

Self-Perpetuating Carbon Foam Microwave Plasma Conversion of Hydrocarbon Wastes into Useful Fuels and Chemicals

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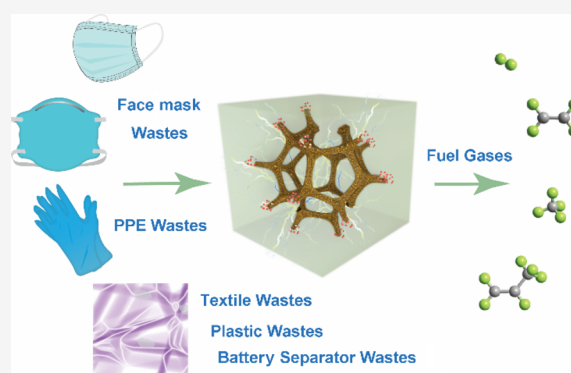


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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: White wastes (unseparated plastics, face masks, textiles, etc.) pose a serious challenge to sustainable human development and the ecosystem and have recently been exacerbated due to the surge in plastic usage and medical wastes from COVID-19. Current recycling methods such as chemical recycling, mechanical recycling, and incineration require either pre-sorting and washing or releasing CO₂. In this work, a carbon foam microwave plasma process is developed, utilizing plasma discharge to generate surface temperatures exceeding ~3000 K in a N₂ atmosphere, to convert unsorted white wastes into gases (H₂, CO, C₂H₄, C₃H₆, CH₄, etc.) and small amounts of inorganic minerals and solid carbon, which can be buried as artificial “coal”. This process is self-perpetuating, as the new solid carbon asperities grafted onto the foam’s surface actually increase the plasma discharge efficiency over time. This process has been characterized by *in situ* optical probes and infrared sensors and optimized to handle most of the forms of white waste without the need for pre-sorting or washing. Thermal measurement and modeling show that in a flowing reactor, the device can achieve locally extremely high temperatures, but the container wall will still be cold and can be made with cheap materials, and thus, a miniaturized waste incinerator is possible that also takes advantage of intermittent renewable electricity.



White wastes are ubiquitous, ranging from food packaging to used face masks/textiles, to electronic device components such as battery separators, and more (Figure S1). Unfortunately, the production of white wastes is increasing, with little hope to reach a global “peak waste” production before 2100.¹ Disposal of white wastes is becoming a pressing issue with several of the world’s largest landfills already beginning to reach their limits. The COVID-19 pandemic has only exacerbated the problem, by increasing the reliance on plastic goods and personal protective equipment (PPE) to contain the spread of the virus.^{2,3} Poorly stored and littered white wastes can be easily transported into the ocean by wind and rain. For example, 8 million metric tons of plastic enters the ocean every year and poses a grave threat to marine life.⁴ These long-lasting debris take up to 500 years to biodegrade in the ocean.⁵ Microplastics formed by weathering and biodegradation are often detected in estuaries, lakes, coastal waters, and beaches (Table S1)^{6,7} and could also be found in deep-sea sediments, ice cores, and polar waters (Figure S2).^{6,8–11}

The current recycling methods used are mechanical and chemical recycling, with both methods limited to processing only polyethylene and poly(ethylene terephthalate) at an industrial scale.^{12,13} Chemical recycling also requires sorting

processes to separate white wastes into pure feedstocks.¹⁴ Furthermore, catalysts limit the efficiency and selectivity of chemical recycling. These processes call for large capital equipment and centralized processing plants, and transportation of distributed white wastes to these large plants incurs additional costs. A local community level treatment of white wastes that does not require mechanical sorting and takes advantage of intermittent renewable electricity would be highly desirable.^{15,16}

White wastes are mostly long-chain hydrocarbons and in a reducing atmosphere at high temperatures will decompose into H₂, CO, C₂H₄, C₃H₆, CH₄, etc. These gases plus residual solid carbon, C_n, are valuable ingredients for the chemical industry, acting as feedstock to make fresh plastics and other useful chemicals. It is essential that solid carbon C_n components are not oxidized in the process, as that would produce unwanted CO₂ emission. This residual carbon should also be well contained, as

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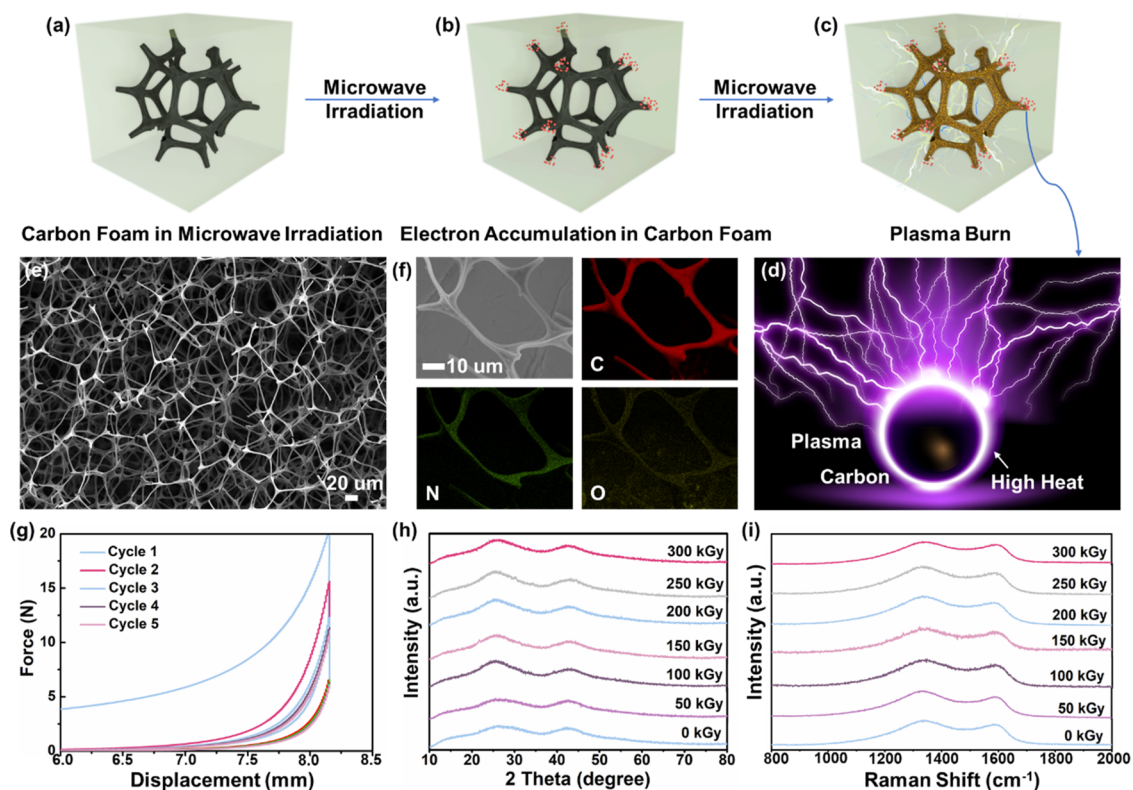
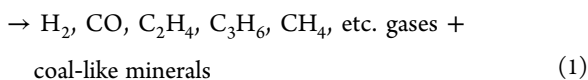


Figure 1. (a–d) Schematic illustration of plasma ignition and heat production by the carbon foam during microwave irradiation. (e) Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image of the carbon foam. (f) Scanning transmission electronic microscope (STEM) image of the carbon foam and the corresponding elemental mapping images for carbon, nitrogen, and oxygen. (g) Cyclic stress–strain curves of the carbon foam. (h) X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns and (i) Raman spectrum of the carbon foam irradiated at different kGy doses (0, 50, 100, 150, 200, 250, and 300 dose).

it would become another source of pollution in the form of soot, as in the case of careless incineration. Finally, inorganic components such as dyes or fillers, like SiO_2 and Al_2O_3 , are unavoidable in real waste and must be collected as compact solid waste. With standard incineration, not only CO_2 greenhouse gases are generated using conventional incineration practices, but unavoidable inorganic residue area may also become airborne particulates and contribute to PM 2.5 pollution. The optimal recycling process should thus be

Unsorted white wastes



converting waste into gaseous feedstock and stable coal-like solids. This would allow for the disposal of the $\text{C}_n/\text{SiO}_2/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\dots$ coal composites underground, such as an abandoned coal mine. However, special attention must be made to ensure that these residual solids do not leach into ground water. The gases collected (e.g., H_2) may be utilized in fuel cells or be sent to chemical factories (e.g., C_2H_4) via gas pipelines to synthesize new plastics and chemicals, thus closing the materials loop, without stressing the road transportation network.

The standard approach to (1) requires large industrial installations and pressure vessels made from expensive alloys due to the uniformly high temperatures and pressures involved. This work proposes the use of microwave plasma discharge, where the local temperature can reach several thousand Kelvins due to the generation of microplasmas on the surface of the catalyst while maintaining manageable temperatures within the reactor chamber. This alternative method could forego

expensive pressure vessels and instead rely upon cheaper materials such as those found in household microwave ovens. Microwave ovens create standing-wave electromagnetic radiation in the frequency range of 300 MHz to 300 GHz.¹⁷ Due to itinerant electrons in the carbon foam and incident microwaves, a large electric field can form on the surface of the foam, inducing gas plasma discharge, ionizing nearby N_2 gas and generating local temperatures in excess of 3000 K.

Research in microwave-assisted plasmas for waste processing is relatively new and has recently focused on designing new catalysts to more readily ionize plasmas. State-of-the-art techniques utilize metals like tungsten (W), copper (Cu), or iron (Fe) as electrodes or catalysts to induce plasma discharge.¹⁸ Graphitic or activated carbon may be cheaper alternatives and provide advantages with their ability to readily absorb microwaves and withstand high temperatures prior to sublimation.^{19,20} Several recent examples are included in Table S2 to highlight the multiple use cases of microwave-assisted plasma discharge in processing waste, ranging from electronics to natural gases and oils, to plastics, and even baby diapers. This wide range in applications highlights the flexibility of microwave-assisted plasma chemistry, minimizing the need for pre-processes and more importantly removing the need for pre-sorting.

Herein, a carbon foam microwave plasma (CFMP) process was developed to generate high local temperatures to transform white wastes into hydrogen gas and useful chemicals like ethylene (C_2H_4), propylene (C_3H_6), and methane (CH_4). While plasmas can promote various kinds of chemical reactions by creating free radicals, ions, and high temperatures in ambient conditions, the process to form plasma discharge is not

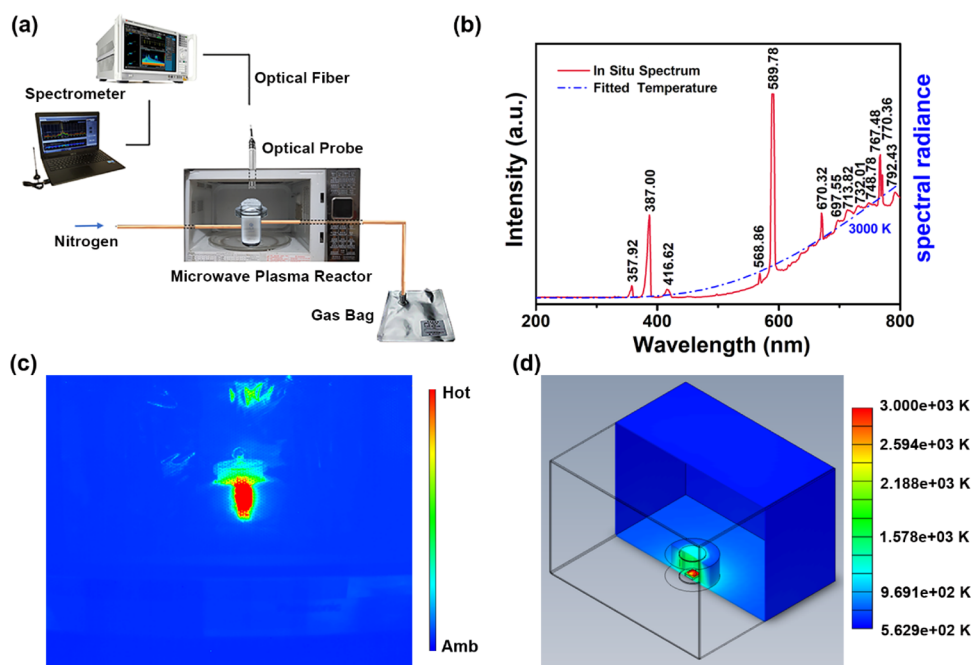


Figure 2. (a) Schematic illustration of the *in situ* spectrum measurement system for the microwave plasma reactor. (b) *In situ* spectrum and fitted temperature of carbon foam in microwave irradiation. (c) *In situ* temperature distribution of the microwave plasma reactor by a forward-looking infrared camera. The linear color scale represents the ambient and hot temperature. Absolute values of temperature are not reported due to the existence of the microwave oven door in the viewing direction. (d) Steady-state thermal analysis simulated with SolidWorks 2020.

straightforward.^{21–26} In this work, it is shown that exposing an appropriately designed carbon foam to nitrogen gas and microwaves can induce plasma discharging, forming nitrogen plasma. During this short and localized energy burst, plasmas decompose the white wastes into H-bearing small gas molecules, with excess high-quality graphitic carbon precipitating out as solid C_n grafted onto the pre-existing foam, forming a self-perpetuating “carbon foam cycle”. A small amount of CO could also be generated due to trace amounts of oxygen in the atmosphere and oxygen from the original polymer. Surprisingly, C_n is deposited on the surface of the carbon foam, forming electrically conductive barbed tips that facilitate further discharge, so much so that efficiency of the foam increases over time.

EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

In this work, a carbon foam was used to induce plasma discharge with microwave irradiation (Figure 1a–d). The carbon foam was initially produced by the thermal decomposition of commercial melamine foams in nitrogen, with yield up to 60 wt % (Figure S3). A distinct weight loss from ~ 400 °C is shown in the thermal gravimetric (TG) curve, corresponding to the escape of H and C atoms from melamine.²⁷ The TG weight curve stabilized after 900 °C, indicating that a complete transformation of melamine to carbon had occurred. Carbon foam has a structure akin to a three-dimensional barbed pentagonal honeycomb (Figure 1e and Figure S4a,b). Due to the removal of H and C atoms from melamine, the surface of the carbon foam was porous (Figure S4c). High-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images show abundant micropores and mesopores within the foam (Figure S4d), measuring a Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) surface area of $36.32 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$, a pore volume of $0.06 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$, and an average pore size of 6.15 nm (Table S3).

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) results verify a uniform distribution of carbon, nitrogen, and oxygen in the carbon foam (Figure 1f and Figure S5).^{28,29} The apparent bulk electrical conductivity of the carbon foam is $\sim 3 \text{ S m}^{-1}$, which considering its high porosity (nominal density is $\sim 5 \text{ mg cm}^{-3}$, and thus, porosity is $\sim 99.6 \text{ vol } \%$) suggests a very high electric conductivity at the microscopic level. Moreover, the carbon foam also demonstrates sufficient mechanical properties (Figure 1g and Video S1). Even under extreme conditions, such as exposure to gamma-ray irradiation (50–300 kGy), the carbon foam structure remained stable, and its physical surface properties showed minimal changes (Figures S6–S13 and Table S3). X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns are shown in Figure 1h, where the two broad signals around 26° and 44° correspond to the (002) and (100) spacings of the graphene sheets, respectively. For the first peak at 26° , the intensity remained unchanged after 50 kGy of gamma irradiation. After 100 kGy, the intensity of the peak increased slightly but then remained constant after exposure to 150, 200, 250, and 300 kGy. The peak at 44° showed nominal changes in intensity after exposure to gamma irradiation. The Raman spectra in Figure 1i show two strong bands at ~ 1590 and 1330 cm^{-1} , corresponding to the G-band and the disorder-induced D-band. There are few changes of these peaks after the carbon foam is exposed to gamma irradiation.

The carbon foam utilizes plasma discharging to generate high local temperatures within the microwave oven. The process is as follows: After the carbon foam absorbs incident microwaves, electrons/holes accumulate at the asperities of the carbon foam (Figure 1b). With the accumulation of free electrons, high local electrical fields are then generated. Next, the accumulated electrons begin to emit into free space as cathodic ray emissions, and these electrons ionize the nitrogen gas, which set off a cascade of charged-particle ionizations, accelerations, and

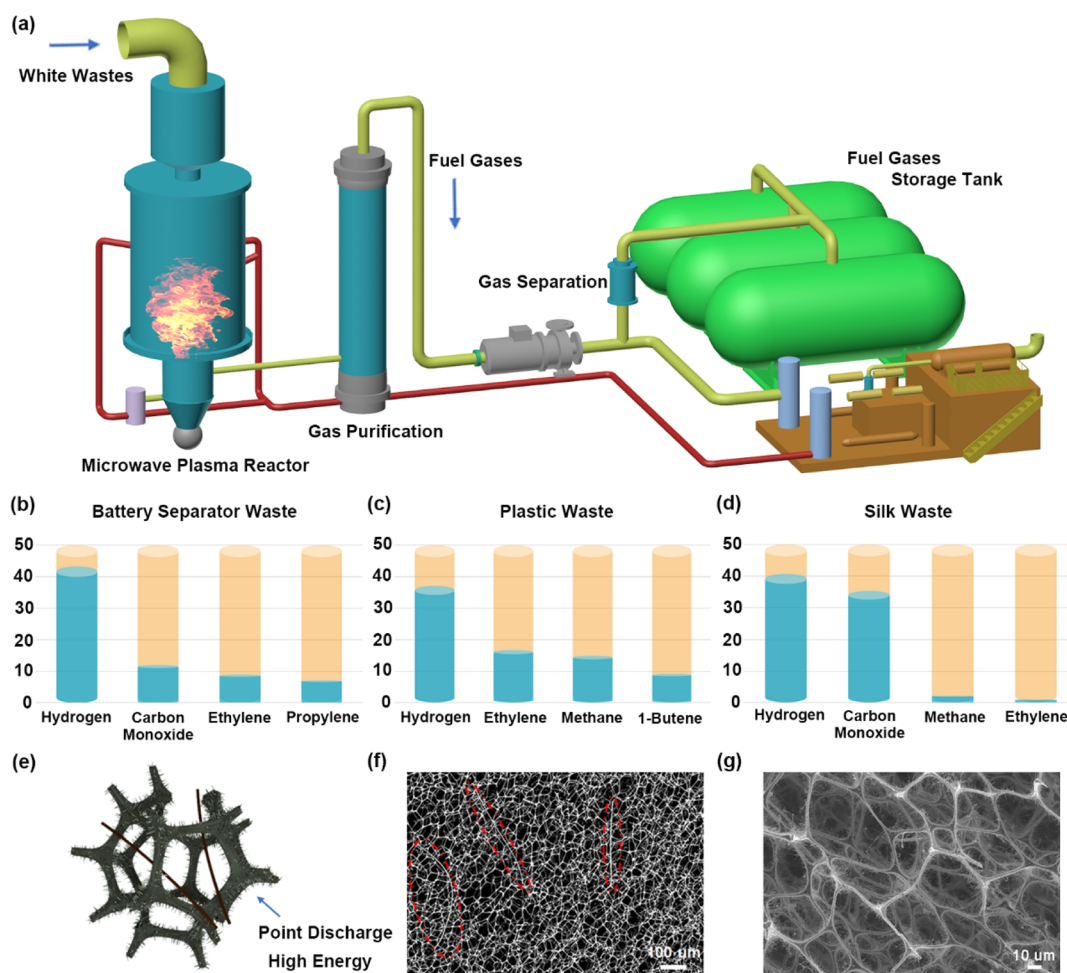


Figure 3. (a) Diagram of the industrial process for the white waste treatment by carbon foam microwave plasma. Main gas composition (vol %) of (b) plastic waste, (c) battery separator waste, and (d) silk waste by the carbon foam and microwave irradiation. A more detailed gas composition is shown in Table S5. (e) Schematic diagram of the carbon foam after microwave irradiation for the battery separator waste treatment. (f,g) Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of the carbon foam with battery separator waste after microwave irradiation of 330 W and 8 s.

collisions under the electric field. Once plasma discharging occurs, plasma is formed (Figure 1c), resulting in high temperatures on the surface of carbon foam (Figure 1d) and sending out bright lights (see Videos S2–S8).

Due to the high heating rates and temperatures involved in this nitrogen microwave plasma process, it is not easy to measure the reaction temperature. An *in situ* spectral measurement system was used to indirectly estimate the temperature (Figure 2a). The peaks on this spectrum radiance plot correspond to the electronic transitions between the different energy levels in the carbon foam and nitrogen gas (Figure 2b).³⁰ The peaks at 387.00 and 589.78 nm correspond to the transitions of $2s^2 2p^4 p$ to $2s 2p^2(^4P)3p$ and $2s 2p^2(^4P)3s$ to $2s 2p^2(^4P)3p$ in nitrogen, respectively (Table S4). The peak located at 357.92 nm is attributed to the transition of $2s 2p(^3P^o)3p$ to $2s 2p(^3P^o)4s$ in carbon. The high lattice energy in the solid phase shows that the peak intensity of nitrogen is higher than that of carbon. Overall, the spectrum radiance complies well with the Planck's law of black-body radiation³¹

$$B_\nu(T) = \frac{2h\nu^3}{c^2} \frac{1}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1} \quad (2)$$

where ν is the frequency of electromagnetic radiation; $B_\nu(T)$ is the spectral radiance density of frequency ν radiation; T is the

absolute temperature of the body; h is the Planck constant; c is the speed of light in a vacuum; k is the Boltzmann constant. By proper scaling and least-square regression on the measured spectrum radiance, we estimate that the microwave plasma process generates a temperature of 3000 K in a few seconds. The local high temperature enables the decomposition of even very stable organic wastes. The local high temperature was recorded by an *in situ* infrared (IR) sensor (Figure 2c, Figure S14, and Video S2). During the process, a high temperature region localized around the sample surface (at the center of the microwave plasma reactor) is observed after a few seconds. This suggests that the surface of the carbon foam, when exposed to the microwave plasma process, can serve as an effective medium for waste pyrolysis. Since high local temperatures are generated, ceramic fiber blankets were used to insulate the CFMP system (Figure S15a,b and Video S3). While a decrease in thermal emission from the microwave oven door limits our capability to quantify absolute temperature scales, it is clear that highly localized heat zones are generated on the carbon foam surface.

Thermal analysis on the microwave reactor designed in this work was done to understand temperature profiles during steady-state operation, as an industrial system would likely be designed to run continuously to maximize productivity. The thermal analysis was done using SolidWorks Simulation, which

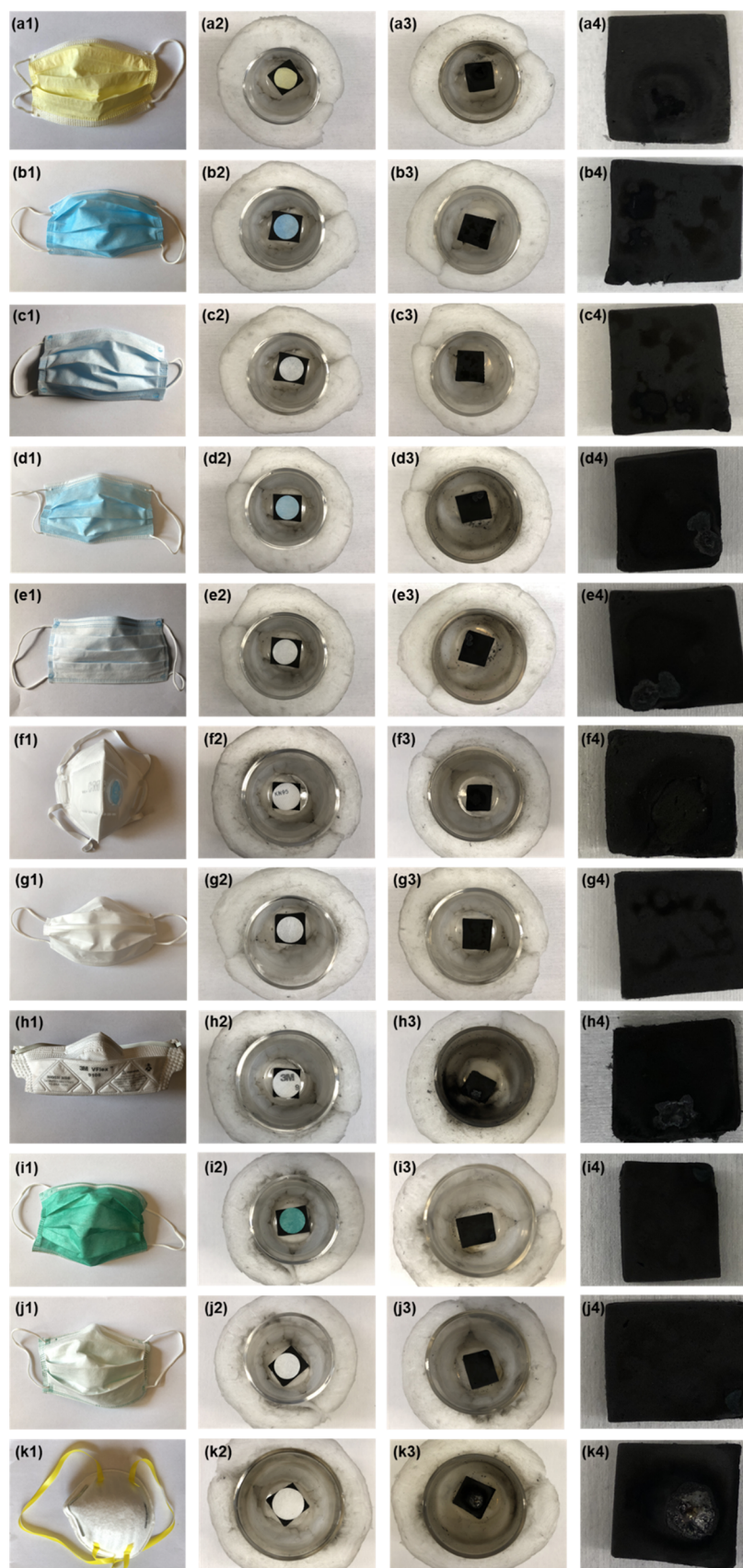


Figure 4. Digital images of mask wastes (a1–k1) and mask wastes on the carbon foam (a2–k2) before and (a3–k3 and a4–k4) after microwave irradiation.

employs the Stefan–Boltzmann equation for radiation heat transfer at a steady state.

$$q = \epsilon \sigma AT^4 \quad (3)$$

where ϵ is the emissivity of an object, σ is the Stefan–Boltzmann constant, A is the area of the object radiating heat, and T is the temperature of the object. SolidWorks makes the distinction between surface to surface and surface to ambient radiative heat transfer by introducing a view factor term, F , into eq 3. This view factor is calculated based on meshing and user input and ranges from 0 to 1.

Figure 2d and Figure S16a show the side and top cutouts of the thermal analysis with a temperature bar showing the absolute temperatures within the system. This simulation is run at a steady state and acts as an overestimate for the prototype environment tested in this work. The thermal insulation does an adequate job of containing the extreme temperatures generated by the carbon foam while also maintaining an environment hot enough within the beaker to pyrolyze the plastics nearby in an autocatalyzing manner. Figure S16b and Figure S16c show the side and top down profiles as well but do so by cutting the system in half at the Z and Y axes, respectively. The side profile shows the temperature distribution for the system when run continuously, giving insights into what the maximum temperatures would be during operation. In the top-view cutout, the bottom panel of the microwave would experience temperatures exceeding 800 K due to the lack of convective heat transfer enacting on that panel, as the microwave is assumed to be placed on a table. This could be rectified by placing a ceramic fiber blanket under the quartz container or by increasing gas flow to the bottom panel and raising the microwave several inches off its table. Implementing these small fixes could enable the safe, continuous operation of the CFMP, without relying on expensive high-temperature vessels and complicated thermal management systems.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The number of steps taken from white wastes to recycled industrial materials is drastically pared down with the CFMP process. White wastes are first cut into pieces to expose more surface area to plasma and enhance the overall energy utilization of the system (Figure 3a).^{32,33} The broken-down wastes are then transferred into the microwave plasma reactor to be pyrolyzed into gases (H_2 , CO, etc.) and then separated into different storage tanks according to their chemical composition and boiling points.³⁴ Hydrogen-carbon monoxide products can then be directly fed into the Fischer–Tropsch process to synthesize chemical products.³⁵

In addition to plastics and silks, the fast development of lithium-ion batteries for electric vehicles and grid-scale energy storage^{36,37} has necessitated the accommodation of battery separators in the CFMP process. To recycle this more complicated class of waste, the CFMP reactor was used to pyrolyze the multicomponent separator polymers without pre-sorting. The output power of the microwave and the reaction time are discussed in the Supporting Information, Figures S17–S21. For all experiments, a subsecond intermittence period of no microwaves was present due to the design of our consumer microwave oven. A reaction time of 8 s was selected with varying output powers (110, 220, and 330 W) for our initial experiments. At 110 W (Video S4), the battery separator waste only shrank on the surface of the carbon foam (Figure

S17a–c). At 220 W (Video S5), residual amounts of battery separator waste remained (Figure S18a–c). However, at 330 W (Video S6), the surface of the carbon foam was clean (Figure S19a–c). After establishing the optimal output power (330 W), multiple reaction times (4, 8, and 12 s) were tested. After 4 s (Video S7 and Figure S20a–c), the result was similar to the 220 W, 8 s trial and showed an insufficient treatment of the battery waste. At 12 s (Video S8 and Figure S21a–c), an experimental result similar to 330 W, 8 s was observed.

In addition to battery separators, plastics, and silks, different types of face masks were successfully treated by CFMP (Figure 4), demonstrating a promising recycling method of handling the surge in medical wastes due to COVID-19. About 1.2 wt % solid carbon residue was left after the CFMP process compared to the initial white waste.

Gases obtained from white wastes using CFMP were analyzed with gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC–MS). Battery separator wastes yielded the following: 43.31 vol % hydrogen gas, 11.88 vol % carbon monoxide, 8.86 vol % ethylene, 7.10 vol % propylene, and 4.50 vol % methane (Figure 3b and Table S5). Plastic wastes yielded 37.07 vol % hydrogen gas, 16.58 vol % ethylene, 14.89 vol % methane, 8.99 vol % 1-butene, 5.85 vol % propylene, and 4.61 vol % carbon monoxide (Figure 3c and Table S5). Silk wastes yielded 40.68 vol % hydrogen gas, 35.43 vol % carbon monoxide, 2.14 vol % methane, and 0.83 vol % ethylene (Figure 3d and Table S5). The GC–MS results demonstrate that CFMP is an effective way to convert white wastes into useful fuel gases.

After each trial, residual carbon from the CFMP reaction was deposited on the carbon foam (Figure 3e–g). The residual carbon takes the form of barbs, grafted on the surface of the carbon foam (Figure 3f,g and Figure S21e). These barbs should improve the foam's ability to induce plasma discharge on the nitrogen gas by acting as a concentrator of the electric field (Figure 3e). If the graphitic carbon needles and the carbon foam are kept at the same potential, then the difference in the “radius” between the carbon foam and the needle causes a much larger external field outside the needle. This phenomenon is commonly applied in electron microscopy, where high electric fields are generated according to the following relation

$$\frac{E_{\text{tip}}}{E_0} \approx \left(\frac{a}{r}\right)^{1/2} \quad (4)$$

While the increase in efficiency has not been directly measured, these fundamental arguments based on the effects of a needle-like geometry would likely suggest that an increased efficiency of CFMP would occur over time.^{38,39}

This self-perpetuating behavior is in direct contrast to traditional catalysts, which tend to deteriorate or oxidize over time,¹⁸ reducing the reliance on expensive metals and increasing the economic incentive to adopt this system for recycling white waste. The effectiveness of CFMP should not be limited to the white wastes tested in this work. Because CFMP has shown to generate localized temperatures exceeding 3000 K, difficult-to-recycle wastes such as polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE), keratin-based wastes such as hair, and collagen-based products like leather should also be possible. For example, TGA analysis has shown that PTFE decomposes once heated to 650 °C, with a heating rate of 25 °C min⁻¹, producing fluorocarbons, CO₂, and trace amounts of HF and hydrocarbons.^{40,41} This indicates that CFMP could be a possible solution to processing PTFE waste products; however, quantifying the decomposition rate and

byproduct yields for PTFE is quite involved and would require a future study. Keratin and collagen have slightly higher decomposition temperatures compared to fibroin and sericin proteins found in silk, and a comparison of decomposition temperatures for various proteins and materials is included in Table S13.

In conclusion, a miniaturized, versatile method for recycling white wastes has been proposed and developed using a carbon foam-based microwave plasma reactor, which can be driven by intermittent renewable electricity. The CFMP process was studied and monitored with GC–MS, an *in situ* optical probe, and IR sensors. Initial experiments demonstrate the capability of CFMP to process white wastes into useful industrial reagents, with hydrogen gas yield of up to 43 vol %. Additionally, the CFMP process can be used as a feeder for the Fischer–Tropsch process to convert white wastes into hydrocarbons such as ethanol, diesel, and natural gases. The formation of graphitic carbon and plasma discharge constitute a self-perpetuating chain reaction. CFMP's usage of cheap materials and its ability to process multiple plastics at once address major issues inherent in both chemical and mechanical recycling.

METHODS

Preparation of Carbon Foams. Carbon foams were obtained from melamine foam by a high-temperature calcination at 900 °C for 2 h with a heating rate of 3 °C min⁻¹ in nitrogen.

Treatment of White Wastes. Battery separator wastes were obtained from cycled coin cells in our lab. The Celgard lithium-ion battery separator films consisted of 25 μm trilayer polypropylene-polyethylene-polypropylene membranes. Plastic and silk wastes were from abandoned bottles (polypropylene) and fabrics (silk fabric). White wastes were put on carbon foam in a sealed container (Figure 4). Then, the sealed container with nitrogen was put into microwave oven (Figure 2a). These white wastes were treated on the carbon foam with a microwave plasma reactor at different length scales and power outputs. The microwave oven was operated at a microwave frequency of 2.45 GHz and a maximum output of 1100 W (Panasonic, NN-SU696S).

Materials Characterization. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and scanning transmission electron microscopy (STEM) were performed on a Zeiss Merlin high-resolution SEM. Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed on a NETZSCH STA 409 PC TGA-DSC instrument under a N₂ atmosphere at a heating rate of 10 °C min⁻¹ from 30 to 900 °C. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was carried out on a JEOL 2010F model. Compression experiments were carried out on a dynamic mechanical analysis (DMA) Q850 model (TA Instruments, New Castle, DE) with a loading speed of 0.5 mm min⁻¹ at room temperature, and 3 samples were tested in total for repeatability. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis was performed on a PerkinElmer PHI 550 spectrometer with Al K α radiation (1486.6 eV) as the X-ray source. Gamma irradiation measurements were conducted on a Gammacell Irradiator (220 Excel self-shielded high dose rate gamma ray). The N₂ adsorption/desorption tests were performed by Brunauer–Emmett–Teller (BET) measurements on an ASAP-2010 surface area analyzer. Pore size distribution (PSD) was derived from the adsorption branch of the isotherm by the Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) method. The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were recorded on a Bruker-AXS D8 DISCOVER. Room temperature Raman spectroscopy was conducted with a Jobin Yvon HR800 confocal Raman system

with a 632.8 nm diode-laser excitation on a 300 S mm⁻¹ line grating. *In situ* light spectrum data was recorded on an FX2000-EX type fiber optic spectrometer. Gas composition was analyzed with a refinery gas analyzer (HP Agilent 7890 A) by the ASTM D1945-14 method. H₂, CO, CO₂, N₂, and O₂ were analyzed on the thermal conductivity detector (TCD) channels. Hydrocarbons were analyzed on the flame-ionization detector (FID) channel. The response factor was obtained using a refinery gas analysis calibration gas standard for quantitative analysis.

Simulation. All parts made in SolidWorks 2020 were treated as solid bodies and included the following materials from the software's database: glass (for the beaker), copolymer (for the plastic/mask sample), and plain carbon steel (for the microwave enclosure). Two custom materials were implemented: ceramic insulation based on FiberFax and carbon foam. Further improvement of the thermal analysis, from a materials selection perspective, could be made with more exact thermal properties for the carbon foam. However, besides convection from the outside of the microwave to the ambient region, radiation is assumed to be the main mechanism for heat transfer. Therefore, according to eq 3, temperature and exposed areas are the driving factors for this analysis. Further information such as the part shapes, material properties, mesh information, and thermal loads are summarized in Table S6–S12.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.est.0c06977>.

(Video S1) Carbon foam demonstrating sufficient mechanical properties (MP4)

(Video S2) Local high temperature recorded by an *in situ* infrared sensor (MP4)

(Video S3) Ceramic fiber blankets used to insulate the CFMP system (MP4)

(Video S4) Initial experiment at 110 W with a reaction time of 8 s (MP4)

(Video S5) Initial experiment at 220 W with a reaction time of 8 s (MP4)

(Video S6) Initial experiment at 330 W with a reaction time of 8 s (MP4)

(Video S7) Experiment at 330 W with a reaction time of 4 s (MP4)

(Video S8) Experiment at 330 W with a reaction time of 12 s (MP4)

(Figures S1–S23 and Tables S1–S15) Additional information, characterization, analysis results, and images of the battery waste separator (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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Supporting Information

Self-perpetuating Carbon-foam Microwave Plasma Conversion of Hydrocarbon Wastes into Useful Fuels and Chemicals

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(44 Pages, 23 Figures, and 15 Tables)



Figure S1. The digital images of (a) silk waste and (b) batteries separator waste. The treatment process of wastes: (c) incineration and (d) utilization.

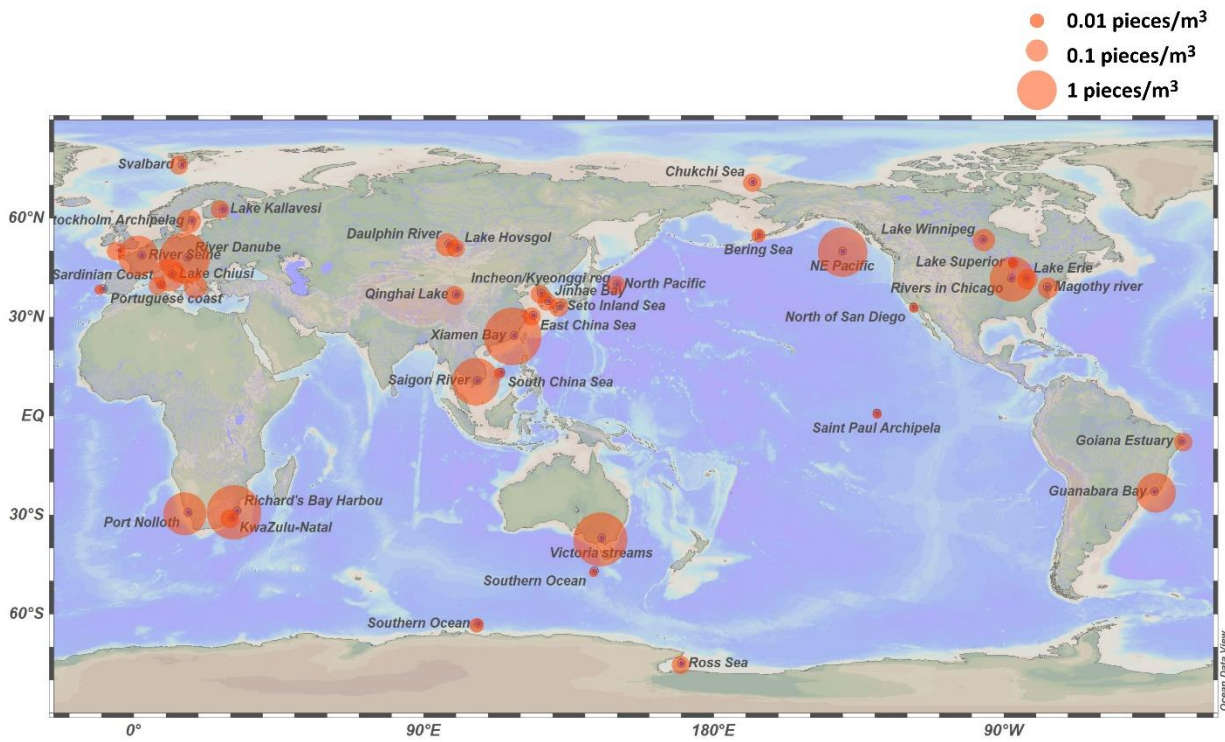


Figure S2. Abundances of microplastics from marine environments, including lakes, rivers, seas, and oceans.

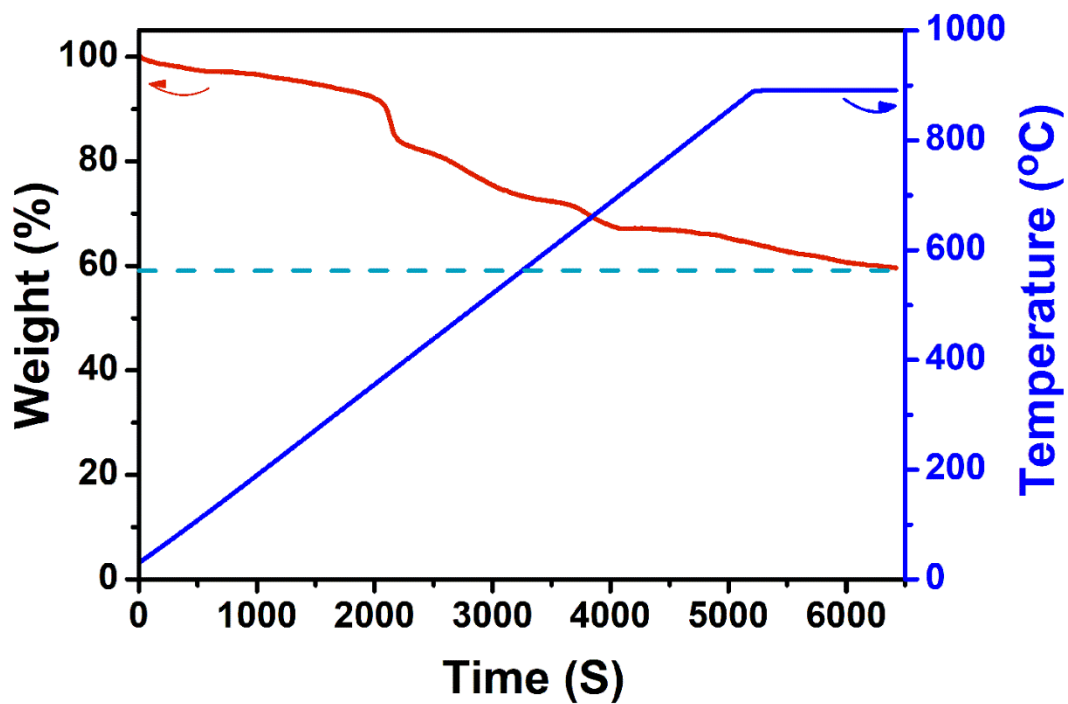


Figure S3. Thermal gravimetric (TG) curves of the carbon foam made by the pyrolysis of melamine foam under an inert atmosphere.

Thermal gravimetric (TG) analysis was conducted on a TG-DSC instrument (NETZSCH STA 409 PC) under a N_2 atmosphere at a heating rate of $10\text{ }^\circ\text{C min}^{-1}$ from 30 to 900 $^\circ\text{C}$. After the constant temperature treatment at 900 $^\circ\text{C}$, the weight curve stabilizes, with a yield up to 60%.

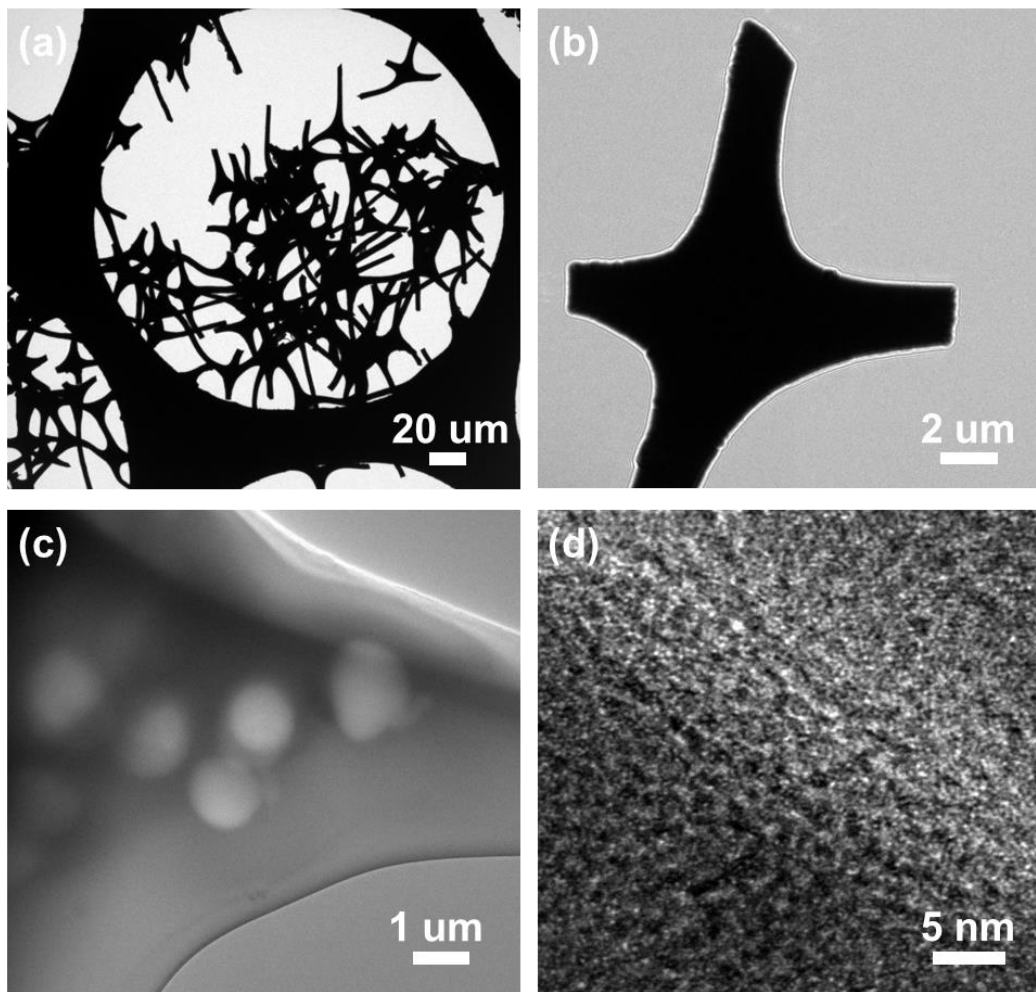


Figure S4. (a-c) Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) and (d) high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images of the carbon foam.

TEM images presented the structure of the carbon foam (**Figure S4a, b**). Macropores on the surface of carbon foam (**Figure S4c**) are from the decomposition of melamine and additional micropores and mesopores are observed under high resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) (**Figure S4d**).

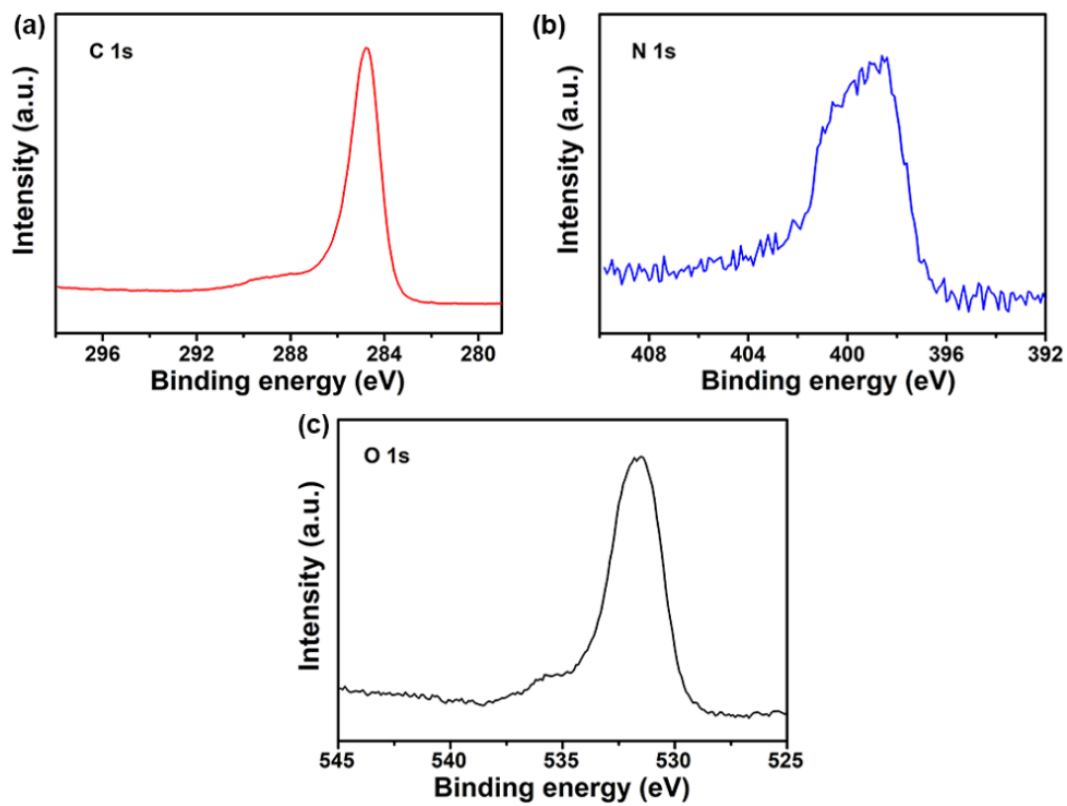


Figure S5. (a) C 1s, (b) N 1s, and (c) O 1s X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra for the carbon foam.

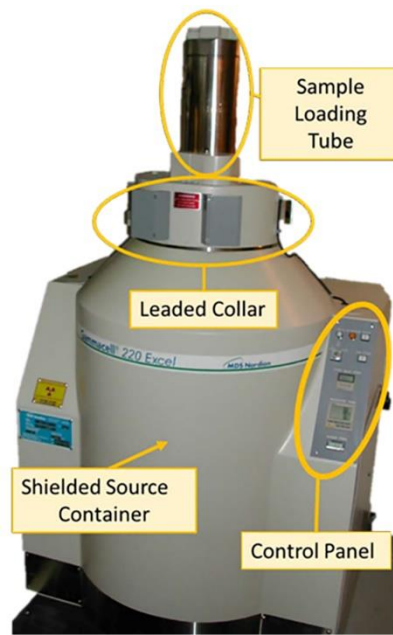


Figure S6. The image of Gammacell Irradiator (220 Excel self-shielded high dose rate gamma ray) in MIT. Gamma and microwaves are both forms of electromagnetic waves, albeit gamma rays have much shorter frequencies and higher energies associated with them. Therefore, gamma rays can serve as a stress test on the carbon foam to estimate its resistance to radiation.

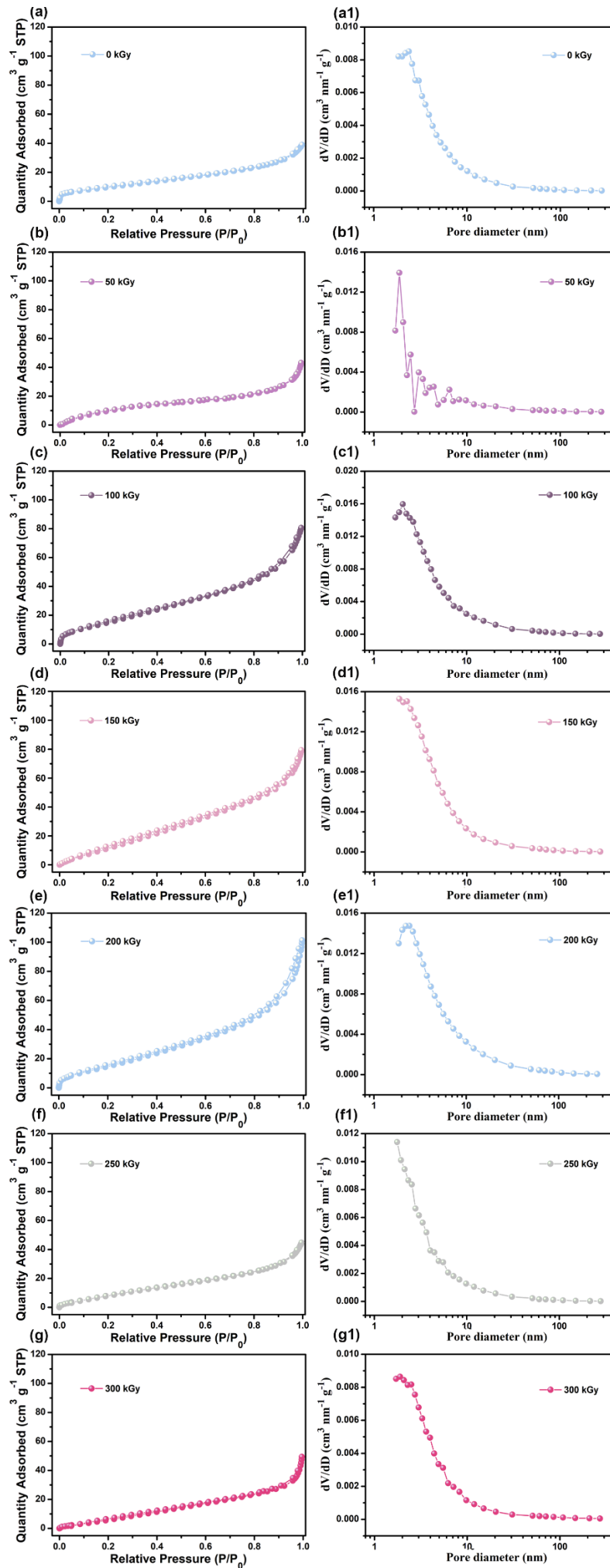


Figure S7. N₂ adsorption/desorption isotherms at 77 K and Pore size distribution (PSD) curves of the carbon foam irradiated at different kGy doses: (a, a1) 0, (b, b1) 50, (c, c1) 100, (d, d1) 150, (e, e1) 200, (f, f1) 250, (g, g1) 300 does. PSD was calculated using the Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) method.

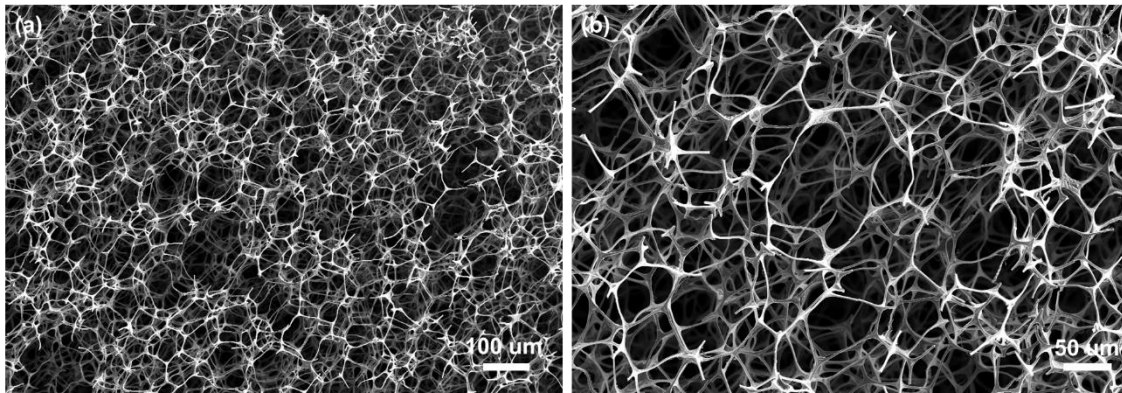


Figure S8. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image of the carbon foam irradiated at 50 kGy doses.

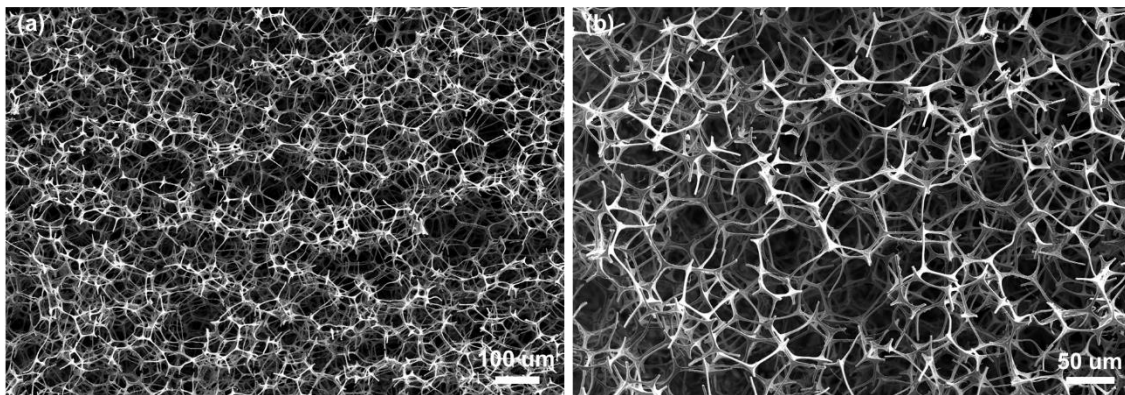


Figure S9. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image of the carbon foam irradiated at 100 kGy doses.

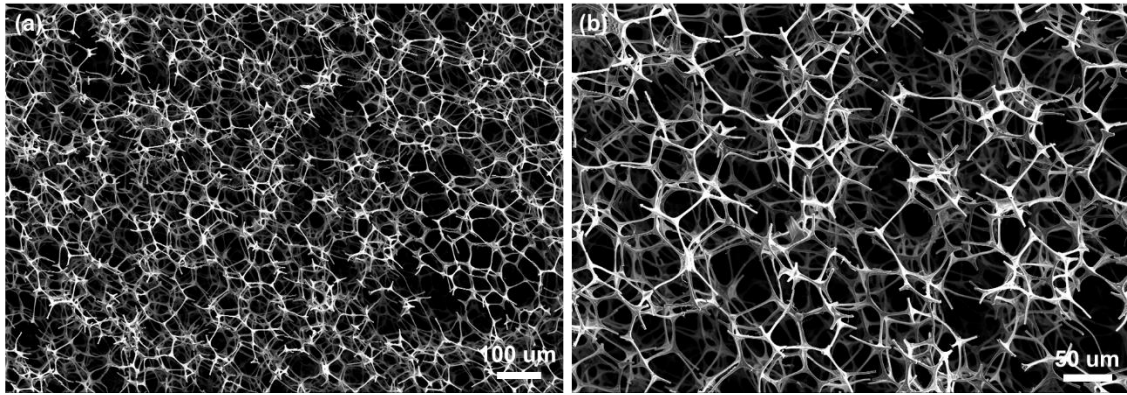


Figure S10. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image of the carbon foam irradiated at 150 kGy doses.

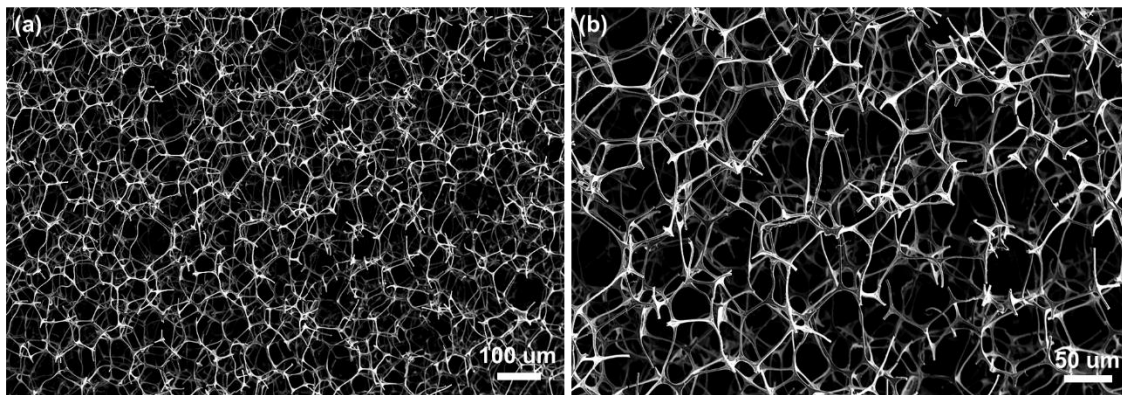


Figure S11. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image of the carbon foam irradiated at 200 kGy doses.

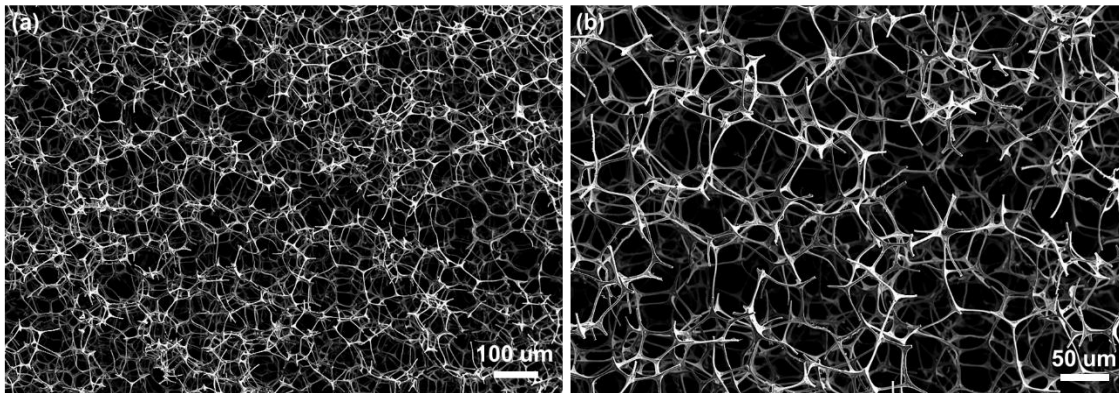


Figure S12. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image of the carbon foam irradiated at 250 kGy doses.

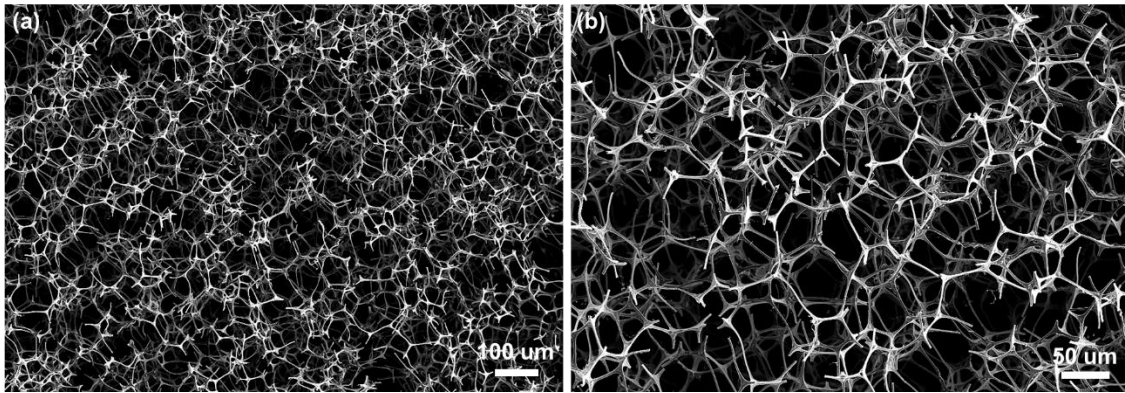


Figure S13. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image of the carbon foam irradiated at 300 kGy doses.

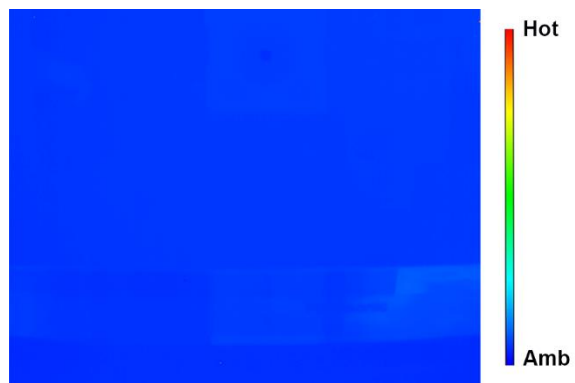


Figure S14. Thermal images of the microwave plasma reactor. Prior to running the process, thermal images were measured with an infrared camera.

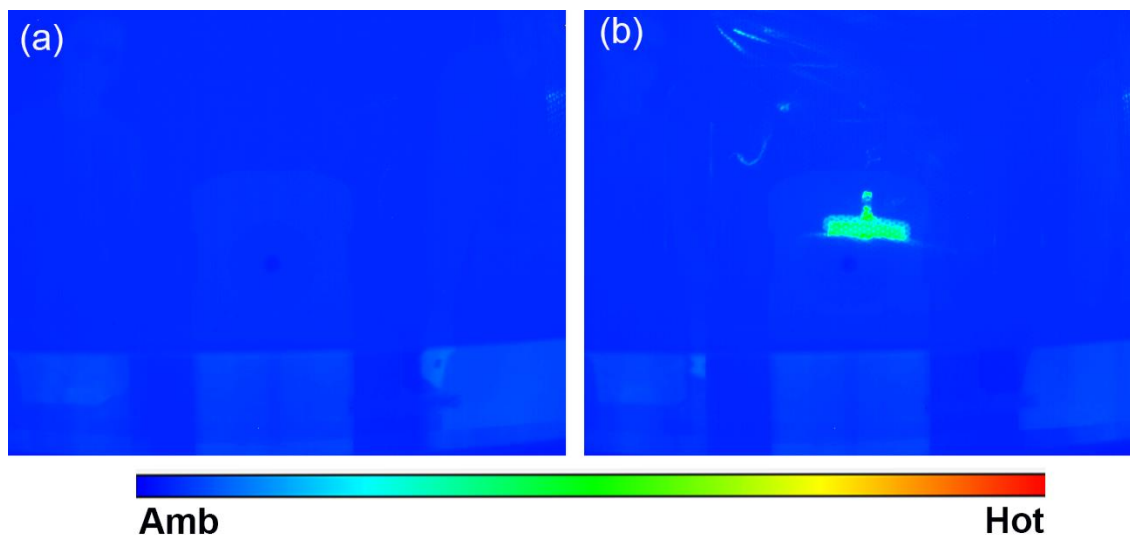


Figure S15. Thermal images of the microwave plasma reactor at (a) 0 s, and (b) a few seconds after irradiation. Transient temperature changes are shown in **Video S3**. To clearly show that the sample heats up quickly once the plasma is ignited, we removed some ceramic fiber blankets and exposed the center part of the carbon foam (**Video S2**). The linear color scale represents the ambient and hot temperature.

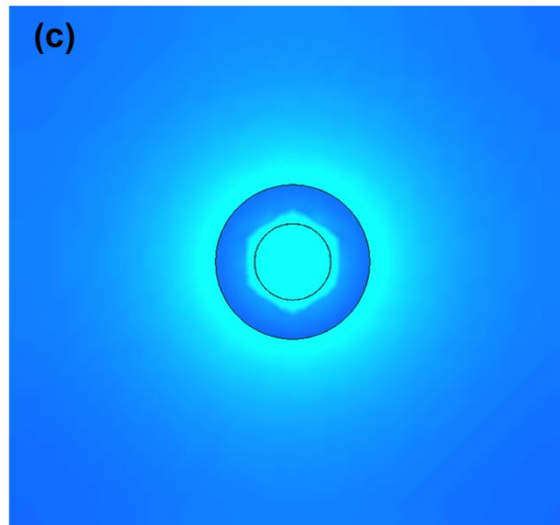
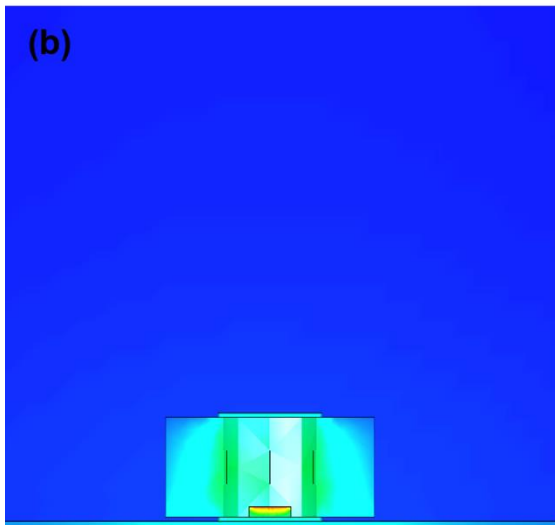
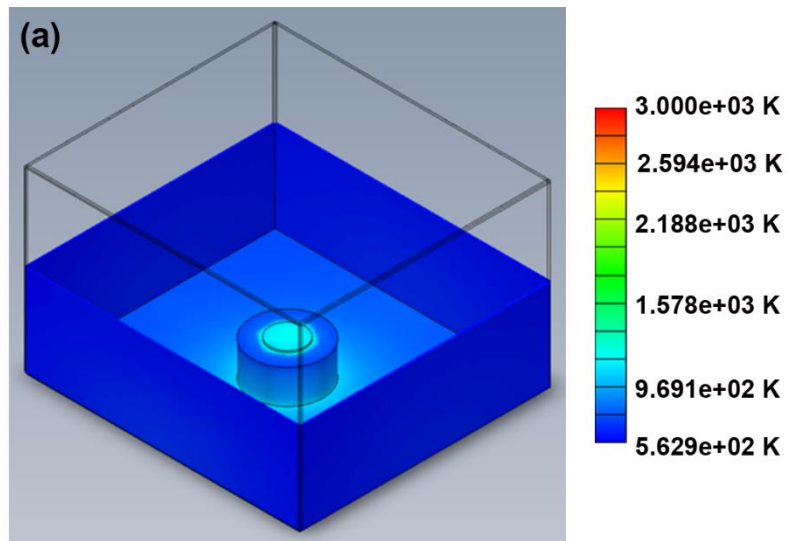


Figure S16. (a) 45 degree profile, (b) side profile, (c) top down view of steady state thermal analysis done in SolidWorks.

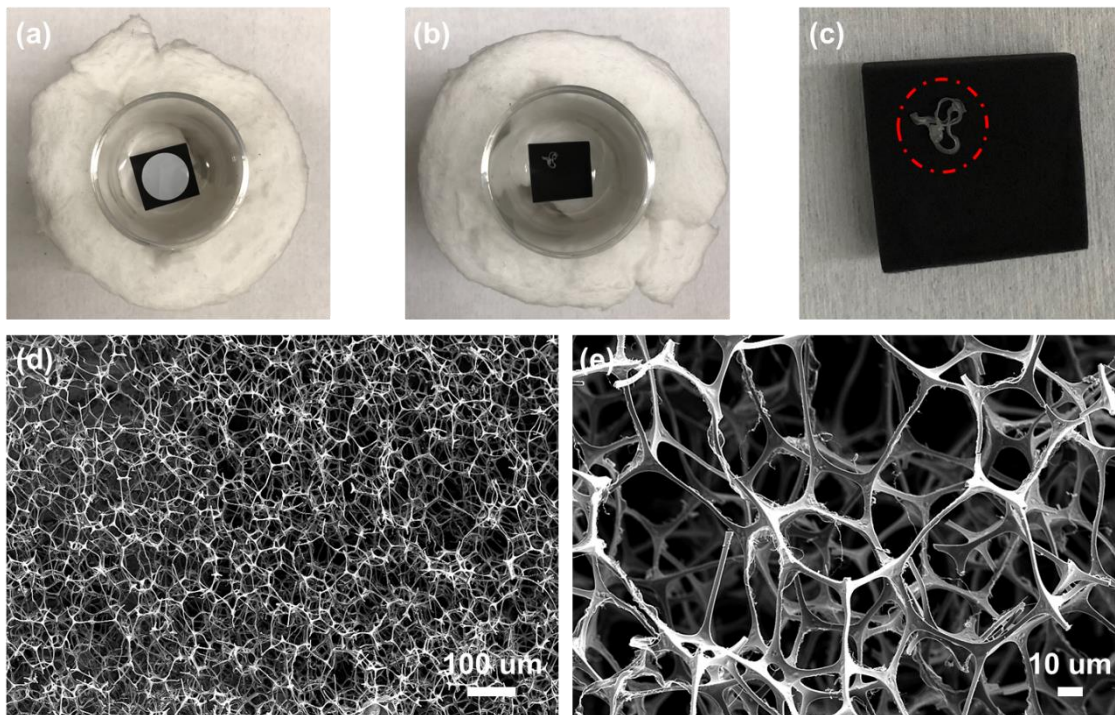


Figure S17. Images of battery separator waste on the carbon foam (a) before and (b, c) after the microwave irradiation with 110 W for 8 s. (d, e) Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of the carbon foam with battery separator waste after 110 W and 8 s. The dynamic process was recorded in **Video S4**.

As shown in the SEM result (**Figure S17e**), carbon particles are deposited on the surface of the carbon foam.

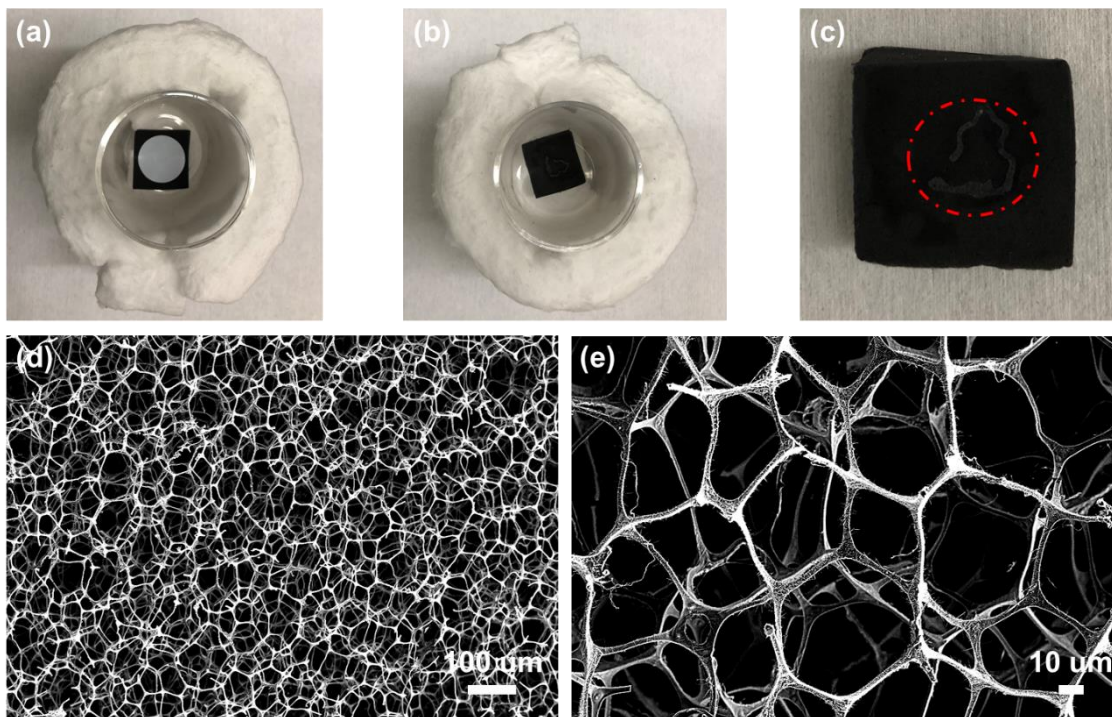


Figure S18. Images of battery separator waste on the carbon foam (a) before and (b, c) after the microwave irradiation with 220 W for 8 s. (d, e) Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of the carbon foam with battery separator waste after 220 W and 8 s. The dynamic process was recorded in **Video S5**.

As shown in the SEM result (**Figure S18e**), carbon particles and few thorn-like carbons are deposited on the carbon foam.

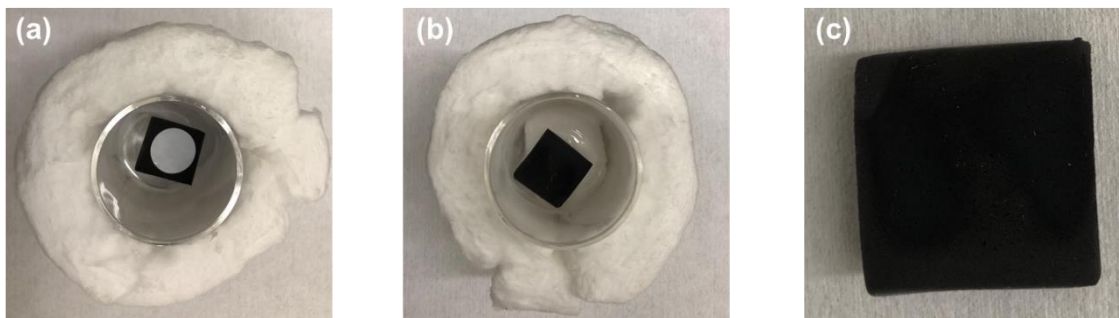


Figure S19. Images of battery separator waste on the carbon foam (a) before and (b, c) after the microwave irradiation at 330 W for 8 s. The dynamic process was recorded in **Video S6**.

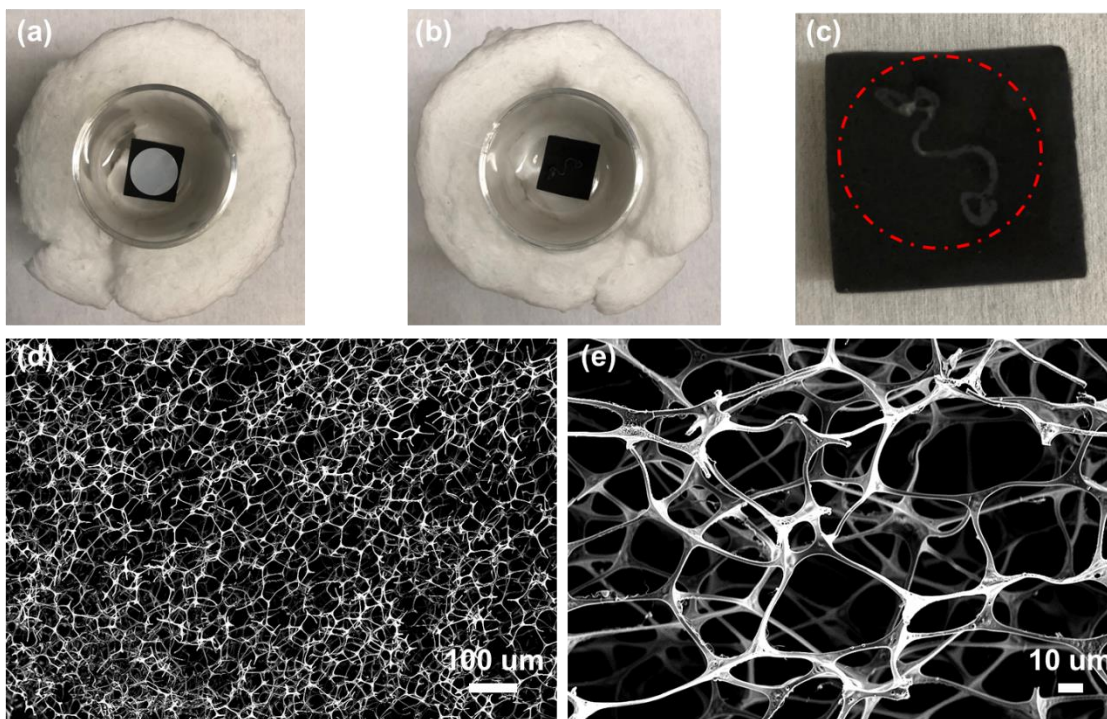


Figure S20. Images of battery separator waste on the carbon foam (a) before and (b, c) after the microwave irradiation at 330 W for 4 s. (d, e) Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of the carbon foam with batteries separator waste after 330 W and 4 s. The dynamic process was recorded in **Video S7**.

As shown in the SEM result (**Figure S20e**), carbon particles are deposited on the surface of the carbon foam.

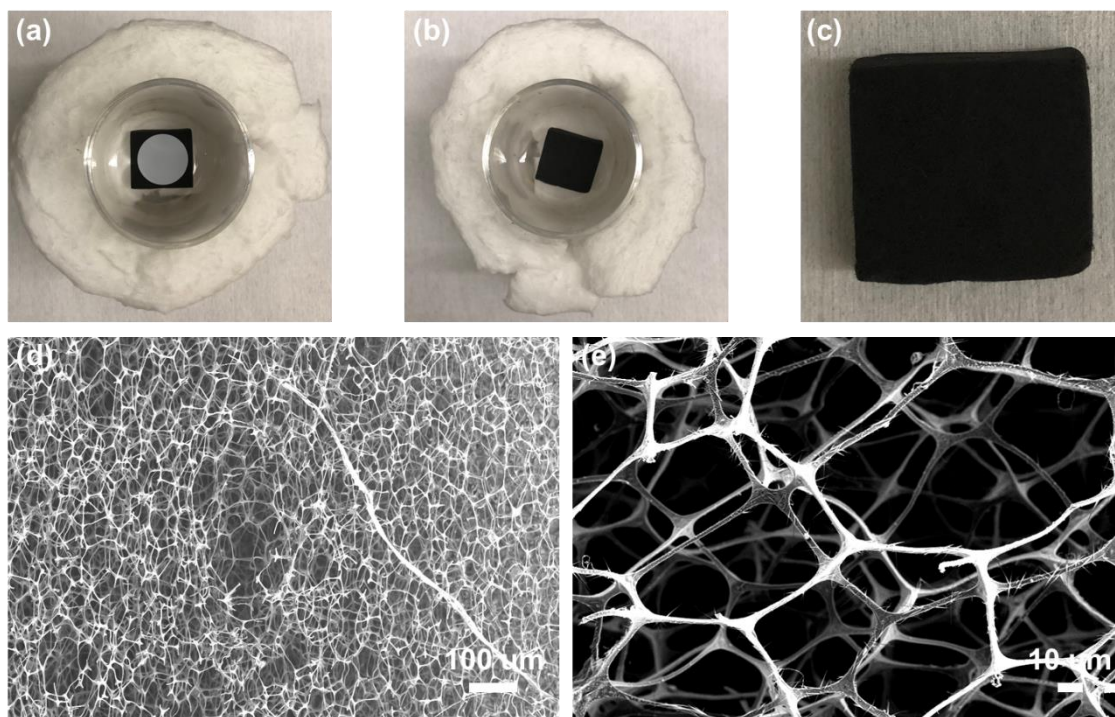


Figure S21. Images of battery separator waste on the carbon foam (a) before and (b, c) after the microwave irradiation at 330 W for 12 s. (d, e) Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images of the carbon foam with batteries separator waste after 330 W and 12 s. The dynamic process was recorded in **Video S8**.

Many carbon atoms were grafted on the surface of the carbon foam (**Figure S21e**) forming barbs similar to the experimental conditions of 330W, 8s (**Figure 3g**).

Table S1. Abundances (pieces/m³) of microplastics in surface waters worldwide, including lakes, rivers, seas and oceans.

Location	Mean Abundance	Reference
Lake Superior	0.037	1
Lake Erie	0.66	2
Lake Hovsgol	0.12	3
River Seine	30	4
River Danube	320	5
Rivers in Chicago	6	6
Magothy river	0.75	7
Lake Chiusi	3.36	8
Daulphin River	1.23	9
Qinghai Lake	0.36	10
Lake Kallavesi	0.27	11
Goiana Estuary	0.26	12
Victoria streams	400	13
KwaZulu-Natal	0.27	14
Saigon River	223	15
Guanabara Bay	11.5	16
Stockholm Archipelago, Baltic Sea	1.37	17
Xiamen Bay	500	18
Richard's Bay Harbor	413	18
Port Nolloth	100	18
NE Pacific	279	19
Strait of Georgia	3210	20
Seto Inland Sea	0.39	21
Svalbard	0.34	22
Saint Paul Archipelago	0.01	23
North of San Diego	0.016	24
Western English Channel	0.27	25
Incheon/Kyeonggi region	0.19	26
Jinhae Bay	0.182	27
Sardinian Coast	0.15	28
Chukchi Sea	0.23	29
Bering Sea	0.097	29
Southern Ocean	0.1	30
Portuguese coast	0.028	31
East China Sea	0.167	32

Note: All the results have been in pieces/m³.

Table S2. Literature review of other waste and greenhouse gas recycling methods utilizing microwaves, with or without catalyst-assisted plasma discharge.

Process	Catalyst	Duration	Byproduct	Ref
Microwave Dehydrogenation for Plastic Wastes	FeAlO _x	30-90 s	H ₂ + MWCNT	33
Cold-Plasma Vegetable Oil Cracking	Tungsten	40 minutes	Hexadecane	34
Microwave-Assisted Dry Reforming (MADR) for CH ₄ and CO ₂	Char	~2 hours	Syngas	35
MADR for CH ₄ and CO ₂	Activated Carbon	300 minutes	H ₂ + CO	36
Microwave Discharge	Carbon Coated Aluminum Oxide Fibers	40 s	Ethylene, Propylene, H ₂ , CO, CH ₄ , C, hydrocarbons C ₂ H ₄ O ₂ , C ₃ H ₄ O, CO,	37
Microwave Pyrolysis of Baby Diapers	Activated Carbon	15 minutes	H ₂ O, C ₃ H ₆ O ₃ , esters, alkanes, and alkenes	38

Table S3. BET surface area, pore volume, and pore size of the carbon foam irradiated at different kGy doses (0, 50, 100, 150, 200, 250, 300 does).

Samples	BET Surface Area (m ² g ⁻¹)	Pore Volume (cm ³ g ⁻¹)	Pore Size (nm)
Carbon Foam (0 kGy)	36.3160	0.055634	6.1463
Carbon Foam (50 kGy)	53.8853	0.053073	7.2974
Carbon Foam (100 kGy)	60.5879	0.117556	6.4004
Carbon Foam (150 kGy)	65.9787	0.111444	6.4686
Carbon Foam (200 kGy)	59.7078	0.146889	7.8720
Carbon Foam (250 kGy)	36.7745	0.062815	6.2607
Carbon Foam (300 kGy)	29.6457	0.070289	6.9696

Table S4. The peaks in Figure 3b correspond to the transitions between the different electronic levels in carbon and nitrogen.

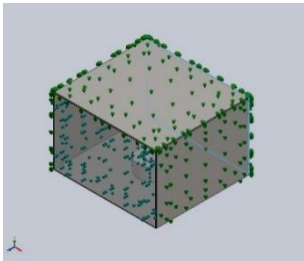
Species	Observed Wavelength Vac (nm)	Ritz Wavelength Vac (nm)	Transition
C II	357.92	358.1757	$2s2p(^3P^{\circ})3p \rightarrow 2s2p(^3P^{\circ})4s$
N II	387.00	386.4318	$2s^22p4p \rightarrow 2s2p^2(^4P)3p$
C III	416.62	416.624	$1s^22s6p \rightarrow 1s^22p(^2P^{\circ})4p$
N II	568.86	568.621	$2s^22p3s \rightarrow 2s^22p3p$
N II	589.78	589.725	$2s2p^2(^4P)3s \rightarrow 2s2p^2(^4P)3p$
N I	670.32	670.4839	$2s^22p^2(^3P)3p \rightarrow 2s^22p^2(^3P)4d$
N II	697.55	697.563	$2s^22p3d \rightarrow 2s^22p4p$
N II	713.82	713.885	$2s^22p3d \rightarrow 2s^22p4p$
N I	732.01	731.8975	$2s^22p^2(^3P)3p \rightarrow 2s^22p^2(^3P)4d$
N I	748.78	748.5178	$2s^22p^2(^3P)3p \rightarrow 2s^22p^2(^3P)4d$
C I	767.48	768.51859	$2s^22p3p \rightarrow 2s^22p5s$
N I	770.36	770.351	$2s^22p^2(^3P)4p \rightarrow 2s^22p^2(^1D)3d$
N I	792.43	791.5419	$2s^22p^2(^1D)3s \rightarrow 2s^22p^2(^1D)3p$

Table S5. The obtained gas composition (vol%) of plastic waste, battery separator waste, and silk waste with the CFMP.

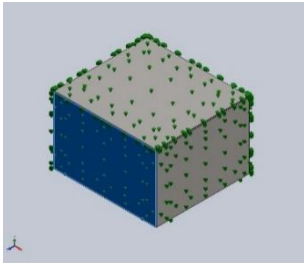
Gas Species	Battery Separator Waste	Plastic Waste	Silk Waste
Hydrogen	43.30882	37.07398	40.67658
Carbon monoxide	11.88212	4.607007	35.42888
Carbon dioxide	15.7511	6.073512	18.82553
Methane	4.501022	14.89458	2.144618
Ethane	1.113465	1.446896	0.085508
Ethylene	8.860401	16.57897	0.828444
Dimethylmethane	0.792818	0.402366	0.050127
Propylene	7.097109	5.852195	0.21332
Acetylene	1.891893	1.948783	0.34637
1-Butene	0.56338	8.98748	0
2-methylpropene	1.815152	0.036823	0.015636
1,3-Butadiene	0.140719	0.051066	0.005481
Others	2.281995	2.046342	1.379507

Table S6. Model information.

Document Name and Reference	Treated As	Volumetric Properties
Boss-Extrude1	Solid Body	Mass:0.00965097 kg Volume:3.92699e-06 m ³ Density:2457.6 kg/m ³ Weight:0.0945795 N
Boss-Extrude1	Solid Body	Mass:0.0181593 kg Volume:7.38903e-06 m ³ Density:2457.6 kg/m ³ Weight:0.177961 N
Boss-Extrude1	Solid Body	Mass:0.000384 kg Volume:2e-06 m ³ Density:192 kg/m ³ Weight:0.0037632 N
Boss-Extrude1	Solid Body	Mass:7.8638e-06 kg Volume:8.83573e-09 m ³ Density:890 kg/m ³ Weight:7.70652e-05 N
Boss-Extrude1	Solid Body	Mass:0.0369663 kg Volume:0.000288799 m ³ Density:128 kg/m ³ Weight:0.36227 N
Boss-Extrude1	Solid Body	Mass:0.00965097 kg Volume:3.92699e-06 m ³ Density:2457.6 kg/m ³ Weight:0.0945795 N
Boss-Extrude1	Solid Body	Mass:2.25225 kg Volume:0.00028875 m ³ Density:7800 kg/m ³ Weight:22.0721 N



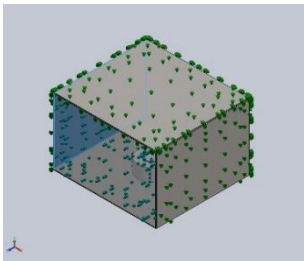
Boss-Extrude1



Solid Body

Mass:0.473088 kg
Volume:0.0001925 m³
Density:2457.6 kg/m³
Weight:4.63626 N

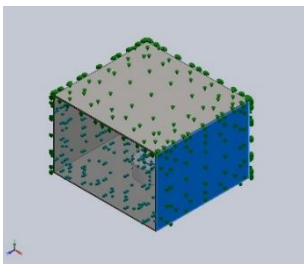
Boss-Extrude1



Solid Body

Mass:2.0475 kg
Volume:0.0002625 m³
Density:7800 kg/m³
Weight:20.0655 N

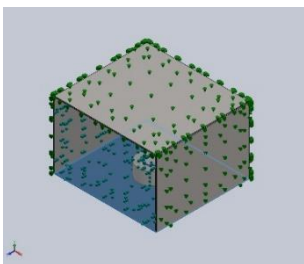
Boss-Extrude1



Solid Body

Mass:2.0475 kg
Volume:0.0002625 m³
Density:7800 kg/m³
Weight:20.0655 N

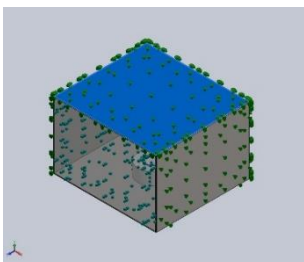
Boss-Extrude1



Solid Body

Mass:3.15315 kg
Volume:0.00040425 m³
Density:7800 kg/m³
Weight:30.9009 N

Boss-Extrude1



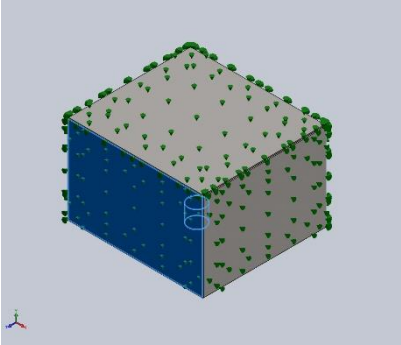
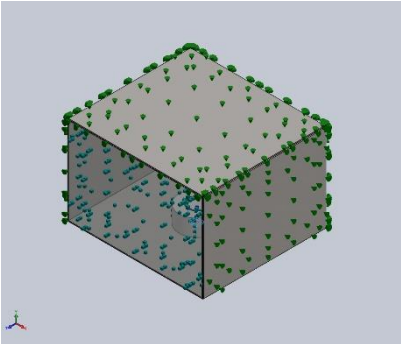
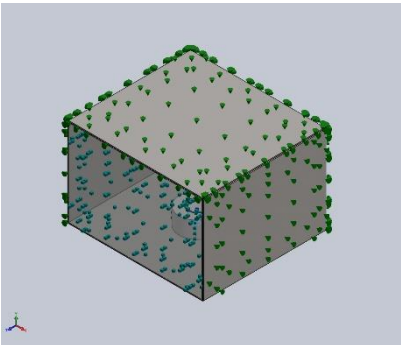
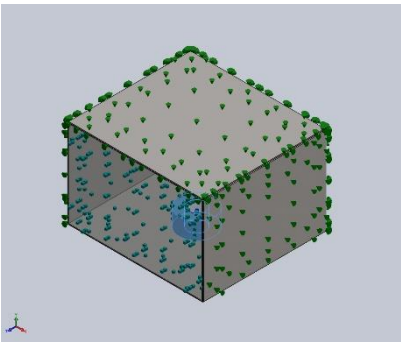
Solid Body

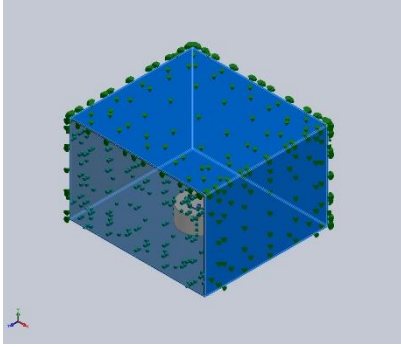
Mass:3.15315 kg
Volume:0.00040425 m³
Density:7800 kg/m³
Weight:30.9009 N

Table S7. Study properties.

Study name	Thermal SteadyState
Analysis type	Thermal(Steady state)
Mesh type	Solid Mesh
Solver type	FFEPlus
Solution type	Steady state
Contact resistance defined?	No

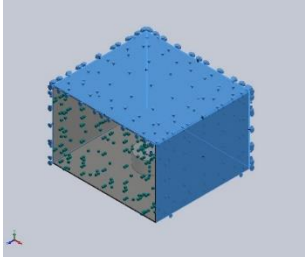
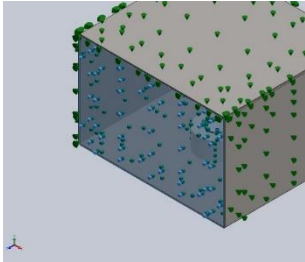
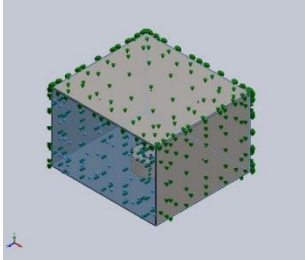
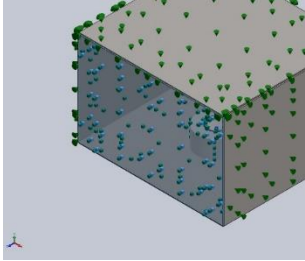
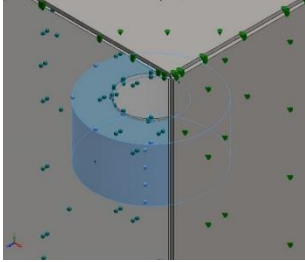
Table S8. Material properties.

Model Reference	Properties	
	Name:	Glass
	Model type:	Linear Elastic Isotropic
	Thermal conductivity:	0.74976 W m ⁻¹ K ⁻¹
	Specific heat:	834.61 J kg ⁻¹ K ⁻¹
	Mass density:	2457.6 kg m ⁻³
	Name:	CarbonFoam
	Model type:	Linear Elastic Isotropic
	Thermal conductivity:	0.1 W m ⁻¹ K ⁻¹
	Specific heat:	1200 J kg ⁻¹ K ⁻¹
	Mass density:	192 kg m ⁻³
	Name:	PP Copolymer
	Model type:	Linear Elastic Isotropic
	Thermal conductivity:	0.147 W m ⁻¹ K ⁻¹
	Specific heat:	1881 J kg ⁻¹ K ⁻¹
	Mass density:	890 kg m ⁻³
	Name:	FiberFax
	Model type:	Linear Elastic Isotropic
	Thermal conductivity:	0.22 W m ⁻¹ K ⁻¹
	Specific heat:	1140 J kg ⁻¹ K ⁻¹
	Mass density:	128 kg m ⁻³



Name:	Plain Carbon Steel
Model type:	Linear Elastic Isotropic
Thermal conductivity:	$43 \text{ W m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$
Specific heat:	$440 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$
Mass density:	7800 kg m^{-3}

Table S9. Thermal loads.

Load Name	Load Image	Load Details
Convection-1		Entities: 16 face(s) Convection: 10 W (m ⁻²) Coefficient: K ⁻¹) Time variation: Off Temperature variation: Off Bulk Ambient Temperature: 300 K Time variation: Off
Radiation-1		Entities: 1 face(s) Radiation: Surface to ambient Type: ambient Ambient Temperature: 300 K Emissivity: 1 View Factor: 1
Radiation-2		Entities: 5 face(s) Radiation: Surface to surface Type: surface Open system: Off Emissivity: 0.4
Radiation-3		Entities: 1 face(s) Radiation: Surface to surface Type: surface Open system: Off Emissivity: 1
Radiation-4		Entities: 2 face(s) Radiation: Surface to surface Type: surface Open system: Off Emissivity: 0.6

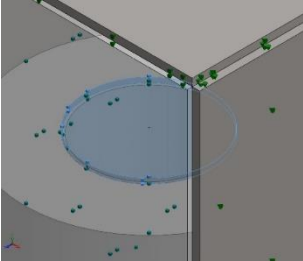
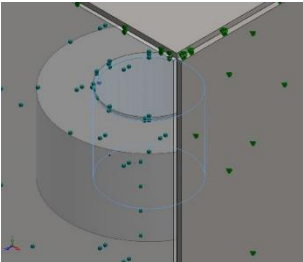
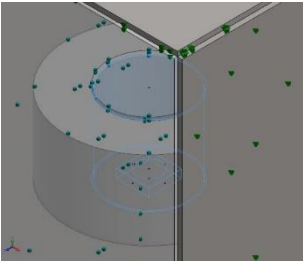
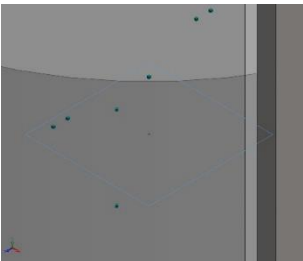
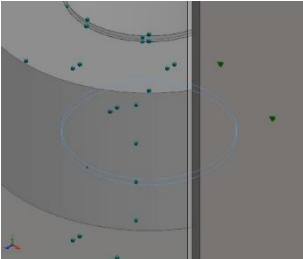
Radiation-5		<p>Entities: 2 face(s) Radiation Type: Surface to surface Open system: Off Emissivity: 0.95</p>
Radiation-6		<p>Entities: 2 face(s) Radiation Type: Surface to surface Open system: Off Emissivity: 0.95</p>
Radiation-7		<p>Entities: 9 face(s) Radiation Type: Surface to surface Open system: Off Emissivity: 1</p>
Temperature-1		<p>Entities: 1 face(s) Temperature: 3000 K</p>
Radiation-8		<p>Entities: 1 face(s) Radiation Type: Surface to surface Open system: Off Emissivity: 0.95</p>

Table S10. Contact information.

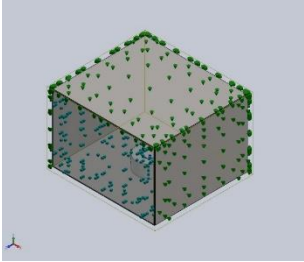
Contact	Contact Image	Contact Properties
Global Contact	 A 3D visualization of a global contact region on a cube mesh. The cube is shown in a perspective view, with a green mesh on the top and side surfaces and a blue mesh on the bottom surface. The contact region is highlighted with green dots on the top and side surfaces.	Type: Bonded Components: 1 component(s) Options: Compatible mesh

Table S11. Mesh information.

Mesh type	Solid Mesh
Mesher Used:	Standard mesh
Automatic Transition:	Off
Include Mesh Auto Loops:	On
Jacobian points	4 Points
Element Size	14.9067 mm
Tolerance	0.384 mm
Mesh Quality Plot	High
Remesh failed parts with incompatible mesh	Off
Total Nodes	53778
Total Elements	29472
Maximum Aspect Ratio	1492.5
% of elements with Aspect Ratio < 3	8.19
% of elements with Aspect Ratio > 10	18.2
% of distorted elements(Jacobian)	0
Time to complete mesh(hh:mm:ss):	00:00:13

Table S12. Mesh control information.

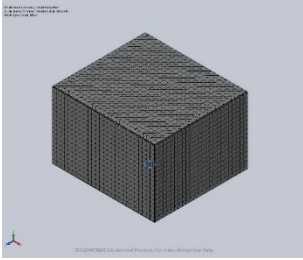
Mesh Control Name	Mesh Control Image	Mesh Control Details
Control-1		Entities: 5 face(s) Units: mm Size: 2 Ratio: 1.5

Table S13. Decomposition temperatures of various organic proteins and PTFE. All concentrations are in weight percent. *From this work.

Material	Decomposition Temperature	Decomposition Products	Ref
PTFE	~400-650 °C	CF ₂ , HF, CF ₄ , COF ₂ , C ₆ H ₆	39
Keratin	287-400 °C	C ₆ H ₆ O, C ₇ H ₈ O, Sulfides, Thiols, Nitriles	40
Collagen	300-420 °C	C ₂ H ₅ NO ₃ , C ₆ H ₅ CH ₃ , C ₆ H ₄ (CH ₃) ₂ , C ₆ H ₅ -C ₂ H ₆ , C ₅ H ₇ N, C ₇ H ₁₂ , C ₆ H ₆ , SO ₂ , and more	41, 42
Fibroin	300-400 °C	H ₂ , CO, CH ₄ , C ₂ H ₄ *	43
Sericin	220-400 °C	H ₂ , CO, CH ₄ , C ₂ H ₄ *	43

What **Table S13** shows is that similar success should be expected in recycling PTFE, keratin, and collagen-based materials, due to their similar decomposition temperatures.

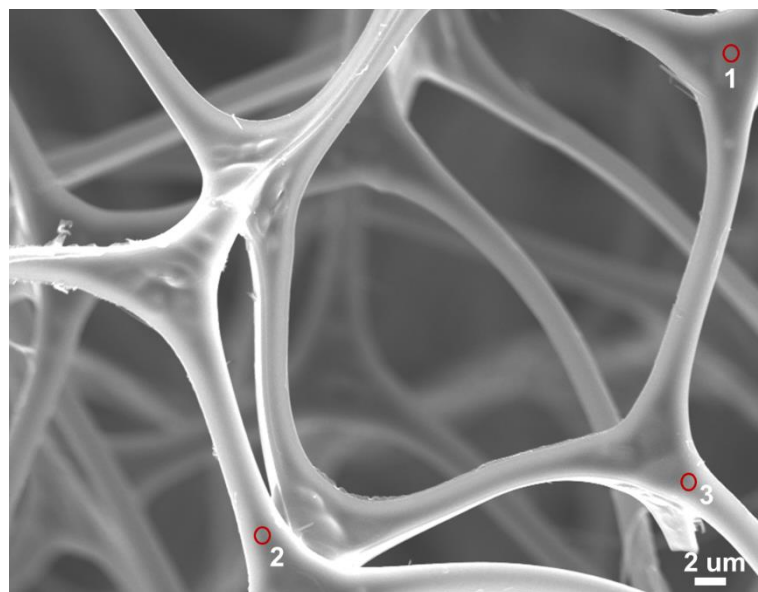


Figure S22. SEM image of carbon foam.

Table S14. Composition of carbon foam in Figure S22. The amounts of C, N, O (wt. %) are estimated from energy dispersive spectrometry (EDS).

Spots	C	N	O
1	62.47	26.38	11.15
2	77.01	15.08	7.91
3	71.91	20.68	7.41

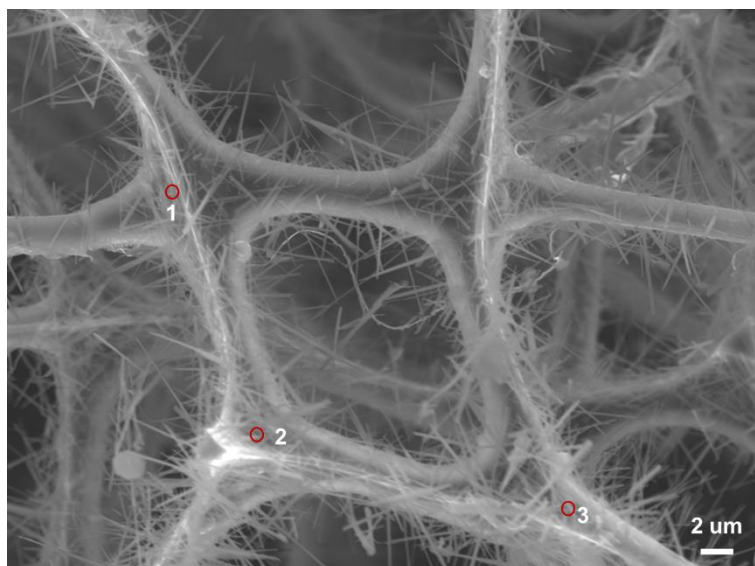


Figure S23. SEM image of carbon foam with batteries separator waste after 330 W and 8s.

Table S15. Composition of carbon foam with batteries separator waste after 330 W and 8s in Figure S23. The amounts of C, N, O (wt. %) are estimated from EDS.

Spots	C	N	O
1	44.52	17.97	37.52
2	47.02	25.19	27.79
3	45.03	23.96	31.01

The average nitrogen content of carbon foam was increased from $20.71\% \pm 4.61\%$ (Table S14) to $22.37\% \pm 3.15\%$ (Table S15) after the CFMP process by EDS. However, after testing the mean shift using a Student's T-test, a t-statistic of 0.42, and p-value of 0.696 was calculated, indicating that no significant change in nitrogen content within the foam occurred.

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