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# Engineering Solutions for CO<sub>2</sub> Conversion

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# 1

## CO<sub>2</sub> Capture - A Brief Review of Technologies and Its Integration

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### 1.1 Introduction: The Role of Carbon Capture

The Intergovernmental Panel for Climate Change (IPCC) recently released the special report on 1.5C [[1](#)] and pointed out the need to implement all available tools to cut down CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Energy efficiency, fuel switching, renewables, and carbon capture represent the largest impact on CO<sub>2</sub> emission reduction in power and industrial sectors. Carbon capture represents a contribution of 23% in the “Beyond 2 degrees scenario” (B2DS) modeled by the International Energy Agency (IEA)<sup>[1](#)</sup> and has other interesting characteristics that increase its value beyond its cost: (i) easiness to retrofit current power plants or industrial facilities,<sup>[2](#)</sup> (ii) simplicity to integrate that in the electricity grid and offer an interesting tool to cover the intermittency of renewables, (iii) ideal to cut down

industrial process emissions that otherwise cannot suffer deep reductions, and (iv) current carbon budgets rely on negative emissions to compensate the use of fossil fuels [1]. Carbon capture combined with bioenergy (BECCS) can provide negative emissions at large scale in an immediate future.

CO<sub>2</sub> capture (also called CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration or carbon capture) involves a group of technologies aiming to separate CO<sub>2</sub> from other compounds released during the production of energy or industrial products, obtaining a CO<sub>2</sub>-rich gas that can be stored or used for the obtention of valuable products. The main classification of CO<sub>2</sub> capture technologies relies on where in the process the CO<sub>2</sub> separation occurs. For the power sector, it can be divided into pre-, oxy-, and post-combustion. For the industrial sector, the classification is similar, although their integration would be different. In addition, other new arrangements are emerging.

## **1.2 CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Technologies**

### **1.2.1 Status of CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Deployment**

GCCSI reported in 2018 23 large-scale CCS facilities in operation or under construction globally, summing up 37 MtCO<sub>2</sub> per year. This wide range of facilities shows the versatility of CO<sub>2</sub> capture processes.<sup>3</sup>

In the power sector, the United States is leading the implementation deployment, although Europe has the highest CO<sub>2</sub> capture capacity. The Boundary Dam project (Canada) and Petra Nova (USA) are pioneers in reaching commercial scale. Moreover, based on the successful results of the Boundary Dam project, a CO<sub>2</sub> capture facility

has been planned for the Shand power facility (Canada), incorporating not only learnings from the Boundary Dam but also enhanced thermal integration and tailored design. The results show a significant cost reduction [2]. Also in Canada, the Quest project completes the list of Canadian CCS projects in operation [3] and The National Energy Laboratory (NET) power project recently appeared in the United States as a potential significant reduction on CO<sub>2</sub> capture costs [4].

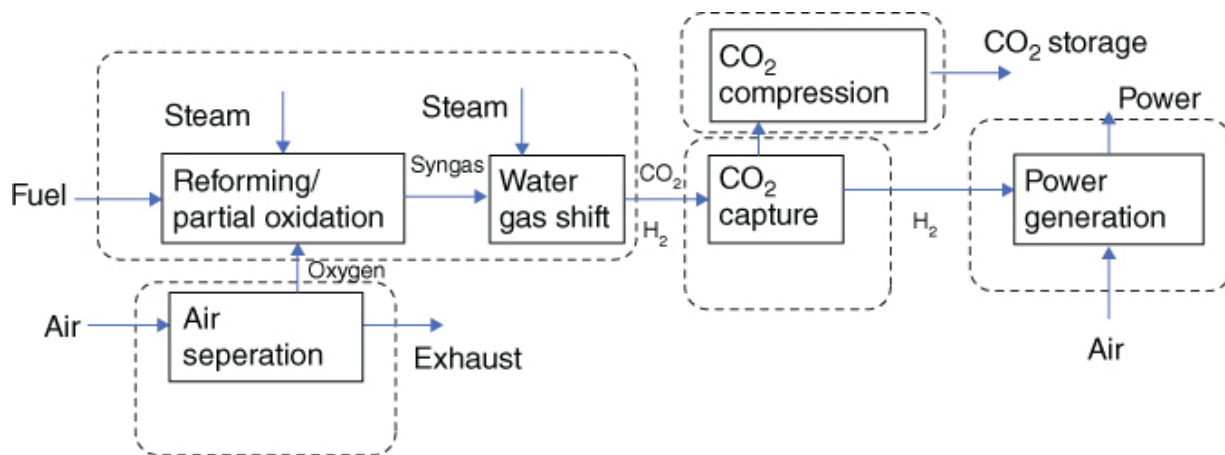
In the industrial sector, cement, steel, refining, chemicals, heavy oil, hydrogen, waste-to-energy, fertilizers, and natural gas have been identified by the Carbon Sequestration Leadership Forum (CSLF; <https://www.cslforum.org>) as the main intensive emitter industries. As it is highlighted, the Norcem Brevik plant [5, 6], LEILAC [7] (cement production), and Al Redayah (steel production) are on the way to start running carbon capture systems in industrial facilities at pilot and large scales.

### **1.2.2 Pre-combustion**

Pre-combustion systems can be applied to natural gas combined cycles (NGCC) or integrated gasification combined cycle (IGCC) (Figure 1.1), where a syngas, comprising mainly CO and H<sub>2</sub>, feeds a gas turbine (GT) combined cycle system to produce electricity. The potential advantages are higher conversion efficiencies of coal to electricity and cheaper removal of pollutants [8]. The syngas, based on the water shift reaction, can be converted into CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O. This mixture is typically separated with physical solvents (as described in Section 1.2.4), membranes, or sorbents. However, hybrid technologies can also be used. Depending on the technology, further post-treatment would be needed to avoid degradation and loss of efficiency.

The main theoretical advantage of pre-combustion is the production of hydrogen, which will add value to the business model, and a lower energy penalty compared to using the traditional chemical absorption within a post-combustion configuration. However, large projects demonstrated that this difference is only 1–2%, as reported by National Energy Technology Laboratory (NETL) [9].

The most notable pre-combustion project was the Kemper County IGCC plant in the United States, which stopped its operation in 2017. This demonstration facility would place this arrangement at high TRL, while other testing campaigns would reach up to a TRL of 6.



**Figure 1.1** Diagram of pre-combustion capture for power generation in IGCC.

Source: Adapted from Jansen et al. [72].

### 1.2.3 Oxyfuel

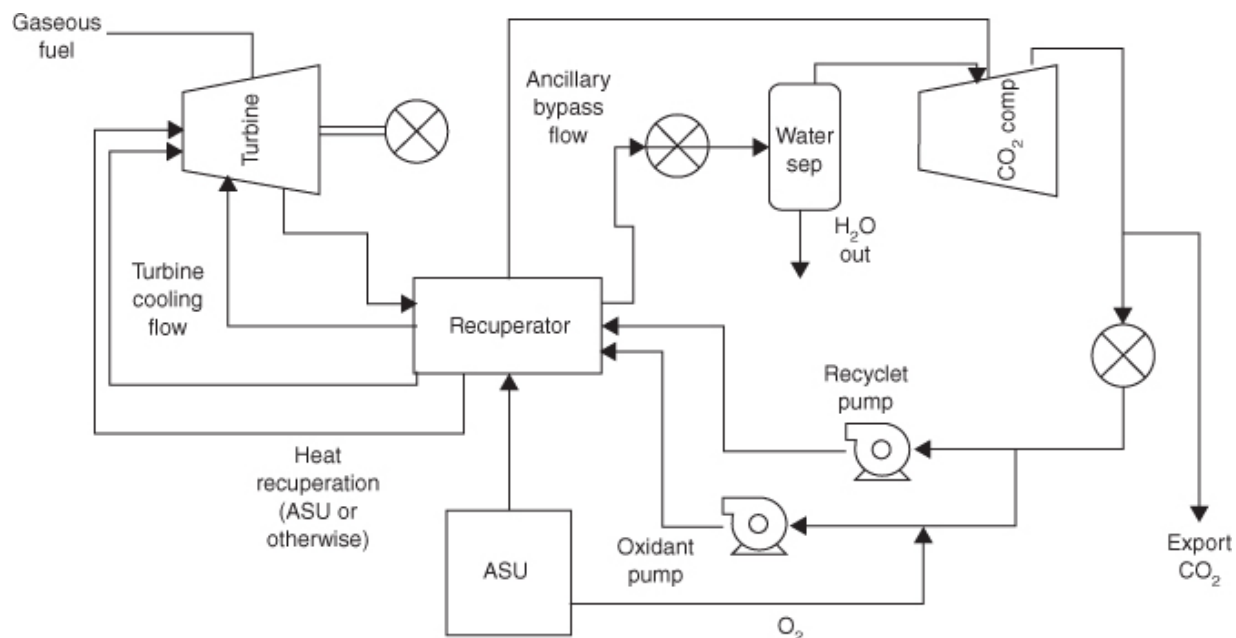
In the oxyfuel process, the air is split into nitrogen and oxygen, generally using an air separation unit (ASU), for the combustion of fuel with nearly pure oxygen. The consequence is a higher flame temperature and a highly concentrated CO<sub>2</sub> stream (60–75%, wet and might contain impurities and incondensable components) that can be further purified to meet the final use specifications. The

CO<sub>2</sub>-rich gas is typically recirculated to manage the unstable flame and its high temperature. Nowadays, the progress on oxyfuel combustion is focused on the reduction of air separation costs and the enhancement of process configuration to reduce capture costs. Further information can be found, for example, in Ref. [10]. Based on the current progress, the most advanced arrangements can be assessed as TRL 7.

An advanced oxyfuel process, called the Allam cycle ([Figure 1.2](#)), is being tested at large scale as part of the NET Power project in the United States [4]. This involves oxyfuel combustion and a high-pressure supercritical CO<sub>2</sub> working fluid in a highly recuperated Brayton cycle, aiming to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> capture costs and prove stable operation. Based on that, there is a potential to progress to a TRL of 7 once the facility is fully operational.

#### **1.2.4 Post-combustion**

Post-combustion refers to the group of technologies able to separate CO<sub>2</sub> from the flue gas emitted during the fuel combustion and/or other reactions in the industrial sector. This indicates that those systems are mainly installed as additional equipment downstream in new plants or during the retrofitting of the existing facilities. The latter represents the main advantage of post-combustion technologies compared to pre- or oxy-combustion, as a fundamental redesign or complex integration with the existing facilities would be minimal.



**Figure 1.2** Process schematic of a simplified commercial scale natural gas Allam cycle.

Source: Adapted from Allam et al. [4].

### 1.2.4.1 Adsorption

Adsorption refers to the uptake of CO<sub>2</sub> molecules onto the surface of another material. Based on the nature of interactions, adsorption can be classified into two types: (i) physical adsorption and (ii) chemical adsorption. In physical adsorption, the molecules are physisorbed because of physical forces (dipole-dipole, electrostatic, apolar, hydrophobic associations, or van der Waals) and the bond energy is 8–41 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup>, while in chemical adsorption, the molecules are chemisorbed (chemical bond; covalent, ionic, or metallic) and the bond energy is about 60–418 kcal mol<sup>-1</sup> [11].

A theoretical advantage of adsorption against other processes is that the regeneration energy should be lower compared to absorption because the heat capacity of a solid sorbent is lower than that of aqueous solvents. However, other parameters, such as working capacity and