



Enhancing onboard carbon capture performance by tailored absorbents and process optimization: Insights from pilot-scale testing and simulation

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ABSTRACT

Maritime CO₂ emissions account for approximately 3 % of global emissions and continue to rise with the growth of international trade, underscoring the urgent need for onboard carbon capture system (OCCS) technologies. However, OCCS deployment faces challenges, including limited installation space, high flue gas velocity, and low CO₂ partial pressure, which collectively reduce capture efficiency and elevate energy demand. In this study, an Aspen Plus rate-based model was employed to determine absorber dimensions and key operating parameters through sensitivity analysis. The optimized configuration was implemented in a 1.2 MW pilot platform for validation under ship-like exhaust conditions. Among the tested solvents, the polyamine-based SWCS-3 solvent significantly enhanced absorption performance, achieving a steady-state capture efficiency of 90.6 %, while reducing regeneration energy consumption by 31.5 % compared with monoethanolamine (MEA). The integration of waste heat recovery (WHR) process reduced regeneration heat consumption by 14.4 %, while the further incorporation of rich solvent split (RSS) and lean vapor recompression (LVR) modifications reduced the requirement to 2.66 GJ/t CO₂. Overall, the results demonstrate that the proposed OCCS can achieve high CO₂ capture efficiency within stringent marine constraints, providing a pathway toward the decarbonization of maritime transport.

1. Introduction

Maritime shipping accounts for over 80 % of global trade by volume, playing a pivotal role in international trade and global supply chains [1]. However, the maritime sector faces significant challenges in achieving decarbonization. According to the International Maritime Organization (IMO), the maritime industry emits approximately 1056 million tons of CO₂ annually, accounting for 3 % of global emissions. With the continuous growth of global maritime trade, CO₂ emissions from shipping are projected to increase by 50 % by 2050 compared to 2018 levels [2]. Alternative fuels, such as liquefied natural gas, methanol, and hybrid technologies, show promise but remain in the early stages of adoption, with over 90 % of the current fleet continuing to rely on fossil

fuels [3]. In response to the escalating urgency of climate change, the IMO has adopted increasingly stringent regulations and standards, targeting a reduction of at least 20 % in annual greenhouse gas emissions by 2030 and aiming for achieving near-zero emissions around 2050 [4].

In the long term, fuel substitution offers an attractive path toward reducing carbon emissions in the maritime sector [5]. However, the transition to cleaner fuels faces significant barriers, including the construction of novel infrastructure, the slow renewal of the global fleet, and uncertainty surrounding future fuels, resulting in substantially higher expenses [6]. In contrast, onboard carbon capture system (OCCS) provides a more practical mid-term solution to shipping decarbonization, with advantages including lower retrofitting costs, minimal disruption to existing systems, and compatibility with existing vessels

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[7]. The CO₂ concentration in emissions from marine diesel engines typically ranges from 4 to 6 vol%, classifying it as a low-concentration point source (<15 vol%) [8]. Chemical absorption, in which CO₂ reacts with absorbent to form chemical compound and releases CO₂ upon heating, stands out as a mature and scalable technology [9]. It is especially suitable for handling large volumes of flue gas with low CO₂ concentrations, making it one of the most promising pathways for OCCS [10]. Achieving effective CO₂ capture from ship exhaust lies in the selection of appropriate absorbents and process configurations that can ensure high CO₂ absorption efficiency while minimizing regeneration heat consumption [11]. In addition, OCCS also faces challenges that extend beyond absorption performance alone. Factors such as equipment size constraints, system integration compatibility, operational safety, and cost must also be carefully considered to ensure practical deployment on marine vessels [12].

Chemical absorbents primarily include amines, ammonia, inorganic salts, amino acid salts, and ionic liquids. Among these, amines, especially monoethanolamine (MEA), are the most extensively studied and widely employed [13]. Primary and secondary amines like MEA and Diethylenetriamine (DETA) typically exhibit high CO₂ absorption efficiency, but with relatively high regeneration energy requirements due to the formation of stable carbamate species [14]. In contrast, tertiary amines like *N*-methyldiethanolamine (MDEA) facilitate CO₂ hydration to form bicarbonate, which is easier to desorb but suffers from lower absorption rates. In recent years, specially structured amines such as piperazine (PZ), morpholine (MOR), and 2-amino-2-methyl-1-propanol (AMP) have attracted increasing attention due to their unique performance characteristics [15,16]. Yu et al. [17] demonstrated that MOR exhibits a lower pH than MEA due to its six-membered heterocyclic structure, promoting the formation of fewer carbamate and more bicarbonate during CO₂ absorption. Moreover, the lower viscosity of MOR enhances mass transfer, contributing to improved CO₂ absorption efficiency. To overcome the limitations of single-component amines, blended amine systems have been developed to integrate the strengths of different solvents [18]. Zhang et al. [19] investigated a ternary mixture of MEA/MDEA/PZ, which showed higher CO₂ absorption efficiency and lower regeneration energy consumption. Technologies for low-concentration CO₂ capture have been extensively implemented in land industrial applications, such as post-combustion capture from coal-fired flue gases [20]. However, the CO₂ concentration in marine exhaust is even lower, posing stricter requirements on the absorption rate of the solvent. As a result, absorbents with relatively slow kinetics have limited potential for OCCS applications [21]. Furthermore, spatial constraints in the engine room limit the size of equipment such as absorber. Solvents like biphasic absorbents and ionic liquids, which typically exhibit high viscosities, may hinder mass transfer and increase operational complexity [22,23]. Their application requires careful evaluation.

Several research institutions have investigated OCCS technologies. Luo et al. [24] developed an integrated model of ship energy system coupled with CO₂ capture system. Their findings indicated that, due to limited thermal and electrical energy available on board, the maximum achievable CO₂ capture rate was restricted to 73 %, with an estimated cost of approximately €77.50/t CO₂. Increasing the capture rate to 90 % by installing an additional diesel generator would raise the capture cost by 1.1 times, mainly due to the extra fuel consumption. Feenstra et al. [25] examined the integration of exhaust heat with the reboiler of the stripper in a diesel-powered vessel, reporting a total cost of capture and liquefaction of about €98/t CO₂ at a 90 % capture rate. Lee et al. [26] developed a CO₂ capture system using Aspen Plus for an 18.2 MW cargo vessel, employing a 22 wt% MDEA + 8 wt% PZ solvent. The reboiler energy consumption was reported to be 3.27 GJ/t CO₂. Most of these studies focus on simulation, with solvent selection and process configuration largely relying on experience derived from land-based industrial applications. However, pilot-scale validation studies and detailed investigations on operational strategies for OCCS remain scarce in the existing literature. Therefore, further in-depth research on onboard CO₂

capture systems is necessary.

Considering the inherent complexity and operational constraints of shipboard environments, the deployment of efficient, low-energy-demand absorbents, coupled with carefully designed process configurations and optimized operating parameters, is critical for achieving effective onboard CO₂ capture. In this work, we propose a comprehensive strategy that includes absorbent formulation optimization and integration of energy-saving processes, aiming to enhance CO₂ capture performance, reduce energy demand, and improve the adaptability of onboard systems. The performance of a polyamine-promoted solvent with enhanced mass transfer properties was evaluated on a pilot-scale platform. A steady-state process model was developed using Aspen Plus and validated against pilot data. Furthermore, the effectiveness of integrating ship exhaust heat recovery to reduce regeneration energy was assessed. These efforts aim to provide a practical, compact, and energy-efficient pathway to improve the feasibility of OCCS and to accelerate the decarbonization of the maritime sector.

2. Design and parameter optimization of onboard carbon capture system

OCCS faces unique challenges due to limited engine room space and stringent maritime safety regulations, necessitating compact equipment designs, particularly for absorbers in terms of both column diameter and height [27]. Meanwhile, according to the vapor–liquid equilibrium (VLE) of amine-based CO₂ absorption, the low CO₂ partial pressure in ship exhaust leads to a lower CO₂ loading of the rich solvent, which adversely impacts the efficiency of regeneration and increases energy consumption (Supplementary Fig. S1). Therefore, it is essential to implement strategies that mitigate these drawbacks, thereby enhancing the economic feasibility of OCCS.

2.1. Process modeling

The Aspen Plus Rate-based modeling framework is widely recognized as a reliable tool for the design and optimization of amine-based CO₂ capture processes, as evidenced by its extensive application in large-scale post-combustion capture projects. It considers the phase equilibrium, reaction equilibrium, and reaction kinetics at the mass transfer interface. It also incorporates chemical reaction enhancement factors and corrections for effective interfacial area, providing a more accurate estimation of gas–liquid mass transfer compared to the equilibrium model [28]. By discretizing the mass and heat transfer processes across individual column stages, the model enables detailed prediction of both thermodynamic and kinetic parameters within the absorption column. Although onboard operating environments feature unique constraints, the underlying gas–liquid absorption mechanisms remain consistent with those of land-based CO₂ capture systems. By incorporating marine-specific exhaust properties, spatial limitations, and operational constraints into the simulation, the Aspen Plus model can reliably represent OCCS performance.

To accurately account for the significant effects of ion–molecule interactions on the CO₂ absorption–desorption process, the electrolyte non-random two-liquid (*E*-NRTL) model was employed to predict the gas–liquid phase equilibrium. This model is particularly suitable for representing the phase behavior of multi-component electrolyte systems [29]. The thermodynamic properties of the PZ-MEA-CO₂-H₂O system were obtained from the NIST chemical database and the amines property package in Aspen Plus. Reaction parameters for the PZ-MDEA-CO₂-H₂O system can be referred in our previous work [30]. Supplementary Table S1 summarizes the equilibrium reactions and equilibrium constants (K_{eq}), which were calculated using Eq. (1). Supplementary Table S2 lists the kinetically controlled reactions along with their activation energies and pre-exponential factors. The kinetic expressions were modeled using the power-law equation shown in Eq. (2).

$$\ln K_{eq} = A + \frac{B}{T} + C \ln T + DT \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Kinetic factor} = ke^{-E/RT} \quad (2)$$

Fig. S2 illustrates the developed simulation model for the absorption and desorption of CO₂ from ship exhaust gas. The flue gas composition was set based on typical exhaust from marine diesel engines [31], with appropriate exhaust components simplifications made that do not affect the simulation accuracy for CO₂ capture [32]. Under baseline conditions, the standardized volumetric flow rate of the flue gas was 3500 Nm³/h, with a composition of 6.0 vol% CO₂, 7.6 vol% H₂O, 13.7 vol% O₂, and 72.7 vol% N₂.

In the OCCS, the absorber is the largest single piece of equipment, and its dimensions must comply with engine room space constraints. The superficial gas velocity (u) in the absorber was calculated as Eq. (3).

$$u = Q_g / \left(3600 \cdot \frac{\pi D^2}{4} \right) \quad (3)$$

where Q_g is the flow rate of the gas, m³/h; and D is the absorber diameter, m.

The packing height H_p was determined from Eq. (4).

$$H_p = HTU \times NTU \quad (4)$$

where HTU represents the packing height required to achieve a single transfer unit of mass transfer, and NTU represents the number of such units required to achieve the target removal efficiency. Both HTU and NTU can be estimated using empirical correlations based on gas-liquid properties, packing type, and operating conditions, and can also be

calculated within the Aspen Plus rate-based design framework. To meet the target CO₂ capture efficiency of >80 % while accounting for space constraints, the absorber diameter was set at 0.96 m under the baseline conditions, corresponding to a superficial gas velocity of 1.54 m/s, with a packing height of 6.0 m (Supplementary Note 1). Based on this configuration, a sensitivity analysis of key design parameters was conducted.

2.2. Sensitivity analysis

Fig. 1 (a) illustrates the effect of absorber packing height on CO₂ capture efficiency and regeneration heat consumption using a 30 wt% MEA solvent. When the column packing height was reduced from 8.0 m to 3.0 m, the CO₂ capture efficiency decreased by 6.5 %, while the regeneration heat consumption increased from 5.17 GJ/t CO₂ to 5.47 GJ/t CO₂, representing a 5.5 % increase. The lower column height shortened the residence time of the absorbent, hindering CO₂ mass transfer. Similarly, reducing the absorber diameter increases the flue gas velocity, and its impact on CO₂ absorption performance is shown in Fig. 1 (b). As the velocity increased from 0.63 m/s to 2.10 m/s, CO₂ capture efficiency decreased by 3.6 %, while the regeneration heat consumption rose from 5.14 GJ/t CO₂ to 5.29 GJ/t CO₂. Higher flue gas velocities reduce the gas-liquid contact time, impeding CO₂ absorption.

The impact of different absorbent formulations on CO₂ capture performance was also investigated. Fig. 1 (c) depicts the CO₂ cyclic capacity for three solutions: 30 wt% MEA, 10 wt% PZ + 20 wt% MDEA, and 5 wt% PZ + 25 wt% MEA. For each formulation, the minimum regeneration heat consumption and the corresponding CO₂ cyclic capacity were selected for comparison. The addition of 5 wt% PZ to the MEA solution increased the rich loading by 0.03 mol CO₂/mol amine. In

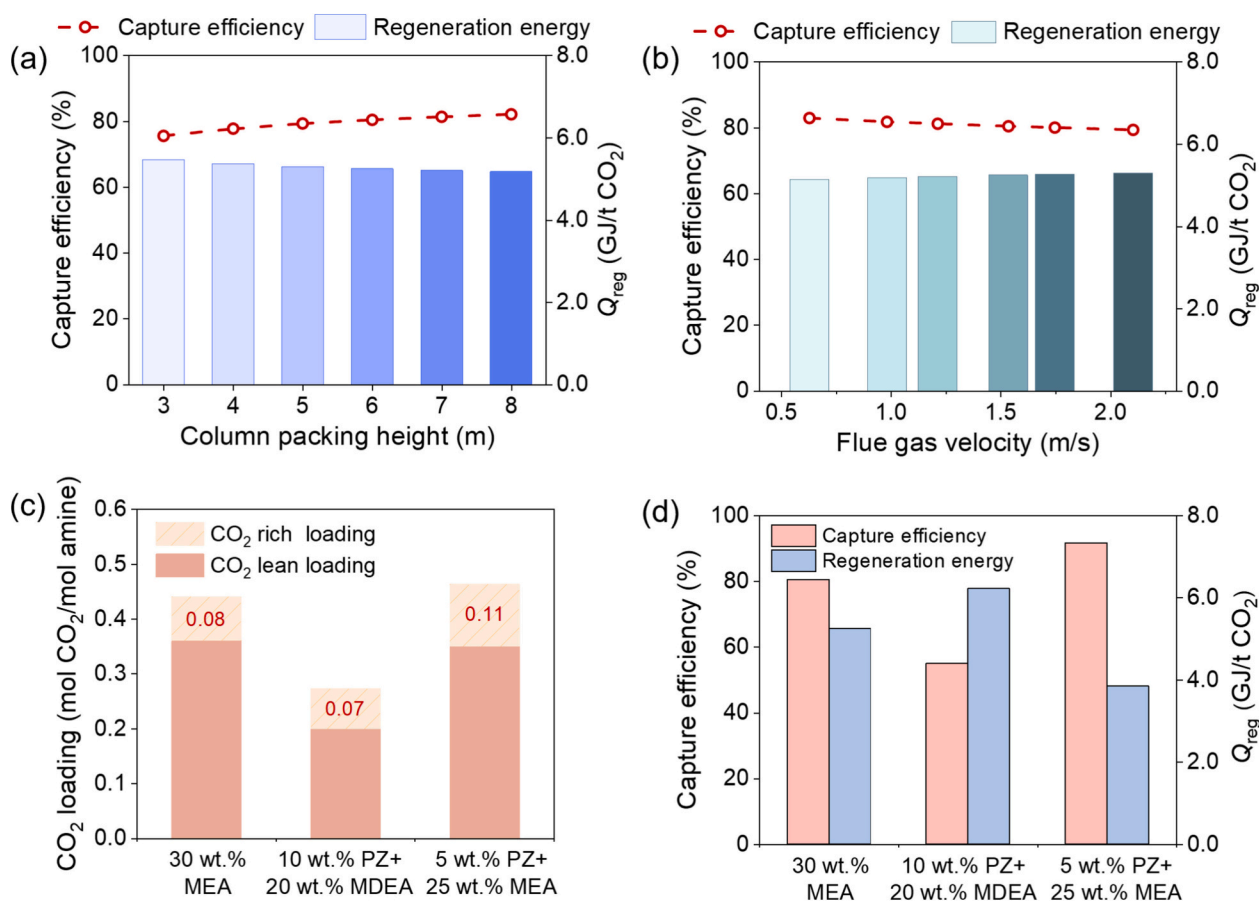


Fig. 1. Effect of (a) absorber column packing height and (b) flue gas velocity on CO₂ capture efficiency and regeneration heat consumption (Q_{reg}). (c) CO₂ loading and (d) CO₂ capture efficiency and Q_{reg} with different absorbents.

contrast, the PZ/MDEA blend, which used tertiary amine as the main absorbent, exhibited the lowest rich loading among the three absorbents. As shown in Fig. 1 (d), the PZ/MEA blend demonstrated the highest CO₂ capture efficiency, reaching 91.66 %. It also exhibited the lowest regeneration heat consumption at 3.85 GJ/t CO₂, representing a 26.7 % reduction compared to MEA alone. Conversely, the PZ/MDEA blend showed the lowest capture efficiency of only 55.06 %, and the highest regeneration heat consumption of 6.22 GJ/t CO₂. These results demonstrate that tertiary amines, despite their low regeneration energy potential, are unsuitable under onboard conditions due to inherently slow reaction kinetics. Similarly, conventional monoamines fall short in delivering sufficient capacity and kinetics. In contrast, polyamines such as PZ offer faster absorption kinetics and higher CO₂ loading, making them highly suitable for maritime applications [33]. To further reduce energy consumption, the integration of energy-saving processes is essential. Based on these insights, an optimized CO₂ capture strategy for ship exhaust was developed, combining advanced absorbent formulations with energy-saving process modifications (Supplementary Fig.S3).

The preceding sensitivity analysis quantitatively elucidated the effects of absorber dimensions and solvent selection on CO₂ capture performance under marine operating conditions. Based on these findings, the column geometry was determined to meet both spatial constraints and the target capture efficiency. By integrating the preliminary Aspen Plus design results with reference data from other large-scale amine-based CO₂ capture plants [34,35], a complete set of design parameters was established, as summarized in Table 1. These parameters provided the engineering basis for the design and construction of the 1.2 MW marine diesel engine flue gas carbon capture platform described in Section 3.

3. Pilot platform and experimental methods

3.1. Chemicals

DETA (99.5 %, BASF Co., Ltd., China), PZ (99.8 %, Delamine Co., Ltd., The Netherlands), and MOR (99.5 %, BASF Co., Ltd., China) were utilized to prepare an aqueous SWCS-3 solutions of 30 wt% (DETA: PZ: MOR = 1:1:4). MEA (99 %, BASF Co., Ltd., China) was used to prepare an aqueous solution of 30 wt% MEA. All solutions were prepared using deionized water. The above chemicals were directly used without additional purification.

3.2. Experimental and analytical methods

The schematic diagram and physical image of the ship exhaust CO₂ capture platform are shown in Fig. 2. The pilot system consists of a pre-scrubbing tower, an absorber and a stripper. A 1.2 MW marine diesel

Table 1
Main operating parameters of onboard CO₂ capture process.

Part	Parameter	Unit	Value
Pre-scrubber	Column height	m	3.0
	Column diameter	m	0.96
Absorber	Packing height	m	6.0
	Liquid-to-gas ratio	L/ m ³	3–7
	Column diameter	m	0.96
	Packing	/	Mellapak 250Y
Heat exchanger	Logarithmic mean temperature difference	°C	10
Stripper	Pressure	kPa	201
	Packing height	m	2.0
	Column diameter	m	0.64
	Packing	/	Mellapak 250Y
	Reboiler temperature	°C	119.15

engine set (Supplementary Table S3) was used as the exhaust gas source, providing a maximum treatment capacity of approximately 6000 Nm³/h. The detailed exhaust gas composition and flow rates under different load conditions are summarized in Supplementary Table S2. The high-temperature exhaust gas, initially at 280–300 °C, was purified and cooled to 40–50 °C before being introduced into the absorber. The absorber is 15.0 m tall with a diameter of 0.96 m and a packing height of 6.0 m. In absorber, the absorbent and flue gas were brought into counter-current contact to absorb CO₂, then the CO₂-rich solvent was sent to the stripper after passing through the heat exchanger. The stripper has a height of 9.3 m, a diameter of 0.64 m, and a packing height of 2.0 m. The heat required for desorbing CO₂ was supplied by the steam generated from a fuel oil-fired boiler. The regenerated high-temperature lean solvent was subsequently cooled and recirculated to the absorber, while the desorbed gas was condensed and pass through a gas-liquid separator to obtain CO₂ product gas. Two liquid sampling points were installed after rich liquid pump and lean liquid pump, respectively. Additionally, two DN25 gas sampling points were positioned at the inlet and outlet of the absorber.

The Total Organic Carbon Analyzer (TOC-L CPN, Shimadzu Corporation, Japan, ± 4 µg/L) was employed to measure the CO₂ loading in liquid samples. The pH of the solution was measured using a pH electrode (HC3800, HACH Ltd., US, ± 0.1 pH). A non-dispersive infrared multi-gas analyzer (MGA5, MRU Ltd., Germany, ± 0.01 vol%) was used to measure the CO₂ concentration. To prevent condensation of water and amine vapors, the sampling probe and line were heated to 150 °C and 120 °C, respectively. The CO₂ capture efficiency was calculated using Eq. (5):

$$\eta = \frac{y_{in} - y_{out}}{y_{in}} \times 100\% \quad (5)$$

where y_{in} and y_{out} denote the CO₂ concentrations at the absorber inlet and outlet, respectively.

The regeneration heat consumption of the CO₂ desorption process was calculated based on the enthalpy and mass flow rate of the vapor entering and leaving the reboiler, as described in Eq. (6):

$$Q_{reg} = \frac{\dot{m}_{steam}h_{steam} - \dot{m}_{cond}h_{cond}}{\dot{m}_{CO_2} \times 10^3} \quad (6)$$

where \dot{m}_{steam} and \dot{m}_{cond} are the mass flow rates of steam entering and condensate exiting the reboiler, kg/h, respectively; h_{steam} and h_{cond} are the specific enthalpy of steam and condensate, kJ/kg, respectively; and \dot{m}_{CO_2} is the mass flow rate of CO₂ product gas, kg/h.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Pilot-scale validation of CO₂ capture performance on a 1.2 MW marine diesel engine exhaust system

4.1.1. CO₂ capture performance using MEA and SWCS-3 solutions

To evaluate the performance of OCCS under unique constraints of onboard applications, a pilot-scale test platform was established with the exhaust from a 1.2 MW marine diesel engine, and long-term continuous operation experiments were conducted. The CO₂ capture performance of MEA and SWCS-3 solutions was investigated from system startup to steady-state operation, at a flue gas flow rate of 3500 m³/h and a liquid-to-gas (L/G) ratio of 4 L/m³, as shown in Fig. 3 (a) and (b). In contrast, the SWCS-3 solution achieved an initial capture efficiency exceeding 95 % and was able to maintain 64.7 % efficiency after 30 min. It should be noted that the observed decrease in CO₂ capture efficiency during the initial period corresponds to the start-up phase when the reboiler was intentionally kept off. This operational strategy was adopted to allow the solvent to approach near-saturation before regeneration starts, thereby shortening the transition time to steady-state absorption-desorption balance. Consequently, the initial lean CO₂

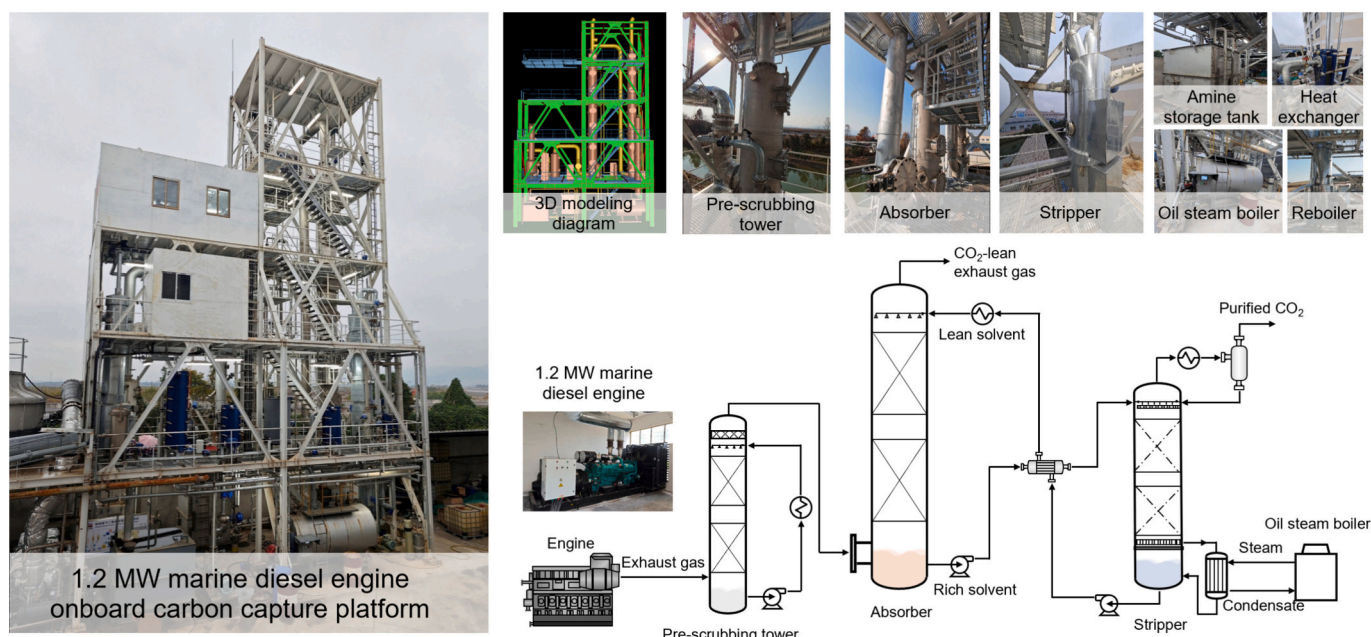


Fig. 2. Schematic and image of ship exhaust gas CO₂ capture platform.

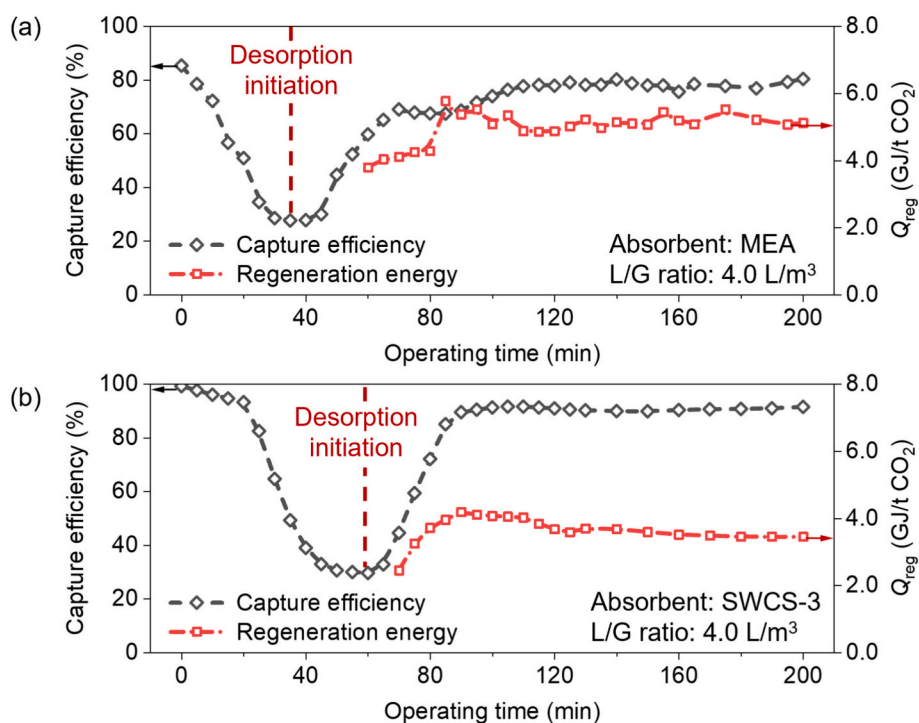


Fig. 3. Change in CO₂ capture efficiency and Q_{reg} over a 200-min long-term experiment using (a) MEA and (b) SWCS-3 solutions.

loading was low, resulting in a temporarily high driving force and capture efficiency, which declined as the solvent became progressively saturated. For the MEA solution, the capture efficiency initially reached 85.3% but dropped sharply to 28.5% within 30 min. Saturation was not reached until approximately 50 min, resulting in a desorption start time around 20 min later. Compared to the single-component MEA, SWCS-3, which formulated with polyamines such as PZ and DETA, showed significantly enhanced absorption kinetics and CO₂ loading capacity under low CO₂ partial pressure conditions.

The CO₂ loading and pH values of lean and rich solvents after the initiation of desorption were analyzed, as shown in Fig. 4. Since the

reboiler required time to reach its operating temperature, regeneration heat consumption was not measured during the initial heating period, and data collection began only after a stable CO₂ flow was established. Fig. 4 (a) illustrates the variation in CO₂ loading and pH over time for the MEA solvent. After 40 min, the CO₂ loading of the MEA solution reached 0.52 mol CO₂/mol amine. Following the onset of desorption, the CO₂ loadings of both rich and lean solvents gradually decreased, accompanied by an increase in pH. During the initial absorption-only period, the solvent approached gas-liquid equilibrium with high CO₂ loading, which contributed to relatively low regeneration heat consumption. As the absorption-desorption circulation progressed, the rich

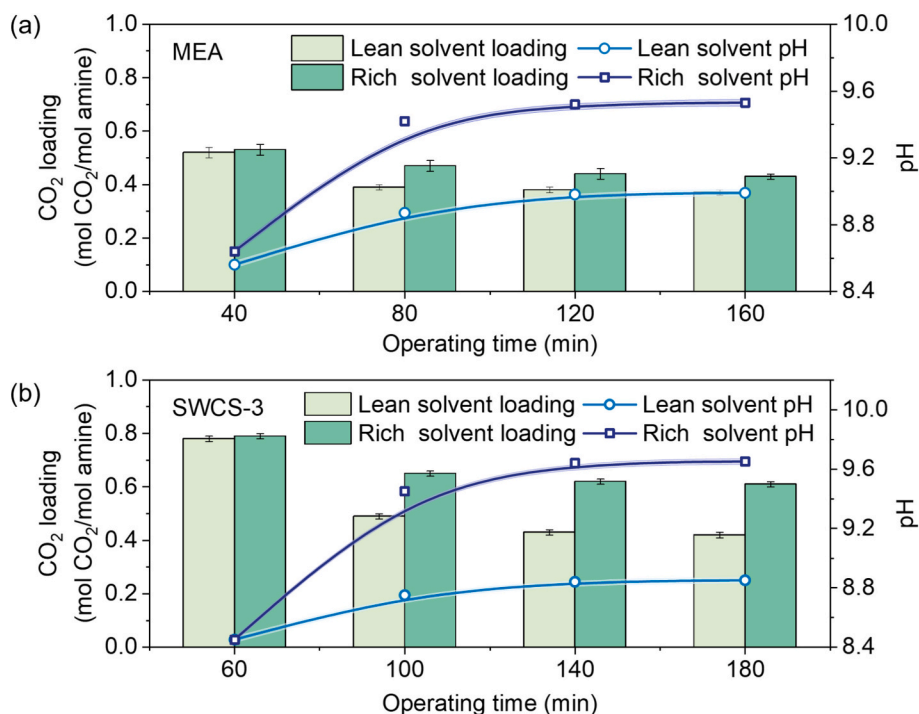


Fig. 4. Change in CO₂ loading and pH of lean and rich solvents over a 200-min long-term experiment using (a) MEA and (b) SWCS-3 solutions.

loading steadily decreased, leading to an increase in regeneration heat consumption. This decline was primarily attributed to mass transfer limitations caused by high flue gas velocity and low CO₂ partial pressure, which hindered the solvent from reaching its full absorption capacity. At the steady state reached after 160 min, the CO₂ loadings of the rich and lean solvents were 0.45 and 0.38 mol CO₂/mol amine, respectively, resulting in a cyclic capacity of only 0.07 mol/mol. The corresponding pH values were 8.99 and 9.53.

Fig. 4 (b) presents the performance of the SWCS-3 solution over time. After 60 min of operation, the rich loading reached 0.78 mol CO₂/mol amine, with a corresponding pH of 8.45. The system reached steady state until 130 min, with rich and lean loadings of 0.59 and 0.41 mol CO₂/mol amine, respectively, corresponding to a cyclic capacity of 0.18 mol CO₂/mol amine. This value was 1.57 times higher than that of the MEA solution. The pH values of the rich and lean solvents were 8.85 and 9.65, respectively. At steady state, the MEA solution achieved an average CO₂ capture efficiency of 80.3 % and a regeneration heat consumption of 5.04 GJ/t CO₂. In contrast, the SWCS-3 solution reached steady-state operation faster and exhibited a higher average capture efficiency of 90.6 %, along with a significantly lower regeneration heat consumption of 3.45 GJ/t CO₂, representing a 31.5 % reduction compared to MEA. These experimental results confirm that the incorporation of polyamines effectively improves the performance of amine-based absorbents under challenging conditions involving high flue gas velocity and low CO₂ partial pressure.

During the 72-h cyclic operation of the SWCS-3 solution, samples were periodically collected to monitor its compositional stability. Under relatively constant liquid levels in the absorber, stripper, and circulation tanks, the relative total nitrogen concentration (C_{TN}) of the absorbent gradually decreased with operating time, showing a reduction of approximately 1.6 % after 72 h (Supplementary Fig. S4), primarily attributed to solvent volatilization during the absorption-desorption process. The corresponding loss was less than 1 kg/t CO₂, demonstrating the good stability of the SWCS-3. It is worth noting that black carbon carried in the marine diesel exhaust continuously accumulated in the absorbent, leading to a gradual darkening of the solvent color (Supplementary Fig. S5). Although no significant effects on capture efficiency or

energy consumption were observed in this experiment, the enrichment of oil-like substances may pose a potential risk to the long-term operational stability of the system.

Fig. 5 compares the experimental and simulated results for CO₂ capture efficiency and regeneration heat consumption under steady-state conditions. Under identical lean loading and L/G ratio conditions, the simulated capture efficiency for the MEA solution was slightly higher than the experiment, with a relative error of 3.49 %. The simulated regeneration heat consumption was 5.19 GJ/t CO₂, representing a 2.98 % increase compared to the experiments. These results fall within the acceptable experimental error range, confirming the reliability of the simulation model. Minor deviations may be attributed to fluctuations in pump flow rate and reboiler temperature during the experimental operation. Due to the absence of reliable reaction and interaction parameters for DETA, MOR with CO₂ in the Aspen Plus database, a PZ/MEA blended solvent was used as a substitute for the SWCS-3 solution in the simulation. The simulated CO₂ capture efficiency was 88.7 %, which was 2.10 % lower than the experimental value, while the simulated regeneration heat consumption was 3.71 GJ/t CO₂, 7.54 % higher than the experimental measurement. These findings suggest that the PZ/MEA can serve as a reasonable proxy for SWCS-3 in predictive modeling, which is critical for subsequent process optimization. Nevertheless, the superior performance of the SWCS-3 solution compared to the PZ/MEA blend should not be overlooked.

4.1.2. Effect of exhaust gas flow rates on CO₂ capture performance

Under the experimental conditions described previously, the effect of exhaust gas flow rate on the CO₂ absorption performance of the SWCS-3 solution was investigated. The flow rate was regulated by adjusting the engine load of the marine diesel generator. As shown in Fig. 6 (a), when the engine operated at 25 % load, the exhaust gas flow rate reached approximately 2500 Nm³/h. Under this condition, the CO₂ capture efficiency reached 91.8 %, representing a 1.2 % increase compared to the result at 3500 Nm³/h. The regeneration heat consumption decreased by 0.6 %. As the exhaust gas flow rate increased, the gas velocity within the absorber also increased, resulting in reduced gas-liquid contact time and diminished CO₂ rich loading, which led to higher regeneration heat

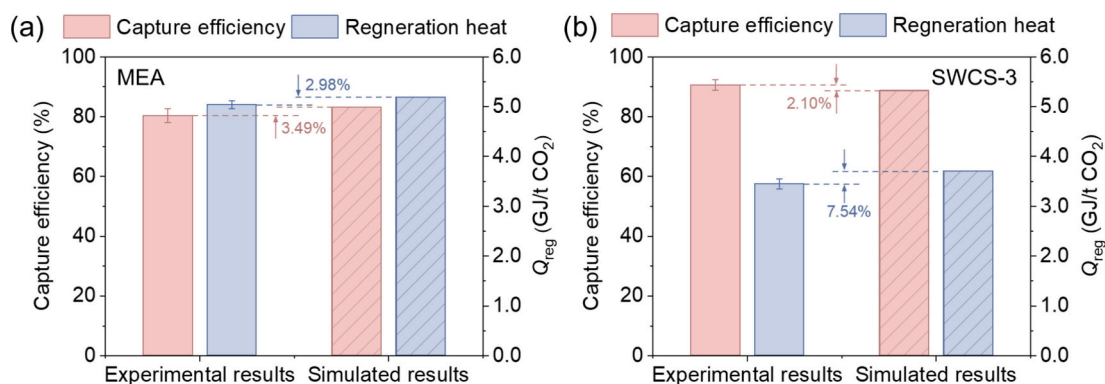


Fig. 5. Comparison of experimental and simulated results for CO₂ capture efficiency and Q_{reg} using (a) MEA and (b) SWCS-3 at 4.0 L/m³.

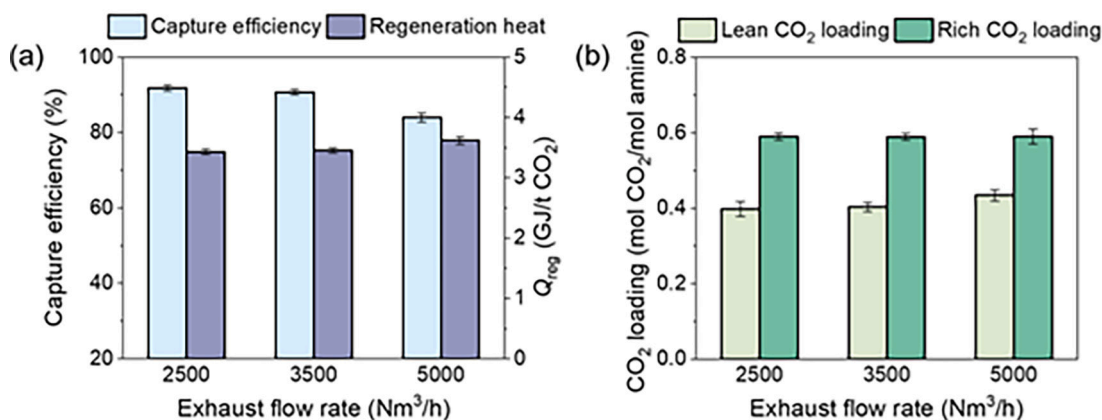


Fig. 6. Effect of exhaust gas flow rate on (a) CO₂ capture efficiency and Q_{reg} , and (b) CO₂ loading of lean and rich solvent.

consumption, as illustrated in Fig. 6 (b). At an exhaust gas flow rate of 5000 Nm³/h, the gas velocity within the absorber column increased to approximately 2 m/s. Under the high-velocity conditions, the CO₂ capture efficiency dropped significantly to 84.0 %, representing a 6.6 % decrease compared to the result at 3500 Nm³/h. Concurrently, the regeneration heat consumption rose to 3.62 GJ/t CO₂, marking a 4.7 % increase.

4.1.3. Effect of L/G ratio on CO₂ capture performance

To address the high gas velocity condition of >2 m/s encountered in ship diesel exhaust, the effect of L/G ratio adjustments on CO₂ capture efficiency, cyclic capacity, and regeneration heat consumption was

investigated, as shown in Fig. 7 (a) and (b). Increasing the L/G ratio can enhance capture efficiency, but a higher liquid flow will also reduce the residence time. This increased the mass transfer gradient, which consequently lower the rate of CO₂ accumulation in the rich solvent. As the L/G ratio increased from 4.0 to 5.0 L/m³, the CO₂ capture efficiency rose to 85.0 %. However, the cyclic capacity decreased from 0.15 to 0.13 mol CO₂/mol amine, leading to an increase in regeneration heat consumption to 3.74 GJ/t CO₂. Notably, further increasing the L/G ratio to 6.0 L/m³ resulted in a decline in capture efficiency. This was primarily due to the excessive liquid holdup within the packing, which caused localized flooding and impaired the gas-liquid mass transfer. Under this condition, the cyclic capacity dropped to 0.10 mol CO₂/mol

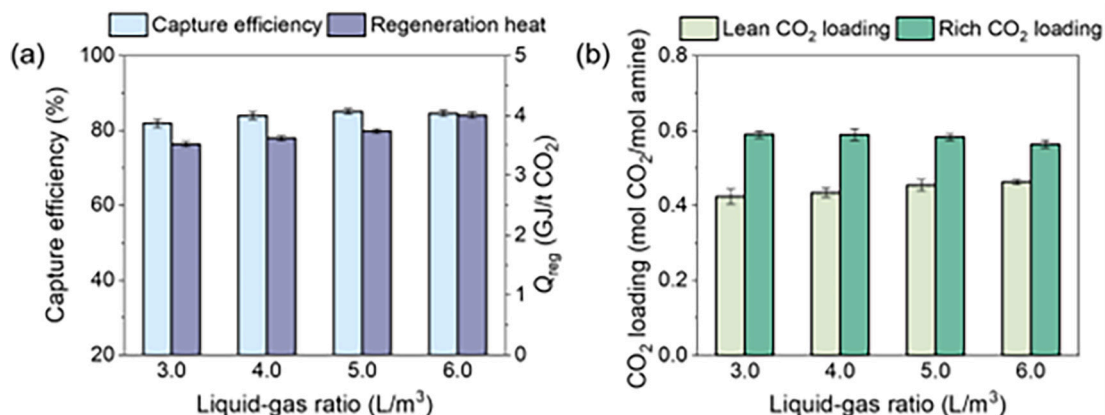


Fig. 7. Effect of L/G ratio on (a) CO₂ capture efficiency and Q_{reg} , and (b) CO₂ loading of lean and rich solvent.

amine, and regeneration heat consumption increased to 4.05 GJ/t CO₂. Conversely, reducing the L/G ratio to 3.0 L/m³ yielded a capture efficiency of 81.8 %, with a lower regeneration heat consumption of 3.52 GJ/t CO₂. Given the inherently low CO₂ partial pressure in marine exhaust gas, maintaining high capture efficiency negatively impact energy demand. A moderate reduction in L/G can enhance solvent

regeneration, achieving both a higher cyclic capacity and reduced regeneration energy consumption, while maintaining the target CO₂ capture efficiency. This optimization is particularly beneficial in ship-based applications, where minimizing solvent inventory and system weight is crucial under stringent space constraints. Therefore, if ultra-high capture efficiency is not required, a properly reduced L/G ratio is

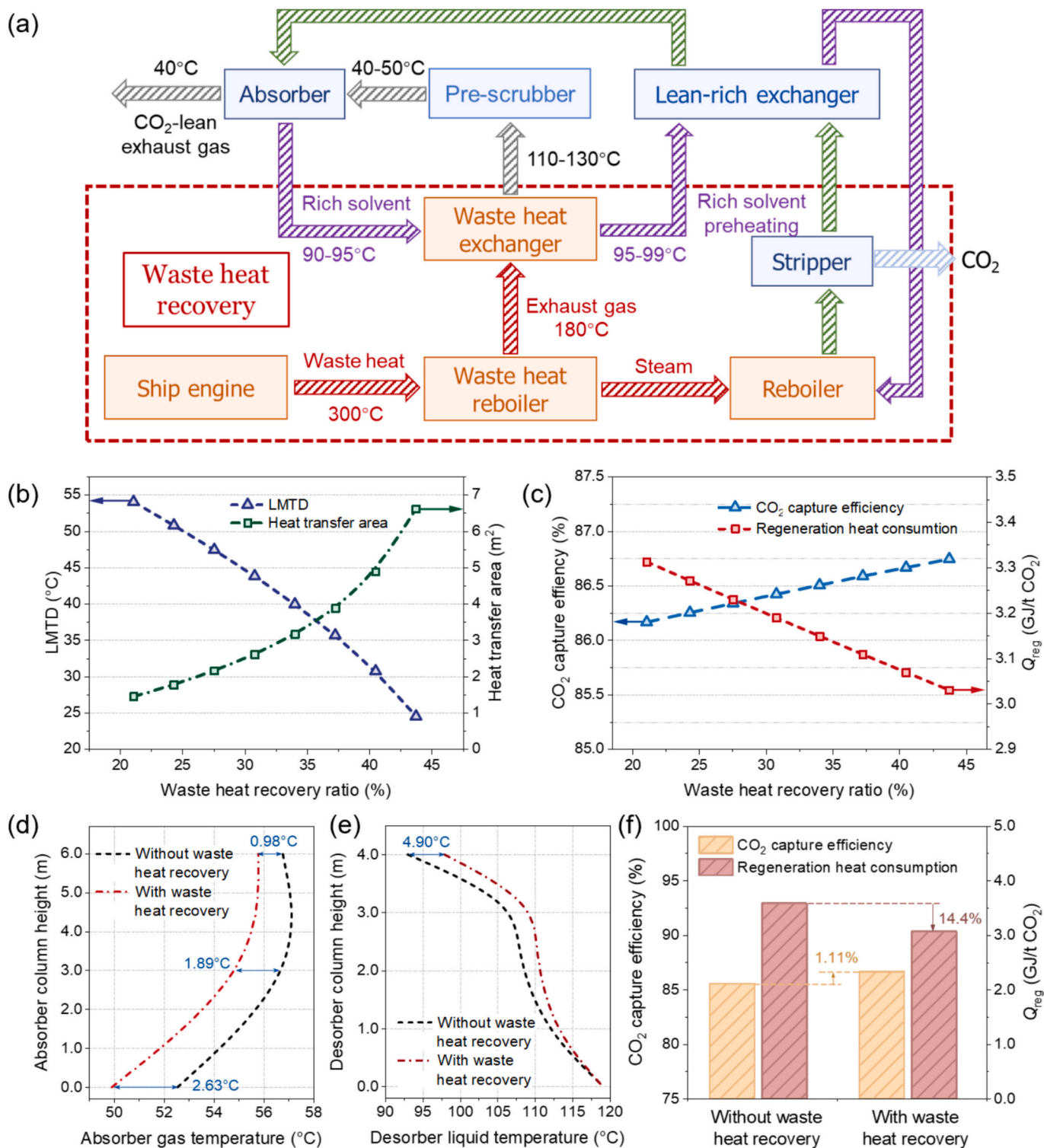


Fig. 8. (a) Schematic diagram of the modified ship exhaust gas CO₂ capture system modification incorporating waste heat recovery (WHR). (b) Optimized unit design and (c) improved capture performance of the WHR exchanger under different WHR ratios. Temperature distribution changes in the (d) absorber gas phase and (e) stripper liquid phase resulting from the WHR modification. (f) Overall optimization effect of applying WHR process. All results presented are based on process simulation.

recommended to balance energy performance with operational stability.

4.2. Process optimization of onboard carbon capture system

4.2.1. Integration of exhaust waste heat recovery in OCCS

Both experimental and simulation results confirmed that optimizing the absorbent formulation can improve CO₂ capture efficiency and reduce regeneration energy consumption. However, there remains further potential for further energy savings. Marine diesel engines typically emit high-temperature exhaust gas, for instance, the 1.2 MW diesel engine used in the pilot platform generated exhaust temperature up to 280–300 °C. However, to ensure effective CO₂ absorption, the inlet flue gas temperature of must be maintained at 40–50 °C, requiring a substantial amount of cooling water. This not only causes substantial thermal energy loss but also increases space demands for cooling equipment. To address this, a process modification leveraging waste heat recovery (WHR) was proposed, utilizing the sensible heat of exhaust gas to improve the thermal efficiency of the desorption process. Since part of the exhaust heat was used by the waste heat boiler to generate steam, the boiler outlet temperature (180 °C in this study) was adopted as the effective initial temperature for WHR calculations. Given the relatively small variation in the specific heat capacity of the exhaust gas, the waste heat utilization efficiency (η_{heat}) was calculated using Eq. (7):

$$\eta_{\text{heat}} = \frac{t_{\text{initial}} - t_{\text{final}}}{t_{\text{initial}} - t_{\text{ambient}}} \times 100\% \quad (7)$$

where t_{initial} represents the available initial temperature, which in this work is taken as the exhaust temperature at the outlet of the waste heat boiler, 180 °C, t_{final} is the exhaust temperature after passing through the heat recovery exchanger, t_{ambient} is the ambient temperature, which is assumed to be 25 °C.

Fig. 8 (a) presents the proposed process flow diagram. A gas-liquid heat exchanger was installed upstream of the pre-scrubber to preheat the rich solvent using high-temperature exhaust gas, thereby reducing the thermal load on the reboiler. Cooling the exhaust gas before the absorber also improves CO₂ absorption and reduces cooling water consumption. To balance energy efficiency with the compact design requirements of onboard systems, a target WHR ratio of 20 % to 45 % of the theoretical recoverable thermal load was selected. Since that the primary heat transfer resistance in gas-liquid exchangers lie on the gas side, the overall heat transfer coefficient was set to an average of 450 W/(m²·K) based on phase-change considerations.

As shown in Fig. 8 (b), increasing the WHR ratio leads to a larger heat transfer area and a lower logarithmic mean temperature difference (LMTD). This trade-off is critical in determining the optimal recovery rate, as a lower LMTD improves thermal efficiency but necessitates larger equipment. Fig. 8 (c) illustrates the effects of different recovery ratios on CO₂ capture efficiency and regeneration heat consumption. As the exhaust gas temperature decreased from 147.3 °C to 112.2 °C, the WHR ratio increased from 21.1 % to 43.7 %, resulting in a 0.57 % increase in capture efficiency and an 8.46 % decrease in regeneration heat consumption, from 3.31 to 3.03 GJ/t CO₂. However, in practical engineering applications, excessively high recovery ratios may cause minimal temperature differentials at the heat exchange interface, posing challenges in exchanger size and cost. Therefore, a recovery ratio of 40.5 % was selected, corresponding to a heat exchange area of 4.88 m² and an LMTD of 30.7 °C.

To comprehensively evaluate the impact of the WHR process on the thermal distribution within the absorber and stripper columns, a comparative analysis was conducted before and after the integration of the WHR process. Fig. 8 (d) illustrates the temperature profile of the absorber gas phase. Following the implementation of the WHR modification, the gas temperature entering the absorber decreased from 52.55 °C to 49.92 °C. Due to the intense gas-liquid reactions occurring in

the upper section of the column, a peak was observed in the middle section, reaching 55.79 °C, which represents a reduction of 1.89 °C compared to the conventional process. This reduction in gas phase temperature mitigated the heat release associated with the exothermic CO₂ absorption reaction, thereby enhancing CO₂ loading of the rich solvent [36]. Fig. 8 (e) depicts the temperature profile of the liquid phase within the stripper. The results show that preheating the rich solvent using waste heat increased its temperature from 93.00 °C to 97.90 °C at the stripper inlet. The temperature gradient of the liquid phase gradually decreased along the downward flow of the rich solvent. The elevated inlet temperature of the rich solvent reduced the sensible heat required for regeneration, thus improving the thermal efficiency of the reboiler. As shown in Fig. 8 (f), as the WHR ratio was set as 40 %, the CO₂ capture efficiency increased by 1.11 % compared to the conventional process, while the regeneration heat consumption decreased to 3.07 GJ/t CO₂, representing a 14.4 % reduction. These results demonstrate that the WHR is a promising approach for enhancing the performance of OCCS.

4.2.2. Combined process modifications with rich solvent split and lean vapor recompression

The integration of multiple process modifications can further optimize the energy performance of CO₂ capture systems, producing a synergistic effect wherein the whole exceeds the sum of its parts [37]. Additional process modifications, including rich solvent split (RSS) [38] and lean vapor recompression (LVR) [39], were integrated into the ship exhaust CO₂ capture system to improve the energy demand of CO₂ desorption. The developed OCCS process incorporating energy-saving modifications is shown in Fig. 9 (a). Our previous studies on post-combustion CO₂ capture in power plants have demonstrated the energy-saving potential of RSS and LVR modifications [30]. The key parameters of these modifications were also detailedly evaluated.

In the RSS modification, the rich solvent exiting the absorber was divided into two streams. The primary stream was sent through the lean-rich heat exchanger and then introduced into the middle position of stripper. Meanwhile, the other unheated rich solvent, was fed directly to the top of the stripper without heat exchange. This configuration enabled effective heat recovery from the high-temperature regeneration gas, thereby reducing the energy demand for CO₂ desorption [40]. The regeneration heat consumption was affected by the RSS ratio, which is defined as the ratio of the cold rich solvent flow rate to the hot rich solvent flow rate, as shown in supplementary Fig. S6. The minimum regeneration heat consumption was achieved when the split ratio was between 0.20 and 0.30. An excessively high split ratio resulted in an insufficient flow of rich solvent passing through the lean-rich heat exchanger, which prevented full recovery of the sensible heat from the regenerated hot lean solvent and ultimately increased the regeneration heat consumption. As illustrated in supplementary Fig. S7, when the split ratio was set to 0.20, the RSS modification increased the temperature gradient in the stripper. The introduction of cold rich solvent at the top of the stripper lowered the upper-column temperature, which increased the CO₂ partial pressure while decreasing the H₂O vapor partial pressure. This change reduced the latent heat required for water evaporation and lowered the condenser load. Meanwhile, the liquid-phase temperature in the middle section of the stripper increased, which facilitated CO₂ desorption.

The LVR process involved the addition of a flash tank to evaporate the high-temperature lean solvent discharged from the stripper. The resulting vapor was compressed by a mechanical compressor and subsequently reintroduced into the stripper, thereby facilitating internal heat recovery and improving thermal efficiency [41]. Since the LVR recovered the sensible heat of the hot lean solvent and reduced the lean solvent temperature entering the lean-rich heat exchanger, the combination of RSS and LVR was adopted as a common process optimization configuration, as the RSS process reduced the flow rate of rich solvent entering the lean-rich heat exchanger [42]. As shown in Fig. 9, the

Zheng: Methodology, Investigation. **Can Zhou:** Methodology, Investigation. **Haitao Shen:** Resources, Project administration. **Haidong Fan:** Supervision, Resources, Funding acquisition. **Shihan Zhang:** Methodology. **Chenghang Zheng:** Writing – review & editing, Validation, Supervision, Project administration, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. **Xiang Gao:** Validation, Supervision, Project administration, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cej.2025.167911>.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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