

Effect of amine modification on morphology and performance of poly (ether-block-amide)/fumed silica nanocomposite membranes for CO₂/CH₄ separation

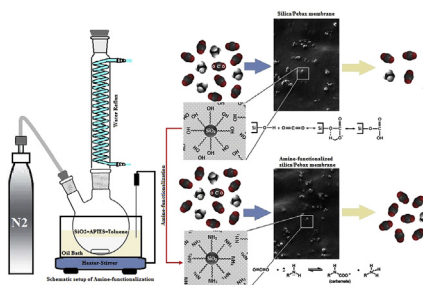
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HIGHLIGHTS

- Amine functionalization of fumed silica nanoparticles was investigated.
- Novel modified fumed silica was used as filler.
- PEBAX1657/Silica nanocomposite membranes were developed.
- An experimental separation study of CO₂ using nanocomposite membranes was proposed.
- Effect of SiO₂ loading, feed pressure & temperature on gas separation was studied.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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ABSTRACT

In this study, fumed silica nanoparticles were functionalized using amine groups and used as inorganic modifiers for preparation of poly (ether-block-amide) based nanocomposite membranes. Field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM), X-ray diffraction (XRD), Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) and CHNO elemental analysis were used to characterize nanoparticles and nanocomposite membranes. The prepared membranes were applied for separation of carbon dioxide (CO₂) from methane (CH₄). The effects of nanoparticles loading, feed pressure and feed temperature on permeability and CO₂/CH₄ ideal selectivity of the nanocomposite membranes were investigated. The results indicated that addition of 15 wt % of amine-functionalized fumed silica nanoparticles in the casting solution enhances the membrane CO₂ permeability and CO₂/CH₄ ideal selectivity 10% and 14%, respectively.

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1. Introduction

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is one of the most important acid gases in natural gas and many other gas streams [1,2]. Presence of CO₂ in natural-gas streams leads to several serious problems such as pipeline and equipment corrosion and reduction of natural-gas

heating value and pipeline capacity [3–5]. Traditional processes for CO₂ capturing are based on reversible chemical or physical absorption or adsorption such as amine scrubbing and cryogenic distillation, but these processes are high energy-consuming in terms of solvent regeneration and equipment corrosion [3,6,7]. Many gas separation tasks, especially natural-gas purification, need more economically and environmentally new efficient separation processes such as fast improving and spreading membrane processes [6,8–11]. Compared to traditional CO₂ separation processes,

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polymer-based membrane processes have several advantages, including low capital cost, low energy consumption, low maintenance operations, high flexibility, small footprints and exceptional reliability, which have given these processes a great potential for CO₂ capturing [12–16].

Glassy polyamides (PA) have been widely used in gas separation membranes due to their rigid and selective nature. In contrast, rubbery polyethers (PE) due to the flexible chains and the presence of voids, contain large free volume [17]. Poly (ether-block-amide) resin known as the trademark PEBAX[®] is a thermoplastic elastomer having both hard rigid PA segments which give mechanical strength, and soft flexible-chain PE segments that offer high permeability. Commercially various grades of PEBAX[®] copolymers are available by different ether and amide ratios [17–19]. PEBAX[®] copolymers due to their desirable properties such as mechanical strength and thermal resistance, high durability, flexibility and favorable selectivity have been extensively used for acid gas treatment and separation of polar/non-polar gases, i.e. CO₂/CH₄ [20,21].

Although polymeric membranes, like PEBAX[®], have outstanding separation performance, they generally undergo the Robeson upper bound curves, a trade-off limitation between permeability and selectivity. Membranes with separation performances above this limit are attractive for industrial applications. Thus, there is an increasing demand to improve the membrane performance, i.e. permeability and selectivity by modifying the polymeric matrix [14,22–24]. Incorporation of a second phase such as a polymeric phase [25] or inorganic nanoparticles into the polymeric matrix is among the recent polymeric membrane development strategies. Nanocomposite membranes are simultaneous combination of processability and flexibility of polymers with selectivity, thermal and mechanical stability of nanoparticles, which possibly develop new synergistic properties [18,20,26].

Various types of inorganic modifiers, including nonporous particles such as SiO₂ [27] and TiO₂ [28] and porous particles like zeolites [29], metal organic frameworks (MOFs) [13] and multi-walled carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) [30] have been used to fabricate composite membranes. Among them, SiO₂ and its derivatives due to their high mechanical and thermal stabilities, high specific surface area and the ability of chemical functionalization are proved to be promising modifiers for gas separation membranes [31–33]. Modifier chemical functionalization with groups such as amines, is a method to improve nanoparticles separation performance and their dispersion into the polymer matrix [13,26,34].

In this paper, amine-functionalized SiO₂ nanoparticles were prepared and used as a modifier to enhance the performance of PEBAX[®] membrane. Amine has been proved as an effective group in achieving high CO₂ permeability and CO₂/CH₄ ideal selectivity. Physical and chemical properties of amine-functionalized SiO₂/PEBAX[®] 1657 nanocomposite membranes were characterized. Preparation and operation parameters, including modifier loading, feed temperature and feed pressure were investigated and permeability and CO₂/CH₄ ideal selectivity of the prepared nanocomposite membranes were measured.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials

Pebax-1657, a thermoplastic elastomer consists of rigid PA segments separated by flexible PE segments, that contains 60 wt % of poly (ethylene oxide) (PEO) and 40 wt % polyamide 6 (PA-6) was supplied by Arkema Inc. [21]. Methanol, n-Hexane and Toluene were supplied by Merck. N, N-Dimethyl Formamide (DMF) and (3-Aminopropyl) triethoxysilane (APTES) both in 99.99% purity were

purchased from ROYALEX[®] and Sigma-Aldrich, respectively. Hydrophilic fumed silica nanoparticles with an average diameter of 40 nm and specific surface area of 50 ± 15 m²/g was provided by AEROSIL[®]. The CO₂ and CH₄ gases (purity 99.99%) for permeation tests and N₂ gas for functionalization procedure were supplied from Oxygen Sablan (Tehran, Iran).

2.2. Amine functionalization of nanoparticles

Amine modification of silica nanoparticles before being loaded into the polymer matrix was performed, in order to enhance separation properties of PEBAX/Silica nanocomposite membranes by increasing surface interactions with CO₂ molecules. APTES, with the chemical structure as shown in Fig. 1, was used as a coupling agent between the polymer and modifier, in addition to interacting with polar gas molecules. In order to graft aminopropyl chains of this reagent to the surface of silica nanoparticles, it is necessary to first hydrolyze the ethoxy groups [35]. The hydrolysis procedure was performed using acidic water (pH = 2) in an organic medium (methanol) with molar ratios of 2 and 3 to the APTES content, respectively. Acidic water was added to the APTES-methanol solution dropwise under vigorous stirring. After 6 h aging, the solution was ready to be used in the functionalization process of the nanoparticles. To carry out the functionalization process, 5 g of non-porous SiO₂ was dispersed uniformly in 120 ml anhydrous toluene using an ultrasonic homogenizer. The hydrolyzed APTES was then added to the solution, and the mixture was stirred overnight at the reflux temperature under N₂ atmosphere. The amine functionalized silica nanoparticles (AFS) was then washed with ethanol and isolated by centrifugation/redispersion process (3X, 15 min, 12000 rpm). The mechanism of functionalization process is presented in Fig. 1.

2.3. Membranes preparation

The 6 wt % polymeric solution was prepared by dissolving 0.471 g of the polymer PEBAX 1657 in 7.379 g of DMF. DMF was selected due to close solubility parameter to the polymer's and its lower boiling point, which moderates operational conditions of preparation and drying processes and the prepared membranes

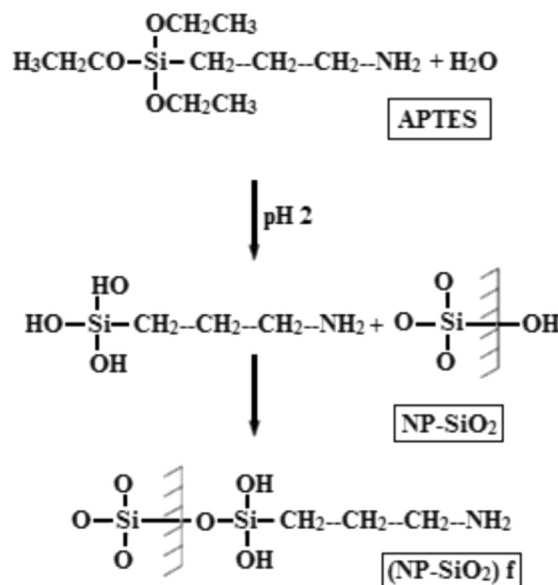


Fig. 1. Amine functionalization mechanism of SiO₂ nanoparticles [39].

were more uniform [36,37]. Furthermore, another considerable reason for application of DMF was that it causes gelation of the polymeric solution while coming out of oil bath and staying at ambient temperature. This prevents the nanoparticles in the polymeric film from sedimentation and agglomeration during the drying process. The intended nanoparticles were added to the solvent in levels of 0–20 wt % using the ID code of S-X for silica and AFS-X for amine functionalized silica incorporated membranes (X demonstrates the nanoparticles loading) and sonicated for 20 min before dissolving the polymer in the solvent, in order to be uniformly dispersed in the membrane. The polymer-nanoparticles solutions were then heated in an oil bath at 125 °C for 3 h under reflux and magnetic stirring. Finally, the obtained solutions were filtrated and via the solution-casting method, they were cast on petri dishes and dried at 50 °C overnight. After complete evaporation of the solvent, the prepared membranes were peeled off using hexane as non-solvent and treated overnight at 50 °C under vacuum to remove any residual gases and guest molecules before any further applications. All the raw materials were dried overnight at 70 °C under vacuum, prior to use. All the membranes were prepared with the average thickness of 65 μm.

2.4. Characterization

Fourier-transform-infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) was performed using an FTIR spectrometer Perkin–Elmer (Waltham, MA, USA) Spectrum RX1 in the range of 400–4400 cm⁻¹ to investigate the functional groups and determine any changes in chemical composition of the prepared membranes and modified nanoparticles during the preparation processes.

Morphology and nanoparticles' dispersion for the prepared nanocomposite membranes were investigated using a Field-emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM) of Sigma, Zeiss. To clearly observe a cross-section of the membranes, the samples were fractured cryogenically in liquid nitrogen and subsequently top-coated with Au under vacuum condition.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) analysis was performed with an INEL model EQUINOX 3000, France X-ray diffractometer using Cu Kα X radiation with a wavelength of 1.5406° over the angle (2θ) range of 5°–75° at the scan rate of 0.01° s⁻¹ to examine crystallinity of the membranes and nanoparticles. Patterns analysis and calculations of related data were performed by X'Pert HighScore and OriginPro 2016.

CHNO analysis was carried out using a Costec, ECS 4010 to determine the number of amine sites in a certain amount of modified nanoparticles using percentages of C, H and N elements in the samples.

For quantification of active amine sites in the amine functionalized samples and to calculate the efficiency of functionalization, back titration was carried out [38].

2.5. Gas permeation tests

The gas permeability of the membranes was examined using a constant volume setup in a pressure range of 2–10 bar for CO₂ and CH₄. The test setup is made of two compartment stainless steel cells in a way that a flat circular membrane with an effective area of 10.45 cm², and a reticular steel support were placed between two flanges and held by O-rings to avoid gas leakage. Before using the gases as feed, all the experiments were started by evacuating the cell up to -0.1 bar using a vacuum pump for driving out any residual gases from the cell to avoid further measurement errors. By using the constant volume method, the rate of permeation in Barrer (1 Barrer = 1 × 10⁻¹⁰ cm³ (STP)-cm/cm² s cmHg) was calculated from the changes in pressure on the permeate side (with a known

volume) versus time, according to the following equation:

$$P = \frac{273 \times 10^{10}}{760} \frac{VL}{AT \left(\frac{P_2 \times 76}{14.7} \right)} \left(\frac{dp}{dt} \right) \quad (1)$$

In which V refers to the volume of the permeate side in cm³, L and A represent membrane thickness and the effective area in cm and cm², respectively and T is the absolute temperature. P₂ is the feed pressure of the upstream in bar and $\frac{dp}{dt}$ is the slope of permeate pressure change versus time, in its steady state (linear) region. Permeability data of two gases were measured for 3 membranes of each sample, and the average values were reported considering the error bars. The CO₂/CH₄ ideal selectivity (α_{CO_2/CH_4}) of the membranes was determined as the ratio of CO₂ permeance ((P/l)_{CO₂}) to CH₄ permeance ((P/l)_{CH₄}), using the following equation:

$$\alpha_{CO_2/CH_4} = \frac{(P/l)_{CO_2}}{(P/l)_{CH_4}} \quad (2)$$

2.6. Gas adsorption measurements

Isothermal adsorptions of CO₂ and CH₄ gases on fumed silica nanoparticles were measured via the pressure decay method in a constant-volume cell. The neat and amine functionalized silica nanoparticles were examined at 25 °C in the pressure range of 3–10 bar. In order to measure pressure changes during the adsorption process, a DMP 343 BD transmitter of 1 mbar accuracy was utilized and the output data were displayed and recorded by NX v.1.0.0. Before every experiment, the nanoparticles samples were treated for 24 h at 150 °C under vacuum to remove excess moisture and unwanted adsorbed gases. To perform the experiments, a certain amount of the activated nanoparticles was placed in the adsorption cell. The cell was totally evacuated and then filled by the gas up to the certain pressure by a sudden pulse. The adsorbed amount of gas molecules on the nanoparticles was obtained using the pressure decline and converted to the adsorbed moles of gas by the Peng-Robinson equation of state, as the most accurate EOS for the thermodynamic system of this work. Since the adsorption process was extremely sensitive to the temperature changes, it was kept constant during the experiments by a temperature control vessel with an accuracy of ±2 K.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterization

3.1.1. FTIR analysis

Amine functionalized silica nanoparticles and the prepared membranes were characterized using Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), as displayed in Fig. 2. The specific peaks of APTES reagent dedicated to amine functional groups are N-H bending vibration for the primary amine at 1575 cm⁻¹ and 771 cm⁻¹, as shown in Fig. 2 (a). The weak stretching band in the range of 3300–3500 cm⁻¹ correlates to NH₂ group. In comparison with silica nanoparticles spectrum, all the described peaks of APTES reagent appear in the spectrum of amine functionalized silica, except NH₂ peaks which overlap the intense peak of abundant silanol groups of the surface (in the range of 3300–3600 cm⁻¹) and are not recognizable easily, but the reduce in OH peak intensity in Fig. 2 (c) is a sign of replacing these groups with amine groups. Moreover, the Si-O-Si characteristic peak of silica at 1110 cm⁻¹ shows the increased intensity compared to Fig. 2 (b), due to the grafting of the aminosilane groups on the surface containing Si-O bonds inside [27,39].

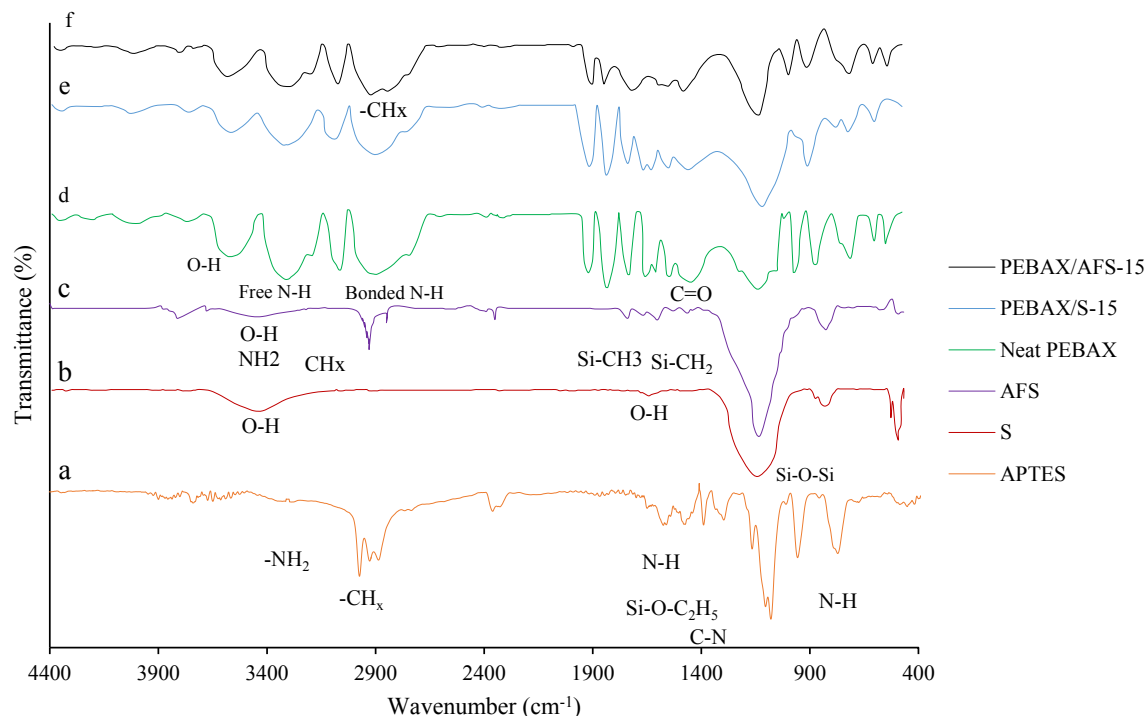


Fig. 2. FTIR spectra of a) APTES and b) SiO_2 and c) $\text{SiO}_2\text{-NH}_2$ nanoparticles and d) neat PEBAX, e) PEBAX/S-15 and f) PEBAX/AFS-15 membranes.

Since the silica and amine functionalized silica nanoparticles were loaded into PEBAX matrix, FTIR spectra of the 15 wt % loaded nanocomposite membranes represent some changes in the polymer characteristic peaks, in comparison with that of the pristine PEBAX 1657 membrane. For the neat membrane, the aliphatic -C-H stretching is revealed by the sharp band at around 2904 cm^{-1} and the peaks at 1730 cm^{-1} and 3312 cm^{-1} are dedicated to -C=O and -N-H stretching vibrations, respectively [40]. The broad peak at $3400\text{-}3700\text{ cm}^{-1}$ correlates to O-H groups, which represents the hydrogen bonding between hard segments of the polymer chains.

Incorporation of the neat and modified nanoparticles causes some changes in position and intensity of polymer characteristic peaks in the IR spectra, due to the polymer-nanoparticles interactions. In the range of $900\text{-}1400\text{ cm}^{-1}$, the effect of the Si-O-Si broad peak of the nanoparticles in the polymer matrix is clearly observed in both nanocomposites spectra of Fig. 2 (e, f). It is obvious that some characteristic peaks of the PEBAX membrane are reduced in intensity and shifted left towards higher frequencies due to the presence of nanoparticles. This suggests that the incorporation of the silica nanoparticles in the polymer matrix partially breaks hydrogen bonding between amide nitrogen of PA segments with each other or with the carbonyl oxygen of other chains, which are associated with the polymer chains and induced a microcrystalline structure [41]. Therefore, as observed in Fig. 2 (e), N-H stretching vibration of the polymer's amide group, consists of two peaks at 3312 cm^{-1} and 3202 cm^{-1} that are ascribed to free and hydrogen bonded N-H groups, respectively. In the presence of silica nanoparticles, a considerable reduction in intensities is observed for both peaks and the hydrogen-bonded peak shifts from 3202 to 3207 cm^{-1} , due to partial disruption of these hydrogen bonds [42]. As explained to the N-H group, the peak attributed to hydrogen bonded carbonyl group shows a decline in intensity and moves from 1637 cm^{-1} to 1641 cm^{-1} , for the same reason. Furthermore, a great reduction in O-H broad peak intensity at $3400\text{-}3700\text{ cm}^{-1}$ is

observed, compared to neat the PEBAX spectra of Fig. 2 (d) [17,40].

Fig. 2 (f) shows the FTIR spectra of nanocomposite membrane incorporating the amine functionalized silica nanoparticles. As explained before, the NH_2 group of nanoparticles surface is not directly recognizable in the spectra of the nanocomposite membranes due to the presence of abundant OH groups in the same region of frequencies, but there is another extra peak of aliphatic amine related to the presence of amine functionalized nanoparticles at around 2900 cm^{-1} , in the spectrum of the PEBAX/AFS 15% membrane. One observes that the broad peak corresponding to O-H bond increases in intensity compared to the non-functionalized nanocomposite membrane spectra as presented in Fig. 2 (e). It is also observed that the two peaks related to the N-H group show an increment in intensity, and the peak at 3202 cm^{-1} is moved right to lower frequencies. Based on the mentioned changes in the spectra, it is concluded that interactions between the amine functionalized nanoparticles and polymer chains are through intermolecular hydrogen bonding between the amine terminals of functionalized silica nanoparticles and ether oxygen atoms of the soft segment or amide nitrogen of PA segments [41,43,44].

3.1.2. FESEM observations

In general, separation properties of membranes mainly depend on their structure and morphology of the finally prepared films [45,46]. Fig. 3(a-h) shows a comparison between FESEM cross-section images of the nanocomposite membranes fabricated by the pristine and the amine functionalized silica nanoparticles. The considerable point to discuss about, is the effects of loading of silica and amine functionalized silica nanoparticles on their dispersion and agglomeration in the polymer matrix. As illustrated, all the images reveal defect-free sections without any micro pores inside, and show dense nature of thin films.

As seen in Fig. 3(a-f), in the cross view of 5–15 wt % loaded membranes (for both S and AFS samples), silica nanoparticles are well-dispersed and no bulky agglomeration is observed. As a

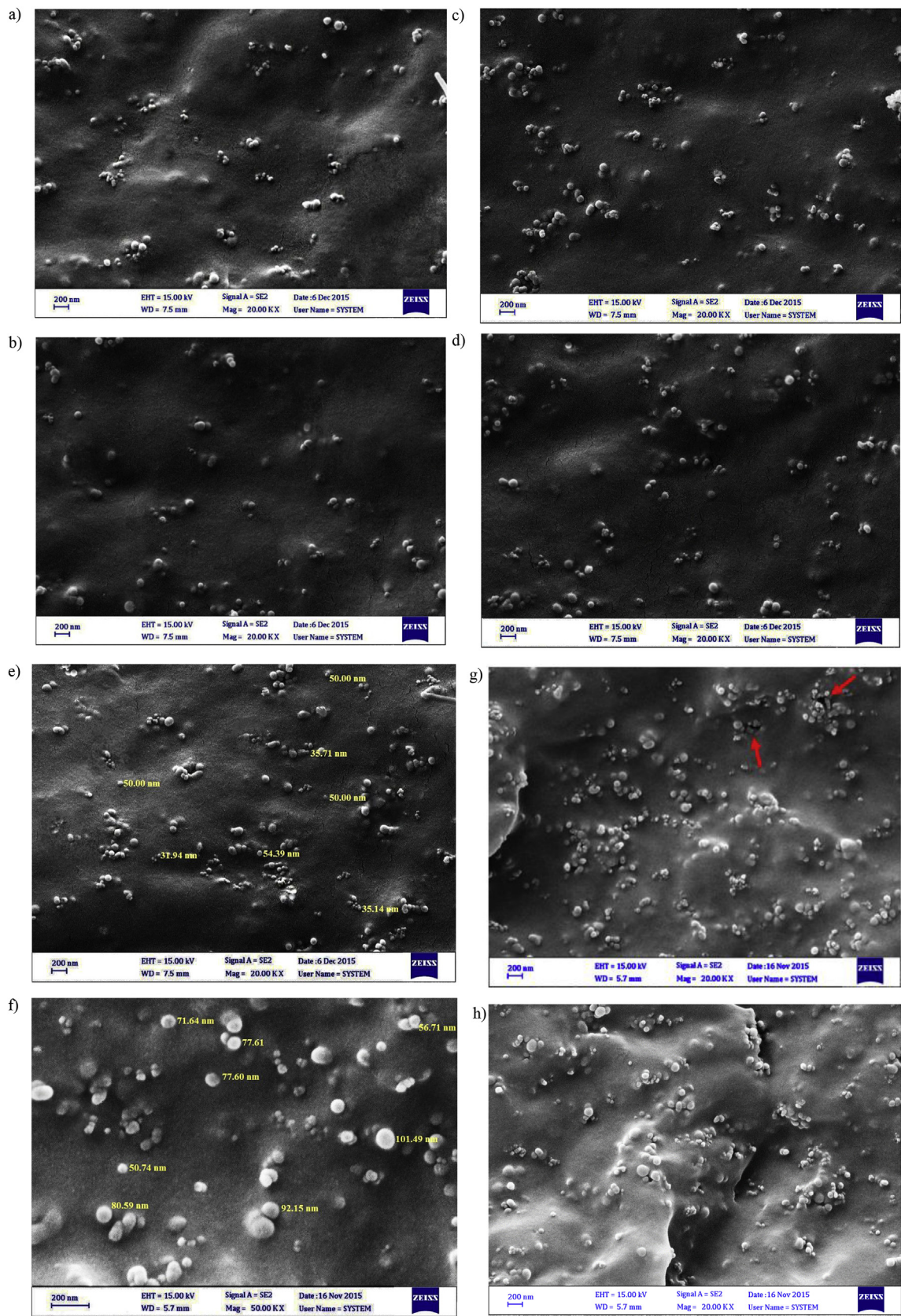


Fig. 3. FESEM images of the cross-section view of a) PEBA/S-5, b) PEBA/AFS-5, c) PEBA/S-10, d) PEBA/AFS-10, e) PEBA/S-15, f) PEBA/AFS-15, g) PEBA/S-20 and h) PEBA/AFS-20 membranes.

matter of fact, the silica nanoparticles tendency for agglomeration and sedimentation in the S-X membranes is negligible due to the applied high-power sonication. Furthermore, the amine functionalized silica nanoparticles are well-dispersed and no clustered agglomeration is seen because of the applied high-power sonication and tendency of amine sites to interact with amide groups of the polymer chains through hydrogen bonding due to the high basicity of amine functional groups, which avoids formation of unwanted voids at the interface. The FTIR analysis also showed these interactions between the polymer and the nanoparticles, clearly. However, Fig. 3 (g and h) shows that at the maximum loading of 20 wt %, compared to other loadings of the same type, some sort of agglomeration is observed and the nanoparticles tend to get closer to each other. In fact, by increasing the nanoparticles loading, their dispersion in the polymer matrix goes toward appearing more flecks, agglomerations and sedimentation and as a consequence, this may lead to the formation of non-selective voids, as assigned in Fig. 3 (g). These voids are expected to have unwanted negative effects on the membranes separation performance [41,47].

In the FESEM images as seen in Fig. 3 (e, f), it is also observed that compared to the neat silica nanoparticles, the functionalized single nanoparticles are larger in average diameter due to the formation of new layers of grafted chains of propylamine on their surface [48].

3.1.3. XRD analysis

X-ray diffraction patterns of the S and AFS nanoparticles, neat PEBAX and the nanocomposite membranes are displayed in Fig. 4. The S and AFS nanoparticles patterns consist of wide broad peaks at the center of $2\theta = 21^\circ$, which confirms their mostly amorphous nature [49]. As illustrated, the peak positions and intensities for the AFS nanoparticles are similar with the neat silica nanoparticles pattern. The almost unchanged silica nanoparticles pattern after the functionalization process (including cross linking of the grafted propylamine chains on the surface and formation of a 3-dimensional lattice around it) in comparison with the neat silica nanoparticles, shows that grafting occurs with no detectable changes in the crystalline structure of neat silica nanoparticles [50–52]. XRD patterns of the PEBAX membranes consist of two main diffraction peaks at around $2\theta = 12^\circ$ and $2\theta = 24^\circ$ which show the semi-crystalline structure of the polymer. The copolymer contains PE and PA segments, which form a semi-crystalline structure resulted by hydrogen bonding between the PA groups [53].

It is observed that for the nanocomposite membranes, the addition of silica nanoparticles to the polymer matrix decreases the intensity of the polymer characteristic peaks and by increasing the

nanoparticles loading up to 20 wt %, this effect becomes more severe. This reveals that in the presence of nanoparticles, the total crystallinity of the membranes decreases and the amorphous phase grows up as the interchain hydrogen bonds between the polymer segments are broken, based on the FTIR results [41,54]. Moreover, it can be seen that the broad peak of nanoparticles at 21° appears noticeably in the nanocomposite patterns, as the loading goes up. Therefore, the polymer peaks pattern becomes marginally broader. Further investigations of the diffractograms showed that by increasing the loading from 5 to 20 wt %, the characteristic peak of polymer slightly shifts to lower degrees from 24.6° to 23.06° , corresponding to the increased d-spacing parameter of the polymer chains from 3.61 to 3.87 Å. This suggests an increase in intersegmental spacing of polymer chains, leading to higher fractional free volume (FFV) and more amorphous nature of the polymer [55]. Thus, gas permeabilities through the nanocomposite membranes are expected to be increased, because of the changes in polymer crystalline regions, intersegment distances and FFV [56].

3.1.4. Quantification of amine sites

In addition to the FTIR spectra, functionalization of the nanoparticles was confirmed by the presence of nitrogen in the CHN elemental analysis results, as provided in Table 1. Since each nitrogen atom represents one amine functional group attached to a propyl chain, the percentage of nitrogen in the analyzed AFS nanoparticles' sample gives the total number of amine sites grafted on nanoparticles surfaces, considering the point that the percentage of nitrogen in the pristine silica nanoparticles is zero regarding the manufacturer information. Using the total surface area of the AFS nanoparticles, the total number of amine sites could be calculated as 7.94 per nm^2 of nanoparticle surface, using the method reported by Hak-Sung Jung et al. [38]; However, not all the amine sites are "active" to react with CO_2 molecules, because during the functionalization process, there is a possibility for the amino propyl chains to attach undesirably to the surface, as schematically represented in Fig. 5 (2, 5). Therefore, an "amine efficiency" could be defined by comparing the total number of amine sites (7.94 n/nm^2) and the number of active sites resulting from back titration analysis (5.31 n/nm^2), as 66.8%.

3.2. Gas separation performance

3.2.1. Adsorption performance of nanoparticles

CO_2 and CH_4 adsorption isotherms for pristine and amine functionalized nanoparticles are shown in Fig. 6. The adsorption capacity of nanoparticles depends mostly on characteristics of adsorbed gas molecules and surface functional groups. For both pristine and functionalized nanoparticles, the adsorbed amount of CO_2 molecules is higher than that of CH_4 molecules, because molecules with dipole moment (i.e. CO_2) tend to interact more with functional groups compared to nonpolar molecules, such as CH_4 [57]. Consequently, the adsorbed amounts of CH_4 molecules to the nanoparticles are too low, as seen obviously. This little amount is related to symmetric vibrations, which cause temporary polarity and increase molecules tendency to interact with surface functional groups [58]. The type of this functional group is an effective parameter on gas adsorption properties of nanoparticles, as said before. Investigation of adsorption isotherms shows that CO_2 molecules are adsorbed more on amine functionalized nanoparticles in comparison with neat ones because the nucleophile reaction between gas molecules with NH_2 functional groups is considerably stronger and more effective than with OH groups [59]. Reversibility of these reactions demonstrates that CO_2 molecules can leave the surface again due to the instability of carbonate compounds. As reported by Wang et al., the gas adsorption capacity

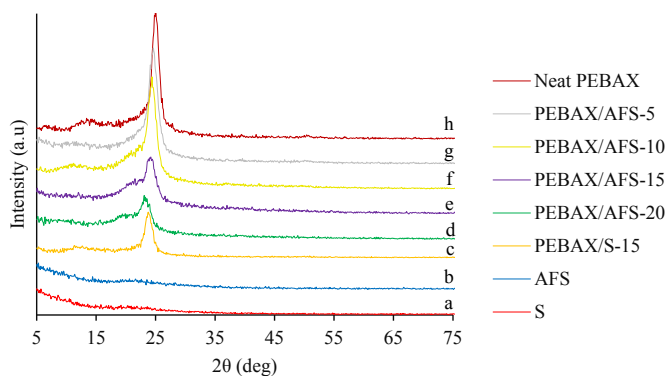


Fig. 4. X-ray diffraction patterns of a) SiO_2 and b) $\text{SiO}_2\text{-NH}_2$ nanoparticles and c) neat PEBAX, PEBAX/AFS-5, PEBAX/AFS-10, PEBAX/AFS-15, PEBAX/AFS-20 and PEBAX/S-15 membranes.

Table 1
CHNO elemental analysis results.

Element	Weight (mg)	Weight (%)	Reten, Time (min)	Response	Carbon response ration
Nitrogen	0.092	0.93	1.217	272.301	0.166
Carbon	0.270	2.74	2.233	1641.224	1.000
Hydrogen	0.041	0.42	9.717	599.106	0.395
Total	9.848	4.09			

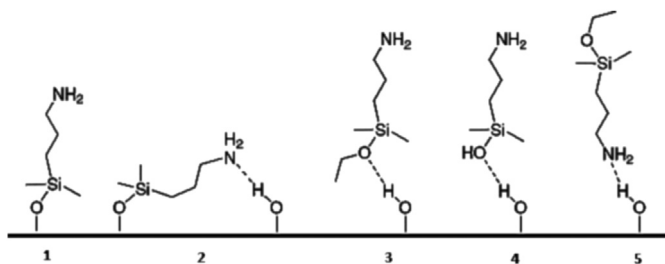


Fig. 5. Various interactions of aminosilane molecules and silica surface.

of nanoparticles is greatly affected by gas temperature and pressure and declines considerably with increasing temperature [59,60]. Accordingly, to assure the complete desorption of gas molecules from the surface of nanoparticles for further applications, this process is facilitated using vacuum and thermal treatments. The adsorption isotherms of Fig. 6 also indicate that with increasing pressure from 3 to 10 bar, CO₂ adsorption capacity increases for both nanoparticles. The amount of adsorbed CO₂ of pristine nanoparticles is 0.01 mmol/g at 3 bar and reaches 0.03 mmol/g as pressure increases to 10 bar, whereas these amounts of amine functionalized nanoparticles evidently increase after amine modification so that CO₂ adsorption capacity increases sharply from 0.02 mmol/g to 0.09 mmol/g. In both isotherms, a slight increase in adsorption capacity of CO₂ for pressure change from 9 to 10 bar shows that they are getting to reach constant amounts, and the equilibrium adsorption capacities are obtained [60–62]. The results reveal that amine functionalization effectively enhances the CO₂ adsorption capacity of pristine nanoparticles and increases their selective adsorption towards CH₄ molecules.

3.2.2. Effect of nanoparticles loading

Effect of nanoparticles loading on the permeability of the pure

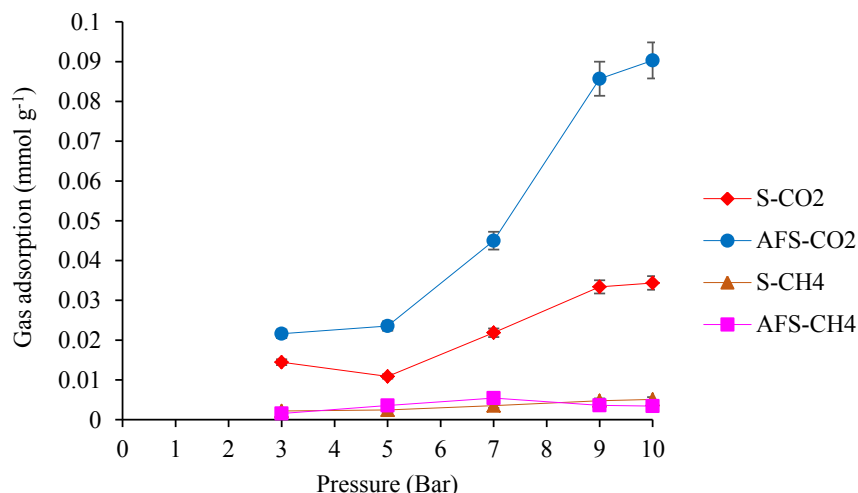


Fig. 6. CO₂ and CH₄ adsorption isotherms for pristine and amine functionalized nanoparticles.

gases (CO₂ and CH₄) through the S-X and AFS-X nanocomposite membranes at 5 bar and 298 K is presented in Fig. 7. It is observed that by increasing the loading from 0 to 10 wt %, CO₂ permeability increases and then decreases from 10 to 20 wt %. i.e. for the S-X membranes, CO₂ permeability increases from 111.54 to 154.01 Barrer when the nanoparticles loading increases from 0 to 10 wt % and decreases to 102.14 Barrer by increasing the nanoparticles loading to 20 wt %. In lower amounts of loading (less than 10 wt %), gas permeability increases due to increasing the polymer FFV, d-spacing and chain mobility (amorphous region) by the presence of nanoparticles, as confirmed by the XRD and FTIR results, and also due to more interactions between CO₂ molecules and –OH groups of the nanoparticles surface [17]. As the nanoparticles loading passes 10 wt %, a considerable decrease in gas permeabilities is observed and this can be due to the high amounts of non-permeable nanoparticles that block the gas diffusion paths and increase tortuosity of the permeation paths [26]. It means that at higher loadings, the effect of paths blocking is dominant compared to the increased FFV and intersegment spacing. Comparison of permeation results for the S-X and AFS-X nanocomposite membranes shows significant improvement of CO₂ permeability for the AFS-X membranes, considering the point that permeation trends are similar for the both S-X and AFS-X membranes. The improvement percentage increases as the loading reach 20 wt %, i.e. increasing CO₂ permeability at 5 wt % nanoparticles loading is about 8%, while at 20 wt % this reaches 22%. The reason for this effect is that at a constant pressure, by increasing the nanoparticles loading, the total number of amine sites to interact with CO₂ molecules increases effectively, and this increases the membrane solubility leading to the higher CO₂ permeability compared to the silanol groups of the same content [22]. The reactive amine functional groups with electron donating nitrogen act as a Lewis base in front of CO₂ molecules [59]. The reactions between active amine sites and CO₂ molecules are as follows:

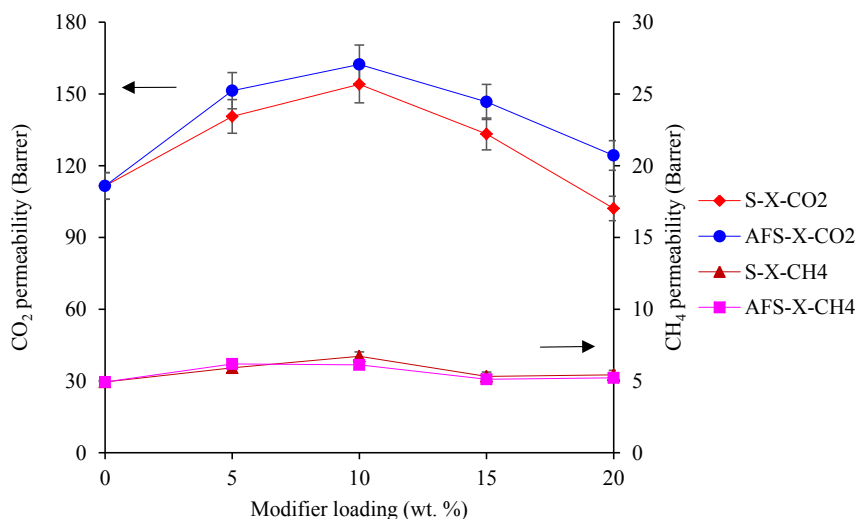
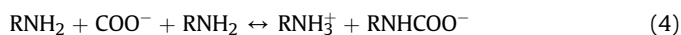


Fig. 7. The variation of CO₂ and CH₄ permeabilities with modifier loading wt. % for S-X and AFS-X membranes.



In which a CO₂ molecule first reacts with a propylamine group and produces carbamic acid, and this product then reacts with another free amine group and results in a carbamate molecule and RNH₃⁺ [60,63]. As the reactions are reversible and carbonate compounds are unstable, the molecules of CO₂ may desorb completely and regenerate the surface of nanoparticles.

This behavior is not observed for CH₄ permeability because this non-polar gas has no considerable interaction with OH and NH₂ groups. Since the kinetic diameter of this molecule is bigger, and its diffusion rate is less through the polymer matrix, the changes in permeabilities follow a mild trend, as observed on the figure. Based on these explanations, the CO₂/CH₄ ideal selectivity of the membranes increases by increasing the nanoparticles loading up to 15 wt %, and then decrease in 20 wt % as shown in Fig. 8. The reason behind this behavior is that at higher loadings, the nanoparticles agglomerate undesirably, leading towards the formation of non-selective voids, as assigned in the FESEM images in Fig. 3 (g, h).

Therefore, the permeability of CH₄ slightly increases, as the voids' dimensions are comparable to the diameter of penetrant molecules. This fact was also confirmed by the XRD analysis results, which showed that by increasing the nanoparticles loading to 20 wt %, the intersegment spacing of polymer reaches 3.87 Å which is greater than the value of the CH₄ kinetic diameter (3.8 Å) and this facilitates its diffusion through the membrane. It is also observed that the reduction in ideal selectivity for the S-20 nanocomposite membrane is greater than that for the AFS-20, because neat nanoparticles have less adherence to the polymer matrix and tend to form bulk agglomerates, leading to formation of more voids in the polymer-modifier interface and non-selective channels between agglomerates, while the AFS nanoparticles are more compatible with the polymer matrix and have fewer defects.

3.2.3. Effect of pressure

Figs. 9 and 10 show the effect of upstream pressure on permeability and ideal selectivity results of the nanocomposite membranes, respectively. Generally, by increasing pressure from 2 to 10 bar, CO₂ permeability exhibits a decrease-increase trend. In rubbery polymers, since the solubility coefficient depends on gas

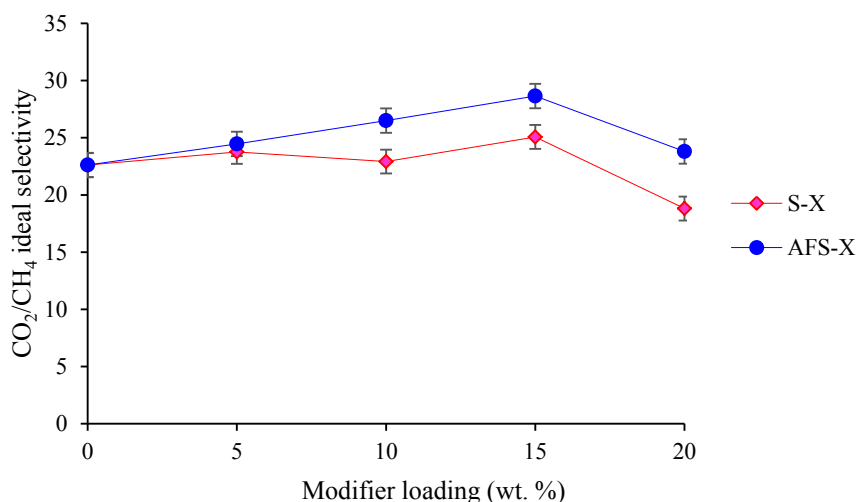


Fig. 8. The variation of CO₂/CH₄ ideal selectivity with modifier loading wt. % for S-X and AFS-X membranes.

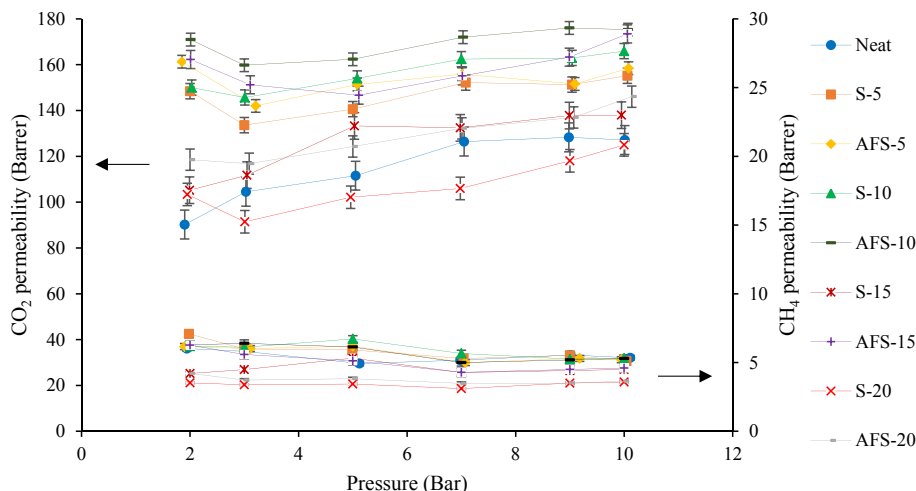


Fig. 9. The variation of CO₂ and CH₄ permeabilities with upstream pressure for S-X and AFS-X membranes.

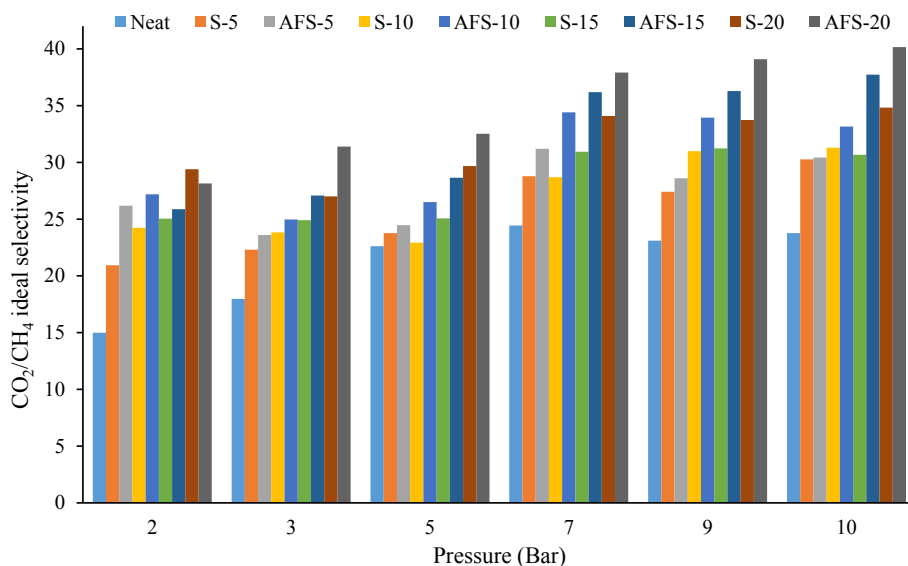


Fig. 10. The variation of CO₂/CH₄ ideal selectivity with upstream pressure for S-X and AFS-X membranes.

condensability, CO₂ molecules sorb into the polymer and plasticize it. The CO₂ sorption and plasticization increases the segmental packing, chain spacing and chain mobility so that the diffusion coefficient increases and affects gas permeability by increasing the pressure [64–66]. As reported by Bondar et al., carbon dioxide solubility in PEBA is about 30–160 times higher than that of CH₄, and it possibly plasticizes the polymer. In pressures higher than 3 bar CO₂ permeability increases due to the polymer plasticization by CO₂ molecules [67]. As the permeability coefficients of low-sorbing penetrants are independent of pressure, the polymer matrix is not plasticized by CH₄ [68]. Therefore, due to the low solubility of CH₄ molecules into the polymer and its negligible interactions with the polymer chains, its permeability is assumed constant, compared to CO₂. Considering these explanations, CO₂/CH₄ ideal selectivity exhibits an increasing trend by increasing the pressure from 2 to 10 bar. i.e. for the neat PEBA membrane the ideal selectivity with a 58% increase, reaches from 14.99 at 2 bar to 23.77 at 10 bar. These values are a little different for other nanocomposite membranes so that for the AFS-20 membrane, a 42% increase in ideal selectivity from 28.14 to 40.16 is observed. This

reduction in the amount of ideal selectivity improvement with pressure, is due to the fact that compared to the neat membrane, nanocomposite membranes have a lower capacity of CO₂ sorption and chain mobility caused by the presence of impermeable nanoparticle.

3.2.4. Effect of temperature

Fig. 11 and 12 Show effects of temperature on permeability and ideal selectivity of the S-10 nanocomposite membrane at 5 bar. By increasing temperature, the CO₂/CH₄ ideal selectivity declines significantly, i.e. at the constant pressure of 5 bar with increasing operating temperature from 25 to 75 °C, the CO₂ permeability increases by nearly 60%, from 129.60 to 205.10 Barrer and the CH₄'s changes from 5.64 to 16.59 Barrer, because of increasing movements of polymer chains [65]. These results lead to decrease in the ideal selectivity from 22 to 12 and show that the effect of temperature on the permeability of CH₄ is more than CO₂. The graphs of Fig. 11 shows that in a moderate temperature range, no thermal transitions in the structure of the polymer occur and therefore, the permeabilities change linearly with the temperature [69,70]. As

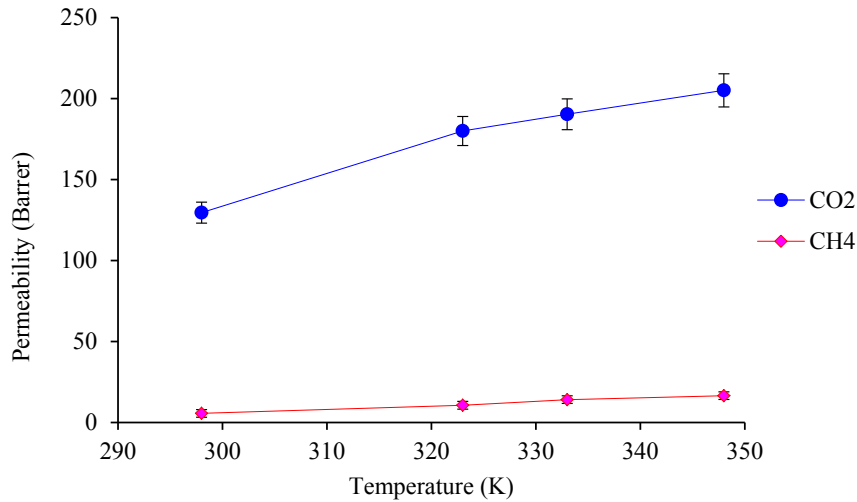


Fig. 11. The variation of CO₂ and CH₄ permeabilities with feed temperature for S-10 membrane.

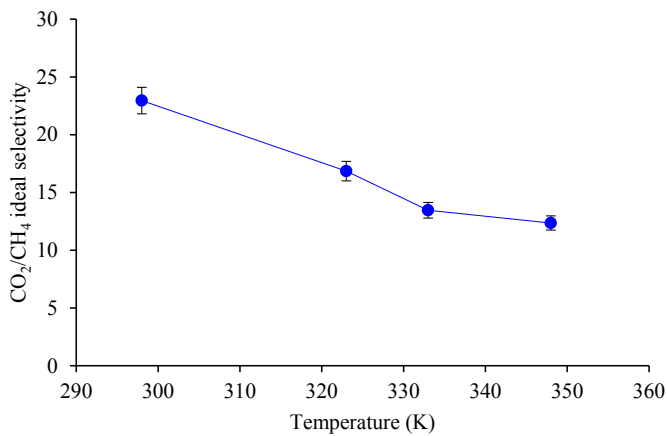


Fig. 12. The variation of CO₂/CH₄ ideal selectivity with feed temperature for S-10 membrane.

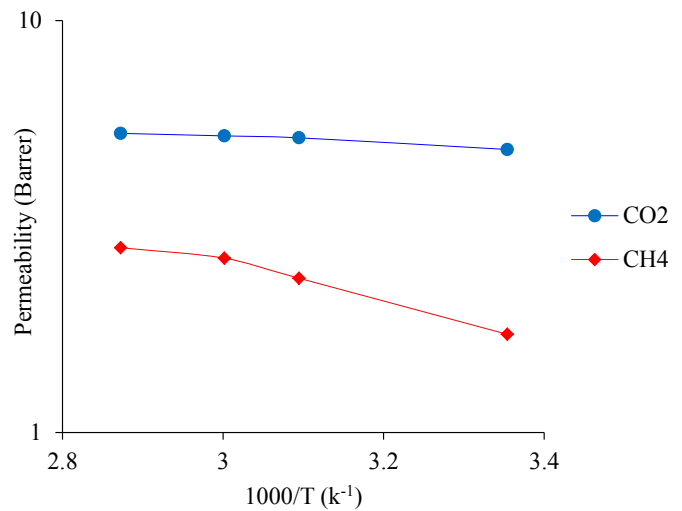


Fig. 13. Linear-logarithmic functionality of CO₂ and CH₄ permeabilities vs. feed temperature at 5 bar.

reported by Qipeng et al. due to melting temperature of PEO segments (about 50 °C), gas permeabilities through the polymer are strongly temperature dependent [71]. The reason for the significant decrease in CO₂/CH₄ ideal selectivity can be explained based on reducing solubility selectivity more significantly than diffusion selectivity [59]. Their temperature dependency is described using Eq. (5) and Eq. (6):

$$D = D_0 \exp\left(\frac{-E_d}{RT}\right) \quad (5)$$

$$S = S_0 \exp\left(\frac{-\Delta H_s}{RT}\right) \quad (6)$$

In which E_d and ΔH_s are activation energy of diffusion and heat of sorption, respectively [19].

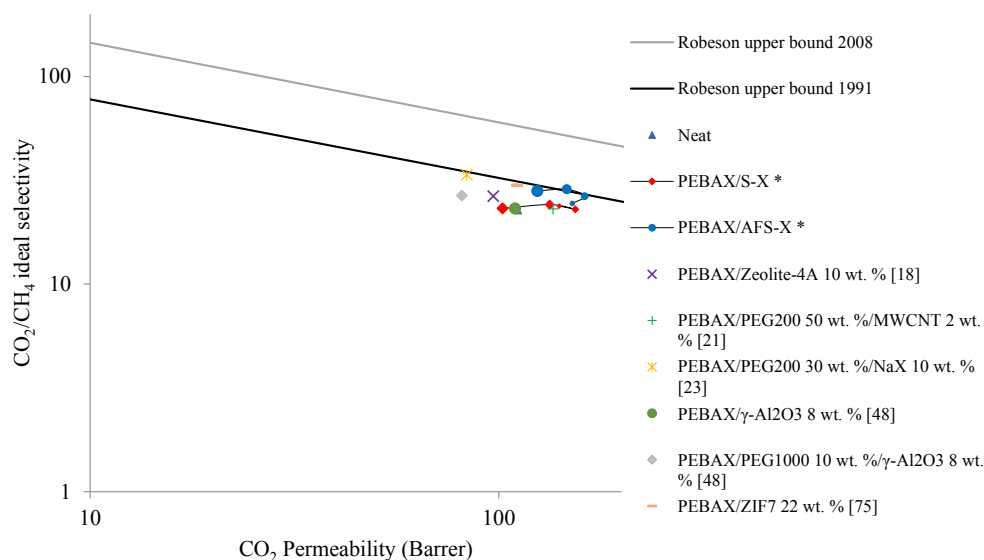
For a better explanation to this effect, the temperature-dependency of penetrants through the dense polymer was also investigated by the Van't Hoff–Arrhenius equation, which is shown in a semi-logarithmic graph in Fig. 13.

$$P = P_0 \exp\left(\frac{-E_p}{RT}\right) \quad (7)$$

In the above equation, P_0 is the pre-exponential factor (Barrer), R is the gas constant, T is temperature (K) and E_p is the apparent activation energy of permeation (J/mol). From the slopes of $\ln P$ versus $1000/T$ graphs (Fig. 13), the activation energy values for CH₄ and CO₂ gases can be obtained as 59.82 and 25.14 J/mol, respectively. This confirms the temperature sensitivity of low-permeable gases (CH₄) and describes that at lower temperatures, the membranes have better performance due to higher sorption of CO₂, compared to elevated temperatures [72].

3.3. Results comparison with the Robeson diagram

In order to investigate the effect of surface modification of nanoparticles and their interactions with CO₂ and CH₄ molecules on gas separation properties of the membranes and compare the performance of nanocomposite membranes in the current work with the Robeson upper bound, the data points were located on the selectivity-permeability plot (Robeson diagram). The main purpose of most research activities is to get closer to the Robeson upper bound or to pass the limit, which firstly presented in 1991 [73] and recently re-computed in 2008 [74]. Fig. 14 shows separation



* The increase in modifiers loading of the membranes is followed by the increase in markers size.

Fig. 14. The comparison of separation performance of S-X and AFS-X membranes with the Robeson upper limit.

properties of the nanocomposite membranes of the current work with the optimum performances (S-15 and AFS-15) at temperature of 25 °C and pressure of 2 bar.

As illustrated in the figure, firstly, by increasing silica nanoparticles loading to 15 wt %, the membranes' performance enhances compared to the neat membrane, in both permeability and selectivity. Secondly, amine modification of these nanoparticles for the loadings up to 15 wt %, shifts the coordinates of corresponding data points of prepared membranes towards the Robeson upper bound. However, further increasing of the silica nanoparticles loading and the amine modification of these nanoparticles, distances data points of the prepared membranes from the Robeson upper bound. Additionally, performance of some other PEBAX1657 based nanocomposite membranes reported in the literature is shown in Fig. 14 [18,21,23,48,75]. As observed, the data point coordinates of the prepared nanocomposite membrane containing 15 wt % of AFS nanoparticles is closer to the Robeson upper bound than those of other membranes. Consequently, the prepared membranes can be considered as one of the appropriate candidates for CO₂/CH₄ separation.

4. Conclusion

Incorporation of inorganic nanoparticles into the polymeric matrix is among the recent membrane development methods to simultaneously combine the polymer's processability and flexibility and nanoparticles' selectivity and thermal and mechanical stability. In this work, nanocomposite membranes based on amino functionalized fumed silica and PEBAX 1657 were prepared. The nanoparticles and nanocomposite membranes were characterized using FESEM, FTIR, XRD and CHNO analyses. The results showed that with the aid of amine functionalization, dispersion of SiO₂-NH₂ into the polymer matrix is more uniform, and this leads to the formation of high-quality membranes. The gas separation results showed that adding the nanoparticles to the polymer matrix increases CO₂ permeability and CO₂/CH₄ ideal selectivity, simultaneously, due to the higher CO₂ adsorption capacity of nanoparticles after amine modification.

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