



Gas switching technology: Economic attractiveness for chemical looping applications and scale up experience to 50 kW_{th}

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ABSTRACT

Gas switching technology (GST) was introduced to facilitate operation and scale-up of pressurized chemical looping-based technologies thus bringing the expected benefits of reducing costs and energy penalty of CO₂ capture. GST has so far been applied to generate heat/power, hydrogen, syngas, and oxygen using fossil fuel gas (but also from biomass for negative CO₂ emissions) with integrated CO₂ capture at minimal energy penalty generating over 50 publication studies demonstrating the technical feasibility of the technology and quantifying the potential energy and cost savings. In contrast to conventional chemical looping, GST inherently avoids solids circulation by alternating oxidizing and reducing conditions into a single fluidized bed reactor with an oxygen carrier, thus removing many of the technical challenges that hinder the scale-up of the technology. GST has successfully been applied and demonstrated for combustion, steam/dry methane reforming, and water splitting, using different oxygen carriers, showing the ease of operation under both atmospheric and pressurized conditions and achieving high products separation efficiency.

This paper summarises the different studies completed on the Gas Switching Technology covering experimental demonstration (including the experience from a 50 kW_{th} cluster), process modelling and techno-economics, highlighting the advantages and disadvantages of the technology and discussing the way forward.

1. Introduction

Carbon Capture Utilisation and Storage (CCUS) is becoming a key component in global warming mitigation pathways, providing a set of technologies that can ensure rapid decarbonization of the energy/industrial sector and accelerated transition towards a greener economy (IEA World Energy Outlook report, 2021). CCUS technologies are developed to adapt to the different industrial requirements and are commonly categorized as post-combustion, pre-combustion, and

oxy-combustion. Each of these categories gathers sets of technologies with different levels of maturity and prospects for reducing the CO₂ capture penalty/energy intensity (Abanades et al., 2015). Amongst these technologies, chemical looping has emerged as a promising technology with great prospects to reduce CO₂ capture penalty and costs (Osman et al., 2021).

Fig. 2

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Acronyms		POX	Partial oxidation
ACF	Annual Cash Flow	NG	Natural Gas
AF	Added Firing	NGCC	Natural Gas Combined Cycle
ASU	Air Separation Unit	SMR	Steam Methane Reforming
C	Capital	WGS	Water Gas Shift
CA	CO ₂ Avoidance	<i>List of Symbols</i>	
CC	Combined Cycle	<i>E</i>	Specific emissions (kgCO ₂ /unit of product)
CCReq	Equivalent Carbon Capture Ratio	<i>F</i>	Molar flow (mol/s)
CCS	Carbon Capture and Storage	<i>Q</i>	Heat (kW)
COCA	Cost of CO ₂ Avoidance	<i>P</i>	Pressure (Pa)
CSTR	Continuous Stirred Tank Reactor	<i>R</i>	Global Reaction rate (mol/s)
GE	General Electric	<i>R_g</i>	Gas constant (J/molK)
GSC	Gas Switching Combustion	<i>T</i>	Temperature (K)
GSOP	Gas Switching Oxygen Production	<i>W</i>	Power (kW)
GSR	Gas Switching Reforming	<i>m</i>	Mass flow (kg/s)
GSPOX	Gas Switching Partial Oxidation	<i>n</i>	Moles (mol)
GSWS	Gas Switching Water Splitting	$\Delta H_{r,T}$	Enthalpy of reaction (J/mol)
GT	Gas Turbine	<i>t</i>	Time (s)
GT	Gas to Liquid	<i>y</i>	Mole fraction (-)
HAT	Humid Air Turbine	<i>v</i>	Stoichiometric coefficient (-)
HGCU	Hot Gas Clean Up	ϕ	Capacity factor
HTW	High Temperature Winklet	<i>c_p</i>	Specific heat capacity (J/molK)
IGCC	Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle	<i>Subscripts/Superscripts</i>	
LCOE	Levelized Cost of Electricity	<i>k</i>	Component
LCOH	Levelized Cost of Hydrogen	<i>r</i>	Reaction
LHV	Lower Heating Value	<i>in</i>	Inlet
MAWGS	Membrane Assisted Water Gas Shift	<i>out</i>	Outlet
MDEA	Methyldiethanolamine	<i>eq</i>	Equilibrium
MEA	Monoethanolamine	<i>ref</i>	Reference
OPPC	Oxygen Production Pre-combustion		
PCC	Pre-combustion Capture		

1.1. Chemical looping technology

Chemical looping typically employs a dual Circulating Fluidized Bed (CFB) system (Fig. 1a) where a metal oxide is used as bed material to provide the oxygen/catalysis for the reaction with the fuel in an N₂-free environment (fuel reactor), thus resulting in a pure stream of CO₂ (and H₂O) ready for utilisation or storage if the concept is applied to combustion and power generation. The metal oxide that is reduced by the fuel is then transferred to a second reactor (air reactor) where it is re-oxidized before being reintroduced back to the fuel reactor for a new cycle of redox reactions. This technology has been proven to reduce the energy penalty of energy-intensive processes significantly, as the heat of the reaction could be transferred by metal oxide (oxygen carrier/catalyst) and utilized in the energy-demanding redox step. The chemical looping technology is mature and has been demonstrated in several lab and pilot plants under atmospheric conditions (Lyngfelt et al., 2019) for different applications (e.g. combustion (Lyngfelt, 2013; Adánez and Abad, 2019), reforming (Luis et al., 2009), water splitting (Voitic and Hacker, 2016)). However, a high-pressure operation is required to achieve maximal process efficiency and integration with other downstream processes, e.g. Fisher Tropsch, methanol synthesis, etc. (Adanez et al., 2012; Hamers et al., 2014).

The advancement of pressurized chemical looping technology has been slow, with only a few successful experimental demonstrations (Xiao et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2014; Bischi et al., 2011), despite the proven fundamental prospects of the technology in driving down the compression cost of CO₂ capture (Fisher et al., 2012).

Pressurized chemical looping operation with the CFB based configuration is difficult because of the complexity of the interconnected reactor setup at extreme temperatures (> 900 °C) (Fig. 1a). To fulfil heat

and mass balance, there is a need to precisely circulate a large amount of oxygen carrier material between the interconnected reactors, which is challenging given that each reactor vessel is pressurized independently. An instantaneous pressure imbalance between the interconnected reactors could cause instabilities in solids circulation, incomplete fuel conversion, sharp variations in temperature, and excessive leakages through the sealing devices which impacts negatively on the gas purity (due to undesired mixing of different gases) and the CO₂ capture efficiency. This could even lead to the risk of explosions in situations where highly reactive gases mix.

1.2. Gas switching technology

Several reactor configurations have been proposed as an alternative to carrying out chemical looping reactions under pressurized conditions covering fixed bed (Noorman et al., 2007) and internal circulating bed (A. Zaabout et al., 2016) where both were applied to combustion (Hamers et al., 2015; Osman et al., 2020) and reforming (Spallina et al., 2017; Osman et al., 2019) (a thorough review can be found (Osman et al., 2021)). amongst others, the Gas Switching Technology – GST has received increased focus in recent years due to the simplicity of its design. Unlike conventional chemical looping, GST utilizes a single bed reactor in which the oxidizing and reducing gases are alternated to achieve a redox reaction, hence avoiding the external circulation of the oxygen carrier particles (Fig. 1b) and the need for additional separation systems such as cyclones and loop seals; this also reduces the cost substantially and simplifies operation. GST has been demonstrated under both packed and fluidized bed conditions with several published studies covering the different applications and highlighting the strengths and drawbacks of the technologies (Osman et al., 2021; Noorman et al.,

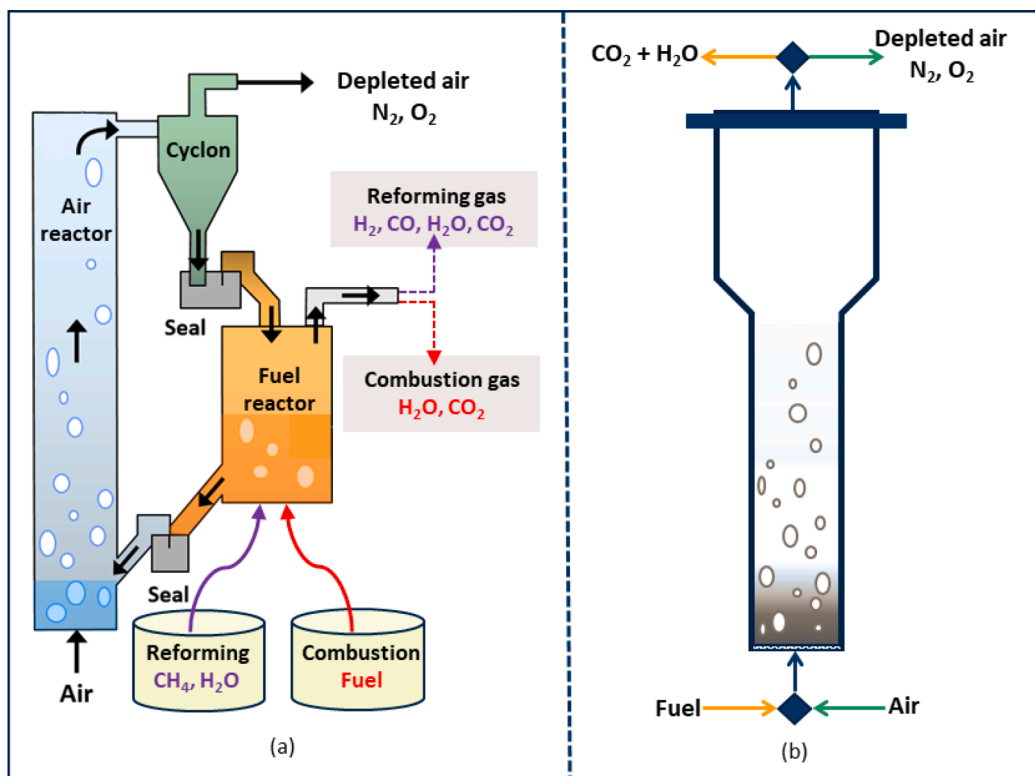


Fig. 1. Chemical looping and Gas Switching Technology for reforming and combustion applications. a) represents a scheme of conventional chemical looping reforming and combustion (Science, 2019); b) represents the simplified Gas Switching configuration of Chemical Looping Combustion (A. Zaabout et al., 2013).

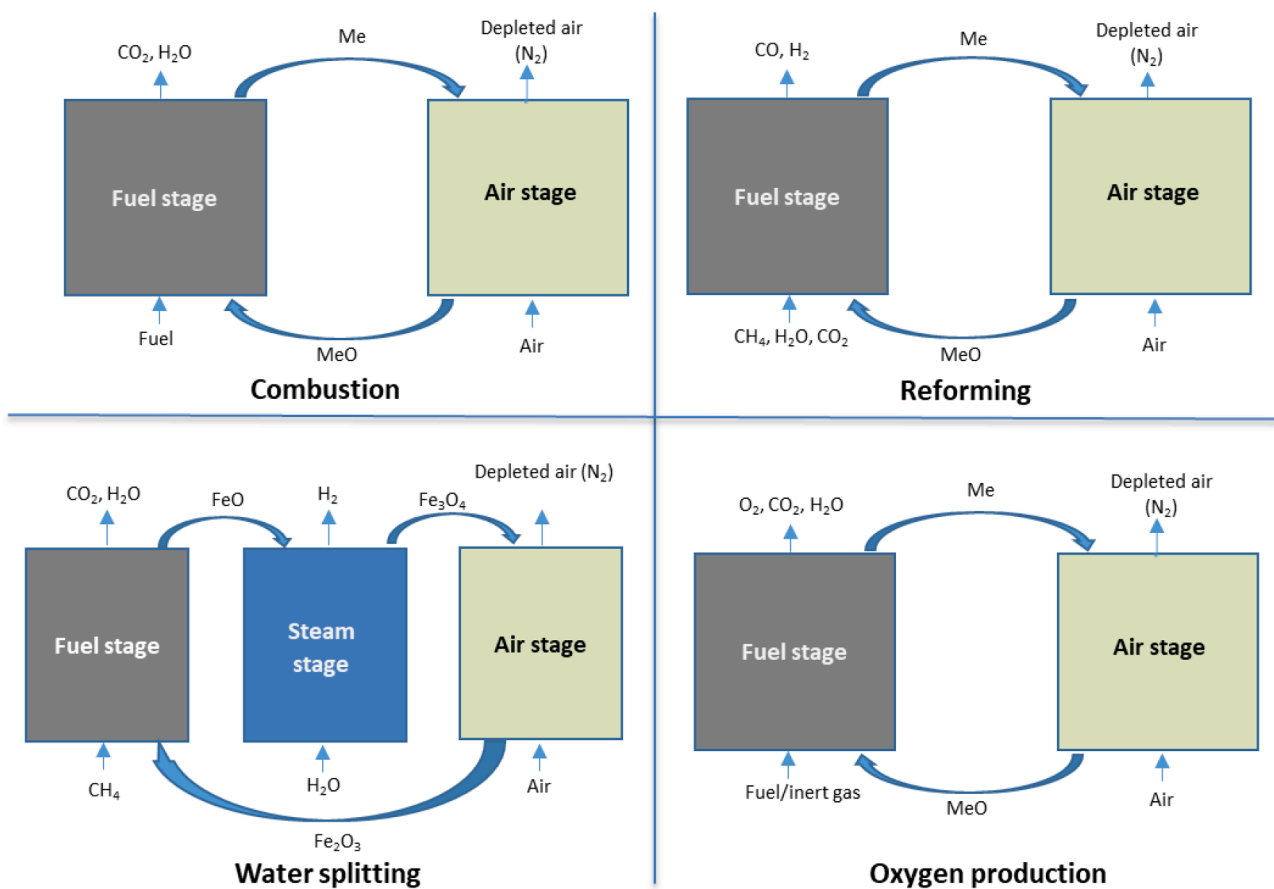


Fig. 2. The four chemical looping processes under investigation using gas switching technology.

2010). This paper focuses on the fluidized bed-based GST technology, where the oxygen carrier in the single reactor is being fluidized by the alternated feed gases. The good mixing characteristics of fluidized bed reactors bring several benefits to the process such as reduced carbon deposition (due to uniform reduction of the oxygen carrier) or reduced thermal stresses on the oxygen carrier (due to the absence of hot spots). More importantly, a wide range of inlet flowrates can be accommodated in the bubbling-turbulent fluidized bed regime, making this concept very suitable to be combined with flexible load power plants to respond to the increased share of renewable energy deployment and the associated intermittent energy supply. Process modelling, experimental demonstration, and techno-economic assessments have shown the high competitiveness of this reactor concept in addressing most shortcomings of the conventional chemical looping and demonstrated reduced costs (Cloete et al., 2016; C.A. del Pozo et al., 2019; Nazir et al., 2018; S.A. Wassie et al., 2018; C.A. del Pozo et al., 2020; S.A. Wassie et al., 2017; S.A. Wassie et al., 2018; Zaabout et al., 2017). GST has been applied to capturing CO₂ in combustion processes for heat and power generation (A. Zaabout et al., 2013; Nazir et al., 2018; Zaabout et al., 2015; ZAABOUT et al., 2021; A. Zaabout et al., 2013), H₂ production through methane reforming (S.A. Wassie et al., 2017; S.A. Wassie et al., 2018; S.A. Wassie et al., 2017; S.M. Nazir et al., 2019; A. Ugwu et al., 2019; Zaabout et al., 2019), GHG (CO₂ and CH₄) utilization through dry reforming (A. Ugwu et al., 2019), in addition to assessing its potential in providing flexibility in terms of product requirement (H₂ or power) (Szima et al., 2019).

This paper reports the nutshell of the studies completed for application of the GST technology to four processes (combustion, reforming, water splitting, and oxygen production):

- **Combustion:** Oxy-combustion of gaseous fuel using the lattice oxygen of metal oxide (oxygen carrier) to produce a pure stream of CO₂ ready for storage/further utilization. The reduced oxygen carrier is regenerated by oxidizing with air in a separate step to avoid mixing with CO₂. The hot stream of N₂ from the exothermic oxidation step is used to drive a gas turbine for power generation.
- **Reforming:** Steam/CO₂ reforming of methane to produce syngas (H₂ and CO) with integrated carbon capture. Here, the oxygen carrier does not only act as an oxygen reservoir but also as a catalyst. The overall reaction in the reduction step is endothermic, so the required heat for the process is generated in the oxidation step. Syngas production in this process can also occur through the heterogeneous partial oxidation of methane using the lattice oxygen of the metal oxide, resulting in syngas (H₂ and CO) of H₂/CO ratio ~2 suitable for Gas-to-Liquid applications (e.g. Fischer-Tropsch processes).
- **Water splitting:** Partial oxidation of a reduced oxygen carrier with steam to produce pure H₂. The oxygen carrier is first reduced by carbon-rich fuel gases and captures the CO₂ generated. After the partial oxidation of the reduced oxygen carrier with steam, the lattice oxygen is fully restored in a third reaction step by complete oxidation with air that also generates the heat needed to support the complete redox cycle.
- **Oxygen production:** The release of gaseous oxygen from metal oxides/oxygen carriers with oxygen uncoupling capability by reducing the partial pressure of oxygen at high temperatures. The oxygen carrier should have a suitable equilibrium partial pressure of gas-phase oxygen at temperatures of interest (Wang et al., 2015).

The scope of the paper covers material development, concept experimental demonstration for the four different applications, process modelling, and techno-economic for benchmarking with the state-of-the-art technologies. With the successful demonstration of the proposed gas switching technology, a business case analysis was completed for scale-up and commercialization. The demonstration challenges and learning from a 50kW_{th} pre-pilot scale reactor cluster developed and commissioned to validate the feasibility of the GST concept for

commercialisation is also covered. Although the GST technology was studied in different projects, the reported results are mainly focused on the outcomes of the ERA-NET GaSTech project funded by the ACT CCS call (Grant Agreement No 691,712).

2. Experimental results

2.1. Experimental demonstration

Experiments were completed in a 1 kW_{th} lab-scale standalone reactor (Fig. 3) with the aim to achieve autothermal operation for each GST concept at pressurized conditions. The gas feed system consisted of gas mass flow controllers, stop and multiway valves (controlled through a LabVIEW program). Temperature and pressure sensors in the reactor setup were used for monitoring the stability of the process while the gas composition at the reactor outlet was analysed using ETG MCA 100 Syn analyser.

2.1.1. Combustion

Combustion has been one of the most extensively investigated processes of the gas switching reactor concept. Ni-based oxygen carrier was used to prove the GSC concept for power generation (A. Zaabout et al., 2013; A. Zaabout et al., 2016). Autothermal operation was achieved with CO₂ capture efficiency and CO₂ purity of 97.2% and 98.2% respectively (A. Zaabout et al., 2013). Further demonstration campaigns were completed with non-Nickel oxygen carriers as summarized in Table 1, including cheaply abundant ilmenite ore that has shown good performance even under pressurized conditions (up to 5 bar) (Zaabout et al., 2017). Another oxygen carrier with high relevance to GSC was a CaMnO_{3-δ}-based oxygen carrier (developed within the EU-financed project INNOCUOUS and named "C28" (Mattisson et al., 2014), which has an exothermic reduction reaction with CO & CH₄ and has been recommended for minimizing the temperature variation across the redox cycle in order to maximize the process energy efficiency (Zaabout et al., 2015; Cloete et al., 2017). This oxygen carrier showed promising results in terms of cyclic stability even at temperatures above 900 °C and has achieved approximately 77% CH₄ conversion (Zaabout et al., 2018). However, the CO₂ capture efficiency was negatively affected by coking resulting in CO₂ emissions at the beginning of the oxidation stage when the deposited carbon combusted (see gas composition profile in Fig. 4). Based on the findings, the CaMnO_{3-δ} oxygen carrier was further optimized to reduce coking and tested in the 50kW_{th} pre-pilot scale reactor as described in Section 0.

2.1.2. Reforming

Gas switching reforming is one of the extensively tested processes using the proposed gas switching reactor. The first GSR campaign was completed using NiO/Al₂O₃ oxygen carrier which has been widely studied as a good catalyst in the reduced form (Ni) for methane reforming (S.A. Wassie et al., 2017). This study successfully demonstrated autothermal operation (without an external supply of heat to drive the process) of the GSR concept where the heat for the endothermic steam methane reforming reaction was supplied by the exothermic oxidation reaction of the oxygen carrier (S.A. Wassie et al., 2017). Following the successful demonstration, Pd-based membranes have been proposed to extract H₂ during the syngas production step to improve H₂ selectivity and yield. Such integration has led to achieving CH₄ conversion of 55% at temperatures as low as 550 °C (S.A. Wassie et al., 2018). Another GSR study was completed using catalysts with reduced Nickel content (Fe-Ni/Al₂O₃, Fe-Ce/Al₂O₃) and non-Nickel content (Fe/Al₂O₃) (Zaabout et al., 2019). It was observed that Fe-Ni/Al₂O₃ performed best achieving up to 80% CH₄ conversion to syngas in the reforming stage (Zaabout et al., 2019) as shown in Fig. 5. It should be noted that CH₄ conversion deteriorates only in the last third of the reduction stage, implying that the switch to the reforming stage could be applied earlier to eliminate the large slippage of unconverted

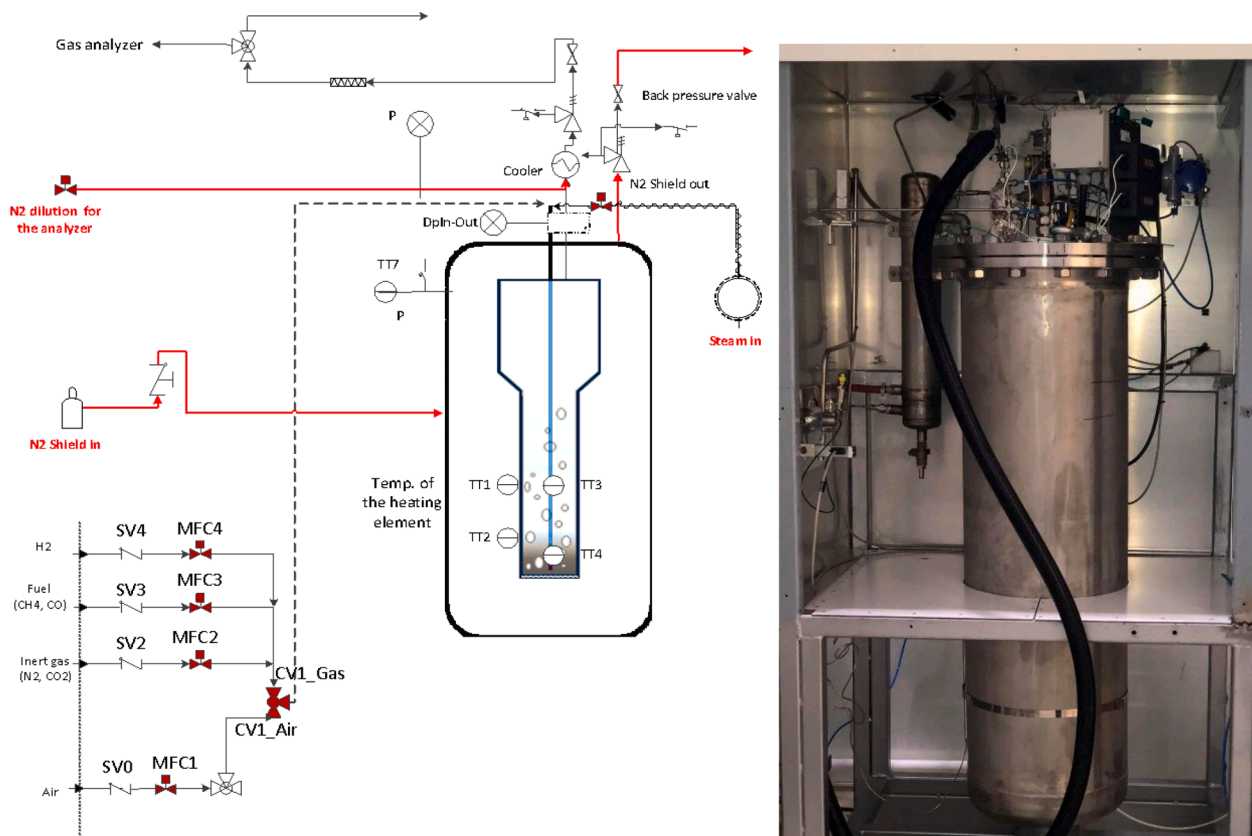


Fig. 3. Setup of the standalone pressurized fluidized bed reactor used for experimental demonstration equipped with the needed devices for gas feed and reactor monitoring.

Table 1
summary of the experimental studies completed for Gas Switching Combustion.

S/ N	Title	Oxygen carrier	Condition	Findings	Ref.
1	Experimental Demonstration of a Novel Gas Switching Combustion Reactor for Power Production with Integrated CO ₂ Capture	NiO/Al ₂ O ₃ (active content 37% wt)	Temp: up to 800°C Pressure: 1 bar Fuel: CO Duration: up to 12 hr	Autothermal operation with high CO ₂ capture efficiency (97.2%) and purity (98.2%)	(A. Zaabout et al., 2013)
2	Experimental demonstration of control strategies for a Gas Switching Combustion reactor for power production with integrated CO ₂ capture	NiO/Al ₂ O ₃ (active content 37% wt)	Temp: up to 600 °C Pressure: 1 bar Fuel: CO Duration: up to 12 hr	Proper heat management makes the GSC process more efficient and less energy intensive.	(A. Zaabout et al., 2016)
3	A novel gas switching combustion reactor for power production with integrated CO ₂ capture: Sensitivity to the fuel and oxygen carrier types	NiO/Al ₂ O ₃ , ilmenite, Fe, Mn(CeO ₃)	Temp: 600 - 800°C Pressure: 1.8 - 5 bar Fuel: CH ₄ , syngas	Complete fuel conversion with syngas. CO ₂ purity (95%) and capture efficiency (97%) but lower CO ₂ purity (~80%) with methane.	(Zaabout et al., 2015)
4	Autothermal operation of a pressurized Gas Switching Combustion with ilmenite ore	Ilmenite ore and NiO/Al ₂ O ₃ (active content 37% wt)	Temperature: 680 - 920°C Pressure: 1- 5 bar Fuel: CO Duration: up to 12 hr	~85% fuel conversion (@920°C, 1 bar). Ilmenite shows good performance and enhances the attractiveness of the GSC concept	(Zaabout et al., 2017)
5	A pressurized Gas Switching Combustion reactor: Autothermal operation with a CaMnO _{3-δ} -based oxygen carrier	CaMnO _{3-δ} oxygen carrier with (~4 wt%) of MgO	Temperature: 750 - 950°C Pressure: 1.8 - 5 bar Fuel: H ₂ and CO Duration: up to 12 hr	~90% fuel conversion (@920°C, 1.82 bar). A power plant efficiency of 41% and CO ₂ avoidance of 90% could be achieved.	(Zaabout et al., 2018)

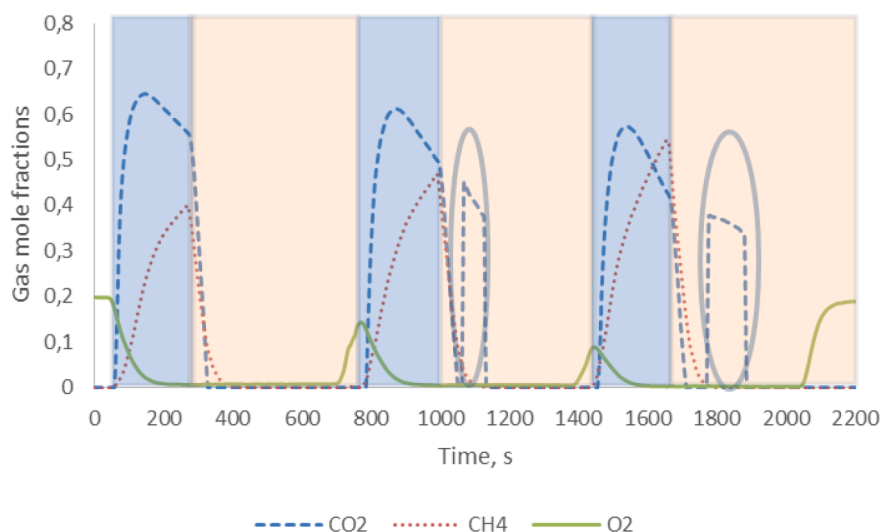


Fig. 4. Transient gas composition at the reactor outlet for three autothermal GSC cycles using CH_4 as fuel at a pressure of 1.82 bar and 880°C . The reduction stage (where the fuel (CH_4) is supplied to combust using the lattice oxygen of the metal oxide) is in blue and the air stage (where air is supplied to re-oxidize/restore the lattice oxygen of the reduced metal oxide) is in orange (Zaabout et al., 2018).

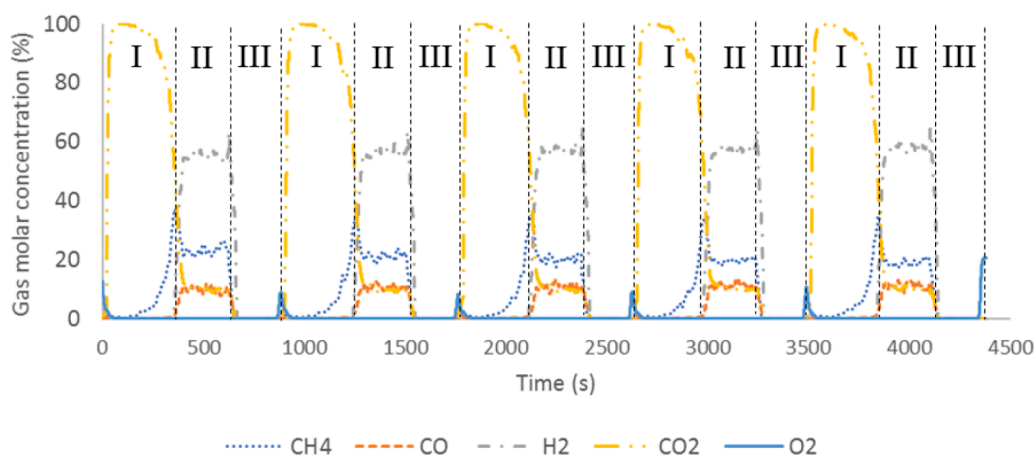


Fig. 5. The variation of the gas composition at the reactor outlet with time for five GSR cycles using $\text{Fe}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ at 800°C and atmospheric pressure. The GSR stages reduction, reforming (methane and steam were fed) and oxidation with pure air are numbered respectively I, II and III (Zaabout et al., 2019).

CH_4 . However, if an iron-based oxygen carrier is used, a higher reduction level is required to achieve a high conversion rate under reforming conditions, implying that the length of the reduction stage could remain as shown in the current experiments (Fig. 5). In this case, the gas products from the last third of the stage (where CH_4 conversion is low) could be fed to the proceeding reforming step. Such a process has been proven to work as shown in a previously published study (A. Ugwu et al., 2019).

The $\text{Fe-Ni}/\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ catalyst was investigated further at pressurized conditions up to 5 bar using a four-stage (reduction, partial oxidation, reforming, and oxidation) process to comprehensively explore the behaviour of the oxygen carrier towards syngas production [47]. The inclusion of a partial oxidation step was motivated by the fact that the performance of the reforming stage was substantially improved when the oxygen carrier was reduced more. Implying that the more the oxygen carrier is reduced, the more active sites are created for CH_4 adsorption to react with the lattice oxygen (partial oxidation of CH_4). With such a cycle, about 97.61% and 90% CH_4 conversion were achieved in the reduction and the reforming stages respectively (A. Ugwu et al., 2020). As expected from thermodynamic calculations, the CH_4 conversion decreased in the reforming stage with the increase in pressure but remained insensitive to pressure at the partial oxidation stage.

Increasing the pressure also changed the mechanism for carbon deposition in the POX stage changed from methane cracking to Boudouard reaction (A. Ugwu et al., 2020) resulting in a decrease in the rate of carbon deposition at higher pressures. In general, the performance in the POX stage under pressurized conditions was better than the reforming stage in terms of CH_4 conversion and carbon of carbon deposition suggesting that eliminating the reforming stage could make the process more efficient.

Another proof of concept study was completed to demonstrate the GST concept under CO_2 (dry) reforming of CH_4 condition using Ni-based catalyst and a three-stage process as shown in Fig. 6 (A. Ugwu et al., 2019). As shown from the gas composition and the temperature profiles (Fig. 7), autothermal cycling was achieved for the range of $\text{CO}_2:\text{CH}_4$ ratio from 0.25 – 2 resulting in a syngas with H_2/CO molar ratio between 1 and 3 (suitable for GTL processes) with up to 90% syngas purity (A. Ugwu et al., 2019). Although carbon deposition was significant for the cases with $\text{CO}_2:\text{CH}_4$ ratio of less than 2, the activity and catalyst stability were not negatively affected since the cyclic nature of GSDR ensured that all the produced carbon was gasified/combusted in the preceding reforming and oxidation stages. By co-feeding, steam, CO_2 and CH_4 , the combined effects of steam methane reforming and dry methane reforming was achieved with the following benefits: i) desirable syngas

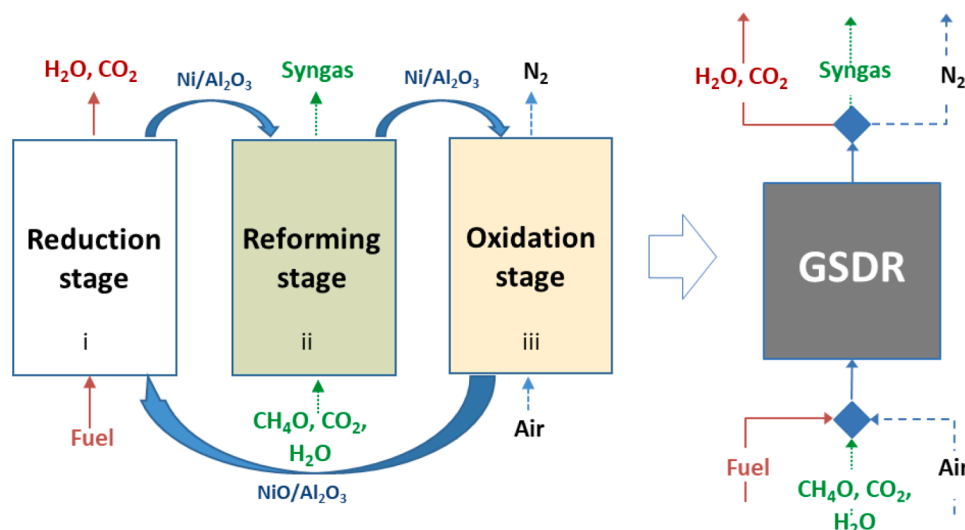


Fig. 6. The three-stage Gas switching dry reforming process design (A. Ugwu et al., 2019).

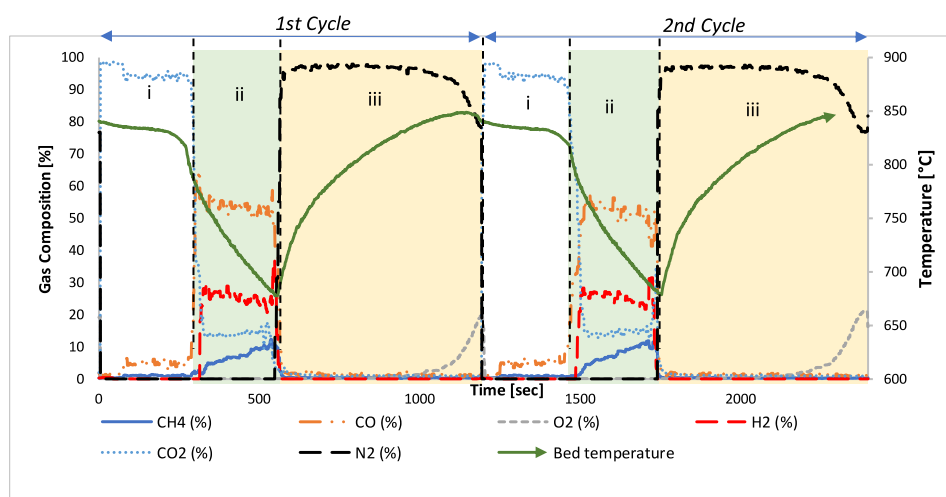


Fig. 7. The transient gas composition and temperature profile of two autothermal GSDR cycles with the target temperature to start the reduction step of 850 °C, at the atmospheric condition and CO₂/CH₄ molar ratio of 2. The reduction, reforming and oxidation stages are represented by i, ii and iii respectively (A. Ugwu et al., 2019).

quality (H₂/CO molar ratio) between 1 – 3 which could be suitable for GTL processes, ii) reduced carbon deposition and iii) reduced cost associated with air separation since ASU in the tri/autothermal reforming process is eliminated. The list of the completed gas switching reforming studies is presented in Table 2.

2.1.3. Water splitting

The experimental study of Gas Switching Water Splitting (GSWS) was completed using two iron-based oxygen carriers (A. Ugwu et al., 2020). The result from the first campaign using Fe₂O₃/Al₂O₃ with 35% wt active content oxygen carrier shows over 20% conversion of steam to H₂ from the transient gas composition (Fig. 8). The result also reveals that the oxygen carrier is reduced in two phases– i) the 1st phase with fuel high conversion where the oxygen carrier is reduced from Fe₂O₃ to Fe₃O₄ and ii) the 2nd phase with less fuel conversion/more fuel slippage where the oxygen carrier is reduced from Fe₃O₄ to FeO. The decrease in conversion at the 2nd phase is due to the equilibrium restriction of the reduction reaction from Fe₃O₄ to FeO. Nonetheless, the 2nd phase cannot be avoided since thermodynamics require that the oxygen carrier is reduced to at FeO/Fe to enable the splitting of H₂O to H₂ upon

reoxidation, implying that GSWS will always be associated with high fuel slippage unless the gas-solid contact pattern is changed. However, the unconverted gas could be recycled to downstream processes such as combustion (A. Zaabout et al., 2013; Zaabout et al., 2015) or reforming, GSR (S.A. Wassie et al., 2018; S.A. Wassie et al., 2017), to improve process efficiency. A previous thermodynamic assessment of such integration to GSC (for IGCC power plant) shows over 4% improvement in efficiency (Cloete et al., 2015). Also, the H₂ from the steam stage could be used as fuel for combustors to raise the stream temperature to the maximum achievable turbine inlet temperature (800 - 1200 °C), ensuring high electric efficiencies, while accommodating a large amount of the unconverted fuel from the GSWS fuel stage. However, a major limitation of low H₂ purity (< 80%) due to the gas mixing while switching between the different reaction stages (Fig. 8) persisted. This problem motivated the development of Cu-doped Mg(Fe_{0.9}Al_{0.1})₂O₄ spinel OC with 74%wt redox-active components that result in oxygen storage capacities of ~ 10 and ~22%wt, respectively). With the higher active content of the oxygen carrier, it was expected that the GSWS stages could be longer to reduce the effect of gas mixing on the H₂ purity which happens only while changing to different process stages.

Table 2

A summary of the experimental studies completed for Gas Switching Reforming.

S/N	Title	Catalyst	Type	Condition	Findings	Ref.
1	Hydrogen production with integrated CO ₂ capture in a novel gas switching reforming reactor: Proof-of-concept	NiO/Al ₂ O ₃ (active content 35% wt)	SMR	Temp: 700 – 850 °C Pressure: 1 bar Duration: up to 72hr	Successful demonstration of autothermal GSR concept for H ₂ production. Note that GSR replaces the SMR, implying that WGS and PSA steps are needed to produce pure hydrogen. However, with GSR, PSA off-gas could be used fuel stage for reducing the oxygen carrier.	(S.A. Wassie et al., 2017)
2	Hydrogen production with integrated CO ₂ capture in a membrane assisted gas switching reforming reactor: Proof-of-Concept	NiO/Al ₂ O ₃ (active content 37% wt)	Membrane assisted SMR	Temp: 440 - 550 °C Pressure: 1 - 4 bar Duration: up to 72hr	The application of Pd-based membranes for selective H ₂ recovery in the reforming step has resulted in CH ₄ conversion beyond equilibrium prediction (55% at 550 °C and 1.6 bar).	(S.A. Wassie et al., 2018)
3	Gas Switching Reforming (GSR) for syngas production with integrated CO ₂ capture using iron-based oxygen carriers	i.Fe ₂ O ₃ /Al ₂ O ₃ ii.Fe-Ni/Al ₂ O ₃ iii.Fe-Ce/Al ₂ O ₃	SMR	Temp: 700 - 850°C Pressure: 1 bar Duration: up to 72hr	Successful demonstration of autothermal GSR concept for syngas and H ₂ producing using iron-based oxygen carriers. Up to 80% CH ₄ conversion achieved at 800°C	(Zaabout et al., 2019)
4	The effect of gas permeation through vertical membranes on chemical switching reforming (CSR) reactor performance	N/A	N/A	Temp: 25 °C Pressure: 1 bar Duration: up to 4hr	The effect of gas extraction through vertical membranes on the bed dynamics of GSR. It was revealed that the bubble dynamics is mainly affected by the location of the membrane than the extraction rate. However, densified zone may form which could be detrimental to the process performance through causing gas channelling with associated gas bed contact.	(Wassie, 2016; S.A. Wassie et al., 2017)
5	Gas Switching Reforming for syngas production with iron-based oxygen carrier-the performance under pressurized conditions	Fe-Ni/Al ₂ O ₃	SMR & POX	Temp: 750 - 950°C Pressure: 1- 5 bar Duration: up to 12hr	Successful demonstration of pressurized GSR concept at higher pressures up to 5 bar. The study suggested that combining SMR and POX improves gas conversion and reduces coking.	(A. Ugwu et al., 2020)
6	An advancement in CO ₂ utilization through novel gas switching dry reforming	NiO/Al ₂ O ₃ (active content 35% wt)	DMR	Temp: 750 - 950°C Pressure: 1- 5 bar Duration: up to 12hr	Autothermal operation with good CH ₄ conversion to syngas of H ₂ /CO molar ratio suitable for GTL processes.	(A. Ugwu et al., 2019)

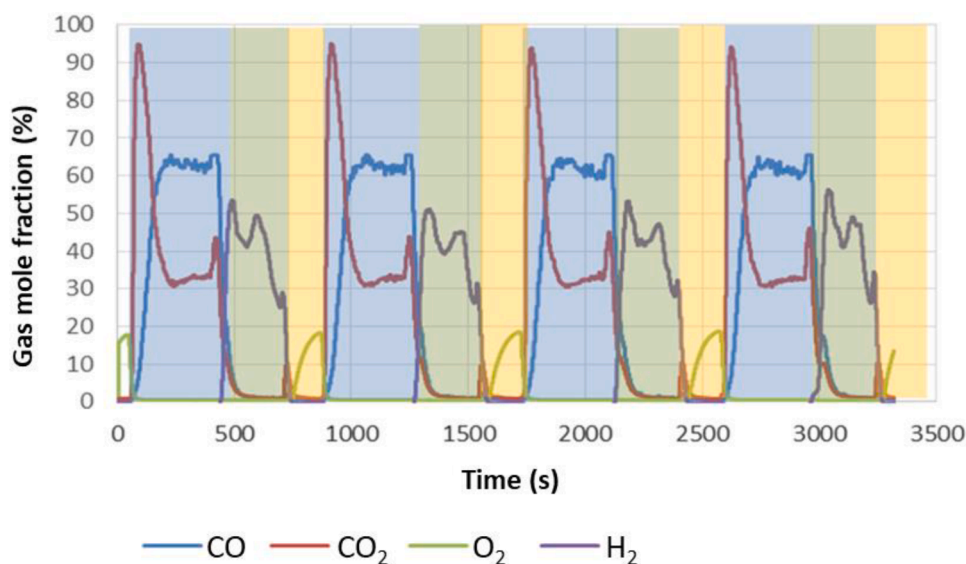


Fig. 8. The transient gas composition of 4 GSWS cycles using CO as fuel at 900 °C and 1 bar. Fuel stage in blue; Steam stage in green (H₂ production stage); Air stage in yellow (A. Ugwu et al., 2020).

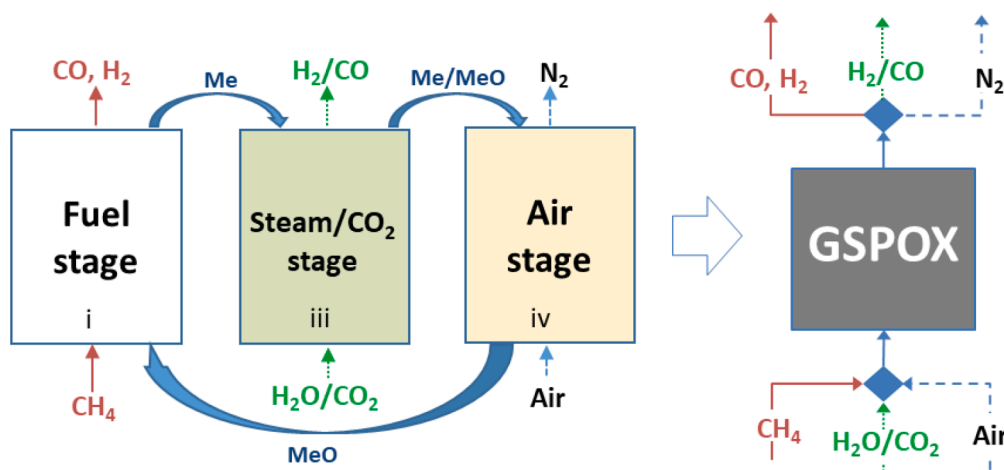


Fig. 9. Three-stage GSPOX process. i: fuel stage; ii: N_2 purge; iii: steam stage; iv: Air stage (Ugwu et al., 2021).

Although the new oxygen carrier was very reactive, it exhibited a high degree of coking and agglomeration making it difficult to be used in the reactor. In general, the proposed GSWS process is promising for H_2 production but still faced with inherent problems of thermodynamic restriction on gas conversion and the contamination of the produced H_2 due to gas mixing while switching in-between stages.

2.1.4. Partial oxidation

Gas switching partial oxidation is a three-step process for combined syngas and H_2/CO production (Fig. 9). This study was completed using lanthanum strontium ferrite oxygen carrier ($La_{0.8}Sr_{0.2}Fe_{0.95}Al_{0.05}O_3$) that was produced by Euro Support Advanced Materials B.V. through a spray-drying process, and the process has the capability to combine the advantages of partial oxidation of CH_4 and GSWS (Section 0) for syngas and H_2/CO production. This concept was first investigated at small scale using fluidized and packed reactors with inner diameters of 16 mm and 8 mm, respectively, (Donat and Müller, 2020; Donat et al., 2020) with a syngas H_2/CO molar ratio of ~ 2 achieved in the fuel stage and $\sim 97\%$ conversion of H_2O or CO_2 to H_2 or CO in the partial oxidation stage at atmospheric condition and temperatures above $900^\circ C$. Based on the promising result, further experiments were complete in the lab-scale standalone reactor (-Fig. 3 to understand the GSPOX behaviour on a

larger scale (Ugwu et al., 2021). The result (Fig. 10) shows that the oxygen carrier exhibited high selectivity towards syngas production at the fuel stage but with some carbon deposition which was not observed in the small-scale study, probably because there the oxygen carrier was reduced more uniformly (Ugwu et al., 2021). However, the gas conversion improved and carbon deposition reduced with an increase in temperature (Ugwu et al., 2021). Co-feeding CO_2 with CH_4 at the fuel stage reduced carbon deposition significantly and improved the purity of the H_2 produced at the steam stage but also reduced the syngas H_2/CO molar ratio from 3.75 to 1 (at CO_2/CH_4 ratio of 1, $950^\circ C$ and 1 bar). Interestingly, the demonstration of CO_2 utilization at the fuel stage showed a stable syngas production over 12 h (Ugwu et al., 2021) and maintained the H_2/CO ratio at almost unity. When steam was introduced after the 12 h fuel stage, similar gas composition and temperature profile as the case with 3 mins fuel stage, suggesting that the oxygen carrier was exposed to simultaneous partial oxidation of CH_4 with the lattice oxygen which was restored instantly by the incoming CO_2 (Ugwu et al., 2021). The addition of steam increased the H_2/CO ratio and reduced carbon deposition (at the H_2O/CH_4 ratio of 1, $950^\circ C$ and 1 bar). With the flexibility that H_2O and CO_2 utilization offer in controlling syngas H_2/CO ratio and reducing coking, GSPOX could be applied to any downstream process, e.g. gas-to-liquid (GTL) processes. The

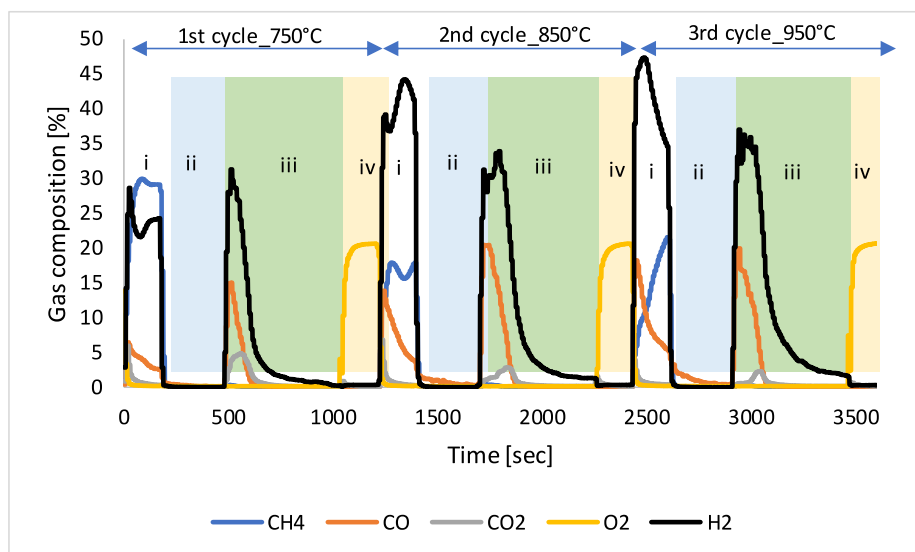


Fig. 10. The transient gas composition for three GSPOX cycles at CH_4 molar fraction of 50% diluted in N_2 , 1 bar, and temperature from 750 to $950^\circ C$. i: fuel stage; ii: N_2 purge; iii: steam stage; iv: Air stage (Ugwu et al., 2021).

high-pressure demonstration achieved over 70% fuel conversion at 5 bar and 950 °C (Ugwu et al., 2021).

2.2. Pre-pilot scale reactor cluster

As illustrated in Section 0, four GST processes (combustion, reforming, water splitting, and partial oxidation) have been successfully demonstrated in the 5 cm ID lab-scale standalone setup (Fig. 3) which does not operate continuously. However, a continuous operation is required to realize the full potential of GST processes and make them economically viable for commercialization. Based on this, a 50kW_{th} pre-pilot cluster was designed and constructed (Fig. 11) consisting of three dynamically identical reactors (10 cm ID each) that operate in an automated manner for a continuous supply of products gas to a downstream process. The reactors can withstand up to 1000 °C and 20 bar and a standpipe was designed to feed gas towards the bottom of the bed to achieve fountain-like gas distribution for good circulation of gases across the bed. The working principle of the cluster is shown in Fig. 12 where different redox steps are alternated to ensure that at least one reactor is on a given step each time to achieve pseudo-continuous operation.

Nonetheless, the major challenge of GST still remains the need for a high-temperature valve, to be placed on the reactor outlet to switch between the different stages involved in the process which was not considered in the present design (e.g. oxidation and reduction are the two stages involved when GST is applied to combustion).

2.2.1. Demonstration and learning

The CaMnO_{3-δ}-based oxygen carrier (with an average particle size of 150 μm) that has been extensively tested in our previous study (Zaabout et al., 2018) was optimized to reduce coking and tested in the cluster under the combustion mode. The objective was to understand the interactions between the individual reactors in operation and implement different operational strategies for the operation of large-scale Gas Switching Technology. The target was to operate the cluster auto-thermally under gas switching combustion (GSC) and reforming modes at high pressures.

2.2.1.1. Combustion with methane. The first demonstration of the cluster was completed using a two-stage (reduction and oxidation) GSC process. Each reactor was loaded with 10 kg (30 kg in total) of CaMnO_{3-δ}-based oxygen carrier and the combustion started at 800 °C (the reactor was heated electrically) at atmospheric pressure. Methane was used as fuel in

the reduction stage while pure air was fed to oxidize the oxygen carrier. Over 80% CH₄ conversion (to CO₂ and H₂O) was achieved combined with CO₂ capture efficiency as high as 97% (indicating that carbon deposition was minimized). The fuel conversion was also observed to improve with cycling showing that the oxygen carrier requires several cycles to activate in agreement with previous studies (Zaabout et al., 2018; Hallberg et al., 2016).

Unfortunately, the oxygen carrier elutriated from the bed and formed hard agglomerates in the downstream lines, back-pressure controllers (BCPs), and the heat exchanger at the reactor outlet (Fig. 13). Particle elutriation was a challenge because the cluster was designed without an expanded freeboard to achieve compact reactors, thus particles easily attain the terminal velocity. Another challenge came from the steam produced from the combustion of CH₄ which made the particles sticky and easy to agglomerate in the lines, BCPs, and the heat exchanger. Analysis of these particles via X-ray diffraction showed that they were compositionally identical with the particles in the bed, indicating that phase segregation (e.g. of Ca-, Mg- or Mn-species) did not occur. Hence, the clogging was caused by fine oxygen carrier particles entrained from the bed in combination with moisture, which needs to be considered and prevented in future studies to ensure stable operation of the process.

2.2.1.2. GSC with co. A further experimental campaign was completed using CO as fuel instead of CH₄ (to prevent moisture in the system) at atmospheric pressure and temperatures between 800 and 900 °C. The weight of the oxygen carrier (bed) inside the reactor was also reduced from 10 kg to 7 kg (making about 50 cm bed height) to enhance uniform fluidization. The result (temperature and gas composition profiles in Fig. 14) shows several stable and repeatable cycles. Autothermal operation (without external heat supply) was achieved in each reactor using CO as fuel under atmospheric conditions. At the fuel stage, complete conversion of CO was achieved at 98.9% CO₂ capture efficiency (Fig. 14). In the oxidation stage, no CO₂/CO was observed (Fig. 14), indicating no carbon deposition during the previous fuel stage. It was ensured that the oxygen carrier was completely oxidized by monitoring the molar percentage of oxygen in the product gas until a steady-state (about 21%) was achieved. The temperature profiles at the bottom, centre, and top of the reactor bed (T1, T2 and T3 respectively) were almost identical (Fig. 14) showing that good mixing of the solid was achieved with the use of a gas-feeding lance to distribute the gases.

The result also shows that the temperatures increase in both reduction and the oxidation stages, implying that autothermal operation (without external heat supply) of the proposed GST technology is always

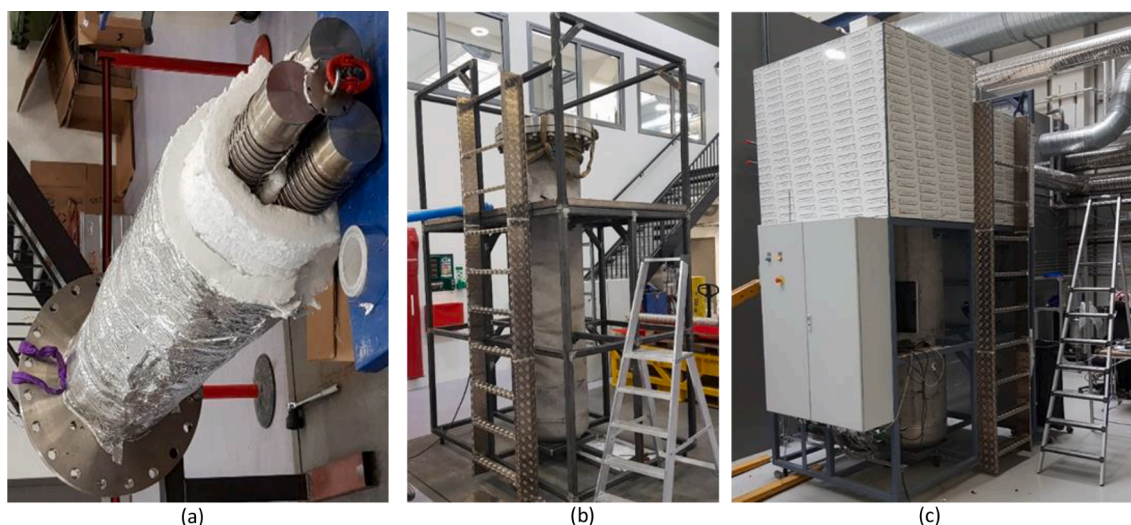


Fig. 11. Photographs of the GST reactor cluster designed to achieve continuous operation. (a) the symmetrical arrangement of the three dynamically identical reactor cluster (b) the experimental setup under construction; (d) the commissioned setup.

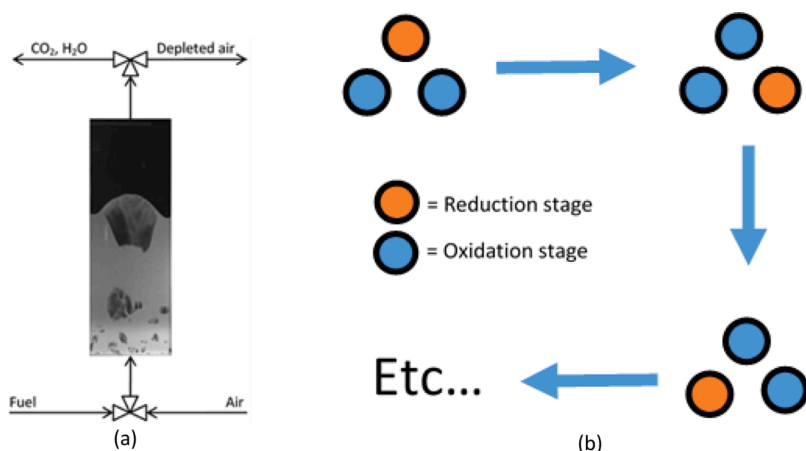


Fig. 12. a) Simple illustration of the gas switching technology under the combustion mode. b) a schematic illustration of the working principle of GST reactor cluster where each circle represents the individual reactor in a different redox step to achieve continuous operation.

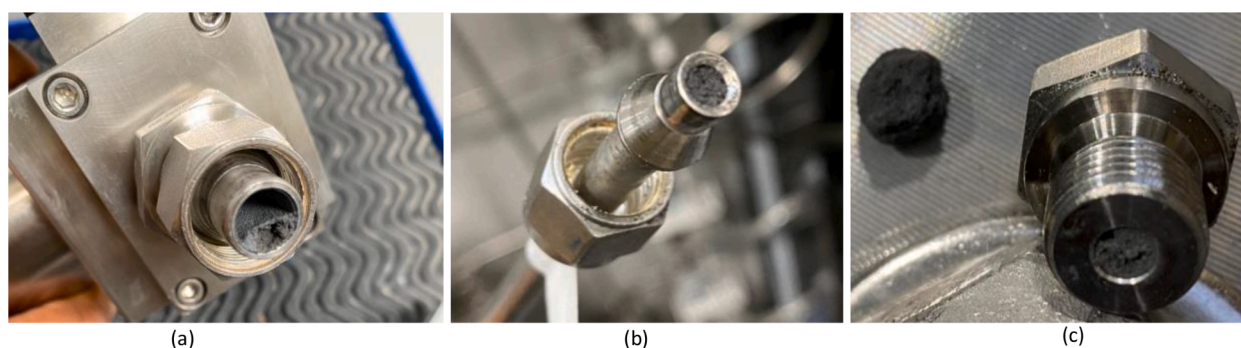


Fig. 13. (a)Clogging of the BCPs; (b) clogging of the gas outlet line; and (c) clogging of the drainage at the bottom of the heat exchanger.

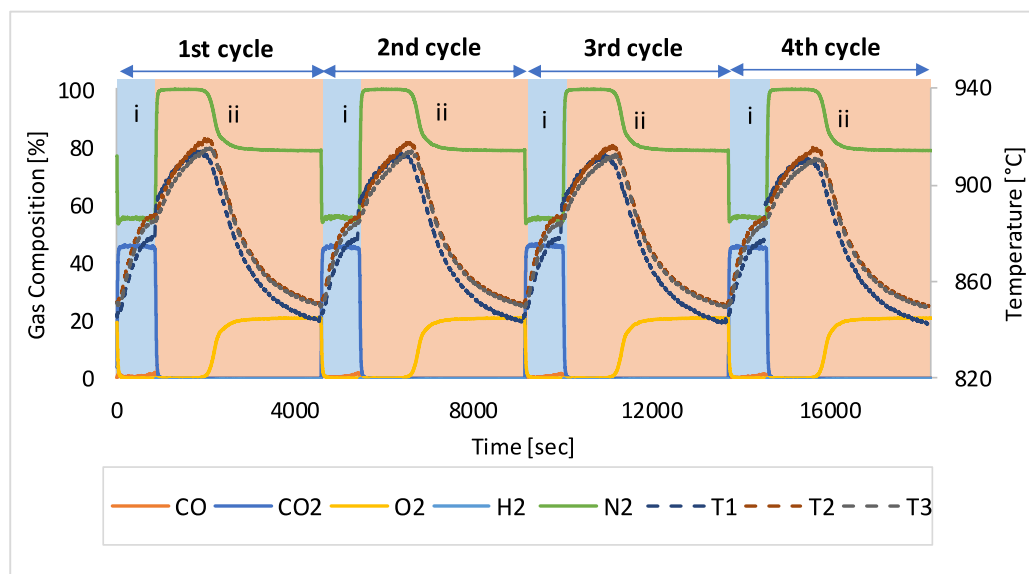


Fig. 14. The autothermal transient gas composition and temperature profile of Reactor 1 at 850 °C and 1 bar. The reduction/fuel stage is indicated as i (blue) while the oxidation stage is indicated as ii (pitch). T1, T2, and T3 are temperature measurements at the bottom, centre, and top of the bed inside the reactor. For each cycle, the flowrate at the fuel stage was as follows: CO (20nl/min) and N₂ (15nl/min) for 15 min at the reduction/fuel stage while 30nl/min of air was fed in the oxidation stage for 75 min.

feasible which can reduce the energy demand associated with CO₂ capture.

However, particle elutriation persisted and by reducing the gas flowrate (by 50%) to prevent this, part of the bed defluidized in the fuel stage. Heat and gas flow were not evenly distributed within the reactors, causing excessive reduction of part of the bed, hot spots, and melting/agglomeration of the particles. At this point, it was clear that the reactor

would not be operated further in the current state and as the main challenge was particle elutriation. A possible solution could be to increase the particle size range above 150 μm but still within Geldart class B for easy fluidization. The reactor could also be modified to include an expanded freeboard which decreases gas velocity and prevent the particles from attaining the terminal velocity. Other challenges can arise from the transient nature of GST, such as the cyclic temperature

Table 3
Kinetic expressions for GS clusters.

GSC			
REDUCTION	$CH_4 + 4Fe_2O_3 \rightarrow 8FeO + CO_2 + 2H_2O$	$R_1 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{CH_4} n_{Fe_2O_3}$	
	$H_2 + Fe_2O_3 \rightarrow 2FeO + H_2O$	$R_2 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{H_2} n_{Fe_2O_3}$	
	$CO + Fe_2O_3 \rightarrow 2FeO + CO_2$	$R_3 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{CO} n_{Fe_2O_3}$	
OXIDATION	$O_2 + 4FeO \rightarrow 2Fe_2O_3$	$R_4 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{O_2} n_{FeO}$	
GSR			
REDUCTION	$CH_4 + 4NiO \rightarrow 4Ni + CO_2 + 2H_2O$	$R_1 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{CH_4} n_{NiO}$	
	$H_2 + NiO \rightarrow Ni + H_2O$	$R_2 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{H_2} n_{NiO}$	
	$CO + NiO \rightarrow Ni + CO_2$	$R_3 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{CO} n_{NiO}$	
OXIDATION	$O_2 + 2Ni \rightarrow 2NiO$	$R_4 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{O_2} n_{Ni}$	
REFORMING	$CH_4 + H_2O \leftrightarrow CO + 3H_2$	$R_5 = \frac{1}{\tau} \left(p_{CH_4} p_{H_2O} - \frac{p_{CO} p_{H_2}^3}{K_{SMR}} \right)$	
	$CO + H_2O \leftrightarrow CO_2 + H_2O$	$R_6 = \frac{1}{\tau} \left(p_{CO} p_{H_2O} - \frac{p_{CO_2} p_{H_2O}}{K_{WGS}} \right)$	
GSPOX			
PARTIAL OXIDATION	$CH_4 + 0.74XO_{1.35} \rightarrow 0.74X + CO + 2H_2$	$R_1 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{CH_4} n_{XO}$	
	$0.74X + CO_2 \leftrightarrow 0.74XO_{1.35} + CO$	$R_2 = \frac{1}{\tau} (y_{CO_2} - y_{CO_2,eq}) n_{gas} n_X$	
	$0.74X + H_2O \leftrightarrow 0.74XO_{1.35} + H_2$	$R_3 = \frac{1}{\tau} (y_{H_2O} - y_{H_2O,eq}) n_{gas} n_X$	
OXIDATION	$1.48X + O_2 \rightarrow 1.48XO_{1.35}$	$R_1 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{O_2} n_X$	
REDUCTION	$0.74XO_{1.35} + H_2 \rightarrow 0.74X + H_2O$	$R_1 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{H_2} n_{XO}$	
	$0.74XO_{1.35} + CO \rightarrow 0.74X + CO_2$	$R_2 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{CO} n_{XO}$	
	$CH_4 + 2.96XO_{1.35} \rightarrow 2.96X + CO_2 + 2H_2O$	$R_3 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{CH_4} n_{XO}$	
GSOP			
REDUCTION	$CH_4 + 8Ca_2AlMnO_{5.5} \rightarrow 8Ca_2AlMnO_5 + CO_2 + 2H_2O$	$R_1 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{CH_4} n_{Ca_2AlMnO_{5.5}}$	
	$H_2 + 2Ca_2AlMnO_{5.5} \rightarrow 2Ca_2AlMnO_5 + H_2O$	$R_2 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{H_2} n_{Ca_2AlMnO_{5.5}}$	
	$CO + 2Ca_2AlMnO_{5.5} \rightarrow 2Ca_2AlMnO_5 + CO_2$	$R_3 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{CO} n_{Ca_2AlMnO_{5.5}}$	
OXIDATION	$O_2 + 8Ca_2AlMnO_5 \leftrightarrow 8Ca_2AlMnO_{5.5}$	$R_4 = \frac{1}{\tau} (y_{O_2} - y_{O_2,eq}) \times n_{gas} n_{s, reactant}$	
GSWS			
REDUCTION & WATER SPLITTING	$CH_4 + 12Fe_2O_3 \rightarrow 8Fe_3O_4 + CO_2 + 2H_2O$	$R_1 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{CH_4} n_{Fe_2O_3}$	
	$H_2 + 3Fe_2O_3 \rightarrow 2Fe_3O_4 + H_2O$	$R_2 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{H_2} n_{Fe_2O_3}$	
	$CO + 3Fe_2O_3 \rightarrow 2Fe_3O_4 + CO_2$	$R_3 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{CO} n_{Fe_2O_3}$	
	$CH_4 + 4Fe_3O_4 \rightarrow 12FeO + CO_2 + 2H_2O$	$R_4 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{CH_4} n_{Fe_3O_4}$	
	$H_2 + Fe_3O_4 \leftrightarrow 3FeO + H_2O$	$R_5 = \frac{1}{\tau} (y_{H_2} - y_{H_2,eq}) n_{gas} n_{s, react}$	
	$CO + Fe_3O_4 \leftrightarrow 3FeO + CO_2$	$R_6 = \frac{1}{\tau} (y_{CO} - y_{CO,eq}) n_{gas} n_{s, react}$	
	OXIDATION	$O_2 + 6FeO \rightarrow 2Fe_3O_4$	$R_7 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{O_2} n_{FeO}$
		$O_2 + 4Fe_3O_4 \rightarrow 6Fe_2O_3$	$R_8 = \frac{1}{\tau} n_{O_2} n_{Fe_3O_4}$

variation imposing thermal stress on the oxygen carrier but this challenge can be successfully minimized through heat management strategies as illustrated in a previous study (Cloete et al., 2017).

3. Large scale process techno-economic assessment

The assessment of promising oxygen carriers for each gas switching technology required the adoption of several modelling simplifications with regards to reactor performance and process simulation. The following sections will discuss the assumptions and modelling approach undertaken for the process synthesis of novel power and H_2 production plants, as well as the key findings and results.

3.1. Reactor modelling

The dynamic operation of a gas switching cluster was modelled in equation-orientated software (Matlab, Scilab) to determine the instantaneous outlet stream details of each step in the cycle. This involves the solving of the mass and energy balance (Eq. (1), Eq. (2)) for each reactor and the subsequent blending of the outlet streams from each step to send a uniform stream to downstream process units. For each oxygen carrier type, specific kinetic expressions were used.

$$\frac{dn_k}{dt} = F_{in} y_{in,k} + F_{out} y_{out,k} + \sum_{r=1}^R v_{r,k} R_r \quad (1)$$

Table 4
Equilibrium constants and mole fractions.

Cluster	Item	Ref
GSR	K_{SMR}, K_{WGS}	(Xu and Froment, 1989)
GSPOX	$\frac{y_{H_2}}{y_{H_2} + y_{H_2O,eq}} = 0.95$ $\frac{y_{CO}}{y_{CO} + y_{CO_2,eq}} = 0.95$	
GSOP	$y_{O_2,eq} = \frac{1}{P} \exp\left(\frac{-91,000}{R_g} \left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{873.15}\right)\right)$	(Larring et al., 2017)
GSWS	$\frac{y_{H_2,eq}}{y_{H_2,eq} + y_{H_2O}} = 1.847 \times 10^{-6} T^2 - 5.181 \times 10^{-3} T + 3.798$ $\frac{y_{CO,eq}}{y_{CO,eq} + y_{CO_2}} = 5.163 \times 10^{-7} T^2 - 1.517 \times 10^{-3} T + 1.376$	(Rydén and Arjmand, 2012)

$$\frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{-F_{in} \sum_k y_{in,k} \int_{T_{in}}^T c_{p,k} dT + \sum_{r=1}^R \xi_r (-\Delta H_{r,T})}{\sum_k n_k c_{p,k}} \quad (2)$$

The reactors were operated under fluidized conditions, attaining homogenous temperature and composition distributions across the bed. The reactor was modelled as a Continuous Stirred Tank Reactor (CSTR), with full oxygen carrier reactivity (no fuel slip), given the high mixing properties of large-scale fluidized beds (A. Zaabout et al., 2013). High kinetic rates were imposed through a small relaxation time constant ($\tau = 0.01$) to ensure that either equilibrium conversion or complete conversion of the reactants was reached[32, 36]. Detailed kinetic and equilibrium expressions for each GS technology are presented in Table 3 and Table 4 in the Appendix, respectively. For heterogenous gas-solid reactions, the kinetic law is dependant on the number of moles of the gaseous species, i.e., proportional to pressure assuming an ideal gas law, while for the homogeneous gas-gas reactions, the effect of operating pressure is determined by the stoichiometry of the reaction, following the Le Châtelier principle.

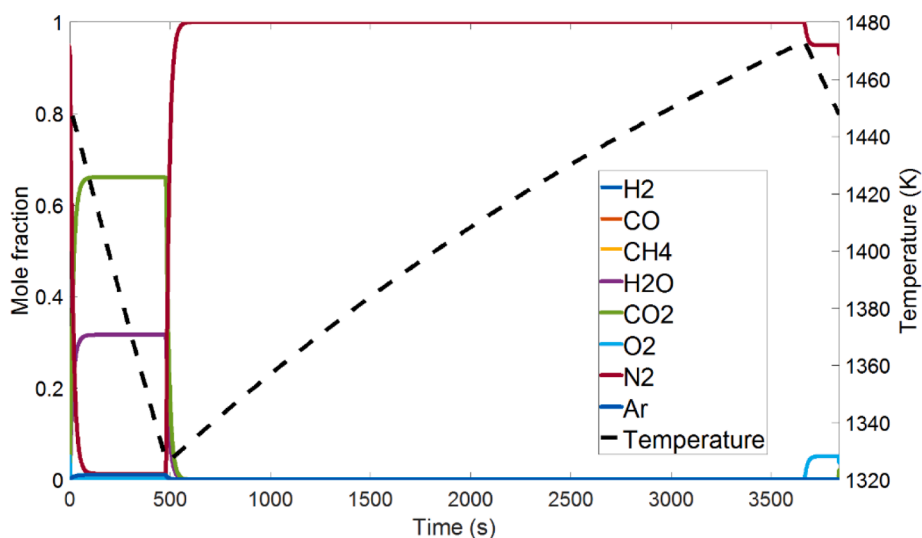


Fig. 15. Reactor outlet gas species composition and temperature plot over one complete GSC cycle. In the first 480 s the oxygen carrier is reduced by fuel, whereas for the remainder of the process the oxygen carrier is oxidised by a depleted air stream.

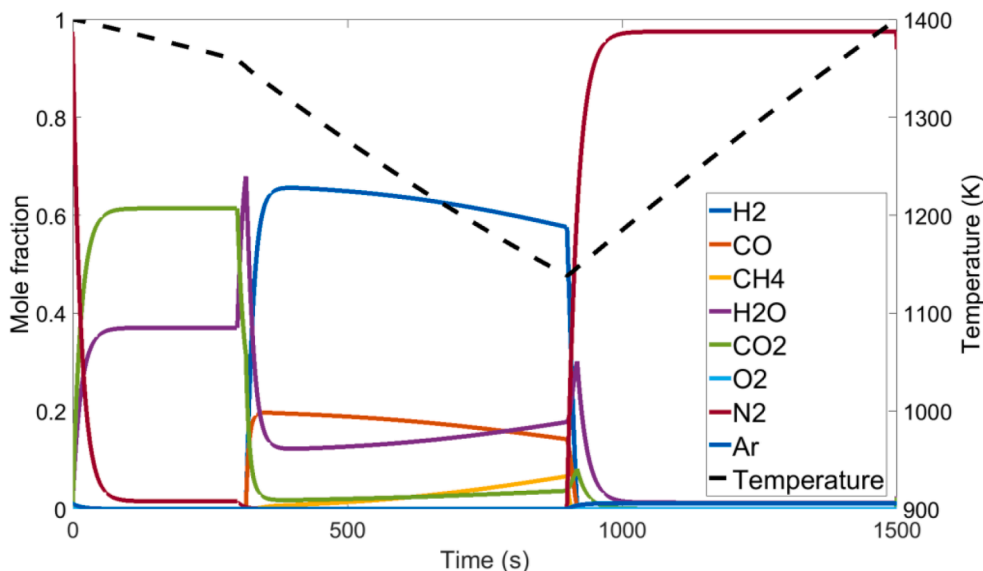


Fig. 16. Reactor outlet gas species composition and temperature plot over one complete GSR cycle. The first 300 s of the cycle is reduction with PSA off-gas fuel, followed by 600 s of steam-methane reforming and 600 s of oxidation with air (S.M. Nazir et al., 2019).

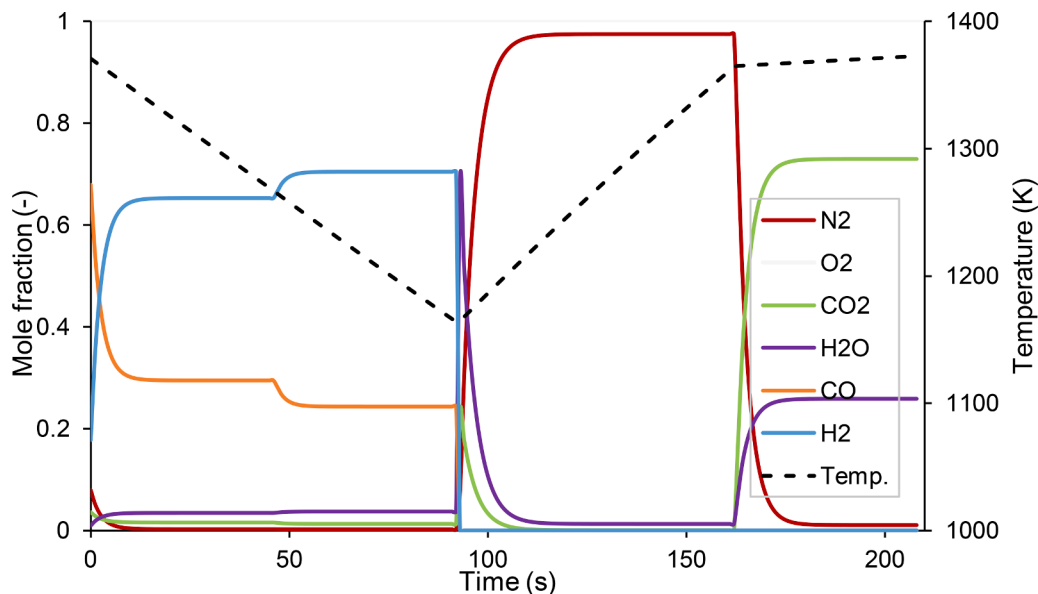


Fig. 17. Reactor outlet gas species composition and temperature plot over a complete GSPOX cycle. The first 96 s is the partial oxidation of the fuel, oxidation step takes place until 162 s, followed by a reduction step 208 s.

3.1.1. Combustion

The Gas Switching Combustion (GSC) technology was studied in detail as it composed the main building block of the novel power plant models from solid fuels with inherent CO₂ capture. A GSC cycle is presented in Fig. 15. The oxygen carriers employed were Nickel and Ilmenite, with a formulation taken from (Abad et al., 2007). In combustion, a syngas fuel is introduced in the reduction step where it becomes fully combusted to H₂O and CO₂. In the oxidation step, an air stream re-oxidises the carrier and heats up. The oxygen-depleted outlet is subsequently integrated into a power cycle. A maximum reactor temperature of 1200 °C is considered in the studies. The results of the experimental demonstration Section 0 show the temperature was much lower, but this was because the oxidation step was not stopped after the temperature at the maximum reactor temperature, so the potential for much higher temperatures was not exploited. The average oxidation step outlet temperature was maximized through optimal heat

management strategies (A. Zaabout et al., 2016; Cloete et al., 2015), as it is a critical factor to reach attractive thermal efficiencies (C.A. del Pozo et al., 2019).

3.1.2. Reforming

Gas Switching Reforming utilizes a natural gas feedstock with steam to carry out its reforming with pure Nickel acting as a catalyst. A syngas with a H₂ to CO ratio of 3 is obtained at the outlet, achieving high methane conversion due to the high reactor temperature relative to fired tubular reforming. After the reforming step, the oxygen carrier reacts with an air stream until 30% of the carrier is oxidised. Subsequently, it is reduced with low heating value PSA off-gases in the reduction step, before the reforming step. A conservative maximum reactor temperature of 1100 °C was assumed to increase the robustness of the concepts evaluated. Furthermore, cases with thermal mass (steel rods) in the reactor volume allowed for a smaller temperature variation across the

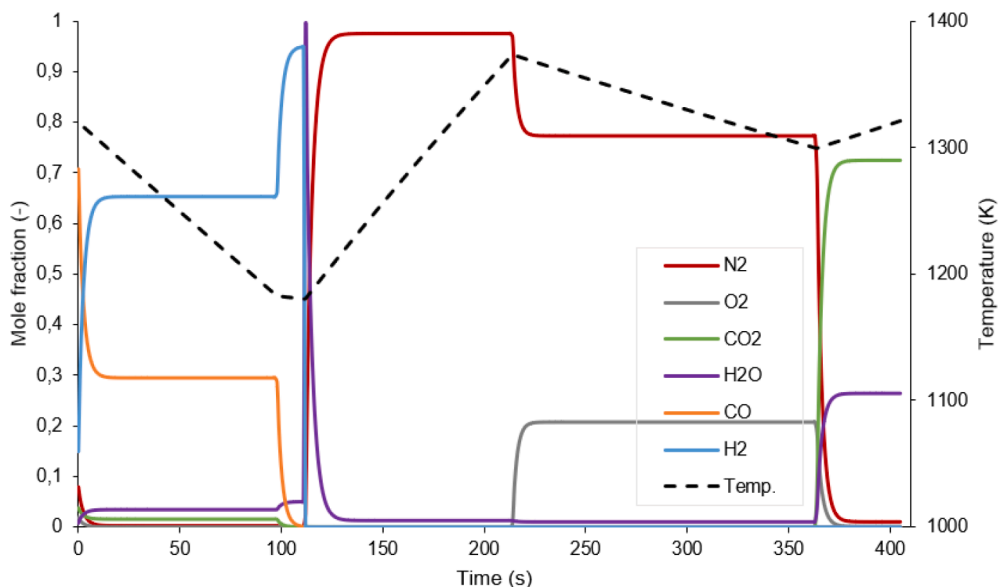


Fig. 18. Reactor outlet gas species composition and temperature plot over a complete GSPOX cycle with water splitting. The first 98 s is the partial oxidation of the fuel, followed by water splitting until 112 s, while a long oxidation step takes place until 363 s, followed by a reduction step 405 s.

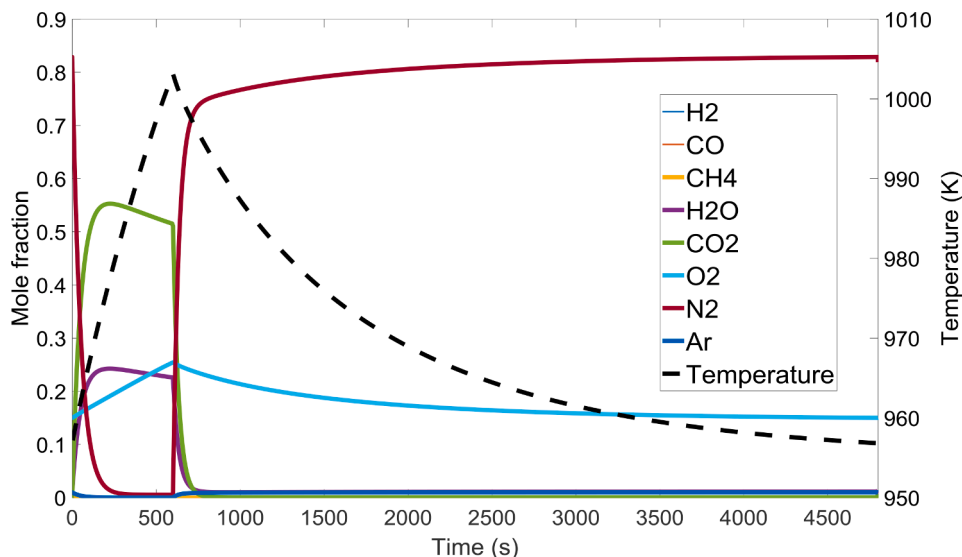


Fig. 19. Reactor outlet gas species composition and temperature plot over a complete GSOP cycle with oxygen production. The first 600 s is the reduction where free oxygen is released in the fuel stream outlet, followed by a long oxidation step (4900 s).

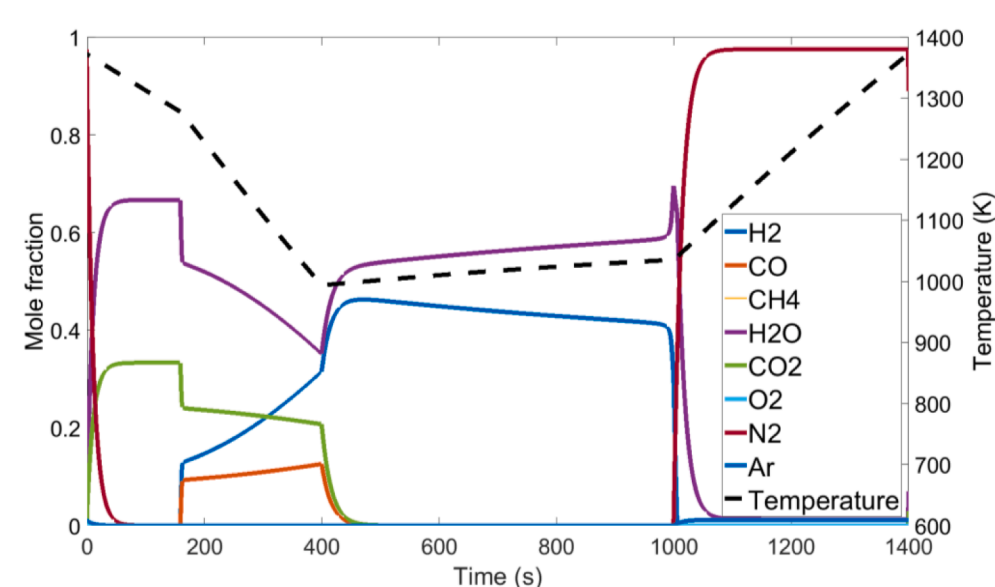


Fig. 20. Reactor outlet gas species composition and temperature plot over a complete GSWS cycle with hydrogen production. The first 400 s is the fuel step where the CH₄ feed is first converted to CO₂ and H₂O, and after 180 s a fuel slip (CO, H₂) is observed. The water splitting step until 1000s is followed by an oxidation step to 1400s.

cycle maximizing the reforming stage average temperature (comparatively increasing methane conversion) and thus enhancing H₂ production (S.M. Nazir et al., 2019). The temperature and composition of the outlet gases from different steps in a GSR cycle is presented in Fig. 16:

3.1.3. Partial oxidation

Gas Switching Partial Oxidation (GSPOX) is an alternative oxygen carrier based on Lanthanum-Iron-Oxide studied for H₂ production applications. Instead of requiring a catalytically active component, this material presents suitable properties for partial oxidation of methane (yielding a H₂ to CO ratio of 2) with very high selectivity (Ugwu et al., 2021). A transition in the reduction step, from full selectivity for H₂O and CO₂, to a partial oxidation stage is observed: selectivity to H₂ and CO in the latter was above 95%, allowing eventually to carry out the reoxidation of the carrier with a steam sweep to produce a relatively pure H₂ stream. A detailed reactor modelling study is presented by

Table 5
Key Performance Indicators definition.

Item	Definition	Units
Electrical Efficiency	$\eta_{el} = \frac{W_{net}}{\dot{m}_f LHV_f}$	%
H ₂ Equivalent Efficiency	$\eta_{H_2} = \frac{\dot{m}_{H_2} LHV_{H_2}}{\dot{m}_{NG} LHV_{NG} - \frac{W_{net}}{\eta_{el,ref}} - \frac{\dot{Q}_{th}}{\eta_{th,ref}}}$	%
CO ₂ Avoidance (power)	$CA = \frac{E_{CO_2,ref} - E_{CO_2,CCS}}{E_{CO_2,ref}}$	%
Equivalent CO ₂ Capture Ratio (hydrogen)	$CCR_{eq} = \frac{\dot{m}_{CO_2,capt.}}{E_{NG} \dot{m}_{NG} LHV_{NG} - E_{th} \dot{Q}_{th} - E_{el} W_{net}}$	%
Levelized Cost of Product	$NPV = \sum_{t=0}^n \frac{ACF_t}{(1+i)^t}$	€/unit of P
Cost of CO ₂ Avoided	$\frac{ACF_t = \phi \cdot LCOP \cdot P^V - C_{CAPEX} - C_{FOM} - C_{VOM}}{E_{CO_2,ref} - E_{CO_2,CCS}}$	€/ton

Arnaiz et al. (Pozo et al., 2021). A GSPOX cycle is shown in Fig. 17, where a two-stage partial oxidation step of a methane fuel is followed by oxidation with air and a reduction step (with full selectivity to H₂O and CO₂). On the other hand, Fig. 18 presents a GSPOX cycle with a water splitting step after partial oxidation of fuel, where only steam is fed to the reactor, yielding a semi pure H₂ stream at the outlet. This feature enables GSPOX clusters to be more effectively coupled to a power cycle, where the H₂ from this step is used for added firing of the oxidation outlet.

3.1.4. Oxygen production

Gas Switching Oxygen Production (GSOP) utilizes an oxygen carrier material capable of releasing free O₂ during the reduction step, which can be subsequently used for oxy-combustion or gasification of solid fuel. The kinetic and reactor modelling of the GSOP cluster is based on the experimental results provided in (Larring et al., 2017). A GSPOX cycle is presented in Fig. 19, where the O₂ fraction equilibrium composition in the reduction step is observed.

Despite the low development prospects for these materials, several plant configurations integrating this cluster were developed assuming idealized performance of the oxygen carrier (C.A. del Pozo et al., 2019).

3.1.5. Water splitting

Although Gas Switching water splitting was not finally evaluated for large-scale process concepts, due to the low feasibility and performance shown during the materials development phase (Section 0), a theoretical reactor profile is presented in Fig. 20. Iron oxide is used in a two-stage fuel step, one of complete combustion of methane and a second one with CO/H₂ fuel slip, followed by the water splitting step and final oxidation with air. The equilibrium behaviour of the GSWGS process is defined by the reactor temperature, maximizing H₂ yield at low water splitting temperatures. The GSWGS oxygen carrier is of particular interest as it can act as a GSR, when the water splitting step is omitted.

3.2. Power plant techno-economic assessment

A stationary process simulator (Aspen, Unisim Design and/or Thermoflex) was used to synthesize the different power and H₂ plant concepts developed. Average values of flow, composition and temperature of each reaction step from the transient model are provided as input to the stationary process flowsheet. Adequate sizing of the cluster was performed to ensure that variations of properties with respect to the average were relatively small, allowing the safe operation of downstream equipment. Such integration was made automatic through a CAPE-OPEN unit operation, which transferred directly the transient model output to the stationary plant streams. Key performance indicator definitions are provided in Table 5 in the Appendix.

3.2.1. Base-load power plants from solid fuels

The efficiency of base-load power production from solid fuels can be maximized through gasification to produce a syngas fuel, suitable for an F-class gas turbine employed in these models (Anantharaman et al., 2011). As shown in Fig. 21, replacing the combustion chamber with a GSC cluster in an Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle (IGCC) plant employing Hot Gas Clean-Up (HGCU) technology for syngas desulphurization (Giuffrida et al., 2010) yielded very attractive results, with an increase in thermal efficiency of 5.6%-points relative to pre-combustion CO₂ capture reference plant with Selexol absorption, and a 3.3%-points higher CO₂ avoidance (GSC in Fig. 15). On the other hand, efficiency can be boosted above the Unabated IGCC benchmark by around 2%-points when extra firing with natural gas of the O₂ depleted air stream after the GSC is carried out (GSC-AF), at the cost of 10.7%-points lower CO₂ avoidance (C.A. del Pozo et al., 2019). Alternative concepts utilizing GSOP cluster, Oxygen Production Pre-combustion Plant (OPPC) (C.A. del Pozo et al., 2019) and GSC-GSOP IGCC plant (Arnaiz del Pozo et al., 2020), show small energy penalties of approximately 1.3%-points. However, CO₂ avoidance is reduced by around 5%-points, relative to the pre-combustion capture benchmark. Finally, a flexible concept that

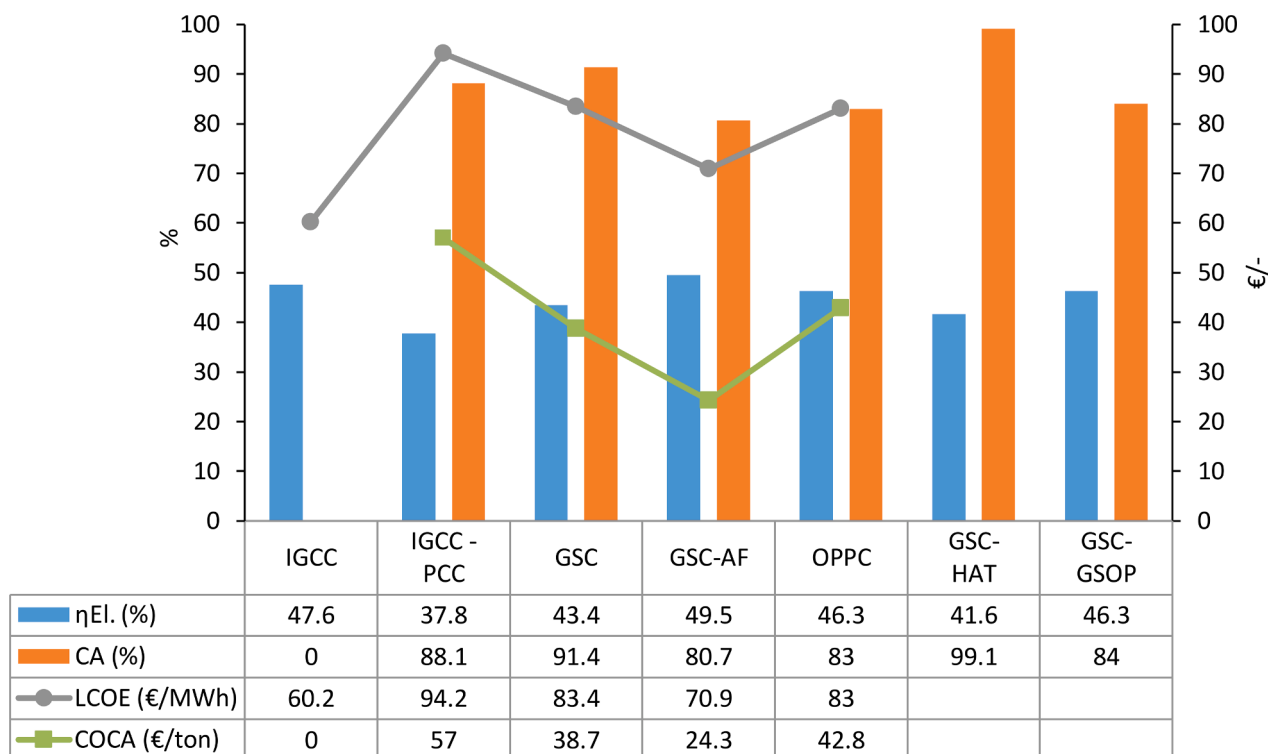


Fig. 21. Electrical efficiency, CO₂ avoidance, levelized cost of electricity and cost of CO₂ avoided results for base-load power plants from solid fuels.

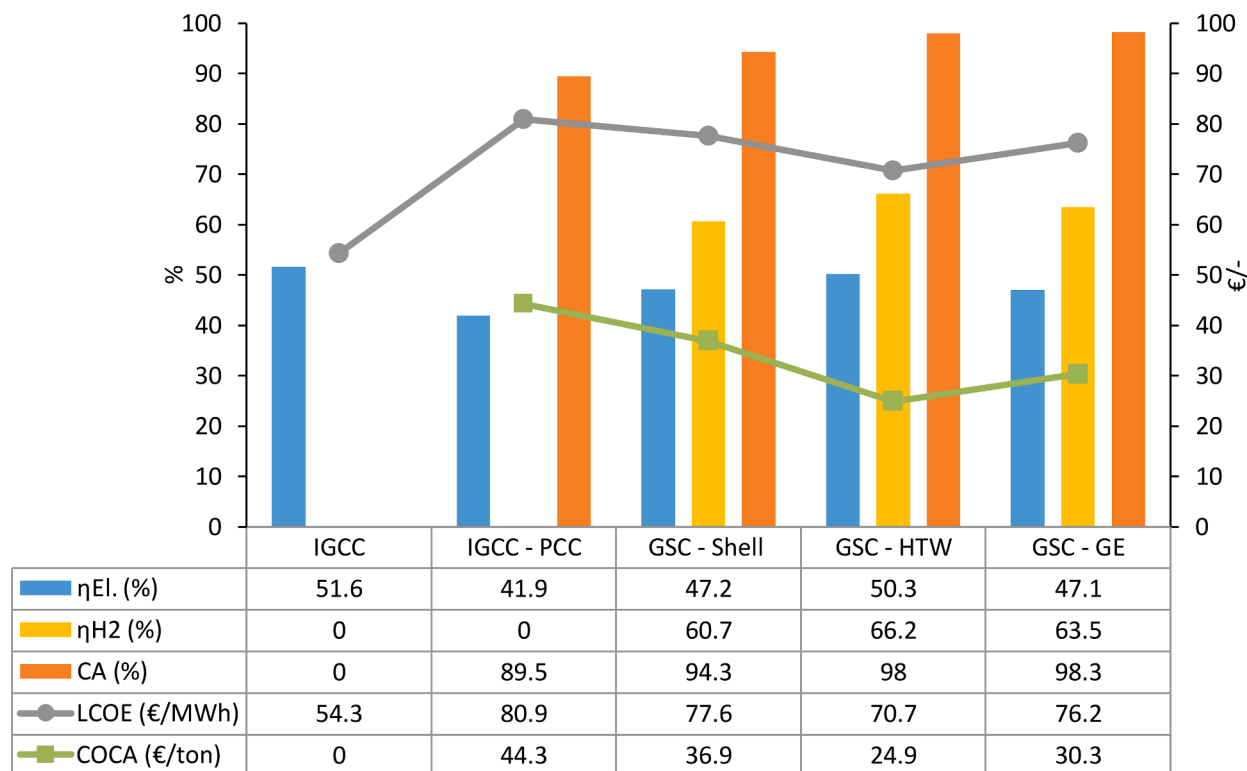


Fig. 22. Electrical and equivalent H₂ efficiency, CO₂ avoidance, levelized cost of electricity and cost of CO₂ avoided results for flexible power plants from solid fuels.

employs the GSC cluster as an energy storage mechanism through decoupling reduction and oxidation sections of the plant, employs a humid air turbine power cycle (Poza et al., 2020), and achieves 3.8%-points higher thermal efficiency than the pre-combustion CO₂ capture reference, with above 99% CO₂ avoidance (GSC—HAT in Fig. 15).

With regards to the main economic indicators, the conventional pre-combustion capture plant has the highest LCOE, followed by the GSC

and OPPC plants that return almost identical LCOE. Added NG firing (GSC-AF) strongly reduces the LCOE by 12.5 €/MWh relative to the standard GSC plant. The gasifier has the highest cost in all cases followed by the gas turbine and the Air Separation Unit (ASU) or GSC unit in the GSC and GSC-AF cases. The gasifier cost is an important uncertainty in the estimation of the OPPC cost. The OPPC plant suffers from a very high gasifier cost due to the syngas flowrate that is more than double the size of the other plants. This high syngas flowrate also increases the gas

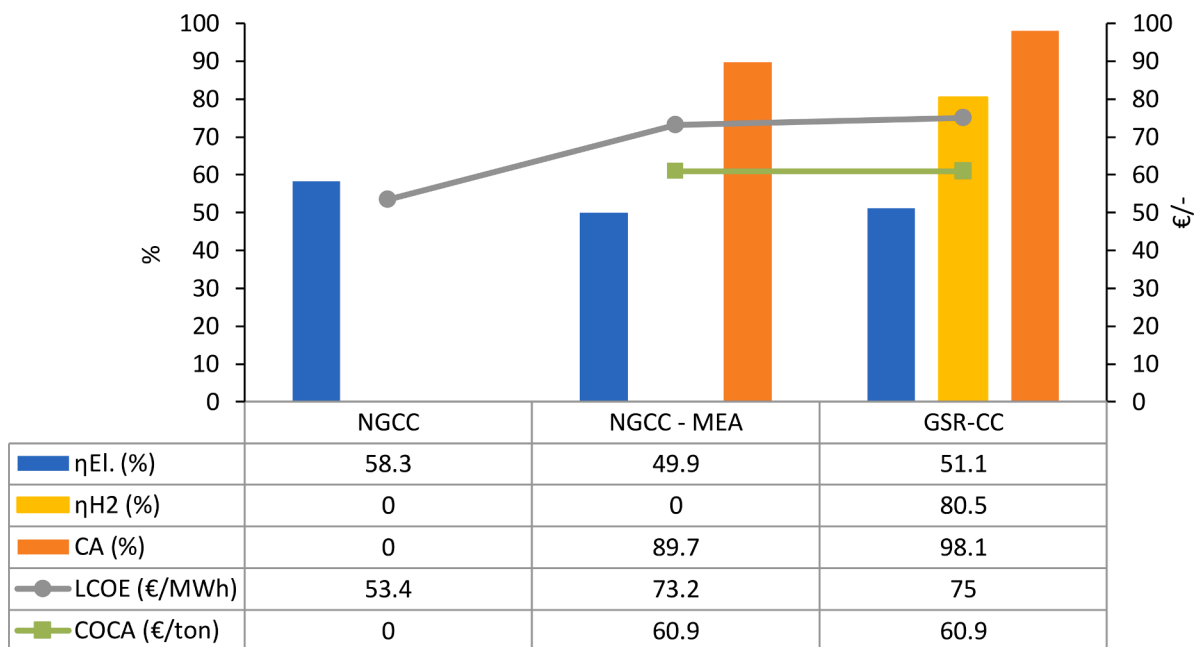


Fig. 23. Electrical and equivalent H₂ efficiency, CO₂ avoidance, levelized cost of electricity and cost of CO₂ avoided results for flexible power plants from gaseous fuels.

clean-up cost. For perspective, the LCOE of this case reduces to 78.91 €/MWh if the gasifier costs are scaled only by the thermal input and increases to 87.09 €/MWh if scaled only by the raw syngas flowrate. Trends in the COCA indicators are similar to LCOE, although the COCA of the GSC-AF and OPPC plants are increased by their higher CO₂ emissions intensities.

3.2.2. Flexible power/H₂ plant from solid fuels

As an enhancement relative to the plants presented in the preceding section, power plant concepts utilizing advanced H-class turbines were developed (C.A. del Pozo et al., 2020). Additionally, the benchmark plants incorporate the benefits derived from HGCU. On the other hand, integration of the GSC clusters and Membrane Assisted Water Gas Shift (MAWGS) reactors (Tosti et al., 2008) allow flexible generation of H₂ at low electricity prices, whereas in favourable market conditions, this H₂ is used for extra firing of the GSC oxidation step outlet, to reach the Combustor Outlet Temperature (COT) of the advanced gas turbine. In Fig. 22, the main results for the advanced GSC IGCC plants and suitable benchmarks are provided. A schematic diagram of these power plant concepts is provided in Fig. 25 in the Appendix. The concepts investigated (GSC-Shell, GSC-HTW, GSC-GE) employ a Shell, High Temperature Winkler and GE gasifiers, leading to an energy penalty reduction of 5.3, 8.4 and 5.2%-points respectively, and a CO₂ avoidance which is 4.8, 8.5 and 8.8%-points higher, relative to the advanced pre-combustion CO₂ capture reference plant (IGCC-PCC). When the plant operates in H₂ production mode, H₂ efficiencies surpassing 60% are attained in all cases.

In terms of economic performance for baseload power production, the LCOE obtained for the two reference cases (without and with CO₂ capture, respectively) shows the benefits offered by the advanced gas turbine and HGCU technology. These cases returned LCOE values of 54.28 and 80.89 €/MWh (Fig. 22) compared to 63.4 and 95.3 €/MWh for the less advanced plants in Fig. 21. The GSC plants achieve a cost of CO₂ avoidance in the range of 24.9 and 36.9 €/ton, lower than for the IGCC-

PCC benchmark (44.3 €/ton). The GSC-HTW configuration has the highest efficiency and the lowest capital costs, which reduces LCOE by more than 10 €/MWh relative to the benchmark case. These attractive results apply to baseload plants, but when flexible H₂ exports to balance variable renewable energy are accounted for in the evaluation, attractive cash flow returns can be obtained even at CO₂ prices close to zero (Szima et al., 2021). This benefit stems from the fact that these plants can sell electricity at prices that are above average and continue to profitably sell hydrogen during times when prices are below average.

3.2.3. Flexible power/H₂ plant from gaseous fuels

GSR cluster offers the possibility to integrate H₂ production in a combined power cycle, as depicted in Fig. 26 in the Appendix. Similar to the solid fuel plants in the previous section, electricity can be generated through a hydrogen gas-fired combined cycle at times of low renewable energy supply, while exporting H₂ when electricity demand is satisfied by wind and solar (S.M. Nazir et al., 2019). Water vapour is condensed from the exhaust gases from the reduction step in GSR resulting in a pure CO₂ stream that can be compressed for storage. Such configuration achieves a similar energy penalty as a post-combustion CO₂ capture natural gas combined cycle (NGCC), but 8.4%-points higher CO₂ avoidance, as shown in Fig. 23. When considering operation in H₂ production mode, equivalent hydrogen production efficiencies surpass 80%, and the plant requires electricity imports (a positive feature given that hydrogen will be exported when electricity prices are low). For standard baseload economic assessment at a capacity factor of 85% revealed that the GSR combined cycle (GSR-CC) power plant has a slightly higher LCOE than the benchmark NGCC plant with MEA post-combustion CO₂ capture (74.95 €/MWh for GSR and 73.18 €/MWh for MEA). However, when the economic benefits of flexible operation are considered, the GSR-CC plant can achieve an attractive 5%-point higher annualized investment return than the NGCC-MEA benchmark (Szima et al., 2019).

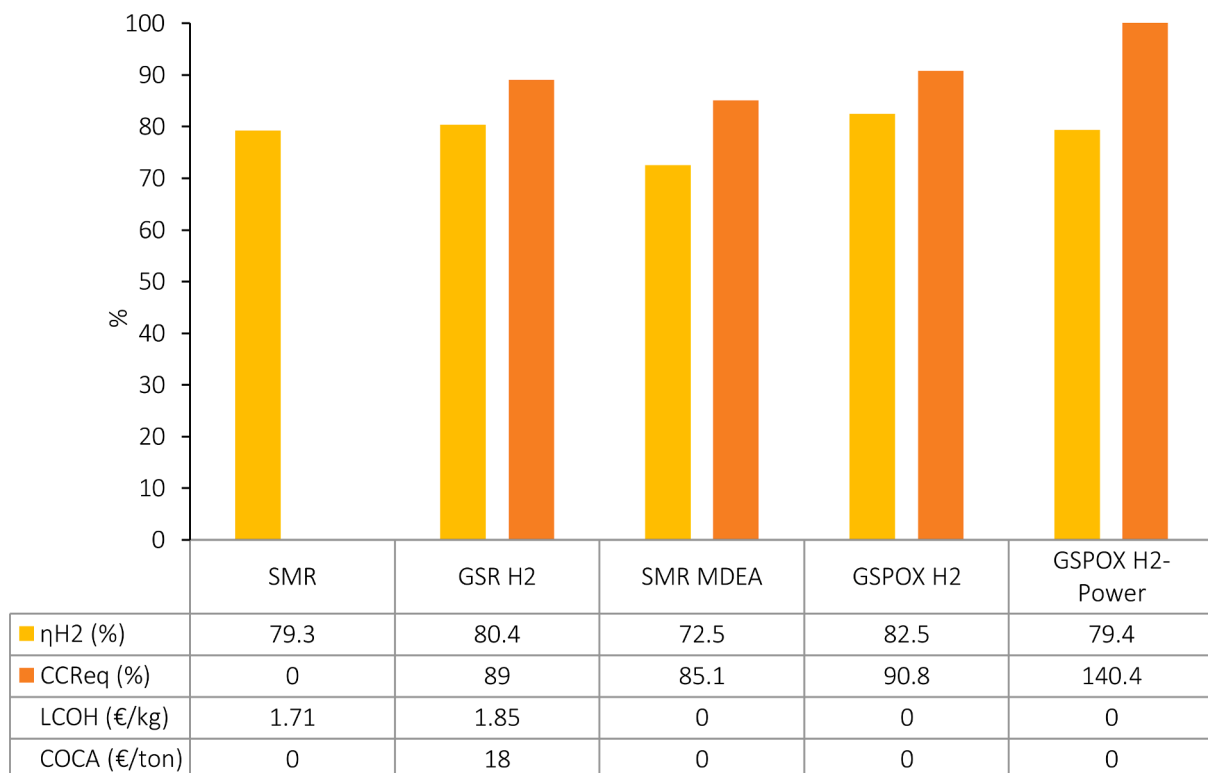


Fig. 24. Equivalent hydrogen efficiency, equivalent carbon capture ratio, levelized cost of hydrogen and cost of CO₂ avoided for H₂ plants.

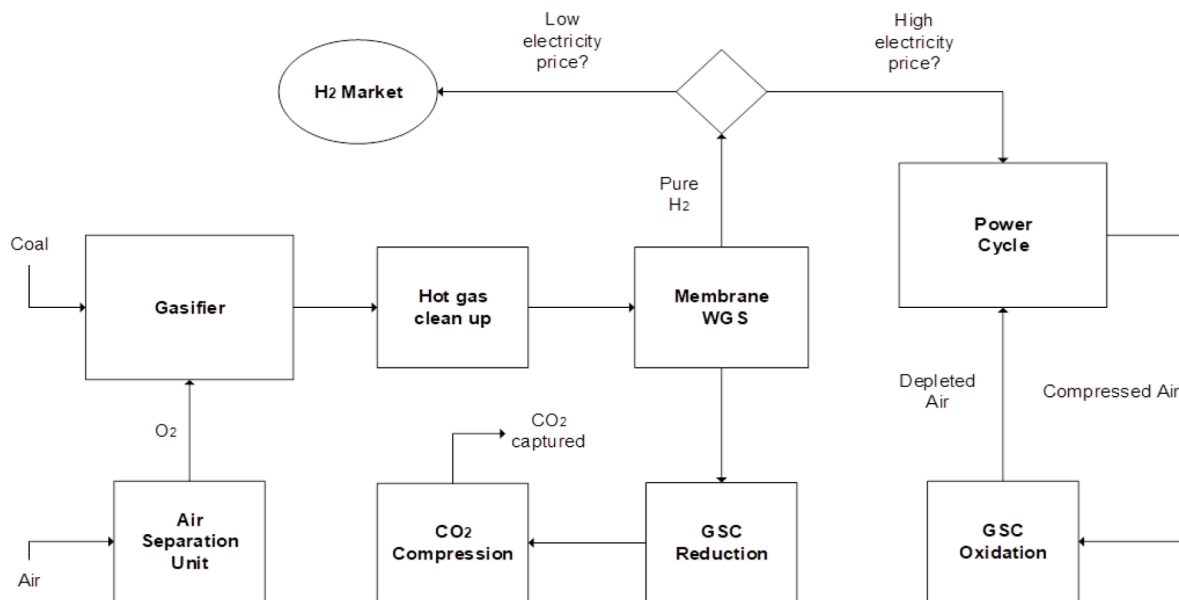


Fig. 25. Block flow diagram of the flexible power/H₂ plant from solid fuels.

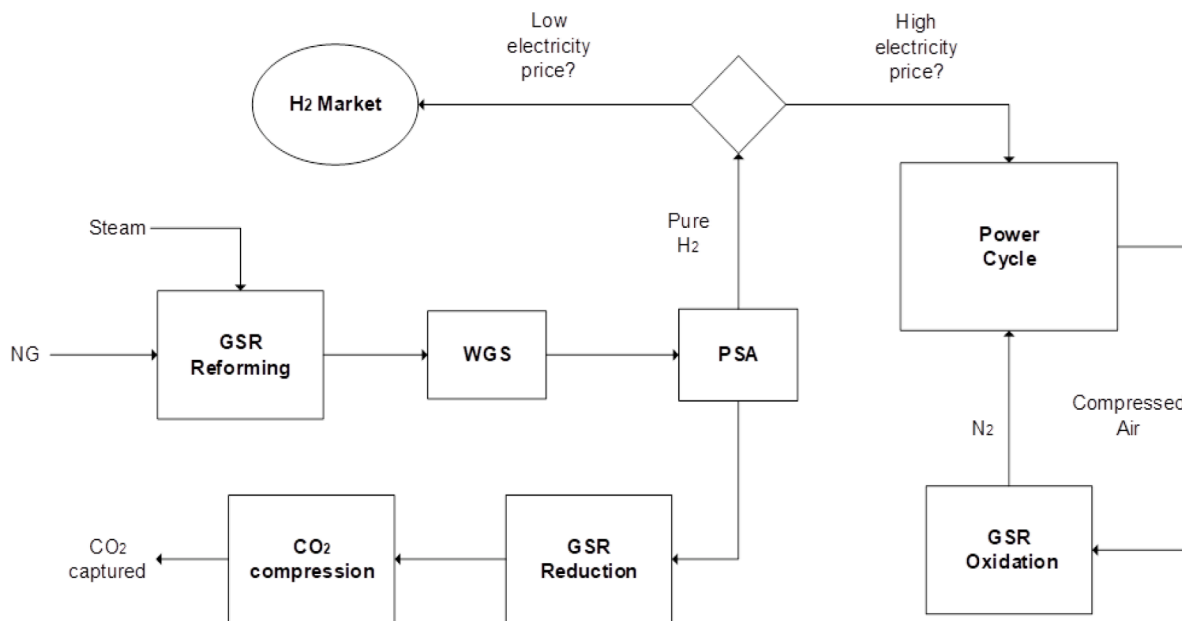


Fig. 26. Block flow diagram of flexible power/H₂ plant from gaseous fuels.

3.3. H₂ plant techno-economic assessment

Due to the resurging interest in the H₂ economy, GS technology was investigated as a potential candidate for “blue” hydrogen production from natural gas, with promising results (S.M. Nazir et al., 2019). The concept entails integrating a GSR cluster with a WGS train, to maximize conversion of CO. After WGS, a PSA unit retrieves a purified H₂ stream as a product and the resulting low heating value off gas is utilized in the GSR cluster reduction step to provide heat for reforming. A compressor delivers air to the oxidation step, while a small turbine retrieves some power. Overall, electricity must be imported to the plant, resulting in a similar H₂ equivalent efficiency as a Steam Methane Reforming (SMR) benchmark without CO₂ abatement, as reflected in Fig. 23 CO₂ avoidance is around 4%-points higher than the SMR reference plant with

pre-combustion capture with MDEA absorption (SMR MDEA), as shown in Fig. 24. LCOH of the GSR-H₂ plant shows competitive results even when CO₂ taxes are not considered (Nazir et al., 2020). On the other hand, evaluation of the GSPOX carrier showed small performance improvements relative to GSR, primarily due to a better heat recuperation, and to smaller steam to carbon demand of the GSPOX (case GSPOX-H₂). Operating pressure increase mildly benefited GSPOX relative to GSR (Poza et al., 2021). When the GSPOX cluster was integrated into an advanced power cycle to produce electricity and H₂ (GSPOX H₂-power), the equivalent efficiency results comparable to the SMR unabated benchmark, but CO₂ avoidance of more than 140% was reached, due to clean electricity exports avoiding emissions incurred in the reference unabated NGCC electricity generation plant.

4. Conclusion

Chemical looping processes (combustion, reforming, water splitting, oxygen production, and partial oxidation of methane) have been studied using the novel Gas Switching Technology. Although the GST has been successfully demonstrated, further research is still needed to ensure feasible scale-up and commercialization as outlined below:

- For the reforming demonstration, Ni was only partially substituted and not eliminated to achieve a completely safe operation for scale-up and commercialization of the GSR concept. This calls for more research to develop non-toxic and affordable oxygen carriers to actualize the full GSR potential and ensure that human health would not be put at risk during scale-up and commercialization. The maximum pressure achieved for the GSR demonstration is 5 bar, therefore operation at higher pressures should also be completed.
- The demonstration of CO₂ utilization through Gas Switching Dry Reforming (GSDR) suggests that there could be enormous benefits in integrating GSDR into GTL processes. It is therefore important to optimize the GSDR process and demonstrate further at higher pressures close to the target downstream GTL processes.
- The operation of GSWS is still not optimal due to excessive gas mixing with the 35 wt.% Fe₂O₃/Al₂O₃ in the 1st demonstration. The 2nd demonstration with 74 wt.% active content Cu-doped Mg (Fe_{0.9}Al_{0.1})₂O₄ spinel oxygen carrier created three operational challenges that should be addressed in future work to increase the attractiveness of the GSWS concept. Alternatively, a downstream pressure swing adsorption unit can be used to purify the H₂ before utilization.
- Although the GSPOX process was also demonstrated at high pressure with over 70% fuel conversion achieved at 5 bar and 950 °C, further demonstrations for continuous operation at higher pressures are required to improve the process efficiency and achieve an easy integration into downstream GTL processes which always operate a high pressure up from 30 bar.
- A comprehensive reactor modelling, process modelling, and techno-economics are required for the GSWS, GSDR and GSPOX processes to provide a more fundamental explanation of the process behaviour, ascertain the economic viability, and the possibility for scale-up. The proposed GST technology should be benchmarked with other similar technologies (such as the gas switching chemical looping technology using a fixed bed reactor) to ascertain its comparative advantages.
- With the successful demonstrations of the reactor cluster for Auto-thermal GSC operation, a pilot-scale plant is required to test all the

process value chains for commercialization followed by a comprehensive business case based on pilot demonstrations.

The techno-economic assessment studies for electricity and H₂ production carried out in the project employing simplified dynamic cluster models and stationary process simulation tools reveal attractive prospects for several GST technologies. GSR integration into a NGCC as a load following plant offers the possibility to balance variable renewable energy while delivering a carbon-free energy vector (H₂) at times when energy supply is guaranteed by wind and solar, maximizing capital utilization. On the other hand, GSR integration for base-load H₂ production from natural gas presents a comparable equivalent efficiency to an unabated SMR plant whilst achieving an equivalent carbon capture of approximately 90%, showcasing a compelling “blue H₂” process. Furthermore, integration of GSC clusters and high-temperature syngas contaminant removal in gasification plants for base-load power production from solid fuels result in substantial economic gains relative to conventional CO₂ capture technologies. Flexibility to produce H₂ or electricity depending on market conditions can be achieved through integration membrane reactors, albeit at significantly increasing plant complexity. To further enhance the interest in the development of GST clusters and suitable oxygen carrier materials, it is recommended from a techno-economic assessment angle to carry out future evaluations regarding the integration of GST technology in hybrid power-chemical production plants (such as ammonia, methanol, GtL), with a particular emphasis on flexibility and product diversification, providing energy vectors which are more easily stored and transported than H₂. Such features will become a key competitive aspect for fossil fuelled-based plants in an energy scenario with a high renewable penetration.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None

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Appendix

GS technology kinetic expressions

Key performance Indicators

\dot{W}_{net} indicates net electric export/import, \dot{m} is the flowrate, LHV is the lower heating value and ref refers to a reference benchmarking plant. CA is the CO₂ avoidance, E is the CO₂ intensity of a given plant (producing electricity, steam, H₂) or feedstock (natural gas), CCS refers to the plant with carbon capture and storage. \dot{Q}_{th} indicates the steam enthalpy difference from export conditions to saturated liquid. CCR_{eq} stands for equivalent carbon capture ratio. NPV stands for net present value of the project, ACF_t is the annual cash flow rate, C_{CAPEX} C_{FOM} C_{VOM} is the cost of capital, fixed and variable operation & maintenance, respectively. ϕ indicates the plant capacity factor, i is the discount rate and t is the operating year. $LCOP$ is the levelized cost of product (electricity or H₂), at which the NPV becomes 0 at then of the plant lifetime, while P^v refers to the annual production of product.

Flexible plant block flow diagrams

Flexible power/H₂ plant from solid fuels

Flexible power/H₂ plant from gaseous fuels

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