (Rochelle, 2012).

Membrane systems have found commercial application in specific industrial niches, particularly biogas upgrading and certain natural gas sweetening applications where the combination of smaller scale and higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations plays to membrane strengths (Baker and Lokhandwala, 2008). Companies including Air Liquide, UOP, and Evonik have commercialized membrane systems for these applications with reported success.

A study examined capture options for cement plants, finding that membrane systems offered competitive costs for partial capture scenarios but that amine systems maintained advantages for high capture rates (Baker *et al.*, 2018). This suggests a potential application domain where membrane systems may find earlier implementation while continuing technological development.

## 8.3 Hybrid Systems

Recognizing the complementary strengths of different technologies, hybrid systems have emerged as promising approaches that combine membrane separation with conventional methods. Common configurations include:

- Membrane pre-concentration followed by amine absorption, reducing the size and energy requirements of the absorption system (Favre and Svendsen, 2012)
- Primary amine absorption with membrane separation of the stripping gas, allowing lower-temperature desorption (Freeman *et al.*, 2014)

A study suggests that optimized hybrid configurations could reduce capture costs by up to 25% compared to standalone technologies (Chiwaye, Majoji and Daramola, 2021). This approach may represent a pragmatic pathway for membrane technology implementation while mitigating the risks associated with full-scale deployment of less mature technologies.

## 9. Future research directions

Advancing carbon capture technology requires focused research efforts addressing current limitations and exploiting

emerging opportunities. Key research directions include:

**Advanced materials development:** For membrane systems, overcoming the permeability-selectivity trade-off remains a central challenge. Research into novel materials including mixed matrix membranes, thermally rearranged polymers, and two-dimensional materials such as graphene oxide shows promise for surpassing current limitations (Sholl and Lively, 2016). Similarly, advanced solvents with reduced regeneration energy and enhanced stability continue to be developed for conventional systems (Freeman *et al.*, 2010).

**Process Intensification:** Both technology families can benefit from process intensification approaches that combine multiple functions into integrated units. Examples include membrane contactors that combine the selectivity of solvents with the compact configuration of membranes, and reactive separation processes that integrate capture with conversion to valuable products (Chi and Rochelle, 2002).

**Low-temperature heat utilization:** Developing capture technologies that can efficiently utilize low-temperature waste heat (80-120°C) would significantly improve overall energy efficiency (Dadi, Introna and Benedetti, 2022). For conventional systems, this includes phase-change solvents and low-temperature stripping enhancements, while membrane research explores thermally-driven membrane processes and temperature-swing operations.

## 10. Conclusions

This comprehensive review has examined conventional and membrane-based carbon capture technologies across multiple dimensions including technological principles, performance metrics, economic considerations, environmental impacts, and implementation challenges. Several key conclusions emerge from this analysis:

- a) Conventional amine-based systems represent mature technology with established performance characteristics, predictable scaling behavior, and demonstrated commercial implementation. Despite limitations including high energy requirements and solvent-related issues, they remain the benchmark against which alternatives are measured.
- b) Membrane-based systems offer promising advantages in terms of process simplicity, potential energy savings, modular deployment, and reduced environmental impacts. However, they face challenges in achieving simultaneous high permeability and selectivity, and have limited large-scale demonstration experience.
- c) Economic comparisons indicate that membrane systems may offer cost advantages in specific applications, particularly when employing high-performance membranes (permeability >1000 Barrer, selectivity >40). However, these advantages diminish at larger scales where conventional technologies benefit from stronger economies of scale.
- d) Environmental assessment reveals trade-offs, with membrane technologies generally showing reduced water consumption and fewer non-CO<sub>2</sub> environmental impacts, while conventional technologies benefit from established waste management approaches and more certain life-cycle profiles.
- e) Hybrid systems that combine elements of both technology families may offer the most pragmatic near-

term approach, leveraging the established reliability of conventional methods while introducing membrane components where they provide specific advantages.

Looking forward, both technology families are likely to find application niches where their particular characteristics align with specific requirements. Conventional absorption systems will likely dominate large-scale applications where proven reliability and performance certainty outweigh efficiency considerations. Membrane technologies may find earlier adoption in applications with space constraints, smaller scales, higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, or where electricity is relatively inexpensive compared to thermal energy.

The path toward widespread carbon capture deployment will require continued advancement in both technology families, with research focusing on reducing energy requirements, lowering costs, and addressing implementation barriers. Given the scale of the climate challenge and the diversity of emission sources, a portfolio approach embracing multiple technologies will likely prove most effective for achieving significant global emissions reductions.

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