

Production of Purified H2, Heat, and Biochar from Wood: Comparison between Gasification and Autothermal Pyrolysis Based on Advanced Process Modeling

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Rémi Demol, Anthony Dufour, Yann Rogaume, Guillain Mauviel. Production of Purified H2, Heat, and Biochar from Wood: Comparison between Gasification and Autothermal Pyrolysis Based on Advanced Process Modeling. Energy & Fuels, 2021, 36 (1), pp.488-501. 10.1021/acs.energyfuels.1c03528. hal-03540835

HAL Id: hal-03540835 https://hal.science/hal-03540835

Submitted on 18 Apr 2023 $\,$

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2 comparison between gasification and auto-thermal pyrolysis

based on advanced process modeling

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- 9 https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.energyfuels.1c03528
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15 ABSTRACT

Biomass gasification is an interesting route for renewable hydrogen production, but it is still hampered 16 by technical, environmental and economic issues. A first key step toward its development is the 17 18 quantification of mass and energy balances of the integrated process. This work compares different 19 processes to produce a purified H₂ from wood but also other products (heat, bio-char) at medium scale power (20 MW of biomass power inlet that corresponds to $3.7 t_{drv}/h$). Three complementary processes 20 21 were modeled under Aspen Plus including biomass drying, gasification-pyrolysis reactors and advanced 22 syngas upgrading units. The first two cases are based on oxygen/steam gasification 1) with or 2) 23 without catalytic reactors (steam reforming and water gas-shift). The third case is an autothermal

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24 oxidative pyrolysis resulting in bio-char and syngas. All the syngas cleaning process was detailed with 25 a special focus on a partial oxidation (POX) unit to reduce the tar content. This unit was modeled by 26 coupling Aspen Plus with Chemkin to predict tar and syngas composition by detailed elementary 27 mechanisms. A hybrid hydrogen separation process is proposed combining membrane and pressure 28 swing adsorption. A cape-open module for membrane modeling (called Memsic) was included in the 29 whole process model. The global energetic efficiency is 75.4, 77.8 and 80.4% net for scenarios 1, 2 and 30 3, respectively. The hydrogen yields are 79, 26 and 18 $g_{H_2}/kg_{biomass,dry}$ after separation and heat 31 efficiencies - corresponding to hot water production - were 23.4, 60.0 and 49.0% net respectively. The option 3 produces 110 $g_{biochar}/kg_{biomass,dry}$ which is a carbon sink. All utilities and consumables were 32 33 also determined. This model can be used for techno-economic and life cycle assessment studies. This 34 methodology is also of interest to model all other thermochemical processes with detailed kinetics 35 embedded in process models.

36 **1. INTRODUCTION**

Biomass is used for centuries to fulfill the heat and material demand for human activities. It is historically and even nowadays the first renewable energy^{1,2}. The growing concerns about climate change resulting from anthropogenic emissions and the fore casted peak in oil production pushes researchers to develop innovative processes for the production of energy commodities from renewables. The taxation of greenhouse gas emissions is expected to favor the development of carbonneutral or even carbon-negative processes^{3,4}.

Among the ways to decarbonize human activities, hydrogen knows a growing interest for mobility 43 applications and for lowering industry carbon intensity⁵. Yet, even if this fuel does not release carbon 44 dioxide during its combustion, its production—mainly from steam methane reforming, does. If H_2 is 45 46 produced from water electrolysis, the CO₂ emission problem is then related to the electricity 47 generation processes. Different policies tend to promote renewable hydrogen. France fixed the objective to increase the share of renewable hydrogen to 20-40% in 2028 in the industry sector⁶. 48 49 Besides water electrolysis from renewable electricity, the thermochemical processes also provide a potential way to produce hydrogen from biomass. 50

51 The gasification is the partial oxidation of a solid feedstock to produce a synthetic gas (syngas) made 52 of CO, H₂, CO₂, CH₄, H₂O and light hydrocarbons. Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), NH₃, HCl, H_2S are also formed and must be removed from the syngas before its upgrading⁷. The gasifying agent 53 54 could be steam in order to maximize the concentration of hydrogen but it leads to highly endothermic 55 behavior. The use of air leads to syngas diluted with nitrogen when the gasification is direct: this option 56 should be avoided because it hampers the H_2 purification. To overcome this problem, a dual fluidized bed can be used^{8,9} but it results in a complex technology notably due to loop seals¹⁰. Another way is to 57 use pure oxygen and steam instead of air¹¹. In any cases, the fluidized bed temperature is typically 58 59 higher than 750°C to convert the pyrolysis char into syngas¹².

60 Another thermochemical process can produce hydrogen: the pyrolysis, that may also be achieved in fluidized bed^{13,14}. This process produces char, tar and permanent gas. To overcome the endothermicity 61 62 of pyrolysis, a small amount of oxygen can be added to reach autothermal conditions¹⁵. But this pyrolysis step alone does not lead to high H₂ yields. In this article, it is proposed to do the partial 63 64 oxidation of the tar and gas produced by pyrolysis in a downstream gas-phase reactor. This second 65 step is achieved by mixing oxygen with pyrolysis gas in a partial oxidation (POX) reactor to reach high temperature (>1000°C), thus producing a H₂-rich syngas. Furthermore, the bio-char produced in the 66 67 pyrolysis reactor enables carbon sequestration^{3,16}.

68 The hydrogen in the syngas is relatively diluted (even with oxy-steam gasification) in the range 30-45% vol on a dry basis^{11,17,18}. The production of hydrogen at high purity is difficult at this concentration 69 70 for standard separation unit. Pressure swing adsorption (PSAH₂) is the classical technology. More than 71 70% vol of H_2 are required at the inlet¹⁹. To increase the content of H_2 , a reformer and water-gas-shift 72 catalytic reactors should be added^{11,20-22}. These reactors can be positioned after cold syngas 73 cleaning^{4,20,23}, or rather, downstream the gasifier to promote heat integration. The use of catalytic reactors after a gasifier has been demonstrated with catalytic reformers^{24,25,11} and CO-shift catalytic 74 75 reactors^{11,21,22,26}. The tar content must be reduced below 2 g/Nm³ dry basis (including benzene) at high 76 temperature to avoid catalyst deactivation²⁵. No deactivation from H₂S was observed below 77 100 ppm¹¹.

The harvesting area of the biomass should be limited to minimize the economic and environmental impacts of its transport. Besides another argument for relatively small-scale biomass conversion process is linked to the fact that heat produced by the process should be valorized locally in order to increase the global efficiency²⁷. It is clearly easier to find a location for biomass gasifiers with a small heat demand (few MW) than a large one (dozens of MW). Finally, a local production of H₂ might be preferred for more direct and decentralized H₂ station for transport or industrial sectors, instead of a centralized production with H₂ transport by trucks²⁸.

The whole pyrogasification process must be modeled, from biomass drying to hydrogen separation, in 85 86 order to assess the potential of the production of hydrogen from biomass. The study must also indude 87 co-products recovery and waste treatment. The modeling of pyrogasification processes has already 88 been conducted, especially for the cleaning and conditioning of the syngas^{27,29} and also for hydrogen production at large-scale facilities^{19,20}. Gasification is often modeled as a combination of RYIELD and 89 RGIBBS reactors. Firstly, the biomass is decomposed into its elemental stable components (H_2 , C, O_2 , 90 N₂, H₂S, HCl). Then the RGIBBS reactor estimates the equilibrium composition at a given temperature³⁰. 91 92 This model can give a rough estimate of the main components but it is unable to predict the yields of minor products (tars) which are the bottleneck of gasification. The tar formation and up-grading has 93 been modeled but the chosen models are frequently overly simplistic³¹. Some research groups 94 developed a fluidized bed model to predict the main products and some secondary products^{32–34}. 95

To the best of our knowledge, advanced models of the complete process, from biomass to purified H₂,
are still scarce, notably if one considers tar formation and upgrading.

98 Spath et al. has studied in a pioneering work the modeling of the complete process of hydrogen

99 production from biomass gasification in an indirectly-heated gasifier. The steam reformer and water

gas-shift reactors was positioned after wet scrubbing of tars inducing a heat penalty on the process²⁰.
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The scale (2000 dry ton/day) of this process makes possible the use of catalytic reactors but it requires
 long-distance collection of biomass. They used empirical correlations to model syngas and tar
 composition.

104 Martín and Grossmann presented the basis of a superstructure optimization for the production of 105 Fischer-Tropsch diesel from biomass³⁵. The optimal solution to reach the targeted CO/H₂ ratio was 106 composed of an indirect gasifier and a steam reformer instead of direct gasification coupled to partial 107 oxidation. No further composition adjustment (waster gas-shift, PSA H₂) was necessary for this 108 application³⁵.

- 109 Syngas cleaning and upgrading processes usually consist in tar reformer, water gas-shit reactor and 110 PSA H_2^{36-40} , possibly with Sulphur removal with a chelated iron solution (LO-CAT process)⁴¹. The tar 111 reformer can be replaced by catalytic filter candles⁴². When tars species were considered, only few 112 surrogate molecules were included^{36,42}. The purified H_2 yield was estimated to 76.1³⁶, 55.0⁴¹, 75.2⁴² or 113 107.4³⁷ g_{H2}/kg_{biomass}. On an energetic basis, Kalinci et al. showed that gasifier and PSA exhibit the most
- 114 energy and exergy losses along the process³⁸.
- Marcantonio et al. modeled a circulating bubbling fluidized bed with a quasi-equilibrium approach
 model validated on experimental data from a pilot plant. They also investigated the use of a palladium
 membrane that gave a better H₂ recovery⁴³.
- The purification of the syngas was investigated in more details with Ribeiro et al. by modeling the detailed PSA cycle to remove CO₂ from the syngas. H₂ and CO were dedicated for Fischer-Tropsch fuels production⁴⁴. To the best of our knowledge, no model was published on membrane combined with PSA for H₂ separation.
- Our research group has developed previous Aspen Plus[®] models about biomass gasification and oxidation^{27,29,32,45,46} for heat or power production. Here, we complete our previous work on different pyro-gasification processes dedicated to the production of purified hydrogen and bio-char, with different gasification reactors and syngas refining units. We have also improved our modeling approach by including detailed kinetic mechanisms embedded under Aspen Plus.
- The aim of this work is to provide detailed mass and energy balances for three processes along with
 utilities and consumables. These data are essential for further techno-economic and environmental
 assessment.
- 130 The first scenario considers the maximization of hydrogen production and a residual heat production.
- 131 The second one is a simpler and probably cheaper process with lower hydrogen production but higher

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heat production. The third case is based on oxidative pyrolysis to produce bio-char (carbon sink),
hydrogen and heat. All these options were modeled in Aspen Plus[®] associated with experimental data
obtained from the literature and from a semi-industrial pilot plant (University of Lorraine, Epinal,
France)⁴⁷.

136 Therefore, the novelty of this work can be outlined by these three main aspects:

- To the best of our knowledge, these three processes were not yet modeled with the proposed
 detailed approach under the Aspen Plus framework, including elementary reactions for gas phase reactions, hydrodynamic of fluidized bed, and advanced purification of H₂ (membrane
 permeation and PSA adsorption).
- 141 2) Novel results on gas cleaning in a Venturi scrubber on a gasification pilot plant are presented
 142 and embedded in the Aspen Plus model.
- 143 3) These three main routes of H₂, heat and bio-char production are compared and discussed
 144 based on their energy, mass and hydrogen balance.

146 2. MODEL DESCRIPTION

147 2.1. Scenarios investigated

Three scenarios of hydrogen production from biomass were investigated (Figure 1). The three 148 149 scenarios were designed for a territorial scale of 20 MW LHV-basis (30 kt dry biomass/year). The 150 gasifier is a single fluidized bed reactor, which is cheaper and simpler to manage at territorial scale in 151 comparison to dual fluidized bed technology. The gasifying agent is a mixture of oxygen and steam. 152 Case 1 aims at maximizing the production of H₂ by implementing a steam reformer and water-gas shift catalytic reactors downstream the fluidized bed. It is based on experimental results of Corella et al.¹¹. 153 154 Case 2 considers a simpler process without catalytic reactors, targeting a lower production of H₂ and a 155 higher production of heat. The last case investigates the autothermal pyrolysis of biomass to produce 156 bio-char and a H_2 -rich gas obtained after the partial oxidation of the pyrolysis gas.

157 **2.2. Description of the processes and modeling**

158 The modeling approach is presented in Figure 1.







161

Our model under Aspen Plus 8.8[®] handles a combination of experimental data, which were preferred
 when available, and of more fundamental modeling based on kinetics (for gas-phase or catalytic
 reactions) or on mass transfers (membrane) when experimental results on biomass real syngas were
 not available.

- 166 Figure 1 presents a simplified flow sheet of the 3 cases and Figure 2 the detailed flow sheet for case 1.
- 167 The main assumptions of each process units are summarized in Table 2 and discussed here after.
- 168 The feedstock considered was woodchips, a by-product of the forest harvesting and wood industry.
- 169 This biomass was supposed to be crushed directly in the forest or in dedicated platforms. The humidity
- 170 was fixed to 40% wt after delivery. Table S1 provides the detailed composition of the feedstock.
- 171 The detailed flow sheets of the three options are presented in supporting information (SI) (Figure S1-172 S3). The equation of state RK-Aspen was used as it is recommended for hydrocarbon mixtures and light 173 gases⁴⁸. The species BIOMASS and CHAR were modeled as non-conventional solids with their 174 proximate and elemental composition. The heat of combustion was estimated with Mott and Spooner
- 175 model, which is tailored for biomass and its high oxygen content⁴⁹.

176 **2.2.1.** Biomass drying

177 The biomass was considered dried down to 20% wt with the low-temperature heat contained in the 178 boiler exhaust gas in order to increase energy efficiency and to limit the amount of tars produced by 179 the gasifier⁵⁰. The dryer model was taken from François et al.²⁷. It estimates the VOCs emissions during 180 the drying.

181 2.2.2. Oxygen production

Concerning the production of oxygen as gasifying agent, the VSAO₂ (vacuum swing adsorption) process is the most adapted one for small-scale production in the range of 10 to 200 tons of O₂ per day and if very highly pure O₂ is not required (93-95%v, the rest is mainly argon)⁵¹. The VSA O₂ was modeled as a simple separator to reach a purity of 93%v and a recovery rate of 55%⁵². Air was compressed at 1.5 bar before the columns. The purge pressure was set to 0.6 bar obtained with a vacuum pump. An adsorbent commonly used consists of lithium-doped zeolites. The required adsorbent quantity was estimated from ref.⁵³.

189 **2.2.3. Gasifier**

- The gasification and the pyrolysis were conducted in a bubbling fluidized bed, which is the most
 adapted technology for the targeted scale⁵⁴.
- For cases 1 and 2, a real syngas composition from literature data was used in order to have a detailed and accurate composition of tars. Among few detailed results available in literature^{17,18}, the experimental results obtained by Schmid et al.¹⁷ in a steam/oxygen fluidized bed were selected (see SI S2). Their operating conditions were tailored to the production of hydrogen with an equivalent ratio
- (ER) of 0.25 and a molar steam to carbon ratio of 1 for a bed temperature at 850°C. The solid organic
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197 residue (char) yield was estimated to 10 g daf/kg of dry biomass. Gil et al. mentioned 5-20 g/kg daf as char yield for a steam-oxygen bubbling fluidized bed⁵⁵. Therefore, 10 g daf/kg dry biomass of char is 198 199 an average common value for char yield produced by this technology. The elemental composition of 200 char was assumed as: 85% C, 2% H and 13% O daf. The global solid residue recovered is made up of 201 char and ash. An external Fortran subroutine linked to RYIELD model was used to compute the gas and 202 tar composition according to the experimental results and to the biomass flow rate. Atomic balances 203 in C, H, O, Cl and S were ensured by adjusting the CO_2 , H_2O , O_2 , HCl and H_2S flows, respectively. The 204 heat balance was used in the RYIELD model to calculate the temperature of the syngas at the outlet 205 assuming an adiabatic reactor.

206 **2.2.4.** Pyrolyser

207 In the case 3, an adiabatic fluidized bed pyrolyser was used. A small amount of oxygen was injected 208 (auto-thermal conditions) to provide heat internally¹⁵. As a consequence, its behavior was very close 209 to the auto-thermal fluidized bed gasifier used in the first scenarios. The main difference was the bed 210 temperature below 600°C instead of 850°C. In this condition, pyrolysis char was an important product 211 to be recovered. To the best of the author's knowledge, no detailed data on the auto-thermal pyrolysis 212 presenting gas molecular composition (gas and tar) is available in the literature. Therefore, in order to 213 model this auto-thermal pyrolysis, a model was developed to estimate the yield and detailed 214 composition of pyrolysis products (char, gas, water and tars). Ranzi's model of biomass pyrolysis⁵⁶ and 215 radical kinetic mechanisms^{57–59} were used. The ER used was set to 0.10, slightly higher than the 216 minimum ER of 0.08 estimated by Brown for autothermal pyrolysis at around 500°C to compensate 217 heat losses¹⁵. The heat balance showed that an ER equals to 0.10 was able to reach a mean temperature in the fluidized bed of 565°C. Additional information on the pyrolysis model and a 218 comparison with experimental results can be found in SI S3. A part of the syngas was recycled to the 219 220 fluidized bed to maintain a fluidization velocity consistent to the gasification cases. An external Fortran 221 subroutine was used to ensure mass balance similarly to the gasification reactor.

222 **2.2.5.** Partial oxidation, steam reformer and water-gas shift

When the production of H₂ is maximized (case 1), the process includes catalytic steam reformer and water gas shift units. These two steps were conducted at high temperature after the gasifier in order to promote heat integration and according to the experiments of Corella et al.¹¹. Unfortunately, the catalysts are sensitive to the concentration of tars which may cause their deactivation. 2 g/Nm³ (including benzene, dry basis) was recommended by Corella et al. as the targeted tar content for maintaining the stability of the catalytic reformer²⁵. Therefore, a partial oxidizing unit was used after the gasifier to reduce the tar content down to 2g/Nm³. This limit can also be obtained by an optimized Page 9 / 30 230 design and operation of the gasifier even if it was not the case with the experimental data used here 231 for syngas composition since olivine was used as bed material. A better catalyst (dolomite, nickel-232 olivine) can contribute to the reduction of tar content, but it would also increase the operating costs. 233 The addition of a small amount of oxygen in the syngas leads to the oxidation and cracking of tars at 234 high temperature (over 1000°C). This POX unit was modeled by detailed kinetic models^{57–59} which were 235 implemented by coupling Aspen Plus with ANSYS Chemkin Pro 17.0 (SI S4). For the gasification 236 scenarios (1-2), the oxygen was adjusted to an equivalent ratio of 0.12 to reach the target of 2 g/Nm³ 237 of tars. More details on the impact of this ER are given in SI, section S5.

Experiments on steam reforming and water-gas-shift with a real syngas were conducted in the literature^{25,60}. The reformer reactor was modeled with RPLUG and the kinetics of Corella's team²⁵ with a nickel-based catalyst (reactions and kinetics presented in SI S6). The dimensions of the reactor were adjusted to reach 95% conversion of methane according to Caballero et al.²⁴. This kinetic approach allowed to predict the remaining tars after the catalytic reformer.

Then, two stages of water gas shift were used, first at high temperature (350°C), second at a lower temperature (200°C) to promote CO conversion. The catalysts commonly used are iron/chromium oxide and Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ for high and low temperature respectively¹¹. The water-gas-shift reactors were modeled with RGIBBS model and a temperature approach of 20°C²⁰. A steam to CO ratio of 3 was used to maximize the H₂ production.

248 2.2.6. Wet scrubbing of syngas

As a final syngas polishing, water scrubber was chosen to remove residual tars and other contaminants (NH₃, HCl, H₂S). Even if this operation was not required for tar removal in case 1, the wet scrubber has another purpose: the condensation of the syngas water content. Table 1 presents the tar removal efficiency found in literature and based on a pilot system experiment with Venturi and wet scrubbers in series. This pilot plant at University of Lorraine (Epinal, France) can operate 50 kg biomass/h. The scrubbing water flow rate is about 1 m³/h.

This step was modeled as a FLASH unit and the composition of tars adjusted accordingly to the experimental results (of Table 1). The removal of NH₃, H₂S and HCl was modeled with ELECNRTL model²⁷.

258 **2.2.7. Wastewater treatment**

The species removed from the syngas and present in the scrubbing water were separated by coagulation and flotation in a dissolved air flotation unit (DAF) with the addition of soda to increase

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- 261 the pH along with flocculants and coagulant. The excess of water resulting from condensing water from
- the syngas was removed and sent to district water system after a fixed bed of activated carbon to
- ²⁶³ remove the residual contaminants^{61,62}. The amount of activated carbon was estimated with ref. ⁶².
- 264

Table 1: Wet scrubber efficiency.

	Pilot plant, this work	Rabou et al. (2009) 63
	(Venturi + wet scrubber) ^a	Water absorber
Benzene	0%	35%
Class 2 ^b	44% (global ^c)	72%
o-Xylene	9%	
Phenol	99%	
o-Cresol	33%	
m,p-Cresol	100%	
Class 3 ^b	4% (global ^c)	28%
Toluene	4%	
Class 4 ^b	70% (global ^c)	69%
Indene	37%	
Naphthalene	58%	
2-methylNaphthalene	80%	
1-methylNaphthalene	82%	
Acenaphthylene	91%	
Acenaphthene	97%	
Fluorene	100%	
Phenanthrene	95%	
Anthracene	100%	
Fluoranthene	100%	
Class 5 ^b	100% (global ^c)	50%
Pyrene	100%	

^aSyngas temperature around 150°C and 30°C at the inlet and outlet respectively, scrubbing water between 25 and 35°C at the inlet and outlet respectively.

^bECN classification⁶⁴.

^cThis value is an average that takes into account the relative yields of tars in this class.

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266 2.2.8. Hydrogen separation

- 267 The standard process for H_2 separation is the pressure swing adsorption unit (PSA). Yet, the inlet 268 concentration of H_2 should be at least 70%v to reach a high purity separation (99.99%v)²⁰. To achieve
- such high concentration at the inlet, a part of the pure hydrogen produced can be recycled at the inlet
- 270 of the PSA²⁰. However, when the concentration of H_2 was too low (cases 2 and 3), a polyimide
- 271 membrane permeable to H_2 was used before the PSA. The membrane plays the role of a H_2 pre-
- 272 concentrator (more details are given in SI S7).
- 273 The PSA was modeled as a SEP block with fixed recovery and purity, a part of the product was recycled
- to reach 70%v content in H_2^{20} . The recovery rate was assumed to be 85%. The amount of adsorbent

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- 275 (zeolite and activated carbon) was estimated based on NREL calculation⁶⁵. The membrane permeable
- to H_2 was modeled with the cape-open model called "MEMSIC" developed in our laboratory⁶⁶.

The optimal design of the hybrid H₂ separation unit was determined based on the specific separation
cost. The method used for the determination of the optimal architecture (membrane surface, pressure
on the retentate and permeate of the membrane) is described in SI S7. The goal was to achieve
99.99%vol hydrogen purity of hydrogen provided at 70 bar.

281 **2.2.9. Heat generation**

The tail gas of the hydrogen separation unit still contains some H₂, CO, CH₄ and C₂. Its lower heating value was too low for using it in an internal combustion engine for electricity production. Therefore, this gas was burnt in a gas boiler to produce heat for a heating network. The temperature range of the water network was 40/80°C.

The gas boiler model was adapted from François et al.²⁷. We have implemented a Fortran subroutine fixing the pollutants yields based on the exhaust gas concentration of an industrial gas boiler. The atomic mass balance was computed with the same procedure as for the gasifier model.

289 2.2.10. Thermal integration

A pinch analysis was performed to build the heat exchanger network. The steam required for gasification was obtained with heat exchangers cooling the syngas before the reformer and the watergas shift (case 1) or before the wet scrubber (case 2). The excess of heat was recovered for the heating network. Syngas and hydrogen compression requires multistage compression with intercooler. A part of this heat was used for preheating steam flow to feed the gasifier and the steam reformer, another part was recovered for the heat network. A small amount of cold water (15°C) was required as cooling utility to reach the lowest temperatures level in the process (30°C, between two compression stages).









Table 2: Assumptions of the Aspen Plus model, utilities and material consumption.

Unit	Methods	Results	
Drier ^b	Adapted from François et al. ²⁷	Heat required, VOCs emissions	
VSA O ₂ ^{a,c}	SEP, O ₂ recovery rate 55%	Airinput	
Gasifier ^d	RYIELD with external Fortran subroutine	Composition of the syngas,	
	(experimental data ¹⁷ and atoms balances)	temperature reached	
Auto-thermal	RYIELD with external Fortran subroutine	Composition of the syngas and	
pyrolyser	(ChemkinPro)	bio-char, temperature reached	
Cyclone	SEP, $\Delta P = 0.5 \text{ kPa}$		
POX	Fortran subroutine, CHEMKIN-PRO	Composition of the syngas after	
	simulation with adiabatic plug-flow reactor and radical kinetic mechanism ^{57–59}	POX unit, temperature reached	
Steam reformer ^e	RPLUG, kinetics in SI S6, T _{inlet} 845°C	Composition and temperature of	
		the syngas after reformer,	
		amount of catalyst.	
Water-gas-shift [*]	RGIBBS, temperature approach 20°C,	Composition and temperature of	
	$\Delta P = 0.4 \text{ kPa}, \text{HTS} (T_{\text{inlet}} 350^{\circ}\text{C}), \text{LTS} (T_{\text{inlet}} 200^{\circ}\text{C})$	the syngas after WGS, amount of catalyst.	
Water scrubber ^g	FLASH with experimental data,	Composition of the syngas after	
	$\Delta P = 0.15$ kPa water flow rate adjusted to	scrubber	
	reach a syngas at 30°C at the outlet.		
Compressor ^a	Multi-stage compressor with intercooler	Power required and outlet	
	(30°C), GPSA method, polytropic efficiency	temperature.	
	0.80 and mechanical efficiency 0.98		
Membrane H ₂ '	Cape-open MEMSIC ^{®®} , countercurrent flow	Compositions of the outlets and	
	pattern and permeance for UBE B-H	the corresponding membrane	
	membrane from".	surface area	
Р 5 А П ₂ "	SEP, recovery enriciency 85% , $\Delta P = 5$ kPa	Flow of hydrogen produced,	
		amount of adsorbent.	
Airbooster ^a	GPSA method, polytropic efficiency 0.80	Power required and outlet	
	and mechanical efficiency 0.98	temperature.	
Gas boiler	RYIELD with external Fortran subroutine	Heat generated by the boiler,	
	adapted from François et al. ²⁷	exhaust gas composition.	
	- excess of air λ=1.5		
	- CO: 0.006 kg/Nm ³		
	- C ₁₀ H ₈ : 4 10 ⁻⁹ kg/Nm ³		
	- Other PAHs: 1.5 10 ⁻⁹ kg/Nm ³		
	(acenaphthylene, anthracene,		
	phenanthrene, pyrene)		
	mole fraction 0.25 each.		
	- NO mass fraction from oxidation of		
	atmospheric N ₂ / 10°		
	$-30013 \text{ m}^{-1} \text{ kg/Nm}^{-3}$		
Heat exchanger	$\Delta P = 2 kPa$ minimum temperature	Surface area	
	approach 5°C		

^aEstimated from Aspen Plus model assuming 80% polytropic efficiency and 98% mechanical efficiency for compressors and boosters.

^bRef²⁰ is used for conveyor and dryer consumption.

^cMass of fresh adsorbent per year estimated from Peters et al. and Swanson et al.^{19,68}, adsorption isotherms for lithium doped adsorbent⁵³ assuming a 1-year lifetime (7500 hours of operations). ^dAssuming 2.6 kg/h of fresh bed material for a 20 MW gasifier.

 $^{\rm e}Assuming$ SV 14 000 $\,h^{\text{-1}}$ and density 1025 kg/m $^{3\,24}$, catalyst replacement 33% per year.

^fAssuming SV 2 700 h⁻¹ for HTS (iron and chromium oxide BASF K6-11 in¹⁰) and SV 5100 h⁻¹ for LTS (Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ BASF K3-110 in¹¹) and catalyst density 897.0 kg/m³, catalyst replacement 33% per year.

^gChemicals required for Dissolve Air Flotation unit and activated carbon guard bed for residual tars. Amount of activated carbon estimated assuming 3.25 g PAH adsorbed per g of activated carbon⁶². ^hMass of fresh adsorbent per year estimated from Peters et al. and Swanson et al.^{19,68}, adsorption isotherms for activated carbon and zeolite adsorbent⁶⁵ assuming a 4-year lifetime (7500 hours of operations).

ⁱSince membrane module lifetime is expected to last 5 years, it assumed 20% of membrane surface replacement per year.

304

305 2.3. Definition of energetic efficiency

- 306 The energetic efficiency is defined with reference to the lower heating value of woodchips on dry basis.
- 307 The net η_{net} and gross η_{gross} energetic efficiencies are linked to heat η_{hn} , hydrogen η_{H_2} and bio-char
- 308 $\eta_{biochar}$ efficiency.

$$\eta_{net} = \eta_{hn} + \eta_{H_2} + \eta_{biochar} - \eta_{power \, consumption} \tag{1}$$

$$\eta_{gross} = \eta_{hn} + \eta_{H_2} + \eta_{biochar} \tag{2}$$

$$\eta_{hn} = \frac{Q_{hn}}{\dot{m}_{wood,dry} \cdot LHV_{wood,dry}} \tag{3}$$

$$\eta_{H_2} = \frac{\dot{m}_{H_2} \cdot LHV_{H_2}}{\dot{m}_{wood,dry} \cdot LHV_{wood,dry}} \tag{4}$$

$$\eta_{biochar} = \frac{\dot{m}_{biochar} \cdot LHV_{biochar,dry}}{\dot{m}_{wood,dry} \cdot LHV_{wood,dry}}$$
(5)

$$\eta_{power \, consumption} = \frac{W_{consumption}}{\dot{m}_{wood,dry} \cdot LHV_{wood,dry}} \tag{6}$$

309 \dot{Q}_{hn} is the heat power sent to the heat network, $\dot{m}_{wood,dry}$, \dot{m}_{H_2} and $\dot{m}_{biochar}$ the mass flowrate of

- biomass, hydrogen and biochar. $\dot{W}_{consumption}$ is the electrical power consumption. $LHV_{biochar,dry}$
- and $LHV_{wood,dry}$ are the lower heating value of biochar and wood.

312 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

313 3.1. Energy & Mass balance

The energy balances of each option are presented in Figure 3. The mass balance and the detailed 314 315 composition of the main streams are available in SI S1. The main utilities consumptions including 316 catalysts and adsorbents (Activated carbon AC and zeolite Ze) are given in Table 3. The electricity 317 consumption was mainly driven by the hydrogen separation step and its compressors. The first option 318 was the most electricity consuming because the entire syngas was compressed to 25 bar whereas the 319 first stage of separation in cases 2 and 3 required a lower pressure (5 bar) (see supporting information 320 S7). The electricity demand was also higher because of the final compression of H_2 on a bigger flow 321 rate. The estimated amount of activated carbon to clean the excess water of residual PAHs and other 322 contaminants was lower in the case 1 since the steam reformer reactor exhibits a catalytic effect on 323 the tar reduction. The worst case for activated carbon consumption was the third case due to a higher 324 quantity of tars in the syngas before wet scrubbing.

Spath et al. studied a similar process with indirectly heated biomass gasifier on a larger scale (434 MW LHV-basis). They determined a gross efficiency of 49.8% and a net efficiency of 45.6% for the production of hydrogen²⁰. We found in this work a higher H₂ efficiency (57.6% gross and 52.0% net in case 1). This is mainly due to a better conversion of biomass into H₂ and CO in our case. At the exit of the gasifier, the yields were 24.8 mol_{H₂}/kg_{biomass dry} and 11.7 mol_{CO}/kg_{biomass dry} (O₂/H₂O bubbling fluidized bed¹⁷) compared to 8.4 mol_{H₂}/kg_{biomass dry} and 14.8 mol_{CO}/kg_{biomass dry} in Spath et al.²⁰ (a dual fluidized bed).

The second case without catalytic reactors gives a similar global efficiency (77.8% net) but the production of heat was higher (60.0% instead of 23.4%) and the production of H_2 smaller (17.9% instead of 52.0%). The second case is less interesting based on H_2 production, but its CAPEX and OPEX are probably significantly lower (two catalytic reactors were removed). Furthermore, this process *ca*n present an interest for the co-production of H_2 and heat for sites with higher heat demands.

The third case of autothermal pyrolysis and its three products (hydrogen, heat and bio-char) gives a higher efficiency (80.4% net) when the bio-char is considered as an energy product. The two energy vectors (hydrogen and heat) represent a 51.2% net efficiency. A large amount of syngas was recycled to the pyrolyser to maintain its fluidization.

In the autothermal pyrolysis option (case 3), 408 kg/h of bio-char are produced corresponding to a

char yield around 11.0% daf and a carbon yield of 16.6%. This bio-char yield should be considered with

caution because it is estimated from Ranzi's model of biomass pyrolysis and not validated in a pilot
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plant. Yet, this model gives a rough estimate of the bio-char composition and the gas and tar detailed
composition. As a comparison, Polin et al. conducted autothermal pyrolysis at 500°C in a fluidized bed
of two biomasses: Red Oak and corn stover with an ER of 0.10 and 0.068, respectively. The biochar
yields were 9.5% wt for Red Oak and 20.1% wt for corn stover. The corresponding carbon yields were
estimated to 14.5% for Red Oak and 26.7% for corn stover^{69,70}. The Red Oak experiments are compared
with the results of this model in SI 3. The model predicts nicely the overall permanent gas mass yield
but over-predicts the char yield (see SI 3 for more details).

Table 3: Utilities consumption.

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3
Electrical consumption [MWe]	2.08	1.66	1.36
Fresh water for steam	25.9	9.4	0
generation [thousands of m ³ /y]			
Adsorbent VSA O_2 [t/y]	0.96	0.96	0.63
Bed material [t/y]	19.5	19.5	19.5
Reformer catalyst [t/y]	0.25		
WGS catalyst [t/y]	HTS: 1.26		
	LTS: 0.68		
Chemicals for water treatment	NaOH: 210 t/y	NaOH: 210 t/y	NaOH: 210 t/y
	Flocculant: 23 m ³ /y	Flocculant: 23 m ³ /y	Flocculant: 23 m ³ /y
	Coagulant: 23 m³/y	Coagulant: 23 m ³ /y	Coagulant: 23 m ³ /y
	AC: 0.37 t/y	AC: 11.7 t/y	AC: 24.8 t/y
Adsorbent PSA H ₂ [t/y]	AC: 0.465	AC: 0.090	AC: 0.063
	Ze: 0.371	Ze: 0.071	Ze: 0.049
Membrane H_2 area [m ² /y]		300	300
Natural gas ^a [Nm ³ /y]	3600	3600	3600
Nitrogen ^b [Nm³/y]	3600	3600	3600

^aEstimate for two start-ups per year and auxiliary fuel for flare.

^bEstimate for the nitrogen safety system.









Figure 3: Sankey's type diagrams (in MW) of the 3 cases.

357 **3.2. Fate of hydrogen along the process unit**



358 Figure 4 shows the molar flow rate and fraction of hydrogen along the process for each option.

359

Figure 4: Hydrogen molar flow rate and fraction along the process. G=Gasifier, P=Pyrolyzer,
 POX=Partial Oxidation, R=Reformer, WGS=Water Gas Shift, M=Membrane, PSA=Pressure Swing
 Adsorption.

The objective was to reach 70%vol of H₂ before the PSA to produce quasi-pure hydrogen with the PSA H₂. The flow rate of hydrogen is doubled when catalytic reformer and water-gasshift reactors are used (Figure 4). Its molar fraction is increased from 35.5% to 55.5%db. This concentration is reached in case 2 and 3 with a membrane module (67.3 and 66.8%db respectively for cases 2 and 3). The 70%vol concentration is achieved by recirculating a part of the hydrogen produced.

In the best case (1), 107 $g_{H_2}/kg_{biomass,dry}$ could be produced in which 79 g are effectively separated (76% recovery). This result compares well with the 140 $g_{H_2}/kg_{biomass,dry}$ produced claimed by Corella et al.¹¹ for oxy-steam gasification followed by reformer and shift reactors. This lower yield of hydrogen can be explained by the partial oxidation of a part of the hydrogen in the POX unit. This reactor is necessary because the syngas produced by Schmid et al.¹⁷ contains more tars than Corella et al.¹¹ with dolomite as bed material. Indeed the syngas produced by Corella et al. contains less than 2 g/Nm³ of tars whereas, the syngas produced by Schmid et al. contains 38 g/Nm^{3 17}.

When catalytic reactors are removed, the hydrogen production is divided by a factor of 2 or 3. In case 2, 47 $g_{H_2}/kg_{biomass,dry}$ could be produced in which 26 g are effectively separated. In the case 3, 31 $g_{H_2}/kg_{biomass,dry}$ could be produced and 18 g are separated. These two cases present smaller hydrogen production but they could be more suitable for a territorial level: the processes are simpler and more robust than with catalytic reactors. The separation process of hydrogen was chosen to minimize the hydrogen specific separation cost but this architecture did not lead necessarily to the maximum hydrogen recovery rate. A higher production of H₂ would lead to higher specific separation
 cost. In case 3, char is produced and may be used to create a carbon sink.

The final H₂ yield of case 1 (79 $g_{H_2}/kg_{biomass,dry}$) is in good agreement with previous studies. In bubbling fluidized bed, Ersöz et al. evaluated a yield of 76.1 $g_{H_2}/kg_{biomass,dry}$ after PSA³⁶. Susmozas et al. found a lower value in a steam dual fluidized bed: 55.0 $g_{H_2}/kg_{biomass,dry}^{41}$ whereas Pallozzi et al. found 75.2 $g_{H_2}/kg_{biomass,dry}^{42}$ for the same technology. Gupta and Dasappa determined 107.4 $g_{H_2}/kg_{biomass,dry}^{37}$ with a fixed bed downdraft. The values obtained for case 2 and 3 of this study cannot be compared because our separation process had never been previously proposed.

389 In order to better understand the H atoms transfer from wood and water to H_2 , Figure 5 shows the 390 fate of H along the process units. In the first scenario, 42.7% of the produced H_2 comes from the oxy-391 steam gasification of biomass after the POX unit, 13.2% results from steam reforming and 44.2% from 392 water gas-shift reactors. As a consequence of catalytic reactors, almost all the hydrogen content in the syngas before the separation process is attributed to the H_2 molecule. In the second case, all the H_2 393 394 comes from biomass and steam during gasification. As in case 1, after the partial oxidation of the 395 syngas to reduce the amount of tars, the hydrogen yield was slightly reduced by 6%. The temperature 396 in the POX unit was too high to promote the conversion of CO by the water gas-shift. In the third case, 397 the POX unit increases the hydrogen yield from 19.4%v after pyrolysis to 31%v on a dry basis. The H₂ 398 content in case 3 is lower than in case 2. First, a part of hydrogen is kept in bio-char. In addition, the 399 carbon in biochar which is not converted into syngas as CO could not contribute to the H₂ formation 400 by the water-gas shift reaction. To increase the amount of hydrogen after POX unit, we tried to add 401 steam in the POX. This addition has no effect on H_2 formation. Indeed, as shown by our group⁷¹, OH 402 radicals mainly result from CO_2 conversion during syngas thermal conversion and H_2O is poorly reactive 403 under such conditions.









411 **3.3.** Tar and particles

412 The Figure 6 shows the tar dew point and the tar concentration in the syngas along the process. The 413 POX unit seems to have no effect on tar dew point. In fact, tars are effectively converted but the 414 heaviest tars mainly control the dew point value even at very low concentration. A higher amount of 415 oxygen would increase the efficiency of the POX unit. Unfortunately, the temperature rise would have 416 been too high for the refractory material of the reactor. The addition of oxygen was then limited by 417 the temperature reached in the POX unit (Figure 7) (more details presented in SI S5). The temperature limit was set to 1300°C for a classical refractory material of the POX unit. The peak temperature 418 419 corresponds to the maximum temperature reached in the POX unit.

- The reduction of global tar concentration is relatively small after the wet scrubber for case 1, but this
 equipment is required for water condensation from syngas. It also plays the role of extra dust/soot
- 422 removal. The heaviest PAHs are removed by the wet scrubber, thus reducing the tar dew point.

In case 3, the POX unit is not able to reduce the amount of tars below 2 g/Nm³ as for gasification scenarios, even with higher gas-phase residence times. The addition of oxygen was limited by the temperature reached (max 1300°C). The initial content of tars is higher after pyrolysis than after gasification. Its composition is also different with more primary and secondary tars. However, the tar dew point is reduced to around 25°C after the wet scrubber.



428

Figure 6: Concentration of tars and tar dew point along the process. G=Gasifier, P=Pyrolyzer,
 POX=Partial Oxidation, R=Reformer, WS=Water Scrubber. Tars and benzene in blue, tars without
 benzene in green.









435 **3.4.** H₂ separation by a hybrid process: membrane coupled to PSA

Two stages of separation were required (membrane and PSA) when the H₂ concentration in the syngas was too low, since a single PSA would require a very large product recycling to reach 70%v at the inlet²⁰. The membrane as a first stage plays the role of a pre-concentrator before the PSA (see supplementary material S7). To the best of our knowledge, this architecture of hydrogen separation from a biomass syngas is proposed for the first time. No data is available on the membrane lifetime using syngas with a residual amount of tars. If necessary, a guard bed filled with activated carbon could be added to remove these tars before the separation stage.

The minimum specific separation costs were estimated at 0.91 and 1.08 €/kg_{H2} for case 2 (Figure 8) and 3 respectively (SI S7). The first stage of separation with the membrane module requires a syngas pressure of around 5 bar, which is lower than the pressure required for PSA H₂ (around 25 bar). Only a part of the syngas enriched in hydrogen is compressed to this higher pressure in the second stage. As a result, the required energy is lowered with these two levels of pressure. The operational expenditure is decreased for the power consumption, but the H₂ recovery rate is lower. This explains why the specific separation cost is only 0.59 €/kg_{H2} in the case 1 with one stage PSA.



452 Figure 8: Specific hydrogen separation cost for case 2 as a function of membrane area, permeate
 453 and retentate pressures.

454

455 **3.5. Comparison of the various options and recommendations**

The choice between these scenarios is dependent on various criteria. The heat represents roughly 456 between one third and more than half of energy outputs. Therefore, the choice may depend on the 457 458 valorization of heat on the selected locations (like industrial sites). In any case, it would be far better if 459 the heat demand of the site is relatively constant during the year. The availability of the feedstock is another criterion on the scale that is linked to the location of the plant. Finally, this location should 460 461 avoid the transport of hydrogen on large distance by trucks. The bio-char can be more easily 462 transported than hydrogen, but its production supposes a demand nearby since its density is quite 463 low. This bio-char could also be stored or sequestrated to create a carbon sink³.

- 464 Case 1 could fulfill hydrogen demand at 293 kg_{H2}/h and it produces 5.2 MW_{th} of heat that must be 465 valorized. Case 2 and 3 are simpler from a technology point of view: fewer unit operations, no catalytic 466 reactor. This gain in robustness has to be counterbalanced with the hydrogen separation process that 467 is more complex. The production of hydrogen is also far lower 98 kg_{H2}/h in case 2 and only 66 kg_{H2}/h 468 in case 3.
- 469 From these results, we could expect the capital costs of case 1 to be much higher than cases 2 and 3
- 470 due to the catalytic reactors and the additional cost of catalysts. However, for cases 2 and 3, the
- 471 hydrogen separation was achieved in two stages, increasing the specific cost of hydrogen separation.
- 472 This point should be quantified properly with a further techno-economic assessment.

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The third case can be chosen for its carbon sequestration potential through bio-char production. This
option leads to a net negative CO₂ emission process as it may lead to a stable sink of carbon³.

Furthermore, in the context of bioenergy with carbon capture and storage (BECCS) processes, the PSA tail gas has a high concentration of CO_2 (between 60 to 70%v according to the cases). This high

- 477 concentration favors the capture of CO_2 for carbon sequestration.
- 478

479 **4. CONCLUSION**

480 The aim of this work was to provide a detailed mass and energy balance of three scenarios of 481 production of hydrogen from biomass: a first case dedicated to produce the maximum of hydrogen, a 482 simpler option without catalyst reactors and a carbon-negative process that also produced bio-char.

483 The model covered the whole process from drying of the biomass to the production of H₂, heat and 484 bio-char. All these operation units were modeled with Aspen Plus® with a detailed composition of tars. 485 The accuracy of the model was ensured with experimental data when they were available. Chemkin 486 Pro was coupled to Aspen Plus® to model the partial oxidation unit with a detailed radical kinetic 487 mechanism. A hybrid hydrogen separation process was proposed using two technologies, namely 488 membrane and PSA. The high-temperature heat was recovered for steam generation used for the 489 gasification. The low-grade heat was used for woodchips drying whereas the rest of the heat was 490 valorized in a heating network.

Global energetic efficiencies are 75.4, 77.8 and 80.4% net for scenarios 1 to 3, respectively. The hydrogen yields were 79, 26 and 18 $g_{H_2}/kg_{biomass,dry}$ after separation. The excess of heat dedicated to a heating network leads to heat efficiencies of 23.4, 60.0 and 49.0% net for the same three options respectively. 110 $g_{biochar}/kg_{biomass,dry}$ was produced in the third option. The needs of utilities and commodities are also quantified.

496 These data will be used in a techno-economic assessment and a life cycle assessment to consider all497 the aspects: profitability and environmental impacts.

The production of renewable hydrogen from biomass represents an alternative path to electrolysis
 processes when the available electricity production is too low or too carbon intensive.

500

501 5. SUPPORTING INFORMATIONS

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- 502 The supporting information file 1 presents: 1) details flowsheets of each scenarios and mass balance
- results, 2) the composition of the syngas and tars used as experimental data for oxy-steam gasification,
- 504 3) the presentation and the results of the auto-thermal pyrolyser model, 4) few details about the

505 partial oxidation model, 5) the influence of the equivalent ratio on the efficiency of the partial

506 oxidation unit, 6) the kinetic model used for the steam reformer model, 7) the methods and results

- 507 used to define the architecture of the hydrogen separation. The supporting information file 2 presents
- 508 the detailed composition of each flow from Aspen Plus.

509

510 **6. FUNDINGS**

- 511 This work was funded by the French PIA project "Lorraine Université d'Excellence" (reference ANR-15-
- 512 IDEX-04-LUE) and by the Hy-C-GREEN project (Europe-FEDER and Grand-Est province).
- 513

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