Novel two-stage fluidized bed-plasma gasification integrated with SOFC and chemical looping combustion for the high efficiency power generation from MSW: A thermodynamic investigation

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#### 12 Abstract

13 A novel municipal solid waste (MSW)-based power generation system was proposed in this study, 14 which consists of a bubbling fluidized-bed (BFB)-plasma gasification unit, a high-temperature solid oxide fuel cell (SOFC), a chemical looping combustion (CLC) unit and a heat recovery unit. Process 15 simulation was conducted using Aspen Plus<sup>TM</sup> and validated by literature data. The energetic and 16 exergetic assessment of the proposed system showed that the net electrical efficiency and exergy 17 efficiency reached 40.9 % and 36.1 %, respectively with 99.3 % of carbon dioxide being captured. It 18 19 was found that the largest exergy destruction took place in the BFB-Plasma gasification unit (476.5 kW) and accounted for 33.6 % of the total exergy destruction, which is followed by the SOFC (219.1 20 21 kW) and then CLC (208.6 kW). Moreover, the effects of key variables, such as steam to fuel ratio (STFR), fuel utilization factor (U<sub>f</sub>), current density and air reactor operating temperature, etc., on 22 23 system performance were carried out and revealed that the system efficiency could be optimized under STFR = 0.5,  $U_f$  = 0.8 and air reactor operating temperature of 1000 °C. Furthermore, the 24

proposed process demonstrated more than 14% improvement in net electrical efficiency in
 comparison with other MSW incineration and/or gasification to power processes.

# 27 Keywords: MSW; bubbling fluidized-bed-plasma gasification; thermodynamic analysis; solid oxide

- Nomenclature W Power, kW Gibbs free energy at ΔG<sup>0</sup> standard pressure and Abbreviations temperature, J mol<sup>-1</sup> Active surface area, m<sup>2</sup> Aa AR Air reactor  $C_{10}H_{8}$ Naphthalene ASU Air separation unit Bubbling fluidized-bed  $C_2H_6$ Ethane BFB gasifier  $C_3H_6$ Propene СС Combined cycle Chemical looping  $C_3H_8$ Propane CLC combustion  $CH_4$ Methane FR **Fuel reactor** CO Carbon monoxide GT Gas turbine  $CO_2$ Carbon dioxide ΗE Heat exchanger Heat recovery and steam Е Cell voltage, V HRSG generation Nernst voltage, V LCA Life cycle analysis  $E_0$ ER Equivalence ratio LHV Lower heating value Eх Exergy, J mol<sup>-1</sup> MSW Municipal solid waste Faraday's constant, C F RDF Refused derived fuel mol<sup>-1</sup> Solid Oxide Electrolyser SOEC  $H_2$ Hydrogen Cell  $H_2S$ Hydrogen sulfide SOFC Solid oxide fuel cells Current, A ST Steam turbine
- fuel cell; chemical looping combustion

i	Current density, A m <sup>-2</sup>	VOC	Volatile organic compounds
m	Mass flow rate, kg s <sup>-1</sup>	Greek symbols	
n	Molar flow rate, mol s <sup>-1</sup>	в	Coefficient
Ni	Nickle	η	Efficiency
NiO	Nickle oxide	Subscripts	
NO	Nitric Oxide	act	Activation polarization
NO <sub>2</sub>	Nitrogen dioxide	com	Concentration polarization
R	Universal gas constant, J mol <sup>-1</sup> K <sup>-1</sup>	DC	Power generated by the SOFC
S	Sulfur	en	Energy
SO <sub>2</sub>	Sulfur dioxide	ex	Exergy
STFR	Steam to fuel mass ratio	ohm	Ohmic polarization
т	Temperature, °C	react	Reacted molar flow rate of the gas species
Uf	Fuel utilization factor		

### 29

### 30 **1. Introduction**

31 The generation of solid wastes along with the economic development has become an environmental challenge in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. In China, the municipal solid waste (MSW) production 32 in the 214 major cities rised from 168.1 million tons in 2014 to 235.6 million tons in 2020 [1]. Although 33 the percentage of MSW being treated has reached 99.7 wt% in 2020 in China, landfill and incineration 34 still account for 45.6 wt% and 50.6 wt% of the treated MSW, respectively [2], which are also 35 associated with environmental issues, such as the emission of uncontrolled greenhouse gases, 36 ground water and soil pollution, and the release of gaseous carcinogens [3]. Besides, the energy 37 efficiency of incineration technology is normally low while the cost is high, which render it less 38

economically viable. Thus, the development of energy-efficient and environmental-friendly
 alternatives to enhance MSW energy recovery is of great importance.

Gasification technology is of great potential in the treatment of MSW with less pollution and 41 higher efficiency as compared with conventional MSW treatment technologies. In addition, ,it could 42 generate syngas that could be used in the synthesis of a variety of products [4, 5]. Compared with 43 other types of gasifiers, bubbling fluidized-bed gasifiers (BFB) have excellent heat and mass transfer 44 45 capacity and can be used to handle a wide range of feedstocks [6, 7]. The operating temperature of BFB gasifiers is usually less than 900 °C, which allows the discharge of slag in solid state. These 46 47 characteristics make BFB gasifiers a suitable option for the gasification of MSW [6]. However, a major challenge in the BFB gasification of MSW is the generation of high content of tar (up to 11.2% of the 48 total produced gas) [8]. But the emerging of plasma gasification provides another viable option for 49 the thorough conversion of MSW to high quality syngas with low levels of pollutants under extreme 50 high temperature (up to 5000 °C) [9-11]. Nevertheless, it was estimated that the electricity 51 consumption of the plasma torch accounts for about 32% of the total energy contained in MSW for 52 53 a stand-alone plasma gasification [12]. Therefore, there is a need for the development of a novel plasma gasification technology to realize the tar-free syngas generation at relatively low power 54 consumption to improve the economy of the MSW treatment process. 55

Recently, a demonstration plant, which employed a BFB gasifier to gasify refused derived fuels (RDF) at 650-800 °C followed by a plasma converter operating at 1200 °C, was commissioned [13] and showed that tar was completely converted to syngas and the carbon conversion efficiency was raised to be over 96.9%, which is higher than the efficiency of a single-stage BFB gasification (80-92%) [14]. Im et al. [15] experimentally investigated the syngas production behaviors fed by high density

polyethylene (HDPE) under a gasification-plasma hybrid system operating at 623 °C and found that syngas composition and yield were enhanced compared with those of the conventional fluidized bed gasification. Lately, Evangelisti et al. [16] conducted a life cycle analysis (LCA) of an integrated gasification and plasma cleaning process for power generation. The net electricity efficiency was found to change in the range of 20 to 35% for different waste feedstock.

Solid oxide fuel cells (SOFC) are efficient energy conversion devices that directly produce 66 electricity from fuel gases via electrochemical reactions [17]. The SOFC typically operates at a 67 temperature between 500 and 1000 °C and the maximum theoretical efficiency can reach up to 60% 68 [18]. The integration of coal and/or biomass gasification with SOFC to achieve high energy efficiency 69 has been extensively studied [19-21]. However, studies on the SOFC based power generation system 70 driven by MSW gasification are rarely reported. Galeno et al. [22] designed a RDF plasma gasification 71 72 system integrated with a SOFC power generation unit and showed that this integrated system had a net power efficiency of 33%. Recently, Perna et al. [9] proposed two novel configurations that 73 combined a waste to energy scheme together with an electric storage system. Thermodynamic 74 75 analyses suggested that the power generation efficiency was in the range of 35-45% and the energy storage efficiency was 72-92%. 76

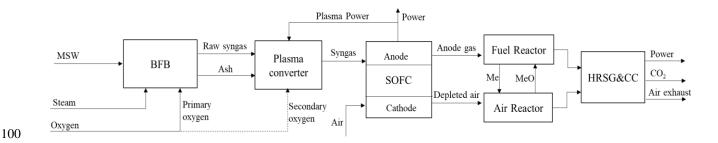
In addition, the chemical looping combustion (CLC) has attracted increasing attentions as an effective and inherent  $CO_2$  mitigation strategy without extra energy penalty [23], which could also lead to the reduction of  $NO_x$  emission and exergy losses [24, 25]. The applications of CLC in power plants have been tried with a wide spectrum fuels including natural gas, coal and/or biomass derived syngas [24, 26, 27].

However, to the best of our knowledge, no attempt has been made so far to integrate SOFC and CLC with BFB-plasma gasification for highly efficient power production as well as CO<sub>2</sub> capture. Therefore, this work is set out to study the feasibility of such a novel process and to gain insights of its thermodynamic performance.

### 86 2. System description

Fig.1 shows the schematic of the proposed BFB- plasma gasification of MSW that is integrated with SOFC and CLC for highly efficient power generation and CO<sub>2</sub> capture.

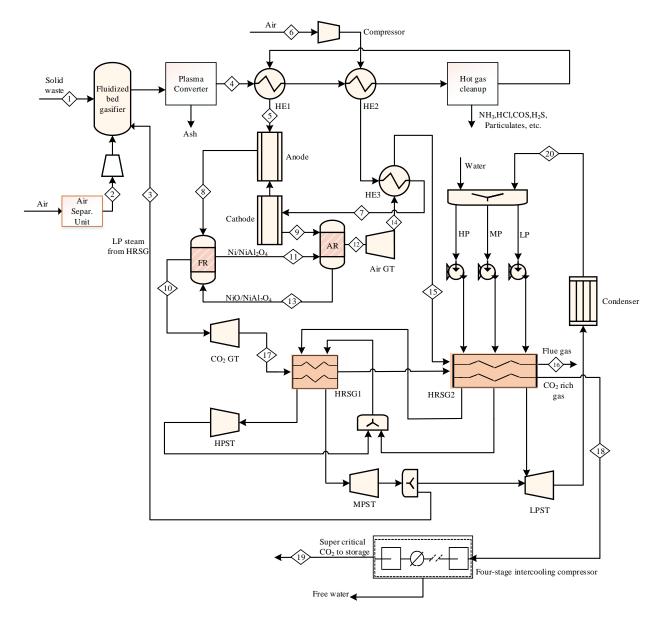
89 As shown in Fig.1, such a process consists of four main sub sytems, namely BFB-plasma gasification, solid oxide fuel cell, chemical looping combustion and heat recovery and steam generation (HRSG) 90 together with combined cycle (CC). Solid waste is initially converted to raw syngas containing tar and 91 92 condensable contaminants in the bubbling fludized bed gasifier using steam and oxygen as the gasification agent. The raw syngas is then treated in the plasma converter to crack tar and organic 93 containiments into small molecules. After the hot gas cleaning, the syngas from the plasma converter 94 is fed to the SOFC, in which the syngas is directly reacted with O2- to generate electricity. At the 95 downstream of the SOFC, the anode gas and depleted air are directed to the fuel reactor and air 96 reactor, respectively, and burned. Then, the flue gas from the chemical looping system is processed 97 98 in HRSG to recovery heat. The detailed configuration of the proposed process is illustrated in Fig.2. The detailed description of each subsystem is presented in following sections. 99



# 101 Fig.1. Schematic of the proposed BFB- plasma gasification of MSW integrated with SOFC and CLC for power

#### 102

### generation and CO<sub>2</sub> capture.



### 103



Fig.2. Detailed configuration of the proposed process.

### 105 2.1 BFB- plasma gasification

The pre-treated MSW is crushed into 10 to 25 mm and fed into the fluidized-bed gasifier together with oxygen and steam. The amount of oxygen and steam is controlled to maintain autothermal state with the operating temperature in the range of 650 to 800  $^{\circ}$ C and to achieve a higher carbon conversion [8, 28]. A higher gasification temperature is beneficial for the promotion of syngas yield
 but is also associated with a higher mineral melting possiblity that leads to the agglomeration and
 defluidization of the gasifier, which subsequently causes the blocakge accident. In this study, the
 oxygen equivalence ratio (ER) and steam to fuel mass ratio (STFR) are adopted to quantify the feeding
 rate of the gasification agent. The ER and STFR parameters can be calculated as follows:

$$ER = \frac{(n_{O_2}/n_{MSW})}{(n_{O_2}/n_{MSW})_{stoic}}$$
(1)

115 
$$STFR = \frac{m_{steam}}{m_{MSW}}$$
(2)

114

Oxygen needed for the fluidized-bed gasifiction is supplied from a cryogenic air separation unit 116 (ASU), while steam is extracted from the HRSG. In the gasifier, carbon, oxygen and steam are 117 contacted and reacted intensively to convert the solid into syngas. The detailed chemcial reactions 118 in the gasifer can be referred in [29]. The crude gas from the gasifier mainly contains CO,CO<sub>2</sub>,CH<sub>4</sub>, 119 120 H<sub>2</sub>O and H<sub>2</sub> in conjunction with a certain amount of tar and char. Besides, ash and inorganic material can also be brought out with the raw syngas. Then, the crude gas is sent to the readily-controllable 121 plasma converter where complex organics are exposed to the ultra violet light induced by a carbon 122 123 plasma electrode and cracked into CO and H<sub>2</sub> at the uniform temperature of 1200 °C. At the same time, particulate materials in the raw gas enters to the centrifugal designed plasma converter where 124 they are converted into molten slag. The outlet syngas exits the plasma converter and is cooled in 125 126 the heat exchangers (HE1 and HE2) followed by a gas cleaning unit, in which the contaminates and 127 sulphide are removed by a ceramic filter and a sorbent bed respectively [9, 22]. The clean syngas is heated up and fed to the SOFC subsystem. Table 1 illustrates the ultimate and proximate analysis of 128 the selected minicipal solid waste employed in this study. The main operating conditions of the two 129 stage fluidized-bed plasma gasification subsystem are shown in Table 2. 130

131

# 132 **Table 1**

# 133 Ultimate and proximate analyses of the selected solid waste (as received) [8].

Ultimate analysis (wt%)		Proximate analysis (wt%)		
С	41	Moisture	14.9	
н	5.7	Volatile	59.6	
Ν	1.2	Fixed carbon	6.4	
S	0.2	Ash	19.1	
O (by difference)	17.5	LHV(dry basis,MJ/kg)	19.99	

134

# 135 Table 2

136 Main operating parameters and assumptions for the two-stage fluidized-bed plasma gasification unit [8, 30, 31].

Unit	Specification
Feedstock	Inlet temperature: 25 °C
	Mass flow rate : 0.117 kg/s
ASU	Air composition: N <sub>2</sub> (79 vol%)+O <sub>2</sub> (21 vol%)
	Oxygen purity: 95%
	Power consumption:0.325 kWh/kg O <sub>2</sub>
	O <sub>2</sub> delivery pressure: 4 bar
Fluidized bed gasifier	Operating pressure: 3.5 bar

Operating temperature: 800 °CER:0.37STFR:0.2-0.6Heat loss: 2.5% HHV fuelPlasma converterOperating temperature: 1200 °COperating pressure: 3.25 barSlag cooling method: waterTotal carbon conversion: 96.9%

137

# 138 **2.2** Solid oxide fuel cell

In this study, the clean syngas that consists of CO, H<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> is used as the feedstock to the SOFC system. At the anode side of the SOFC, H<sub>2</sub> is considered as the only fuel participating the electrochemical reaction with O<sup>2-</sup>. This assumption is reasonable since water shift reaction (CO + H<sub>2</sub>O  $\Rightarrow$  CO<sub>2</sub> + H<sub>2</sub>) and methane steam reaction (CH<sub>4</sub> + H<sub>2</sub>O  $\Rightarrow$  CO + 3H<sub>2</sub>) take place very fast at high temperatures and are shifted to the right side as hydrogen is consumed [9]. Table 3 shows the main operating parameters and assumptions for the SOFC subsystem.

145 The power generated by the SOFC is calculated by the multiply of cell voltage (*E*) and current (*I*) 146 which is presented as follows:

$$147 W_{DC} = E \times I (3)$$

The cell voltage (E) is calculated by the difference between ideal Nernst voltage ( $E_0$ ) and the voltage losses including ohmic polarization ( $E_{ohm}$ ), activation polarization ( $E_{act}$ ) and concentration polarization ( $E_{con}$ ). The equation of *E* is expressed as [32]:

151 
$$E = E_0 - E_{ohm} - E_{act} - E_{con}$$
 (4)

152 The equation for the calculation of Nernst voltage is defined as [33]:

153 
$$E_0 = -\frac{\Delta G^0}{2F} + \frac{RT}{2F} ln\left(\frac{p_{H2}p_{O2}^{1/2}}{p_{H2O}}\right)$$
(5)

where  $\Delta G^0$  (J/mol) stands for the molar free Gibbs energy change for the H<sub>2</sub> electrochemical reaction. *F* is the Faraday's constant, *F*= 96 485 C/mol. *T* (K) is the average temperature of the SOFC stack. *R* represents universal gas constant, *R*=8.314 J/(mol·K).  $p_{H2}$ ,  $p_{O2}$ ,  $p_{H2O}$  are the partial pressures of average H<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O in the anode side of the SOFC.

158 The molar Gibbs free energy change  $\Delta G^0$  is correlated with average operating temperature of 159 SOFC using the following equation [32]:

$$\Delta G^0 = 0.005275T^2 + 44.28T - 242200 \tag{6}$$

While the detailed expressions for voltage losses of  $E_{ohm}$ ,  $E_{act}$ ,  $E_{con}$  due to the resistance of electrolyte, slow reaction rate on the electrodes and mass transfer limitations in the porous electrodes can be referred to [34].

164 The current of the SOFC generated is calculated by [34]:

165 
$$I = 2FU_f(n_{H2} + n_{CO} + 4n_{CH4})$$
(7)

where  $n_{H2}$ ,  $n_{CO}$ ,  $n_{CH4}$  are the molar flow rate supplied to the SOFC.  $U_f$  represents the fuel utilization coefficient and the equation is expressed as [32]:

168 
$$U_f = \frac{(n_{H_2} + n_{CO} + 4n_{CH_4})_{\text{react}}}{(n_{H_2} + n_{CO} + 4n_{CH_4})}$$
(8)

Where the subscript 'react' represents the reacted molar flow rate of the gas species in the SOFC 169 cell. 170 The current density (i, A/cm<sup>2</sup>) is obtained by the total current (I) divides by the active surface 171 area (A<sub>a</sub>). 172  $i = \frac{I}{A_a}$ (9) 173 The inverter efficiency for DC to AC conversion is assumed to be 95% [35]. Thus, the actual power 174 output from SOFC is expressed by: 175  $W_{\text{SOFC}} = 0.95 W_{DC}$ (10) 176 177 Table 3 Main operating conditions and assumptions of the SOFC [18, 19, 35, 36]. 178 Unit Specification 900 °C **Operating temperature Operating pressure** 3.25 bar Fuel utilization factor 0.65-0.9 1000-3500 A/m<sup>2</sup> Current density Air utilization factor 0.182 DC to AC inverter efficiency 0.95 Pressure drop 3% of the inlet pressure Anode material Ni/GDC

\_\_\_\_\_

179

Cathode material

Electrolyte material

12

LSM-YSZ

YSZ

# 180 **2.3 Chemical looping combustion**

181	As mentioned above, the CLC subsystem comprises a fuel reactor (FR) and an air reactor (AR). In
182	the FR, the unconverted syngas from anode side of SOFC reacts with the oxygen carrier which
183	provides the lattice oxygen and completely convert into $CO_2$ and $H_2O$ . In the AR, the depleted air
184	composed of $O_2$ (17 vol%) and $N_2$ from the cathode side of SOFC contacts with the reduced oxygen
185	carrier to realize the complete regeneration of oxygen carrier. The circulating oxygen carrier chosen
186	in the study is NiO/Ni with supported by the inert material of $NiAl_2O_4$ to improve its mechanical
187	behavior [37]. The reactions taken place in the CLC are referred as following equations [30]:

188 
$$CO + NiO \rightarrow CO_2 + Ni, \ \Delta H_{298.15K} = -43.1 \text{ kJ/mol}$$
 (11)

189 
$$H_2 + NiO \rightarrow H_2O + Ni, \ \Delta H_{298.15K} = -2.1 \text{ kJ/mol}$$
 (12)

190 
$$CH_4 + 4NiO \rightarrow CO_2 + 2H_2O + 4Ni, \ \Delta H_{298.15K} = 156.5 \ kJ/mol$$
 (13)

191 Ni + O<sub>2</sub> 
$$\rightarrow$$
 NiO ,  $\Delta H_{298.15K}$  = -479.4 kJ/mol (14)

The main operating conditions and assumptions for the CLC subsystem is presented in Table 4. In order to control temperature in the air reactor, excessive air cooling approach is employed as cooling agent to avoid agglomeration of oxygen carriers.

- 195 **Table 4**
- 196 Main operating conditions and assumptions of CLC subsystem [18, 30, 38].

Unit		Specification		
Fuel react	or	Operate adiabatically		
		Operating pressure: 3.15 bar		
		NiO/NiAl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub> molar ratio : $0.25$		
		Excess ratio of NiO: 0.2		

Air reactor

Operating temperature: 850-1100 °C (air cooling)

Operating pressure: 3.15 bar

Pressure drop: 10%

197

# 198 **2.4 HRSG and combined cycle**

199 The effluent gases from the FR and AR are at high temperature and pressure states and they are directly sent to the CO<sub>2</sub> gas turbine and air gas turbine for the additional power generation. Then, 200 the gases from the two turbines are forwarded to HRSG unit to recovery heat for steam generation. 201 202 The different pressure steam streams produced from the HRSG are led to steam turbines for power 203 generation. After the heat recovery in HRSG, the stream initially from FR is cooled to 30 °C and water is separated from this stream. The CO<sub>2</sub> rich stream is then directed to a four-stage intercooled 204205 compressor to the pressure of 120 bar which is ready for the pipeline transportation. Table 5 presents the main specifications adopted in this subsystem. 206

- 207 Table 5
- 208 Main operating parameters and assumptions in the HRSG & GT/ST subsystem [39].

Unit	Specification
Air gas turbine	Discharge pressure:1.01 bar
	Isentropic efficiency: 88%
	Mechanical efficiency: 99%
CO <sub>2</sub> gas turbine	Discharge pressure:1.01 bar
	Isentropic efficiency: 88%
	Mechanical efficiency: 99%

HRSG & CCPinch temperature: 10 °CPressure loss: 8%Pressure loss: 8%HP steam:120 barHP steam:30 barLP steam:30 barLP steam:4 barCondenser pressure: 0.05barSteam turbine isotropic efficiency:88%Steam turbine isotropic efficiency: 99%Reheated temperature: 540 °C

209

### 210 **3. Methodology**

211 **3.1** Simulation

The complete process shown in Fig. 2 is simulated using the Aspen Plus<sup>TM</sup> software [40, 41]. The global physical properties are calculated using Peng-Robinson equation. The MSW and ash are considered as non-conventional components in the Aspen Plus<sup>TM</sup>. The other components such as CO,  $H_2$ ,  $H_2O$ ,  $CO_2$ ,  $C_2H_6$ ,  $C_3H_6$ ,  $C_3H_8$ ,  $O_2$ ,  $N_2$ , S,  $H_2S$ ,  $SO_2$ , NO,  $NO_2$ , et al., are treated as conventional species, while carbon, Ni, NiO, NiAl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> are classified as the solid type. Since tar is a commonly seen complex substance generated during gasification, during the simulation, naphthalene ( $C_{10}H_8$ ) is used as the representative.

The simulation of BFB- plasma gasification subsystem mainly includes two reactors, namely a fluidized-bed reactor and a plasma converter. In the fluidized-bed reactor, the solid fuel is initially pyrolyzed into gases and char and then the gases and char are gasified under the gasification agent

of oxygen and steam. The built-in reaction modules of RYield, RStoic and RGibbs are adopted to 222 simulate solid waste pyrolysis, hydrocarbons conversion and tar formation, and equilibrium 223 gasification with oxygen and steam respectively [42]. Several correlation equations which connect 224 the hydrocarbons conversion (CH<sub>4</sub>,  $C_2H_4$ ,  $C_2H_6$ ,  $C_3H_6$ ,  $C_3H_8$  and  $C_{10}H_8$ ) with gasification temperature 225 are incorporated in Aspen Plus using Fortran codes [43, 44]. Besides, the carbon conversion is also 226 controlled by Fortran code. The simulation of plasma converter is based on RGibbs module in which 227 all the reactions are considered to reach an equilibrium state at the plasma induced temperature of 228 1200 °C. The simulated syngas compositions are compared with the experimental values carried out 229 by Materazzi et al. [8]. The clean-up section is simulated as a black-box where the separation 230 efficiencies of each component are assumed. 231

The simulation of anode and cathode in the SOFC are based on RGibbs module and Sep module, respectively. The  $O_2$  split ratio in the cathode is controlled by using a Calculator based on the  $U_f$ . Besides, the air inlet molar flow is calculated using a Design-Spec block according to the oxygen consumption. In addition, another Calculator block is incorporated in the Aspen Plus to compute the Nernest voltage, voltage losses due to polarizations, current, and electricity power according to the Eq. (5) to Eq. (12).

For the simulation of chemical looping combustion subsystem, the RGibbs and SSplit are adopted as modules to model the fuel and air reactors, gases and oxygen carrier separation, respectively. The air turbine, CO<sub>2</sub> turbine and steam turbine are simulated as the Comp module with the selection of turbine sub-option. The HRSG is modeled using MheatX module whereas the heat exchangers are shifted to the HeatX module.

243

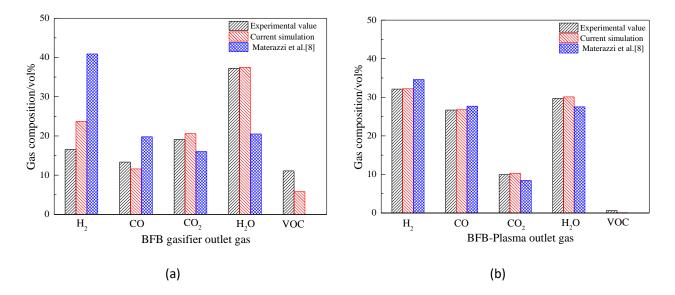
# **3.2** Thermodynamic performance indicators

245The overall net electrical efficiency (
$$\eta_{en}$$
) of the proposed process is expressed as [36]:246 $\eta_{en} = \frac{W_{SOPC}+W_{GT}+W_{ST}-W_{Plump}-W_{ASU}-W_{compressor}-W_{Plusmal}}{m_{MSW}-LHV_{MSW}}$  (15)247where the subscripts of SOFC, GT, ST, pump, ASU, compressor, and plasma indicate the SOFC,248gas turbines, steam turbines, pumps, air separation unit, syngas compressor, and plasma torch249respectively.250The exergy balance of an individual system is expressed as [45]:251 $\sum EX_{in} = \sum EX_{out} + EX_{des/loss}$  (16)252where the  $\sum EX_{in}$  denotes the overall input exergy including chemical exergy, physical exergy253and heat exergy; and  $EX_{des/loss}$  denotes the exergy destruction due to irreversibility and loss. The254calculation expressions of chemical and physical exergy of conventional streams and heat exergy can255be seen elsewhere [46].256The overall exergy efficiency of the process is calculated as:257 $\eta_{ex} = \frac{W_{SOPC}+W_{GT}+W_{ST}-W_{PUMP}-W_{ASU}-W_{COMPROSOT}-W_{PlusMa}}{EX_{MSW}+EX_{MSW}+EX_{Mater}+EX_{att}}$  (17)258where EX\_MSW is chemical exergy of MSW which can be deduced according to a common exergy259formula (O/C mass ratio <2) as follows [47]:260 $EX_{MSW} = \beta m_{MSW} \cdot LHV_{MSW}$  (18)261 $\beta = \frac{1044+0.016_{0}^{1}-0.3496_{0}^{2}(1+0.0531_{0}^{2})+0.0493_{0}^{2}}{1-0.4124_{0}^{2}}$  (19)262where h, c, o, n stand for the mass fraction of H, C, O, N in the solid waste (see Table 1),263respectively.

### 265 4. Results and discussion

#### 266 4.1 Model validation

Fig. 3 presents the comparison of the outlet gas composition of this study against experimental 267 values and modelling results reported by Materazzi et al. [8]. For the BFB gasifier outlet gas 268 composition (Fig. 3a), the current simulation is closer to experimental results. Besides, the current 269 simulation of the gas compositon at the outlet of the plasma coverter is totally consistent with the 270 results of the experiment (Fig.3b). As the outlet syngas from the converter is fed to the downstream 271 system for furthur processing, the constructed model for the simulation of BFB- plasma gasification 272 273 is appropriate and can be employed to predict the syngas performances. It is also clear from Fig. 3 274 that the H<sub>2</sub> and CO contents increased to 32.2 and 26.8%, respectively, after the processing of the converter. Simultaneously, the water and volatile organic compounds (VOC) decreases to 29.71 and 275 0.63%, respectively. This can be attributed to the enhanced endothermal reactions of hydrocarbon 276 steam reforming at 1200 °C enabled by the plasma torch. 277



**Fig.3.** Comparison of the outlet gas composition of current simulation values with experimental data and modelling results of Materazzi et al. [8]. Simulation condition: Feedstock: 50kg/h; ER:0.37.

The aforementioned SOFC model is validated by the comparison between literature data and current simulation values regarding the anode inlet gas, anode outlet gas, voltage, current density and gross efficiency at same operating conditions referred in [34, 48]. As shown in Table 6, a good agreement is achieved between our simulation data and reported value. The deviation is found to be in the range of 0 to 5.8%, which indicates the SOFC model developed in this study is reliable.

283 Table 6

ltem	Literature value [34]	Current simulation	Error/%	
Anode inlet gas/ vol%				
H <sub>2</sub>	26.9	27.4	1.85	
СО	5.6	5.7	1.78	
CH <sub>4</sub>	10.4	9.8	5.77	
H <sub>2</sub> O	27.8	27.9	0.36	
CO <sub>2</sub>	23.1	23.2	0.43	
N <sub>2</sub>	6.2	6.1	1.61	
Anode outlet gas/ vol%				
H <sub>2</sub>	11.6	11.6	0	
со	7.4	7.4	0	
H <sub>2</sub> O	50.9	50.9	0	
CO <sub>2</sub>	24.9	25	0.4	
N <sub>2</sub>	5.1	5.1	0	
Voltage/V	0.683	0.692	1.32	

284 Comparison the SOFC simulation values with literature data.

Current density/(A/m <sup>2</sup> )	1821	1804	0.93
SOFC gross efficiency/%	51.28	51.58	0.58

286	Table 7 lists dry gas composition at the outlet of FR for both simulation values and experimental
287	data at the operating temperature of 700 and 800 $^{ m oC}$ . The experiment was carried out in a 10 kW CLC
288	plant with natural gas as the fuel and NiO/NiAl $_2O_4$ as the oxygen carrier [49]. As indicated in Table 7
289	that the simulation value is nearly identical to the experimental data and the relative difference is
290	very small (<10%) which shows the simulation methodology of CLC is appropriate/acceptable.

# 291 Table 7

292 Comparison of the dry gas composition at the outlet of FR between the simulation values and experimental data.

	<i>T</i> <sub>FR</sub> :700 °C		<i>T</i> <sub>FR</sub> :800 °C			
Syngas composition/vol%	Experimental	Simulation	Error/%	Experimental	Simulation	Error/%
CO <sub>2</sub>	94.47	95.3	0.9	96.41	96.3	0.1
со	1.32	1.2	9.1	1.11	1.1	0.9
H <sub>2</sub>	3.58	3.3	7.8	1.82	1.95	7.1

# **4.2** Simulation results

295	The proposed process was simulated according to the basic operating conditions shown in Table
296	1 to Table 5. At the conditions of STFR =0.5, fuel utilization of 0.8, current density of 2200 A/m <sup>2</sup> and
297	operating temperature of AR of 1000 $^{ m oC}$ , the simulation results, such as temperature, pressure, mass
298	flow and molar composition for the key state points (see Fig.2), are listed in Table 8.

To improve power generation efficiency of the HRSG & CC subsystem, pinch analysis was conducted by adjusting the steam flow rates of high pressure, medium pressure and low pressure to construct the hot and cold composite curves with a minimum approach temperature of 10 °C. Fig.4 presents heat composite curves for HRSG2. As can be observed from this figure that the maximum heat recovered from the stream of 15 and 18 is about 782 kW. The pinch point shows up at the heat duty of 156 kW and the corresponding temperature of 145 °C, which represents the initial evaporation temperature (bubble point) of the low-pressure steam.

- 306 Table 8
- 307 Key flow streams of the proposed process.

Flow no.	Temperature	Pressure	Mass flow	molar c	ompositio	on						
	[C]	[Bar]	[kg/h]	H <sub>2</sub>	со	CO <sub>2</sub>	N <sub>2</sub>	02	H₂O	NiO	Ni	NiAl <sub>2</sub> O <sub>4</sub>
1	25	1.00	421.2									
2	25	1.00	209.9				0.05	0.95				
3	283.9	4.00	170.0						1.0			
4	1200	3.5	727.0	0.323	0.264	0.099	0.008		0.294			
5	791	3.45	717.8	0.327	0.268	0.1	0.008		0.298			
6	25	1.00	7179.6				0.79	0.21				
7	650	3.45	7179.6				0.79	0.21				
8	900	3.25	1018.8	0.069	0.05	0.317	0.008		0.555			
9	900	3.25	6878.6				0.821	0.179				
10	980.5	2.75	1090.9	0.003	0.002	0.365	0.008		0.622			
11	980.5	2.75	4338.2							0.04	0.16	0.8

12	1000	2.75	6806.5				0.829	0.171				
13	1000	2.75	4410.2							0.2	0.8	
14	749.8	1.01	6806.5				0.829	0.171				
15	367.9	1.01	6806.5				0.829	0.171				
16	90	1.01	6806.5				0.829	0.171				
17	800	1.01	1090.9	0.003	0.002	0.365	0.008		0.622			
18	90	1.01	1090.9	0.003	0.002	0.365	0.008		0.622			
19	40	120	647.5	0.007	0.006	0.965	0.022					
20	37.9	0.05	697.0						1			

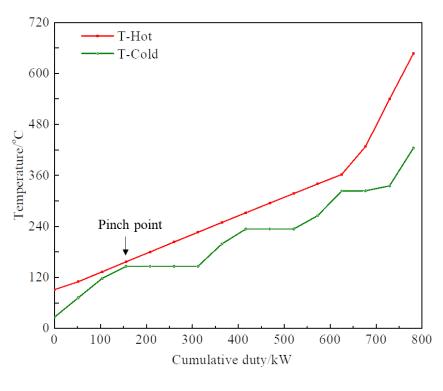
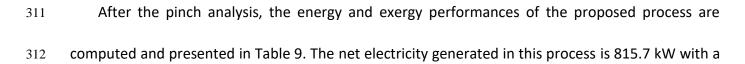


Fig.4. Heat composite curve for the HRSG2



net electrical efficiency of 40.9%. The total exergy fed into the process is 2223.9 kW resulting in the exergy efficiency of 36.7%. It can also be noticed from this table that the electricity generated by SOFC shares largest proportion of the total gross electricity, accounting for 42%. The air gas turbine contributes to 552.3kW electricity due to the expansion of large amount of depleted air.

While from the electricity consumption perspective, the air compression unit takes up largest 317 share of 325.9 kW because of ample air requirements in SOFC unit as the air utilization factor of 18.2% 318 319 (see Table 3). The electrical consumption of plasma torch is determined to be 226.3 kW which is tantamount to 11.3% of the input LHV of MSW and this proportion decreases significantly in 320 comparison with that of 32% [12] in a stand-alone plasma gasification system. Besides, the CO<sub>2</sub> 321 capture efficiency (defined as the CO<sub>2</sub> molar flow rate in stream 19 to the molar flow rate of both CO 322 and CO<sub>2</sub> in the stream 4) is 99.3% and the CO<sub>2</sub> compression unit consumes about 76.7 kW. The high 323 CO<sub>2</sub> capture efficiency is mainly because of the employment of chemical looping combustion which 324 converts the CO into  $CO_2$  with lattice oxygen provided in NiO in the fuel reactor. In this study, the 325 electricity penalty due to CO<sub>2</sub> capture and compression accounts for approximately 3% which is lower 326 327 than that of conventional amine CO<sub>2</sub> capture technologies with 8-10% penalty [50].

328

### 329 Table 9

) E	nergy and	exergy	performance	of the	proposed	process.
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Units	Value/kW
Solid waste input (LHV)	1990
SOFC	652.5
CO <sub>2</sub> GT	99.3

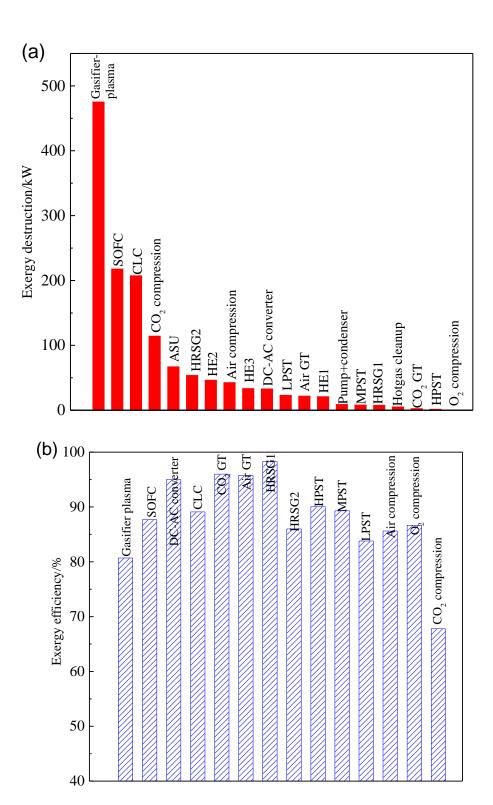
Air GT	552.2
HPST	28.9
MPST	84.3
LPST	137.6
Pump	1.86
CO <sub>2</sub> compression	76.7
Air compression	325.9
O <sub>2</sub> compression	9.7
ASU	68.3
Auxiliary	30.5
Plasma consumption	226.3
Net electricity	815.7
Net electrical efficiency, $\eta_{ m en}$ /%	40.9
EX <sub>solid</sub>	2183.1
EX <sub>water</sub>	30.9
EX <sub>air</sub>	9.9
Exergy efficiency, $\eta_{\rm ex}$ /%	36.7
CO <sub>2</sub> capture efficiency/%	99.3

331

The exergy destruction and exergy efficiency distributions of the key components in the proposed process are presented in Fig. 5(a) and Fig. 5(b), respectively. The exergy destruction for a unit is defined as the difference between inputs exergy and output exergy, while exergy efficiency

for a unit is defined in literature [39]. It can be noticed from Fig. 5(a) that the largest exergy 335 destruction takes place in the BFB-plasma gasification unit (476 kW), which is primarily attributed to 336 the intrinsically irreversible gasification reactions converting from low entropy specie of carbon to 337 high entropy species of syngas. Besides, the unconverted carbon, heat loss and mixture of gasifying 338 agents also contribute to the exergy destruction of gasification unit. The exergy destruction of SOFC 339 is responsible for 219.1 kW mainly caused by the irreversibility of electrochemical reactions. The CLC 340 341 unit shares about 14.7% of the total exergy destruction due to the unavoidable destroy from chemical reactions. In addition, CO<sub>2</sub> compression unit is moderately occupied 115.6 kW exergy destruction 342 owing to the water separation during cooling and the large electricity input to the compressor of 76.7 343 kW. The other units of ASU, HRSG2, HE2, Air compressor, HE3 and DC-AC converter are responsible 344 for 68.2, 54.9, 47.6, 43.9, 34.7, 34.2 kW exergy destruction, respectively. 345

As indicated by Fig. 5(b), the HRSG1 has the highest exergy efficiency of 98.2% due to the small 346 temperature difference in heat transfer. However, the exergy efficiency in HRSG2 is about 86.1 % 347 owing to a large temperature difference between the cold and hot streams. While the largest exergy 348 349 destruction is detected in CO<sub>2</sub> compression unit, with an exergy efficiency of 67.8%. This is because the separated CO<sub>2</sub> is inherently of high physical exergy at high pressure compared with the state 350 before compression. The exergy efficiencies of reactive units of BFB-plasma gasification, SOFC and 351 352 CLC are 80.7, 87.7 and 89.1%, respectively. In combination with the findings in Fig.5, to improve the overall exergy efficiency of the entire process, the key is to reduce the exergy destructions of BFB-353 plasma gasification, SOFC and CLC, which could be achieved via lowering moisture content of MSW, 354 preheating feed gas temperature to close the operating temperature, reducing heat loss of gasifier, 355 and circulating of the anode-off gas to anode. 356

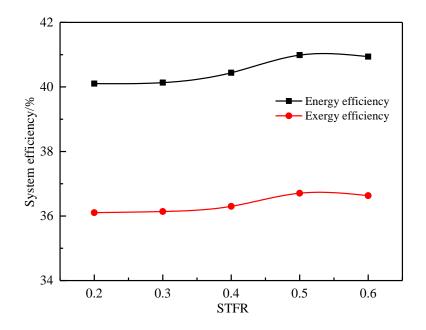


**Fig.5.** Exergy destruction (a) and exergy efficiency distributions (b) of the key components for the proposed

process.

### 362 4.3 Sensitivity analysis

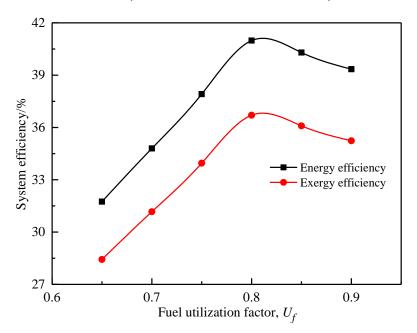
In this study, the influences of four key operating parameters, i.e., the steam to fuel ratio, fuel 363 utilization factor, current density and operating temperature, on both energy and exergy efficiencies 364 365 are examined. Fig. 6 shows the effect of STFR on system efficiency. It can be seen in Fig. 6 that when the STFR increased from 0.2 to 0.6, both the energy and exergy efficiencies show a moderate increase 366 initially, and then decrease, reaching its maximum energy and exergy efficiency of 40.9 and 36.7%, 367 368 respectively, at STFR =0.5. The injection of steam into the gasifier promotes the carbon conversion  $(C+H_2O\rightarrow CO+H_2)$ , which promotes the increase of the syngas flow rate. Besides, the increment of 369 power generation is larger than the power consumption of plasma unit. Consequently, the power 370 production is enhanced and resulted in the improvement of system performances. However, when 371 372 STFR is beyond 0.5, further increase of steam requires supplementary energy to maintain the designated gasification operating temperature, leading to the decrease of system efficiencies. 373



374 375

Fig.6. Effect of steam to fuel ratio on system efficiency performance.

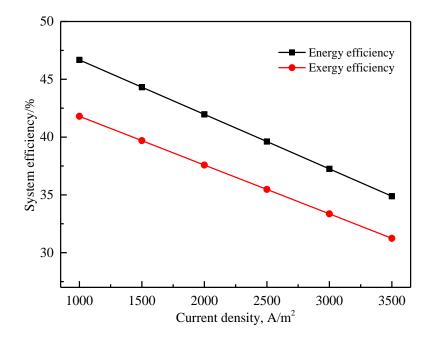
The effect of fuel utilization factor on the system efficiencies of the proposed process is shown in 377 Fig.7. As indicated in this figure that increasing fuel utilization factor in SOFC component leads to 378 379 higher energy and exergy efficiencies and then these efficiencies exhibited a decreasing tendency after  $U_{\rm f}$  is beyond 0.8. At  $U_{\rm f}$  =0.8, the energy and exergy efficiencies are found to be maximum and 380 their corresponding values are 40.9% and 36.7%, respectively. This phenomenon can be explained by 381 the enhancement of electrochemical reaction rates leading to the addition of power output from 382 SOFC when  $U_f < 0.8$ . Besides, the compression work of air is also promoted as the increase of  $U_f$ . 383 However, the increment of power consumption is lower than that of power output. Hence, increment 384 in both energy and exergy efficiency are expected. On the contrary, when U<sub>f</sub> is beyond than 0.8, 385 further increase in U<sub>f</sub> results in less amount of syngas available in the CLC unit and causes the drop 386 of the combustion temperature correspondingly. Therefore, the decrease of net power generation 387 388 from GT and ST is the main reason responsible for the reduction of system efficacies.



389 390

Fig.7. Effect of fuel utilization factor on system efficiency performance.

Fig. 8 illustrates the effect of varying current density from 1000 to 3500 A/m<sup>2</sup> of SOFC on both the overall energy and exergy efficiencies. Referring to Fig.8, with increasing of current density, the energy and exergy efficiencies decrease monotonously from 46.7 to 34.9% and from 41.8 to 31.2%, respectively. This is mainly due to the reduction of cell voltage leading to the decrease of power output from SOFC subsystem when the current density increases [46].

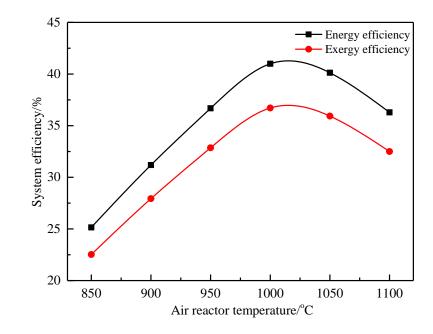




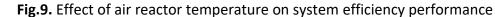
398

#### **Fig.8.** Effect of current density on system efficiency performance.

399 The effect of changing the air reactor temperature of the CLC on the energy and exergy efficiencies is presented in Fig.9. Based on Fig.9, when the air reactor temperature changes from 850 to 1100 °C, 400 both of the energy and exergy efficiencies are obtained their respective maximum values of 40.9 % 401 and 36.7 % at the air reactor temperature of 1000 °C. The increment of system efficiencies derives 402 403 from the higher inlet temperature of air reactor turbine contributing to a significant increment of net power output [39]. Nevertheless, above 1000 °C, the efficiencies begin to drop owing to the increase 404 of external energy supplements for the chemical reactions heat generated in AR cannot fully meet 405 the energy requirement to maintain the higher operating temperature. 406







409

### 410 **4.4 System performance comparison**

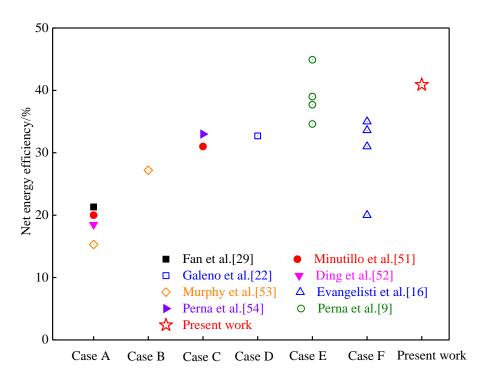
To evaluate energy recovery level of the proposed system, net energy efficiency is compared with that of MSW to power reported by other researchers. The current study considers six integration power production processes denoted as Case A to F using either combined cycle or SOFC driven by MSW incineration or gasification. The configurations of Case A to F are briefly outlined in the following:

- Case A: Integrating incineration and steam power cycle [29, 51-53]. MSW mixed with air are
   combusted in the boiler to produce steam. Then, the steam at different pressure levels is
   employed to boost the steam turbines for power production.
- Case B: Integrating conventional gasification and combined power cycle [53]. MSW is
   gasified firstly and then the syngas is fed into gas turbines followed by steam turbines.

- Case C: Integrating plasma gasification and combined power cycle [51, 54]. MSW is gasified
   using plasma torch and afterwards the generated syngas is sent to gas turbines combined
   cycle.
- Case D: Integrating plasma gasification and SOFC as well as steam power cycle [22]. MSW
   plasma gasification is integrated with SOFC and followed by a steam cycle.
- Case E: Integrating plasma gasification and SOFC as well as SOEC for power production [9].
   MSW plasma gasification with oxygen-rich air or hydrogen and syngas is directed into SOFC
   for power generation.
- Case F: Integrating BFB-Plasma gasification and combined power Cycle [16]. MSW is gasified
   in a bubbling fluidized-bed gasifier and then goes to a plasma converter to treatment the
   syngas. After that, the syngas is travelled to gas turbine combined cycle.
- Present work: Integrating BFB-Plasma gasification and SOFC as well as CLC combined power
   cycle.

Fig. 10 shows the comparison of net energy efficiency performances for the above cases. As 434 435 observed from Fig. 10, the incineration system (Case A) has the lowest energy efficiency varied from 15.3 to 21.3%, while the energy efficiency of the integrated conventional gasification system (Case B) 436 with combined cycle reaches 27.2 %. This is mainly due to the combustion of syngas in gas turbine, 437 438 which produces additional power. Besides, the steam cycle has a higher Carnot energy efficiency of Case B due to higher temperature of flue gas from gas turbines compared with MSW combustion 439 system. For these systems led by one-stage plasma gasification of Cases C, D and E, the highest energy 440 efficiency belongs to the combination of SOFC and SOEC. In addition, the energy efficiency of present 441 work is relative at least 14 % improvement in comparison with that of Case F which also adopts the 442

same BFB-Plasma gasification technology. The reason of the efficiency increment can be attributed 443 to the application of the energy-efficient SOFC unit. Furthermore, the net energy efficiency of present 444 work is approximately 4% lower than the highest efficiency (44.9%) of Case E which employs pure 445 hydrogen as the plasma gas in the gasification section and that hydrogen is provided by SOEC. 446 However, the calculation of the net electrical efficiency in Case E does not previously include the 447 electrical consumption of the hydrogen generation although the power in SOEC is supplied by a 448 renewable energy of wind. Besides, the involvement of CO<sub>2</sub> capture does not exist in Case E. Hence, 449 it is reasonable to conclude that the proposed process is thermodynamically more performing and 450 can realize low-to-zero CO<sub>2</sub> emission. 451



452



454

configurations

### 455 **5.** Conclusions

In this study, BFB-Plasma gasification, SOFC, CLC and HRSG & CC subsystems are integrated for 456 power generation using MSW as the fuel. Process simulation results showed that the hybrid system 457 458 could achieve a net electrical efficiency of 40.9 % and an exergy efficiency of 36.7 % with a CO<sub>2</sub> capture efficiency of 99.3 %. Exergy destruction distribution is the largest in BFB-Plasma gasification 459 unit accounting for 33.62 % of the total exergy destruction rates. The SOFC and CLC units are 460 responsible for 15.45 and 14.72 % of the total exergy destruction, respectively. It is found that the 461 optimal operating conditions are STFR = 0.5, utilization factor of 0.8 and operating temperature of 462 CLC as 1000 °C. Besides, it is revealed that higher current density of SOFC shows a negative impact 463 464 on system efficiency. In comparison with other MSW to power processes, the proposed process reaches a higher net electrical efficiency. 465

466

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