Conventional Exergetic and Exergoeconomic Analyses of a Power Plant with Chemical Looping Combustion for CO2 Capture*

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Abstract

Exergy-based methods can be used as a tool for examining, comparing and assessing thermodynamic systems. In this paper, an exergoeconomic analysis is used to evaluate a power plant with chemical looping combustion (CLC) for CO2 capture. This oxy-fuel plant is compared, from an exergetic and an economic perspective, to a conventional, reference power plant without CO2 capture. The exergetic analysis shows decreased exergy destruction in the CLC reactors, compared to the exergy destruction in the conventional combustion chamber of the reference case; thus, the irreversibilities caused by combustion in the CLC are reduced. However, due to the addition of the CO2 compression unit, the overall exergetic efficiency of the plant with CLC is lower than that of the reference plant by approximately 5 percentage points. The economic analysis confirms a significant increase in the investment cost of the CO2 capture plant, due to the addition of the units for CO2 compression and CLC. Thus, the cost of electricity is 24% higher for this plant in comparison to that of the reference case. Nevertheless, when compared to the reference plant with CO2 capture with monoethanolamine, the plant with CLC was found to be a more economical option. Since CO2 abatement must be realized in the future, given expected environmental or tax measures, CLC provides relatively low cost carbon dioxide capture and it, therefore, appears to be a promising option for reducing greenhouse gases emitted by power plants using fossil fuels.

Keywords: CO2 capture, chemical looping combustion, exergetic analysis, exergoeconomic analysis.

1. Introduction

The mitigation of environmental pollution through CO2 capture in power stations is an area that drew intense attention from a large group of scientists a little more than two decades ago (Herzog, 2001). Although several possible methods for capturing CO2 have been developed in such a short time (Kakaras et al., 2005), few appear promising with respect to efficiency and cost.

In this paper, a combined cycle power plant that performs CO2 capture using chemical looping combustion (CLC), is compared to a 411 MW power plant without CO2 capture (reference plant). Previous studies (Hossain and de Lasa, 2008; Rubin and Rao, 2002) show that CLC has the potential to become an efficient and relatively economical technology for capturing produced CO2 from power plants. The idea was first introduced in 1954 as a way to produce pure CO2 from fossil fuels, using two interconnected fluidized-bed reactors (Lewis and Gilliland, 1954). In 1968, it was proposed by Knoche and Richter as an option for reducing irreversibilities in combustion processes (Knoche and Richter, 1968, 1983) and, in the 1990s, it was recognized as a way to capture CO2 emitted through fossil fuel use to reduce the climate impact (Ishida and Jin, 1994). CLC has been identified as having inherent advantages for carbon dioxide separation with relatively low thermodynamic inefficiencies (Lewis and Gilliland, 1954; Brandvoll and Bolland, 2004).

To evaluate the operation and feasibility of CLC technology for CO2 capture, exergy-based methods were applied in this study. The advantages of an exergetic analysis over a conventional energy analysis are well established (Bejan et al., 1996; Moran and Shapiro, 2000; Tsatsaronis and Cziesla, 2004-2007). Moreover, an economic analysis has been conducted to analyze the total cost of construction, operation and maintenance associated with the power plant.

The exergoeconomic analysis, an appropriate combination of an exergetic analysis with an economic analysis (Tsatsaronis et al., 1991; Bejan et al., 1996; Tsatsaronis, 1999; Tsatsaronis and Cziesla, 2002), can be considered as an exergy-aided cost reduction approach. In the exergoeconomic analysis, the principle of exergy costing is used to assign monetary costs to all energy streams, as well as to the exergy destruction incurred within each component of a plant. Important information about the trade-offs between exergy destruction and the investment cost of components can then be used for iterative design improvements of the plant.

The purpose of this paper is to present and evaluate the results of a detailed exergoeconomic analysis of a plant capturing CO2 with CLC, as compared to the performance of a conventional plant, referred to as the reference plant. This paper is part of a study analyzing different concepts of CO2 capture from energy conversion systems exclusively generating electricity (Petrakopoulou et al., 2009a – 2009d, 2010).

2. Methodology

2.1 Exergetic analysis

The exergetic analysis is conducted with a system of balance equations, stated at the component-level, and a general equation for the overall system. The exergy of the
product can be defined as the exergy of the desired output resulting from the operation of a component, while the exergy of the fuel is the expense in exergetic resources for the generation of this desired output. The exergy destruction within a component is then calculated as the difference between the exergy of the fuel and the exergy of the product \( (\dot{E}_{D,k} = \dot{E}_{F,k} - \dot{E}_{P,k}) \).

In dissipative components, such as condensers, intercoolers and throttling valves, exergy is destroyed without any useful product in the component itself; thus, no exergetic purpose for these components can be defined (Bejan et al., 1996; Lazzaretto and Tsatsaronis, 2006). The essential role of these components is to serve other components, or the overall system.

For the component-level analysis, all streams exiting a component are considered either as part of the product, or they are used in the definition of the component’s fuel. Thereafter, exergy loss \( (\dot{E}_{L,\text{tot}}) \) is defined only for the overall system.

The exergetic efficiencies of the \( k^{th} \) component and of the overall system consisting of NC-components are defined by Eqs. (1a) and (1b), respectively:

\[
\eta = \frac{\dot{E}_{P,k}}{\dot{E}_{F,k}} = 1 - \frac{\dot{E}_{D,k}}{\dot{E}_{F,k}} \quad (1a)
\]

\[
\eta_{\text{tot}} = \frac{\dot{E}_{P,\text{tot}}}{\dot{E}_{F,\text{tot}}} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \dot{E}_{D,i} + \dot{E}_{L,\text{tot}}}{\dot{E}_{F,\text{tot}}} \quad (1b)
\]

Here the system’s exergy of the product \( (\dot{E}_{P,\text{tot}}) \) is the net power produced, whereas the system’s exergy of the fuel \( (\dot{E}_{F,\text{tot}}) \) is the sum of the fuel and the air exergy provided to the plant. General guidelines for the definition of exergetic efficiencies have been proposed by Lazzaretto and Tsatsaronis (2006).

A useful variable of the exergetic analysis is the exergy destruction ratio defined by Eq. (2):

\[
y_{D,k} = \frac{\dot{E}_{D,k}}{\dot{E}_{F,k}} \quad (2)
\]

This ratio is a measure of the contribution of the exergy destruction within each component to the reduction of the overall exergetic efficiency.

With the aid of an exergetic analysis, the main sources of irreversibilities within a plant are identified and are then linked to costs in the exergoeconomic evaluation.

### 2.2 Economic Analysis

For the economic analysis, the total revenue requirement (TRR) method has been implemented (Bejan et al., 1996). The first step of the analysis is to calculate the fixed capital investment (FCI) of the plant (Tsatsaronis and Winhold, 1984; Tsatsaronis et al., 1990; U.S. Department of Energy, 2000; Gas Turbine World Handbook, 2006).

Costs are then escalated to the reference year 2008 using the chemical engineering plant cost index (CEPCI) as published in Chemical Engineering Magazine.

The next step that allows the implementation of the TRR method is to meet assumptions concerning market conditions, plant operation and plant construction. To estimate the total capital investment (TCI) of a project, the total expenses of the construction and the overall operation of the plant must be assessed. The economic life of the plant is assumed to be 20 years, while its life for tax purposes is 15 years. The date of commercial operation of the plant is set to 01.01.2012 with a two year period of design and construction preceding. The average capacity factor of the plant is assumed to be 85%, resulting in an annual operation of 7446 hours. The total capital requirement (TCR) of the plant comes from equity and debt financing with a 10% average annual rate of the cost of money. Lastly, all costs, except that of the fuel, increase annually with an inflation rate of 3%; the cost of natural gas is assumed to be 7€ per GJ of lower heating value (LHV: 50.015 MJ/kg) and its average annual increase amounts to 4%.

With these assumptions the levelized TRR is calculated for a levelization period of 10 years. After completion of the economic analysis, the exergy costing procedure and an exergoeconomic evaluation follow.

### 2.3 Exergoeconomic Analysis

In an exergoeconomic analysis a specific cost \( c \) is assigned to each exergy stream of the plant. The specific cost of stream \( i \), \( c_i \), multiplied by the exergy of the same stream, \( \dot{E}_i \), calculated in the preceding exergetic analysis, provides the cost rate \( \dot{C}_i \), associated with the \( k^{th} \) exergy stream:

\[
\dot{C}_i = c_i \dot{E}_i \quad (3)
\]

The cost balance for the \( k^{th} \) component is

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \dot{C}_{i,k} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \dot{C}_{j,k} + \dot{Z}_k = 0 \quad (4)
\]

where,

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \dot{C}_{i,k} \text{ is the sum of the cost rates associated with the } n \text{ streams entering component } k,
\]

\[
\sum_{j=1}^{m} \dot{C}_{j,k} \text{ is the sum of the cost rates associated with the } m \text{ streams leaving component } k, \text{ and}
\]

\( \dot{Z}_k \) is the cost rate associated with the investment cost and the operating and maintenance costs of component \( k \). \( \dot{Z}_k \) is known from the preceding economic analysis.

An important variable of the exergoeconomic evaluation is the relative cost difference. For a given component \( k \), the difference between the specific cost of the product, \( c_{P,k} \), and the specific cost of the fuel, \( c_{F,k} \), depends on the cost of exergy destruction, \( \dot{C}_{D,k} \), and the investment-based cost \( \dot{Z}_k \). The relative cost difference, \( r_i \), is defined by

\[
r_i = \frac{c_{P,k} - c_{F,k}}{c_{F,k}} \quad (5)
\]

The contribution of the capital cost to the total sum of costs associated with capital investment and exergy
destruction is expressed by the exergoeconomic factor $f_k$ that is defined by Eq. (6):

$$f_k = \frac{Z_k}{Z_k + C_{D,k}}$$ (6)

The relationship between the monetary impact of each component’s exergy destruction and investment is then examined. If necessary, design changes to improve the cost effectiveness of the plant are proposed. The objective is to reduce the cost associated with a unit of the product of the overall plant.

3. The plants
3.1 The reference plant

The reference plant, which includes no CO₂ capture and is used as a basis for the evaluation of the plant including CLC, is a combined cycle with a three-pressure-level heat recovery steam generator (HRSG) and one reheat stage. The plant has only one product – electricity – and works with natural gas that was assumed here to be pure methane. The specific CO₂ emissions of the plant are 339 g/kWh. A simplified diagram of the process is shown in Figure 1.

3.2 Chemical looping combustion (CLC)

The process including CLC is a combined cycle with close to 100% CO₂ capture. The fuel mass flow is the same as in the reference case. However, the net power output of the plant (375 MW) is lower by almost 9%, due to the additional CO₂ treatment. The process includes two HRSGs and its main configuration is similar to that of the reference case. The main HRSG has three pressure levels and one reheat stage, whereas the second one is a one-pressure-level HRSG. No cooling of the gas turbine (GT) was taken into account, because of the lower inlet temperature in comparison to the cooled expander of the reference case. A diagram of the process is shown in Figure 2.

In this plant, the compressed air and the preheated methane at 300°C are sent to the CLC unit (black box). The two streams exiting the CLC unit are the combustion products, consisting of CO₂ and water vapor, and the oxygen depleted air, consisting of 15% v/v O₂. The oxygen depleted air, that replaces the flue gas of the conventional combustion chamber of the reference case, exits the GT at 659 kg/sec and is led to the main HRSG of the plant. The high-pressure steam produced in this cycle has a mass flow of 659 kg/sec and is led to the secondary HRSG, the CO₂-rich gas is cooled down further in a flue gas condenser to 30°C, in order to condense a large part of the included water vapor. The almost pure CO₂ (94% v/v) is then compressed in four intercooled stages with similar pressure ratios to a final pressure of 103 bar. Carbon dioxide at that pressure and 30°C is in liquid phase and is ready for transport and sequestration. This CO₂ compression itself, without inclusion of the intermediate coolers, causes an approximately 2 percentage point decrease in the overall efficiency of the plant.

In previous publications, CLC has been examined using natural gas (Abad et al., 2006, 2007; Bohlhár-Nordenkampf et al., 2008; Brandvoll and Bolland, 2004; Kolbitsch et al., 2008; Lyngfelt and Thunnman, 2005; Naqvi and Bolland, 2007), synthetic gas (Abad et al., 2006, 2007; Jin and Ishida, 2004; Klara, 2007) or hydrogen (Brandvoll et al., 2003). In this plant, the conventional combustion chamber is replaced by two reactors, an air or oxidizing reactor (AR) and a fuel reactor (FR). A metal oxide is used as a solid oxygen carrier (OC) between these two reactors. The design of the reactors is based on two interconnected fluidized beds and should have advantages over alternative designs, since good contact between the gas and the solid material is required. In recent years, various arrangements of alternative designs of the fluidized beds (Abad et al., 2006; Lyngfelt et al., 2001; Mattison and Lyngfelt, 2001), as well as different gas turbine configurations (Brandvoll and Bolland, 2004; Naqvi and Bolland, 2007; Naqvi et al., 2005) for integrating CLC in power plants, have been proposed and studied.

Figure 3 shows the CLC process in more detail. Atmospheric air is introduced into the AR, where the metal (or metal oxide) is oxidized. The metal oxide then exits the AR and is fed to the FR, where the transported oxygen reacts with the fuel to produce CO₂ and H₂O. At the same time, the metal oxide is reduced and led back to the AR continuing its loop between the two reactors. No direct contact between air and fuel takes place, and the carbon dioxide produced can be easily separated after water condensation, without costly energy consumption.

The main two reactions that take place in the chemical looping reactors are shown in Eqs. (7) and (8) and constitute the net reaction described in Eq. (9).

- FR, reduction

$$C_nH_{2m} + (2n + m)Me_eO_y \rightarrow \frac{(2n + m)Me_eO_{y-1} + nH_2O + nCO_2}{2}$$ (7)

- AR, oxidation

$$2n + m)nMe_eO_{y-1} + \left(\frac{n + m}{2}\right)O_2 \rightarrow (2n + m)Me_eO_y$$ (8)

Net reaction

$$C_nH_{2m} + \left(\frac{n + m}{2}\right)O_2 \rightarrow nH_2O + nCO_2$$ (9)

The net reaction of the CLC and the associated net heat release are equal to those of the conventional fuel combustion. The oxidation is an exothermic reaction, whereas the reduction can be either exothermic or endothermic, depending on the fuel and the metal oxide. The OC reduction with CH₄ is endothermic for most of the oxides examined in the literature (Lyngfelt et al., 2008). Conversely, when syngas is used, the metal reduction is always exothermic. This can be considered as an advantage.
Figure 1. Structure of the Reference Plant.

Figure 2. Structure of the plant with Chemical Looping Combustion.

Figure 3. Configuration of Chemical Looping Combustion (the numbering of the streams agrees with Figure 2).
of coal-gas use, since the coal-gas reaction is driven with stronger intensity due to its exothermic character. A part of the produced thermal energy during the oxidation is used in the reduction, if the latter is endothermic.

Many different metals have been suggested for oxygen carriers, mainly based on nickel, Ni (Brandvoll and et., 2003; Jin and Ishida, 2004; Lyngfelt and Thunman, 2005; Johansson et al., 2006; Bolhár-Nordenkampf et al., 2008; Kolbitsch et al., 2008), iron, Fe (Johansson et al., 2006; Abad et al., 2007; Klara, 2007) and manganese, Mn (Abad et al., 2006; Johansson et al., 2006). Important factors are the reduction and oxidation rate, the chemical and mechanical stability, as well as the price and the environmental characteristics of the oxidizer. Generally Ni and its corresponding oxides show higher oxidation and mechanical stability, as well as the price and the environmental characteristics of the oxidizer. Generally Ni and its corresponding oxides show higher oxidation and reduction rates compared to Fe and Mn, as well as greater durability after many repeated cycles. More specifically, experiments with natural gas have shown that Ni reactivity is considerably higher than that of Fe-based oxygen carriers (Johansson et al., 2006). A detailed status of development with respect to oxygen carrier alternatives is presented in Lyngfelt et al. (2008).

In this paper, the CLC reactors are simulated as a black box. In the fuel reactor, 98% of the methane provided is assumed to react with oxygen transferred from the AR. The remaining non-reacting 2% of the fuel is not recycled back to the fuel reactor, but is regarded as a loss. The air ratio - the ratio between the oxygen included in the air and the oxygen needed for stoichiometric combustion - is set to 2.9. This ratio is set to achieve outlet temperatures of the air and the fuel reactors of 1200°C and 930°C, respectively (Lewis and Gilliland, 1954; Abad et al., 2007; Naqvi and Bolland, 2007). In this work, a Ni-based oxygen carrier is considered, in order to achieve close to 100% CH4 conversion to CO2.

For the calculation of the reactors costs, data from the publications of Klara (2007), Wolf et al. (2005), as well as Lyngfeld and Thunman (2005) were used. In Wolf et al. (2005), an 800 MWth CLC is studied. Residence times in the fuel and air reactor with a Ni-based oxygen carrier were estimated at 60 and 4.8 sec, respectively. In this paper, these residence times were adjusted to the 700 MWth used and considered to be 53 and 4.2 sec, respectively. The volumetric flow rate of the gases was calculated using the simulation software EbsilonProfessional 6.0 and the respective volumes of the air and the fuel reactors assumed here were then estimated to be 718 m³ and 834 m³, respectively. With a reference unit cost 16.12 million euro for a volume of 180 m³ in the year 2000 and an exponent of 0.6 (Turton et al., 2002; Klara, 2007), the equipment costs of the AR and the FR were found to be 37.0 and 40.5 million euro, respectively. The installation together with the metal oxide costs were considered to be 20% of the delivered equipment cost. The total FCI of the CLC unit was then found to be 128 million with adjustment to the year 2008, using the CEPSI index. The cost of the metal oxide was not calculated in detail, because of high uncertainty (Lyngfelt and Thunman, 2005). However, even at the highest suggested prices and quantities it could be considered as negligible in comparison to the total cost of the unit.

4. Results and Discussion

Tables 1 and 2 show important variables for selected streams of the reference plant and the plant with CLC, respectively. In both cases, the cost of air and water

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### Table 1. Calculated variables for selected streams of the reference case without CO2 capture.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stream, j</th>
<th>( \bar{m}_j ) [kg/s]</th>
<th>( T_j ) [°C]</th>
<th>( p_j ) [bar]</th>
<th>( E_{tot,j} ) [MW]</th>
<th>( c_j ) [€/GJ]</th>
<th>( \bar{C}_j ) [€/h]</th>
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The results of the exergetic and exergoeconomic analyses at the component-level for the reference plant and the plant with CLC are presented in Tables 3 and 4, respectively. As expected, the main exergy destruction in both plants occurs within the GT system and it is caused by the chemical reaction taking place in the CC. The components that follow the GT system in exergy destruction are the HRSG and the low-pressure steam turbine (LPST). Through the use of CLC, the variable $y_{0,3}$ defined in Eq. 2, is decreased from 30.23% in the combustion chamber of the reference case to 26.56% in the reactors of the plant with CLC. The amount of fuel provided is the same for both plants and the small difference in the exergy of the fuel of the overall plants is due to the higher amount of air needed in the plant with CLC. The absolute amount of the total exergy destruction is similar for the two plants, with a relatively small difference of about 8 MW. There is, however, a significant difference in the exergy of the resulting product. These differences can be explained by the differences in exergy loss between the two concepts: The exergy loss associated with the CO$_2$ stream in the plant with CLC corresponds to over 5% of the overall exergy of the fuel, whereas the total exergy loss from the reference plant is about 2% of the overall exergy of the fuel. A comparison of the total $y_{0}$ in the heat recovery steam generators per produced amount of power in the steam turbines shows that the HRSG of the plant with CLC works less efficiently. This is mainly due to the lower operational efficiency of the added steam turbine supplying the CO$_2$ compressors and to the lower corresponding steam temperature.

From an economic point of view, when CO$_2$ capture is considered, there is a considerable increase in the investment cost from 215 € million needed for the reference plant, to 367 € million. Out of the latter, almost 13% is due to the added equipment of the CO$_2$ compression unit, i.e. the

<table>
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intercooled CO₂ compression unit and the steam turbine used to support it with power. Moreover, almost 35% of the total fixed capital investment of the plant is due to the reactors of the chemical looping unit. Comparing the total FCI per produced kW of the two plants, a large difference is observed. The resulting investment costs for the reference plant and the case with CLC are 522 €/kW and 980 €/kW, respectively.

The specific cost of the product for the reference case is found to be 20.5 €/GJ, while that of the plant with CLC is 25.5 €/GJ. The resulting leveled costs of electricity for the reference plant and the plant with CLC are 73.9 and 91.7 €/MWh, respectively; thus, CO₂ capture causes an increase in the cost of electricity (COE) of about 24%.

In order to examine the uncertainties related to the reactors’ costs, a sensitivity analysis was conducted. In this analysis the cost of the reactors was varied from -50% to +100% of the base cost calculated. The results show that with a 50% lower cost, the leveled cost of electricity produced in the plant is 87.2 €/MWh, representing a small decrease of 5% in comparison to the base case cost estimation of the plant with no CO₂ capture. On the other hand, a 100% underestimation in the reactors’ costs, a sensitivity analysis was conducted. In this analysis the cost of the reactors was varied from -50% to +100% of the base price of the reactors, could result in an increase of the cost of electricity by about 10%, with respect to the base-price (€/MWh).

The levelized cost of CO₂ avoided can be calculated with Eq. (10) (Rubin and Rao, 2002):

\[
\frac{(€/kWh)_{\text{capture}} - (€/kWh)_{\text{reference}}}{(€/kWh)_{\text{reference}} - (€/kWh)_{\text{capture}}}
\]

Here, the levelized cost of CO₂ avoided in the plant with CLC was found to be 53.1 €/t. However, to examine whether CLC is a viable solution for CO₂ capture from an economic viewpoint, this cost is compared to the cost associated with the simplest alternative method: Chemical absorption with monoethanolamine (MEA). The plant with post-combustion capture has the same configuration as the reference plant. The changes needed to incorporate post-combustion capture are: (1) the addition of the absorption unit at the outlet of the exhaust gases, (2) steam extraction from the steam turbine (ST) of the plant to produce the required thermal energy for complete regeneration of the chemical solvent, and (3) power generation in the ST used to drive the CO₂ compressors. The last two points result in a significant decrease in the power output and, consequently, in the efficiency of the overall system. No solvent losses are taken into account in the simulation. Therefore, the lean sorbent CO₂ loading (mol CO₂/mol MEA) is set to zero, resulting in a relatively high solvent regeneration requirement. Computational calculations are based on Rubin and Rao (2002). Assuming a 10% increase in the capital cost of the plant working with chemical absorption, with respect to the reference plant, the COE of the MEA

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<th>Component, k</th>
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<th>( \dot{E}_{P,k} ) [MW]</th>
<th>( \dot{E}_{D,k} ) [MW]</th>
<th>( \epsilon_k ) [%]</th>
<th>( y_k ) [%]</th>
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<th>( c_{P,k} ) [€/GJ]</th>
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\( \text{Total (} E_{k}=14 \text{ MW) } 730.58 \) 411.40 305.15 56.3 41.77 9.15 20.53 10053.1 6459.9 39.1 124.4
plant increases by about 30%. The cost of the avoided CO₂ in the case with MEA would then be 78.3 €/t, a price 47% lower than the case without CO₂ capture; yet it achieves an exergetic efficiency by about 5 percentage points with 100% CO₂ capture, has been compared to a simple combined cycle plant without CO₂ capture and briefly to a monoethanolamine.

Moreover, the process resulted in a decrease of the chemical looping reactors in comparison to the plant with CLC.

5. Conclusions

In this paper, a three-pressure-level combined cycle plant using chemical looping combustion for approximately
exergetic efficiency of 51%, almost 6 percentage points higher than that of the conventional approach – chemical absorption with monoethanolamine. Nevertheless, the investment cost of such a technology is high and the operation of such a plant results in a significant increase in the cost of electricity. Chemical looping combustion with interconnected beds is a promising technology with simultaneous inherent capture of the produced carbon dioxide. Issues that need further consideration are the scaling-up of pilot units and an examination of the impact of high temperatures on materials and engineering components that would result in more reliable and safer operation. Given that a price must be paid to implement CO₂ capture from fossil fuel power plants, CLC seems to be a relatively economical alternative, in comparison to other proposed approaches, such as chemical absorption.

Acknowledgements

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Nomenclature

c
cost per unit of exergy (€/GJ)
\(\dot{C}\)
cost rate associated with an exergy stream (€/h)
\(\dot{E}\)
 exergy rate (MW)
\(f\)
exergoeconomic factor (%)
\(m\)
 mass flow rate (kg/s)
\(p\)
 pressure (bar)
\(r\)
 relative cost difference (%)
\(T\)
temperature (°C)
\(y\)
exergy destruction ratio (%)
\(\dot{Z}\)
 cost rate associated with capital investment (€/h)

Greek symbols
\(\varepsilon\)
exergetic efficiency (%)  

Subscripts
\(D\)
 destruction (exergy)
\(F\)
 fuel (exergy)
i, j
 entering and exiting exergy streams
\(k\)
 component
\(L\)
 loss (exergy)
\(P\)
 product (exergy)

Abbreviations

AR
Air Reactor
CC
Combustion Chamber
CEPCI
Chemical Engineering Plant Cost Index
CLC
Chemical Looping Combustion
COE
Cost of electricity
FCI
Fixed Capital Investment
FR
Fuel Reactor
GT
Gas Turbine
HP, IP, LP
High-pressure, Intermediate-pressure, Low-pressure
HRSG
Heat Recovery Steam Generator
MEA
Monoethanolamine
OC
Oxygen Carrier
ST
Steam turbine
TRR
Total Revenue Requirement

References


Kolbitsch, P., Pröll, T. and Hofbauer H., 2008, “Modeling of a 120kW chemical looping combustion reactor system


