



# **CO<sub>2</sub> CAPTURE IN THE CEMENT INDUSTRY**

***Technical Study***

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Mott MacDonald Ltd  
Victory House  
Trafalgar Place  
Brighton  
BN1 4FY  
UK

### **The principal researchers were:**

- Duncan Barker
- Daniel Holmes
- James Hunt
- Philip Napier-Moore
- Simon Turner
- Michael Clark (Whitehopleman)

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**The IEA GHG manager for this report:** John Davison

### **The expert reviewers for this report:**

- Rodney Allam, UK
- Adisorn Aroonwilas, University of Regina, Canada
- Dolf Gielen, IEA, France
- Volker Hoenig, VDZ, Germany
- Jim Rushworth, Lafarge, UK
- Aleksander Samarin, University of Technology, Sydney, Australia
- Dietmar Shulz, Polysius, Germany
- Amornvadee Veawab, University of Regina, Canada
- Dennis van Puyvelde, CO2CRC, Australia

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Further information or copies of the report can be obtained by contacting the IEA GHG Programme at:

IEA Greenhouse R&D Programme, Orchard Business Centre,  
Stoke Orchard, Cheltenham, Glos., GL52 7RZ, UK  
Tel: +44 1242 680753 Fax: +44 1242 680758  
E-mail: [mail@ieaghg.org](mailto:mail@ieaghg.org)  
[www.ieagreen.org.uk](http://www.ieagreen.org.uk)





## **IEA GHG OVERVIEW**

### **Background**

The cement industry is one of the world's largest industrial sources of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, accounting for 1.8 Gt/y in 2005, i.e. more than 6% of global emissions from the use of fossil fuels. Over the years the cement industry has substantially reduced emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> per tonne of cement by improved energy efficiency, replacing fossil fuels with wastes which can sometimes be regarded as 'carbon neutral' and by increasing the use of additives in the cement product. The scope for further reductions by these means is becoming limited but there is an increasing need to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions to avoid climate change. CO<sub>2</sub> capture and storage (CCS) presents one of the few opportunities to make further major reductions in emissions and the industry is currently considering the feasibility of applying this technique in order to plan for the future. In many ways the cement industry represents a good opportunity for CCS, because cement plants are relatively large point sources of CO<sub>2</sub>, the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in cement plant flue gas is relatively high (about 25mol%, dry basis) and over 60% of total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from a modern cement plant are from mineral decomposition and this CO<sub>2</sub> cannot be avoided by use of alternative energy sources.

IEA GHG has undertaken a study to assess the technologies that could be used to capture CO<sub>2</sub> in cement plants and their performances and costs. The study was undertaken for IEA GHG by Mott MacDonald. The British Cement Association collaborated and helped to obtain input from the cement manufacture and plant supply industries.

### **Study Description**

#### **Scope of the study**

The scope of the study was to:

- Provide descriptions of cement plants and the global cement industry
- Review CO<sub>2</sub> capture processes that would be suitable for cement plants
- Evaluate the performance and economics of cement plants with and without CO<sub>2</sub> capture
- Discuss retrofitting CO<sub>2</sub> capture and CO<sub>2</sub> capture ready plants
- Identify information gaps and R&D needs

#### **Study basis**

The technical and economic assessments were based on a new cement plant in the UK producing 1 million tonnes/year of cement (910,000 t/y of clinker), using typical current technology: a dry feed plant with 5 stages of pre-heating. A 3 million t/y plant in Asia using the same technology was assessed as a sensitivity case.

The study was based on existing CO<sub>2</sub> capture technologies, or technologies that could be developed for use in cement plants in the near future with moderate risk. It should be recognised that further development of technologies may significantly reduce the cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> and increase the fraction of CO<sub>2</sub> that can be captured.

The costs of cement production and CO<sub>2</sub> capture were calculated assuming a 10% annual discount rate in constant money values, a 25 year plant life, 90% load factor, a coal price of €2.51/GJ (LHV basis) and a petroleum coke price of €2.34/GJ (3.76 and 3.51 US\$/GJ respectively<sup>1</sup>). A full list of the economic criteria used in the study is given in the main report.

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<sup>1</sup> Based on an exchange rate of 1.5 \$/€



## Results and Discussion

### Cement production

Cement is composed of calcium silicates, calcium aluminates and calcium aluminoferrite. It is produced from a mixture of raw materials, principally calcium carbonate. The raw materials are ground and delivered to a kiln where they react at high temperature to form an intermediate 'clinker' which is ground together with some gypsum to form cement, the finished product. The various clinker production technologies are described in the main report. Historically clinker production has evolved from wet processes in which raw materials are ground in water, through semi-wet and semi-dry processes to dry processes, in which the raw materials are dried and ground before feeding to preheaters and a kiln. The dry process required less energy than the wet process and thus is generally favoured where its application is feasible. In industrialised countries rotary kilns, which can have capacities of 10,000t/d, are used. Vertical shaft kilns are also used in plants of less than 300t/d, now mainly in India and China, but their use is being phased out because they produce lower quality cement.

Global production of cement has grown steadily over many years, reaching about 2,500 million tonnes in 2006. The average growth rate was 5.5% per year during the period 1990 to 2006 and the average rate accelerated to 8.7% per year since 2002. The main growth has been in Asia, and China in particular. China now accounts for almost half of all global cement production.

### CO<sub>2</sub> capture technologies

The three main CO<sub>2</sub> capture technologies are:

- Post combustion capture, in which CO<sub>2</sub> is separated from flue gas.
- Pre-combustion capture, in which fuel is reacted with oxygen and steam to produce a mixture of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>, the CO<sub>2</sub> is separated and the H<sub>2</sub> is used as fuel.
- Oxy-combustion, in which fuel is burnt in oxygen instead of air, to produce a flue gas consisting mainly of CO<sub>2</sub>.

Pre-combustion capture was not evaluated in detail in this study, mainly because it would only be able to capture the fuel-derived CO<sub>2</sub>, not the larger quantity of CO<sub>2</sub> from decomposition of carbonate minerals.

### *Post combustion capture*

Post combustion capture is a downstream process which would not affect the core of the cement production process. The main additions to the plant would be:

- A CO<sub>2</sub> capture plant which includes a solvent scrubber and regenerator
- A compressor to increase the pressure of the CO<sub>2</sub> product for transport by pipeline
- High efficiency FGD and De-NO<sub>x</sub> to satisfy the flue gas purity requirements of the CO<sub>2</sub> capture process
- A plant to provide the steam required for regeneration of the CO<sub>2</sub> capture solvent.

Cement plant flue gas has a relatively high CO<sub>2</sub> concentration; typically about 25 mol% compared to about 14% for a coal fired power plant. The post combustion solvent scrubbing processes that are being developed for CO<sub>2</sub> capture in coal fired power plants would in principle be suitable for use in cement plants. This study is based on the use of monoethanolamine (MEA) solvent scrubbing, which is a conservative choice. Alternative proprietary solvents with lower steam consumptions are being developed and used, so the sensitivity of costs to a lower energy consumption solvent was assessed. Post-combustion amine scrubbing is widely used in small plants producing up to 400t/d of CO<sub>2</sub> for the food, drinks and chemicals industries but scale up to around 3,000t/d would be needed for a 1 Mt/y cement plant which included capture of the CO<sub>2</sub> produced from an on-site steam generation plant.

Post combustion capture produces a high purity CO<sub>2</sub> stream, typically 99.9% dry basis. In this study the CO<sub>2</sub> is compressed on-site to 11 MPa to enable it to be transported by pipeline to an underground storage site. It was assumed that 85% of the CO<sub>2</sub> would be captured, for consistency with IEA GHG's other



studies but information obtained during IEA GHG's study on post combustion capture at power plants and other published work indicates that 95% capture should be feasible without significantly affecting the cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> captured. The CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in cement plant flue gas is higher than in power plant flue gas, so similar or greater percentage CO<sub>2</sub> capture is expected to be feasible.

A major issue for post combustion capture is the supply of low pressure steam for CO<sub>2</sub> capture solvent regeneration. In this study the steam is provided by a coal-fired combined heat and power (CHP) plant, which includes high pressure steam generation and a back-pressure steam turbine. The electricity produced by the CHP plant can satisfy all of the electricity demand of the cement and CO<sub>2</sub> capture plants and there is a small surplus which is exported. Coal was selected as the CHP plant fuel because most, although not all, cement plants already use coal. The flue gases from the CHP and cement plants are combined and fed to the CO<sub>2</sub> capture plant.

### ***Oxy-combustion***

In an oxy-combustion plant fuel is combusted in oxygen, produced in a cryogenic air separation unit, and some CO<sub>2</sub>-rich flue gas is recycled to control the flame temperature. The flue gas with a CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of about 80 mol% (dry basis) is purified to 95% CO<sub>2</sub> in a relatively simple cryogenic separation unit during compression. Higher purities can be achieved if necessary by employing cryogenic distillation.

Fuel is fed to two places in a modern cement plant: the precalciner, which helps to preheat the feedstock and calcine the raw material, and the high temperature kiln where cement clinker is produced. Most of the CO<sub>2</sub> is normally released from the limestone raw material in the preheaters and precalciner. Four oxy-combustion flow schemes were considered in the first phase of this study. The scheme that was selected for more detailed study involves oxy-combustion of the precalciner but air combustion of the kiln. This scheme minimises the possible impact of a high-CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere on the clinker production processes which occur in the kiln and minimises the impact of air in-leakage, which is substantial in some parts of a cement plant and which would have a large impact on the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and the losses of CO<sub>2</sub> during purification. Further R&D may show that cement kilns could be successfully operated with a high CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere and in-leakage could be greatly reduced. If so, oxy-combustion of the kiln as well as the precalciner could be feasible.

There is some experience of oxygen enrichment in cement plants to improve plant throughput but not for CO<sub>2</sub> abatement and not at high levels of enrichment. Oxy-combustion power generation pilot plants are being built but oxy-combustion is at an earlier stage of development than post combustion capture.

### **Performance and costs of cement plants with CO<sub>2</sub> capture**

The estimated performances and costs of cement plants with and without CO<sub>2</sub> capture are summarised in Tables 1 and 2.

**Table 1 Plant performance**

	Unit	Base case (no capture)	Post combustion capture	Oxy- combustion
<b>Fuel and power</b>				
Coal feed	kt/y	63.3	291.6	72.1
Petroleum coke feed	kt/y	32.9	32.9	27.1
Total fuel consumption (LHV basis)	MW	96.8	304.0	97.8
Average power consumption	MW	10.2	42.1	22.7
Average on-site power generation	MW	-	45.0	0.7
Average net power consumption	MW	10.2	-2.9	22.0
<b>CO<sub>2</sub> emitted and captured</b>				
CO <sub>2</sub> captured	kt/y	-	1067.7	465.0
CO <sub>2</sub> emitted on-site	kt/y	728.4	188.4	282.9
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions avoided at the cement plant <sup>2</sup>	kt/y	-	540.0	445.6
	%	-	74	61
CO <sub>2</sub> associated with power import/export	kt/y	42.0	-11.8	90.8
Overall net CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	kt/y	770.4	176.6	373.7
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions avoided, including power import and export	kt/y	-	593.8	396.8
	%	-	77	52

**Table 2 Costs**

	Unit	Base case (no capture)	Post combustion capture	Oxy- combustion
<b>Capital cost<sup>3</sup></b>	€M	263	558	327
<b>Operating costs</b>				
Fuel	€/y	6.7	21.5	6.9
Power	€/y	4.0	-1.1	8.7
Other variable operating costs	€/y	6.1	10.6	6.4
Fixed operating costs	€/y	19.1	35.3	22.8
Capital charges	€/y	29.7	63.1	36.9
Total costs	€/y	65.6	129.4	81.6
<b>Cement production cost</b>	€/t	65.6	129.4	81.6
<b>CO<sub>2</sub> abatement costs</b>				
Cost per tonne of cement product	€/t	-	63.8	16.0
Cost per tonne of CO <sub>2</sub> captured	€/t	-	59.6	34.3
Cost per tonne of CO <sub>2</sub> emissions avoided <sup>4</sup>	€/t	-	107.4	40.2

<sup>2</sup> The CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoided are the emissions of the base case plant without capture minus the emissions of the plant with CO<sub>2</sub> capture.

<sup>3</sup> The capital costs include miscellaneous owners' costs but exclude interest during construction, although this is taken into account in the calculation of overall production costs.

<sup>4</sup> The costs per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoided take into account the emissions associated with imported and exported power.





### ***Post combustion capture***

The CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoidance at the cement plant site is 74% but taking into account CO<sub>2</sub> avoided because of electricity exports the emissions avoidance increases to 77%. This could be increased to 93% if the percentage capture was increased to 95%.

The cost of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoidance is high at €107/t (US\$161/t)<sup>1</sup>. The high concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> in the flue gas of a cement plant compared to that of a coal or gas fired power plant reduces the size of the absorber tower and associated ducts, fans etc. However this is more than offset by lower economies of scale, the need to include FGD, which is normally already included in most power plants without CO<sub>2</sub> capture but not in most cement plants, and the relatively high costs of providing steam for solvent regeneration from a modest-sized CHP plant.

### ***Oxy-combustion***

Oxy-combustion in just the pre-calciner avoids 61% of the CO<sub>2</sub> produced at the cement plant. If required, this could be increased to 66% relatively easily by re-capturing the CO<sub>2</sub> which is emitted in a vent stream from CO<sub>2</sub> purification, using membranes or a small scrubber. Oxy-combustion involves a significant increase in the on-site power consumption, mainly for oxygen production and CO<sub>2</sub> compression and purification. Taking into account CO<sub>2</sub> emitted during generation of this power, the overall reduction in CO<sub>2</sub> emissions is 52%. If the imported power was generated in power plants with low CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, such as plants with CCS, the overall avoidance of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions would be close to the on-site emissions avoidance. Oxy-combustion of the kiln as well as the pre-calciner, combined with processing of the vent stream, could increase the on-site CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance to close to 100% but this would involve greater technical uncertainties, as described earlier.

The cost of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoidance is €40/t (US\$60/t)<sup>1</sup>, substantially lower than the cost of post combustion capture. Oxy-combustion is particularly suitable for cement plants because oxygen only needs to be provided for the CO<sub>2</sub> that originates from fuel combustion. No oxygen needs to be provided for the CO<sub>2</sub> from mineral decomposition, which accounts for about two thirds of the on-site emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> from a modern cement plant.

### **Comparison with CO<sub>2</sub> capture in power generation**

The costs of CO<sub>2</sub> capture in cement plants need to be viewed in the context of the costs of CO<sub>2</sub> abatement in other energy sectors. IEA GHG published studies on post-combustion and oxy-combustion capture of CO<sub>2</sub> in power generation in 2004-2005<sup>5</sup>. The costs of CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance were €30/t CO<sub>2</sub> for post combustion capture and €37/t CO<sub>2</sub> for oxy-combustion. The differences are within the limits of accuracy of the assessments. These costs are within the range of costs quoted in the IPCC Special Report on CCS, published in 2005<sup>6</sup>, bearing in mind that the €/€ exchange rate was about 1:1 at the time when the source data for the IPCC report were produced. Since then the costs of all types of power and process plants have increased substantially due to higher raw materials prices, tight labour supply and market conditions in the equipment supply industries. Fuel costs have also increased substantially and the value of the US\$ has declined against the Euro. After adjusting for inflation<sup>7</sup> the cost of post combustion capture in a coal fired power plant is estimated by IEA GHG to be €39/t (US\$58/t)<sup>1</sup> of CO<sub>2</sub> avoided, which is similar to the cost of oxy-combustion at a European cement plant but less than the cost of post combustion capture.

### **Sensitivities**

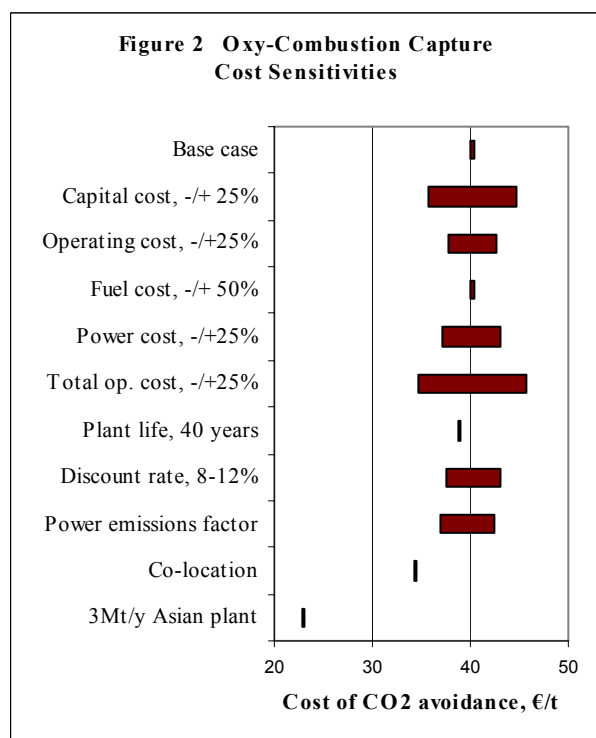
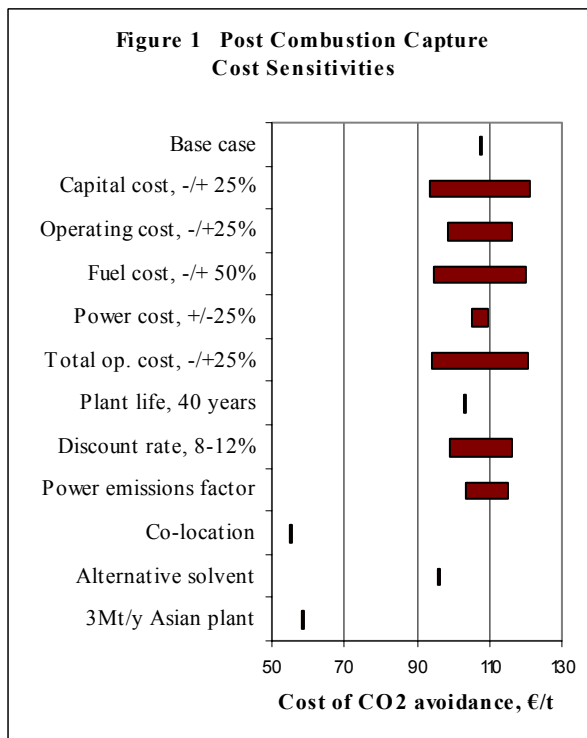
Sensitivities to technical and economic parameters are shown in Figures 1 and 2.

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<sup>5</sup> Improvement in power generation with post combustion capture of carbon dioxide, IEA GHG report PH4/33, Nov. 2004. Oxy Combustion processes for CO<sub>2</sub> capture from power plants, IEA GHG report 2005/9, July 2005

<sup>6</sup> Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, Special Report on Carbon dioxide Capture and Storage, 2005, available at [www.ipcc.ch](http://www.ipcc.ch)

<sup>7</sup> Capital costs of power plants in Euros are assumed to have increased by 25% between the beginning of 2004 and the end of 2007 and the price of coal is assumed to be €2.51/GJ, in line with this study.



### ***Power emissions factor***

The emissions associated with the power import/export affect the quantity of net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoided. For the base case it was assumed that the emissions were the average of electricity generated in the UK (0.52 kg CO<sub>2</sub>/kWh). The sensitivity cases are based on emissions from a new coal fired power plant without CO<sub>2</sub> capture (0.745 kg CO<sub>2</sub>/kWh) and a coal fired plant with 85% CO<sub>2</sub> capture (0.14 kg CO<sub>2</sub>/kWh).

### ***Alternative post combustion capture solvent***

Some alternative proprietary amine solvents, for example MHI's KS-1 solvent, have lower energy consumptions than the MEA solvent used as the basis for this study. The sensitivity to a 25% reduction in steam consumption is shown in Figure 1. Some developers are targeting even lower steam consumptions. Post-combustion capture processes which are not based on amines, for example aqueous ammonia scrubbing, also have the potential to significantly reduce the cost of capture in cement plants but insufficient data are currently available from process developers to enable costs to be estimated.

### ***Co-location with a power plant and use of low sulphur raw meal***

Another way of reducing the net cost of steam for post-combustion capture would be to obtain it from an adjacent power plant or another type of large industrial plant, thereby avoiding the need for an on-site CHP plant and its associated FGD. If in addition a raw meal (i.e. raw material) with a low sulphur content was used in the cement plant it may be possible to avoid the need for an FGD plant entirely. The sulphur compounds in cement plant flue gas originate mainly from decomposition of minerals during drying and preheating as most of the fuel-derived sulphur is retained in the cement product. A sensitivity case involving supply of steam from an adjacent large power plant at a cost of €10/t (US\$15/t)<sup>1</sup> and use of a low sulphur raw meal was assessed. The cost of CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance is reduced by almost half to €55/t (US\$83/t)<sup>1</sup>.

Oxy-combustion cement plants could benefit from co-location with an oxy-combustion or IGCC power plant, because there would be economies of scale in larger oxygen and CO<sub>2</sub> compression and purification plants. The reduction in the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance is estimated to be approximately €6/t (US\$9/t) at an assumed oxygen cost of €30/t (US\$45/t).



Co-location would also help to reduce the cost of transporting the CO<sub>2</sub> to an underground store, because pipelines have large economies of scale. The European cement plants in this study capture 0.5-1.1 Mt/y of CO<sub>2</sub> and the bigger Asian plants capture 1.4-3.3 Mt/y of CO<sub>2</sub>. For comparison a modern 1000 MW<sub>e</sub> coal fired power plant operating at base load with 85% CO<sub>2</sub> capture would capture about 6 Mt/y of CO<sub>2</sub>.

### ***Large Asian plants***

Substantially larger cement plants are being built and operated in some developing countries, particularly in Asia. The cost of CO<sub>2</sub> capture at a 3Mt/y cement plant in Asia was estimated to be significantly lower because of economies of scale and the lower costs of plant construction and operation in developing countries. The estimated cost of CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance by oxy-combustion is €23/t (US\$34/t)<sup>1</sup> and the cost of post combustion capture is €59/t (US\$88/t)<sup>1</sup>.

### **Retrofit of CO<sub>2</sub> capture**

Retrofit of post combustion capture to a cement plant would be relatively straight forward, provided sufficient space is available, as it would be a downstream addition to the plant. Oxy-combustion would require most of the core units in the cement plant to be rebuilt, although some of the ancillary solids handling equipment which accounts for a major proportion of the plant cost could be retained. Because oxy-combustion is expected to have significantly lower costs of CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance, it may be worthwhile retrofitting oxy-combustion at the time of a major plant re-build but this was not assessed in this study.

### **Capture ready plants**

A CO<sub>2</sub> capture ready plant is a plant which can include CO<sub>2</sub> capture when the necessary economic and regulatory drivers are in place. Cement plants can be made capture ready by undertaking a design study on capture retrofit, including sufficient space and access for the capture equipment and by identifying reasonable routes to CO<sub>2</sub> storage. Some additional investment could be made to make retrofit easier and cheaper but such investment would need to take into account the effects of the time lag between investment and financial return and the uncertainties regarding future developments in capture technologies and whether or when capture would be retrofitted.

## **Expert Reviewers' Comments**

The draft study report was reviewed by various external experts, including representatives from a cement manufacturer, a cement plant supplier, a cement industry research institute and experts on CO<sub>2</sub> capture. The report was generally well received by the reviewers and a substantial number of helpful comments were received. IEA GHG is very grateful to those who contributed to the review. The issues raised by the reviewers were discussed with the study contractor and representatives of the British Cement Association and modifications were made to the report to address most of the reviewers' comments.

## **Major Conclusions**

The cement industry has made considerable strides in reducing CO<sub>2</sub> emissions but to make further major emission reductions CO<sub>2</sub> capture is required. The addition of CO<sub>2</sub> capture to new build cement plants to significantly reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions is technically feasible. Both post combustion and oxy-combustion options can be considered although the oxy-combustion option is not technically mature enough for deployment yet. Pre-combustion capture would be less suitable for cement plants because it would not capture the CO<sub>2</sub> from carbonate mineral decomposition, which account for about two thirds of the CO<sub>2</sub> from a modern cement plant.

The estimated costs of post combustion capture at new build cements plants are €107/tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoided (US\$161/t) for a 1 Mt/y European cement plant and €59/t (US\$88/t) for a 3 Mt/y Asian plant. Use of alternative solvents and integration with an adjacent power plant could more than halve the costs. Oxy-combustion offers the lowest cost solution for CO<sub>2</sub> capture at new-build cement



plants but further research and development is needed to address a number of technical issues to enable this technique to be deployed. Costs are estimated to be €40/tonne (US\$60/t) of CO<sub>2</sub> avoided for a 1 Mt/y European cement plant and €23/t (US\$34/t) for a 3 Mt/y plant in Asia.

The cost of CO<sub>2</sub> capture at a cement plant using oxy-combustion is expected to be similar to the cost of capture at a typical coal-fired power plant. The quantity of oxygen required per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> captured is about three times lower at a cement plant but the economies of scale are less favourable. The cost of post combustion capture at a cement plant is expected to be substantially higher than at a power plant, mainly because of lower economies of scale and the need to install FGD, DeNO<sub>x</sub> and a boiler to provide steam for the regeneration of CO<sub>2</sub> capture solvent.

Post combustion capture could be readily retrofitted to existing cement plants provided sufficient space is available. Substantial rebuilding would be necessary to accommodate an oxy-combustion retrofit but this may nevertheless be the least cost option.

## Recommendations

The following studies by IEA GHG should be considered for CO<sub>2</sub> capture at cement plants:

- 1 A study on assessing the capture readiness of cements plants.
- 2 An assessment of cement plants with novel post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture processes including ammonia scrubbing should be undertaken when process performance and economic data become available from licensors.

Practical R&D on oxy-combustion at cement plants is outside the scope of IEA GHG but members should consider such work to address uncertainties identified in this study.

This study focussed on oxy-combustion in only the pre-calciner. Oxy-combustion for the whole plant including the kiln involves more technical uncertainties but it could be pursued as a study in the future, particularly if higher percentage capture of CO<sub>2</sub> is required.

Further work should be undertaken to assess the benefits of integration between cement plants with CO<sub>2</sub> capture and other large industrial plants, especially power plants. Potential barriers to co-location should also be assessed. Some of this work could be included in the proposed study on capture readiness.

International Energy Agency Greenhouse Gas R&D Programme (IEA GHG)  
The Orchard Business Centre  
Stoke Orchard  
Cheltenham  
Gloucestershire, GL52 7RZ  
UK

# **CO<sub>2</sub> Capture in the Cement Industry**

**Final Report  
July 2008**

Mott MacDonald  
Victory House  
Brighton  
BN1 4FY  
UK  
Tel: 44 (0)1273 365000  
Fax: 44 (0)1273 365100

# CO<sub>2</sub> Capture in the Cement Industry

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## Glossary of Terms

ASU	Air Separation Unit
BAT	Best Available Techniques
BCA	British Cement Association
BET	Brunauer Emmett Teller
CAP	Chilled Ammonia Process
CCS	Carbon Capture and Storage
CHP	Combined Heat and Power
CLC	Chemical Looping Combustion
DCC	Direct Contact Cooling
EC	European Commission
EOR	Enhanced Oil Recovery
ESA	Electric Swing Adsorption
ESP	Electrostatic Precipitator
ETS	Emissions Trading Scheme
EU	European Union
FGD	Flue Gas Desulphurisation
HAZOP	Hazard and Operability Study
HHV	Higher Heating Value
IEA GHG	International Energy Agency Greenhouse Gas R&D Programme
IGCC	Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle
ILC	In Line Calciner
IPPC	Integrated Pollution Prevention and Control
ITM	Ion Transport Membrane
LHV	Lower Heating Value
LP	Low Pressure
MEA	Monoethanolamine
NO <sub>x</sub>	Oxides of Nitrogen
OEM	Original Equipment Manufacturer
OPC	Ordinary Portland Cement
ORC	Organic Rankine Cycle
PCA	Portland Cement Association
PCDD	Polychlorinated Dibenzodioxins
PCDF	Polychlorinated Dibenzofurans
PGNAA	Prompt Gamma Neutron Activation Analysis
PFD	Process Flow Diagram
PSA	Pressure Swing Adsorption
R&D	Research and Development
RSP	Reinforced Suspension Preheater
SCR	Selective Catalytic Reduction
SLC	Separate Line Calciner
SNCR	Selective Non-Catalytic Reduction
SO <sub>x</sub>	Oxides of sulphur
TOC	Total Organic Carbon
TSA	Temperature Swing Adsorption
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States
VOC	Volatile Organic Compound

## Executive Summary

### Background to Study

Cement production is an energy intensive production process, accounting for 2% of the global primary energy consumption (Worrell *et al.*, 2001) and between 6-7% of global industrial energy use (IEA, 2007). Its reliance on carbon intensive fuels such as coal and petroleum coke in clinker making is responsible for substantial CO<sub>2</sub> emissions coming directly from the combustion of fossil fuels. CO<sub>2</sub> is also emitted from the calcination process and from the consumption of electricity generated from fossil fuels. Cement production accounted for 1.8 Gt/y of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions worldwide in 2005 (IEA, 2007).

Carbon capture and storage (CCS) has been studied extensively for power plants by IEA GHG and others and there are plans to build several commercial scale plants. However, few studies have been undertaken on CCS in the cement industry. The IEA GHG commissioned Mott MacDonald to undertake this study to assess the technologies that could be used for CO<sub>2</sub> capture in cement plants, their costs, environmental impacts and barriers to their use.

### Scope of Study

The study covered both new-build cement plants with post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture and oxy-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture. The basis of the study was a 5-stage preheater with precalciner dry process cement plant with an output of 1 Mt/y of cement located in NE Scotland, UK. Process Flow Diagrams (PFDs) and heat and mass balance calculations for both options were developed. The plant costs and performance were estimated and the suitability for retrofit and the option of capture-ready cement plants was examined.

### Post-Combustion CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Cement Plant

The major technical issues identified for applying post-combustion capture at a cement plant were as follows:

- concentration of sulphur dioxide (SO<sub>x</sub>) in flue gas
- concentration of nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) in flue gas
- concentration of dust in flue gas
- air in-leaks in the raw mill, preheater and kiln
- the additional power required for the compression of CO<sub>2</sub>
- the additional steam required for capture of CO<sub>2</sub> with amine
- the flue gas cooling required for efficient capture of CO<sub>2</sub> with amine.

All these issues can be addressed using existing technology. The main barrier to the application of post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture at a cement plant is therefore the cost of deploying these technologies.

### **Oxy-Combustion CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Cement Plant**

The major technical issues identified for applying oxy-combustion capture at a cement plant were as follows:

- The elevated flame temperatures achieved by oxygen combustion which are adjusted by recycle of the flue gas.
- The changing heat transfer characteristics in the combustion chamber due to the change of atmosphere.
- The influence of changing the atmosphere on feed lifting in the preheater.
- The balance between achieving high temperatures for the cement process and having to replace the kiln wall lining.
- The effect of changing the atmosphere on the thermodynamics, kinetics and equilibrium chemistry of the clinker production process.
- Air in-leaks in the raw mill, preheater and kiln.
- The additional power required for the compression of CO<sub>2</sub>.

Many of these issues require fundamental research to prove the viability of oxy-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture at a cement plant although none was identified as a “show-stopper” at the time of writing this Report. However, at the present time, oxy-combustion capture is considered a higher technical risk solution than post-combustion capture.

### **Performance and Costs**

Due to the fact that the majority of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions result within the precalciner, and due to significant air in-leaks in other stages of the cement plant, the option of undertaking oxy-combustion in the precalciner only was investigated in detail. In the case of post-combustion capture, CO<sub>2</sub> capture from all the flue gas was studied. This resulted in differing levels of CO<sub>2</sub> capture between the two options under consideration.

The results of the analysis are shown in Table S-1.

**Table S-1: Summary of Oxy-combustion and Post-combustion Cement Plants with CO<sub>2</sub> Capture**

	Parameter	Unit	Base Case	Post-Combustion	Oxy-Combustion
Inputs	Coal	t/y	63,317	291,633	72,061
	Petroleum Coke	t/y	32,876	32,876	27,091
Outputs	Clinker produced	t/y	910,000	910,000	910,000
	Cement produced	t/y	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
	CO <sub>2</sub> captured	t/y	0	1,067,734	465,014
	CO <sub>2</sub> emitted on-site	t/y	728,422	188,424	282,853
Performance	Net Power Demand	MWh/y	80,809	-22,734	174,562
	CO <sub>2</sub> associated with net power imports	t/y	42,021	-11,822	90,772
	Net quantity of CO <sub>2</sub> avoided (including net power imports)	t/y	N/A	593,841	396,818
	CO <sub>2</sub> avoided, net of power imports	%	-	77	52
Costs	Total Investment Cost	€M	263	558	327
	Net Variable Operating Costs	€/y	17	31	22
	Fixed Operating Costs	€/y	19	35	23
	Cost per tonne of CO <sub>2</sub> emissions avoided <sup>i</sup>	€/t	N/A	107.4 <sup>ii</sup>	40.2 <sup>iii</sup>
	Costs per tonne of cement product	€/t	65.6	129.4 (Δ = +63.7)	81.6 (Δ = +16.0)

<sup>i</sup> Cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoided is calculated by first determining the difference between the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions associated with the design under consideration and the base case. The additional costs incurred (compared to the base case) to achieve this reduction are then evaluated and the result expressed as €/tCO<sub>2</sub>.

<sup>ii</sup> Previous studies (IEA GHG, 2004) have calculated the cost of avoidance of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions at a USCPF post-combustion power plant using coal at 29.5 \$/tCO<sub>2</sub> (25 €/tCO<sub>2</sub> at exchange rate of day). An updated estimate of this cost based on 25% inflation of capital costs and capital-related operating costs is 39 €/tCO<sub>2</sub> (Davison, 2008).

<sup>iii</sup> Previous studies (IEA GHG, 2005) have calculated the cost of avoidance of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions at an oxy-combustion power plant using pulverised coal at 37 \$/tCO<sub>2</sub> (31 €/tCO<sub>2</sub> at exchange rate of the day).

The economic impact of implementing CO<sub>2</sub> capture can be summarised through the increase in cement production cost, or equivalently the same impact is shown through the cost per unit of avoided CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. The results show that the increase in the cost of producing cement is lower for the oxy-combustion process. Correspondingly, the capture cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoided for the oxy-combustion plant is also considerably lower than for the post-combustion process. The main reasons for this are the large capital costs required for the flue gas desulphurisation plant (FGD) and the CHP plant (the chosen method of generating LP steam for the amine scrubber) required in the post-combustion capture option. It should be noted that the costs associated with the FGD system would be reduced if the raw material used in the cement process was low in sulphur and the fuel source used in the CHP plant also contained low levels of sulphur.



The cost of CO<sub>2</sub> capture at cement plants is more expensive than recent reports for the power industry. One of the principle reasons for this is the economies of scale provided at power plants but it should be recognised that this study has adopted a conservative approach and that costs could be reduced with more refined design strategies. Costs will also reduce as knowledge is gained from operation of carbon capture systems at power plants. Co-location of the cement plant with a power plant offers further scope for savings. The co-location of a post-combustion cement plant with a post-combustion power plant would offer significant cost-saving opportunities as equipment (e.g. FGD, CO<sub>2</sub> absorbers, CO<sub>2</sub> compressors) could be shared. The limit of reduction in the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance at the cement plant would be the cost of abatement at the power plant.

From an environmental emissions perspective it should be noted that an added advantage of applying either post-combustion or oxy-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture at cement plants is that the cement plant will achieve emissions for dust, SO<sub>x</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> and most other contaminants well below current cement plants.

### Sensitivities

A number of sensitivities to the cases presented in Table S-1 were examined. This included an examination of undertaking CO<sub>2</sub> capture at a cement plant in an Asian developing country where cement plants are generally larger and cheaper to construct. The results from this analysis are shown in Table S-2.

**Table S-2: Summary of Sensitivities Examined**

Parameter	Unit	Asian Developing Country Scenario			Low S Raw	Alternative	Co-location
		No CO <sub>2</sub> Capture	Post-Combustion	Oxy-Combustion	Meal and External Steam Supply	Solvent for CO <sub>2</sub> Absorption	with Oxy-Combustion Power Plant
Cement produced	t/y	3,000,000	3,000,000	3,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
Cost per tonne of CO <sub>2</sub> avoided (power emissions excluded)	€/t	n/a	64.6	20.4	51.2	105.0	33.9
Cost per tonne of CO <sub>2</sub> avoided (power emissions from grid included)	€/t	n/a	58.8	22.9	55.2	95.9	34.4
Costs per tonne of cement product	€/t	37.3	72.2	46.4	97.3	121.6	80.8

The cost of cement production is significantly lower in the Asian scenario. This is principally due to the economy of scale of operating a larger plant, the lower equipment costs and the cheaper labour. If carbon capture is applied then the cost of production increases significantly (more for post-combustion than oxy-combustion). However, it should be noted that the cost of cement production is only comparable to the European base case when post-combustion capture is applied. This indicates that it is more cost effective to undertake carbon capture at a cement plant in Asia than at a European plant.

The other sensitivities investigated have shown that the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance at cement plants can be reduced through co-location with power generation plant (including external steam supply), if a low sulphur raw meal is used, or if more efficient solvents than MEA are used in the absorption process.

### **Retrofitting**

With regard to retrofitting CO<sub>2</sub> capture at an existing cement plant the following points need to be considered:

- It is technically feasible to retrofit post-combustion capture using amine absorption to any existing cement plant. The key constraints influencing the economic feasibility are:
  - the concentration of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>x</sub> in the flue gases
  - the space requirements for the capture and compression equipment
  - the availability of sufficient steam for the amine absorption and regeneration system.
- The technical solution considered in this Report is to apply oxy-combustion in the precalciner only. The most feasible scenario for retro-fitting this solution to an existing cement plant would be if the existing precalciner operated as a separate line calciner (SLC). SLC operation is not currently the preferred technology within the cement industry.
- Given the significant cost differential between employing oxy-combustion and post-combustion capture it may be more economic to undertake a major rebuild of the kiln (i.e. from single to twin preheater towers) and undertake the oxy-combustion retrofit rather than implementing the post-combustion option. The costs of undertaking the retrofit would need to be assessed on a case by case basis.

### **Capture Ready**

With regard to providing capture ready cement plant the following points need to be considered:

- A cement plant that was designed to be capture ready for post-combustion capture using amine would need to make provision for the following:
  - Leaving sufficient space for the flue gas treatment, CO<sub>2</sub> absorption, CO<sub>2</sub> purification and CO<sub>2</sub> compression equipment.
  - Fuel supply capacity, grid supply capacity and land for a power plant capable of generating the additional steam and electricity required by the capture equipment, or else potential for over-the-fence steam purchase from neighbouring cogeneration facilities.

- 
- Including SO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> abatement technologies within the plant or providing the space and capability to introduce these later.
  - Ability to transport (via pipe) the CO<sub>2</sub> to a suitable storage location.
  - The total land requirement estimated by this study for post-combustion capture is in the range 3.6-4.3 ha, depending on site conditions.
  - It is clear that it would be beneficial if the cement plant was co-located near an existing readily available steam supply (e.g. a power plant) that could be used when the post-combustion capture plant was installed. There is also important potential for capturing economies of scale through co-location with power plants, or other large emitters, also implementing CCS.
  - Installation of a cement plant that is designed to be capture-ready for oxy-combustion in the precalciner only would require twin preheater towers with separate induced draft fans dedicated to each tower. Ideally the SLC configuration would be installed. However, switching from a parallel precalciner combustion chamber to fully separate venting would only require minor preheater ductwork modifications.
  - Sufficient space would need to be provided for the air separation unit and CO<sub>2</sub> purification and compression plant and would ideally be installed adjacent to the preheater tower and kiln on the side closest to the precalciner. This study has estimated that the space required for oxy-combustion equipment at a 1 Mt/y cement plant would be approximately 0.5 ha.

## Conclusions

Mott MacDonald have evaluated CO<sub>2</sub> capture at cement plants and have estimated the cost and performance of applying post-combustion and oxy-combustion capture at a 1 Mt/y plant. Post-combustion capture has been found to be the most expensive solution but could feasibly be applied at any cement plant as a retrofit solution. Oxy-combustion capture is a cheaper technology but more research and development of this option is required if this option is to become viable. The cost differential between oxy-combustion and post-combustion is such that, even if a major rebuild is required, retrofitting oxy-combustion may still be cost-effective.

## **1 Introduction**

### **1.1 Background**

The International Energy Agency Greenhouse Gas R&D Programme (IEA GHG) was established in 1991 to evaluate technologies that could be used to avoid emissions of greenhouse gases, particularly from the use of fossil fuels. IEA GHG is an international organisation, supported by eighteen countries worldwide, the European Commission, OPEC and twenty multi-national industrial sponsors<sup>1</sup>.

The cement industry is one of the largest industrial sources of CO<sub>2</sub>, accounting for 1.8 Gt/y of emissions worldwide in 2005 (IEA, 2007). It is expected that cement production, and hence CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, will grow significantly in the future, especially in developing countries. Cement plants emit CO<sub>2</sub> from fuel combustion (about 40% of the total in modern plants) and decomposition of carbonate minerals.

Modern cement plants have high efficiencies and the scope to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions by further efficiency improvements is small. One of the few ways of greatly reducing CO<sub>2</sub> production from cement production is carbon capture and storage (CCS). CCS has been studied extensively for power plants by IEA GHG and others and there are plans to build several commercial scale plants. However, few studies have been undertaken on CCS in the cement industry.

Mott MacDonald is one of the world's largest multi-disciplinary consultancies and has won recognition for technical excellence in power engineering, water, transportation, building and infrastructure. Dr Michael Clark from cement industry consultants Whitehopleman assisted Mott MacDonald and provided expert advice on aspects associated with the cement plant.

The British Cement Association (BCA), which includes representatives of many major global cement companies, provided data from typical modern cement plants to assist with the study. The study also benefited from contributions from Lafarge and Polysius. Mott MacDonald encouraged this participation in order to ensure that, as far as possible, the results were accepted by the cement industry and their major concerns were addressed.

### **1.2 Scope of Work**

The study assessed technologies that could be used to capture CO<sub>2</sub> in new cement plants and retrofits to existing modern plants. Capture in older, smaller plants was not considered. The major tasks covered in the study are listed below.

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<sup>1</sup> The members of IEA GHG are currently Australia, Austria, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, India, Japan, Korea, The Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, UK, USA, OPEC, The European Commission, Alstom Power Technology, Babcock & Wilcox, BG Group, BP, CEZ Group, Chevron Corporation, ConocoPhillips, E.On, EniTechnologie SpA, EPRI, ExxonMobil, Repsol YPF, RWE AG, Schlumberger, Shell, Statkraft, Statoil, Total and Vattenfall.

### **1.2.1 Cement Plant Descriptions**

Outline descriptions of the technologies used for cement production, typical plant sizes and variations between regions worldwide are provided. Descriptions of flue gas clean-up methods currently used in cement plants are included.

### **1.2.2 CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Process Descriptions**

The leading technologies that could be used to capture CO<sub>2</sub> in cement plants are described. This includes post-combustion, oxy-combustion and pre-combustion. The reasons for not assessing pre-combustion capture are also explained.

### **1.2.3 Major Issues Affecting Application of CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Processes in Cement Plants**

The main technical issues which would affect the application of post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture technology and oxy-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture technology in cement plants are assessed.

### **1.2.4 Detailed Assessment of Plant Cost and Performance**

The impacts on the performance, capital costs and operating costs of adding CO<sub>2</sub> capture to a new-build cement plant is assessed in detail for both the post-combustion and oxy-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture technologies.

### **1.2.5 Suitability for Retrofit**

The suitability of each CO<sub>2</sub> capture technology for retrofit to existing modern cement plants has been assessed. This has taken into account estimates of the additional land area required and the need to make modifications to the existing cement plant equipment.

### **1.2.6 Capture-ready Plants**

During the timeframe of the study the IEA GHG published another report (IEA GHG, 2007a) which assessed ways of making power plants 'capture-ready' i.e. designing them to be easily retrofitted in future if necessary. Drawing on the results from this report, ways of making cement plants 'capture-ready' have been assessed.

### **1.2.7 Information Gaps and R&D needs**

Important information gaps have been identified and recommendations for research, development and demonstration are made.

## **1.3 Approach**

This report is based on the following sources of information:

- A review of published literature.

- Meetings and discussions with IEA GHG and BCA.
- A site visit to Caudon Cement Works.
- Process modelling undertaken by Mott MacDonald and Whitehopleman.
- Cost estimating undertaken by Mott MacDonald and Whitehopleman.
- Economic modelling undertaken by Mott MacDonald.
- Consultations with a number of cement plant equipment suppliers and CO<sub>2</sub> capture technology providers.
- Consultations with researchers working on related topics.

#### **1.4 Structure of Report**

The report is structured in a way that largely mirrors the Terms of Reference. The report consists of the following sections:

- Section 2 provides background to the cement industry including details of flue gas cleaning methods currently used at cement plants.
- Section 3 provides background on CO<sub>2</sub> capture processes.
- Section 4 contains the technical evaluation of CO<sub>2</sub> capture at a new-build cement plant for both post-combustion and oxy-combustion solutions.
- Section 5 provides an analysis of the costs of providing CO<sub>2</sub> capture.
- Section 6 describes the issues pertaining to the retro-fitting of post-combustion and oxy-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture at cement plant.
- Section 7 examines the issues associated with making cement plants ‘capture ready’ for either post- or oxy-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture.
- Section 8 identifies information gaps and further research required for the further development of post- and oxy-combustion at cement plants.
- Section 9 summarises and compares the post-combustion and oxy-combustion solutions.
- Section 10 presents the conclusions from this study.

Appendices are attached to the Report which include various technical data used and generated as part of the study.

## **2 Cement Plants**

### **2.1 Introduction**

This section begins with a brief overview of the global cement industry including discussion on variations between different worldwide regions. This is followed by outline descriptions of the technologies used for cement production including descriptions of flue gas clean-up methods currently used in cement plants.

### **2.2 The Global Cement Industry**

#### **2.2.1 Cement Nature and Properties**

Cement is one of the most abundantly produced materials in the world due to its widespread use in construction activities (concreting), low price and the geographic abundance of its main raw materials (EC, 2001).

Cement is composed of calcium silicates, calcium aluminates and calcium aluminoferrite minerals. It is produced from a mixture of raw materials, with calcium carbonate being the primary raw material and provider of the lime necessary to combine with the silica, alumina and iron oxide in these cement minerals. The silica, alumina and iron oxide are provided from a variety of secondary raw materials, including aluminosilicate clays and shales, silica sand, bauxite and iron ore.

These raw materials are ground together into a fine, intimately mixed powder and delivered to a cement kiln. In the kiln the raw materials react together during the heating process to form an intermediate 'clinker', composed of the cement minerals, that is subsequently ground together with some gypsum to form the cement finished product.

The cement product is a finely ground, non-metallic, inorganic substance with hydraulic binding properties. Cement forms a strong hard paste which binds together sands and aggregates in mortar or concrete when mixed with water due to the formation of calcium silicate and aluminate hydrates. 'Portland Cement' is the most common cement type and is composed of 95% clinker and 5% gypsum. The gypsum is ground together with the cement clinker to control the setting of cement and allow the mortars and concretes produced with the cement to be worked into moulds and placed around reinforcement. International standards for cement now allow the mixture of up to 5% limestone with this Portland Cement in Ordinary Portland Cements (OPCs).

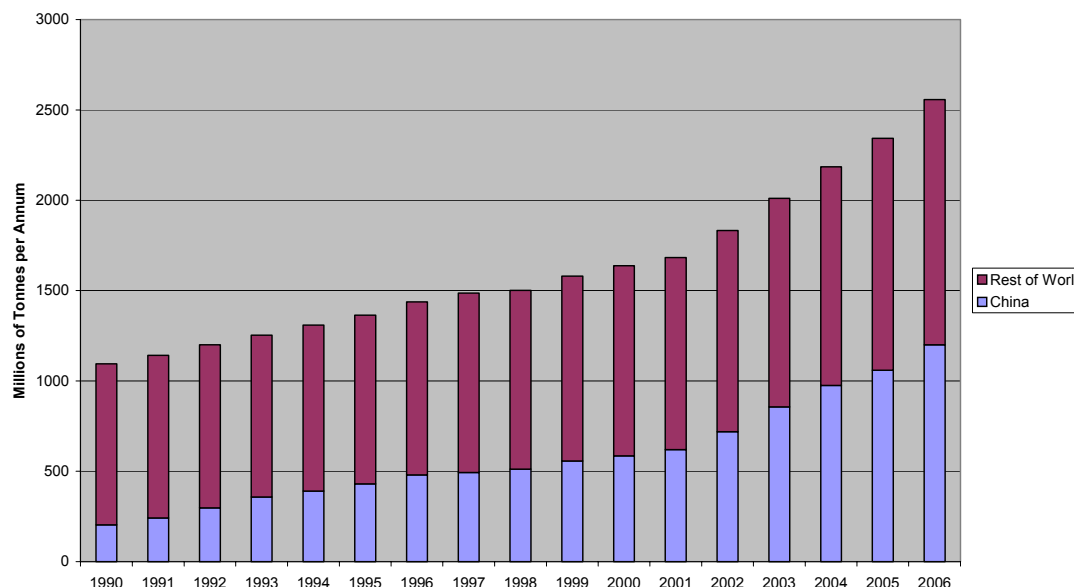
The exact composition of cement determines its properties (sulphate resistance, alkalinity, heat of hydration etc.) whereas its fineness is related to the development of strength and rate of setting.

#### **2.2.2 Production Trends**

World cement production has grown steadily since the 1950s, with increased production in Asia and China in particular, accounting for the bulk of growth from the 1990s. Figure 2-1 shows that global cement production reached an estimated 2,557 million tonnes in 2006. Cement consumption has

grown at an average rate of 5.48% per year during the period 1990 to 2006 with this average growth rate having accelerated to 8.73% per year since 2002.

**Figure 2-1: World and Chinese Cement Consumption Trend 1990-2006 (Global Cement Report, 2007)**



The largest cement producer, by far, is China, whose annual consumption had risen to 1,200 million tonnes in 2006. Chinese cement consumption has risen at an average rate of 11.90% per year during the period 1990 to 2006 with this average growth rate having accelerated to 14.17% per year in the years 2002 to 2006.

In 2002 cement consumption in India (of 110.86 million tonnes) overtook that in the USA for the first time to become the second largest consumer of cement in the world. Since that date Indian consumption has grown at an average rate of 11.31% per year, compared with 1.91% in the USA, consolidating India's position as the second largest cement consuming country in the world. Indian cement consumption had risen to 153 million tonnes per year in 2006 compared with 127.58 million tonnes in the USA.

In Western Europe cement consumption has risen at an average rate of 1.45% per year during the period 1990 to 2006, from 220 million tonnes in 1990 to 276 million tonnes in 2006. The rate of increase in cement consumption in Europe has accelerated to 3.13% in the years 2002 to 2006.

## 2.3 Global Variations in the Cement Industry

### 2.3.1 Introduction

The continuing world cement boom, as described in the preceding section, is marked by regional variations due to economic, technological and policy drivers coming about in the main cement producing countries/regions of China, India, the USA, Europe and the Middle East.



### 2.3.2 The Cement Industry in Europe

As discussed in section 2.2.2 growth in cement demand and consumption has been lower in Europe than in Asia or the USA. However, four of the five top multinational cement companies are based and have their origins in Europe. This means that the European cement industry has a truly global presence enjoying a market share of 95% in Europe and 70% in North America.

In 2006, the European cement industry produced 314 Mt, accounting for 12.4% of global output (2.54 billion tons). Table 2-1 shows the main cement consumers in Europe in 2006. Cement production followed construction trends closely, with new residential (26.7%) and renovation (45.2%) works accounting for the rise in production (CEMBUREAU, 2006).

**Table 2-1: Main Cement Consumers in Europe in 2006**

Country	Cement Consumption (Mt)
Spain	55.74
Italy	46.88
Turkey	41.65
Germany	28.57
France	23.87

In 1995 there were 252 installations producing cement clinker and finished cement in the European Union and a total of 437 kilns but not all of them in operation (EC, 2001). In addition there were a further 68 grinding plants (mills) without kilns. In recent years typical kiln size has come to be around 3,000 tonnes clinker/day (1 Mt/yr).

In 2001, about 78% of Europe's cement production was from dry process kilns, a further 16% of production was accounted for by semi-dry and semi-wet process kilns, with the remainder of European production, about 6%, coming from wet process kilns (EC, 2001). The wet process kilns operating in Europe are generally expected to be converted to dry process kiln systems when renewed, as are semi-dry and semi-wet processes kiln systems. These technologies are more fully described in section 2.4.

Growth in cement production is forecast to increase due to prospective construction projects and infrastructure development. Imports to the EU are also growing (6.8 million tonnes from China alone in 2006 (CEMBUREAU, 2006)) and new sea terminals for cement are being constructed.

### 2.3.3 The Cement Industry in the USA

The cement industry is a relatively small but significant component of the US economy; in 2003 it had 39 companies operating 118 cement plants in 38 states. Worldwide, the United States ranked third in cement production, behind China and India for that same year (PCA, 2003).

US cement production is widely distributed with the largest company producing over 13% of the industry total. The top five multinational cement companies collectively produce around 53% of the total. Foreign companies now own approximately 81% of US cement capacity, up from about 22% in 1980 (PCA, 2003). Investments during the 1980s by European companies, as well as Asian entities, were spurred by the favourable position of the US dollar against foreign currencies.

In 2006, US cement consumption was 127.6 million tonnes (Global Cement Report, 2007). Cement consumption was spurred by strong performance in the construction industry as a whole; however, individual sector growth, such as highway construction, still affects cement consumption more heavily. Strong construction markets in the 1990s and since 2003 have maintained the average growth rate of 2.90% in cement consumption during the period 1990 to 2006. However, in 2007 and 2008 actual cement consumption is forecast to decline due to difficulties in the US residential construction industry arising from sub-prime lending problems and a tightening credit environment.

The cement industry has boosted efficiency by concentrating new capital investment in plants that use the dry process of cement manufacture and by phasing out operations that rely on the more energy-intensive wet process. In the period 1974 to 2003, the number of wet process kilns dropped from 234 to 54 (77% decline) while the number of dry process kilns was reduced from 198 to 136 as older, low capacity kilns were replaced by higher capacity, modern, dry-process kilns. In 2003 about 81% of the cement produced in the United States was manufactured using dry process technology (PCA, 2003). This process of modernisation of the US cement manufacturing base has continued during the period 2003 to 2006.

The cement industry is regional in nature. As the cost of shipping cement quickly overtakes its value, customers traditionally purchase cement from local sources. Nearly 96% of US cement is shipped to consumers by truck (PCA, 2003). Barge and rail modes account for the remaining distribution modes.

The USA has been the largest market for imported cement throughout the period 1990 to 2006. In 2006 these are estimated to have reached a peak of 35.51 million tonnes or 28% of the total cement consumption of 127.58 million tonnes. The four largest sources of these imports, in order of scale were China, Canada, Thailand and Taiwan. Other large suppliers were South Korea, Mexico, Greece, Colombia, Venezuela, Sweden and Peru. These import volumes are expected to be significantly lower in 2007 and 2008 as cement demand contracts and domestic cement producers increase their market share at the expense of imports.

Exports of cement seldom exceed 1% of total US production (PCA, 2003; USGS 2007a; USGS 2007b; USGS 2007c). Like imports, exports are cyclical reaching marginally higher levels during economic recessions when domestic markets are slack. In 2006, the United States is estimated to have exported 1.55 million tonnes of cement, mainly to neighbouring Canada and Mexico.

### **2.3.4 The Cement Industry in Asia**

#### **(i) China**

Much of China's development over the past few decades has depended on cement, as the country has built numerous power plants, millions of houses and buildings and paved thousands of kilometres of highways, all demanding enormous quantities of cement.

China's cement industry has grown remarkably since economic reforms began in the 1970s. By 1985, China had become the world's leading cement producer and by 1998, the cement output was twice as much as the next three largest producing countries combined. In 2000, per capita cement output reached 448 kg, which is about 200 kg higher than the world average (WBCSD, 2002a). Per capita annual cement consumption reached 812 kg in 2005 and 915 kg in 2006.

The cement industry in China remains highly fragmented and suffers from significant overcapacity and supply/demand imbalances. In 2005 the number of integrated cement plants had grown to 4,777 as a result of speculative expansion of production capacity. Excess supply eroded prices at a time when energy and transportation costs were rising. As a result Chinese cement company margins were seriously eroded and 36% of companies reported losses in 2005. Margins are reported to have improved in 2006.

Overcapacity problems are exacerbated by the pressing need to modernise the Chinese cement production base. 60% of capacity remains reliant on wet process or shaft kiln technology. The estimated total number of Chinese cement plants ranges from 8,000 to 9,300, although the actual number is uncertain due to the fragmented nature of the industry, the small size of many plants, the fact that some plants exist illegally and data reliability issues. About 50% of these facilities are rural township enterprises with average annual output of less than 30,000 tonnes (WBCSD, 2002a).

Historically, Chinese cement has not been of particularly high quality due to the widespread use of vertical kilns. However, with the gradual increase in use of the advanced dry rotary kiln process it is to be expected that cement production will become more efficient and the cement will be of better quality.

China's central government is aware of the challenges and has formulated several proposals to restructure the cement industry in the 11<sup>th</sup> five year development plan. This includes the following targets to be met by 2010:

- Total annual cement production of 1.25 billion tonnes.
- Consolidation with top 10 cement groups producing 30% of total.
- Modernisation with 250 million tonnes of shaft kiln annual cement production capacity being eliminated and the proportion of production from modern, dry-process cement plants rising to 70%.

The government has also taken steps to cool the economy and control the growth of fixed-asset investment and the cement manufacturing capacity. There is evidence that the rate of capacity expansion is slowing. However, delays in the closure of obsolete capacity continues to be a major threat to addressing the supply/demand imbalances (Global Cement Report, 2007).

## **(ii) India**

India, with a total consumption of 153 million tonnes in 2006, has emerged as the second largest market for cement after China. In 2007 and 2008 India is forecast to be the fastest growing market in the world (Global Cement Report, 2007). Spending on infrastructure, particularly on roads, ports and airports, a surge in housing construction and expansion in corporate production facilities are responsible for the spurt in cement consumption growth in India. In particular, the shift in cement use patterns is accounted for by the housing sector, which is responsible for more than 50% of the total cement demand (IBEF, 2004).

The production base of the Indian cement industry includes more than 100 integrated cement plants and more than 25 dedicated grinding units (Global Cement Report, 2007). Installed capacity is 160 million tonnes per year and more than 300 mini-cement plants have an additional estimated capacity of 11.10 Mt per year (IBEF, 2004) although these mini-cement plants are only estimated to have

produced 5.5 million tonnes in 2006 (Global Cement Report, 2007). 86% of production is from modern, dry-process cement plants with capacity of more than 1 million tonnes per year.

In 2007 the Indian cement industry will approach full capacity utilisation and multiple capacity expansion projects have been announced. Table 2-2 shows independent estimates of the projected capacity expansions until 2011. This will lift Indian cement production capacity to 280 million tonnes per year. All these capacity expansions will be based on modern, dry-process cement manufacturing technology.

**Table 2-2: Independent Estimates of Projected Cement Capacity Expansions in India**

Year	Projected Capacity Expansions (Mt)
2007	7
2008	16
2009	46
2010	30
2011	20

India produces various types of cement, including the most widely used Portland type. Pozzolan Portland blended cement constitutes 52% of total cement sales, with Ordinary Portland Cement (OPC) making up 39% of sales.

Major consolidation of the Indian cement industry has taken place in recent years. The Holcim acquisition of stakes in Gujarat Ambuja Cement and Associated Cement Companies has resulted in a group with 33 million tonnes per year capacity. The merger of Grasim and Ultratech in 2004 has resulted in a local cement company with 28.8 million tonnes per year capacity. However, the Indian cement industry still largely remains unconsolidated with more than 40 other players and some new entrants. The southern region accounts for the largest share in overall production (32%) due to the availability of limestone, followed by the north with 21% (Global Cement Report, 2007).

Over the years, demand in the east has been driven by the housing sector, whereas infrastructure and investments in industrial projects have propelled demand in other regions. Cement and clinker exports grew at a rate of 18.1% from 1995 to 2004 when they peaked with total exports of 10 million tonnes. However, export volumes have declined in 2005 and 2006 as domestic cement demand has increased and this downward trend of export is predicted to continue in 2007 and 2008.

## 2.4 Cement Plant Descriptions

### 2.4.1 Cement Manufacture Processes

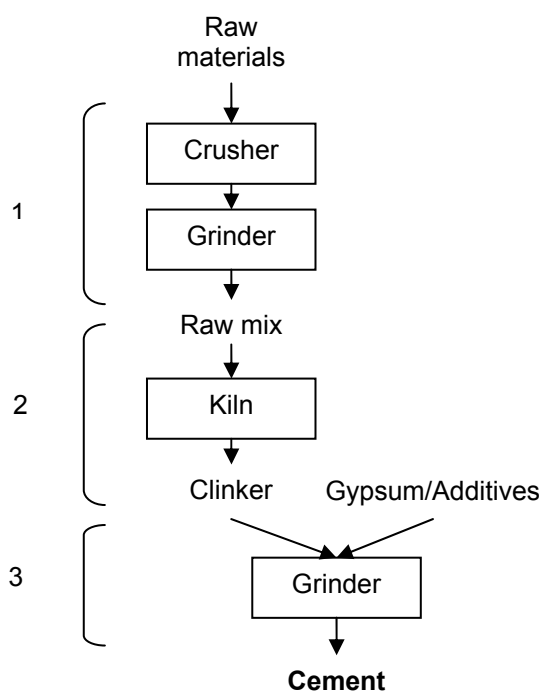
#### (i) General Description

The process of manufacturing cement (shown in Figure 2-2) requires the following three stages:

- **Raw material preparation:** grinding a mixture of raw materials to make a 'raw mix'.

- **Clinker burning (Pyro-processing):** heating the raw mix to a sintering temperature of >1400°C in a cement kiln to produce 'clinker'.
- **Cement preparation:** grinding the resulting clinker with gypsum and other additives to make cement.

**Figure 2-2: Simplified Cement Making Process Schematic**



The most common raw materials used for cement manufacture are limestone, marls and clay (although others can be used). The selected materials are crushed, ground and mixed to produce a raw mix of suitable composition and form for pyro-processing. Approximately 1.50-1.60 t of (dry) raw mix are required to produce 1 t of clinker, due to the calcination of the limestone component of the raw mix.

The second stage in the process involves feeding the raw mix into a kiln system where it is gradually heated. Successive chemical reactions take place as the temperature of the raw mix rises. These reaction stages are shown in Table 2-3.

**Table 2-3: Kiln Chemical Reactions (CEMBUREAU, 1999)**

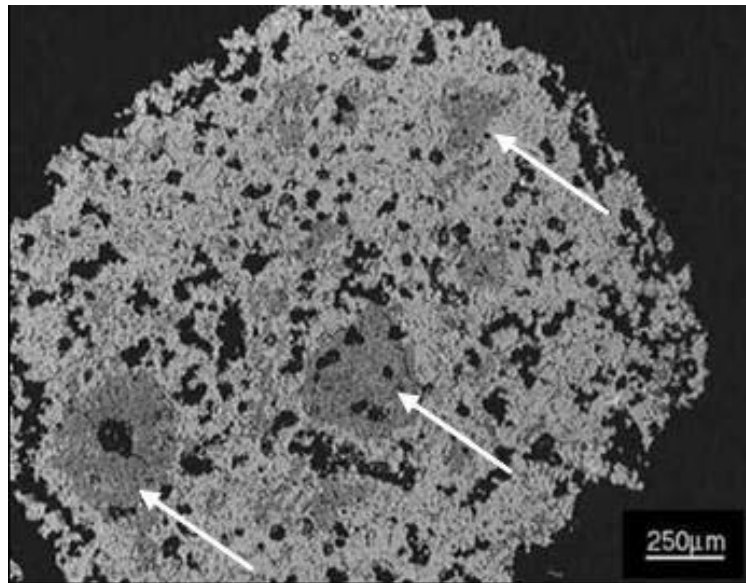
Kiln temperature (°C)	Chemical reaction
20 – 900	Drying and Preheating: the release of free and chemically bound water
850 – 950	Calcination: the release of CO <sub>2</sub> from calcium carbonate (limestone) and initial reactions with formation of clinker minerals and intermediate phases
1250 – 1450	Sintering or clinkerisation: the formation of calcium silicates and partial melting
1350 – 1200	Kiln internal cooling: crystallisation of calcium aluminate and calcium ferrite from the partial melt

Typically, a peak temperature of 1400-1450 °C is required to complete the reactions and produce alite, the characteristic constituent of Portland cement. Partial melting causes the material to aggregate into lumps or nodules known as clinker which is then cooled with air to 100-200°C. Waste heat from the kiln system is usually used for drying the raw materials in the raw grinding section of the production process. A typical cement clinker consists of the compounds shown in Table 2-4.

**Table 2-4: Typical Composition of Cement Clinker (IEA GHG, 1999)**

Compound	Chemical formula	Content (%)		
		Min	Average	Max
Tricalcium silicate (Alite)	3 CaO.SiO <sub>2</sub>	45	62	75
Dicalcium silicate (Belite)	2 CaO.SiO <sub>2</sub>	5	15	35
Calcium aluminoferrite (Ferrite)	4 CaO.Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> .FeO <sub>3</sub>	4	8	15
Tricalcium aluminate (Aluminate)	3 CaO.Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	4	11	15
Free Calcium oxide	CaO	0.1	1	4
Free Magnesium oxide	MgO	0.5	1.5	4.5

Figure 2-3 shows an electron microscope image of a (polished) clinker nodule. Most of the nodule is comprised of alite (light grey) and some clusters of belite are visible (arrowed). Aluminate and ferrite are present but not visible at this relatively low magnification.

**Figure 2-3: Magnification of a Clinker Nodule (Understanding Cement, 2007)**

The final stage in the manufacturing process involves grinding clinker with additives, such as gypsum, limestone, granulated blast furnace slag and fly ash, to control the properties of the cement.

#### (ii) The Four 'Integrated Plant' Process Routes

The three manufacturing stages previously mentioned are common to four main 'integrated plant' process routes by which cement can be produced. These process routes are distinguished by the moisture content of the feed going into the kiln and are known as follows:

- **Wet process:** raw materials are ground in water to form a slurry which is either fed directly into the kiln or first to a slurry drier.
- **Semi-wet process:** raw slurry is first dewatered in filter presses and the filter cake extruded into pellets and fed either to a grate preheater or directly to a filter cake drier for raw mix production.
- **Semi-dry:** dry raw mix is pelletised with water and fed into a grate preheater before the kiln or to a long kiln equipped with chains and crosses to facilitate the heat exchange between the kiln feed and the combustion gases.
- **Dry process:** raw materials are ground and dried to form a dry raw mix in the form of a flowable powder. The dry raw mix is fed into the preheater or precalciner kiln, or more rarely to a long dry kiln.

Each process requires a slightly modified approach and use of equipment in the first two of the three manufacturing stages, i.e. the raw grinding and pyroprocessing stages. These differences are reviewed in the sections below.

Historically, the clinker manufacturing process has evolved from 'wet' to 'dry' systems with the intermediate steps of the 'semi-wet' and 'semi-dry' process routes. The first rotary kilns, introduced around 1895, were long wet kilns (CEMBUREAU, 1999). 'Wet' kilns allowed for easier blending and

homogenisation of raw materials. However, as technology developed it became possible to produce a homogenous raw mix using the dry process. The 'dry' production process requires less energy and so has lower fuel costs than the wet process and thus is generally favoured where its application is feasible.

### **Wet Process**

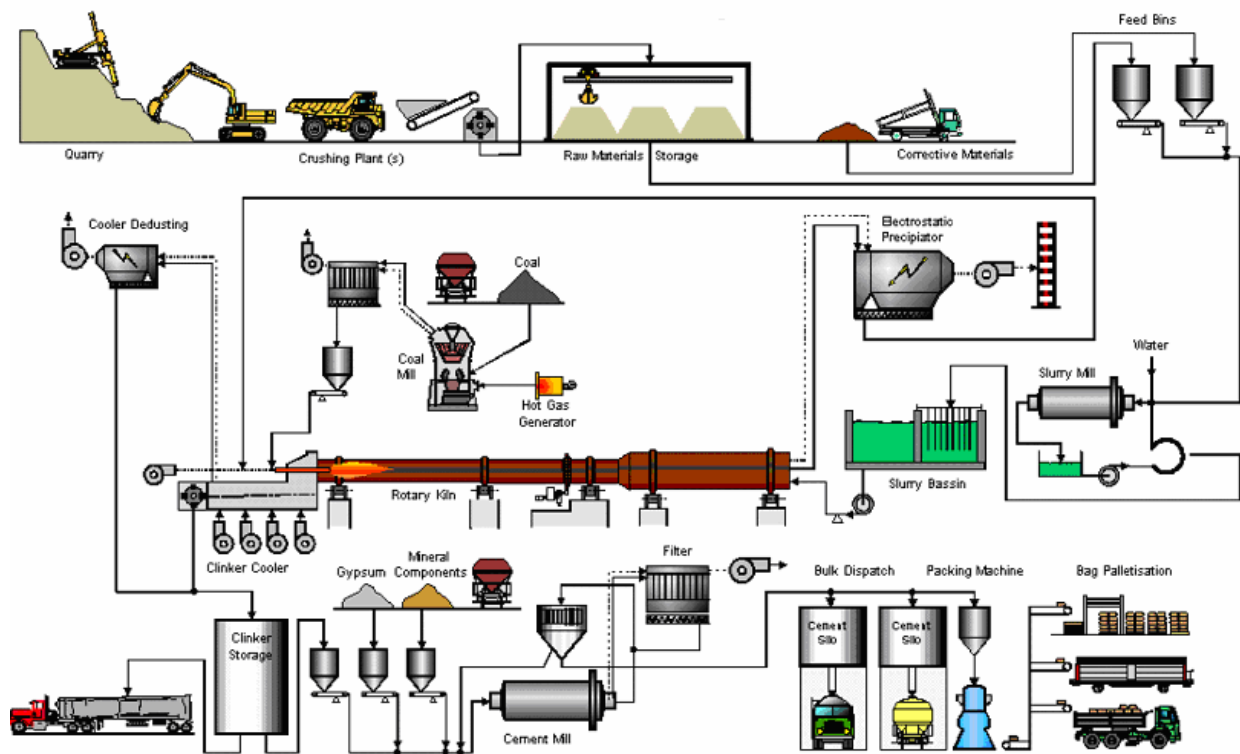
In the wet process the preparation of the raw mix is achieved by grinding the dry raw materials with water in wash mills, or ball mills with rubber linings. The resultant slurry is mixed in slurry basins where compressed air is introduced and the slurry is continuously stirred to produce a slurry of consistent composition.

In the conventional wet process this thick liquid slurry, which may have water content of 30-40%, is fed directly into the kiln where the water is evaporated in the drying zone at the kiln inlet. This drying zone is fitted with curtains of chains which promote heat exchange between the slurry and the exhaust gases from the combustion of fuel in the kiln passing counter-current with the slurry feed up the kiln. After passing through the drying zone the raw material moves down the kiln through the preheating zone to be calcined and finally burnt to clinker in the sintering zone. Conventional wet kiln technology has a high heat consumption and produces large volumes of exhaust gases. In more modern wet kiln systems water is driven off the raw slurry prior to entering the kiln in a slurry drier. Slurry "thinning" chemicals may be added to allow the slurry to be pumped to the kiln with lower water content. These more modern wet kiln systems have lower specific heat consumption compared to conventional wet kilns.

In this process the fuel consumption is the highest (in the region of 5000 to 7000 kJ/kg of clinker) but the power consumption is typically lower at 110-115 kWh/tonne of cement (Chemical Universe, 2007).

A simplified flow diagram of a typical wet process is shown in Figure 2-4.



**Figure 2-4: Production of Cement by the Wet Process (CEMBUREAU, 1999)**

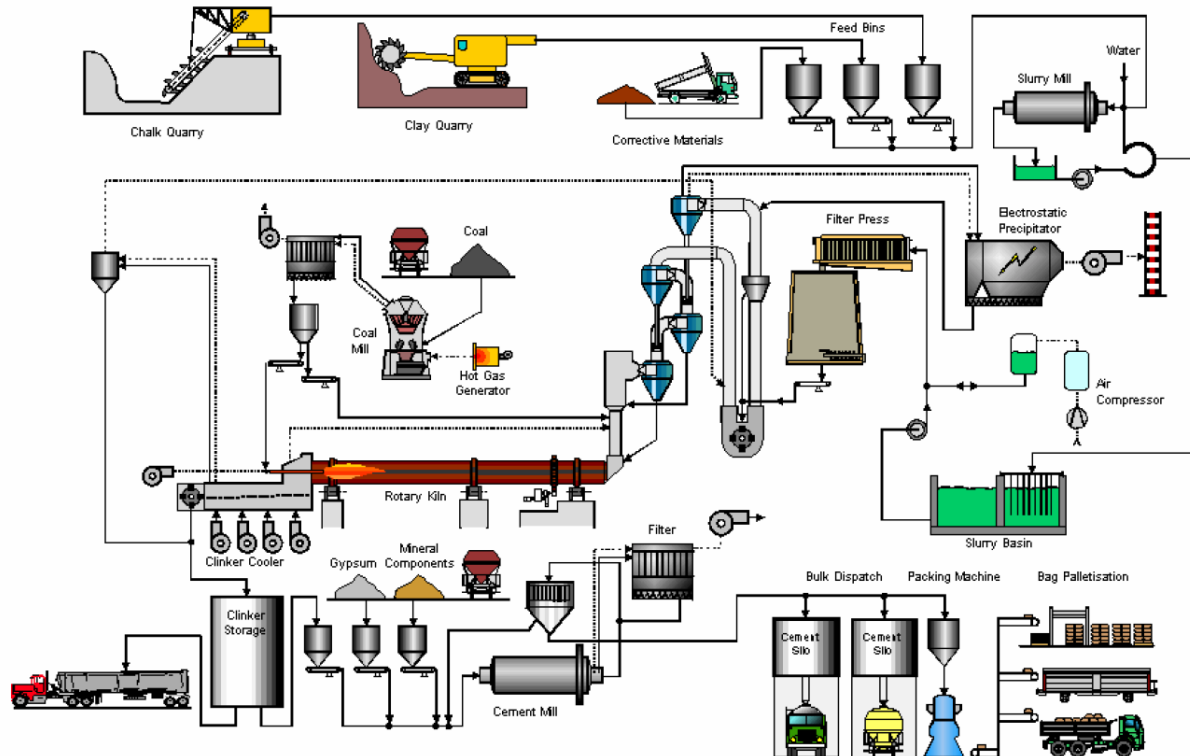
### Semi-wet Process

As in the wet process the raw mix used in the semi-wet process is prepared as a slurry. Unlike the wet process the slurry is then dried in crusher-dryer before being delivered to a preheater for preheating, calcination and clinker formation in the rotary section of the kiln.

The fuel consumption of the semi-dry and semi-wet process is about 3500-5000 kJ/kg of clinker. The power consumption is typically in the range 115-120 kWh/tonne of cement (Chemical Universe, 2007).

A simplified flow diagram of a typical semi-wet process is shown in Figure 2-5.

**Figure 2-5: Production of Cement by the Semi-wet Process (CEMBUREAU, 1999)**



### Semi-dry Process

In the semi-dry process a dry-powder raw mix is made into pellets in a nodulizing pan with the addition of 10-13% water. The pellets are loaded onto a *grate preheater* which dries, preheats and partially calcines the raw mix. The pellets then drop into the kiln for completion of the calcination and combination into clinker.

If the semi-dry process is used kiln exhaust gases cannot be utilised in the raw mix drying and grinding process due to their lower temperature following their prior use. This combined with high grate preheater maintenance costs mean that the semi-dry process is no longer installed in modern cement plants.

The fuel consumption of the semi-dry and semi-wet process is about 3500-5000 kJ/kg of clinker. The power consumption is typically in the range 115-120 kWh/tonne of cement (Chemical Universe, 2007).

### Dry process

In the dry process, the raw materials are dried in a combined drying and grinding plant to reduce the moisture content below 1%. The materials are ground in either a ball or a roller mill with drying of the materials being achieved by sweeping the mill with the exhaust gases from the kiln. The drying capacity of the raw grinding system may be supplemented by auxiliary hot air generating furnaces.

The dried, finely ground raw mix powder is then blended and homogenised in silos with the mixing being provided by compressed air.

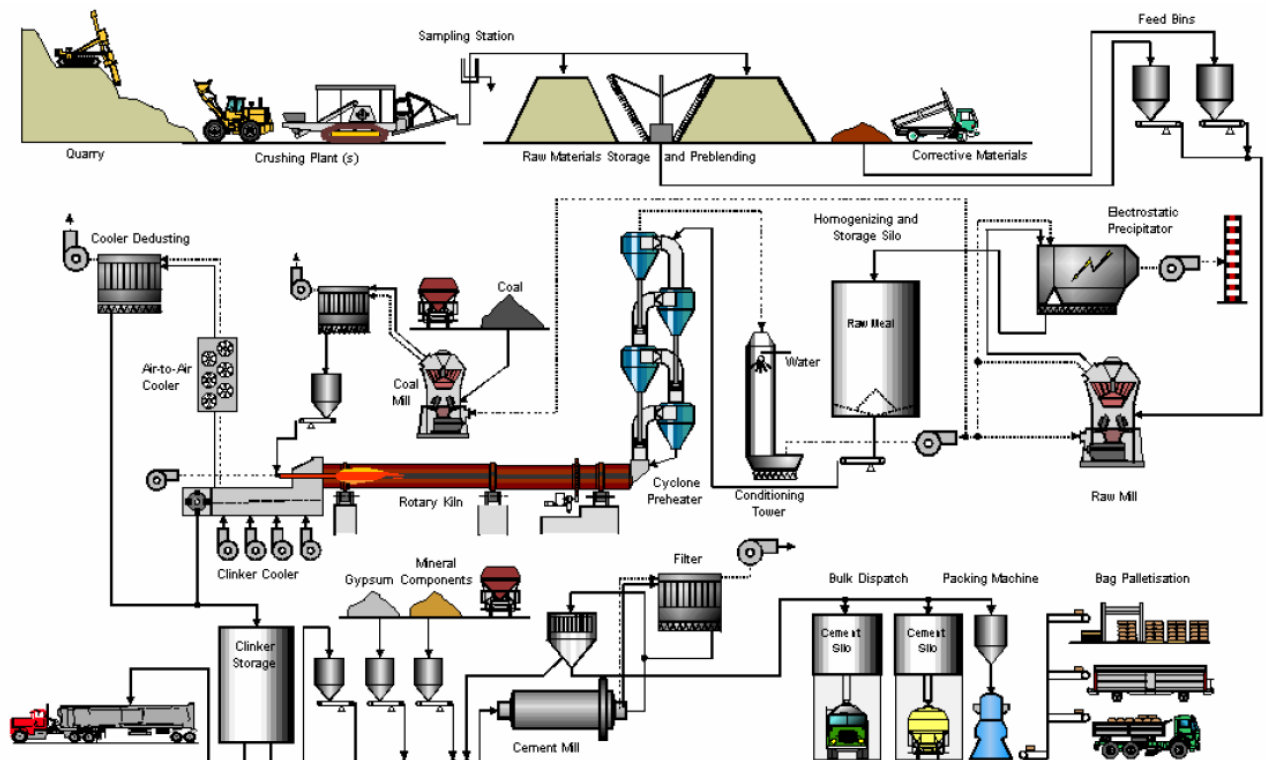
The blended and homogenised raw mix is then usually fed to a *gas-suspension preheater ahead of a short rotary kiln*. These preheaters consist of successive heat exchanger and collection cyclone stages arranged above one-another in series in a tower. Partial calcination of the raw mix takes place prior to the mix entering the rotary section of the kiln.

Additionally a *precalciner* can be integrated between the kiln and the suspension preheater which ensures complete calcining of the raw mix before it enters the kiln. Precalciners increase kiln capacity and reduce energy consumption.

Fuel consumption is lowest in this process and is in the range of 2750-4000 kJ/kg of clinker. The power consumption is in the range of 120-125 kWh/tonne of cement (Chemical Universe, 2007). However, the most modern, dry-process cement plants can have power consumption in the range 80-100 kWh/tonne of cement by deployment of compression grinding equipment for raw and finish milling rather than ball mills. Production of blended cements is also widely used to reduce unit electrical energy consumption.

A simplified flow diagram of a typical dry process cement kiln is shown in Figure 2-6.

**Figure 2-6: Production of Cement by the Dry Process (CEMBUREAU, 1999)**

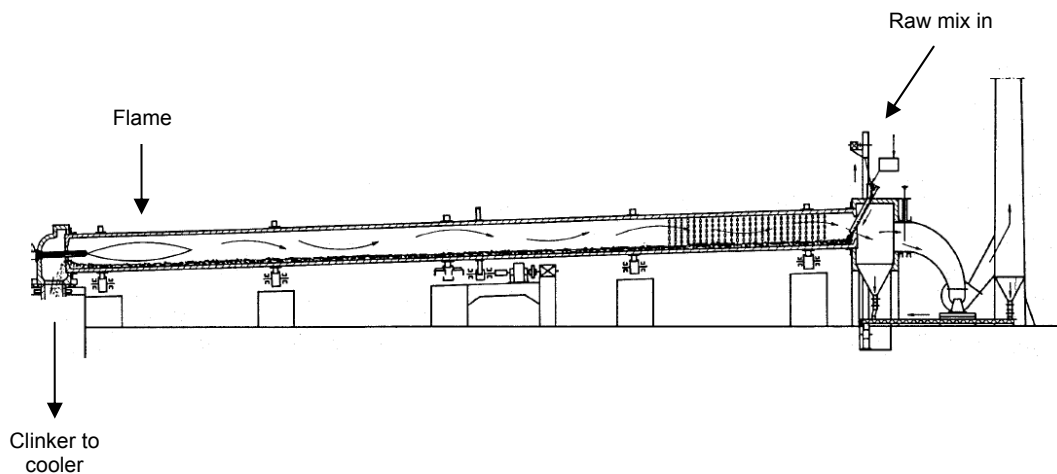


**(iii) Key Kiln System Technologies****Rotary Kilns**

In industrialised countries the ground mixture of raw materials for cement production are processed in rotary kilns. These rotary kilns form the core element of industrial cement production. They are refractory lined, slightly inclined rotating steel cylinders that are internally fired with fossil fuels and designed to produce clinker through the intense heating of the raw materials. They can be fed with slurry, crushed filter cakes, nodules or dry raw mix and are thus suitable for all process types. Raw mix is fed into the upper, cool end of the kiln while fuels are normally fed into the lower, hot end of the kiln. The inclination and rotation of the kiln causes the ground mixture of raw materials to move down the kiln from inlet to outlet in counter-current with the combustion gases generated by the firing of the fossil fuels in the lower, hot end of the kiln. In this way the ground mixture of raw materials are progressively heated as they travel down the length of the kiln being successively dried, preheated, calcined and combined into the cement clinker.

The first rotary kilns were long wet kilns (Figure 2-7) and all the heat consuming thermal processes required for the manufacture of cement occurred in the kiln. To obtain the necessary heat transfer for water evaporation, wet kilns must be of a sufficient length. The length of a long wet kiln is generally 32-35 times its diameter. The longest are 230 m long and these large units produce around 3500 t/d.

**Figure 2-7: Long Wet Rotary Kiln (Adapted from CEMBUREAU,1999)**



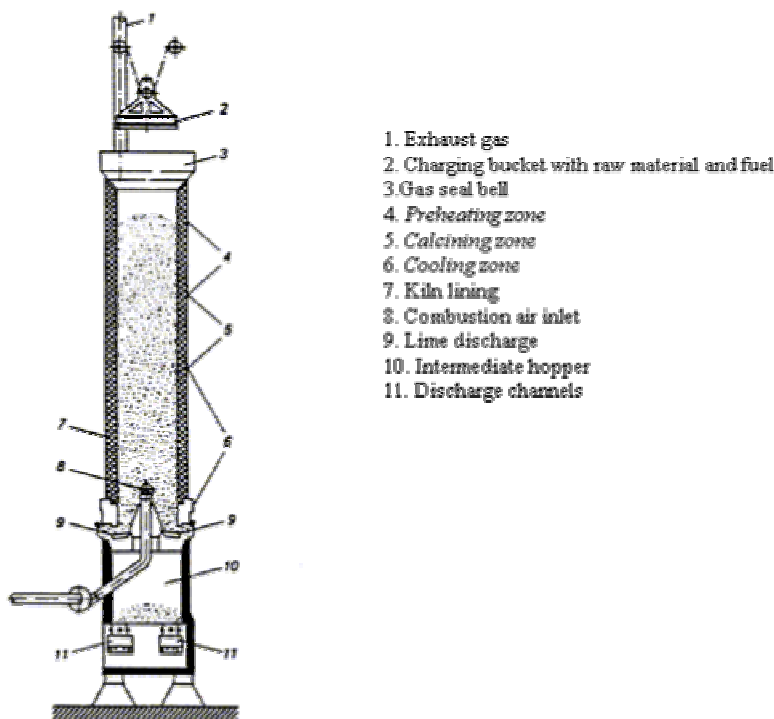
The introduction of the dry-process led to an optimisation of the cement clinker manufacturing process that allowed drying, preheating and calcining to take place in installations outside of the rotary kiln. Consequently dry process kilns are shorter than otherwise comparable wet process kilns. Their length is generally 11-20 times their diameter. Today the highest capacity dry-process cement kilns can have capacities of 10,000 t/d.

**Shaft Kilns**

Now predominantly found in India and China, shaft kilns (shown in Figure 2-8) consist of a refractory-lined, vertical cylinder 2-3 m in diameter and 8-10 m high. They are fed from the top and the raw mix passes through a short preheating, calcining and sintering zone at the top of the kiln where it is heated by hot combustion gasses. It is then cooled by air blown in from the base of the kiln and leaves as clinker at the bottom. The product quality from the vertical shaft kilns is generally lower than that

from rotary kilns and capacity is less than 300 t/d. Shaft kilns are being phased out in China as they are incapable of producing cement with high enough strength development characteristics for high rise construction projects.

**Figure 2-8: Shaft Kiln (VDI, 1984)**



1. Exhaust gas
2. Charging bucket with raw material and fuel
3. Gas seal bell
4. Preheating zone
5. Calcining zone
6. Cooling zone
7. Kiln lining
8. Combustion air inlet
9. Lime discharge
10. Intermediate hopper
11. Discharge channels

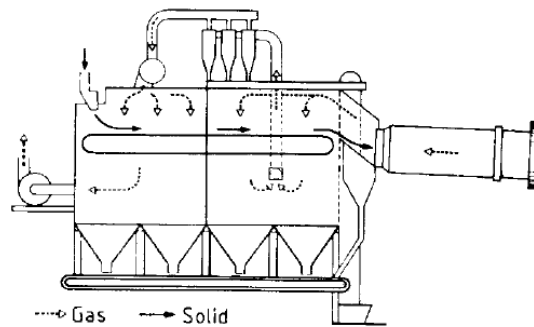
### Preheating and Precalcination

The introduction of the dry-process led to optimisation that allowed drying, preheating and calcining to take place in stationary installations outside of the rotary kiln. These 'additions' to the standard rotary kiln are discussed in more detail below.

#### Grate Preheater Kilns

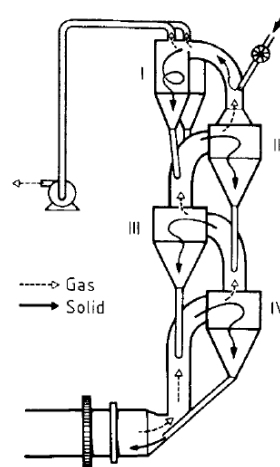
The introduction of grate preheaters, also known as a Lepol kilns, in 1928 allowed part of the clinkering process to proceed outside of the rotary kiln for the first time. This allowed the rotary kilns to become shorter, reducing heat losses and increasing energy efficiency.

In a grate preheater (shown in Figure 2-9) nodules made by mixing dry raw material powder with water in a nodulising pan (semi-dry process) or pellets made from wet slurry filter cakes in an extruder (semi-wet process) are fed onto a moving grate that passes through two chambers: a drying chamber and a preheating chamber. A fan draws hot exhaust gases from the rear of the kiln into the top of the preheating chamber and through the bed of nodulised or pelletised kiln feed as it travels along the grate through the chamber to the kiln. This preheats the material before it enters the rotary kiln. A second fan then draws the exhaust gas from beneath the preheating chamber into the drying chamber above the grate and through the bed of wet nodules or pellets as they travel along the grate. This dries the nodules or pellets before they pass to the preheating chamber.

**Figure 2-9: Grate Preheater (EC, 2001)**

### **Suspension Preheater Kilns**

Suspension preheaters (Figure 2-10) were developed as an alternative to travelling grate preheaters in the early 1950s. Preheating and partial calcination of the raw mix powder occurs in these preheaters by heat exchange between the hot kiln exhaust gases rising up the preheater from the rotary kiln and the raw mix powder descending the preheater. The process is thermally efficient since the suspension of the raw mix powder in the hot gases produces a large contact surface area that allows for efficient heat exchange between the gas and the powder.

**Figure 2-10: Four Stage Suspension Preheater (EC, 2001)**

The key components of these gas-suspension preheaters are the gas risers between the successive preheater stages and the cyclones for collection of the preheated raw mix powder and passing the preheated raw mix powder down to the next stage of the preheater. Heat exchange between the hot exhaust gases and the raw mix powder takes place in gas risers as the raw mix is lifted by the exhaust gases into the collection cyclones. The raw mix powder is added to the uppermost gas riser of the preheater tower and lifted into the uppermost cyclone stage. The preheated raw mix powder and gases are separated in the cyclone by the centrifugal motion induced by the geometry of the cyclone, with the exhaust gases passing out of the top of the cyclone and the preheated raw mix passing out of the bottom of the cyclone to the next lower stage of the preheater. This alternate preheating and separation improves the heat exchange efficiency of the process. The number of these preheating

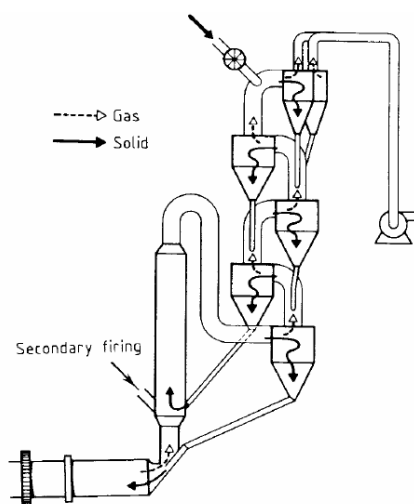
stages in a preheater tower system varies between 2 and 6, with heat exchange and overall thermal efficiency increasing with each additional preheater stage.

The four stage cyclone preheater was standard technology in the 1970s. At that time many plants were built with capacities in the 1000-3000 t/d range. After passing down the preheater calcination of the kiln feed is already about 30% complete.

### Precalciners

The precalciner is an evolution of the suspension preheater developed in the 1970s. It comprises a combustion chamber (precalciner) that is located between the suspension preheater and the kiln in which the preheated raw mix can be almost fully calcined prior to entering the kiln (Figure 2-11). The use of such a precalciner allows for a shorter kiln length and can reduce energy consumption by 5-10% compared with a kiln equipped only with a suspension preheater. Approximately 60-70% of the total fuel supply to the cement kiln is fired in the precalciner with the remainder fired in the main burner of the rotary kiln itself.

**Figure 2-11: Five Stage Suspension Preheater with Precalciner (EC, 2001)**



Kiln systems with five cyclone preheater stages and precalciner are considered 'standard' technology for today's modern, dry-process plants. Typical capacities are between 3,000–5,000 t/d. In Asia there is an increasing trend towards the installation of higher capacity cement kilns with an increasing number of 10,000 t/d plants operating. There are plans for the installation of a 12,000 t/d cement kiln in the USA.

## 2.4.2 Emissions Associated with Cement Manufacturing

### (i) Carbon Dioxide Emissions

Cement production is an energy intensive production process, accounting for 2% of the global primary energy consumption (Worrell *et al.*, 2001) and between 6-7% of global industrial energy use (IEA, 2007). Its reliance on carbon intensive fuels such as coal and petroleum coke in clinker making is responsible for substantial CO<sub>2</sub> emissions coming directly from the combustion of fossil fuels. CO<sub>2</sub> is

also emitted from the calcination process and from the consumption of electricity generated from fossil fuels. Cement production accounted for 1.8 Gt/y of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions worldwide in 2005 (IEA, 2007).

It is estimated that about 5-6% of global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from stationary sources originate from cement production (ECRA, 2007). Approximately half of these emissions are from the calcination process and the other half from the combustion process (this ignores emissions attributable to mobile equipment used in raw material mining, material and cement transportation, and plant site activities) (Hendriks *et al.*, 1998).

### **Process CO<sub>2</sub> Emissions from Calcination**

As shown in the following chemical reaction, the conversion of limestone to CaO, the primary precursor to cement, unavoidably generates CO<sub>2</sub> as a by-product:



CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from cement production depend on the ratio of clinker/cement, which varies from 0.5 to 0.95 but are estimated at about 0.5 kgCO<sub>2</sub>/kg clinker for calcination only (Worrell *et al.*, 2001).

### **CO<sub>2</sub> Emissions from Fossil Fuels**

The majority of fossil fuel is used during the pyro-processing step of cement production. The amount of CO<sub>2</sub> emitted during this step is influenced by the following factors:

- the type of production process and its efficiency
- the nature of fuel used (e.g. coal, fuel oil, natural gas etc.)
- the ratio of clinker/cement and percentage of additives.

Table 2-5 shows CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from dry and wet-process cement production in relation to the clinker/cement ratio and nature of fuel used.



**Table 2-5: Dry and Wet-process CO<sub>2</sub> Emissions from Fossil Fuels (Hendriks *et al.*, 1998)**

Process emissions		Process and fuel-related emissions (in kg/kg of cement produced) <sup>1</sup>							
Clinker /cement ratio	Clinker	Coal	Dry process			Wet process			
			Fuel Oil	Natural gas	Waste <sup>2</sup>	Coal	Fuel Oil	Natural gas	Waste
55%	0.28	0.55	0.50	0.47	0.36	0.67	0.59	0.53	0.36
75%	0.38	0.72	0.66	0.61	0.47	0.88	0.77	0.69	0.47
95%	0.49	0.89	0.81	0.75	0.57	1.09	0.95	0.90	0.57

<sup>1</sup> Emissions from electricity consumption are included.

<sup>2</sup> Assumed to be a zero emission fuel.

### CO<sub>2</sub> Emissions from Electricity Use

Grinding is the largest electricity demand in the cement industry with around 100 kWh/t of cement consumed in rotary kilns for grinding of raw materials, at the kiln and for grinding cement (IEA, 2007). The current best practice is reported to be around 80-90 kWh/t of clinker with most countries for which data is available falling within the range of 90-120 kWh/t of cement (IEA, 2007).

### Global CO<sub>2</sub> Emissions from the Cement Production Process

In 1994 the average energy intensity associated with global cement production was about 4.8 MJ/kg cement, with the most energy intensive regions being in Eastern Europe and the Former Soviet Union (5.5 MJ/kg), followed by North America (5.4 MJ/kg) and the Middle East (5.1 MJ/kg) (Hendriks *et al.*, 1998). The resulting CO<sub>2</sub> emissions for that year were 1,126 Mt CO<sub>2</sub>, 587 Mt CO<sub>2</sub> from process emissions and 539 Mt CO<sub>2</sub> from energy use (Hendriks *et al.*, 1998).

The carbon intensity of cement manufacture is subject to some variation in the literature. Hendriks *et al.* (1998) reported a carbon intensity of cement making of 0.81 kg CO<sub>2</sub>/kg cement with the carbon intensity being about 10% higher than the average in India, North America and China. However, Mahasenan *et al.* (2005) report the average gross unit-based emissions for the industry to be 0.87 kg CO<sub>2</sub>/kg with regional variation from 0.73 CO<sub>2</sub>/kg in Japan to 0.99 kg CO<sub>2</sub>/kg in the United States.

IEA (2007) reported that total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions per tonne of cement from energy and calcination in 2003-2004 ranged from about 0.65 kg CO<sub>2</sub>/kg of cement in Spain, Brazil and Italy to 0.93 kg CO<sub>2</sub>/kg of cement in the United States.

### (ii) Other Emissions

Other emissions that are potentially associated with the cement industry and are therefore controlled include nitrogen oxides, sulphur dioxide and dust. Carbon monoxide, volatile organic compounds (VOCs), polychlorinated dibenzodioxins (PCDD), dibenzofurans (PCDF) and heavy metals are possible trace emissions.

Typical emissions from European cement kilns in 1997 are shown in Table 2-6.

**Table 2-6: Emissions from European Cement Kilns (EC, 2001)**

<b>Emissions</b>	<b>mg/Nm<sup>3</sup></b>	<b>Kg/tonne clinker</b>	<b>Tonne/year</b>
NO <sub>x</sub> (as NO <sub>2</sub> )	<200-3,000	<0.4-6	400-6000
SO <sub>2</sub>	<10-3,500	<0.02-7	20-7000
Dust	5-200	0.01-0.4	10-400
HF	<0.4-5	<0.8-10 g/t	<0.8-10
HCl	<1-25	<2-50 g/t	<2-50
PCDD/F	<0.1-0.5 ng/Nm <sup>3</sup>	<200-1000 ng/t	< 0.2-1 g/year
Metals			
∑ (Hg, Cd, Tl)	0.01-0.3 (mainly Hg)	200-600 mg/t	20-600 kg/year
∑ (As, Co, Ni, Se, Te)	0.001-0.1	2-200 mg/t	2-200 kg/year
∑ (Sb, Pb, Cr, Cu, Mn, V, Sn, Zn)	0.005-0.3	10-600 mg/t	10-600 kg/year

Note: Mass figures are based on 2000 m<sup>3</sup>/tonne clinker and 1 million tonnes clinker/year. Emission ranges are one –year averages and are indicative values based on various measurement techniques. O<sub>2</sub>-content is normally 10%.

### 2.4.3 Kiln Flue Gas Clean-up Methods

The exhaust gases from a kiln amount to between 1,350 – 3,000 Nm<sup>3</sup>/tonne of clinker depending on the type of kiln (CEMBUREAU, 1999). Depending on the local discharge requirements these exhaust gases require treatment before discharge. A summary of flue gas clean-up methods that are employed (to varying degrees) within the cement industry is shown in Table 2-7. These methods are discussed in further detail in the sections below.

**Table 2-7: Common Flue Gas Clean-up Methods (Adapted from EC, 2001)**

Technique	Kiln system applicability	Reduction efficiency (%)	Reported emissions		Reported costs (10 <sup>6</sup> €/tonne of clinker) <sup>3</sup>	
			mg/m <sup>3</sup> <sup>1</sup>	kg/tonne <sup>2</sup>	Investment	Operating
<b>Dust</b>						
Electrostatic precipitators	All	-	5-50	0.01-0.1	2.1-4.6	0.1-0.2
Fabric filters	All	-	5-50	0.01-0.1	2.1-4.6	0.15-0.35
<b>NO<sub>x</sub></b>						
SNCR	Preheater and precalciner	10-85	200-800	0.4-1.6	0.5-1.5	0.3-0.5
SCR	Possibly all	65-95 <sup>6</sup>	100-500	0.2-0.4	ca.2.5 <sup>4</sup> 3.5-4.5 <sup>5</sup>	0.2-0.4 <sup>4</sup> uncertain <sup>5</sup>
<b>SO<sub>x</sub></b>						
Absorbent addition	All	60-80	400	0.8	0.2-0.3	0.1-0.4
Dry scrubber	Dry	Up to 90	<400	<0.8	11	1.4-1.6
Wet scrubber	All	>90	<200	<0.4	6-10	0.5-0.1
Activated carbon	Dry	Up to 95	<50	<0.1	15 <sup>7</sup>	uncertain

<sup>2</sup> kg/tonne clinker: based on 2000 m<sup>3</sup>/tonne clinker

<sup>3</sup> Investment costs 10<sup>6</sup> euros and operating cost in euros/tonne of clinker. Dust: to reduce emissions to 10-50 mg/m<sup>3</sup> from initial emissions of up to 500 g dust/m<sup>3</sup>. NO<sub>x</sub>: to reduce emissions from initial levels of up to 2000 mg NO<sub>x</sub>/m<sup>3</sup>.

<sup>4</sup> Costs estimated by Ökopoll for a full scale installation (kiln capacities from 1,000 – 5,000 tonne clinker/day and initial emissions from 1,300 – 2,000 mg NO<sub>x</sub>/m<sup>3</sup>), operating costs ca. 25% lower than for SNCR

<sup>5</sup> Costs estimated by CEMBUREAU

<sup>6</sup> There has been limited study of the application of SCR to the cement manufacturing process and the literature that exists provides conflicting data on SCR performance. The wide efficiency range shown reflects this uncertainty.

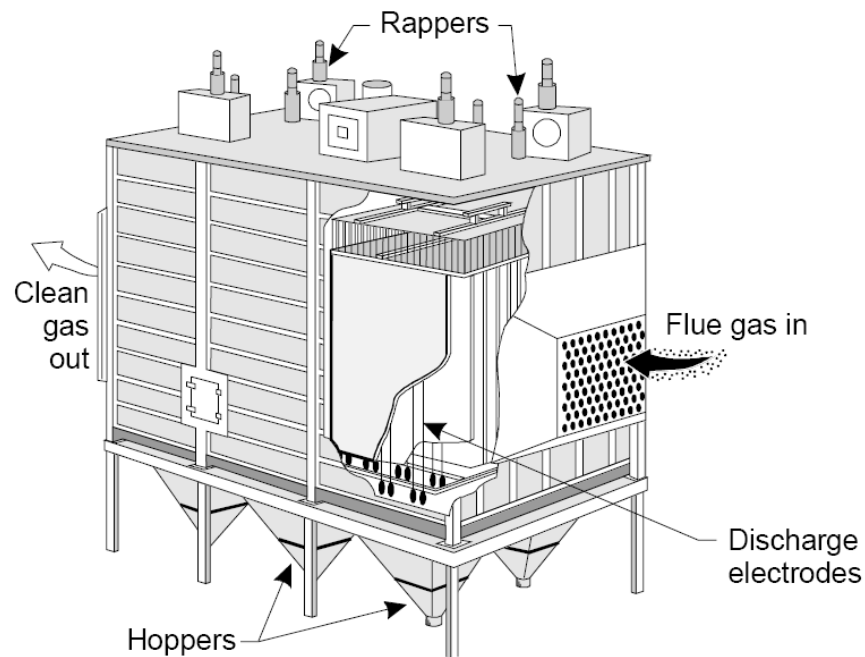
<sup>7</sup> This cost also includes an SNCR process, referring to a kiln capacity of 2000 tonnes clinker/day and initial emissions of 50-600 mg SO<sub>2</sub>/m<sup>3</sup>

## (i) Techniques for Controlling Dust Emissions

Cement kiln flue gases carry a large amount of dust - typically 3,000 mg/m<sup>3</sup>. Whilst various dusting techniques have historically been used in cement manufacturing, the modern plants now almost exclusively use electrostatic precipitators and bag filters. These are recognised as the best available techniques (BAT) for reducing dust emissions (EC, 2001).

### Electrostatic Precipitators

Electrostatic Precipitators (ESPs) use electrostatic forces to separate dust from flue gases. An electrostatic field is generated across the path of particulate matter in the air stream. Particles become negatively charged and migrate towards positively charged collection plates (Figure 2-12). Dust accumulated on the collection plates is dislodged and collected by electrode rapping.

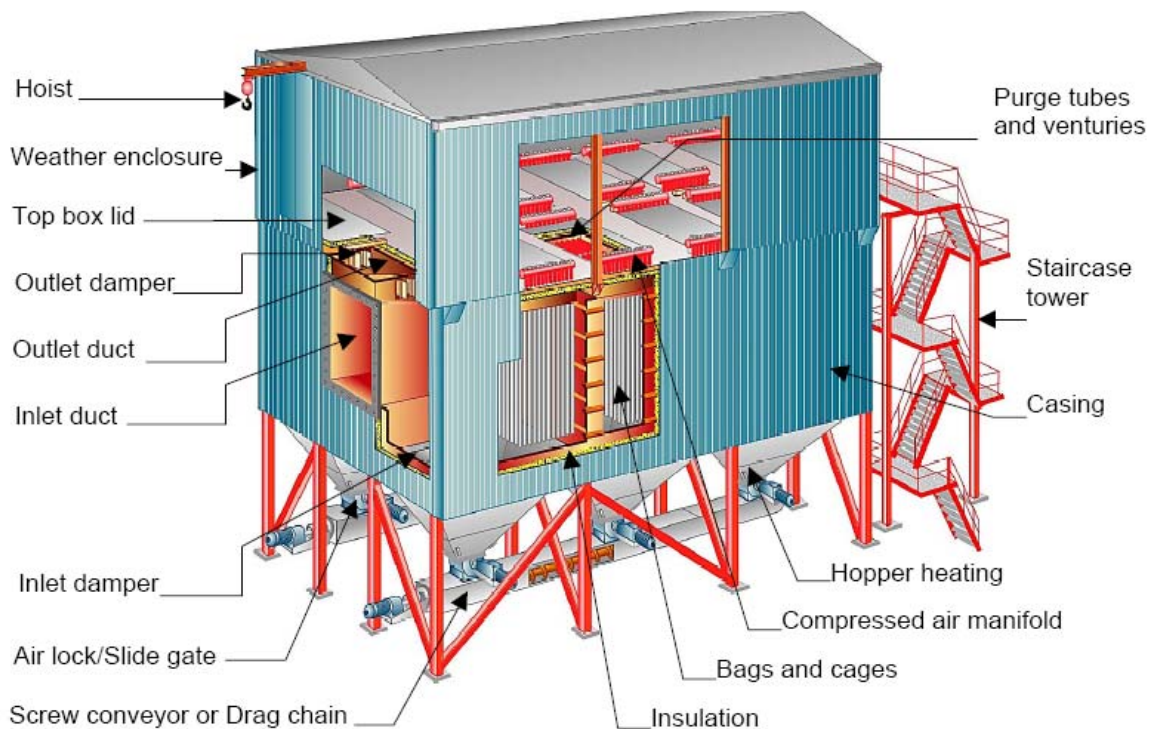
**Figure 2-12: An Electrostatic Precipitator (EPA, 2007)**

A properly designed ESP combined with gas conditioning and an optimised ESP cleaning regime can reduce dust levels down to 5-15 mg/m<sup>3</sup> (Federal Environment Agency, Austria 1997).

EC (2001) reports that ESPs are characterised by their ability to operate under conditions of high temperatures (up to approximately 400 °C) and high humidity. However, Mott MacDonald understands that the performance of ESPs at high temperatures with dry exhaust gases is problematic and that they operate most efficiently with cool (~100°C) moist gas.

### Bag Filters

Bag filters (Figure 2-13) for de-dusting gaseous waste streams comprise a fabric membrane which is permeable to gas flowing towards and through it but which will retain particulates. As dust accumulates on the fabric membranes (bags) of these 'bag filters' the resistance to gas flow increases and thus regular cleaning is required to maintain performance. The most common cleaning methods include reverse airflow, mechanical shaking, vibration and compressed air pulsing.

**Figure 2-13: A Pulse Jet Fabric Filter (FLSmith)**

Modern fabric filters can reduce dust emissions to below 5 mg/m<sup>3</sup> (Federal Environment Agency, Austria 1997).

High temperature applications of bag filters require the use of more exotic fabric types than are 'normally' supplied (EC, 2001).

## (ii) Techniques for Controlling NO<sub>x</sub> Emissions

NO<sub>x</sub> is a generic term used to refer, collectively, to all the gaseous oxides of nitrogen, nitrogen monoxide (NO), nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) and nitrogen tetroxide (N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>). There are other less common oxides of nitrogen with variable stoichiometry represented by the formula, N<sub>x</sub>O<sub>y</sub>.

NO<sub>x</sub> are formed during the combustion of fuel by oxidation of the molecular nitrogen of the combustion air (thermal NO<sub>x</sub>) as well as the nitrogen compounds in the fuels (fuel NO<sub>x</sub>) and raw materials. Thermal NO<sub>x</sub> forms at temperatures above 1200°C and is produced mainly in the kiln burning zone where it is hot enough to achieve this reaction (EC, 2001). The amount of thermal NO<sub>x</sub> produced in the burning zone is related to both burning zone temperature and oxygen content (air excess factor) (EC, 2001). Fuel NO<sub>x</sub> is generated by the combustion of the nitrogen present in the fuel. In a precalciner the prevailing temperature is in the range 850-900°C, which is not high enough to form thermal NO<sub>x</sub>, but fuel NO<sub>x</sub> will occur (EC, 2001).

The temperatures in the burning zone of a cement kiln and the long residence time of the exhaust gases in the process favour the formation of NO. Less than 10% of the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from a kiln system are composed of NO<sub>2</sub> (EC, 2001). Rushworth (2008) reported the NO<sub>2</sub> fraction as less than 5% and Leibacher *et al.* (2006) reported that in the order of 98% of the NO<sub>x</sub> present in the flue gas from

cement kiln is in the form of NO. However, these NO emissions are oxidised to NO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere after emission from the kiln. Ultimately it is the NO<sub>2</sub> emissions which are responsible for acid rain, smog and ozone formation and this necessitates limits on the emissions of NO<sub>x</sub> from cement kilns. NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from cement kilns are therefore converted into their NO<sub>2</sub> emission equivalents.

The NO<sub>x</sub> emissions (expressed as NO<sub>2</sub>) associated with cement kilns vary generally between <200 and 3000 mg NO<sub>2</sub>/Nm<sup>3</sup> (dry gas, 0°C, 101.3 kPa, 10% O<sub>2</sub>) (EC, 2001).

NO<sub>x</sub> emissions can be reduced via primary process optimisation measures and some of these techniques are listed below (CEMBUREAU, 1999):

- optimisation of the clinker burning process
- computer based expert system for kiln operation
- optimisation of main burner (low NO<sub>x</sub> burner)
- multi-stage combustion for in-line precalciners.

NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in the kiln flue gas can also be abated using the clean up options detailed below.

#### **Selective Non-catalytic Reduction (SNCR)**

NO<sub>x</sub> in flue gases can be converted into N<sub>2</sub>, and water by reaction with NH<sub>4</sub>-X compounds injected into the flue gas. The ammonia-containing solution may be supplied in the form of anhydrous ammonia, aqueous ammonia or urea. To work effectively SNCR requires:

- That NH<sub>4</sub>-X be introduced into the flue gas at temperatures of between 800 – 1000 °C.
- That exhaust streams have a relatively high concentration of NO<sub>x</sub> as opposed to other potential reactants.
- An oxidising or fuel lean atmosphere.
- The accurate injection of the optimum quantity of reagent NH<sub>3</sub>.

This optimal temperature window and other conditions can be obtained in suspension preheater kilns, precalciner kilns and potentially in some Lepol kilns. It is important for the reaction to occur within the optimal temperature range, as if the temperature falls then unconverted ammonia may be emitted (known as 'ammonia slip') and react in the atmosphere to form visible plumes above the exhaust gas stack. However, if the temperature is too high then the injected ammonia can itself react to form additional NO<sub>x</sub> thus increasing the emission problem.

SNCR is routinely used at some European cement plants and there are currently at least two cement kilns in the USA using SNCR to control NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. As such it is generally considered to be 'commercially available' (Schreiber *et al.*, 2006) for modern preheater/precalciner kiln systems. Most SNCR installations operating today are designed for NO<sub>x</sub> reduction rates of 10-50% and emission levels of 500-800 mg/m<sup>3</sup> of NO<sub>x</sub>. However, two plants in Sweden have been utilising SNCR to comply with tight Swedish emission limits since 1997 and achieving control efficiencies of 80-85% which corresponds to emissions of less than 200 mg/m<sup>3</sup> of NO<sub>x</sub> – reaching flue gas purity levels, at least in these first demonstrations, consistent with the current requirements of post-combustion capture, discussed in section 3.3.4.

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### Selective Catalytic Reduction (SCR)

SCR has been successfully employed in the power industry and involves the injection of ammonia-based reagents into the flue gas stream in the presence of a catalyst. Common reagents include anhydrous ammonia, aqueous ammonia and urea. NO<sub>x</sub> compounds are converted to N<sub>2</sub> and water and the catalyst allows these reactions to occur at lower temperatures (300°C – 400°C) than those required for SNCR.

The application of SCR technology to cement plants is relatively new for the industry. There have been several small pilot studies and two large scale installations; one at the Solnhofen cement works in Germany and the other at the Cementeria di Monselice in Italy.

Solnhofen was the first plant to adopt the full scale technology and actually has both SCR and SNCR on-site. A recent study into the application of SCR at cement plants (Schreiber *et al.*, 2006) concluded that SCR technology does not, on currently available experience, appear to be a more effective NO<sub>x</sub> treatment method than SNCR, that SCR suppliers could not provide performance guarantees and that considerable pilot testing would be required at any given plant to optimise SCR performance at an unknown cost. The report concluded that SCR systems could not yet be considered to be 'commercially available' technologies in the cement industry.

At the time of the report the plant had not reached the 200 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup> imposed target for NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. It was also not operating the SCR unit suggesting that the SNCR unit was satisfactory to meet the operating permit emission rate of 500 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup>. However, many modifications and improvements were made to the SCR system to cater for the high dust environment experienced in cement plants. The main new item was equipment to remove the dust clogging the honeycomb catalyst. Many lessons were learnt for introducing the technology to other cement plants.

Using the modified design from Solnhofen, Swiss company ELEX installed another full scale SCR system at the Monselice Cement Plant in Italy. A range of results were achieved from the Monselice plant ranging from 95% NO<sub>x</sub> removal efficiency down to 43% removal (Leibacher *et al.*, 2006). A 25% ammonia solution was used as the reductant injected in one of the early stages of the preheater. The ammonia slip through the system was negligible due to the long residence time of the vapourised ammonia.

### (iii) Techniques for Controlling SO<sub>x</sub> Emissions

Sulphur dioxide, SO<sub>2</sub> is formed:

- i. during the combustion of fuel, released in the burning zone of the kiln and the precalciner (if present); and
- ii. due to the oxidation of pyrite/marcasite and organic sulphur in raw feed materials in the preheater or the kiln inlet of long wet or dry kilns.

However, the SO<sub>2</sub> formed by the combustion of fuel is absorbed by the intimate contact between the combustion exhaust gases and the basic feed material in the preheaters of modern cement kilns. In these modern kilns any SO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the cement plant are predominantly due to oxidation of pyrite/marcasite in the feed materials in the upper stages of the preheater. Modern cement plants which do not have these sulphide minerals in their raw materials have very low emissions of SO<sub>2</sub>.

The SO<sub>2</sub> emissions from kilns vary between <10 and 3,500 mg/m<sup>3</sup> (daily average basis and standard conditions of 0°C, 101.3 kPa, 10% O<sub>2</sub> and dry gas) with the emissions of below 10 mg/m<sup>3</sup> from cement kilns which do not have sulphide minerals in their raw materials (EC, 2001).

SO<sub>2</sub> emissions can be reduced via primary process optimisation measures and some of these techniques are listed below (CEMBUREAU, 1999):

- reduction in sulphur content in fuels and kiln feed
- optimisation of the clinker burning process
- addition of slaked lime to the kiln feed with the use of a dry scrubber if necessary.

SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in kiln flue gas can also be abated using the clean up options detailed below.

### **Addition of Absorbents**

Adding absorbents, in dry or wet form, such as slaked lime, quicklime or activated fly ash with high CaO content to the exhaust gas of a kiln can absorb SO<sub>2</sub>. Where emissions are below 1,200 mg/m<sup>3</sup> the most efficient way of utilising slaked lime is to add it to the kiln feed prior to clinker burning and let the SO<sub>2</sub> absorption occur in the kiln, rather than inject it into the flue gases after sintering. However, where SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are higher this is not economically feasible.

SO<sub>2</sub> reductions of 60-80% can be achieved by absorption injection in suspension preheater kiln systems and for emission levels of up to 1,200 mg/m<sup>3</sup> it is possible to reduce eventual flue gas emissions to around 400 mg/m<sup>3</sup> (EC, 2001). The technique is in principle applicable to all kiln systems and is currently in use at several plants.

### **Dry Scrubbers**

Where emission levels exceed 1,500 mg/m<sup>3</sup> a separate scrubber may be required to reduce emission to below 500 mg/m<sup>3</sup>. A 'dry' scrubber can be used prior to the raw meal entering the kiln.

One type of scrubber uses a venturi reactor column to produce a fluidised bed of slaked lime and raw meal. The intensive contact between gas and absorbent, the long residence time and the low temperature allow for efficient absorption of SO<sub>2</sub> and absorbent rates of 90% can be achieved (EC 2001).

As of 2001 there was only one SO<sub>2</sub> dry scrubber in operation in Europe at the HCB-Untervaz plant in Switzerland. It has a 4 stage suspension preheater kiln system and a maximum capacity of 2,000 tonnes of clinker per day. Unabated SO<sub>2</sub> emissions would be around 2,500 mg/m<sup>3</sup> in direct operation and 2,000 mg/m<sup>3</sup> in compound operation. Using dry scrubbers the abated average emission level was reported to be 385 mg/m<sup>3</sup> in 1998 (EC, 2001).

### **Wet scrubbers**

Wet scrubbers are the most commonly used technique for flue gas desulphurisation in coal fired power plants. Calcium carbonate, hydroxide or oxide in a liquid or slurry is used to absorb SO<sub>2</sub> from the flue gases. The slurry is sprayed in a counter current direction to the exhaust gas and collected in a recycle tank at the bottom of the scrubber where the formed sulphite is oxidised with air to sulphate and forms gypsum, CaSO<sub>4</sub>.2H<sub>2</sub>O. The gypsum is separated and used as set controlling agent in cement milling, while the water is returned to the scrubber.



Wet scrubbers have been installed at various cement plants throughout Europe and flue gases with peak SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations of more than 2,000 mg/m<sup>3</sup> have been treated to produce exhaust gases with SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations below 200 mg/m<sup>3</sup> (CEMBUEAU, 1999).

The wet scrubber also significantly reduces the HCl, residual dust, metal and NH<sub>3</sub> emissions (EC 2001).

### Activated Carbon

Various pollutants such as SO<sub>2</sub>, organic compounds, metals, NH<sub>3</sub> (and NO<sub>x</sub> if NH<sub>3</sub> is present), NH<sub>4</sub> compounds, HCl, HF and residual dust (after an ESP or fabric filter) can be absorbed from flue gases using activated carbon (EC, 2001). The flue gases pass through an activated carbon filter constructed as a packed bed and the used activated coke is periodically replaced with fresh absorbent.

As of 2001 there was only one activated carbon filter installed in Europe at Siggenthal in Switzerland. This 4 stage cyclone preheater kiln has a capacity of 2,000 tonnes of clinker per day and prior to installation of an activated carbon filter was emitting SO<sub>2</sub> in concentrations of between 50 and 600 mg/m<sup>3</sup>. Following installation emissions at the outlet were significantly below 50 mg/m<sup>3</sup> (EC, 2001). Activated carbon filters can be fitted to all dry kiln systems.

#### (iv) UK National Emission Limits

Emission limits for discharges from cement production vary across the globe with the measurement criteria (averaging time, reference conditions measurement techniques, compliance criteria etc.) different from one country to another. Tables 2-8 and 2-9 indicate the emission limits for dust, SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> in the UK for production of cement (EC, 2001).

**Table 2-8: UK<sup>1</sup> Emission Limits for Dust for the Production of Cement**

Plant	Unit	Kiln Stack	Clinker Cooling	Cement Grinding	Other Point Sources
New/modified	mg/Nm <sup>3</sup>	40 <sup>2</sup>	50 <sup>2</sup>	40 <sup>2</sup>	50 <sup>2</sup>
Existing <sup>3</sup>	mg/Nm <sup>3</sup>	-	-	-	-

<sup>1</sup> IPC Guidance Note S2.3.01

<sup>2</sup> 'Benchmark releases'

<sup>3</sup> Benchmark releases are, in particular, not applicable to existing plant but are a factor in considering appropriate limits.

**Table 2-9: UK<sup>1</sup> Emission Limits for SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> for the Production of Cement**

Plant	Unit	SO <sub>2</sub>	SO <sub>2</sub>	NO <sub>x</sub>
		Normal situation	S-rich raw materials	
New/modified	mg/Nm <sup>3</sup>	200 <sup>2</sup>		900 <sup>2</sup>
Existing <sup>3</sup>	mg/Nm <sup>3</sup>	Note <sup>3</sup>	600-2500 <sup>4</sup>	500-1200 <sup>3,5</sup>

<sup>1</sup> IPC Guidance Note S2.3.01

<sup>2</sup> 'Benchmark releases'

<sup>3</sup> Benchmark releases are, in particular, not applicable to existing plant but are a factor in considering appropriate limits.

<sup>4</sup> Limit values reflect the actual levels of releases. Daily averages and reference condition of dry gas and actual O<sub>2</sub> content.

<sup>5</sup> Actual releases, daily averages, not all plants currently have limits.

### (v) European Discharge Limits

The Integrated Pollution Prevention Control (IPPC) Directive (EC/96/61) employs a permitting system to achieve an integrated approach to controlling the environmental impacts of industrial activities. In order to achieve permitting the permitting authority will consider whether the plant meets the BAT emission limits. Permits may be issued for a plant that does not meet the BAT emission limits but a good justification is required. Table 2-10 summarises the BAT emission limits for cement plants (EC, 2001).

**Table 2-10: BAT Emission Levels (EC, 2001)**

Emission	Best Available Techniques (BAT)	Emission Level <sup>1</sup>
NO <sub>x</sub>	Combination of general primary measures, primary measures to control NO <sub>x</sub> emissions, staged combustion and selective non-catalytic reduction (SNCR)	200-500 mg NO <sub>x</sub> /m <sup>3</sup> (as NO <sub>2</sub> )
	Selective catalytic reduction (SCR)	100-200 mg NO <sub>x</sub> /m <sup>3</sup> (as NO <sub>2</sub> )
SO <sub>2</sub>	Combination of general primary measures and absorbent addition for initial emission levels not higher than about 1200 mg SO <sub>2</sub> /m <sup>3</sup> and a wet or dry scrubber for initial emission levels higher than about 1200 mg SO <sub>2</sub> /m <sup>3</sup>	200-400 mg SO <sub>2</sub> /m <sup>3</sup>
Dust	Combination of general primary measures and efficient removal of particulate matter from point sources by application of electrostatic precipitators and/or fabric filters	20-30 mg dust/m <sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Emission levels are expressed on daily average basis and standard conditions of 273 K, 101.3 kPa, 10% oxygen and dry gas

## 3 CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Processes

### 3.1 Introduction

In this section the leading technologies that could be used to capture CO<sub>2</sub> in cement plants are described. These technologies include post-combustion, oxy-combustion and pre-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture. The reasons why pre-combustion capture is not suitable for capture of CO<sub>2</sub> from cement plants are explained.

### 3.2 Overview

Hendriks *et al.* (1998) summarise the methods by which CO<sub>2</sub> emissions can be reduced in the production of traditional cement as:

1. Improvement of the energy efficiency of the process.
2. Shifting to a more energy efficient process (e.g. from a (semi) wet to (semi) dry process).
3. Replacing high carbon fuels by low carbon fuels.
4. Replacing fossil fuels with alternative fuels (e.g. waste-derived fuels).
5. Applying lower clinker/cement ratio (i.e. increasing the ratio additives/cement).
6. Removal of CO<sub>2</sub> from the flue gases (CO<sub>2</sub> capture).

The cement industry has, for various reasons and to varying degrees, implemented or begun to implement the first five strategies. This has resulted in a reduction over time in the CO<sub>2</sub> emitted per tonne of clinker produced. In Japan and Europe, for example, energy efficiency improvements led to a reduction in the energy intensity of clinker production of roughly 30% between the 1970s and the early 1990s (Japan Cement Association, 2006; CEMBUREAU, 1998). However, these efficiency improvements appear to have plateaued as incremental improvements became less cost effective and global emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> per tonne of clinker have remained essentially stable since 1990 (WBCSD, 2002b). In the face of rising production this has led to an inevitable increase in absolute CO<sub>2</sub> emissions associated with cement manufacture.

Large predicted growth in demand for cement when coupled with realistic assumptions on a hypothetical global CO<sub>2</sub> emissions reduction regime imply that the global cement industry may face significant emission reduction requirements in the future (Mahasenana *et al.*, 2005). Although there remains undoubted scope to improve CO<sub>2</sub> efficiency through the application of existing strategies (see IEA GHG, 1999), the industry may need to seriously consider the application of CO<sub>2</sub> capture to meet significant reduction targets particularly as this technology offers a way to secure deep emission cuts. The application of CO<sub>2</sub> capture technologies in the cement industry is the focus of this Report.

### 3.3 CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Processes Descriptions

#### 3.3.1 Overview

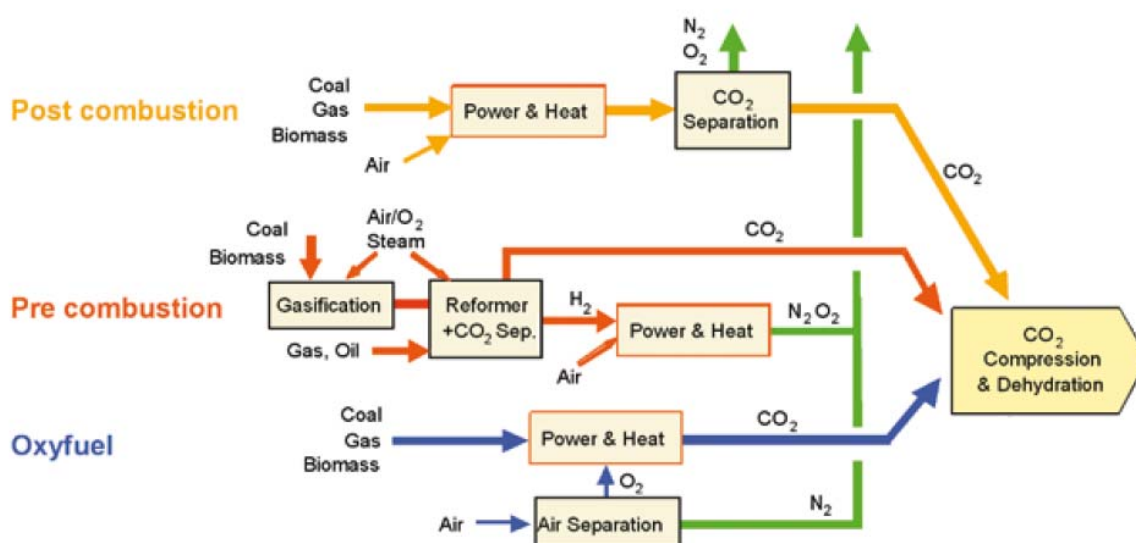
CO<sub>2</sub> capture produces a concentrated stream of CO<sub>2</sub> that can then be transported to a CO<sub>2</sub> storage site where it can remain in isolation from the atmosphere. The technology is most suited to large single point sources of CO<sub>2</sub> and its application is often discussed in relation to the capture of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from power plants which are the biggest (stationary) sources of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Cement plants are the next biggest source of emissions and thus, there is increasing interest in the potential application of CO<sub>2</sub> capture technology to the cement industry. Cement kiln flue gases have a relatively high CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (approximately 15-30%) that should provide some advantages over CO<sub>2</sub> capture from the power generation industry.

The approach to carbon capture can be split into three distinct categories:

- **Pre-combustion** – conversion of fuel to H<sub>2</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> prior to combustion
- **Oxy-combustion** - burning fuel in pure oxygen rather than air with recycle of flue gas to control combustion temperature
- **Post-combustion** – capture of CO<sub>2</sub> from kiln flue gases.

A simplified process schematic for the three routes is shown in Figure 3-1. Although CO<sub>2</sub> is removed from the system at opposite ends of the process in pre- and post-combustion, the technologies available to achieve this CO<sub>2</sub> separation from other process streams are similar and are dealt with individually in section 3.4. Ideally oxy-combustion should produce a flue gas with a very high concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> and thus negate the need for a further CO<sub>2</sub> separation step although some purification of the flue gas stream is likely to be required.

**Figure 3-1: CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Processes (IPCC, 2005)**



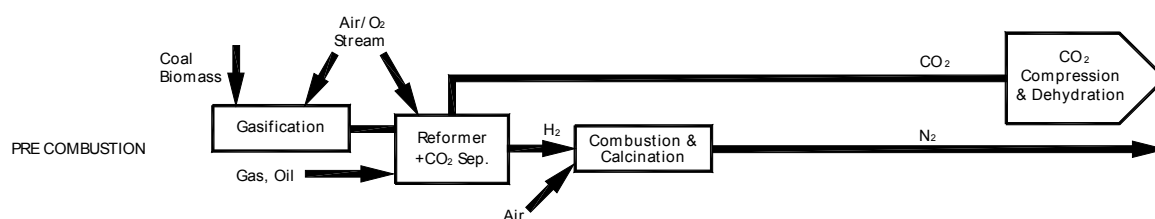
Post combustion capture has been applied in industrial manufacturing processes since the 1920s (Kohl and Neilsen, 1997) and the same solvent technology is widely used in refining and gas processing although predominantly with gases under reducing conditions rather than with gases containing significant quantities of oxygen. However, given such experience this approach to CO<sub>2</sub> capture is considered to be 'commercially available' although it has yet to be applied at a large power or cement plant on a commercial basis. In contrast pre- and oxy-combustion technologies are less well developed and are considered to be 'emerging technologies' which will require further development before finding commercial acceptance.

Each of these approaches to the process of CO<sub>2</sub> capture and its application at cement plants is discussed in further detail in the sections below and is followed by a review of commercially available and emerging CO<sub>2</sub> separation technologies.

### 3.3.2 Pre-combustion

Pre-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture generally involves three stages. Firstly, a hydrocarbon-containing primary fuel such as coal, natural gas or biomass is reacted with either steam or oxygen to produce a mixture of hydrogen and carbon monoxide known as syngas. The process of reacting the fuel with steam is known as 'reforming' while reaction with oxygen is known as 'partial oxidation' when applied to gaseous or liquid fuels and 'gasification' when the primary fuel is a solid. The second step in the process is to catalytically react the carbon monoxide with further steam to produce CO<sub>2</sub> and more hydrogen. This is known as the 'water gas shift reaction' and the result is a stream of hydrogen with a high concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> – typically 15 to 60% (dry basis). Finally, the CO<sub>2</sub> is removed from the CO<sub>2</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> mixture using one of the capture methods discussed in section 3.4 leaving hydrogen to be cleaned for use as a carbon free fuel. The process is shown in Figure 3-2.

**Figure 3-2: Pre-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Process for Cement Manufacture (Adapted from IPCC, 2005)**



Although pre-combustion capture could be used to 'de-carbonise' the fuel source used in the cement manufacturing process it is considered to have two major drawbacks when applied to the cement industry that make its application unsuitable.

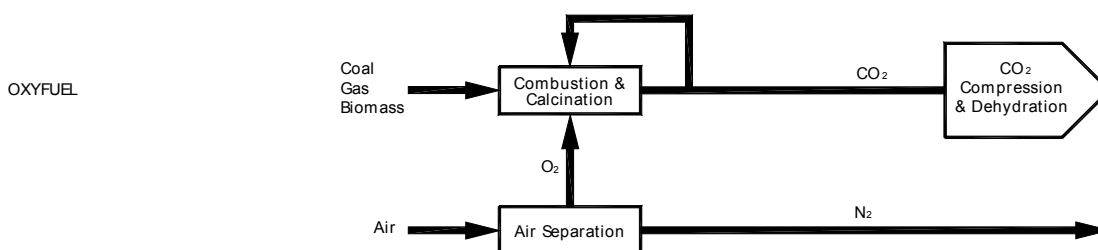
Firstly, since a significant proportion of the CO<sub>2</sub> generated through cement manufacture is due to the calcination process, which takes place after the CO<sub>2</sub> associated with the fuel has been separated, the exit gases from the kiln would still contain large quantities of CO<sub>2</sub> despite the application of pre-combustion capture. This would require additional and expensive CO<sub>2</sub> removal (given the lower CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations) by application of one of the other CO<sub>2</sub> removal technologies. Secondly, there is little opportunity to integrate the fuel conversion process into the existing production process - the cement manufacturing process does not, unlike power generation facilities, have an existing steam cycle it can tap into and this will increase costs associated with the process.

For these reasons pre-combustion capture is considered not to be an attractive method by which to reduce CO<sub>2</sub> emissions associated with the cement industry (IEA GHG, 1999; IPCC, 2005; and Hegerland *et al.*, 2005) and is not considered further in this report.

### 3.3.3 Oxy-combustion

In the process of oxy-combustion (Figure 3-3) fuel is burnt in almost pure oxygen, rather than air. The oxygen required for combustion is obtained by the removal of nitrogen from air, which is typically 78% nitrogen, in an Air Separation Unit (ASU).

**Figure 3-3: Oxy-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Process for Cement Manufacture (Adapted from IPCC, 2005)**



After combustion the flue gas is cooled to condense water vapour and the resulting flue gas has a high CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (80-98% depending on fuel and particular oxy-combustion process). The flue gas will also contain other products associated with fuel combustion such as NO<sub>x</sub>, SO<sub>x</sub>, inert gases from the fuel or leakage into the system and diluents used in the oxygen feed. Fuel burnt in a pure oxygen environment has a very high stoichiometric combustion temperature (3,500°C). To control this a proportion of the flue gas can be recycled back to the burner inlet, as a diluent, to moderate the temperature.

The high concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> in the flue gas eliminates or reduces the need for costly post combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture from the flue gases (see section 3.4 for a discussion on CO<sub>2</sub> separation technologies). If the flue gas is simply captured and stored without further processing then other trace pollutants (such as NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>x</sub>) can also be compressed and stored without the need for additional costly steps to remove these components (Marin *et al.*, 2003). However, recent work by Air Products (White, 2007) indicates that most of the SO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> will be removed as acid during the CO<sub>2</sub> compression.

The production of oxygen is a key step in an oxy-combustion system. The standard technology capable of delivering the high quantities of oxygen required for oxy-combustion is the distillation of oxygen from air at cryogenic temperatures. In a typical cryogenic air separation plant, air is compressed and purified before being cooled through a collection of heat exchangers and finally separated into its fractions in a double distillation column. The process has been in use for over 100 years and can reliably deliver high quantities of oxygen for industrial processes. Typical power consumption for the delivery of 95% O<sub>2</sub> at low pressure is 200-240 kWh/tO<sub>2</sub> (IPCC, 2005). Commentators have argued that this energy cost makes CO<sub>2</sub> capture via oxy-combustion uncompetitive compared with post-combustion technologies (Canadian Clean Power Association, 2004). There are a number of processes being explored that could reduce the cost of oxygen production and these are discussed briefly under emerging technologies in section 3.4.3.

Although individual parts of the oxy-combustion process are in use in various industries, including the key step of separating O<sub>2</sub> from air, the use of the technology specifically for the purposes of CO<sub>2</sub> capture in an integrated process has yet to be deployed on a commercial scale.

The application of the process to power generation cycles has attracted significant attention and there have been a number of studies (Yantovskii *et al.*, 1992; Mathieu, 2003; Jericha *et al.*, 2003; Nsakala *et al.*, 2003; Simbeck and McDonald, 2001; Kvamsdal *et al.*, 2004; Buhre *et al.*, 2005) and pilot tests (Babcock Energy Ltd *et al.*, 1995; Croiset and Thambimuthu, 2000; Anderson *et al.*, 2004) of various approaches to applying oxy-combustion in the process of electrical generation.

Among other examples, a 6 MW demonstration plant incorporating an oxy-combustion steam turbine cycle is now online (IPCC, 2005) and a 68 MW 'zero emissions' oxyfuel power plant developed by Dutch company SEQ Nederland B.V. is planned at Drachten in the Netherlands. A 30MWth oxyfuel pilot plant is also planned for operation in 2008 at Schwarze Pumpe, Germany and another 30 MW demonstration project is planned for operation in 2009 at Callide-A in Queensland, Australia .

Although in principle the process of oxy-combustion could be applied to the cement production process (Zeman and Lackner, 2006) with a mixture of oxygen and recycled CO<sub>2</sub> being fed to the burner in the kiln, existing research into oxy-combustion has focused predominantly on the power generation industry. Literature on the application of the technology to the cement industry is limited and no pilot projects exist at present.

The available literature has highlighted the following issues that may affect the use of oxy-combustion in the cement manufacturing process (Hendriks *et al.*, 1998; IEA, 2004):

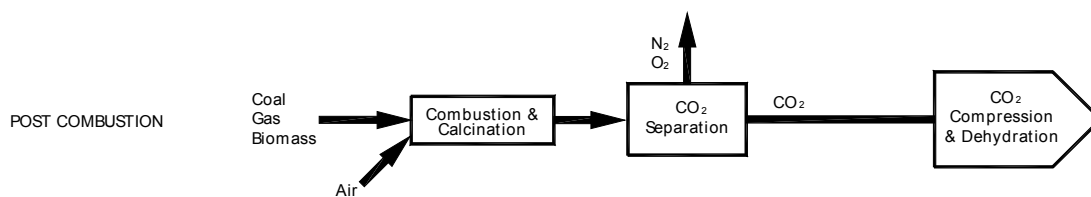
- A process redesign may be required in order to prevent excessive equipment wear. This may make the application of this technology as a retrofit solution difficult.
- Where a precalciner is used a second combustion point using recycled CO<sub>2</sub> may be required.
- Effects on the process chemistry need to be fully assessed. In particular, the impact of a change of the CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere on the calcination process must be fully understood. If, for example, a higher partial CO<sub>2</sub> pressure required a higher temperature to complete reactions this may shift more of the process into the kiln rather than the precalciner, since heat transfer is less efficient in the kiln this may reduce production capacities at a plant.
- Whether or not the process can be sufficiently free of in-leaks to prevent air dilution of the concentrated CO<sub>2</sub> stream.
- During periods of start-up there may not be enough CO<sub>2</sub> from exhaust gases to recycle for flame cooling which may result in onsite CO<sub>2</sub> storage being required. It should be noted that recent developments for oxy-combustion power plants indicate that start up would normally be done using air with the flue gas being vented before switching over to recycled flue gas and oxygen. Hence, this would only be an issue if it was not environmentally acceptable to vent the flue gas during start-up.

All these factors will be discussed further in section 4.5.

### 3.3.4 Post-combustion

Post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture adds a CO<sub>2</sub> removal stage onto the process of flue gas clean-up. Rather than being discharged directly to the atmosphere the flue gas is passed through equipment that separates out CO<sub>2</sub> which is then stored while the remaining flue gas is discharged to the atmosphere (Figure 3-4). CO<sub>2</sub> separation technologies are already widely applied in industrial manufacturing processes, refining and gas processing and it is expected that they could be applied to post-combustion capture of CO<sub>2</sub> from cement manufacturing flue gases.

**Figure 3-4: Post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Process for Cement Manufacture (Adapted from IPCC, 2005)**



The post combustion capture of CO<sub>2</sub> from a flue gas can be achieved by a variety of different methods. The leading commercial technologies utilise a chemical process, that offers a high capture efficiency, selectivity and the lowest energy use and costs when compared with other existing and emerging capture processes. These capture technologies are reviewed in section 3.4.2.

Given the high CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in cement plant flue gas (15-30%) post-combustion capture appears, on the one hand, to be well suited to use at a cement plant. However, some commentators (Thambimuthu, 2006; IEA GHG, 1999) have argued that chemical solvent scrubbing is not suited for use at a cement plant since the large quantities of low grade heat required for solvent regeneration are not generally available at a cement works. They suggest that given these constraints oxy- rather than post-combustion capture is a more attractive CO<sub>2</sub> capture route. In contrast, a recent concept study by Hegerland *et al.* (2006) which looked at retrofitting capture technologies to an existing cement works in Norway concluded that, given the stage of development of alternatives, post-combustion capture using amine solvents is the only viable option.

## 3.4 Types of CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Technology

### 3.4.1 Introduction

There are four basic approaches to capturing CO<sub>2</sub> from process streams (Figure 3-5). These are as follows:

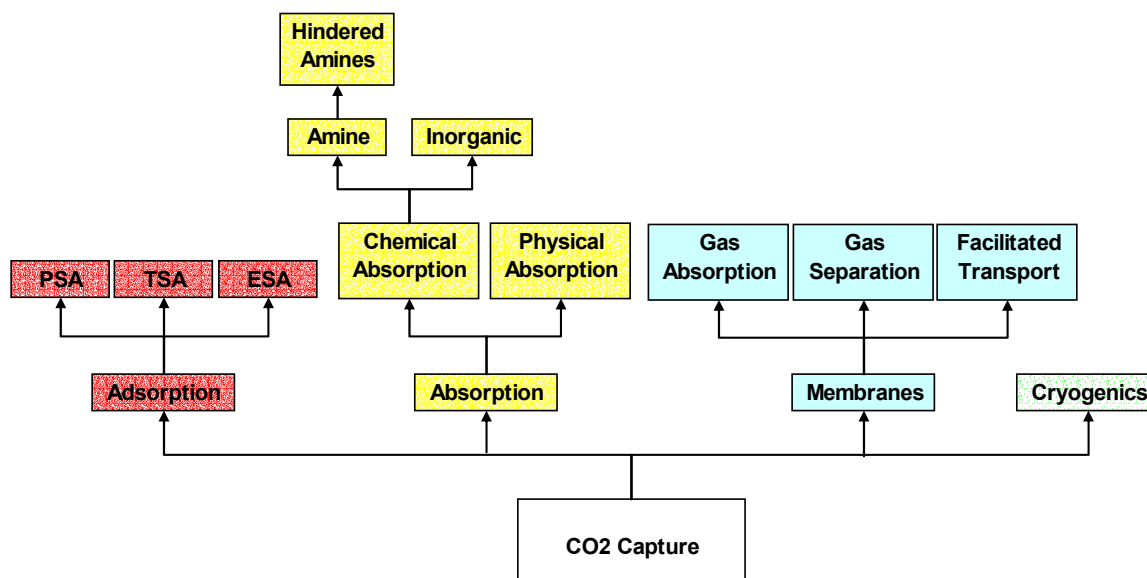
- separation with chemical/physical solvents (absorption)
- adsorption
- separation with membranes
- cryogenic separation.

The use of chemical or physical solvents to separate CO<sub>2</sub> is considered to be a commercially available technology and is widely used while adsorption, membranes and cryogenic separation are considered



developing technologies and although used in niche applications are not considered commercially available for carbon capture at large scale power or cement plants. These commercial capture technologies are reviewed below and the developing technologies are briefly discussed.

**Figure 3-5: Types of CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Technology (Adapted from Gupta *et al.*, 2003)**

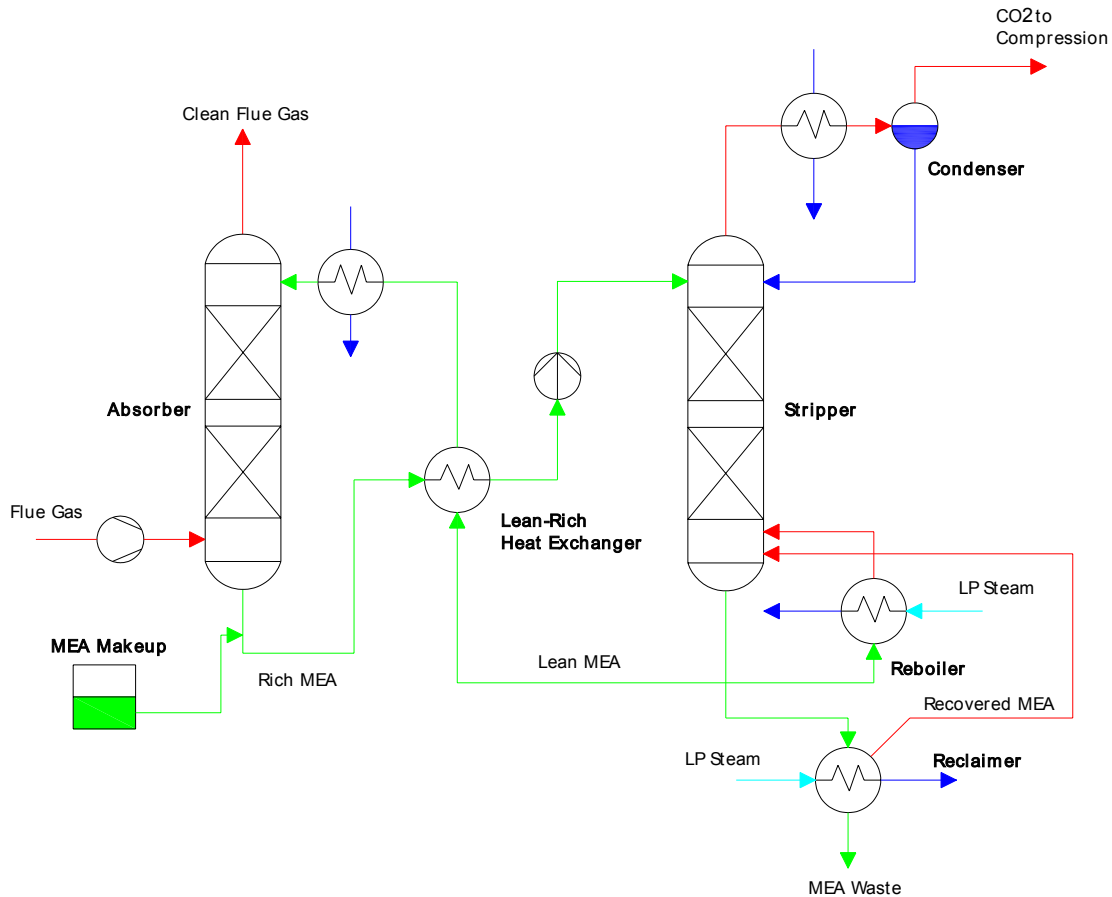


### 3.4.2 Leading CO<sub>2</sub> Separation Technologies

#### (i) Chemical Solvent Scrubbing

Chemical solvent scrubbing is currently the most widely used method for capturing CO<sub>2</sub> from low pressure and low concentration flue gases. The majority of chemical solvents are amine based and the most widely used is Monoethanolamine (MEA). Since CO<sub>2</sub> is an acid gas, alkaline solvents like MEA will form chemical bonds with it. This property can be used to absorb CO<sub>2</sub> from a flue gas stream. Once the CO<sub>2</sub> has been absorbed from the flue gas, heat can be applied to the absorbent to release the CO<sub>2</sub> for storage while simultaneously regenerating the solvent for reuse in the process.

A process flow diagram for a commercial MEA absorption system is shown in Figure 3-6. The flue gas is first cleaned of particulates and other impurities. It then moves into the absorption vessel where it is brought into contact with the absorber at temperatures of between 40 and 60°C allowing CO<sub>2</sub> to chemically react with the solvent to form a loosely bound intermediate compound. The CO<sub>2</sub> 'rich' solvent is then fed into the top of the stripper column, via a heat exchanger, and heat is applied (100-140°C) to remove the chemically bound CO<sub>2</sub> from the solvent. This produces a CO<sub>2</sub> stream and regenerates the original solvent which can be recycled back to the absorption vessel via a heat exchanger and a cooler. In most industrial applications heat is supplied via steam taken from a steam cycle. Typical CO<sub>2</sub> recovery is between 80-95% with a product purity in excess of 99% (Rao and Rubin, 2002).

**Figure 3-6: CO<sub>2</sub> Recovery from Flue Gas by Chemical Absorption (Wolf *et al.*, 2006)**

Chemical solvent scrubbing has been used for decades in the chemical and oil industries and has begun to be applied tentatively in power generation facilities. Although the technology has yet to be applied to large scale power facilities or have had any application in the cement industry the process itself is considered to be commercially available and could be used to treat cement flue gases should the right incentives exist.

The major disadvantages with the use of MEA and other amine solvents are:

- A low carbon dioxide loading capacity - 0.4 kgCO<sub>2</sub>/kgMEA (Yeh and Pennline, 2004).
- High energy consumption during absorbent regeneration (Herzog *et al.*, 1997; Turkenburg and Hendriks, 1999; David and Herzog, 2000).
- A high equipment corrosion rate unless additives are used.
- High solvent degradation rates in the presence of a range flue gas constituents including SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub>.
- Removal (by filtration) and disposal or regeneration of solid salts formed when the MEA combines with SO<sub>x</sub> or NO<sub>2</sub>.

- Consumption of activated carbon used for removal of degradation products to prevent the acceleration of the solvent degradation processes – typically around 0.075 kg activated carbon per tonne CO<sub>2</sub> (Chapel *et al.*, 1999).

To improve the performance of amine solvents, sterically hindered amines have been developed which can require less energy for absorption and regeneration and have higher CO<sub>2</sub> loading capacity than MEA. KS-1, a proprietary sterically hindered amine, has been used in a commercial gas scrubbing operation in Malaysia since 1999 to produce a pure CO<sub>2</sub> stream for urea production (Mimura *et al.*, 2000). The KS-1 solvent scrubbing process uses 2.7 MJ/kg CO<sub>2</sub> of steam compared to approximately 3.7 MJ/kg CO<sub>2</sub> (IPCC, 2005). Other chemicals can be added to amines to improve performance.

Inorganic alternatives to amine based scrubbers are also commercially available including the use of potassium carbonate combined with a promoter.

In search of even greater efficiency novel process designs and alternatives to chemical scrubbers are being investigated. These emerging technologies are briefly discussed in section 3.4.3.

## (ii) Physical Solvent Scrubbing

During physical solvent scrubbing, CO<sub>2</sub> from a gas stream is weakly absorbed by the solvent under conditions of high pressure and released when the pressure is reduced to allow solvent regeneration. The most commonly used physical solvent is Selexol consisting of dimethylethers of polyethylene glycol. Alternatives include cold methanol (Rectisol), N-methyl-2-pyrrolidone (Purisol) and propylene carbonate (Fluor solvent). These physical solvents have a relatively low affinity for NO<sub>x</sub> and O<sub>2</sub>. However, SO<sub>2</sub> is readily absorbed and must be removed from a gas stream prior to physical solvent use. Physical solvent scrubbing is best applied to pressurised gas streams containing high concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> and is generally not considered suitable for post-combustion capture. They are better suited for application at an Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle (IGCC) pre-combustion capture plant where the fuel gases contain CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations of 35-40% and are at high pressures.

Although cement kiln flue gases have a relatively high CO<sub>2</sub> concentration (15-30%) they emerge at atmospheric pressure and thus would require considerable energy input for pressurisation before physical solvents could be usefully applied. As such physical solvent scrubbing is not considered suitable to clean up the flue gas from a conventional cement plant. An exception may be where an oxy-combustion process (as described in Section 3.3.3) was first applied which would result in very high CO<sub>2</sub> flue gas concentrations (Croiset and Thambimuthu, 1999; McDonald and Palkes, 1999; Wolsky *et al.*, 1994).

**(iii) Hybrid Chemical/Physical Solvents**

Under certain conditions a combination of chemical and physical solvents may be efficiently used. The Sulfinol and the Amisol processes are examples of this hybrid solvent approach and are currently used to remove CO<sub>2</sub> and sulphur from coal syngas.

A summary of the commercially available CO<sub>2</sub> solvents is given in Table 3-1.

Absorption process	Solvent	Process conditions
<b>Physical solvents</b>		
Rectisol	Methanol	-10/-70°C, >2 MPa
Purisol	n-2-methyl-2-pyrrolidone	-20/+40°C, >2 MPa
Selexol	Dimethyl ethers of polyethyleneglycol	-40 °C, 2-3 MPa
Fluor solvent	Propylene carbonate	Below ambient temperatures, 3.1-6.9 MPa
<b>Chemical solvents</b>		
<i>Organic (amine based)</i>		
MEA	2,5 n monoethanolamine and inhibitors	40 °C, ambient-intermediate pressures
Amine guard	5n monoethanolamine and inhibitors	40 °C, ambient-intermediate pressures
Econamine	6n diglycolamine	80-120°C, 6.3 MPa
ADIP	2-4n diisopropanolamine 2n methyldiethanolamine	35-40°C, >0.1 MPa
MDEA	2n methyldiethanolamine	
Flexsorb, KS-1, KS-2, KS-3	Hindered amine	
<i>Inorganic</i>		
Benfield and versions	Potassium carbonate and catalysts. Lurgi and Catacarb processes with arsenic trioxide	70-120°C, 2.2-7 MPa
<b>Physical/chemical solvents</b>		
Sulfinol-D, Sulfinol M	Mixture of DIPA or MDEA, water and tetrahydrothiopene (DIPAM) or diethylamine	>0.5 MPa
Amisol	Mixture of methanol and MEA, DEA, diisopropylamine (DIPAM) or diethylamine	5/40°C, >1 MPa

**Table 3-1: Commercially Available CO<sub>2</sub> Scrubbing Solvents (Gupta *et al.*, 2003)**

### 3.4.3 Developing CO<sub>2</sub> Separation and Capture Technologies

As well as investigating novel physical/chemical solvents and potential improvements to the absorption process a number of speculative capture technologies are currently being explored. It is hoped that these developing technologies may offer cheaper and more efficient ways of capturing CO<sub>2</sub>. These developing approaches to CO<sub>2</sub> capture are described below.

#### (i) Absorption

Novel technologies are being investigated in order to improve, complement or replace the chemical and physical absorption techniques previously described. Innovative designs are being investigated with regards to the packing process (Aroonwilas *et al.*, 2003), the increase of aqueous MEA concentrations (Aboudheir *et al.*, 2003) and the prevention of oxidative degradation of MEA by deoxygenation of the solvent solutions (Chakravarti *et al.*, 2001).

Besides novel process designs, various novel solvents are also being tested with the aim of reducing energy consumption for solvent regeneration (Chakma, 1995; Chakma and Tontiwachwuthikul, 1999; Cullinane and Rochelle, 2003; and IEA, 2004). One of the most promising of these new solvents is aqueous ammonia.

Although research on its use for CO<sub>2</sub> capture is at an early stage there have been a number of papers and articles published highlighting several important perceived advantages that aqueous ammonia has over amine scrubbers and MEA in particular. These include:

- The CO<sub>2</sub> removal efficiency of aqueous ammonia is higher than MEA (99% compared to 94%) (Yeh *et al.*, 2002)
- The CO<sub>2</sub> loading capacity of aqueous ammonia is 3 times that of MEA (1.2kgCO<sub>2</sub> /kg NH<sub>3</sub> compared to 0.40 kgCO<sub>2</sub> /kg MEA) (Yeh and Pennline, 2004)
- NH<sub>3</sub> solution is also significantly cheaper by weight than MEA which, when combined with its better efficiency, make it over 12.5 times cheaper, in terms of chemical make-up costs, than MEA (Ciferno *et al.*, 2005)
- The thermal energy requirement is approximately 50% less in a dual alkali system using ammonia to absorb CO<sub>2</sub> and anion exchange resins to regenerate ammonia for reuse than using amine to absorb CO<sub>2</sub> and steam stripping to dissociate the resulting carbamates (Huang and Chang, 2002)
- Aqueous ammonia could be used to capture all three major acid gases (SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, and CO<sub>2</sub>) simultaneously since, unlike MEA, it does not suffer from absorbent degradation problems in the presence of SO<sub>2</sub> or O<sub>2</sub>. This is expected to reduce the total cost of and complexity of emission control systems (Yeh and Pennline, 2004).

Though a promising future replacement for amine based scrubbing, challenges remain to the use of ammonia in this manner. As a result of ammonia's high volatility it will tend to vaporise in the absorption tower and escape with the flue gas (commonly referred to as 'ammonia slip'). To mitigate this the absorption process must take place at either elevated pressure or very low temperature and additional tail gas control measures will be necessary. The regeneration of the ammonia solvent will take place at an elevated pressure (Wolf *et al.*, 2006). Given these uncertainties laboratory-scale

testing and more rigorous process analysis and modelling will be required before ammonia based solvents can be utilised on a commercial basis.

## (ii) Adsorption

In the adsorption process, CO<sub>2</sub> from a gas stream fix to the surface of a solid sorbent by either chemical or physical processes and are thereby removed from the gas stream. For applications to CO<sub>2</sub> capture, adsorbing beds of alumina, zeolite and activated carbon are currently the most effective sorbents. Though promising, this technology incurs the costs of removing the adsorbed gas, which is energy intensive (Anderson and Newell, 2003).

The main types of adsorption processes are as follows:

- Temperature swing adsorption (TSA)
- Pressure swing adsorption (PSA)
- Electric swing adsorption (ESA).

In PSA, the gas mixture flows through packed beds of spherical materials at elevated pressures and low temperatures until the adsorption of the desired component approaches equilibrium conditions at the bed exit and the adsorbent is regenerated by reducing the pressure. In TSA, heat is used to regenerate adsorbents by raising their temperature (Hassan, 2005). PSA and TSA are commercially used for gas separation and in the removal of CO<sub>2</sub> from natural gas, though TSA requires more energy, time for regeneration and larger adsorbent beds (Hassan, 2005; IPCC, 2005). It is understood that PSA requires high feed partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> or a vacuum regeneration step to desorb CO<sub>2</sub>. PSA is used for treating 5 bar pressure process off-gas from the COREX iron making facility at Saldana Bay, South Africa. Though not yet commercially available, ESA is said to offer the prospect of lower energy consumption than PSA and TSA (Hassan, 2005). In ESA, regeneration takes place by passing a low voltage electric current through the adsorbing material (Hassan, 2005). TSA, PSA and ESA generally require the gases to be cooled and dried, thereby limiting the attractiveness of this technology (IPCC, 2005), although it is understood that the PSA process referred to at Saldana Bay, South Africa does not utilise gas drying. Adsorption is not yet considered attractive for large-scale separation of CO<sub>2</sub> from flue gases because the capacity and CO<sub>2</sub> selectivity of available absorbents is low (Gupta *et al.*, 2003), new sorbents with improved performance characteristics are needed to make this approach to CO<sub>2</sub> capture commercially viable.

One such novel sorbent is CaO. The use of CaO as a sorbent to separate CO<sub>2</sub> from gas streams entails the carbonation reaction of CaO to separate CO<sub>2</sub> from hot gases and the regeneration of the sorbent by calcining the CaCO<sub>3</sub> into CaO and pure CO<sub>2</sub>. This carbonation-calcination cycle was successfully tested in experimental settings (Abanades *et al.*, 2004; Grasa and Abanades, 2006), at a pilot plant (Curran *et al.*, 1967) and in a post-combustion system (Shimizu *et al.*, 1999). This process is not suitable for CO<sub>2</sub> capture at a cement plant as the CaO produced at the cement plant is produced by calcining CaCO<sub>3</sub>. Therefore, there is no CO<sub>2</sub> emission reduction available by this route.

## (iii) Membrane Separation

Membranes are specially manufactured materials that allow the selective passage of a gas through them; a process that depends on the nature of the materials and the pressure difference across the

membrane itself which favours high-pressure streams. Although this technology has not yet been applied in large-scale and demanding industrial settings, a considerable research effort is in progress to make it more applicable (IEA, 2004; IPCC, 2005). The main membrane technologies are described below.

### **Gas separation membranes**

Gas separation membranes have the potential of capturing CO<sub>2</sub>, depending on the permeability and selectivity of the membrane. The applicability of this technology to CO<sub>2</sub> capture is thus ideal for a concentrated CO<sub>2</sub> source stream with few contaminant gases, flowing through a permeable membrane that is highly selective with respect to CO<sub>2</sub>. These conditions would only apply to the oxy-combustion capture model for the cement industry. Despite the high concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> in cement plant flue gas, applications of this technology for post-combustion capture would require a multistage process requiring a large number of membranes that would substantially increase capital costs (Anderson and Newell, 2003).

Though most have been used only in research laboratory settings, common types of gas separation membranes include polymer, palladium, and molecular sieve membranes (Riemer *et al.*, 1993). Gas separation membranes are likely to play a key role in CO<sub>2</sub> capture systems in the future as their energy efficiency can be higher than for absorption separation systems (IEA, 2004).

### **Gas absorption membranes**

In gas absorption, a microporous membrane keeps the gas and liquid flows separate by acting as a contacting device between gas mixtures and liquid absorbents (such as MEA solvents), thereby increasing the efficiency of physical or chemical absorption.

In contrast to gas separation, it is the absorption liquid and not the membrane that determines the process' selectivity. This technology minimises entrapment and foaming, in addition to capital costs due to its compacted nature (Miesen and Shuai, 1997; Hassan, 2005) but is limited to gas streams and absorption liquids of similar pressure levels (Anderson and Newell, 2003).

### **Facilitated transport membranes**

These membranes rely on the formation of complexes or reversible chemical reactions of components present in a gas stream with compounds present in the membrane which are then transported through the membrane. Carbozymes (Trachtenberg *et al.*, 2007), amines and molten salt hydrates have been suggested for CO<sub>2</sub> separations with porous membranes used for support. These membranes have only been tested on a laboratory scale and are fraught with limitations related to membrane selectivity and saturation but could be used in a pre-concentration step as part of other capture processes (IPCC, 2005).

## **(iv) Cryogenic Separation**

Cryogenic separation involves the compression and cooling of gas mixtures in multiple stages to induce phase changes in CO<sub>2</sub> and other gases which allow them to be separated. Studies by Herzog *et al.* (1997) have shown this process to be most effective with gases containing components with very different boiling points. This is not typical of gas streams in the cement industry. Furthermore, the behaviour of CO<sub>2</sub> itself is complicated and can lead to the formation of solids that damage equipment and reduce heat transfer rates. Cryogenic separation could be effective for large and highly

concentrated source streams of CO<sub>2</sub>, which compensate for the high energy demand of such a process (Anderson and Newell, 2003).

In the future, the most promising applications of cryogenics are predicted for the separation of CO<sub>2</sub> in oxyfuel combustion in which the input gas has high concentrations of CO<sub>2</sub> or from high-pressure gases such as in pre-combustion capture processes (Hassan, 2005).

### **Clathrate Hydrate**

While clathrate hydrates have the potential to impede the cryogenic processes described above, their formation could be used to separate CO<sub>2</sub> from gas mixtures. With more research, this could be achieved by combining CO<sub>2</sub> and water at various combinations of high pressure and low temperature, leading to the formation of clathrate hydrate crystals that can be separated from other gases, transported as slurry and stored in a dedicated location (Chargin and Socolow, 1997).

## **(v) Emerging Air Separation Technologies**

The production of a large quantity of concentrated O<sub>2</sub> is a vital and currently expensive step in the process of oxy-combustion, in particular. There are a number of emerging air separation technologies that may, in the future, lead to more efficient O<sub>2</sub> production and thus make oxy-combustion more attractive. These emerging technologies are discussed briefly below.

### **Ion Transport Membranes**

The use of membrane technologies for the production of oxygen is an emerging alternative to cryogenic air separation which may, if proven, make oxy-combustion a more attractive process. Ion Transport Membranes (ITMs) are semi permeable ceramic mixed metal oxide membranes that can be used to separate oxygen from a stream of heated air. A voltage or pressure differential across the membranes causes oxygen ions from the airflow to migrate through the membrane where, on the other side, they recombine to form oxygen gas and electrons (Bredesden *et al.*, 2004). These membranes operate at temperatures similar to those of the tertiary air drawn from the cooler for combustion in the precalciner of a modern cement kiln (Clark, 2006) and as such offer potential for integration into cement manufacturing process. If membrane technologies are effective at larger scales then they may offer a more efficient alternative to cryogenic air separation (Stein and Foster, 2001).

### **Chemical Looping Combustion**

An alternative to having to produce a separate stream of oxygen to be used in an oxy-combustion process is Chemical Looping Combustion (CLC) first proposed by Richter and Knoche (1983). The concept is based on the use of a metal/metal oxide system to provide a reversible chemical reaction for oxygen supply. Fuel combustion is split into separate oxidation and reduction reactions in two reactors. In one reactor a suitable metal reacts with air to produce a metal oxide, which is then circulated to the other reactor where it reacts with the fuel to produce syngas and a metal (that can be recycled back into the process). This so called 'flameless combustion' avoids the need for energy intensive air separation to provide a pure oxygen supply. Although the concept of CLC has been around for over 25 years it has only been applied in a laboratory and has never been tested on a commercial scale – as such it should be considered a speculative technology (IPPC, 2005).



## **4 Evaluation of CO<sub>2</sub> Capture at a New-Build Cement Plant**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This section of the Report describes the detailed technical evaluation of applying CO<sub>2</sub> capture to a new-build cement plant. Both post-combustion and oxy-combustion capture have been studied. Outline designs including mass and energy balances have been prepared for both options. The performance of the cement plants with CO<sub>2</sub> capture is described.

### **4.2 Design Basis**

The design basis for the study was as follows:

- The capacity of the cement plant was 1 Mt/y of cement. This is typical of a modern European cement plant.
- The cement plant is a 5-stage preheater with precalciner dry process cement plant. This was chosen as the best available technique (BAT) for the production of cement clinker for new plants and major upgrades is considered to be a dry process kiln with multi-stage preheating and precalcination (EC, 2001).
- The plant is located in NE Scotland, UK. It should be noted that the IEA GHG's standard site location of the NE coast of The Netherlands was not used due to the absence of cement plants in this region of Europe. The location of NE Scotland was considered more realistic particularly due to its proximity to the North Sea oilfields which have been proposed as potential CO<sub>2</sub> storage locations. The ambient conditions of the site in Scotland were assumed to be the same as those for IEA GHG's standard site in The Netherlands.
- The fuel to the plant is 60% coal and 40% petroleum coke. This is typical although due to rising costs the use of petroleum coke is reducing in the UK. Due to the heat balance a fuel ratio of 65% coal and 35% petroleum coke was accepted in the oxy-combustion case as described later.
- The cement plant is located adjacent to a limestone quarry.

### **4.3 Assumptions**

The main technical assumptions used for this study were based on the IEA GHG R&D programme Technical & Financial Assessment Criteria (IEA GHG, 2003). These have been developed for the technical and financial assessment of power plants with CO<sub>2</sub> capture. Discussions were held with the BCA to modify some of the assumptions to be relevant to the cement industry.

The key points are summarised below:

#### **Site Conditions**

- Ambient air temperature: 9 °C

- Ambient air relative humidity: 60%
- Ambient air pressure: 1.013 bar

**Operational hours**

- Days of operation per year: 330
- Hours of operation per day: 24

**Raw meal**

- Moisture content: 8% (w/w)
- Sulphur content: 0.33% (w/w – dry basis)

**Raw mill**

- Moisture content of raw meal exiting raw mill: 1% (w/w)
- Air in-leaks in raw mill: 0.5 kg/kg clinker

**Preheater**

- Air in-leaks in preheater: 0.13 kg/kg clinker

**Precalciner**

- It is assumed that the precalciner is fed with coal only.

**Kiln**

- It is assumed that the kiln is fed with petroleum coke only.
- Air in-leaks in kiln inlet: 0.15 kg/kg clinker
- Air in-leaks in kiln outlet: 0.05 kg/kg clinker

**Coal**

- The coal specification is presented in Appendix A.

**Petroleum coke**

- The petroleum coke specification is presented in Appendix B.

**Fuel drying**

- Moisture content of dried coal: 1% (w/w)
- Moisture content of dried petroleum coke: 1% (w/w)

**Cement product**

- Clinker composition in cement: 91% (w/w)
- Gypsum composition in cement: 4% (w/w)
- Limestone composition in cement: 5% (w/w)

**Flue gas composition**

- Fraction of NO<sub>2</sub> in NO<sub>x</sub>: 10% (w/w)

**CO<sub>2</sub> processing**

- For consistency with other IEA GHG studies the minimum CO<sub>2</sub> capture level is 80% with the preferred level 85%. However, a lower percentage capture was accepted in the oxy-combustion case as described later.
- CO<sub>2</sub> is to be compressed to 110 bara before injection into the transfer pipeline.

**O<sub>2</sub> purity**

- The O<sub>2</sub> purity supplied by the Air Separation Unit (ASU) was specified at 95% (v/v), this figure being derived from previous studies (IEA GHG, 2005) as the optimum purity associated with oxy-combustion power plant given tramp air ingress.
- N<sub>2</sub> content in O<sub>2</sub> supplied by Air Separation Unit (ASU): 2% (v/v)
- Argon content in O<sub>2</sub> supplied by Air Separation Unit (ASU): 3% (v/v)

**Seawater**

- It is assumed that seawater is available for cooling. Direct cooling is used for large compressor intercoolers and an indirect cooling system is used for other process coolers.
- Average inlet temperature of seawater cooling water: 12 °C
- Maximum temperature rise: 7 °C
- Salinity: 22 g/l

**4.4 Evaluation of Post-Combustion CO<sub>2</sub> Capture****4.4.1 Overview**

For this study, CO<sub>2</sub> absorption using MEA was selected as the preferred technology for post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture. As such, the design, technical issues and process descriptions are based around this technology. The selection of MEA is made on the basis of commercial acceptance for this proven chemical solvent. It should be recognised that substantial scope may exist for future designs using more economic post-combustion capture technologies being developed in the power sector.

#### 4.4.2 Major Technical Issues

The addition of post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture to a cement plant involves overcoming some major technical issues if an efficient and cost effective solution is to be delivered. A typical cement plant operates in such a way that will allow the incorporation of the capture equipment with limited modifications to the existing plant. However, the following issues must be considered:

##### (i) Sulphur Dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>)

Sulphur oxides (SO<sub>x</sub>) can be produced in the cement production process from two different sources; either from the raw meal itself or from the fuel. Any sulphides (e.g. pyrite or marcasite) present in the raw meal will be oxidised when exposed to heat and oxygen in the precalciner or the kiln. SO<sub>x</sub> are also produced from the combustion of coal or pet-coke. The sulphur in the fuel reacts in the same way as the sulphides in the raw meal to produce SO<sub>x</sub>. Both these processes mainly occur in the precalciner and the kiln. However, ordinarily in the cement process the majority of the SO<sub>x</sub> and other acidic gases are re-absorbed into the system in the raw mill and preheater. SO<sub>x</sub> emissions are not often of concern at modern cement plants, therefore, as such emissions result almost exclusively from the oxidation of the sulphides in the raw mill occurring in the upper stages of the pre-heater. Thus, cement plants using low sulphide minerals as the raw material have very low emissions of SO<sub>2</sub>, even as low as 10 mg/m<sup>3</sup>. For plants using raw meal with significant sulphide minerals, however, SO<sub>2</sub> emissions can be as high as 3,500 mg/m<sup>3</sup>.

The level of sulphides in the raw meal depends on the location of the source. For example, raw meal from Northern UK contains relatively higher levels of sulphides compared to the South of the country. As the location of the plant for this study is in the North East of Scotland and it is assumed that the raw material is sourced locally then Mott MacDonald has assumed a sulphide concentration of 0.33% (w/w) in the raw material for the cement plant.

When calcination occurs in the precalciner and kiln Mott MacDonald has assumed that all sulphur oxides are absorbed in the clinker. Additionally, the exit gas from the preheater contains some SO<sub>x</sub> which are partially absorbed in the raw mill.

The concentration of SO<sub>2</sub> in the flue gas from the cement process is important for post-combustion capture due to the nature of amines. Amines react with acidic compounds to form amine salts that will not dissociate in the amine stripping system. These amine salts must be removed from the amine solution and must be replaced with fresh make-up amine solution. Hence, the consumption (and cost) of amine within the amine absorption system is directly related to the concentration of SO<sub>2</sub> in the inlet gas. It is important, therefore, that the flue gas exposed to the amine has a very low concentration of SO<sub>2</sub> as amine solution is currently priced at around 1100 €/t. It has been reported that the SO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the inlet to the amine absorption process should be restricted to approximately 10 ppmv [@ 6% O<sub>2</sub>] if CO<sub>2</sub> absorption using amine is to be economic (Chapel *et al.*, 1999). This study has assumed that the flue gas should be treated to this level prior to the amine absorption system.

In the process flow scheme considered for this study SO<sub>2</sub> can also originate from another source: the auxiliary boiler required to produce steam for the stripper. The coal used in the CHP plant has an assumed sulphur content of 1.1% (w/w). The SO<sub>x</sub> that escapes through the raw mill and is produced by the auxiliary boiler is removed by a wet limestone flue gas desulphurisation (FGD) system. This system was chosen due to its demonstrated ability to achieve high levels of flue gas desulphurisation, as required for post-combustion capture, and its current application in cement plant in Eastern Scotland, similar to the design basis for this study. Wet limestone FGD is also currently the most

common way to mitigate SO<sub>x</sub> emissions in power plants, and benefits from current power sector trials of post-combustion capture.

Seawater FGD was also considered but it was considered that a higher level of SO<sub>2</sub> reduction could be achieved using the wet limestone technique. Further study of hybrid combinations of limestone FGD with seawater FGD or absorbent injection within the cement process is suggested to establish the most economic means of achieving these high levels of purity in cement plant applications.

Importantly, a by-product of the wet limestone process is gypsum which can be used later in the process to mix with the clinker to form the final cement product. The level of SO<sub>x</sub> reduction required will determine the amount of gypsum produced. For the process studied here approximately 50% of the gypsum required by the cement plant will be produced from reducing SO<sub>2</sub> emissions to the required level for economic amine absorption.

## **(ii) Nitrogen Dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>)**

NO<sub>x</sub> are formed as a result of the combustion of the fuel. It can be formed in two ways during combustion: thermal NO<sub>x</sub> is formed by the oxidation of the molecular nitrogen in the combustion air; and fuel NO<sub>x</sub> is formed from the oxidation of the nitrogen compounds in the fuel. The fuel nitrogen content assumed in this study is 1.5% (w/w) for pet-coke and 1.8% (w/w) for coal. In modern precalciner cement plants combustion occurs in both the precalciner and the kiln. The high temperatures involved in the rotary kiln combustion process cause a large amount of thermal NO<sub>x</sub> to be formed.

NO<sub>x</sub> are problematic for MEA absorption systems as they result in solvent degradation. The chief culprit in NO<sub>x</sub> is NO<sub>2</sub> which reacts to form nitric acid in the amine solvent and ultimately heat stable salts (Chapel *et al.*, 1999). However, typically less than 10% of the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from the cement process are NO<sub>2</sub> with the large majority being NO (Hegerland 2006; EC, 2001; Rushworth, 2008; and Leibacher, 2006) and only a fraction of the NO<sub>2</sub> is absorbed in the solvent (Knudsen *et al.*, 2006 and Iijima *et al.*, 2007). NO<sub>x</sub> emissions associated with cement kilns vary generally between <200 and 3000 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup> (EC, 2001) containing NO<sub>2</sub> emissions of 20-300 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup>. It is reported that the concentration of NO<sub>2</sub> in the flue gas should be restricted to approximately 41 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup> (20 ppmv at 6% O<sub>2</sub>) for economic post-combustion capture using amine (IEA GHG, 2004).

There are two main ways to reduce the NO<sub>x</sub> in a flue gas. These have been described in section 0. The most common way to mitigate NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from power plants is to use selective catalytic reduction (SCR). SCR has been applied in this study because SCR is generally capable of achieving greater levels of NO<sub>x</sub> reduction as compared to SNCR. This is a conservative approach and it is recognised that SNCR may be able to achieve the required levels of NO<sub>x</sub> reduction.

To apply SCR to the cement process requires some modification of existing cement plant equipment (described later in section 4.4.5).

## **(iii) Dust**

The cement process produces significant quantities of dust which are carried in the flue gas and are in the region of 3000 mg/m<sup>3</sup>. For a typical cement plant the main issues with dust are meeting the emission standards for dust and loss of end product (i.e. clinker). Both of these issues are mitigated

through the use of electrostatic precipitators (ESPs) or bag filters. Generally, the dust is removed from the exit flue gas and recycled with the raw meal in one of the storage silos.

The presence of dust can effect the operation of the SCR technology and the amine CO<sub>2</sub> absorber.

High dust conditions for SCR can cause problems with the dust sticking to the catalyst and clogging the system. The SCR unit will be located downstream (in the direction of the gas) of the preheater, which does not allow the reduction of dust levels prior to it. Therefore, the SCR unit must be designed to operate in a high dust environment. A pilot plant for high dust SCR is currently being tested in Monselice, Italy with reportedly positive results (Leibacher *et al.*, 2006). For this application a standard SCR unit for a power plant application has been modified to prevent clogging; the catalyst is manufactured with slightly larger holes in the honeycomb design and additional high pressure air blowers are fitted to remove dust sticking to the catalyst.

Dust also has a negative effect on the amine solution and causes wastage once it comes into contact with the amine. To operate post-combustion capture economically the dust level must be below 15 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup> (Chapel *et al.*, 1999). Both ESPs and bag filters are capable of removing 99.9% of the dust loading in the flue gas and are therefore appropriate for this application.

#### **(iv) Air Dilution**

Air in-leaks occur in the raw mill, preheater and kiln due to the pressure within the system operating at slightly below atmospheric. Excessive air in-leaks will result in contamination of the CO<sub>2</sub>-rich exhaust gas with nitrogen, oxygen and argon. This will increase the volume flow rate of the flue gas and reduce the CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. Both these factors will reduce the efficiency of the capture process and increase the operating costs. The air in-leaks have been included in the process model as they cannot be avoided.

#### **(v) Additional Power Requirements**

There will be additional power required for the compression of the CO<sub>2</sub>. Typically, this additional power requirement for compression of the CO<sub>2</sub> will be around 0.146 kWh/kgCO<sub>2</sub> (IEA GHG, 2005) In this study the total power requirement for the cement plant and the post-combustion capture plant will be supplied by an onsite CHP plant. The CHP plant will also meet the steam demand to strip the CO<sub>2</sub> from the MEA.

#### **(vi) Additional Steam Requirements**

One of the major technical issues with using MEA CO<sub>2</sub> capture is the large steam requirement. After the CO<sub>2</sub> has been absorbed by the MEA it then has to be regenerated by using heat in the stripper column. The heat is supplied from low pressure steam that can be generated by an auxiliary boiler or a power plant (either co-located or on-site). The steam conditions required are approximately 3.5 bara and 140 - 150°C at approximately 200 – 250 t/hr (for the cement application).

Another alternative could be to use a different post-combustion capture technology that does not have such a large steam demand. There are other techniques currently being developed but are not as commercially and technically advanced as MEA CO<sub>2</sub> capture. These alternatives are discussed in section 4.4.11.

**(vii) Reducing Conditions**

It is recognised that the clinker must not be generated in reducing conditions. This necessitates that an excess of oxygen is maintained in the process. The oxygen concentration is required to be >2% (w/w) in the preheater, precalciner and the kiln.

**(viii) Heat Reduction for MEA Absorption**

The flue gas leaves the cement process (at the raw mill) at approximately 110°C. This must be cooled to approximately 50°C to meet the ideal temperature required for CO<sub>2</sub> absorption in the MEA. This can be achieved by passing the flue gas through the FGD system. Due to the contact with the wet limestone slurry and the long residence time the temperature of the flue gas will drop to 45-50°C.

**(ix) Other Gases**

The oxygen content required for CO<sub>2</sub> absorption in the MEA is >1.5% (v/v) (Chapel *et al.*, 1999). This should not pose any issues for the cement plant considered in this study as the oxygen content in the flue gas after the raw mill is estimated to be 7.8% (v/v). Combined with the other exit gases from the fuel drying and CHP, the oxygen content drops down to 4.3% (v/v) but this is still significantly above the target value.

Hydrochloric acid (HCl) can be present in small quantities within cement flue gases; typical concentrations are around 8 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup> (Hegerland *et al.*, 2006). The presence of any acidic components such as HCl will reduce the efficiency of the MEA absorption process. HCl concentrations will be reduced by SCR and by FGD so concentrations should not pose a significant problem.

Total Organic Carbon (TOC) can also appear in similar quantities to HCl (~8 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup>) but should not affect CO<sub>2</sub> absorption in the MEA (Hegerland *et al.*, 2006).

**(x) Heat Integration**

Although the cement process has been highly optimised already, post-combustion capture offers a potential opportunity to maximise performance through heat recovery from the CO<sub>2</sub> compression system.

Although heat integration between the CO<sub>2</sub> compression plant and the cement plant could lead to energy savings it is important to understand that this may reduce the operational flexibility of the plant. There may be valid strategic reasons for having the capability to operate the cement plant without the CO<sub>2</sub> compression plant. Full heat integration may make this difficult to achieve.

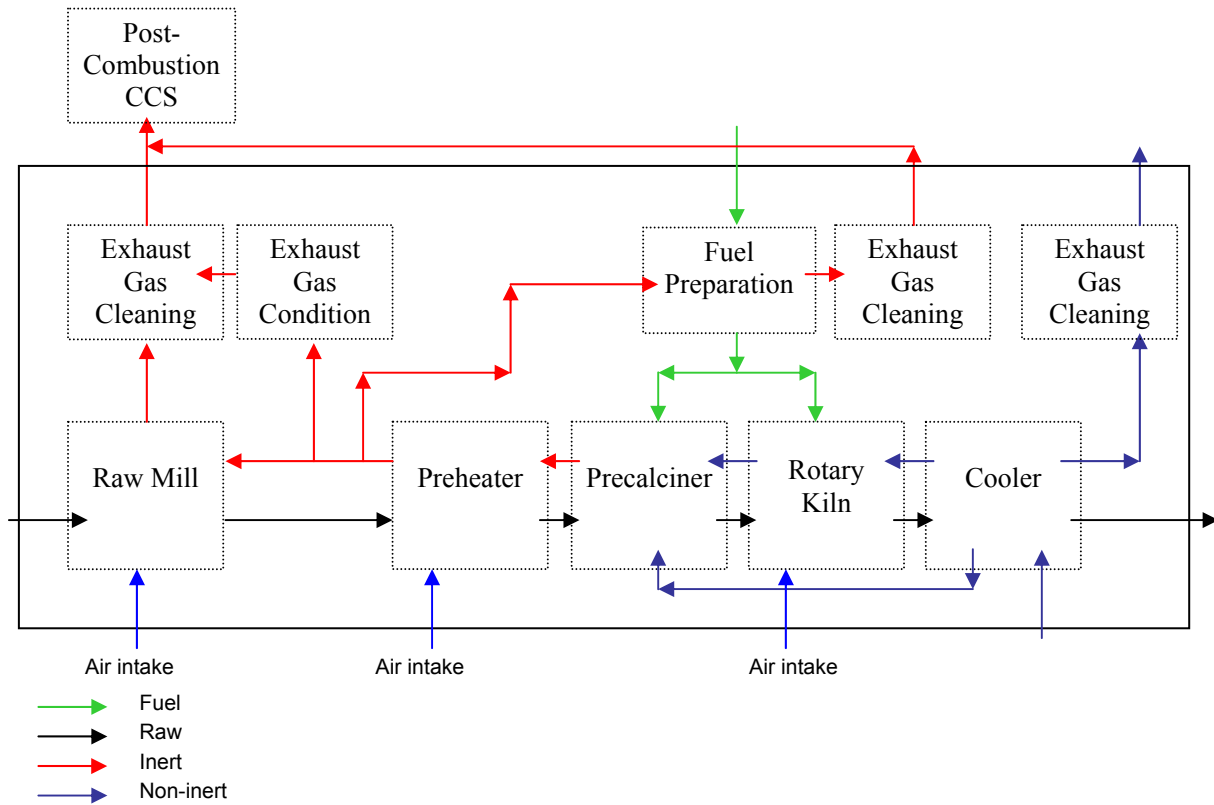
**4.4.3 Configurations Considered**

During the development of the conceptual design of a post-combustion cement plant several different configurations for CO<sub>2</sub> capture were considered and are illustrated in Figure 4-1 to Figure 4-4. They can be summarised as:

- **Configuration 1:** Capture of all flue gases from cement plant in existing orientation.
- **Configuration 2:** Diversion of preheater exit gases for fuel drying and subsequent capture.

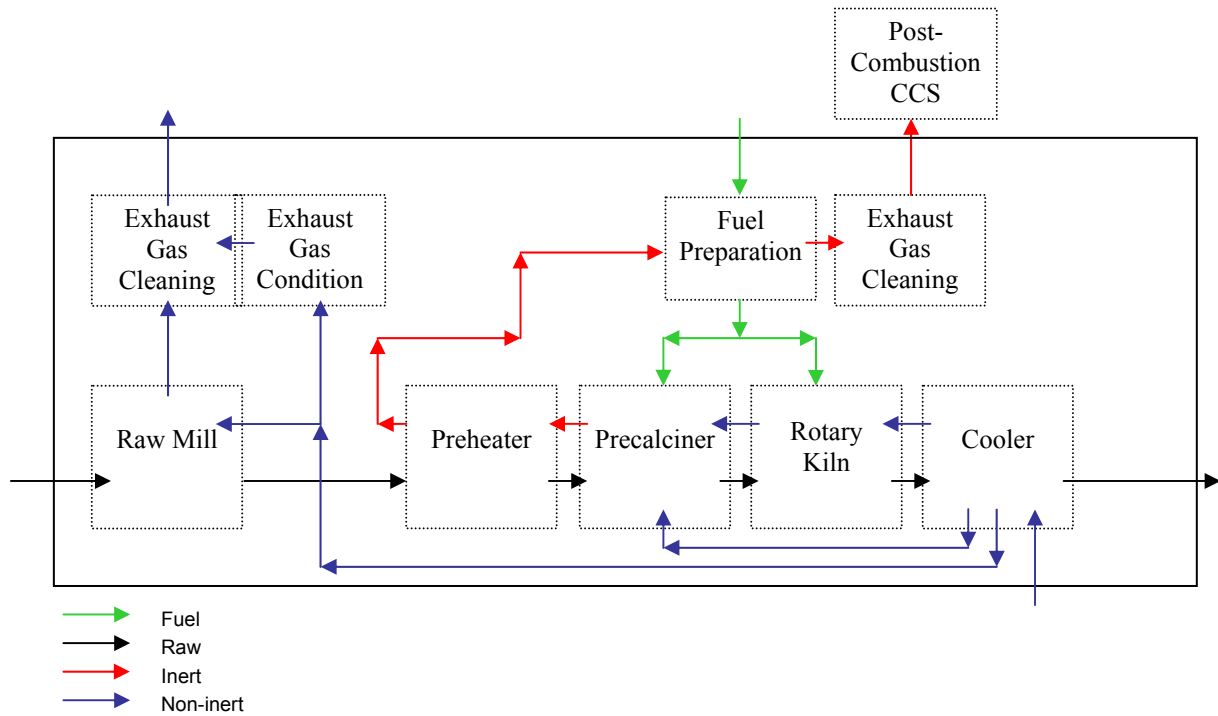
- **Configuration 3:** Diversion of cooler exhaust for fuel drying with capture of all other flue gases.
- **Configuration 4:** Dual preheaters with capture of gases only from the precalciner.

**Figure 4-1: Post-Combustion Cement Plant Configuration 1 - Capture of all Flue Gases from Cement Plant in Existing Orientation**

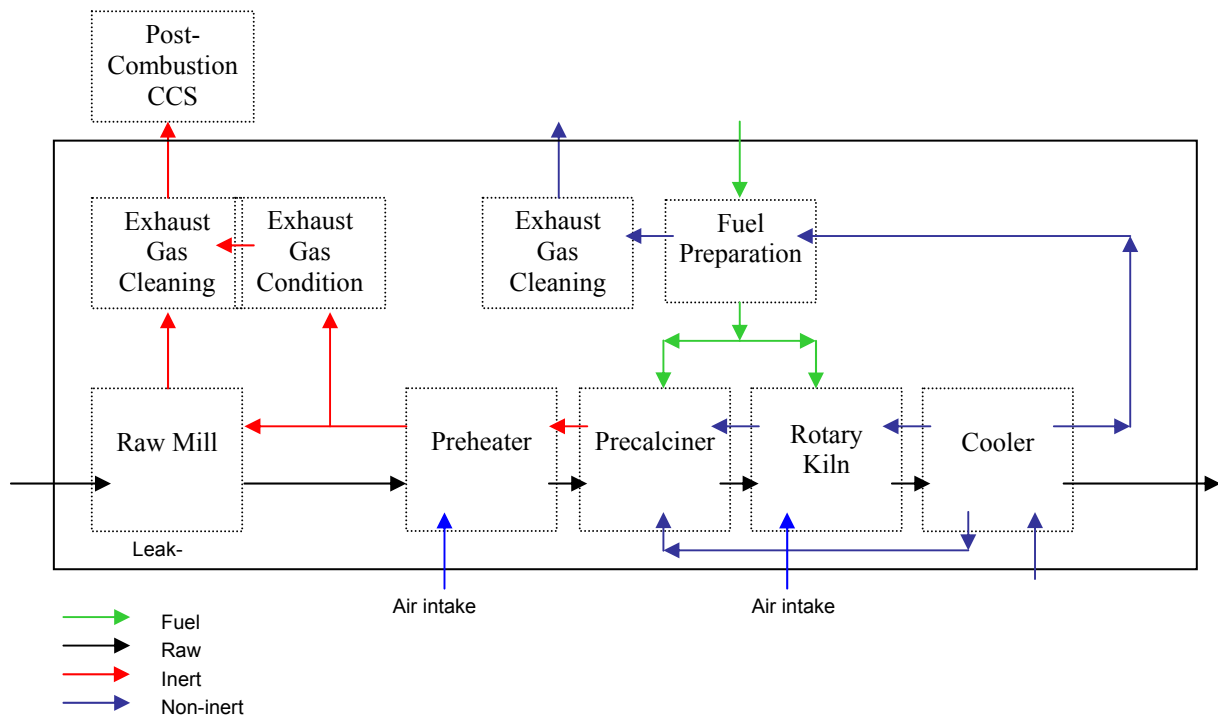




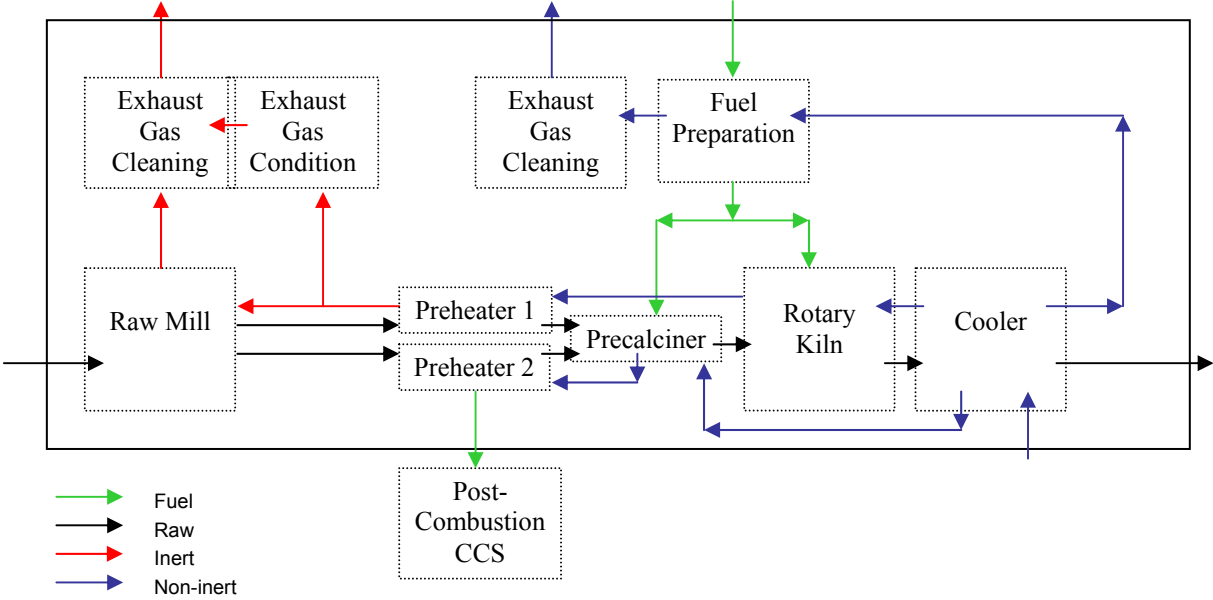
**Figure 4-2: Post-Combustion Cement Plant Configuration 2 - Diversion of Preheater Exit Gases for Fuel Drying and Subsequent Capture**



**Figure 4-3: Post-Combustion Cement Plant Configuration 3 - Diversion of Cooler Exhaust for Fuel Drying with Capture of all other Flue Gases**



**Figure 4-4: Post-Combustion Cement Plant Configuration 4 - Dual Preheaters with Capture of Gases only from the Precaliner**



The configurations are compared with a summary of their respective advantages and disadvantages shown in Table 4-1.

**Table 4-1: Comparison of Different Post-Combustion Configurations**

Configuration	1	2	3	4
<b>Advantages</b>	Can potentially capture all the CO <sub>2</sub> from the cement plant.  Does not affect the cement process.	Less gas will need to be separated from the CO <sub>2</sub> (possibly a higher CO <sub>2</sub> concentration), therefore lower Capex and Opex.  Air in-leaks from the raw mill are avoided	Using cooler excess air to dry fuel is already proven.	Air in-leaks from the raw mill are avoided.
<b>Disadvantages</b>	Air in-leaks reduce the efficiency of the process by diluting the flue gas.	Only applicable to plants where the raw mill is remote.  Not all the CO <sub>2</sub> has the potential to be captured.	Non-inert gas is used for drying the fuel. This can cause operational difficulties as it is a less safe mode of operation.  Air in-leaks will dilute the flue gas.	Dual pre-heaters required which makes retrofitting difficult.  Not all CO <sub>2</sub> is captured.
<b>Technical risk</b>	Low	Low	Low	Low

#### 4.4.4 Chosen Configuration

Configuration 1 was chosen for further evaluation because there is the possibility to capture all of the CO<sub>2</sub> emitted from the cement plant, it has minimal impact on the standard cement process (only the addition of SCR will affect the process directly) and it could easily be retrofitted to an existing plant. None of the other three options can offer all these advantages.

#### 4.4.5 Process Description

A detailed evaluation of configuration 1 was undertaken.

PFD 234996/PC/FS02 contained in Appendix D illustrates the major process units and process streams.

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**(i) Process Modelling**

Mott MacDonald and Whitehopleman developed a steady state mass and energy balance of the process using Excel. Each individual process unit was modelled. The mass flows into and out of each process unit were calculated based on simple performance equations derived from typical industry data or parameters. The energy flows were calculated using the basic thermodynamic properties of the components. Where necessary recycle loops were solved using an iterative approach.

The outputs of this exercise were the compositions of the individual streams contained in Appendix D.

**(ii) General Description**

PFD 234996/PC/FS02 contained in Appendix D shows the arrangement selected for the basis of this particular study. There are five key features that distinguish the process from a conventional cement plant:

- An SCR unit is fitted between the preheater and the raw mill for NO<sub>x</sub> abatement. The ammonia will be injected into the first stage of the preheater to increase the residence time of the reaction.
- An auxiliary boiler or CHP plant is required for the low pressure steam for MEA stripping. The CO<sub>2</sub> from this process will also be captured and will mix with the cement flue gas before the wet limestone FGD unit.
- An FGD unit is fitted to remove SO<sub>x</sub> from the flue gas stream.
- CO<sub>2</sub> capture equipment based on amine solvent separation is installed.
- The net CO<sub>2</sub> product is compressed, dried, the inerts separated and the pure CO<sub>2</sub> is further compressed to pipeline pressure of 110 bara.

A more detailed process description is described below:

**(iii) Raw Material Preparation**

Limestone is extracted from the adjacent limestone quarry by drilling and blasting. The blasted limestone is loaded onto haul trucks by wheel loaders and hauled to the crusher. The crusher is a double rotator hammer crusher rated at 1000 tph and capable of producing limestone of the required size of less than 90mm in a single pass through the crusher. Crushed limestone is conveyed to a longitudinal prehomogenisation stockpile where it is stacked together with the shale secondary raw material using the windrow technique.

The shale secondary raw material is imported to a primary stockpile from which it is loaded to a hammer crusher rated at 250 tph. Crushed shale is delivered onto the crushed limestone conveyor belt and the two raw materials are delivered together to the prehomogenisation stockpile. The mixture of raw materials passes through a prompt gamma neutron activation analysis (PGNAA) cross-belt analyser. This PGNAA analyser determines the composition of the mixture of raw materials allowing the proportions of limestone and shale in the mixture to be adjusted to required chemistry targets by varying the feed rates to the limestone and shale crushers.

Raw material crushing operations are carried out on a day work basis, working eight hours per day for five days per week. The prehomogenisation stockpile comprises two longitudinal beds of 35,000 tonnes capacity each, providing sufficient crushed raw materials for more than 7 days raw milling operations. One stockpile is built while the other is reclaimed to the raw mill on successive weeks. Power consumption of the raw material crushing, stacking and reclaiming operations totals 2 kWh/t of clinker produced from the kiln.

#### **(iv) Raw Mill**

The premixed raw materials are extracted to a premix bin which feeds the vertical roller mill for raw grinding. Additional corrective raw material feed bins are provided for sand and iron oxide. These materials are imported to primary stockpiles and loaded into the raw mill feed bins via apron feeders and conveyor belts, as required by the process. The premix and corrective raw materials are extracted from their feed bins at a measured rate and conveyed to the raw mill in the proportions required to meet the kiln feed chemistry targets. 52.42 kg/s of raw meal is required, with a raw material consumption of 1.51 t/t clinker. This value compares favourably to the 1.57 tonnes of raw meal required to produce 1 tonne of clinker for the typical average consumption of raw materials in the EU (EC 2001).

The raw mill is a vertical roller mill. Feed is delivered onto the centre of the rotating table of the mill and is drawn under the rollers of the mill which are pressed onto the material bed on the table by hydraulic cylinders. Ground raw material falls over the dam ring round the edge of the table and is lifted by the hot gases (tempered tertiary air) sweeping the mill through the mill body to the integral separator. Coarse material is rejected by the separator and falls back to the mill table for regrinding while fine material is drawn out of the separator and mill with the hot gases by the mill induced draft fan.

Air from the SCR tower unit is used to sweep the raw mill and dry the raw materials from their initial moisture content of 8% (w/w) to 1% (w/w). This requires approximately 292 kJ/kg of energy. The dried raw mix and sweeping air exit the raw mill at 100°C. The temperature of the SCR unit exit air entering the mill is tempered by recirculation of mill exhaust air in order to protect the bearings of the rollers and separator.

The raw milling system has a rated capacity of 255 tph in order to provide 33% overtaking capacity above the requirements of the kiln for raw mix kiln feed. This enables planned stops of the raw milling system for maintenance to take place for up to 6 hours per day. During these periods when the raw milling system is stopped the SCR exhaust air bypasses the raw milling circuit and the gas conditioning tower is brought into operation, introducing moisture via atomising sprays into the flue gas to reduce the temperature.

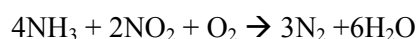
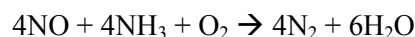
The fine, raw mix product is collected from the hot gases after the raw mill induced draft fan by collection cyclones and the bag filter for dedusting. The bag filter recovers approximately 0.96 kg/s of dust that is recycled into either the storage silo or directly into the preheater entry. The de-dusted gases are drawn through a fan and exhausted to the gas mixer. With the addition of air in-leaks, (which are significant in the raw mill at approximately 15.96 kg/s) the total exit gas from the raw mill transported to the carbon capture equipment is 75.59 kg/s, of which 29.6% is CO<sub>2</sub>. This is considerably higher than the typical concentration in flue gases from power plant applications and should provide some technical and economic advantages to CO<sub>2</sub> capture at a cement plant. The collected raw mix product is transported mechanically to the combined raw mix homogenisation and storage silo. This homogenisation silo has a capacity of 10,000 tonnes in order to provide over 2 days

buffer storage of ground raw mix kiln feed. Homogenisation of the raw mix in the silo is achieved by sequential activation of air slides in the segmented base of the silo by compressed air and extraction of material from a pressure relieved central chamber with a conical roof.

Power consumption of the raw milling and homogenisation system totals 25 kWh/t of clinker produced from the kiln.

#### (v) Selective Catalytic Reduction

The SCR tower is situated between the preheater and the raw mill. The reductant used in this case is a 25% ammonia solution. The vapourised ammonia is injected into the first stage of the modified preheater to allow a long residence time with the gas. This reduces the ammonia slip (the amount of ammonia that passes through the system) to less than 5 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup> (Schreiber and Russell, 2006). Ammonia slip can be a problem with SNCR applications. The temperature of the gas at this stage will be sufficiently high to allow the reaction to take place. The reaction can only occur on the surface of the catalyst and requires a temperature between 300°C and 450°C for optimal operation. The ammonia rich flue gas is blown through the SCR system which consists of several layers of catalyst. For the cement application the catalysts are honeycomb shaped (as opposed to a flat plate catalyst) to allow the dust to pass through. The basic equations for the reactions that will take place are as follows:



It should be noted that the MEA is unaffected by the NO but the SCR system is still capable of removing it from the flue gas. The catalyst is usually manufactured from active metals and substrates (a combination of vanadium oxide and titanium dioxide is considered best for cement kiln applications) (Leibacher *et al.*, 2006) and is arranged in several honeycomb layers. The holes in the catalyst are slightly larger than usual for SCR used in power stations due to the high dust environment created by the cement process. The holes can be approximately 10 mm in diameter to avoid clogging of the dust. The tower is designed so that each catalyst layer is periodically cleaned using pressurised air.

Based on the reported BAT emission level for SCR of 100-200 mgNO<sub>x</sub>/Nm<sup>3</sup> (as NO<sub>2</sub>) (EC, 2001) then this system should comfortably be able to achieve a maximum outlet NO<sub>x</sub> concentration of 410 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup> (at 6% O<sub>2</sub>) in order to achieve the target NO<sub>2</sub> concentration of 41 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup> (at 6% O<sub>2</sub>) required for economic post-combustion capture with amine.

#### (vi) Preheater

A 5-stage preheater would be slightly modified to integrate with the SCR system required for CO<sub>2</sub> capture using MEA. Vapourised ammonia injection equipment must be integrated into the first cyclone stage and the process is described below.

The milled raw meal product is transported from the silos via conveyors and elevators to the preheater feed bin. This is situated at the top of the preheater. Here it enters the first of the 5 cyclone stages, vaporised ammonia is also added at this stage for NO<sub>x</sub> abatement. It is added to the preheater because it gives the NO<sub>x</sub> a longer residence time to mix with the ammonia (although the reaction will only take

place on the surface of the catalyst), it gives a higher NO<sub>x</sub> removal efficiency and decreases the level of ammonia slip (ammonia that passes through the SCR system to the exit gas stream).

The preheater uses exhaust air from the precalciner (which operates at 900°C) to dry the raw meal and drive off any remaining moisture; this requires approximately 167 kJ/kg of heat. It is estimated that 18% of the calcination also occurs in the preheater. Calcination is an endothermic reaction and absorbs 353 kJ/kg of heat. As the preheater is not perfectly insulated some heat is lost as radiation; this is estimated at 75 kJ/kg. The preheated (and partially calcined) raw meal enters the precalciner at 780°C at 61.76 kg/s with no moisture content.

#### **(vii) Precalciner**

The bulk of the calcination process is carried out in the precalciner. Dried pulverised coal is used as the fuel and is delivered at the required rate (2.03 kg/s at 1% (w/w) moisture) to ensure constant temperature operation of the precalciner at 900°C. This amounts to 60% of the total calorific input to the kiln system and is in line with the normal practice in the operation of precalciner cement kilns.

In a conventional, in-line precalciner the oxygen for the combustion of the precalciner fuel is part drawn from the excess air in the hot kiln exhaust gases rising from the rotary kiln and part from the hot tertiary air drawn from the hot end of the clinker cooler which have bypassed the kiln via the tertiary air duct. The tertiary air has been heated to 908°C to maintain the high precalciner temperature.

The Mott MacDonald mass and energy balance model assumes 77% of the calcination occurs in the precalciner and consumes 1511 kJ/kg of heat. There are also radiation losses in the precalciner that account for 25 kJ/kg of energy. The release of CO<sub>2</sub> in the calcination reaction significantly reduces the amount of solid feed passing forward to the rotary kiln. The preheated raw meal entering the precalciner is 61.76 kg/s but the calcined raw meal (95% calcined) only has a mass flow rate of 37.46 kg/s. The calcined raw meal enters the rotary kiln at 870°C.

Air in-leaks are also present in the precalciner and account for 4.81 kg/s of the total precalciner exit gas of 70.51 kg/s. The temperature of the exit gas is 900°C.

#### **(viii) Kiln**

The material from the precalciner is collected in the lower stage cyclone of the preheater tower and enters the kiln via the kiln inlet hearth. A burner is situated both centrally and co-axially with the kiln at the front end of the kiln. Petroleum coke is fired into the front end of the kiln along with the 'primary air'. The kiln burning conditions are constantly monitored in terms of clinker temperature, burning zone temperature and nitrous oxides, oxygen and carbon monoxide emissions (at the back end of the kiln). The pet-coke is heated to approximately 65°C in the fuel drying process and is transported to the kiln using a fan at 1.5 kg/s. The secondary combustion air is drawn into the kiln from the cooler and enters the kiln at approximately 1025°C. The hot clinker leaving the kiln falls into the clinker cooler. The kiln rotates at between 3 and 4 revolutions per minute driven by the main drive of the kiln. By the end of its time in the kiln the raw meal has been completely calcined and combined to form clinker and exits the kiln at approximately 32.57 kg/s at 1350°C.

**(ix) Fuel Preparation**

Raw coal is imported to site and stored under cover. It is transported from the stockpile by a belt conveyor transport system that feeds an intermediate raw coal storage hopper. The raw coal is extracted from this storage hopper at a controlled rate and fed to the vertical roller coal mill. This mill has a rated capacity of 10 tph in order to provide 25% overtaking capacity above the requirements of the precalciner for fine coal. This enables planned stops of the coal milling system for maintenance to take place for up to 5 hours per day.

This vertical roller mill is swept by inert (<10% w/w oxygen) exhaust gases from the preheater. These exhaust gases have a temperature of approximately 330°C and are used for drying the coal while it is being ground in the mill. The temperature at the mill exit is controlled to a temperature of approximately 70°C dependent on the dewatering curve of the coal being used to fire the precalciner.

Raw coal is delivered onto the centre of the rotating table of the vertical roller mill and drawn under the rollers by centrifugal force induced by the rotation of the table. The rollers are pressed onto the bed of coal on the rotating table by hydraulic cylinders. After passing under the rollers the ground coal falls over the dam ring around the edge of the rotating table and is picked up by the hot, inert gases sweeping the mill and carried to the internal classifier of the mill. Coal which is not of sufficient fineness for firing in the precalciner is returned to the centre of the rotating table for regrinding. Fine coal passes out of the mill with the exhaust gases and is collected in a bag filter. The collected pulverised and dried coal is delivered into a fine coal storage bin for onward delivery to the precalciner at the rate demanded by the process. The exhaust gases from the filter are vented to atmosphere through their own dedicated stack. The metered coal from the precalciner fine coal bin is delivered pneumatically to the precalciner coal burners using tertiary air as the transport gas.

Raw petroleum coke is handled in a similar way to the coal. It is imported to site, stored under cover and transported from the stockpile by a belt conveyor transport system that feeds an intermediate raw petroleum coke storage hopper. The raw petroleum coke is extracted from the storage hopper at a controlled rate and fed to the petroleum coke mill. This mill has a rated capacity of 5 tph in order to provide 25% overtaking capacity above the requirements of the kiln for fine petroleum coke. This enables planned stops of the petroleum coke milling system for maintenance to take place for up to 5 hours per day.

This vertical roller mill is swept by inert (<10% w/w oxygen) exhaust gases from the preheater. These exhaust gases have a temperature of approximately 330°C and are used for drying the petroleum coke while it is being ground in the mill. The temperature at the mill exit is controlled to a temperature of approximately 70°C.

Raw petroleum coke is delivered onto the centre of the rotating table of the vertical roller mill and drawn under the rollers by centrifugal force induced by the rotation of the table. The rollers are pressed onto the bed of petroleum coke on the rotating table by hydraulic cylinders. After passing under the rollers the ground petroleum coke falls over the dam ring around the edge of the rotating table and is picked up by the hot, inert gases sweeping the mill and carried to the internal classifier of the mill. Petroleum coke which is not of sufficient fineness for firing in the main burner of the rotary kiln is returned to the centre of the rotating table for regrinding. Fine petroleum coke passes out of the mill with the exhaust gases and is collected in a bag filter. The collected pulverised and dried petroleum coke is delivered into a fine petroleum coke storage bin for onward delivery to the main burner of the rotary kiln at the rate demanded by the process. The exhaust gases from the filter are vented to atmosphere through their own dedicated stack. The metered, fine petroleum coke from the



main burner fine petroleum coke bin is delivered pneumatically to the main burner of the rotary kiln where it is blown into the kiln with additional primary air.

#### **(x) Clinker Cooler**

The hot clinker falls from the kiln onto the inclined, static grate of the clinker cooler at a temperature of 1300°C. A layer of cooled clinker permanently sits on this grate protecting the plates against abrasion and overheating. Sliding of fresh, hot clinker over this layer of cooled clinker is induced by the transport of clinker away from the base of the inclined, static grate over the subsequent, horizontal grate of the cooler. Clinker is progressively transported over this horizontal grate by the reciprocating action of the tracks or bars moving above the grate within the bed of clinker using the principal of a “walking floor”. Cooling air is blown into air beams beneath and through the grates along the entire length of the cooler. The air beams and grates are stationary along the entire length of the cooler with the movement of the clinker induced by the moving elements above the grate.

The clinker is cooled from 1350°C to 50°C above ambient temperature at the discharge of the cooler. Heat is transferred from the clinker to the cooling air stream for subsequent recycling in the process. The hottest secondary air at a temperature of 1125°C is drawn into the rotary kiln to provide the secondary combustion air for the firing of the petroleum coke in the main burner of the kiln. Hot tertiary air at 908°C is drawn into the tertiary air duct from above the cooler horizontal grate. The lower temperature excess air resulting from the final clinker cooling is exhausted through a bag filter system before passing to the stack.

The cooled clinker falls into the hammer crusher and then one of two metal clinker conveyors. From the main clinker conveyor the clinker can be fed to either the main clinker storage silo or to the cement mill clinker feed bins. The second, shorter clinker conveyor feeds to a clinker export hopper for lorry loading. This arrangement provides redundancy of the clinker transport system away from the kiln and cooler.

The main clinker storage silo has 60,000 tonnes capacity in order to provide sufficient storage for 20 days operation of the kiln and allow for continued supply of the market during kiln refractory lining repairs of this duration. Clinker can be recovered from the main clinker store to the cement mill clinker feed bins.

#### **(xi) Cement Milling**

Two vertical roller mills are used for cement finish grinding. Each mill has a rated capacity of 90 tph at the average Blaine 3500 cm<sup>2</sup>/g of the cement products produced on the cement plant. This provides for the 1,000,000 tonnes per year production of the cement plant to be ground in 310 days with the mills operating for 18 hours of those days. This allows ample overtaking capacity to facilitate maintenance of the mills and for seasonality in the demand for cement from the plant.

Ambient air is used for ventilation of the mills and dedusting is provided by bag filter and fan units.

Power consumption of the finish milling system totals 35 kWh/t of cement produced.

**(xii) Packing and Loading**

Two cement storage silos, each of 10,000 tonnes capacity are provided for finished cement storage. This is sufficient for almost 7 days dispatches of cement from the plant. These silos are each divided into six compartments to allow for storage of up to 12 different cement products.

Cement can also be transferred to a bag packing plant from where the bagged product is conveyed to a palletiser for warehousing and storage. The warehouse is capable of storing 2,000 tonnes of palletised, bagged cement, sufficient for more than 3 days dispatches of cement in this form of packaging.

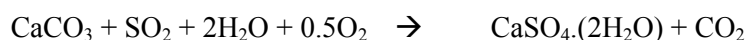
**(xiii) Gas Mixer**

A gas mixer is required to mix the gas from three sources prior to the wet limestone FGD system. The gases come from the kiln/calcliner system, the fuel drying and the auxiliary boiler/CHP.

**(xiv) Flue Gas Desulphurisation**

Wet limestone flue gas desulphurisation (FGD) is situated after the flue gases have been mixed from the auxiliary boiler/CHP and the clinker production process. The flue gases pass to the absorber column where they are mixed in the reaction tank with the sprayed limestone slurry. The slurry has a residence time of approximately ten hours. The inlet temperature of the flue gas coming from the raw mill will be approximately 110°C. The limestone slurry will cool the flue gas to 45-50°C during the process. This is the ideal temperature for the CO<sub>2</sub> capture in the MEA and reduces the need for additional flue gas cooling. The absorber column, inlet and outlet pipes must all be manufactured using corrosion resistant materials to avoid corrosion caused by the wet portion of the flue gas. The slurry is typically a 15% concentration of calcium sulphate, calcium sulphite, unreacted alkali, inert materials, fly ash and various dissolved materials (IEA GHG, 2004). The slurry is produced using several layers of spray banks. The slurry required depends on the level of SO<sub>2</sub> removal required. For absorption of CO<sub>2</sub> with MEA very low levels of SO<sub>2</sub> are required (<10 ppmv) and the amount of limestone required is approximately 13,000 t/y. These should be considered as preliminary figures as substantial testing and optimisation will be required before the FGD system is installed.

The basic equation for the reaction with SO<sub>2</sub> is shown below:



The resulting product from the reaction is wet gypsum and carbon dioxide. The gypsum can be dried and added to the clinker later in the process to create cement. The gypsum formed from the FGD process can account for around half of the gypsum required in the cement product. The carbon dioxide formed will be captured along with the rest of the CO<sub>2</sub> in the flue gas and the water can be recycled to form the wet limestone slurry.

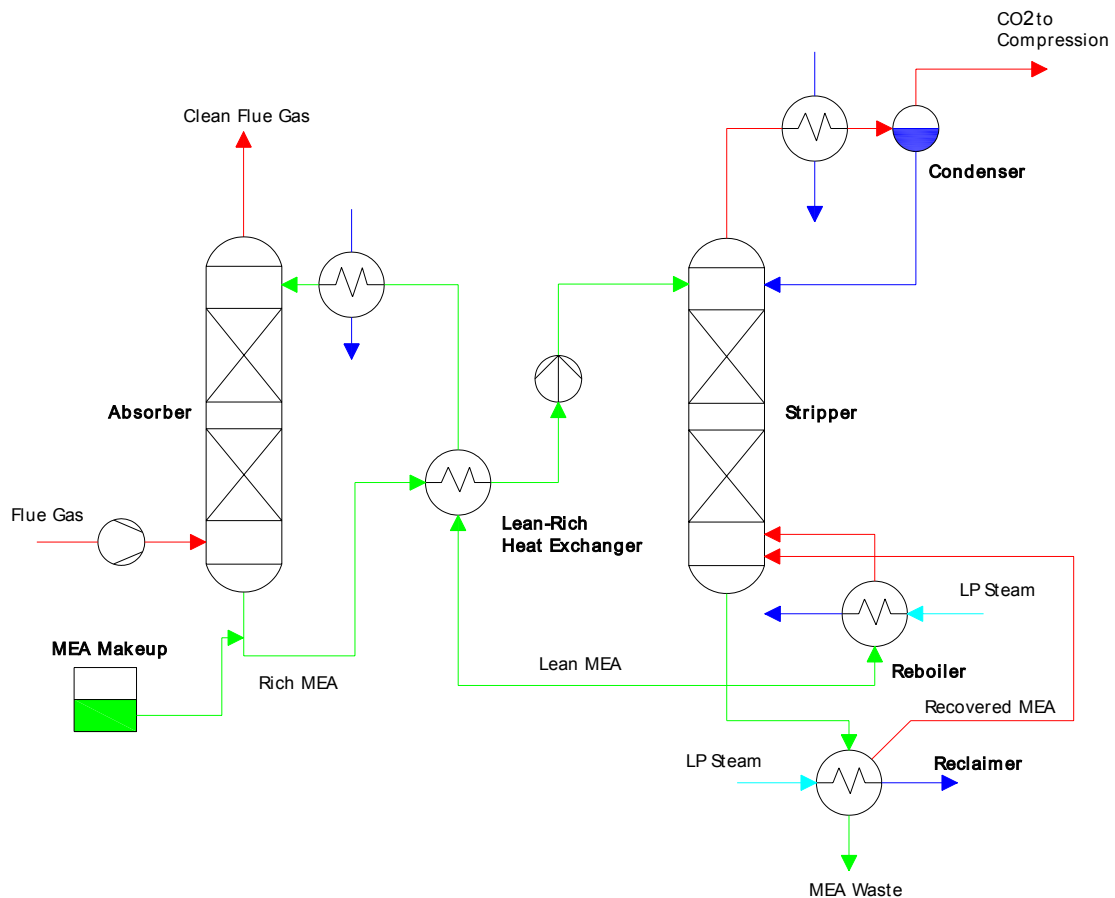
Limestone processing and storage may also be required. Limestone must be ground with the recycled FGD water to form the slurry and added to the reaction tank when required by control valves. Alternatively, pre-ground limestone could be used. Since large quantities of limestone will be delivered to site for the cement process, it is most likely that it will be more cost-effective to process the limestone on site.

**(xv) Amine Capture Process**

The de-sulphurised gas should leave the FGD system at approximately 50°C and will be suitable for the CO<sub>2</sub> absorption process. The clean flue gas is blown from the FGD unit to the packed absorber column; it enters from the bottom of the column and is forced in counter current flow with the lean MEA. The lean MEA is fed in from the top of the absorber column along with any makeup MEA required. Ideally, the CO<sub>2</sub> absorption and stripping cycle should be a closed loop system where all the MEA is regenerated in the stripper column and returned to the absorber. However, certain compounds in the flue gas combine with MEA to form amine salts and must be removed from the system. The amount of make-up MEA required will be influenced by the levels of NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, dust and other degenerative components present in the flue gas. The MEA make-up required has been estimated at 2,400 t/yr.

The CO<sub>2</sub> first comes into contact with rich MEA and as it travels up the packed column the MEA contains less CO<sub>2</sub> (leaner) and therefore will more readily absorb. The clean flue gas leaves at the top of the column and goes through a water wash (to remove any MEA slip) before exiting to the atmosphere. Depending on the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> left in the clean flue gas, stack gas preheating may also be required to prevent slumping. A basic process flow diagram of the CO<sub>2</sub> capture process is shown in Figure 4-5.

**Figure 4-5: MEA CO<sub>2</sub> Capture System**



The rich MEA flows through a heat exchanger with the lean MEA from the stripper column to increase its temperature. The rich MEA is fed into the top of the stripper column; low pressure (LP) steam increases the temperature of the rich MEA to release the CO<sub>2</sub> which flows out from the top of the stripper column. The LP steam demand has been estimated at 200-250 t/hr with a temperature of 140-150°C and a pressure of approximately 2.2 barg. The steam can be provided by either an auxiliary boiler or a CHP plant and these options are discussed in Section 4.4.5(xvii).

Any excess steam residing in the CO<sub>2</sub> is recovered using a condenser from where the CO<sub>2</sub> goes onto compression. A slip stream of MEA is fed into a reclaimer where it is heated to a higher temperature in the presence of Sodium Hydroxide. This recovers some of the degraded MEA and is returned to the cycle. The Waste MEA leaves the reclaimer and must be disposed. There is the possibility of using this as a fuel in the kiln but this would require further investigation (see Section 4.4.9). The hot lean MEA goes through the heat exchanger with the rich MEA and reduces in temperature before entering the top of the absorber.

Compared to power plant applications, the gas stream from the cement process is more favourable for CO<sub>2</sub> capture. There is less gas and the concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> is greater. This results in smaller absorber and stripper columns being required. The absorber column will be approximately 11.87 m in height and 10.3 m in diameter. The stripper column will have the same diameter but a height of only 8.23 m.

#### **(xvi) CO<sub>2</sub> Drying and Compression**

The CO<sub>2</sub> leaving the stripper column is already more than 95% (w/w) pure CO<sub>2</sub> and does not require further purification. The CO<sub>2</sub> leaves the condenser at atmospheric pressure and temperature. This needs to be dried and compressed to 110 bara before transportation.

#### **(xvii) Electrical Supply**

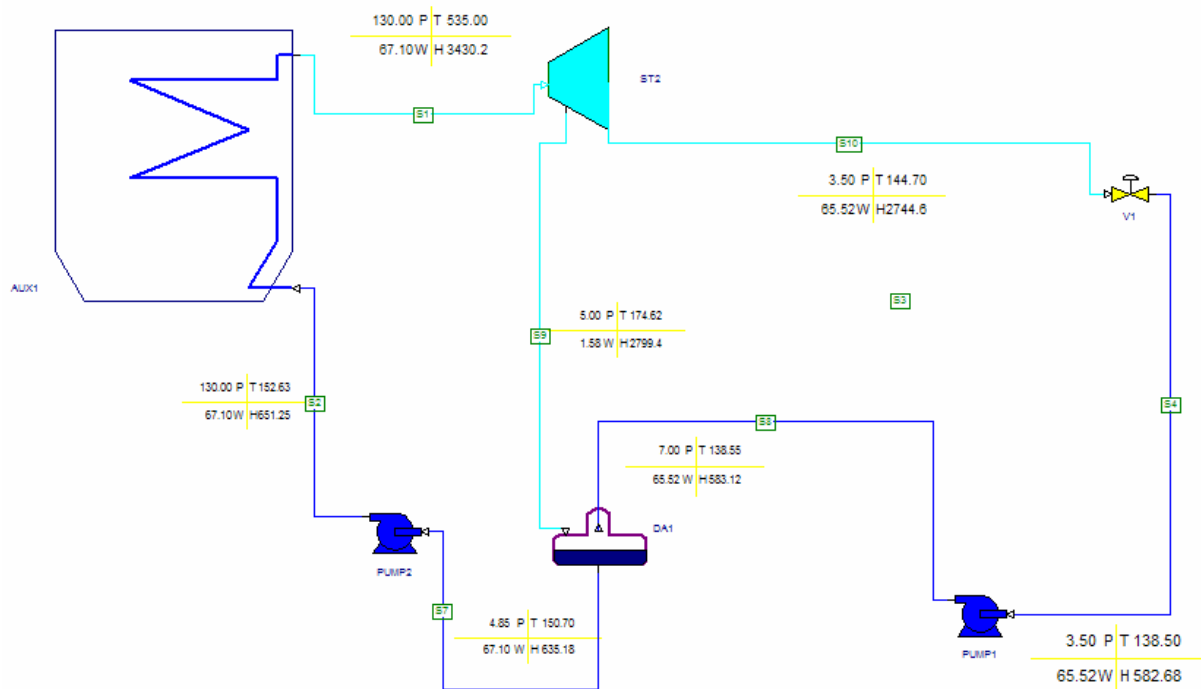
The total installed power required by the cement plant is estimated at 16.3 MWe with an additional 26.9 MWe required for the CO<sub>2</sub> capture plant (see Table 4-2) giving a total power demand of 43.2 MWe. The operating power, operating hours and the power consumed of all the major process units are also shown in Table 4-2. The estimation of overall CO<sub>2</sub> emissions of a post-combustion capture cement plant includes a coal-fired CHP plant to supply heat and power to the entire plant and it is assumed that a suitable grid connection is available.

A significant addition of power is required for the CO<sub>2</sub> capture plant. It can be seen from Table 4-2 that nearly 50% of the additional power required to capture the CO<sub>2</sub> is in the compression to 110 bara.

The steam demand for the MEA stripping can be met with a 45 MWe CHP plant. If a CHP plant is constructed onsite then there may also be some commercial benefits from exporting energy to the grid, especially if biomass is used to raise the steam as the plant would be entitled to ROCs, but this is not considered further here. The CHP could also qualify for enhanced capital allowances if it was deemed a good quality CHP. From preliminary calculations, it appears good quality CHP could be achieved, although no capital allowances are assumed for this study.

The CHP plant was sized on a 45 MWe back pressure steam turbine. A simple model using the GateCycle software assessed the sizing of the plant required. The output from the model can be seen in Figure 4-6.

Figure 4-6: GateCycle Output for CHP Plant



The model shows that the turbine requires approximately 242 t/h of steam at 130 bara and 530°C. The steam requirement calculated for the stripper is 202 t/h at 3.5 bara and 140°C. The exhaust from the turbine would be at 3.5 bara and would more than meet the steam demand of the CO<sub>2</sub> capture system. This is a simplified model of the system and the steam cycle has been slightly oversized, a condenser may be required to optimise the steam flow to the stripper column. The quantity of coal required to raise this steam has been estimated at approximately 228,000 t/y.

An alternative to installing a CHP plant would be to import the electricity and provide the steam using an auxiliary boiler. This would reduce the amount of coal required and reduce the capital cost of the plant as a steam turbine would not be required. However, the benefits of producing power would not be realised.

Another option for a new-build cement plant would be to co-locate with an existing power station that could provide the LP steam to the stripper column. This would reduce the need for either a CHP plant or an auxiliary boiler.

**Table 4-2: Electrical Demand of Post-Combustion Cement Plant with CO<sub>2</sub> Capture**

Process Area	Main Equipment Items	Installed Power (MWe)	Operating Power (MWe)	Operating hours per year	Power consumed (MWh/y)
Raw Material Preparation	Limestone crusher	0.60	0.51	2080	1061
	Shale crusher	0.20	0.17	2080	354
	Stacker-reclaimer system	0.28	0.24	2080	500
Raw Mill	Raw mill drive	1.20	1.02	5730	5845
	Raw mill fan	1.50	1.28	5730	7306
	Raw mill ancillaries	-	-	-	-
	Raw mill bag filter	-	-	-	-
	Bag filter fan	1.20	1.02	5730	5845
	Conditioning Tower	1.20	1.02	5730	5845
	Homogenising chamber silo	0.12	0.10	5730	560
Preheater	Preheater feed bin	-	-	-	-
	5 stage preheater	-	-	-	-
	Preheater fan	0.90	0.77	7920	6059
Precalciner	Precalciner	-	-	-	-
Rotary Kiln	Kiln	0.65	0.55	7920	4349
Clinker Cooler	Grate cooler	1.00	0.85	7920	6732
	Cooler bag filter				
	Cooler bag filter				
	Clinker crusher				
	Clinker conveyor				
	Clinker storage silo				
	Export clinker hopper				
Coal preparation	Coal milling system	0.30	0.26	6095	1554
Petroleum coke preparation	Petroleum coke mill	0.30	0.26	6095	1554
Cement milling	Mill 1	3.15	2.68	5580	14940
	Mill 2	3.15	2.68	5580	14940
Packing and loading	Silo 1	-	-	-	-
	Silo 2	-	-	-	-
	Bag packing plant	0.50	0.43	7920	3366
<b>Total for cement plant</b>		<b>16.24</b>	<b>13.81</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>80809</b>
Selective Catalytic Reduction (SCR)	Reactor Casing	0.35	0.30	7920	2356
	Bypass System				
	Catalyst				
	Ammonia Injection Equipment				
	Handling Equipment				

Process Area	Main Equipment Items	Installed Power (MWe)	Operating Power (MWe)	Operating hours per year	Power consumed (MWh/y)
Flue Gas Desulphurisation (FGD)	Control System				
	Spray Tower	2.10	1.79	7920	14137
	Absorption Reaction Tank				
	Mist Eliminators				
	Limestone Storage				
	Limestone Preparation				
	Dewatering System				
Other CO <sub>2</sub> Capture	Gas Mixer	-	-	-	-
	Pumps (MEA, Reflux, Stripper etc)	3.90	3.32	7920	26255
	Amine Filter Package				
	Water Tankage				
	Cross Exchangers				
	Stripper				
	Coolers (DCC and water wash)				
	DCC Towers				
	Overhead Stripper				
	Condenser				
	Stripper Reboiler				
	Lean Solvent Cooler				
	Packing				
	Absorption Tower				
	Flash Drums				
CO <sub>2</sub> compression and purification	Dryer	23.71	20.15	7920	159618
	Compressors				
CHP Plant	CO <sub>2</sub> Pumps				
	Coal and Ash Handling (incl. milling)	7.50	6.38	7920	50490
	Boiler Island				
	Steam Turbine plant and Generator				
	Selective Catalytic Reduction				
	Balance of Plant				
<b>Total for CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Plant</b>		<b>37.56</b>	<b>31.93</b>	-	<b>252857</b>
<b>Total for whole plant</b>		<b>53.80</b>	<b>45.73</b>	-	<b>333666</b>

#### 4.4.6 Plant Performance

The performance of the cement plant with post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture will only be affected by the addition of an SCR unit between the preheater and the raw mill. This will reduce the temperature of the flue gas used for drying in the raw mill. The MEA CO<sub>2</sub> capture process will not affect the cement process.

It should be noted that the flue gas leaves the FGD unit with a CO<sub>2</sub> concentration of 26.4% (w/w). Research and preliminary testing indicate that the CO<sub>2</sub> capture rate using amine scrubbing could be between 85% and 95%. For consistency with other IEA GHG studies the CO<sub>2</sub> capture rate has been conservatively assumed at 85%.

Table 4-3 summarises the performance of the post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture cement plant.

**Table 4-3: Performance of Cement Plant with Post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture**

	Parameter	Unit	Value
Inputs	Raw meal consumed	t/y	1,494,526
	Coal required	t/y	291,633
	Petroleum coke required	t/y	32,876
	Limestone for FGD	t/y	12,795
	Water for FGD	t/y	115,152
	Ammonia	t/y	1,855
	MEA Make Up	t/y	2,400
	Low Pressure Steam (@ 3.5 bara and 141°C)	t/y	1,662,000
	Electricity consumption	MWh/y	333,666
Outputs	Clinker produced	t/y	910,000
	Cement produced	t/y	1,000,000
	Gypsum produced (FGD)	t/y	16,374
	Net Electricity Exported	MWh/y	22,734
	CO <sub>2</sub> captured	t/y	1,067,734
	CO <sub>2</sub> emitted	t/y	188,424

#### (i) Evaluation of MEA Absorption

Although it has been assumed in this study that the CO<sub>2</sub> capture rate using MEA is 85%, the University of Regina, Canada has modelled CO<sub>2</sub> capture from the predicted cement flue gas with a 95% capture rate. The modelling was based on early data provided by Mott MacDonald and cannot be compared directly with other outputs in this Report. However, it gives a further indication of the possibilities of CO<sub>2</sub> capture from this gas composition. The results from this study can be seen in Table 4-4. Two options to achieve the 95% capture rate by using different CO<sub>2</sub> loading and liquid circulating rates were considered.



**Table 4-4: Outputs from MEA Modelling with 95% Capture**

Parameter	Option 1	Option 2
CO <sub>2</sub> Feed (t/day)	4680	4680
<b>Absorption liquid</b>		
MEA concentration (wt%)	30	30
CO <sub>2</sub> lean loading (mol/mol)	0.22	0.18
CO <sub>2</sub> rich loading (mol/mol)	0.45	0.43
Liquid circulating rate (t/h)	3,823	3,485
<b>Solvent regeneration</b>		
Energy requirement (kJ/kg CO <sub>2</sub> )	3,384	4,832
Energy requirement (kJ/h)	6.246×10 <sup>8</sup>	8.918×10 <sup>8</sup>
Steam pressure (MPa)	0.35	0.35
CO <sub>2</sub> Captured (t/day)	4,429	4,429

#### 4.4.7 Plant Layout

Cement plants are typically linear in layout for an economical flow of material. A 1 Mt/y cement plant without CO<sub>2</sub> would expect to occupy approximately 15 ha (500 m x 300 m) of land but could accommodate less space if necessary. Post combustion capture would require a considerable amount of additional land. Although it is difficult to estimate the area required, Table 4-5 gives some indication of the footprint required for the CO<sub>2</sub> capture plant.

**Table 4-5: Estimated Footprint for CO<sub>2</sub> Capture in a Cement Plant**

Equipment	Footprint (ha)
Cement Plant	Approx. 15
SCR	Included above
FGD and limestone processing	1.0 – 1.4
CHP Plant	Approx. 2
MEA Capture System	0.5 - 0.7
CO <sub>2</sub> Drying and Compression	0.1 - 0.16
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>18.6 – 19.3</b>

There may also be a limestone quarry that would occupy a much larger area, possibly as much as 200 ha (2000 m x 1000 m). A detailed layout of post-combustion cement plant is beyond the scope of this study but it is important to note that the following will need to be considered:

- Hazardous materials (e.g. MEA, ammonia) should be stored at a safe distance from other buildings.
- The ancillary buildings should be located so as to minimise the time spent by personnel in travelling between buildings.
- Administration offices should be located well away from potentially hazardous processes.
- Utility buildings should be sited to give the most economical run of pipes to and from the process units.

- Equipment should be located so that it can be conveniently tied in with any future expansion of the site.

#### **4.4.8 Operation Considerations**

##### **(i) Operating with Raw Mill Off**

It has been assumed that the raw mill will be inactive for 15% of the time due to the high maintenance requirements. The raw milling has been oversized and has an overtaking capacity above the kiln which enables planned maintenance on the mill to take place. During the periods of maintenance the exhaust gas from the SCR will bypass the raw mill circuit. A gas conditioning tower is situated in parallel with the raw mill for this purpose. Moisture is introduced to the gas via atomising sprays to reduce the temperature. It should still be possible to capture all of the CO<sub>2</sub> if the raw mill is not operating although the SO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the flue gas will increase (due to the lack of absorption within the raw mill) and will increase the SO<sub>2</sub> removal required from the FGD system. Hence, it is necessary to design the FGD system for the maximum loading rate when the raw mill is off.

##### **(ii) SCR or FGD not Operating**

If the SCR or FGD is not operating this will allow increase concentrations of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> to pass through to the MEA CO<sub>2</sub> absorption system. Amines react with acidic compounds to form amine salts that will not dissociate in the amine stripping system. Thus, under these conditions, there will be more waste MEA that must be removed from the capture cycle. A decision must be made at this point as to whether it is more economic to pay for the extra cost of MEA required or to stop the CO<sub>2</sub> capture altogether whilst the SCR and FGD units are non-operational.

Maintenance of the units should be planned for periods when the cement plant is not operating to minimise the amount of downtime of the CO<sub>2</sub> capture system.

#### **4.4.9 Emissions and Environmental Considerations**

A post-combustion capture cement plant will achieve emission standards well below current cement plants. This is an added advantage of CO<sub>2</sub> capture. Some emissions will occur and these are discussed in the following sections.

##### **(i) Emission Sources**

During normal operation there will only be two major gaseous discharges to the atmosphere. These will be the exhaust gases from the MEA absorber and excess cooling air from the clinker cooler. The flue gases will be discharged via a single stack. Due to the requirements of the MEA CO<sub>2</sub> capture system, flue gas clean up systems must be employed to reduce the levels of contaminants down to acceptably low values. Any contaminants passing through to the MEA system (e.g. ammonia, NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>) will combine with the MEA and be removed as part of the MEA waste. This results in the discharged flue gas being virtually free of any contaminants.

**(ii) Dust**

A large amount of dust is carried through in the flue gases during the cement process. From the raw mill itself approximately 1 kg/s of dust must be eliminated from the flue gas before it reaches the MEA. This is achieved with the addition of bag filters that can capture 99.9% of the dust in the flue gas. The requirement for the CO<sub>2</sub> capture system is 15 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup> and the bag filters can achieve as low as 5 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup>. Any dust that does enter the absorber will combine with the amine and will be removed with the waste. This results in negligible amounts of dust reaching the stack. Any dust caught in the bag filters will be recycled into the clinker at a later stage.

Dust also forms in the coal and pet coke drying system, as well as the clinker cooler. Discharges from these processes will pass through bag filters prior to discharge.

**(iii) NO<sub>x</sub> Emissions**

NO<sub>2</sub> emissions must be reduced to 20 ppmv for the MEA CO<sub>2</sub> capture system. This is achieved using SCR. Therefore, the overall NO<sub>x</sub> emissions to the atmosphere will be very low. This level of NO<sub>2</sub> is well below the usual emission regulations that apply at cement plants.

**(iv) SO<sub>x</sub> Emissions**

As discussed in Section 0, modern cement plants which do not have sulphide minerals in their raw materials have very low emissions of SO<sub>x</sub> and often achieve emission levels below 10 mg/m<sup>3</sup> of SO<sub>2</sub> without using abatement techniques (EC, 2001). In this case it is assumed that the raw meal originates from NE Scotland and contains 0.33% (w/w – dry basis) sulphur.

It is expected that 30% or more of the sulphur in the raw material will be evaporated and be emitted from the first stage of the preheater and that SO<sub>2</sub> will be the main (99%) sulphur compound to be released (EC, 2001). The gases from the preheater are used for drying within the raw mill (when in operation) and for fuel drying. It is reported that between 20-70% of the SO<sub>2</sub> that is passed to the raw mill will be captured by the finely ground raw materials (EC, 2001).

SO<sub>2</sub> will also be formed in the CHP plant and will combine with the flue gas from the cement process in the gas mixer before the wet limestone FGD system. The FGD system will reduce the SO<sub>2</sub> content to approximately 10 ppmv to meet the requirements for MEA CO<sub>2</sub> capture. Thus, the flue gas emitted to the atmosphere will contain minimal amounts of SO<sub>2</sub>.

**(v) Effluent**

During normal operation there will be three main effluent discharges. These are:

- chloride purge in the FGD system
- waste MEA
- water obtained from temperature swing dual bed desiccant dryer.

These discharges will either be recycled or disposed of in an appropriate manner.

The condensed water obtained from the temperature swing bed desiccant dryer will contain dissolved acid gas components which may require neutralisation prior to discharge.

Periodically some of the recycle effluent from the FGD system must be removed to avoid build up of chloride in the limestone slurry. The waste from this effluent can be dried and disposed in a landfill site.

MEA waste is caused by contaminants from the flue gas and has been estimated at 2,400 t/y for this cement plant. MEA is an odorous and corrosive substance and should be handled carefully when being disposed. It also has a calorific value of approximately 22 MJ/kg which offers the possibility of burning it in the cement kiln. Disposing of the waste MEA in this manner requires further detailed evaluation as there will be environmental regulation issues associated with disposing of a waste material in this manner (e.g. Waste Incineration Directive). It is likely that combustion of the MEA would produce more NO<sub>x</sub> which would increase the capital and operating costs for the SCR system. No costs associated with any effluent treatment have been included in the cost estimate for the post-combustion process option.

#### 4.4.10 Design Risk Assessment

It is of paramount importance that a post-combustion cement plant is implemented safely and without significant impact upon operational flexibility. Mott MacDonald have undertaken a preliminary design risk assessment to identify the major additional plant operation risks that need to be considered beyond those that apply for a cement plant without carbon capture. The results of this exercise are shown in Table 4-6. It is important to note that this exercise would have to be repeated in greater detail if a detailed design of an post-combustion cement plant was undertaken.

**Table 4-6: Preliminary Design Risk Assessment for Post-Combustion CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Cement Plant**

Hazard Ref	Hazard	Stage of work	Risk Control Measures	Owner	Comment
1	Risk of operator suffocation as CO <sub>2</sub> is an asphyxiant	Operation	1. Standards, codes of practice etc. to be adopted during design. 2. Appropriate material selection during design. 3. HAZOP study to be undertaken.	Contractor	Hazards associated with handling CO <sub>2</sub> are well understood from other industries.
2	Risk of dust explosion in fuel milling and drying stages.	Operation	1. Standards, codes of practice etc. to be adopted during design. 2. HAZOP study to be undertaken. 3. ATEX assessment to be	Contractor	Hazards associated with explosive dusts are well understood within cement

Hazard Ref	Hazard	Stage of work	Risk Control Measures	Owner	Comment
3	Risk of corrosion damage due to presence of acidic components (e.g. SO <sub>2</sub> , SO <sub>3</sub> and HCl) in gas streams.	Operation	performed. 1. Standards, codes of practice etc. to be adopted during design. 2. Appropriate material selection during design.	Contractor	industry. Hazards associated with acidic components in gas streams are well understood from other industries.
4	Risk of injury to operator due to handling of ammonia solution.	Operation	1. Standards, codes of practice etc. to be adopted during design. 2. Appropriate material selection during design. 3. HAZOP study to be undertaken.	Contractor	Hazards associated with handling of ammonia are well understood from other industries.
5	Risk of operator suffocation as N <sub>2</sub> is an asphyxiant.	Operation	1. Standards, codes of practice etc. to be adopted during design.	Contractor	Hazards associated with handling N <sub>2</sub> are well understood from other industries.
6	Risk of operator injury as MEA is a corrosive material.	Operation	1. Standards, codes of practice etc. to be adopted during design. 2. Appropriate material selection during design. 3. HAZOP study to be undertaken	Contractor	Hazards associated with handling MEA are well understood from other industries.
7	Risk of damage caused by release of high pressure as high pressures present in CO <sub>2</sub> compression unit.	Operation	1. Standards, codes of practice etc. to be adopted during design. 2. HAZOP study to be undertaken	Contractor	Hazards associated with handling high pressures are well understood from other industries.

#### 4.4.11 Possibilities for Alternative CO<sub>2</sub> Absorption Technologies

As discussed in section 3.4.2 there are several other alternatives to amine absorption for the capture of CO<sub>2</sub> that are being researched in the power generation industry. Although they are less commercially and technically advanced as amine absorption, there may be some differences in the technologies that are more advantageous for the cement industry. In the section below one alternative technology which has received significant interest from the power generation industry is examined as a possible alternative CO<sub>2</sub> absorption technology that could be applied to the cement process. There are plans to build larger chilled ammonia plants. AEP is planning on building a 200 MWe plant by 2011.

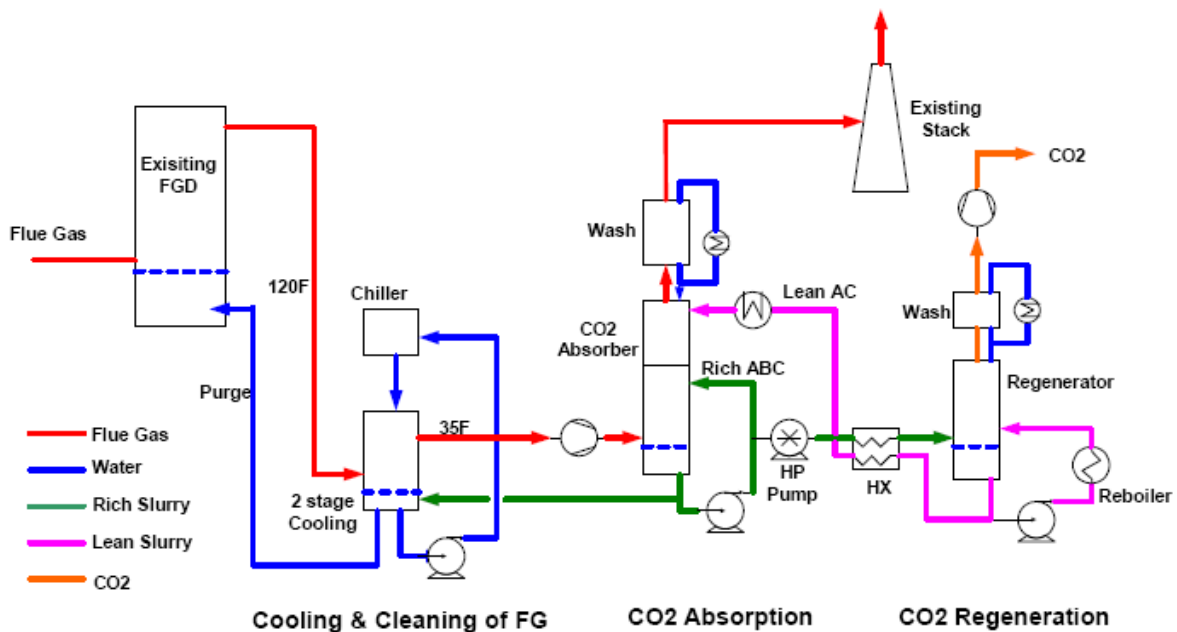
##### (i) Chilled Ammonia

The Chilled Ammonia Capture (CAP) process is currently being developed by Alstom. Small and large scale bench tests have been completed with a full scale (14,000 tons of CO<sub>2</sub> per year) field test to begin in the near future at We Energies Pleasant Prairie Power Plant located in Pleasant Prairie, Wisconsin, USA (Black *et al.*, 2007). EPRI will be conducting the techno-economic analysis to scale up system for commercial operation.

##### Process Description

The process description is based on the CAP process applied to power plants but there may be several differences when adapted to the cement industry. The CAP process has three main stages: flue gas cooling, CO<sub>2</sub> absorption and solvent stripping. Figure 4-7 shows a process flow diagram.

Figure 4-7: Chilled Ammonia Process Diagram



The flue gas from the cement plant will already have been treated to remove the NO<sub>x</sub>, SO<sub>x</sub> and dust and will be at approximately 50-60°C. The flue gas is cooled to 0-20°C in two stages using direct contact cooling (DCC). During the first stage, the flue gas is cooled to approximately 37°C and is fully saturated with water on exit. The condensate and cooling water are sent to a cooling tower after processing. Here, most of the condensate is evaporated and the water is cooled back down to 27°C.

During condensation in the DCC units, some residual contaminants will be entrained in the condensate making it acidic and corrosive; this must be taken into account when design the cooling units.

Before the second stage, the flue gas must be pressurised to approximately 1.25 bara to continue through the CO<sub>2</sub> absorption process. During the second stage, the flue gas is contacted with chilled water (approximately 3°C) and is cooled to 5°C. Some of the cooling water is then used to cool the water in the first stage and the rest goes back to the water chiller.

The CO<sub>2</sub> absorber is in the form of a spray tower designed to operate with slurry. The flue gas flows up the tower counter current to both an aqueous ammonium carbonate solution and a slurry containing aqueous ammonium bicarbonate, solid ammonium bicarbonate and aqueous ammonium carbonate. The clean flue gas is released at the top of the absorber to a water wash, removing any ammonia still entrained. The flue gas is then heated to 60°C to remove any visible plume formation and prevent ammonia odours reaching the ground before releasing it to the atmosphere.

Before going to the stripper all the solids in the CO<sub>2</sub> rich slurry must be dissolved. The lean CO<sub>2</sub> solution is used to heat the CO<sub>2</sub> rich slurry in a heat exchanger to approximately 75°C, at which point all the solids are dissolved.

The stripper is a packed column that operates at high pressure and temperature (31 bara and 127°C). The heat causes the absorption reaction to reverse leaving aqueous ammonium carbonate and the released CO<sub>2</sub>. The CO<sub>2</sub> may still contain trace components of ammonia that can be removed by cooling to 20-30°C and contacted with a water wash unit. This reduces ammonia costs and helps prevent corrosion in pipes downstream.

The CO<sub>2</sub> can then be compressed to 110 bara but this requires less stages than the amine process because the CO<sub>2</sub> is already compressed to 30 bara.

### **Potential Advantages**

Notwithstanding the energy demands of water cooling, the CAP process may be more energy efficient than the amine capture process for the following reasons:

- It re-uses greater low-grade waste heat generated in the process, reducing the useful heat consumption of the system.
- The slurry is pressurised to 30 bara, thus reducing the compression ratio required for the CO<sub>2</sub> at the end of the process.
- The power required to compress the CO<sub>2</sub> rich liquid is small in comparison to the power required to compress CO<sub>2</sub> gas. Although the total pressure increase required is ultimately the same, an energy saving is made by compressing the liquid rather than the gas in the CAP.
- The ammonia solution has a high capacity to dissolve CO<sub>2</sub>, which can reduce the volume of solution with obvious advantages of reduced pump sizes, heat exchangers etc.
- Ammonia is a readily available chemical and will be cheaper and in direct comparison to amine it will be easier and cheaper to source. Ammonium carbonate and ammonium bicarbonate are very stable in solution and are not degradable, thus the make-up requirements are negligible.

- The stripping of the CO<sub>2</sub> from the ammonia solution also requires less heat input than that for the equivalent amine process.

### **Technical Barriers**

There are some technical barriers that must be overcome before CAP becomes commercially viable for both the power and cement industries. These are:

- Additional heat is required to dissolve the ammonium bicarbonate solids before transferring to the stripper column that may cancel out the energy benefits of the low energy absorption.
- The precipitation of the ammonium bicarbonate solids is an exothermic reaction requiring additional cooling.
- Ammonia slip into both the clean flue gas and the CO<sub>2</sub> captured requires additional water scrubbing that may not be economical.
- A large amount of refrigeration is required to keep the cooling water at 3°C, which will consume electricity.
- Full scale tests have still not been conducted and may highlight other performance issues that have not been mentioned in this report.

### **Capital and Operating Costs**

CAP is an emerging technology and so far has only been considered for the power generation industry. There is no cost data currently available for the process as applied to the cement industry but Mott MacDonald understands that the approximate EPC price for CAP is around \$2,200/kW and that preliminary indications are that the price of CAP is higher than the cost of MEA absorption. Mott MacDonald recommends that these figures are regarded with a degree of caution as the cost for the technology is not fully established. The equipment list for the CAP process is listed below:

#### **Flue Gas Cooling**

DCC units

Cooling tower

Pumps

#### **CO<sub>2</sub> Capture and Regeneration**

Spray Tower Absorber

Packed Bed Stripping Unit

High Pressure Slurry Pumps

Slurry recycle pumps

Rich/Lean Heat Exchanger

Flue Gas/CO<sub>2</sub> Heat Exchanger



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## Water Wash Units and Accessories

### Water Chillers

### CO<sub>2</sub> Compression and Drying

The operational costs will likely be lower than for the MEA system because CAP requires less steam for regeneration of the CO<sub>2</sub>. The cooling water, ammonia and power for the pumps will be the main costs linked with the operation of the plant.

## 4.5 Evaluation of Oxy-Combustion CO<sub>2</sub> Capture

### 4.5.1 Overview

As described in section 3.3.3 oxy-combustion technology as a means to achieve near-zero CO<sub>2</sub> emission power generation has been the subject of a significant number of research papers and reports (e.g. IEA GHG, 2005). Although Mott MacDonald does not anticipate full-scale commercialisation of oxy-combustion power plants to occur until around 2015 a small number of Original Equipment Manufacturers (OEMs) are developing the technology. Doosan Babcock, for example, is focussing its main efforts within CO<sub>2</sub> capture technologies on oxy-combustion for pulverised fuel power generation both as a retrofit technology and for applications to a new-build advanced power generation plant (Panesar and Sekkappan, 2007).

As described in section 3.3.3 the principle of oxy-combustion for power plants is to combust the fuel in an oxygen-rich atmosphere to create a CO<sub>2</sub>-rich exhaust that can be captured. This principle can also be applied to the cement production process. In an oxy-combustion cement production process the calcination and fuel combustion are undertaken in an oxygen-rich atmosphere to produce a flue gas comprising mainly CO<sub>2</sub> and water vapour. Although the concept is not new for the cement industry it is not being widely researched. Frank Zeman and Klaus Lackner at Columbia University, USA appear to be the only researchers to have published papers on the subject. Dr Zeman was consulted as part of this study.

### 4.5.2 Major Technical Issues

The major technical issues associated with the oxy-combustion cement production process are discussed below. Most of these issues are topics for fundamental research and are beyond the scope of this study. Although the feasibility of an oxy-combustion cement process remains to be proven, none of the issues identified was considered a “show-stopper” at the time of writing the report.

#### (i) Flame Temperatures and Dilution

The oxy-combustion process is based on excluding the inert components of air from the combustion process. These components, mainly composed of nitrogen gas, pass through the combustion chamber during conventional air firing without chemical change. The presence of the inerts does, however, play an important role as it dilutes the combustion process gases to yield acceptable flame temperatures. Flame temperatures in excess of 3500 °C can be achieved by oxygen combustion. This is too hot for normal operation so it is therefore essential that within an oxy-combustion process a

proportion of the CO<sub>2</sub>-rich flue gases are recycled back to the combustion zone to provide the necessary dilution. The flame temperature can be adjusted by varying the flue gas recycle ratio.

However, due to the requirement for high temperatures to achieve calcination and clinker formation the fact that it is far easier to reach high temperatures in oxygen combustion as compared to air combustion could be seen as an advantage for operating the cement process in this manner as it may lead to shorter residence times and permit reductions in the size.

## **(ii) Heat Transfer Characteristics**

The radiant heat fluxes and convective heat transfer performance of the combustion chamber are a function of the gas composition in the chamber. Changing the atmosphere within the combustion chamber from one dominated by nitrogen to one dominated by CO<sub>2</sub> will have a significant effect on the heat transfer characteristics. It should be noted that CO<sub>2</sub> has a higher molar heat capacity [ $C_p = 37.84 \text{ J}/(\text{mol K})$  at 20 °C, 1 bar(a)] than nitrogen [ $C_p = 28.86 \text{ J}/(\text{mol K})$  at 20 °C, 1 bar(a)] which may actually improve the heat transfer characteristics of the combustion chamber.

## **(iii) Feed Lifting**

Oxygen enrichment of cement kiln combustion has been practiced for a number of years on some kilns in the USA. Clark (2006) reports that the benefits in terms of increased clinker output are limited to ~15 per cent additional output for a ~2 per cent oxygen enrichment. Clark (2006) states that the reason for this is thought to be that nitrogen ballast in the exhaust gases plays an important role in lifting the feed between cyclone stages in the suspension preheater of a modern cement kiln. CO<sub>2</sub> is a denser gas than nitrogen and should be more effective in this feed lifting role within the suspension preheater. Hence, the recycled CO<sub>2</sub> is important not only for reducing the flame temperatures but also for a suspension preheater to work effectively.

## **(iv) Wear and Tear**

Due to the higher flame temperatures it is generally understood that cement kiln wall deterioration will increase at higher oxygen concentrations. Hence, there is a balance between achieving high temperatures for the cement production process and having to replace the kiln wall lining. Literature (e.g. Wrampe and Rolseth, 1976) suggests that 22-23% (w/w) “contained oxygen level” (or equivalent oxygen content of combustion air) is the optimum concentration in conventional kilns. Zeman (2007) indicated that a higher oxygen concentration of approx. 28.5% may be more optimal for an oxy-combustion system.

## **(v) Process Chemistry**

Research is on-going to determine whether clinker formation in a different atmosphere will still generate a useful product. Zeman and Lackner (2006) have indicated that they intend to undertake studies to compare conventional clinker with that produced in a CO<sub>2</sub> environment but no results have yet been published. Zeman (2008) reported the following to Mott MacDonald regarding his findings to date with changing the dominant gas in the kiln from nitrogen to carbon dioxide using a raw meal with a composition of 80.5% lime, 14.4% silica, 3.7% alumina and 1.4% hematite:

- In a CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere the onset of calcination is delayed until the reaction temperature reaches 900°C.
- In a CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere re-carbonation occurs immediately after the temperature drops below 900°C thus placing an emphasis on a stable temperature profile between the precalciner and the kiln as any re-carbonation will necessitate re-calcination.
- Despite the high partial pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> the evolution of CO<sub>2</sub> nears completion at temperatures above 1100°C indicating that temperatures in the kiln are high enough to fully calcine the raw meal.
- Brunauer Emmett Teller (BET) measurements showed a marked reduction in specific surface area for raw meal heated in a CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere compared to raw meal heated in a N<sub>2</sub> atmosphere. The reduced surface area may affect low temperature belite formation. However, once temperatures reach 1200°C the available surface area is similar for both environments.
- Once the calcination reaction is complete there is no difference between samples prepared in either atmosphere prior to the onset of clinker formation.
- The degree of sintering and chemical reactions induced by clinker formation at high temperatures prevents re-carbonation during cooling with CO<sub>2</sub>.

Further fundamental research into the thermodynamics, kinetics and equilibrium chemistry of driving off the CO<sub>2</sub> in a CO<sub>2</sub>-rich atmosphere is required to further develop the oxy-combustion cement process. This research was beyond the scope of this report.

#### **(vi) Air Dilution**

Air in-leaks occur in the raw mill, preheater and kiln. Excessive air in-leaks will result in contamination of the CO<sub>2</sub>-rich exhaust gas with nitrogen, oxygen and argon. These contaminants will require removal which will increase the costs of operating an oxy-combustion cement process. Any design for an oxy-combustion cement process must minimise air in-leaks.

#### **(vii) Flue Gas Clean-up**

Depending on the final storage location of the CO<sub>2</sub> the gas will require some clean-up. It may be necessary to remove water vapour, nitrogen, argon, NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>x</sub> from the flue gas stream. However, as the majority of the nitrogen has been removed from the combustion chamber levels of thermally generated NO<sub>x</sub> should be lower than in a conventional air fired system.

#### **(viii) Additional Power Requirements**

There will be additional power required for the compression of the CO<sub>2</sub>. Typically, this additional power requirement for compression of the CO<sub>2</sub> will be around 0.146 kWh/kgCO<sub>2</sub> (IEA GHG, 2005).

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**(ix) Air Separation Unit (ASU)**

An on-site air separation unit will be required to deliver oxygen to the oxy-combustion process. This will require energy and increase the electricity demand of the plant compared with a conventional plant. The power required by a cryogenic oxygen plant is typically in the range 200-240 kWh/tO<sub>2</sub> (IPCC, 2005).

IEA GHG have recently published a study (IEA GHG, 2007b) which includes descriptions of cryogenic and membrane oxygen production processes, their components and their integration into power generation and synthesis gas production processes with CO<sub>2</sub> capture. Readers are referred to this study for further information on recent and potential future improvements in these oxygen production processes.

**(x) Reducing Conditions**

It is recognised that the clinker must not be generated in reducing conditions. This necessitates that an excess of oxygen is maintained in the process. It is generally considered that the oxygen concentration should be maintained >2% (w/w).

**(xi) Heat Integration**

Oxy-combustion offers potential opportunities to maximise performance through integration of the additional oxy-combustion process units with the cement process. Options available are as follows:

- heat recovery from additional flue gas cooling
- heat recovery from CO<sub>2</sub> compression and ASU compressors
- direct mechanical drives for compressors.

Although heat integration between the CO<sub>2</sub> compression plant, ASU compressors and the cement plant could lead to energy savings it is important to understand that this may reduce the operational flexibility of the plant. There may be valid strategic reasons for having the capability to operate the cement plant without the CO<sub>2</sub> compression plant or ASU. Full heat integration may make this difficult to achieve.

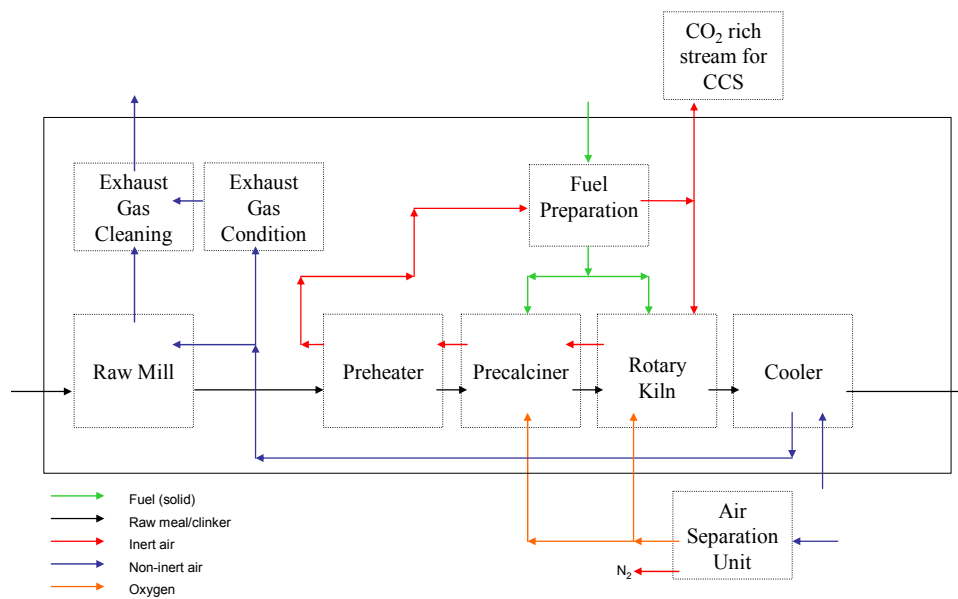
**4.5.3 Configurations Considered**

During the development of the conceptual design of an oxy-combustion cement plant a number of different configurations were considered. These are illustrated in Figure 4-8 to Figure 4-11. They can be summarised as:

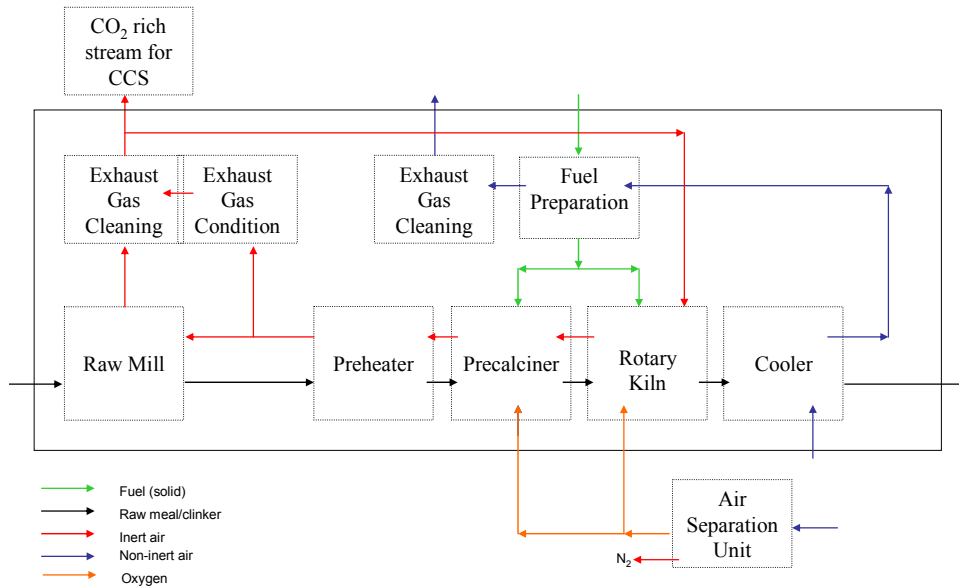
- **Configuration 1:** Diversion of preheater exit gases for fuel drying and subsequent capture or recycle.
- **Configuration 2:** Capture and recycle of all flue gases from cement plant with diversion of cooler exhaust for fuel drying.

- **Configuration 3:** Capture and recycle of all flue gases from cement plant with diversion of cooler exhaust for fuel drying and a 'leak-free' raw mill.
- **Configuration 4:** Dual preheaters with oxy-combustion in the precalciner only.

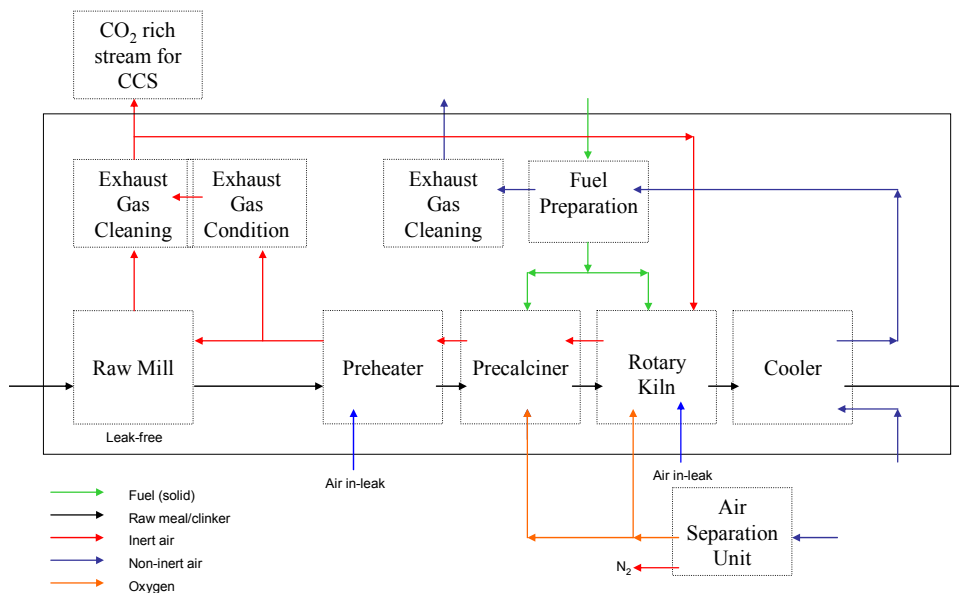
**Figure 4-8: Oxy-Combustion Cement Plant Configuration 1 - Diversion of Preheater Exit Gases for Fuel Drying and Subsequent Capture or Recycle**



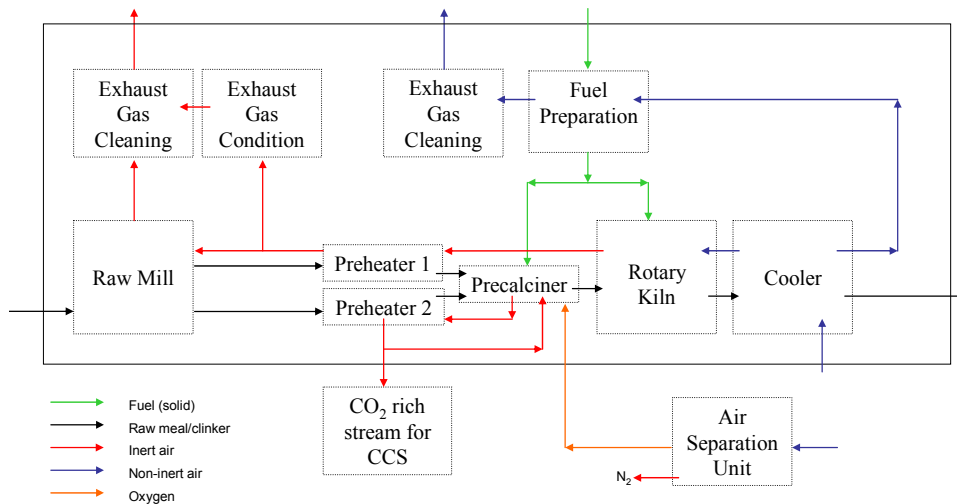
**Figure 4-9: Oxy-Combustion Cement Plant Configuration 2 - Capture and Recycle of all Flue Gases from Cement Plant with Diversion of Cooler Exhaust for Fuel Drying**



**Figure 4-10: Oxy-Combustion Cement Plant Configuration 3 - Capture and Recycle of all Flue Gases from Cement Plant with Diversion of Cooler Exhaust for Fuel Drying and a 'Leak-free' Raw Mill**



**Figure 4-11: Oxy-Combustion Cement Plant Configuration 4 - Dual Preheaters with Oxy-Combustion in the Precaliner only**



The advantages and disadvantages of the different configurations are compared in Table 4-7.

**Table 4-7: Comparison of Different Oxy-Combustion Configurations**

Configuration	1	2	3	4
<b>Advantages</b>	<p>The CO<sub>2</sub> generated in both the precaliner and the kiln is captured.</p> <p>Air in-leaks from raw mill are avoided.</p> <p>Inert gas is used for drying the fuel.</p>	<p>The CO<sub>2</sub> generated in both the precaliner and the kiln is captured.</p> <p>Heat demands are better matched than 1.</p>	<p>The CO<sub>2</sub> generated in both the precaliner and the kiln is captured.</p> <p>Heat demands are better matched than 1.</p> <p>Air in-leaks from raw mill are avoided.</p>	<p>Heat demands are better matched than 1.</p> <p>Kiln operates conventionally.</p> <p>Air in-leaks from kiln and raw mill are avoided.</p>
<b>Disadvantages</b>	<p>Heat demands are not matched. The drying requirement is greater in the raw mill than the fuel preparation. The heat available from</p>	<p>Kiln operation with CO<sub>2</sub>-rich atmosphere unproven.</p> <p>Non-inert gas is used for drying the</p>	<p>Kiln operation with CO<sub>2</sub>-rich atmosphere unproven.</p> <p>Non-inert gas is used for drying the</p>	<p>Only the CO<sub>2</sub> generated in the precaliner is captured.</p> <p>Non-inert gas is used for drying the fuel.</p>

	the preheater exhaust gases is not used effectively.	fuel. This can cause operational difficulties as it is a less safe mode of operation.	fuel. This can cause operational difficulties as it is a less safe mode of operation.	This can cause operational difficulties as it is a less safe mode of operation.
	Kiln operation with CO <sub>2</sub> -rich atmosphere unproven.	Air in-leaks in kiln, preheater and raw mill are not avoided.	Requires design of a leak-free raw mill resulting in significant capital cost increase.	
	The layout of cement plants is such that the raw mill is often remote from the air cooler.		Air in-leaks in kiln and preheater are not avoided.	
	Air in-leaks in kiln and preheater are not avoided.			
<b>Technical risk</b>	High	High	High	Medium

#### 4.5.4 Chosen Configuration

The operation of the precalciner was critical in determining the configuration which was taken forward for detailed evaluation. Precalciners in a modern cement plant consume ~60% of the fuel demand and are operated to undertake up to 95% of the calcination. Hence, the majority of the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions within a modern cement plant originate within the precalciner. The option to capture the majority of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the cement plant by focussing on a single unit without affecting the rest of the cement plant was considered to be the most cost effective and lowest risk configuration for reducing the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from a cement plant using oxy-combustion. Furthermore, by focussing only on the precalciner the difficulties of undertaking oxy-combustion in the kiln and the inherent problem of air in-leakage in the kiln and raw mill were avoided. Hence, configuration 4 was taken forward for detailed evaluation.

#### 4.5.5 Process Description

A detailed evaluation of configuration 4 was undertaken. It should be noted that the final configuration analysed in detail was a refinement of the preliminary configuration.

PFD 234996/OC/FS03 contained in Appendix E illustrates the major process units and process streams.

##### (i) Process Modelling

Mott MacDonald and Whitehopeleman developed a steady state mass and energy balance of the process using Excel. Each individual process unit was modelled. The mass flows into and out of each process unit were calculated based on simple performance equations derived from typical industry data or parameters. The energy flows were calculated using the basic thermodynamic properties of the components. Where necessary recycle loops were solved using an iterative approach.



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The outputs of this exercise were the compositions of the individual streams contained in Appendix E.

## (ii) General Description

PFD 234996/OC/FS03 in Appendix E shows the arrangement selected for the basis of this particular study. There are three key features that distinguish the process from a conventional cement plant:

- The combustion air for the precalciner is separated prior to the precalciner in an air separation unit (ASU). Only the oxygen (95 mol% oxygen with 2 mol% nitrogen and 3 mol% argon) is supplied to the precalciner, the nitrogen and argon are vented to atmosphere.
- Part of the precalciner exhaust gases, around 50% of the total, is recirculated back to the precalciner burners to provide the part of the ballasting effect which is carried out by the atmospheric nitrogen in a conventional system.
- The net flue gas from the precalciner is cooled and passed to the CO<sub>2</sub> compression and inerts separation plant. The net product is compressed, dried, the inerts separated and the pure CO<sub>2</sub> is further compressed to pipeline pressure of 110 bara.

A more detailed process description is described below.

## (iii) Raw Material Preparation

The raw material preparation is identical to the post-combustion capture cement plant described in section 4.4.5.

## (iv) Raw Mill

The premixed raw materials are extracted to a premix bin which feeds the vertical roller mill for raw grinding. Additional corrective raw material feed bins are provided for sand and iron oxide. These materials are imported to primary stockpiles and loaded into the raw mill feed bins via apron feeders and conveyor belts, as required by the process. The premix and corrective raw materials are extracted from their feed bins at a measured rate and conveyed to the raw mill in the proportions required to meet the kiln feed chemistry targets.

The raw mill is a vertical roller mill. Feed is delivered onto the centre of the rotating table of the mill and is drawn under the rollers of the mill which are pressed onto the material bed on the table by hydraulic cylinders. Ground raw material falls over the dam ring round the edge of the table and is lifted by the hot gases sweeping the mill through the mill body to the integral separator. Coarse material is rejected by the separator and falls back to the mill table for regrinding while fine material is drawn out of the separator and mill with the hot gases by the mill induced draft fan.

A combination of gases from elsewhere in the process are used to sweep the raw mill and dry the raw materials from their initial moisture content of 8% (w/w) to 1% (w/w). The gases comprise cooled 'tertiary air' (~411°C), excess exhaust gas from the kiln preheater (~330°C) and exhaust air from the clinker cooler (~270°C). The dried raw mix and sweeping air exit the raw mill at 100°C. The temperature of the hot gases entering the mill is tempered by recirculation of mill exhaust air in order to protect the bearings of the rollers and separator.

The raw milling system has a rated capacity of 240 tph in order to provide 33% overtaking capacity above the requirements of the kiln for raw mix kiln feed. This enables planned stops of the raw milling system for maintenance to take place for up to 6 hours per day. During these periods when the raw milling system is stopped the gases that are used for drying are diverted to an Organic Rankine Cycle (ORC) heat recovery system.

The fine, raw mix product is collected from the hot gases after the raw mill induced draft fan by collection cyclones and a bag filter for dedusting. The de-dusted gases are drawn through a fan and exhausted to atmosphere through the main stack. The collected raw mix product is transported mechanically to the combined raw mix homogenisation and storage silo. This homogenisation silo has a capacity of 10,000 tonnes in order to provide over 2 days buffer storage of ground raw mix kiln feed. Homogenisation of the raw mix in the silo is achieved by sequential activation of air slides in the segmented base of the silo by compressed air and extraction of material from a pressure relieved central chamber with a conical roof.

Power consumption of the raw milling and homogenisation system totals 25 kWh/t of clinker produced from the kiln.

#### **(v) Kiln Preheater**

Kiln feed raw mix is extracted from the homogenisation silo on airslides and delivered to the kiln preheater feed bin. From the kiln preheater feed bin the raw mix feed is extracted at a controlled rate (as specified by the operator) into an elevator which transports the meal to the top of the preheater where it is delivered into the gas riser duct between stage 2 and 1 cyclones (where the preheater cyclones are numbered in the order in which the material flows through them, i.e. stage 1 is the top stage and stage 4 is the bottom stage of the preheater). The kiln feed raw mix enters the kiln preheater at approximately 18.5 kg/s and 1% (w/w) moisture content when the kiln is operating at its design capacity.

The kiln preheater tower includes 4 preheating and collection stages with heat exchange taking place in the gas risers between cyclones and collection of the preheated feed taking place in the cyclones. Exhaust gases from the rotary kiln are drawn through the kiln preheater by the kiln preheater induced draft fan. Successive heat exchange between the rising exhaust gas and the feed in each successive stage of the preheater lifts the temperature of the kiln feed raw mix from 100°C to around 870°C at the discharge from the lower, fourth stage cyclone into the precalciner.

The temperature of the exhaust gases exiting the rotary section of the kiln into the kiln preheater is at 1100°C. Some of the partially preheated feed from the third stage cyclone of the kiln preheater therefore has to be delivered into the gas riser from the kiln to the lower, fourth stage of the kiln preheater tower in order to cool these exhaust gases. In this way melt formation and clogging in the kiln preheater tower is avoided. The feed used to cool the kiln exhaust gases in the gas riser from the kiln is therefore calcined in the kiln preheater tower and 32% of the calcination of the total feed takes place in the kiln and kiln preheater tower. The CO<sub>2</sub> derived from calcination of this portion of the total feed to the kiln is therefore not captured, in addition to the CO<sub>2</sub> derived from the combustion of the fuel in the main burner of the kiln.

The temperature of the exhaust gases passing through the kiln preheater fan is 330°C and these are ducted to: (i) the fuel grinding systems to provide inert gases for drying of the coal and petroleum coke in the fuel grinding systems; and (ii) the raw mill to provide additional drying capacity.

**(vi) Precalciner Preheater**

Kiln feed raw mix is extracted from the homogenisation silo on airslides and delivered to the precalciner preheater feed bin. From the precalciner preheater feed bin the raw mix feed is extracted at a controlled rate (as specified by the operator) into an elevator which transports the meal to top of the preheater where it is delivered into the gas riser duct between stage 2 and 1 cyclones (where the preheater cyclones are numbered in the order in which the material flows through them, i.e. stage 1 is the top stage and stage 5 is the bottom stage of the preheater). The kiln feed raw mix enters the precalciner preheater at approximately 33 kg/s and 1% (w/w) moisture content.

The precalciner preheater tower includes 5 preheating and collection stages with heat exchange taking place in the gas risers between cyclones and collection of the preheated feed taking place in the cyclones. Exhaust gases from the precalciner are drawn through the precalciner preheater by the precalciner preheater induced draft fan. Successive heat exchange between the rising exhaust gas and the feed in each successive stage of the preheater lifts the temperature of the kiln feed raw mix from 100°C to around 870°C at the discharge from the fourth stage cyclone into the precalciner.

This preheated feed from the fourth stage cyclone is joined by the feed from the lower, fourth stage cyclone of the kiln preheater in the precalciner. The total calcined feed exiting the precalciner is then separated from the precalciner exhaust gases in the lower, fifth stage of the precalciner preheater and delivered to the inlet hearth of the rotary kiln.

The temperature of the exhaust gases passing through the precalciner preheater fan is 330°C and these are split into a recycle stream (approximately 50% of total flow) and a stream for CO<sub>2</sub> capture (approximately 50% of total flow). The stream for CO<sub>2</sub> capture is passed through a gas-to-gas heat exchanger which heats up the oxygen generated from the ASU and then to an electrostatic precipitator (ESP) for dust collection prior to further purification.

**(vii) Precalciner**

The bulk of the calcination process is carried out in the precalciner. Dried pulverised coal is used as the fuel and is delivered at the required rate (2.4 kg/s at 1% (w/w) moisture) to ensure constant temperature operation of the precalciner at 900°C. This amounts to 65% of the total calorific input to the kiln system and is in line with the normal practice in the operation of precalciner cement kilns. For this particular configuration it is advantageous to maximise the proportion of the total fuel fired in the precalciner for CO<sub>2</sub> capture purposes as this increases the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> generated from both the combustion of fuel and the calcination of the feed which can be subsequently captured. However, the ability to raise the proportion of fuel fired in the precalciner is limited by the requirement to fire a safe minimum proportion of the fuel on the main burner of the kiln to ensure stable operation. It is estimated that 68% of the calcination takes place in the precalciner and precalciner preheater tower.

In a conventional in-line precalciner the oxygen for the combustion of the precalciner fuel is part drawn from the excess air in the hot kiln exhaust gases rising from the rotary kiln and part from the hot tertiary air drawn from the hot end of the clinker cooler which have bypassed the kiln via the tertiary air duct. In this case the oxygen for the combustion of the precalciner fuel is provided by oxygen from the air separation unit (ASU). The oxygen stream has had its temperature raised by heat exchange with the stream diverted for CO<sub>2</sub> capture. This heated oxygen stream is mixed with the recycle stream which has a high concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> before the combined stream is heated by the 'tertiary' air from the clinker cooler in a gas-to-gas heat exchanger. The cooled tertiary air then passes to the raw mill for drying.

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The quantity of recycle gas is set to ensure:

- complete combustion
- that reducing conditions do not occur within the precalciner (an excess of oxygen of 1.2% w/w at exit of precalciner is provided)
- the weight of ballast gas is maintained at the amount required for conventional combustion.

#### **(viii) Rotary Kiln**

The precalcined material from the precalciner is collected in the lower stage cyclone of the precalciner preheater tower and enters the kiln via the kiln inlet hearth. From this point forward the rotary kiln is operating in the conventional manner of a precalciner cement kiln. A burner is situated both centrally and co-axially with the kiln at the front end of the kiln. Petroleum coke is fired into the front end of the kiln whilst monitoring the kiln burning conditions. The hot clinker leaving the kiln falls into the clinker cooler. The kiln rotates at between 3 and 4 revolutions per minute driven by the main drive of the kiln.

#### **(ix) Fuel Preparation**

The raw coal preparation is identical to the post-combustion capture cement plant described in section 4.4.5 except that: (i) the vertical roller mill is swept by exhaust gases from the kiln preheater (which have a temperature of approximately 330°C); and (ii) the metered coal from the precalciner fine coal bin is delivered pneumatically to the precalciner coal burners using precalciner recycle gas as the transport gas.

The raw petroleum coke preparation is identical to the post-combustion capture cement plant described in section 4.4.5 except that the vertical roller mill is swept by exhaust gases from the kiln preheater (which have a temperature of approximately 330°C).

#### **(x) Clinker Cooler**

The clinker cooler is identical to the post-combustion capture cement plant described in section 4.4.5 except that the hot tertiary air at 795°C is drawn into the tertiary air duct from above the cooler horizontal grate and used to: (i) heat up the recycled CO<sub>2</sub> and oxygen for combustion of the coal in the precalciner; and (ii) to dry the raw materials in the raw mill. The lower temperature excess air resulting from the final clinker cooling is also passed to the raw mill for drying.

#### **(xi) Cement Milling**

The cement milling is identical to the post-combustion capture cement plant described in section 4.4.5.

#### **(xii) Packing and Loading**

The cement packing and loading is identical to the post-combustion capture cement plant described in section 4.4.5.

**(xiii) Air Separation Unit (ASU)**

The oxygen flow required in the precalciner (5.51 kg/s) is supplied at 95% mol purity from the Air Separation Unit (ASU).

Oxygen will be produced in an ASU with a maximum capacity of 600 t/d. This is well within the range of installed plant output. The process is well known and produces gaseous oxygen by boiling liquid oxygen and is ideally suited to this application as the delivery pressure is low. There is no requirement for either pumping the liquid oxygen or compressing the gaseous product.

A low purity cycle is used which produces 95% mol oxygen purity. Studies (e.g. IEA GHG, 2005) have been carried out to show that for oxy-combustion power plants this is the optimum purity. This is principally due to two factors:

- There will always be some air in-leakage and there will always be some inerts that must be removed in the CO<sub>2</sub> purification plant.
- The increase in power required for the ASU to produce 99.5% mol purity oxygen is greater than the increase in CO<sub>2</sub> compression power required to remove inerts introduced due to lower purity oxygen.

These factors also apply for a cement plant.

The oxygen is delivered from the plant at around 16°C. This is heated up to 310°C in a gas-to-gas heat exchanger with the stream for CO<sub>2</sub> purification and compression which requires cooling.

The separated air stream containing predominantly nitrogen and argon is vented to atmosphere. It should be noted that there are potential revenues available from using this stream to produce nitrogen and argon for sale. Further uses of this gas stream have not been considered as part of this study.

**(xiv) Gas Mixer**

A proportion (approximately 50%) of the precalciner preheater exhaust gases is drawn by fan to a gas mixer which mixes this stream (at 330°C) with the heated oxygen (at 310°C) to form the precalciner recycle (at 325 °C). The combined stream is mostly CO<sub>2</sub> (63.7% w/w) and oxygen (23.1% w/w). The mixing is undertaken by introducing turbulence in a length of pipe by the use of orifices or baffles.

**(xv) Gas-to-Gas Heat Exchanger (Recycle/'Tertiary Air')**

The recycle stream (at 325°C) passes to a gas-to-gas heat exchanger where the hot 'tertiary' air (at 795°C) is used to heat up the recycle stream to temperatures approaching the operation temperature of the precalciner. The cooled tertiary air is used for raw mill drying.

It is recognised that the operation of such a high temperature gas-to-gas heat exchanger with a high dust load is a significant technical challenge. However, during the course of their investigations for this study, Mott MacDonald became aware that there is some experience within the cement industry of operating such high temperature and high dust load gas-to-gas heat exchangers and that currently an inlet temperature of around 800°C is considered to be the acceptable maximum.

**(xvi) ESP**

The proportion of precalciner preheater exhaust gases that have been sent for purification and CO<sub>2</sub> capture exit the gas-to-gas heat exchanger at around 248°C. This gas contains dust from the preheater which must be removed prior to further purification steps. An electrostatic precipitator (ESP) is used for this purpose rather than a bag filter as the literature (e.g. EC, 2001) suggests that they operate better at higher temperatures compared to bag filters.

If the CO<sub>2</sub> is not to be captured (e.g. during start-up) then the exit stream from the ESP can be vented directly to atmosphere.

**(xvii) Product Gas Purification**

The dedusted gas is cooled further, dried and then passed through a compression and inerts (nitrogen and argon) and oxygen removal stage that delivers a final CO<sub>2</sub> product (16.9 kg/s) of 95% (mol) at 110 bara.

The CO<sub>2</sub>-rich flue gas leaves the ESP at approximately 248°C. The first part of the CO<sub>2</sub> treatment system cools the flue gas, thus removing the moisture by condensation, and compresses it to 30 bara.

A venturi mixer is used to quench the gas with water to a temperature where a conventional indirect seawater contact cooler can be used. A two column system is used. The first column cools the flue gas to 35°C by direct contact with condensate that has been cooled against seawater in titanium plate-frame heat exchangers. The exit stream from this column is then further cooled against seawater to a temperature of 13°C in a second direct contact cooler.

The net flue gas is now around 79% (mol) CO<sub>2</sub> and at atmospheric pressure. It is now compressed to 30 bara for further drying before purification. Compression to 30 bara is carried out in two stages. The first compressor compresses the CO<sub>2</sub> adiabatically to 15 bara. Cooling water is used to further cool the raw CO<sub>2</sub> to 20°C before compression to 30 bara with intercooling using cooling water.

The raw CO<sub>2</sub> gas passes through a temperature swing dual bed desiccant dryer.

The inerts removal process uses the principle of phase separation between condensed liquid CO<sub>2</sub> and insoluble inerts gas. The actual CO<sub>2</sub> pressure levels used for the separation are fixed by the specification of > 95% (mol) CO<sub>2</sub> product purity and the need to reduce the CO<sub>2</sub> vented with the inerts to an economic minimum.

It has been assumed that any excess O<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> or NO<sub>x</sub> present in the CO<sub>2</sub> need not be removed. For specific applications requiring higher purity CO<sub>2</sub> (e.g. > 98%) the process would need some modification.

It should be noted that the condensed water obtained from the indirect seawater cooler and temperature swing bed desiccant dryer will contain dissolved acid gas components. Recent work by Air Products (White, 2007) indicates that most of the SO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> will be removed as acids during the CO<sub>2</sub> compression. This acidic waste stream will require neutralisation prior to discharge.

**(xviii) CO<sub>2</sub> Compression**

The final compression stage takes the gas up to 110 bara for pipeline transmission.

**(xix) Organic Rankine Cycle (ORC) unit**

During periods when the main process is still operating but the raw mill is not running then the gases that are normally used for the drying (i.e. cooled 'tertiary' air, kiln preheater exhaust and clinker cooler exhaust gas) will be diverted to an Organic Rankine Cycle (ORC) heat recovery system. This unit will be used to generate electrical power which could be used on the site or exported to the grid.

The basic operating principle of the system is as follows:

- The heat contained in the waste gases is transferred to a closed loop circulating low pressure thermal oil.
- The thermal oil heat content is transferred to the energy converter motive fluid (typically a hydrocarbon such as pentane) in a vaporiser.
- The motive fluid is used to generate electrical power through a specially designed impulse type turbine.
- The motive fluid is condensed and returned to the vaporiser.

Mott MacDonald estimates that it would be possible to generate a maximum electrical power of 4.7 MW if all the hot gases were sent to the ORC unit.

**(xx) Electrical Supply**

The total installed power required by the plant is estimated at 31.3 MW (see Table 4-8). The operating power, operating hours and the power consumed of all the major process units are also shown in Table 4-8. It has been assumed that a suitable grid connection is available.

It should be noted that the ORC will be capable of generating a maximum electrical power of 4.67 MW when the hot gases are not being used for raw mill drying. It has been assumed that this will only occur for 15% of operational hours.

**Table 4-8: Electrical Demand of Oxy-combustion Cement Plant with CO<sub>2</sub> capture**

Process Area	Main Equipment Items	Installed Power (MWe)	Operating Power (MWe)	Operating hours per year	Power consumed (MWh/y)
Raw Material Preparation	Limestone crusher	0.60	0.51	2080	1061
	Shale crusher	0.20	0.17	2080	354
	Stacker-reclaimer system	0.28	0.24	2080	500
Raw Mill	Raw mill drive	1.20	1.02	5730	5845
	Raw mill fan	1.50	1.28	5730	7306
	Raw mill ancillaries	-	-	-	-
	Raw mill bag filter	-	-	-	-
	Bag filter fan	1.20	1.02	5730	5845
	Homogenising chamber silo	0.12	0.10	5730	560
Kiln preheater	Preheater (kiln) feed bin	-	-	-	-
	4 stage preheater	-	-	-	-
	Preheater (kiln) fan	0.35	0.30	7920	2356
Precalciner preheater	Preheater (precalciner) feed bin	-	-	-	-
	5 stage preheater	-	-	-	-
	Preheater (precalciner) fan	0.55	0.47	7920	3703
Precalciner	Precalciner	-	-	-	-
Rotary Kiln	Kiln	0.65	0.55	7920	4349
Clinker Cooler	Grate cooler	1.00	0.85	7920	6732
	Cooler bag filter				
	Cooler bag filter				
	Clinker crusher				
	Clinker conveyor				
	Clinker storage silo				
	Export clinker hopper				
Coal preparation	Coal milling system	0.30	0.26	6095	1554
Petroleum coke preparation	Petroleum coke mill	0.30	0.26	6095	1554
Cement milling	Mill 1	3.15	2.68	5580	14940
	Mill 2	3.15	2.68	5580	14940
Packing and loading	Silo 1	-	-	-	-
	Silo 2	-	-	-	-
	Bag packing plant	0.50	0.43	7920	3366
ORC heat recovery unit	Electrostatic precipitator	0.08	0.06	1188	76
	ORC heat recovery unit	-	-	-	-
	Exhaust gas fan	0.70	0.60	1188	707



Process Area	Main Equipment Items	Installed Power (MWe)	Operating Power (MWe)	Operating hours per year	Power consumed (MWh/y)
Air Separation Unit	Main air compressors	6.00	5.10	7920	40392
	Air purification system				
	Main heat exchanger				
	ASU compander				
	ASU column system				
	Pumps				
	Gas-to-gas heat exchanger for oxygen/product				
Recycle	Backup storage vessel				
	Recycle stream fan	0.33	0.28	7920	2188
	Gas mixer	-	-	-	-
Electrostatic precipitator	Gas-to-gas heat exchanger for 'tertiary air'/recycle	-	-	-	-
	Electrostatic precipitator	0.08	0.06	7920	505
	Electrostatic precipitator fan	0.23	0.19	7920	1515
CO <sub>2</sub> compression and purification	Venturi scrubber	8.88	7.55	7920	59763
	Indirect contact cooler				
	Direct contact seawater cooler				
	Compressors				
	Heat exchangers				
	Flue gas expander				
<b>Total</b>		<b>31.32</b>	<b>26.62</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>180109</b>

#### 4.5.6 Plant Performance

The performance of the oxy-combustion cement plant with CO<sub>2</sub> capture is shown in Table 4-9. Note that for the purposes of this analysis the CO<sub>2</sub> emitted from the electricity delivered to site is not included in the CO<sub>2</sub> emitted figure.

The CO<sub>2</sub> capture rate of the plant is 52%.

**Table 4-9: Performance of Oxy-combustion Cement Plant with CO<sub>2</sub> capture**

	<b>Parameter</b>	<b>Unit</b>	<b>Value</b>
Inputs	Raw meal consumed	t/y	1,508,424
	Coal required	t/y	72,061
	Petroleum coke required	t/y	27,091
	Oxygen (at 95% mol) from ASU	t/y	166,298
	Electricity consumption	MWh/y	174,562
Outputs	Clinker produced	t/y	910,000
	Cement produced	t/y	1,000,000
	CO <sub>2</sub> captured	t/y	465,014
	CO <sub>2</sub> emitted	t/y	282,853

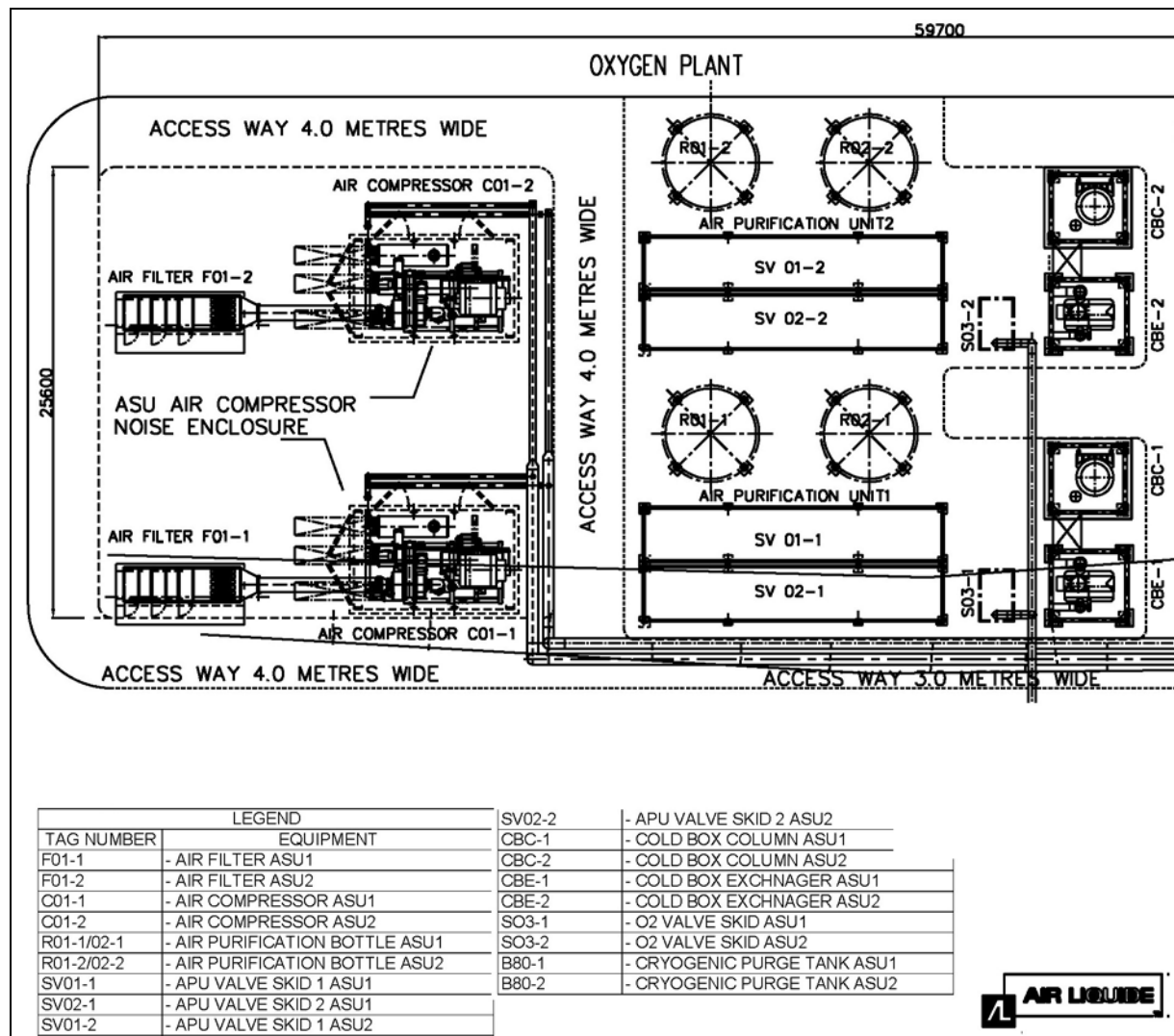
#### 4.5.7 Plant Layout

The process units and ancillary buildings will need to be laid out to give the most economical flow of materials and personnel around the site. A detailed layout of an oxy-combustion cement plant is beyond the scope of this study but it is important to note that the following will need to be considered:

- Cement plants are typically laid out linearly.
- Hazardous materials (e.g. oxygen) should be stored at a safe distance from other buildings.
- The ancillary buildings should be located so as to minimise the time spent by personnel in travelling between buildings.
- Administration offices should be located well away from potentially hazardous processes.
- Utility buildings should be sited to give the most economical run of pipes to and from the process units.
- Equipment should be located so that it can be conveniently tied in with any future expansion of the site.

Mott MacDonald estimates that the footprint of an oxy-combustion cement plant would be similar to a cement plant without CO<sub>2</sub> capture. A typical 1 Mt/y cement plant without cement capture would occupy approximately 15 ha (500 m x 300 m) but could be accommodated in less space if necessary. Mott MacDonald estimates that the additional equipment required for an oxy-combustion cement plant (ASU, ORC, recycle and CO<sub>2</sub> compression equipment etc.) would require approximately 0.5 ha. The limestone quarry would occupy a much larger area, possibly as much as 200 ha (2000 m x 1000 m). For illustration purposes Figure 4-12 shows the typical layout for 2 x 330 tpd ASUs. The footprint of this plant is 25.6 m x 59.7 m.

Figure 4-12: Typical Layout for 2 x 330 tpd ASUs (Air Liquide)



#### 4.5.8 Operation Considerations

The following key operation considerations have been identified for the oxy-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture cement plant:

- The precalciner must be designed in such a way as to permit air-firing as a fall-back position should there be an interruption in supply from the ASU. Therefore, adequate backup for the ASU should be provided in order to allow a controlled change-over to air-firing. Backup should be in the form of liquid oxygen enough of which will be stored on site to allow controlled changeover to air-firing. A liquid oxygen capacity of 60 tonne capacity should be sufficient (3 hours of operation). It will be stored at 2.5 bara in a vacuum insulated storage tank which can be filled by gravity from the ASU. This tank would also be used during start-up of the ASU.
- As mentioned in section 4.5.5(xix), if the raw mill is not operating then the hot gases which are normally used for drying will be diverted to an Organic Rankine Cycle (ORC) unit for generating electrical power.

- As mentioned in section 4.5.5(xvi), if the CO<sub>2</sub> purification and compression plant is not available then it will be possible to discharge the purge stream following dust removal in the ESP. This route will also be used during start-up until a sufficiently concentrated CO<sub>2</sub> stream is achieved.
- For operational flexibility the provision to use tertiary air in the precalciner should be included. This will help during start-up.
- It has been noted within the cement industry that there are operational difficulties with using separate line calciners (SLCs). The principal issue relates to blocking that can occur if flow is stopped (e.g. during a power cut or a shut down). It is important that sufficient emergency generator power is available on site to ensure fans remain operational so that a controlled shut down can be undertaken. In addition, the design of the ductwork around the SLC must be such that the settling of calcined material is prevented.

#### **4.5.9 Emissions and Environmental Considerations**

An oxy-combustion capture cement plant will achieve emission standards well below current cement plants. This is an added advantage of CO<sub>2</sub> capture. Some emissions will occur and these are discussed in the following sections.

##### **(i) Emission Sources**

During normal operation there will be five main discharges to atmosphere. These are:

- exhaust gases from the raw mill
- exhaust gases from the coal dryer
- exhaust gases from the petroleum coke dryer
- waste gas from the ASU
- inerts and oxygen from the CO<sub>2</sub> purification plant.

The following discharges would also occur:

- purge stream gas during start-up and when CO<sub>2</sub> purification and compression plant is not available
- discharge gases from ORC unit when raw mill is not operating.

These gases could be discharged via a single stack or via individual stacks depending on the layout, cost and the environmental constraints imposed on the plant.

**(ii) Dust**

As discussed in section 0 the best available techniques for reducing dust emissions from point sources is the application of electrostatic precipitators (ESPs) and/or fabric filters. The BAT emission level<sup>2</sup> associated with these techniques is 20-30 mg dust/m<sup>3</sup> (EC, 2001). Discharges from the raw mill, the coal dryer and the petroleum coke dryer will pass through bag filters prior to discharge. Discharges from the ORC or the purge stream will pass through ESPs prior to discharge. The selection of ESPs over bag filters in these cases is due to the reported better performance of ESPs at higher temperatures. All other emissions will not contain dust and will not require treatment.

Through use of these abatement technologies it is expected that dust emissions from the plant will be within the BAT range i.e. 20-30 mg dust/m<sup>3</sup>.

Any dust collected would be recycled back through the process.

**(iii) NO<sub>x</sub> Emissions**

The level of NO<sub>x</sub> present in the flue gases from oxy-combustion processes are considered to be lower than for conventionally operated processes due to the reduction in production of thermal NO<sub>x</sub>. However, in the configuration under consideration, the kiln is operating in a conventional mode so the production of thermal NO<sub>x</sub> and fuel NO<sub>x</sub> from the kiln will be the same. Production of thermal NO<sub>x</sub> in the precalciner will not be significant due to the reduced levels of nitrogen and the temperature of operation. Production of fuel NO<sub>x</sub> will be generated as per a conventional process.

NO<sub>x</sub> emissions will occur in:

- exhaust gases from the raw mill
- exhaust gases from the coal dryer
- exhaust gases from the petroleum coke dryer
- inerts and oxygen from the CO<sub>2</sub> purification plant
- purge stream gas during start-up and when CO<sub>2</sub> purification and compression plant is not available
- discharge gases from ORC unit when raw mill is not operating.

The BAT techniques for reducing NO<sub>x</sub> emissions are a combination of general primary measures, primary measures to control NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, staged combustion and selective non-catalytic reduction (SNCR). It is anticipated that a combination of these techniques would be used to ensure that the BAT emission level<sup>3</sup> of 200-500 mg NO<sub>x</sub>/m<sup>3</sup> (as NO<sub>2</sub>) was achieved from the discharges.

Recent work by Air Products (White, 2007) has indicated that most of the NO<sub>x</sub> in the CO<sub>2</sub> stream will be removed as nitric acid during compression. Hence, the inerts and oxygen from the CO<sub>2</sub> purification plant should contain negligible levels of NO<sub>x</sub>.

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<sup>2</sup> Emission levels are expressed on a daily average basis and standard conditions of 273 K, 101.3 kPa, 10% oxygen and dry gas.

<sup>3</sup> Emission levels are expressed on a daily average basis and standard conditions of 273 K, 101.3 kPa, 10% oxygen and dry gas.

The costs associated with any NO<sub>x</sub> emissions reduction measures have not been included in the cost estimate for the oxy-combustion process option.

#### **(iv) SO<sub>x</sub> Emissions**

As discussed in Section 0, modern cement plants which do not have sulphide minerals in their raw materials have very low emissions of SO<sub>x</sub> and often achieve emission levels below 10 mgSO<sub>2</sub>/m<sup>3</sup> without using abatement techniques (EC 2001). In this case it is assumed that the raw meal originates from NE Scotland and contains 0.33% (w/w – dry basis) sulphur.

It is expected that 30% or more of the sulphur in the raw material will be evaporated and be emitted from the first stage of the preheater and that SO<sub>2</sub> will be the main (99%) sulphur compound to be released (EC 2001). In this case the emissions will be emitted from both the kiln preheater and the precalciner preheater.

The gases from the kiln preheater are used for drying within the raw mill (when in operation) and for fuel drying. It is reported that between 20-70% of the SO<sub>2</sub> that is passed to the raw mill will be captured by the finely ground raw materials (EC 2001).

The gases from the precalciner preheater are either recycled back to the precalciner or are passed forward for CO<sub>2</sub> purification and compression. It is expected that SO<sub>2</sub> recycled back to the precalciner will be absorbed into the solid material. It is also expected that most of the SO<sub>2</sub> passed forward to the CO<sub>2</sub> purification and compression stages will be removed in the condensate during the contact cooling process prior to CO<sub>2</sub> compression. Recent work by Air Products (White, 2007) has indicated that most of the SO<sub>2</sub> in the CO<sub>2</sub> stream will be removed as sulphuric acid during compression. Hence, the inerts and oxygen from the CO<sub>2</sub> purification plant should contain negligible levels of SO<sub>2</sub>.

It is expected that sulphur in the fuels fed to the precalciner or kiln will not lead to significant SO<sub>2</sub> emissions due to the strong alkaline nature in the sintering zone, the calcination zone and the lower stages of the preheaters. This sulphur will be captured in the clinker.

The BAT techniques for reducing SO<sub>2</sub> emissions are a combination of general primary measures and absorbent addition for initial emission levels not higher than about 1200 mg/m<sup>3</sup> of SO<sub>2</sub> and a wet or dry scrubber for initial emission levels higher than about 1200 mg/m<sup>3</sup> of SO<sub>2</sub>. The BAT emission level<sup>4</sup> associated with these techniques is 200-400 mg/m<sup>3</sup> of SO<sub>2</sub>.

The costs associated with any SO<sub>x</sub> emissions reduction measures have not been included in the cost estimate for the oxy-combustion process option.

#### **(v) Effluent**

During normal operation there will be three main effluent discharges. These are:

- condensed water from the indirect seawater cooler
- seawater discharge from the direct seawater cooler

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<sup>4</sup> Emission levels are expressed on a daily average basis and standard conditions of 273 K, 101.3 kPa, 10% oxygen and dry gas.

- water obtained from temperature swing dual bed desiccant dryer.

The condensed water obtained from the indirect seawater cooler and temperature swing bed desiccant dryer will contain acidic components. Recent work by Air Products (White, 2007) indicates that most of the SO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> will be removed as acids during the CO<sub>2</sub> compression. This acidic waste stream will require neutralisation prior to discharge. However, it may be possible to convert the sulphuric acid produced into gypsum by direct reaction with limestone in a stirred tank reactor. The gypsum could then be used in the cement production process. The effluent from this process would contain soluble calcium nitrate. Mott MacDonald has not investigated the feasibility of this option further.

The seawater obtained from direct seawater cooler will also contain some dissolved acid gas components and may require further treatment prior to discharge. It should be noted that previous studies examining oxy-combustion at power plants (IEA GHG, 2005) have shown this stream being discharged directly back to the sea.

The costs associated with any effluent treatment have not been included in the cost estimate for the oxy-combustion process option.

#### (vi) Others

As discussed in Section 2.4.2 in addition to dust, NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>x</sub> there are a number of pollutants considered to be of concern for the production of cement. These include:

- Carbon monoxide
- Volatile organic compounds (VOCs)
- Polychlorinated dibenzodioxins and dibenzofurans (PCDDs and PCDFs)
- Metals and their compounds
- HF
- HCl.

The fate of these pollutants within the oxy-combustion process has not been examined in detail within this study. However, it is important to note that the recycling of exit gases from the precalciner preheater will result in material with a high calcium oxide content being in contact with gases containing acid species such as HF and HCl. It is therefore expected that these species will be absorbed within the clinker and will result in a reduction of emissions as compared to a standard cement plant.

#### 4.5.10 Design Risk Assessment

It is of paramount importance that an oxy-combustion cement plant is implemented safely and without significant impact upon operational flexibility. Mott MacDonald have undertaken a preliminary design risk assessment to identify the major additional plant operation risks that need to be considered beyond those that apply for a cement plant without carbon capture. The results of this exercise are shown in Table 4-10. It is important to note that this exercise would have to be repeated in greater detail if a detailed design of an oxy-combustion cement plant was undertaken.

**Table 4-10: Preliminary Design Risk Assessment for Oxy-Combustion CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Cement Plant**

<b>Hazard Ref</b>	<b>Hazard</b>	<b>Stage of work</b>	<b>Risk Control Measures</b>	<b>Owner</b>	<b>Comment</b>
1	Risk of operator suffocation as CO <sub>2</sub> is an asphyxiant	Operation	1. Standards, codes of practice etc. to be adopted during design. 2. Appropriate material selection during design. 3. HAZOP study to be undertaken.	Contractor	Hazards associated with handling CO <sub>2</sub> are well understood from other industries.
2	Risk of fire or explosion as O <sub>2</sub> may ignite on contact with combustible materials.	Operation	1. Standards, codes of practice etc. to be adopted during design. 2. Appropriate material selection during design. 3. HAZOP study to be undertaken. 4. ATEX assessment to be performed.	Contractor	Hazards associated with handling O <sub>2</sub> are well understood from other industries.
3	Risk of dust explosion in fuel milling and drying stages.	Operation	1. Standards, codes of practice etc. to be adopted during design. 2. HAZOP study to be undertaken. 3. ATEX assessment to be performed.	Contractor	Hazards associated with explosive dusts are well understood within cement industry.
4	Risk of corrosion damage due to presence of acidic components (e.g. SO <sub>2</sub> , SO <sub>3</sub> and HCl) in gas streams.	Operation	1. Standards, codes of practice etc. to be adopted during design. 2. Appropriate material selection during design.	Contractor	Hazards associated with acidic components in gas streams are well understood from other industries.
5	Risk of operator exposure to extreme temperatures as	Operation	1. Standards, codes of practice etc. to be adopted during design.	Contractor	Hazards associated with low temperatures



Hazard Ref	Hazard	Stage of work	Risk Control Measures	Owner	Comment
	very low temperatures present in cryogenic air separation unit.		2. Appropriate material selection during design. 3. HAZOP study to be undertaken.		are well understood from other industries.
6	Risk of operator suffocation as N <sub>2</sub> is an asphyxiant	Operation	1. Standards, codes of practice etc. to be adopted during design.	Contractor	Hazards associated with handling N <sub>2</sub> are well understood from other industries.
7	Risk of fire as pentane used in ORC which is flammable.	Operation	1. Standards, codes of practice etc. to be adopted during design. 2. Appropriate material selection during design. 3. HAZOP study to be undertaken	Contractor	Hazards associated with handling hydrocarbons are well understood from other industries.
8	Risk of damage caused by release of high pressure as high pressures present in CO <sub>2</sub> compression unit.	Operation	1. Standards, codes of practice etc. to be adopted during design. 2. HAZOP study to be undertaken	Contractor	Hazards associated with handling high pressures are well understood from other industries.

## 5 Economic Analysis of CO<sub>2</sub> Capture at a New-Build Cement Plant

### 5.1 Introduction

This section of the report describes the assessment of the capital and operating costs of adding CO<sub>2</sub> capture to a new-build cement plant. Both post-combustion and oxy-combustion capture options are reported.

Various sensitivities have also been investigated.

### 5.2 Assumptions

The main financial assumptions used for this study were based on the IEA GHG R&D programme Technical & Financial Assessment Criteria (IEA GHG, 2003). These have been developed for the technical and financial assessment of power plants with CO<sub>2</sub> capture. Discussions were held with the BCA to modify some of the assumptions to be relevant to the cement industry.

The key points are summarised below:

#### Location

- A green field site with no special civil works implications was assumed.
- Adequate plant and facilities to make the plant self-sufficient in site services were included in the investment costs.

#### Currency

- The results of the studies are expressed in Euro € applicable to a specific year.
- An exchange rate of 1 Euro = 0.694 UK £ has been applied where necessary.
- An exchange rate of 1 Euro = 1.389 US \$ has been applied where necessary.

#### Design and Construction

- The 'S' curve of expenditure during construction of the cement plant was as follows:

Year 1	20% investment
Year 2	45% investment
Year 3	35% investment

#### Plant Life

- A design life of twenty five years is assumed as the basis for the economic appraisal.

**Load Factor**

- The load factor, defined as the achieved output as a percentage of rated nameplate capacity, for the cement plant is assumed as follows:

Year 1	60% of rated capacity
Subsequent years	90% of nameplate capacity

**Cost of Debt**

- All capital requirements are treated as debt at the same discount rate used to derive capital charges.
- There is no allowance for grants, cheap loans etc.
- Specific capital cost figures are presented without including an allowance for funds used during contingencies.

**Capital charges**

- Discounted cash flow calculations are expressed at a discount rate of 10%.
- Inflation assumptions have not been made. No allowance is made for escalation of fuel, labour or other costs relative to each other.

**Contingencies**

- A contingency has been added to the capital cost to give a 50% probability of a cost over-run or under-run. The value of the contingency is taken as 5% of the installed cement plant cost and 10% of the installed CO<sub>2</sub> capture technology plant cost.
- All plant is assumed to be built on a turnkey basis i.e. the cost of risk is built into the contractor's fees.

**Fees**

- The contractor's fees for design and build form part of the basic plant cost estimate.
- 5% of the installed plant cost (excluding contingency) has been included to cover owners costs such as land purchase, surveys and general site preparation etc.
- 2% of the installed plant cost (excluding contingency) has been included to cover fees such as process/patent fees, fees for agents or consultants, and legal and planning costs.

**Commissioning and Working Capital**

- A 3 month commissioning period has been assumed for all plant.
- Sufficient storage for 7 days operation at rated capacity will be allowed for limestone.

- 
- Sufficient storage for 15 days operation at rated capacity will be allowed for coal, petroleum coke, other raw materials, products and consumables.
  - Allowance is made for receipts from product sales during the commissioning period.

**Decommissioning**

- The remediation cost of the cement plant quarries was not included in this analysis.

**Taxation and Insurance**

- 1% per year of the installed plant cost (excluding contingency and fees) has been allowed to cover specific services e.g. local rates.
- Taxation on profits has not been included in the assessments.
- An allowance of 1% per year of the installed plant cost (excluding contingency and fees) has been included to cover insurance.

**Maintenance**

- Routine and breakdown maintenance has been allowed for at 4% per year of installed plant cost (excluding contingency and fees) for solids handling plant and at 2% per year for plants handling gases and liquids and services plant.
- The cost of maintenance labour is assumed to be included within the labour costs.

**Labour**

- Operating labour only has been identified and assumed to work in a 5 shift pattern.
- The annual salary of an operator has been assumed to be €40,000/yr.
- An allowance of 20% of the operating labour direct costs has been included to cover supervision.
- A further 30% of direct labour costs has been included to cover administration and general overheads.

**Fuels and raw materials**

- The cost of limestone delivered to the site is assumed to be €3/tonne.
- The cost of shale delivered to the site is assumed to be €1.5/tonne.
- The cost of sand delivered to the site is assumed to be €50/tonne.
- The cost of iron oxide delivered to the site is assumed to be €50/tonne.
- The cost of gypsum delivered to the site is assumed to be €10/tonne.
- The cost of coal delivered to the site is assumed to be €65/t (2.51 €/GJ (LHV basis)).

- 
- The cost of petroleum coke delivered to the site is assumed to be €80/t (2.34 €/GJ (LHV basis)).
  - The cost of power delivered to the site is assumed to be €0.0500/kWh. This figure represents an annual average wholesale price without carbon for the UK (i.e. the price does not include EU ETS compliance costs).
  - The revenue for power generated on-site and exported to the grid is assumed to be €0.0500/kWh. This figure represents an annual average wholesale price without carbon for the UK (i.e. the price does not include EU ETS compliance costs).
  - The cost of water and seawater delivered to the site is assumed to be €0.1/t.
  - The cost of cooling water is assumed to be €0.02/t.
  - The cost of ammonia is assumed to be €200/t.
  - The cost of MEA is assumed to be €1100/t.
  - The cost of additive inhibitor is assumed to be 20% of price of MEA make-up.
  - It is assumed that the SCR catalyst must be changed every 3 years.

### **5.3 Base Case: Cement Plant with no CO<sub>2</sub> Capture**

#### **5.3.1 Base Case**

For the purposes of calculating the additional costs for installing CO<sub>2</sub> capture at a cement plant the capital and operating costs of a base case cement plant with no CO<sub>2</sub> capture were estimated. The flowsheet for the base case (234996-BC-FS01) and the stream data are contained in Appendix C.

#### **5.3.2 Capital Costs**

A cement plant equipment supplier provided a budget cost for a 1 million tonnes per year cement plant in Northern Europe of €120 million for the mechanical and electrical equipment. For the purposes of this study this total budget has been allocated to the different process sections of the cement plant as set out in Table 5-1. The estimated accuracy of the figures quoted is ± 25%.

**Table 5-1: Capital Cost Allocation for Cement Plant with no CO<sub>2</sub> Capture (Base Case)**

Cement Plant Process Section	CAPEX budget €M
<i>Raw material crushing and blending</i>	
Limestone crushing	2.50
Shale crushing	1.25
Stacker-reclaimer	2.08
<i>Raw milling and homogenisation</i>	
Raw mill drive	16.50
Raw mill fan	0.50
Raw mill ancillaries	1.90
Raw mill bag filter	2.00
Bag filter fan	0.50
Conditioning Tower	0.50
Homogenisation chamber silo	5.28
<i>Preheater</i>	
Preheater feed bin	Included below
Five stage preheater	5.40
Preheater fan	0.80
<i>Precalciner</i>	
Precalciner	0.50
<i>Rotary Kiln</i>	
Kiln	12.00
<i>Clinker Cooler</i>	
Grate cooler	12.00
Cooler bag filter	2.00
Cooler bag filter fan	0.50
Clinker crusher	Included below
Clinker conveyor	1.50
Clinker storage silo	9.00
Export clinker hopper	0.30
<i>Coal preparation</i>	
Coal milling system	5.00
<i>Petroleum coke preparation</i>	
Petroleum coke milling system	5.00
<i>Cement milling</i>	
Mill 1	10.00
Mill 2	10.00
<i>Cement packing and loading</i>	
Compartmental silo 1	5.00
Compartmental silo 2	5.00
Bag packing plant	3.00
<b>Total</b>	<b>120</b>

The following must be added to the total mechanical and electrical cost:

- construction costs including mechanical erection, instrument and electrical installation, civil works, buildings and site preparation

- design and engineering costs
- other costs including temporary facilities, training, commissioning, start-up costs and spare parts
- EPC services including contractors home services and construction supervision and freight
- contingency
- fees
- owners costs.

The breakdown of these costs for the base case plant are shown in Table 5-2.

**Table 5-2: Capital Costs for Cement Plant with no CO<sub>2</sub> Capture (Base Case)**

<b>Description</b>	<b>€M</b>
Mechanical and Electrical Equipment Cost	120
Design and Engineering	42
Construction	48
Other Costs	8
EPC Services	17
<b>Installed Costs</b>	<b>235</b>
Contingency	12
Fees	5
Owners Costs	12
<b>Total Investment Cost</b>	<b>263</b>

### 5.3.3 Operating Costs

The operating costs are formed from variable costs and fixed costs.

The variable cost element in the total operating cost is derived from the consumables associated with the plant. The consumables are listed in Table 5-3 and are based on 330 working days per year.

**Table 5-3: Variable Operating Costs for Cement Plant with no CO<sub>2</sub> Capture (Base Case)**

Description	Unit Cost (€/unit)	Consumption	€/year
Limestone	3/t	1,245,973 t/y	3.74
Shale	1.5/t	283,974 t/y	0.43
Sand	50/t	7,473 t/y	0.37
Iron Oxide	50/t	7,473 t/y	0.37
Gypsum	10/t	40,000 t/y	0.40
Coal	65/t	0.0633 Mt/y	4.11
Petroleum Coke	80/t	0.0319 Mt/y	2.55
Miscellaneous Materials			0.72
Power	0.05/kWh	80,809 MWh/y	4.04
Process Water	0.1/t	240,000 t/y	0.02
<b>Total variable operating cost</b>			<b>16.76</b>

The fixed cost contribution to the operating costs is shown in Table 5-4. These costs comprise the items listed below:

- maintenance
- operating labour
- supervision
- administration and general overheads
- local rates
- insurance.

**Table 5-4: Fixed Operating Costs for Cement Plant with no CO<sub>2</sub> Capture (Base Case)**

Description	€/year
Maintenance	9.4
Operating labour	3.2
Supervision	0.6
Administration and general overheads	1.2
Local rates	2.4
Insurance	2.4
<b>Total fixed operating costs</b>	<b>19.1</b>

## 5.4 Economic Analysis of Post-Combustion CO<sub>2</sub> Capture

### 5.4.1 Capital Costs

The capital cost allocation of the post-combustion cement plant described in section 4.4.5 is set out as in Table 5-5. The estimated accuracy of the figures quoted is  $\pm 25\%$ . These figures were derived from



budgetary prices provided by suppliers, costs scaled from published information and prices obtained from Mott MacDonald's database of equipment prices.

The CHP capital costs assume that there is currently a grid connection and that no reinforcement of the grid or additional capital costs are required.

Potential cost reductions could occur if the CHP was replaced with an auxiliary boiler to provide the low pressure steam. This would remove the need for the steam turbine, reduce the coal requirements and reduce the balance of plant costs. However, the operating costs would increase because the cement plant will not be a net exporter of electricity (as it would be if the CHP was operating).

**Table 5-5: Capital Cost Allocation for Post-Combustion Cement Plant with CO<sub>2</sub> Capture**

Cement Plant Process Section	CAPEX budget €M	Total €M
<i>Raw material preparation</i>		
Limestone crusher	2.50	
Shale crusher	1.25	
Stacker-reclaimer system	2.08	
<i>Raw milling and homogenisation</i>		
Raw mill drive	16.50	
Raw mill fan	0.50	
Raw mill ancillaries	1.90	
Raw mill bag filter	2.00	
Bag filter fan	0.50	
Conditioning Tower	0.50	
Homogenisation chamber silo	5.28	
<i>Preheater</i>		
Preheater feed bin	Included below	
Five stage preheater	5.40	
Preheater fan	0.80	
<i>Precalciner</i>		
Precalciner	0.50	
<i>Rotary Kiln</i>		
Kiln	12.00	
<i>Clinker Cooler</i>		
Grate cooler	12.00	
Cooler bag filter	2.00	
Cooler bag filter fan	0.50	
Clinker crusher	Included below	
Clinker conveyor	1.50	
Clinker storage silo	9.00	
Export clinker hopper	0.30	
<i>Coal preparation</i>		
Coal milling system	5.00	
<i>Petroleum coke preparation</i>		
Petroleum coke milling system	5.00	
<i>Cement milling</i>		
Mill 1	10.00	
Mill 2	10.00	
<i>Cement packing and loading</i>		
Compartmental silo 1	5.00	
Compartmental silo 2	5.00	
Bag packing plant	3.00	
<b>Total mechanical and electrical cost of cement plant</b>		<b>120.0</b>
<i>Selective Catalytic Reduction (SCR)</i>		
Reactor Casing	4.6	
Bypass System		
Catalyst		

<b>Cement Plant Process Section</b>	<b>CAPEX budget €M</b>	<b>Total €M</b>
Ammonia Injection System		
Handling Equipment		
Control System		
<i>Flue Gas Desulphurisation</i>	22.5	
Spray Tower Absorption		
Reaction Tank		
Mist Eliminators		
Limestone Storage		
Limestone Preparation		
Dewatering System		
<i>Other</i>		
Gas Mixer	0.1	
<i>CO<sub>2</sub> Capture</i>	31.8	
Pumps (MEA, reflux, stripper etc)		
Amine Filter Package		
Water Tankage		
Cross Exchangers		
Stripper		
Coolers (DCC and water wash)		
DCC Towers		
Overhead Stripper Condenser		
Stripper Reboiler		
Lean Solvent Cooler		
Packing		
Absorption Tower		
Flash Drums		
<i>CO<sub>2</sub> compression and purification</i>	7.8	
Dryer		
Compressors		
CO <sub>2</sub> Pumps		
<i>CHP Plant</i>	66.2	
Coal and Ash Handling		
Boiler Island		
Steam Turbine Plant and Generator		
Selective Catalytic Reduction (SCR)		
Balance of Plant		
<b>Total mechanical and electrical cost of additional post-combustion plant</b>		<b>132.9</b>
<b>Total mechanical and electrical cost of post-combustion cement plant</b>		<b>252.9</b>

The following must be added to the total mechanical and electrical cost:

- construction costs including mechanical erection, instrument and electrical installation, civil works, buildings and site preparation
- design and engineering costs

- other costs including temporary facilities, training, commissioning, start-up costs and spare parts
- EPC services including contractors home services and construction supervision and freight
- contingency
- fees
- owners costs.

The breakdown of these costs for the post-combustion cement plant are shown in Table 5-6.

**Table 5-6: Capital Costs for Post-Combustion Cement Plant with CO<sub>2</sub> Capture**

Description	Cement Plant €M	Post-Combustion Plant €M	Total €M
Mechanical and Electrical Equipment Cost	120	133	253
Design and Engineering	42	29	71
Construction	48	57	105
Other Costs	8	24	32
EPC Services	17	14	31
<b>Installed Costs</b>	<b>235</b>	<b>256</b>	<b>492</b>
Contingency	12	20	32
Fees	5	5	10
Owners Costs	12	13	25
<b>Total Investment Cost</b>	<b>263</b>	<b>294</b>	<b>558</b>

#### 5.4.2 Operating Costs

The variable cost element in the total operating cost is derived from the consumables associated with the plant. The consumables are listed in Table 5-7 and are based on 330 working days per year.

**Table 5-7: Variable Operating Costs for Post-Combustion Cement Plant with CO<sub>2</sub> Capture**

Description	Unit Cost (€/unit)	Consumption	€/year
Limestone for raw meal and blending	3/t	1,245,679 t/y	3.74
Limestone for FGD	3/t	12,830 t/y	0.04
Shale	1.5/t	283,974 t/y	0.43
Sand	50/t	7,473 t/y	0.37
Iron Oxide	50/t	7,473 t/y	0.37
Gypsum	10/t	23,634 t/y	0.24
Ammonia	200/t	1,853 t/y	0.37
MEA	1100/t	2,242 t/y	2.47
Additive Inhibitor	-	-	0.49
Catalyst for SCR	Change every 3 years	-	1.19
Coal for Precalciner	65/t	0.0633 Mt/y	4.11
Coal for CHP	65/t	0.2283 Mt/y	14.84
Petroleum Coke	80/t	0.0319 Mt/y	2.55
Miscellaneous Materials	-	-	0.72
Power – Cement Plant	0.05/kWh	80,809 MWh/y	4.04
Power – Post Combustion Plant	0.05/kWh	252,857 MWh/y	12.64
Process Water – Cement plant	0.1/t	0.24 Mt/y	0.02
Process Water – Post-Combustion plant	0.1/t	0.15 Mt/y	0.02
Cooling Water – Cement Plant	0.02/t	-	-
Cooling Water – Post-Combustion Plant	0.02/t	4.38 Mt/y	0.09
<b>Total variable operating cost</b>			<b>48.75</b>
Power – Generated in the CHP	0.05/kWh	356,400 MWh/y	(17.82)
<b>Net variable operating cost</b>			<b>30.93</b>

The fixed cost contribution to the operating costs is shown in Table 5-8.

**Table 5-8: Fixed Operating Costs for Post-Combustion Cement Plant with CO<sub>2</sub> Capture**

Description	Cement Plant €M	Post-Combustion Plant €M	Total €M
Maintenance	9.4	7.4	16.8
Operating labour	3.2	2.4	5.6
Supervision	0.6	0.5	1.1
Administration and general overheads	1.2	0.9	2.0
Local rates	2.4	2.6	4.9
Insurance	2.4	2.6	4.9
<b>Total fixed operating costs</b>	<b>19.1</b>	<b>16.2</b>	<b>35.3</b>

### 5.4.3 Cash Flow Calculations

The assumptions set out in section 5.2 have been applied to the IEA Greenhouse Gas R&D Programme model which has been adapted to reflect the operations of a cement manufacturing plant. The model projects the cash flows arising from the construction and operation of a plant for a 25 year period and calculates the net increase in costs as a result of employing CO<sub>2</sub> capture technology. Revenues are not considered, as these are assumed to be identical for all potential plants. Similarly,

any implications for a cost of carbon are omitted as these are not relevant to the study. The cash flow spreadsheet for the base case and post-combustion capture are included with Appendix F.

The model assumes that electricity generated on site at the cement plant can be wholly used to offset the consumption of the plant and, where applicable, any excess can be sold to the grid.

A discount rate of 10% is used to calculate the levelised cost of cement manufacture, which represents the cost per tonne of cement produced in current monetary value (at 2008). The results of the model for the base case and for a post-combustion plant are shown in Table 5-9.

**Table 5-9: Cost of Cement Manufacture**

	€/t
No CO <sub>2</sub> capture (Base Case)	65.7
With capture (Post-Combustion)	129.4

As would be expected given the large increase in the capital cost of the plant, the cost per tonne of cement is increased considerably when post-combustion carbon capture is added.

#### 5.4.4 Calculations of CO<sub>2</sub> Cost

The increase in cost per tonne of cement produced has been used to derive a cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoided when compared with the base case. Emissions from the base case plant, with no CO<sub>2</sub> capture, were calculated to be 728,422 t CO<sub>2</sub>/yr or 0.728 tonnes CO<sub>2</sub> per tonne of cement produced. For the post-combustion plant, two scenarios have been considered:

- a conservative scenario, in which only the CO<sub>2</sub> captured from cement manufacture at the site is considered when calculating the cost of reduction;
- an holistic scenario, including both the CO<sub>2</sub> captured from cement manufacture, plus the CO<sub>2</sub> saved by on-site power generation and, as the post-combustion cement plant is a net exporter of electricity, displaced CO<sub>2</sub> generation from the grid.

For the second scenario, a CO<sub>2</sub> emissions level of 0.52 kg/kWh for external power has been assumed. Appendix G includes a note on the derivation of this emission factor.

The results for the model are shown in Table 5-10.

**Table 5-10: Cost of CO<sub>2</sub> Avoidance**

	€/t CO <sub>2</sub>
Power emissions excluded	118.1
Power emissions from grid included	107.4

As indicated by the high increase in cost per tonne of cement produced, the cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoided is also relatively high. Given the excess power produced by the plant, which is assumed to be sold to the grid, including the CO<sub>2</sub> not emitted due to displacing fossil fuel power generation results in a reduction in the cost per tonne emitted. However, this is a generous assumption and it may be prudent not to include this in an analysis of post-combustion capture.

The cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> captured is calculated by dividing the incremental cost per tonne increase in producing cement in a post-combustion cement plant by the quantity of CO<sub>2</sub> captured per tonne of cement. For this system the cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> captured is 59.6 €/tCO<sub>2</sub>.

#### 5.4.5 Sensitivities

In order to test the robustness of the model results, a number of sensitivity cases for key inputs have been modelled. The key inputs are capital costs, operating costs, plant life, fuel costs and discount rate, and the outcomes are discussed below.

##### (i) Capital Cost

The impact of a  $\pm 25\%$  variation in the capital cost of the whole plant has been considered. The results are shown in Table 5-11. It should be noted that some of the operating costs (e.g. local rates, insurance and maintenance) are calculated as percentages of the installed plant cost. For the purposes of this sensitivity analysis these costs were assumed to remain constant (i.e. the same as for the base case).

**Table 5-11: Capital Cost Sensitivities**

		-25%	Base Case	+25%
€/t cement	Base Case	58.2	65.6	73.1
	Post-combustion CO <sub>2</sub> capture plant	113.7	129.4	145.1
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	102.7	118.1	133.4
	Power emissions from grid included	93.4	107.4	121.3

As would be expected given the relatively large impact of the capital cost on the cost of cement production and CO<sub>2</sub> capture, the results are very sensitive to variations in the capital cost assumptions.

##### (ii) Operating Costs

The impact of a  $\pm 25\%$  variation in the operating costs of all plant has been considered. Table 5-12 shows the results. It should be noted that for the purposes of the sensitivity analysis the cost of fuel and power are not included in the operating costs. In the analysis they are assumed to remain at the base case values.

**Table 5-12: Operating Cost Sensitivities**

		-25%	Base Case	+25%
€/t cement	Base Case	59.4	65.6	71.9
	Post-combustion CO <sub>2</sub> capture plant	117.9	129.4	140.9
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	108.4	118.1	127.7
	Power emissions from grid included	98.6	107.4	116.2

These results show that the model is sensitive to changes in operating costs, within the range shown.

### (iii) Fuel Costs

Fuel costs are difficult to forecast with any degree of accuracy over the longer-term and can fluctuate significantly. The base case costs of coal and petroleum coke were €65/t (2.51 €/GJ (LHV basis)) and €80/t (2.34 €/GJ (LHV basis)) respectively. The impact of a  $\pm 50\%$  variation in the cost of coal and pet coke has been considered. Table 5-13 shows the results.

**Table 5-13: Fuel Costs Sensitivity**

		-50%	Base Case	+50%
€/t cement	Base Case	62.3	65.6	69.0
	Post-combustion CO <sub>2</sub> capture plant	118.6	129.4	140.2
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	104.3	118.1	131.8
	Power emissions from grid included	94.9	107.4	119.9

The table shows that the results are affected by variation in fuel costs although to a lesser degree than for capital costs. Post-combustion capture requires a large increase in coal consumption so any increase in cost is bound to impact on the cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> avoided.

### (iv) Power Costs

The impact of a  $\pm 25\%$  variation in the cost of power (purchase and sale) has been considered. Table 5-14 shows the results.



**Table 5-14: Power Costs Sensitivity**

		-25%	Base Case	+25%
€/t cement	Base Case	64.6	65.6	66.7
	Post-combustion CO <sub>2</sub> capture plant	129.7	129.4	129.1
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	120.5	118.1	115.7
	Power emissions from grid included	109.5	107.4	105.2

The table shows that the results are not greatly affected by variation in power costs. However, as post-combustion capture results in the net export of electricity the cost per tonne of cement or avoidance decreases as the price of power increases due to the increases in revenue.

#### (v) Compound Operating Costs

The impact of a  $\pm 25\%$  variation in all the operating costs (including fuel and power purchase costs) has also been considered. Table 5-15 shows the results.

**Table 5-15: Compound Operating Cost Sensitivities**

		-25%	Base Case	+25%
€/t cement	Base Case	56.7	65.6	74.6
	Post-combustion CO <sub>2</sub> capture plant	112.5	129.4	146.3
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	103.4	118.1	132.7
	Power emissions from grid included	94.0	107.4	120.7

These results show that the model is sensitive to changes in all operating costs, within the range shown.

#### (vi) Plant Life

The operating life of the plant has been extended to 40 years to examine the impact on the model results. Table 5-16 shows the results.

**Table 5-16: Plant Life Sensitivity**

		Base Case	40 yrs
€/t cement	Base Case	65.6	63.4
	Post-combustion CO <sub>2</sub> capture plant	129.4	124.7
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	118.1	113.5
	Power emissions from grid included	107.4	103.2

The sensitivity analysis shows that extending the life of the plant to 40 years only reduces the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction by around 4%. The CO<sub>2</sub> captured is not discounted in the model and so the increased cost of cement production is spread over an additional 15 years of CO<sub>2</sub> capture.

**(vii) Discount Rate**

The impact of a  $\pm 2\%$  variation around the base case discount rate of 10% applied in the model has been considered. Table 5-17 shows the results.

**Table 5-17: Discount Rate Sensitivities**

		8%	Base Case	12%
€/t cement	Base Case	61.1	65.6	70.4
	Post-combustion CO <sub>2</sub> capture plant	119.8	129.4	139.5
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	108.7	118.1	128.0
	Power emissions from grid included	98.9	107.4	116.4

The results show that the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance is sensitive to the discount rate used. As future cement production becomes more heavily discounted, the cost per tonne produced in order to recoup the capital expenditure increases.

**(viii) Emissions Factor**

Where the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from external power have been included an emissions factor of 0.52 kg/kWh has been used. The impact of using a high emissions factor of 0.745 kg/kWh such as that from a new large coal-fired power plant (IEA GHG, 2004) and a low emissions factor of 0.14 kg/kWh to represent electricity from a low CO<sub>2</sub> source such as a coal-fired plant with 85% capture have been considered. Table 5-18 shows the results.

**Table 5-18: Emissions Factor Sensitivities**

		Low	Base Case	High
Emissions Factor (kg/kWh)		0.14	0.52	0.745
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	118.1	118.1	118.1
	Power emissions from grid included	115.0	107.4	103.3

The results show that the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance is sensitive to the emissions factor when power emissions from the grid are included. It can be seen that as the emissions factor increases from low to high the cost of avoidance decreases.

#### (ix) Low Sulphur Raw Meal and External Steam Supply Scenario

This study was based on a cement plant located in NE Scotland. Raw meal from Northern UK contains relatively higher levels of sulphides compared to the South of the country so it was necessary to assume that the raw meal used in this study contained high levels of sulphide (0.33% (w/w)). This assumption necessitates the use of FGD to meet the SO<sub>x</sub> levels required for efficient absorption of CO<sub>2</sub> with MEA. Modern cement plants which do not have these sulphide minerals in their raw materials can achieve SO<sub>2</sub> emissions below 10 mg/m<sup>3</sup> (EC, 2001). The sensitivity of costs to a low sulphur raw meal and an external source of steam were assessed. The rationale of assuming an external source of steam was that a coal-fired CHP plant would require FGD (even with low-sulphur coal) so in order to gain a substantial cost benefit an external source of steam must be assumed. The scenario was based on the following assumptions:

- The SO<sub>2</sub> emissions from the cement plant were below 10 mg/m<sup>3</sup> (daily average basis and standard conditions of 0C, 101.3 kPa, 10% O<sub>2</sub> and dry gas).
- Over-the-fence steam was available at the required temperature and pressure for the process.
- The steam was waste heat and was therefore carbon neutral.
- The cost of the steam was €10/t.
- No power is generated on site.
- CO<sub>2</sub> emissions are 15% of base case emissions.
- Coal and pet-coke consumption is the same as the base case.
- Due to the lack of FGD, CHP plant and reduced volume of CO<sub>2</sub> the electrical demand is 50% of the post-combustion option considered in this Report.
- Water consumption is same as base case.
- Cooling water consumption is 60% of the post-combustion option considered in the Report.
- Installed costs are 60% of the post-combustion option considered in the Report.

- The steam requirement is 1.1 Mt/y.
- Labour costs are 60% of the post-combustion option considered in the Report.
- Administration, rates and insurance are 60% of the post-combustion option considered in the Report.

The cash flow spreadsheet for the scenario are included in Appendix F. Table 5-19 shows the results of the analysis.

**Table 5-19: Sensitivities of Costs to a Low Sulphur Raw Meal and External Steam Supply Scenario**

	Base Case (No CO <sub>2</sub> Capture)	Post-Combustion Base Case	Low Sulphur Raw Meal and External Steam Supply Scenario
€/t cement	65.6	129.4	97.3
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided (power emissions excluded)	n/a	118.1	51.2
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided (power emissions from grid included)	n/a	107.4	55.2

The results show that the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance can be significantly reduced if the capital costs for FGD and CHP are avoided and steam is purchased from an external source at the assumed cost of €10/t. This indicates that the co-location of a new-build cement plant with an external source of steam should be investigated if the costs associated with CO<sub>2</sub> capture at the cement plant are to be minimised.

#### **(x) Alternative Solvent for CO<sub>2</sub> Absorption Scenario**

This study was based on using MEA for CO<sub>2</sub> absorption. The sensitivity of costs to using an alternative solvent such as MHI's KS-1 solvent which has a steam consumption of about 2.7 MJ/kgCO<sub>2</sub> compared to about 3.7 MJ/kgCO<sub>2</sub> were assessed. The scenario was based on the following assumptions:

- The CO<sub>2</sub> capture rate of the MEA and KS-1 systems are identical.
- The solvent replacement costs for MEA and KS-1 are identical.
- Due to the reduction in size of the CHP plant the power produced is 75% of the post-combustion option considered in the Report.
- 75% less coal is used in the CHP plant compared to the post-combustion option considered in the Report.

- Installed costs are 90% of the post-combustion option considered in the Report.

The cash flow spreadsheet for the scenario are included in Appendix F. Table 5-20 shows the results of the analysis.

**Table 5-20: Sensitivities of Costs to an Alternative Solvent for CO<sub>2</sub> Absorption Scenario**

	Base Case (No CO <sub>2</sub> Capture)	Post-Combustion Capture (with MEA)	Post-Combustion Capture (with KS-1)
€/t cement	65.6	129.4	121.6
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided (power emissions excluded)	n/a	118.1	105.0
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided (power emissions from grid included)	n/a	107.4	95.9

The results show that the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance can be significantly reduced if alternative solvents with a lower requirement for steam are used. This is due to the capital cost savings resulting from the smaller CHP plant required and the knock-on effects caused by the reduction in flue gases from the CHP plant that require treatment. Improvements in CO<sub>2</sub> absorption solvents will have a strong influence on reducing the costs of CO<sub>2</sub> capture using post-combustion at cement plants.

## 5.5 Economic Analysis of Oxy-Combustion CO<sub>2</sub> Capture

### 5.5.1 Capital Costs

The capital cost allocation of the oxy-combustion cement plant described in section 4.5.5 is set out as in Table 5-21. The estimated accuracy of the figures quoted is  $\pm 25\%$ . These figures were derived from budgetary prices provided by suppliers, costs scaled from published information and prices obtained from Mott MacDonald's database of equipment prices.

As stated in section 4.5.2(ii) the effect of reducing the nitrogen content in the precalciner may raise the emissivity of the gas and improve the radiative heat transfer within the precalciner. Hence, for the same fuel firing rate, an oxy-combustion precalciner of smaller dimensions may be able to achieve similar calcination conditions as its air-firing counterpart. The reduction in cost associated with a smaller precalciner has not been considered within this study as a detailed design of the precalciner has not been undertaken. The cost saving will be somewhat minor compared to the overall oxy-combustion cement plant and considering the target budget capital cost estimate of  $\pm 25\%$ .

**Table 5-21: Capital Cost Allocation for Oxy-Combustion Cement Plant with CO<sub>2</sub> Capture**

Cement Plant Process Section	CAPEX budget €M	Total €M
<i>Raw material preparation</i>		
Limestone crusher	2.50	
Shale crusher	1.25	
Stacker-reclaimer system	2.08	
<i>Raw milling and homogenisation</i>		
Raw mill drive	16.5	
Raw mill fan	0.5	
Raw mill ancillaries	Included above	
Raw mill bag filter	2.0	
Bag filter fan	0.5	
Homogenisation chamber silo	5.28	
<i>Kiln preheater</i>		
Preheater (kiln) feed bin	Included below	
Four stage preheater	2.0	
Preheater (kiln) fan	0.5	
<i>Precalciner preheater</i>		
Preheater (calciner) feed bin	Included below	
Five stage preheater	3.0	
Preheater (calciner) fan	0.7	
<i>Precalciner</i>		
Precalciner	0.5	
<i>Rotary Kiln</i>		
Kiln	12.0	
<i>Clinker Cooler</i>		
Grate cooler	12.0	
Cooler bag filter	2.0	
Cooler bag filter fan	0.5	
Clinker crusher	Included below	
Clinker conveyor	1.5	
Clinker storage silo	9.0	
Export clinker hopper	0.3	
<i>Coal preparation</i>		
Coal milling system	5.0	
<i>Petroleum coke preparation</i>		
Petroleum coke milling system	5.0	
<i>Cement milling</i>		
Mill 1	10.0	
Mill 2	10.0	
<i>Cement packing and loading</i>		
Compartmental silo 1	5.0	
Compartmental silo 2	5.0	
Bag packing plant	3.0	
<i>ORC heat recovery unit</i>		
Electrostatic precipitator	1.5	
Heat recovery heat exchanger	2.4	

<b>Cement Plant Process Section</b>	<b>CAPEX budget €M</b>	<b>Total €M</b>
ORC heat recovery unit	3.6	
Exhaust gas fan	0.8	
<b>Total mechanical and electrical cost of cement plant</b>		<b>125.9</b>
<i>Air Separation Unit (ASU)</i>		
Main air compressors	8.3	
Air purification system	Included above	
Main heat exchanger	Included above	
ASU compander	Included above	
ASU column system	Included above	
Pumps	Included above	
Backup storage vessel	Included above	
Gas-to-gas heat exchanger for oxygen/product	0.7	
<i>Recycle</i>		
Recycle stream fan	0.4	
Gas mixer	0.1	
Gas-to-gas heat exchanger for 'tertiary air'/recycle	1.0	
<i>Electrostatic precipitator</i>		
Electrostatic precipitator	1.5	
Electrostatic precipitator fan	0.3	
<i>CO<sub>2</sub> compression and purification</i>		
Venturi scrubber		
Indirect contact cooler		
Direct contact seawater cooler		
Compressors		
Heat exchangers		
Flue gas expander		
<b>Total mechanical and electrical cost of additional oxy-combustion plant</b>		<b>19.9</b>
<b>Total mechanical and electrical cost of oxy-combustion cement plant</b>		<b>145.8</b>

The following must be added to the total mechanical and electrical cost:

- construction costs including mechanical erection, instrument and electrical installation, civil works, buildings and site preparation
- design and engineering costs
- other costs including temporary facilities, training, commissioning, start-up costs and spare parts
- EPC services including contractors home services and construction supervision and freight;
- contingency
- fees
- owners costs.

The breakdown of these costs for the oxy-combustion cement plant are shown in Table 5-22.

**Table 5-22: Capital Costs for Oxy-Combustion Cement Plant with CO<sub>2</sub> Capture**

Description	Cement Plant €M	Oxy-Combustion Plant €M	Total €M
Mechanical and Electrical Equipment Cost	126	20	146
Design and Engineering	44	7	51
Construction	50	9	59
Other Costs	9	6	15
EPC Services	18	1	19
<b>Installed Costs</b>	<b>247</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>290</b>
Contingency	12	4	17
Fees	5	1	6
Owners Costs	12	2	15
<b>Total Investment Cost</b>	<b>276</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>327</b>

### 5.5.2 Operating Costs

The variable cost element in the total operating cost is derived from the consumables associated with the plant. Table 5-23 lists the consumables used based on 330 working days per year.

**Table 5-23: Variable Operating Costs for Oxy-Combustion Cement Plant with CO<sub>2</sub> Capture**

Description	Unit Cost (€/unit)	Consumption	€/year
Limestone	3/t	1,256,739 t/y	3.77
Shale	1.5/t	286,601 t/y	0.43
Sand	50/t	7,542 t/y	0.38
Iron Oxide	50/t	7,542 t/y	0.38
Gypsum	10/t	40,000 t/y	0.40
Coal	65/t	0.0721 Mt/y	4.68
Petroleum Coke	80/t	0.0271 Mt/y	2.17
Miscellaneous Materials			0.72
Power	0.05/kWh	174,562 MWh/y	8.73
Seawater	0.02/t	11.3 Mt/y	0.25
Cooling water	0.02/t	1.7 Mt/y	0.04
<b>Total variable operating cost</b>			<b>21.9</b>

The fixed cost contribution to the operating costs is shown in Table 5-24



**Table 5-24: Fixed Operating Costs for Oxy-Combustion Cement Plant with CO<sub>2</sub> Capture**

Description	Cement Plant	Oxy-Combustion Plant	Total
	€M	€M	€M
Maintenance	9.9	0.9	10.7
Operating labour	3.2	0.8	4.0
Supervision	0.6	0.2	0.8
Administration and general overheads	1.2	0.3	1.4
Local rates	2.5	0.4	2.9
Insurance	2.5	0.4	2.9
<b>Total fixed operating costs</b>	<b>19.8</b>	<b>3.0</b>	<b>22.8</b>

### 5.5.3 Cash Flow Calculations

The assumptions set out in section 5.2 have been applied to the IEA Greenhouse Gas R&D Programme model which has been adapted to reflect the operations of a cement manufacturing plant. The model projects the cash flows arising from the construction and operation of a plant for a 25 year period and calculates the net increase in costs as a result of employing CO<sub>2</sub> capture technology. Revenues are not considered as these are assumed to be identical for all potential plants. Similarly, any implications for a cost of carbon are omitted as these are not relevant to the study. The cash flow spreadsheet for the base case and oxy-combustion capture are included in Appendix F.

The model assumes that electricity generated on site at the cement plant can be wholly used to offset the consumption of the plant and, where applicable, any excess can be sold to the grid.

A discount rate of 10% is used to calculate the levelised cost of cement manufacture, which represents the cost per tonne of cement produced in current monetary value (at 2008). The results of the model for the base case and for an oxy-combustion plant are shown in Table 5-25.

**Table 5-25: Cost of Cement Manufacture**

	€/t
No CO <sub>2</sub> capture	65.6
With capture (Oxy-Combustion)	81.6

Although the capital cost of oxy-combustion plant is considerable, it is much lower than that for post-combustion capture, and so the cost of cement production is affected to a lesser degree.

### 5.5.4 Calculations of CO<sub>2</sub> Cost

The increase in cost per tonne of cement produced has been used to derive a cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoided when compared with the base case. Emissions from the base case plant, with no CO<sub>2</sub> capture, were assumed to be 728,422 t CO<sub>2</sub> /yr, or 0.728 tonnes CO<sub>2</sub> per tonne of cement produced. For the oxy-combustion plant, two scenarios have again been considered:

- a conservative scenario, in which only the CO<sub>2</sub> captured from cement manufacture at the site is considered when calculating the cost of reduction;
- an holistic scenario, including both the CO<sub>2</sub> captured from cement manufacture and, as the oxy-combustion cement plant imports more power from the grid than the base case, the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions associated with the additional power imported.

For the second scenario, a CO<sub>2</sub> emissions level of 0.52 kg/kWh for external power has been assumed. Appendix G includes a note on the derivation of this emission factor.

The results for the model are shown in Table 5-26.

**Table 5-26: Cost of CO<sub>2</sub> Avoidance**

	€/t CO <sub>2</sub>
Power emissions excluded	35.8
Power emissions from grid included	40.2

The cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoided is significant but much lower than that for post-combustion. However, in this case, including the impact on CO<sub>2</sub> resulting from the increased power consumption increases the cost per tonne captured. Oxy-combustion uses considerable quantities of imported power which it is important to take into account when assessing the overall impact on CO<sub>2</sub> emissions.

The cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> captured is calculated by dividing the incremental cost per tonne increase in producing cement in an oxy-combustion cement plant by the quantity of CO<sub>2</sub> captured per tonne of cement. For this system the cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> captured is 34.3 €/tCO<sub>2</sub>.

### 5.5.5 Sensitivities

In order to test the robustness of the model results, a number of sensitivity cases for key inputs have been modelled. The key inputs are capital costs, operating costs, plant life, fuel costs and discount rate, and the outcomes are discussed below.

#### (i) Capital Cost

The impact of a ±25% variation in the capital cost of the whole plant has been considered. The results are shown in Table 5-27. It should be noted that some of the operating costs (e.g. local rates, insurance and maintenance) are calculated as percentages of the installed plant cost. For the purposes of this sensitivity analysis these costs were assumed to remain constant (i.e. the same as for the base case).

**Table 5-27: Capital Cost Sensitivities**

		-25%	Base Case	+25%
€/t cement	Base Case	58.2	65.6	73.1
	Oxy-combustion CO <sub>2</sub> capture plant	72.4	81.6	90.8
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	31.8	35.8	39.8
	Power emissions from grid included	35.7	40.2	44.7

Although there is an impact on the model results from variations in the capital cost, the impact is less than that for post-combustion as would be expected given the lower cost of the capture plant.

### (ii) Operating Costs

The impact of a  $\pm 25\%$  variation in the operating costs of all plant have been considered. The results are shown in Table 5-28. It should be noted that for the purposes of the sensitivity analysis the cost of fuel and power are not included in the operating costs. In the analysis they are assumed to remain at the base case values.

**Table 5-28: Operating Cost Sensitivities**

		-25%	Base Case	+25%
€/t cement	Base Case	59.4	65.6	71.9
	Oxy-combustion CO <sub>2</sub> capture plant	74.3	81.6	88.9
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	33.5	35.8	38.0
	Power emissions from grid included	37.7	40.2	42.7

Given that the increase in operating costs when adding oxy-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture is less than that for post-combustion, the impact of variations of the operating costs on the model results will also be less. The results are therefore not greatly sensitive to variations in the operating cost assumptions, within the range shown.

### (iii) Fuel Costs

Fuel costs are difficult to forecast with any degree of accuracy over the longer-term and can fluctuate significantly. The base case costs of coal and petroleum coke were €65/t (2.51 €/GJ (LHV basis)) and €80/t (2.34 €/GJ (LHV basis)) respectively. The impact of a  $\pm 50\%$  variation in the cost of coal and pet coke has been considered. The results are shown in Table 5-29.

**Table 5-29: Fuel Costs Sensitivity**

		<b>-50%</b>	<b>Base Case</b>	<b>+50%</b>
€/t cement	Base Case	62.3	65.6	69.0
	Oxy-combustion CO <sub>2</sub> capture plant	78.2	81.6	85.0
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	35.7	35.8	35.9
	Power emissions from grid included	40.1	40.2	40.3

The table shows that, although the cost of cement is affected, variation in the fuel price has little effect on the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance through oxy-combustion.

#### (iv) Power Costs

The impact of a  $\pm 25\%$  variation in the cost of power (purchase and sale) has been considered. The results are shown in Table 5-30.

**Table 5-30: Power Costs Sensitivity**

		<b>-25%</b>	<b>Base Case</b>	<b>+25%</b>
€/t cement	Base Case	64.6	65.6	66.7
	Oxy-combustion CO <sub>2</sub> capture plant	79.4	81.6	83.8
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	33.2	35.8	38.4
	Power emissions from grid included	37.2	40.2	43.1

The table shows that the results are not greatly affected by variation in power costs. However, as oxy-combustion capture results in the net import of electricity the cost per tonne of cement or capture increases as the price of power increases due to increases in operating costs.

#### (v) Compound Operating Costs

The impact of a  $\pm 25\%$  variation in all the operating costs (including fuel and power costs) has also been considered. The results are shown in Table 5-31.

**Table 5-31: Compound Operating Cost Sensitivities**

		-25%	Base Case	+25%
€/t cement	Base Case	56.7	65.6	74.6
	Oxy-combustion CO <sub>2</sub> capture plant	70.4	81.6	92.8
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	30.9	35.8	40.7
	Power emissions from grid included	34.6	40.2	45.7

The results show that the model is sensitive to variations in the operating cost assumptions, within the range shown.

#### (vi) Plant Life

The operating life of the plant has been extended to 40 years to examine the impact on the model results. These are shown in Table 5-32.

**Table 5-32: Plant Life Sensitivity**

		Base Case	40 yrs
€/t cement	Base Case	65.6	63.4
	Oxy-combustion CO <sub>2</sub> capture plant	81.6	78.9
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	35.8	34.6
	Power emissions from grid included	40.2	38.9

The sensitivity analysis shows that extending the life of the plant reduces the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> reduction as the additional capital cost is spread over the additional 15 years of CO<sub>2</sub> captured.

#### (vii) Discount Rate

The impact of a  $\pm 2\%$  variation around the base case discount rate of 10% applied in the model has been considered. The results are shown in Table 5-33.

**Table 5-33: Discount Rate Sensitivities**

		8%	Base Case	12%
€/t cement	Base Case	61.1	65.6	70.4
	Oxy-combustion CO <sub>2</sub> capture plant	76.0	81.6	87.5
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	33.4	35.8	38.4
	Power emissions from grid included	37.5	40.2	43.1

The results show that the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> capture is sensitive to the discount rate used. As future cement production becomes more heavily discounted, the cost per tonne produced in order to recoup the capital expenditure increases. As the capital cost for the capture plant is lower than that for post-combustion, the model results for oxy-combustion are less sensitive to variation in the discount rate applied.

#### (viii) Emissions Factor

Where the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from external power have been included an emissions factor of 0.52 kg/kWh has been used. The impact of using a high emissions factor of 0.745 kg/kWh such as that from a new large coal-fired power plant (IEA GHG, 2004) and a low emissions factor of 0.14 kg/kWh to represent electricity from a low CO<sub>2</sub> source such as a coal-fired plant with 85% capture have been considered. Table 5-34 shows the results.

**Table 5-34: Emissions Factor Sensitivities**

		Low	Base Case	High
Emissions Factor (kg/kWh)		0.14	0.52	0.745
€/t cement	Base Case	65.6	65.6	65.6
	Oxy-combustion CO <sub>2</sub> capture plant	81.6	81.6	81.6
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided	Power emissions excluded	35.8	35.8	35.8
	Power emissions from grid included	36.9	40.2	42.4

The results show that the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> capture is sensitive to the emissions factor when power emissions from the grid are included. It can be seen that as the emissions factor increases from low to high the cost of capture decreases.

**(ix) Co-location of Oxy-Combustion Cement Plant with Oxy-Combustion Power Plant Scenario**

The scenario of co-locating the oxy-combustion cement plant with an oxy-combustion power plant was examined. The rationale behind examining this sensitivity was the potential cost savings available if the oxygen production and CO<sub>2</sub> compression facilities are consolidated. The scenario was based on the following assumptions:

- Oxygen was available over-the-fence from the oxy-combustion power plant.
- The cost of oxygen was €30/t. This is considered typical for industry.
- The CO<sub>2</sub> produced would be exported for compression and purification at the oxy-combustion power plant.
- The cost of exporting the CO<sub>2</sub> for purification and compression was €10/t.
- The power consumed is 55% of the oxy-combustion option considered in this Report.
- The water and cooling water demand is the same for a co-located plant and the oxy-combustion option considered in this Report.
- Installed costs are 90% of the oxy-combustion option considered in this Report.

The cash flow spreadsheets for the scenario are included in Appendix F. Table 5-19 shows the results of the analysis.

**Table 5-35: Sensitivities of Costs to Co-location with an Oxy-Combustion Power Plant**

	<b>Base Case (No CO<sub>2</sub> Capture)</b>	<b>Oxy-Combustion Base Case</b>	<b>Co-location with an Oxy- Combustion Power Plant</b>
€/t cement	65.6	81.6	80.8
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided (power emissions excluded)	n/a	35.8	33.9
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> avoided (power emissions from grid included)	n/a	40.2	34.4

Based on the assumed values for oxygen and carbon dioxide there is a decrease in the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance for a cement plant co-located with an oxy-combustion plant. This scenario is heavily dependant on the values for oxygen and carbon dioxide. The option will become cheaper if lower prices for oxygen and carbon dioxide can be negotiated.

## 5.6 Sensitivities of Costs to an Asian Developing Country Scenario

The sensitivities of costs to an Asian developing country scenario were assessed. The scenario was based on the following assumptions:

- The capacity of the cement plant is 3 Mt/y of cement. This is typical for modern Asian cement plants.
- The equipment costs (both cement plant and CO<sub>2</sub> capture plant) were assumed to be 60% of the European prices.
- A cost-scale exponent of 0.6 was assumed.
- The labour costs were assumed to be 50% of the European prices.
- The administration, rates and insurance were assumed to be 50% of the European prices.
- All costs for fuel and raw materials were assumed to be the same as for the European scenario.
- The performance of the cement plant and CO<sub>2</sub> capture plant was assumed to be the same as for the European scenario. It is recognised that this is a conservative assumption as there may be some improvements at a larger scale plant e.g. a three times larger CHP would be more efficient.

The cash flow spreadsheets for the base case, post-combustion capture and oxy-combustion capture for the Asian developing country scenario are included in Appendix F. Table 5-36 shows the results of the analysis.

**Table 5-36: Sensitivities of Costs to an Asian Developing Country Scenario**

	Base Case			Asian Scenario		
	No CO <sub>2</sub> Capture	Post-Combustion	Oxy-Combustion	No CO <sub>2</sub> Capture	Post-Combustion	Oxy-Combustion
€/t cement	65.6	129.4	81.6	37.3	72.2	46.4
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> captured (power emissions excluded)	n/a	118.1	35.8	n/a	64.6	20.4
€/t CO <sub>2</sub> captured (power emissions from grid included)	n/a	107.4	40.2	n/a	58.8	22.9

The cost of cement production is significantly lower in the Asian scenario. This is principally due to the economy of scale of operating a larger plant, the lower equipment costs and the cheaper labour. If carbon capture is applied then the cost of production increases significantly (more for post-combustion than oxy-combustion). However, it should be noted that the cost of cement production is only comparable to the European base case when post-combustion capture is applied.



As in the European base case the cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> captured is significant but much lower for oxy-combustion than for post-combustion. However, when compared to the European base case the costs for capture are significantly lower. This indicates that due to the benefits of economies of scale, lower equipment costs and cheaper labour it is more cost effective to undertake carbon capture at a cement plant in Asia than at a European plant.

## 6 Retro-fitting Issues

### 6.1 Introduction

The suitability of each CO<sub>2</sub> capture technology for retrofit to existing modern cement plants has also been assessed. This has taken into account estimates of the additional land area required and the need to make modifications to the existing cement plant equipment.

### 6.2 Post-Combustion Capture

As post-combustion capture of CO<sub>2</sub> from the exhaust gases of a cement kiln by monoethanolamine (MEA) absorption is an “end-of-pipe” technology then it could be retrofitted to any existing cement kiln. The economic feasibility of that would be dependent on the particular kiln and the costs of overcoming the key constraints on the application of the technology, which are:

- The MEA solvent is degraded by NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> in the exhaust gases.
- There are major space requirements for the absorption and subsequent solvent stripping/regeneration columns.
- There are major steam requirements for absorbent stripping and regeneration
- There are major power requirements for compressing the CO<sub>2</sub> gas.

Whether post-combustion chemical absorption could be economically retrofitted to an existing cement kiln would therefore be determined by a technical audit of the existing cement kiln. The availability of space for the absorption and stripping/regeneration columns would be quickly assessed. Also the availability of sufficient steam or the feasibility of providing the necessary additional steam – with sufficient land area and fuel supply infrastructure for on-site steam-raising or cogeneration.

Under the case where a 45 MWe CHP plant is used to raise the necessary steam, there will be electrical energy available for export so sufficient grid connection capacity to accommodate the maximum export load would therefore be required.

The potentially greater challenge would be to assess the equipment that would need to be installed to reduce the NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> in the exhaust gases prior to MEA absorption of CO<sub>2</sub>. Cement plants with no oxidisable sulphur compounds in their raw materials have negligible SO<sub>2</sub> emissions. The kilns on such cement plants would therefore be ready candidates for retrofitting of this CO<sub>2</sub> capture technology. Where cement plants do use raw materials containing oxidisable sulphur compounds then those that had already been provided with SO<sub>2</sub> scrubbing equipment would also be ready candidates although it is likely that the FGD systems would require some upgrading to achieve the low SO<sub>x</sub> levels required for economic CO<sub>2</sub> capture with MEA. Alternatively SO<sub>2</sub> scrubbing equipment could be installed as part of the equipment required for post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture by MEA absorption.

Installation of SCR technology to reduce the NO<sub>2</sub> content of the exhaust gases prior to MEA absorption of CO<sub>2</sub> would need to be undertaken. However, there are currently only two such installations on cement kilns around the world and there is still some uncertainty whether this would reduce the NO<sub>2</sub> content of the exhaust gases sufficiently. This is the only equipment that would

directly affect the cement process when it is installed. SCR must be added between the preheater and the raw mill, with additional ammonia sprays necessary in the preheater. This will modify the process and may require additional fuel input to maintain the temperature for the raw mill but it can be integrated.

All current cement kilns have significant oxygen, O<sub>2</sub>, content in their exhaust gases. MEA is degraded by oxygen. However, the use of additives can inhibit the oxidation of MEA and so this does not represent a significant obstacle.

The flue gases from a cement plant are generally higher in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration than those from coal or gas fired power plants. This makes the flue gas from a cement plant more amenable to capture of CO<sub>2</sub> than power plants due to the efficiency of absorbing CO<sub>2</sub> from a concentrated gas stream. There may be further economic benefits from reducing air in-leaks in the cement plant to ensure an even more concentrated stream of CO<sub>2</sub> in the flue gas. Hence, retrofitting post-combustion capture of CO<sub>2</sub> by MEA absorption may require major refurbishment and provision of additional equipment to minimise air in-leaks along the kiln exhaust gas flow path. However, given that the capital cost of the absorber tower is a relatively small fraction of the overall cost of capture, air in-leakage is not considered to be a 'showstopper'.

### 6.3 Oxy-Combustion Capture

Operating the precalciner in an oxy-combustion mode results in fundamental changes to the reaction conditions. Hence, retrofitting oxy-combustion in the precalciner only, and capture of the CO<sub>2</sub> in the exhaust gases from the precalciner only, could only be readily undertaken in certain types of cement plants, dependent on their process and design.

An assumption of this study has been that retrofits for CO<sub>2</sub> capture would only be applicable to modern, existing, cement plants. Capture in older, smaller plants was not considered. Modern, existing, cement plants will most likely be equipped with a precalciner. However, in order for the retrofit to be relatively straightforward the precalciner would need to be operated as a separate-line calciner (SLC). It would then be possible to retrofit oxy-combustion to a precalciner cement kiln with a precalciner combustion chamber installed parallel with the exhaust gas riser from the rotary kiln, provided that the kiln was also provided with twin (or multiple) preheater towers. Mott MacDonald notes that operation with a separate-line calciner (SLC) is not currently the preferred technology for cement production.

In assessing the suitability of an existing cement plant for retrofit of this CO<sub>2</sub> capture technology the criteria would be as follows:

- The kiln is provided with a separate line (or separate combustion chamber) precalciner.
- The kiln is provided with twin (or multiple) preheater towers.
- Those twin (or multiple) preheater towers to have separate, dedicated, induced draft fans.
- The solid fuel grinding system to be swept by inert preheater exhaust gases from one (the intended rotary kiln) preheater tower.
- Sufficient space is available alongside the preheater tower, (on the intended precalciner side) for installation of the air-separation unit, CO<sub>2</sub> purification and compression equipment. Mott

MacDonald estimates that for a 1 Mt/y cement plant the area required would be approximately 0.5 ha.

- The electrical energy supply capacity is sufficient for the maximum load to be increased by approximately 15 MW to accommodate the additional power requirements.

Once these criteria have been assessed, it would then be necessary to undertake considerable process modelling and design effort to ensure the technology could be successfully introduced.

It is important to note that one of the key outcomes from this study is the significantly lower cost of employing oxy-combustion technology over post-combustion technology. The criteria developed above could be used to determine the most suitable plant for retrofit of this technology. However, given the cost differential between oxy-combustion and post-combustion capture it may be more economic to undertake a major rebuild of the kiln (i.e. from single to twin preheater towers) and undertake the oxy-combustion retrofit rather than implementing the post-combustion option. The costs of undertaking the retrofit would need to be assessed on a case by case basis.

## 7 Capture-Ready Cement Plants

### 7.1 Introduction

The G8 communiqué (Gleaneagles Plan of Action, 2005) raises the question of a definition for 'capture-ready', for which a consensus definition is not currently provided by the literature. A recent study (IEA GHG, 2007a) commissioned by the IEA GHG provides a comprehensive review of the literature, noting that the definition of capture ready can be either primarily technical or economic, and is likely to be ultimately determined by regulators. It is recommended that readers refer to the IEA GHG study for an overview of the relevant literature.

The IEA GHG definition for capture-ready plant outlines the essential considerations that would apply globally to thermal generation plant, irrespective to the specific regulatory and economic context as follows:

*“A CO<sub>2</sub> capture ready plant is a plant which can include CO<sub>2</sub> capture when the necessary regulatory or economic drivers are in place. The aim of building plants that are capture ready is to reduce the risk of stranded assets or ‘carbon lock-in’.*

*Developers of capture ready plants should take responsibility for ensuring that all known factors in their control that would prevent installation and operation of CO<sub>2</sub> capture have been identified and eliminated.*

*This might include:*

- *A study of options for CO<sub>2</sub> capture retrofit and potential pre-investments*
- *Inclusion of sufficient space and access for the additional facilities that would be required*
- *Identification of reasonable route(s) to storage of CO<sub>2</sub>*

*Competent authorities involved in permitting power plants should be provided with sufficient information to be able to judge whether the developer has met these criteria.”*

The same considerations as developed above for power plant apply equally well to cement plant. Mott MacDonald has reviewed ways of making cement plants 'capture-ready' and the findings are presented in the sections below.

### 7.2 Post-Combustion Capture

This study has used chemical absorption with monoethanolamine (MEA) for the post-combustion capture of CO<sub>2</sub> from a cement plant. Essentially this is an “end-of-pipe” technology and the requirements for modification of the cement manufacturing process are minimal. As such the technology could be applied to any cement plant. The key constraints on the application of the technology are:

- The MEA solvent is degraded by NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> in the exhaust gases.
- There are major space requirements for the absorption and subsequent solvent stripping/regeneration columns.

- There are major steam requirements for absorbent stripping and regeneration.
- There are major power requirements for compressing the CO<sub>2</sub> gas.

A “capture-ready” cement plant would therefore need to make provision for overcoming these constraints. Overcoming the space constraint would simply require that sufficient space was reserved for the absorption and stripping/regeneration columns as well as additional space for the CO<sub>2</sub> compression and purification and local CO<sub>2</sub> storage and/or pipeline. The power requirement could be met if sufficient electrical energy supply from the grid was available or by a captive power plant. However, a steam supply is also needed so consideration must be given to how this will be provided. In this study it has been assumed that a captive CHP plant would provide the steam and electrical power. In this case the incremental equipment for generation of the additional steam and power would be added at the time the CO<sub>2</sub> capture was implemented and sufficient space for this equipment would need to be allowed for. Location of the new cement plant could also aid with the plant being capture ready. Being close to a power station willing to sell both heat and power or to an industrial provider of steam would be particularly advantageous. Being close to links for CO<sub>2</sub> storage would also help.

The potentially greater challenge is reducing the levels of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> in the exhaust gases from a “capture-ready” cement kiln. Achieving low SO<sub>2</sub> levels in the exhaust gases prior to solvent absorption of CO<sub>2</sub> would be the most readily achieved. Provided that the “capture-ready” cement plant utilised raw materials with no oxidisable sulphur content then there would be negligible SO<sub>2</sub> content in the exhaust gases. If the cement plant did use raw materials containing oxidisable sulphur compounds then installation of wet or dry scrubbing equipment would be sufficient to reduce the SO<sub>2</sub> to levels acceptable for CO<sub>2</sub> absorption by MEA.

Sufficient reduction of the content of NO<sub>2</sub> in the exhaust gases to less than 41 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup> (20 ppmv at 6% O<sub>2</sub>) prior to MEA absorption is more problematic. The SCR installation at the Solnhofen cement plant in Germany has demonstrated the ability to reduce NO<sub>x</sub> emissions to less than 200 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup> in short-term trials. Based on NO<sub>2</sub> comprising less than 10% of these total NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and the reported low absorption rates of NO<sub>x</sub> within CO<sub>2</sub> absorption systems (Knudsen *et al.*, 2006 and Iijima *et al.*, 2007) then installation of SCR equipment on the “capture-ready” cement kiln exhaust ahead of the MEA solvent absorption column should be sufficient to reduce the NO<sub>2</sub> content of the exhaust gases sufficiently.

The oxygen content of the exhaust gas from a cement plant would typically be 7~10%. MEA is degraded by oxygen so it is beneficial to have a low oxygen content in the exhaust gases prior to MEA absorption of CO<sub>2</sub>. However, the use of additives can inhibit the oxidation of MEA and so this does not represent a significant obstacle.

Although it must be recognised that the flue gases from a cement plant are generally higher in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration than those from coal or gas fired power plants the reduction of air in-leakage in the cement process would be beneficial to the economic capture of CO<sub>2</sub> as it is easier to absorb CO<sub>2</sub> from a concentrated stream. Current cement manufacturing technology utilises the exhaust gases from the cement kiln for drying of raw materials in the raw grinding mill. There are significant air in-leaks in the cement kiln exhaust gas flow path from the kiln inlet, through the preheater, raw mill, gas conditioning and dust collection systems. An ideal “capture-ready” cement plant would deploy additional technologies to minimise these air in-leaks. This would boost the thermal efficiency and productivity of the cement kiln and would therefore be in the interests of the industry. Air in-leaks are minimised in solid fuel grinding systems so it should therefore be feasible to reduce air in-leaks in raw grinding systems, given sufficient incentive to do so. Prevention of the dilution of the exhaust gases

by in-leaking air in order that they be most suitable for post combustion capture of CO<sub>2</sub> by MEA absorption would be such an incentive.

### 7.3 Oxy-Combustion Capture

This study has examined oxy-combustion in the precalciner only and capture of the CO<sub>2</sub> in the exhaust gases from the precalciner only. This requires that the exhaust gases from the precalciner are vented separately from the exhaust gases from the rotary kiln. In order to maintain the thermal efficiency of the cement kiln process the exhaust gases from the precalciner and the rotary kiln are drawn through separate, dedicated preheater towers.

Such separate line calciner (SLC) cement kilns are in the product range of the major cement kiln equipment supplier, FL Smidth, and were regularly provided in the late 1980s and 1990s. Some kilns provided by equipment supplier KHD also operate in this separate line mode. This kiln configuration was perceived to be advantageous as the precalciner was aspirated with pure tertiary air and therefore combustion took place in an atmosphere of 23% (w/w) oxygen.

In an in line calciner (ILC) cement kiln the exhaust gas from the rotary section of the cement kiln is vented through the precalciner. The oxygen content of this vitiated exhaust from the rotary kiln is raised by separately ducting pure tertiary air to the precalciner. Despite this introduction of tertiary air, the combustion efficiency in these in line calciners is compromised by the lower overall oxygen content of the gases sweeping the calciner.

In recent years SLC cement kilns have fallen from favour for a number of reasons:

- Completely separating the kiln exhaust gases from the precalciner precludes using staged combustion in the precalciner as a means to mitigate thermal NO<sub>x</sub> emissions generated in the rotary section of the kiln.
- The problem of combustion in a depleted oxygen atmosphere in an ILC kiln can be overcome by locating the precalciner combustion chamber parallel with the exhaust gas riser from the rotary kiln. Pure tertiary air is delivered to the precalciner combustion chamber and ducting takes the exhaust gases from the precalciner to the rotary kiln exhaust gas riser. This technology is known as a “downdraft” or Reinforced Suspension Preheater (RSP) type precalciner. In these configurations the precalciner and rotary kiln share the same preheater tower or multiple preheater towers.
- In the event of a power failure with an SLC kiln the burden of material in the precalciner preheater tower falls into the base of precalciner rather than into the rotary kiln.

Installation of a cement plant that is designed to be capture-ready for oxy-combustion in the precalciner only would require twin preheater towers with separate induced draft fans dedicated to each tower. Ideally the SLC configuration would be installed. However, switching from a parallel precalciner combustion chamber to fully separate venting would only require minor preheater ductwork modifications. Inert preheater exhaust gas for solid fuel drying would be drawn from the actual, or intended on switching, rotary kiln preheater tower.

Other ductwork modifications would be required on switching from conventional to precalciner only oxy-combustion operating mode. The tertiary air duct would be redirected from the precalciner to the raw mill via a gas-to-gas heat exchanger to exchange with the recycled precalciner exhaust gas. The

precalciner tower exhaust gas duct would be split after the induced draft fan with one duct recirculating exhaust to the precalciner and the other duct leading to the CO<sub>2</sub> purification and compression plant.

A “product” layout of the capture ready cement plant, with the equipment laid out in a straight line in the sequence of operations to manufacture cement, would facilitate this switching between conventional and CO<sub>2</sub> capture operating mode. Tertiary air would be ducted along the length of the rotary kiln from the cooler to the preheater in both modes of operation. Extension of the tertiary air duct from the precalciner to the raw mill behind the preheater tower would not be a major task. Similarly, splitting the exhaust duct from the precalciner tower after the induced draft fan with one duct recirculating to the precalciner would not be overly onerous.

Sufficient space would need to be provided for the air separation unit and CO<sub>2</sub> purification and compression plant and would ideally be installed adjacent to the preheater tower and kiln on the side closest to the precalciner. This study has estimated that the space required for a 1 Mt/y cement plant would be approximately 0.5 ha.

In conventional mode a 1 Mt per year cement plant operating for 330 days per year would require around 16 MW of installed electrical supply capacity. This study has estimated that an oxy-combustion cement plant would require approximately 31 MW of installed electrical supply capacity. A capture-ready oxy-combustion plant would need to make allowance for this additional power requirement by ensuring that a suitable grid connection was available.



## 8 Information Gaps and R&D Needs

### 8.1 Introduction

In this section important information gaps are identified and suggestions for research, development and demonstration are made.

For both technologies, there is important potential for realising economies of scale through co-location of cement plant with power plants, or other large emitters, also implementing CCS. This would be particularly true if the capture concept (e.g. oxy- or post-combustion) employed by the co-located plants was the same – allowing shared use of ASUs, MEA units etc. Economies of scale in CO<sub>2</sub> transport and storage are also likely. It is recommended that further quantitative study of the benefits available through co-location be carried out.

### 8.2 Post-Combustion Capture

With respect to the further development of post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture at cement plants the following suggestions for research, development and demonstration are made:

- The opportunities for combustion of waste MEA in the kiln. This must include research into the influence of trace metals in the waste MEA on the cement product quality.
- Specific investigation into high concentration CO<sub>2</sub> flue gas capture techniques, combined with continuing attention to application of the latest post-combustion capture technologies being developed for power generation applications.
- Specific investigation into the influence of NO<sub>x</sub> levels on the performance of MEA.
- Further work and full scale tests must be performed to assess the viability of high dust SCR.
- FGD, SNCR and SCR efficiencies – to meet the stringent levels required to avoid excessive amine waste.
- Further study of hybrid combinations of FGD equipment to meet required SO<sub>x</sub> removal efficiency at minimum cost – including combinations of wet limestone, seawater scrubbing and absorbent injection within the cement process.
- Further work to reduce air in-leaks into process equipment resulting in a higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the flue gas stream.
- Alternative CO<sub>2</sub> capture techniques that use less steam, therefore smaller heat requirement and require a smaller CHP.
- Alternative CO<sub>2</sub> capture techniques that require less gas clean up will significantly reduce the capital and operating costs of the plant.
- A pilot scale post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture plant must be built and operated with the cement process to demonstrate that the post-combustion process can be implemented successfully.

- Further study into the opportunities and potential economic savings for co-location of cement plants with power plants particularly where post-combustion capture is to be applied at the power plant.

### 8.3 Oxy-Combustion Capture

With respect to the further development of oxy-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture at cement plants the following suggestions for research, development and demonstration are made:

- The optimal ratio of O<sub>2</sub> to CO<sub>2</sub> within an oxy-combustion cement process should be investigated.
- The heat transfer characteristics of the atmosphere within an oxy-combustion cement process must be understood.
- The kiln wall refractory lining behaviour at different oxygen levels must be determined.
- Demonstrate that clinker produced in a CO<sub>2</sub> environment has similar properties to that produced by conventional means.
- Process chemistry (thermodynamics and equilibrium) for calcination in a CO<sub>2</sub> environment require further investigation.
- Further study of the operation of gas-to-gas heat exchangers at the high temperatures (~800 C) and high dust load required to maximise the heat integration within the oxy-combustion process.
- A pilot scale oxy-combustion cement process must be built and operated to gain insights (e.g. operation of suspension preheaters with O<sub>2</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere, determination of optimal precalciner temperature etc.) and demonstrate that the oxy-combustion process can be implemented successfully.
- The feasibility and economics of undertaking oxy-combustion in both the precalciner and the kiln to give the possibility of capturing greater than 90% of the CO<sub>2</sub>.
- Further work to reduce air in-leaks into process equipment to improve the feasibility and economics of undertaking oxy-combustion in both the precalciner and the kiln.

It should be noted that during the course of this study Mott MacDonald became aware that cement equipment manufacturers are already undertaking some research and development into the oxy-combustion process. It is expected that the number of research papers relating to this topic will increase in the near future.

## **9 Comparison between Post-Combustion and Oxy-Combustion for CO<sub>2</sub> Capture at Cement Plants**

### **9.1 Introduction**

This section summarises and compares the post-combustion and oxy-combustion solutions for CO<sub>2</sub> capture at cement plants that have been considered in this study.

### **9.2 Summary**

The options for applying post-combustion and oxy-combustion carbon capture at cement plants are summarised in Table 9-1.

**Table 9-1: Summary of Oxy-combustion and Post-combustion Cement Plants with CO<sub>2</sub> Capture**

	Parameter	Unit	Base Case	Post-Combustion	Oxy-Combustion
Inputs	Coal	t/y	63,317	291,633	72,061
	Petroleum Coke	t/y	32,876	32,876	27,091
Outputs	Clinker produced	t/y	910,000	910,000	910,000
	Cement produced	t/y	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000
	CO <sub>2</sub> captured	t/y	0	1,067,734	465,014
	CO <sub>2</sub> emitted on site	t/y	728,422	188,424	282,853
Performance	Net Power Demand	MWh/y	80,809	-22,734	174,562
	CO <sub>2</sub> associated with net power imports	t/y	42,021	-11,822	90,772
	Net quantity of CO <sub>2</sub> avoided (excluding net power imports)	t/y	N/A	539,998	445,569
	Net quantity of CO <sub>2</sub> avoided (including net power imports)	t/y	N/A	593,841	396,818
	CO <sub>2</sub> avoided, net of power imports	%	-	77	52
Costs	Total Investment Cost	€M	263	558	327
	Net Variable Operating Costs	€/y	17	31	22
	Fixed Operating Costs	€/y	19	35	23
	Cost per tonne of CO <sub>2</sub> emissions avoided <sup>i</sup>	€/t	N/A	107.4	40.2
	Costs per tonne of cement product	€/t	65.6	129.4 (Δ = +63.8)	81.6 (Δ = +16.0)
	Cost per tonne of CO <sub>2</sub> captured	€/t	N/A	59.6	34.3

<sup>i</sup> Cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoided is calculated by first determining the difference between the CO<sub>2</sub> emissions associated with the design under consideration and the base case. The additional costs incurred (compared to the base case) to achieve this reduction are then evaluated and the result expressed as €/tCO<sub>2</sub>.

### 9.3 Comparison with Other Studies

As the feasibility of capturing CO<sub>2</sub> at cement plants has not been widely investigated or reported in the literature it is difficult to compare the costs determined from this study. The key figures from the Hegerland *et al.* (2006) evaluation of applying post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture as a retrofit at a 1.4 Mt/y cement plant in Norway are reported in Table 9-2. The reported accuracy of the figures is ±35%.

**Table 9-2: Conceptual Costs for Retrofitting Post-Combustion CO<sub>2</sub> Capture Reported by Hegerland *et al.* (2006)**

Parameter	Norwegian Kroner	Euro
Total equipment cost	255 MNOK	32 €M
Total investment cost	877 MNOK	111 €M
Total variable operating costs	212 MNOK/y	27 €M/y
Fixed operating costs	40 MNOK/y	5 €M/y
Total cost per capture	360	46
	NOK/tonne of CO <sub>2</sub>	€/tonne of CO <sub>2</sub>

On first inspection the figures reported in Table 9-2 appear lower than those determined in this study. However, it should be noted that the option investigated by Hegerland *et al.* (2006) was significantly different to that chosen for this study making a like for like comparison difficult. The most important differences were:

- SNCR was used for NO<sub>x</sub> reduction
- seawater scrubbing was used for SO<sub>2</sub> reduction
- natural gas was used to provide the energy for the amine plant
- the plant considered in Norway was larger and therefore offered more economies of scale.

These differences together with the fact that the flue gas outlet from the cement process contained much lower levels of SO<sub>2</sub> (200 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup> of SO<sub>2</sub>) account for the differences between the estimated costs.

Mahasenan *et al.* (2005), based on a survey of literature and the typical CO<sub>2</sub> content of the flue gas from cement plants, estimated the cost of capturing CO<sub>2</sub> from the stack of a cement kiln using an amine-based process at about \$50/tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> (approx. €36/tonne of CO<sub>2</sub>) plus another \$9/tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> (approx. €6/tonne of CO<sub>2</sub>) to compress the CO<sub>2</sub> to pipeline specifications (not fully described). The authors of the study admit that the estimates are approximate and that additional research is needed to better estimate the magnitude and variability of these costs. Based on the findings from this Report and Hegerland *et al.* (2006) it appears that this figure underestimates the costs of providing post-combustion capture at a cement plant.

Mott MacDonald are not aware of any published reports indicating the costs of applying oxy-combustion at a cement plant. However, Zeman (2008) provided the following costs from his investigations into an oxygen-fired kiln:

- The cost of the oxygen plant is estimated at \$3/tCO<sub>2</sub> (approx. €2/tCO<sub>2</sub>) captured.
- The cost of the CO<sub>2</sub> compression equipment is estimated at \$7-8/tCO<sub>2</sub> (approx. €5.1/tCO<sub>2</sub>) captured.
- The additional electricity costs associated with the production of oxygen and compression of CO<sub>2</sub> are estimated as \$6.85/tCO<sub>2</sub> captured (€4.69/tCO<sub>2</sub> for pulverised coal fuel) and \$5.51/tCO<sub>2</sub> captured (€3.83/tCO<sub>2</sub> for natural gas fuel).

- The minimum cost of capture is estimated at between \$15 and \$18 per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> captured (€11-13/tCO<sub>2</sub>).

Once again, on first inspection the figures reported by Zeman (2008) appear significantly lower than those determined in this study. However, it should be noted that the option investigated by Zeman (2008) considers oxy-combustion being applied to the whole cement plant and that these figures are considered as ‘minimum’. Mott MacDonald considers the estimated cost to be conservative.

It should be noted that the quantity of oxygen needed per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> captured in the case considered in the Report is expected to be less than in the case where oxy-combustion is applied to the whole plant. This is because the majority of the extra CO<sub>2</sub> captured in a total capture case would be fuel-based, which requires oxygen, rather than calcination-based, which does not.

#### 9.4 Comparison between Cement Industry and Power Industry

Previous studies (IEA GHG, 2004) have calculated the cost of avoidance of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions at a USCPF post-combustion power plant using coal at 29.5 \$/tCO<sub>2</sub> (25 €/tCO<sub>2</sub> at exchange rate of the day). This is significantly lower than the estimated cost reported here. Mott MacDonald considers that the main reasons for this difference to be:

- The fact that there is no steam supply available for amine stripping at a cement plant. The costs of providing a CHP plant capable of meeting the steam requirements are significant.
- The high sulphur content in the raw meal considered as part of this study increased the cost of FGD.
- The economies of scale offered by undertaking carbon capture at a large power plant. The plant considered in the IEA GHG study was designed to capture approximately 5.4 Mt/y. The post-combustion cement plant considered in this Report captures approximately 1.1 Mt/y.
- There have been significant rises in plant equipment costs, particularly in the power sector, since the IEA GHG study was carried out in 2004. These cost rises have been primarily driven both by materials costs and high demand for new-build plants. Such high equipment costs both increase the current base plant cost and the penalty associated with implementation of CO<sub>2</sub> capture relative to the original study results.
- There have been significant increases in fuel prices since the IEA GHG study was carried out in 2004. IEA GHG (2004) was based on a coal price of \$1.5/GJ (LHV basis) where as this study used €2.51/GJ (LHV basis) which is approximately \$3.5/GJ (LHV basis).
- Given that application of post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture to cement plant is a relatively new field of study, without existing demonstrations to provide technology learning, the design proposed by this study is conservative relative to power sector examples. Further study would enable refinements to be made to the design approach which would be expected to reduce the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> capture.

Davison (2008) provided updated costs of post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture in power plants using Fluor’s Econamine FG+ process which was used as the basis of the IEA GHG study published in 2004 (IEA GHG,2004). Inflating capital costs and capital-related operating costs (insurance, local taxes and maintenance) from early 2004 by 25% in Euro terms and using a coal cost of 65 €/t resulted in a cost

of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoidance of 39 €/tCO<sub>2</sub> and electricity costs of 59.9 €/MWh without capture and 84.1 €/MWh with capture. This indicates that: (i) the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoidance by post-combustion capture is more expensive at a cement plant than at a power plant; and (ii) oxy-combustion capture at a cement plant is more cost effective than post-combustion capture at a power plant.

It should also be recognised that co-location of a post-combustion cement plant with a post-combustion power plant would offer significant cost-saving opportunities as equipment (e.g. FGD, CO<sub>2</sub> absorbers, CO<sub>2</sub> compressors) could be shared. Mott MacDonald suggests that under this scenario the cost of CO<sub>2</sub> avoidance for the cement plant would reduce significantly from the values presented in Table 9-1. The limit of the reduction would be the cost of abatement at the power plant.

Previous studies (IEA GHG, 2005) have calculated the cost of avoidance of CO<sub>2</sub> emission at an oxy-combustion power plant using pulverised coal at 37 \$/tCO<sub>2</sub> (31 €/tCO<sub>2</sub> at exchange rate of the day). This is slightly lower than the estimated cost reported here. In addition to the equipment cost rises noted above, Mott MacDonald considers the main reason for this difference to be economies of scale. The target net power of the coal-fired power plant considered in the IEA GHG study was 500 MWe. The CO<sub>2</sub> captured at a power plant of this scale is approximately 3.3 Mt/y. The oxy-combustion cement plant considered in this Report captures only 0.47 Mt/y. Mott MacDonald would expect the economies of scale offered by the power plant application to reduce the levelised cost of capture.

## 10 Conclusions

The conclusions from this study are outlined below.

### 10.1 Post-Combustion CO<sub>2</sub> Capture

#### 10.1.1 Technical Issues

- Economic CO<sub>2</sub> capture using amine solvents requires flue gas impurities to be removed. Post-combustion capture at cement plants will be more technically and commercially favourable when applied at cement plants with low SO<sub>2</sub> and low NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the flue gas as this will reduce the costs associated with desulphurisation and deNO<sub>x</sub>.
- This study used wet scrubbing FGD and SCR to achieve the required levels of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> for economic capture of CO<sub>2</sub> using amines. These technologies are considered conservative approaches and other less capital intensive technologies of reducing levels of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> (e.g. addition of solid sorbents or use of SNCR) may meet the required levels.
- The additional steam requirements for post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture using amine solvents are significant and result in additional CO<sub>2</sub> emissions which require capture themselves. This indicates that post-combustion capture will be most efficient and cost effective if the cement plant is co-located near a pre-existing readily available steam supply e.g. a power station.

#### 10.1.2 Performance

- A post-combustion capture cement plant is capable of capturing the majority of CO<sub>2</sub> emitted from a cement plant including those emissions associated with the auxiliary power generation. This can occur with minimal impact on the conventional cement production process.
- The footprint of a post-combustion capture cement plant producing 1 Mt/y of cement is estimated to be in the range 3.6-4.3 ha.

#### 10.1.3 Environmental

- A post-combustion capture cement plant will achieve emission standards well below current cement plants. This is an added advantage of CO<sub>2</sub> capture.

#### 10.1.4 Economics

- For the post-combustion capture cement plant considered in this study the cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoided is €107.4/t.
- For the post-combustion capture cement plant considered in this study the cost delta associated with the capture plant compared to the cost of the plant without capture is €63.7 per tonne of cement product.



### 10.1.5 Retrofitting

- It is technically feasible to retrofit post-combustion capture using amine absorption to any existing cement plant.
- The key constraints influencing the economic feasibility of applying post-combustion capture as a retrofit solution are:
  - The concentration of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>x</sub> in the flue gases.
  - The space requirements for the capture and compression equipment.
  - The availability of sufficient steam for the amine absorption and regeneration system.
- The cost effectiveness of measures to reduce air in-leaks within the cement process would also need to be evaluated before a post-combustion capture solution was retrofitted at a cement plant.

### 10.1.6 Capture Ready

- A cement plant that was designed to be capture ready for post-combustion capture using amine would need to make provision for the following:
  - Leaving sufficient space for the flue gas treatment, CO<sub>2</sub> absorption, CO<sub>2</sub> purification and CO<sub>2</sub> compression equipment.
  - Fuel supply capacity, grid supply capacity and land for a power plant capable of generating the additional steam and electricity required by the capture equipment, or else potential for over-the-fence steam purchase from neighbouring cogeneration facilities.
  - Including SO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> abatement technologies within the plant or providing the space and capability to introduce these later.
  - Including technologies to reduce air in-leaks within the cement process.
- It is clear that it would be beneficial if the cement plant was co-located near an existing readily available steam supply (e.g. a power plant) that could be used when the post-combustion capture plant was installed.

## 10.2 Oxy-Combustion CO<sub>2</sub> Capture

### 10.2.1 Technical issues

- A number of major technical issues associated with the oxy-combustion process require further research and characterisation if the technology is to be developed further. These include:
  - The influence of the higher flame temperatures possible with combustion in an O<sub>2</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere on the design and operation of the precalciner.

- The influence of the O<sub>2</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere on the heat transfer characteristics within the combustion chamber and the effect on the design and operation of the precalciner.
  - The influence of the O<sub>2</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> atmosphere on the feed lifting between cyclone stages in the suspension preheater.
  - Optimising the balance between achieving high temperatures for the cement production process (which are easier to achieve with oxy-combustion) and having to replace the kiln wall lining.
  - Characterising the thermodynamics, kinetics and equilibrium chemistry for an oxy-combustion process.
  - Confirming that the product obtained from the oxy-combustion process meets the required quality parameters.
- A pilot scale oxy-combustion cement process must be built to demonstrate that the oxy-combustion process can be implemented successfully.
  - At the time of writing this report Mott MacDonald does not consider any of the technical issues associated with the development of oxy-combustion to be “show-stoppers”. Oxy-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture at cement plants is considered feasible although until it is demonstrated at pilot scale it will remain a higher technical risk solution than post-combustion CO<sub>2</sub> capture.

### 10.2.2 Performance

- Initially, the fact that the majority of CO<sub>2</sub> in a modern cement plant originates within the precalciner offered the possibility of capturing the majority of the CO<sub>2</sub> by focussing on a single process unit. Further research on this possibility and the preparation of a heat and mass balance has indicated that altering the process to focus on the precalciner reduces the quantity of CO<sub>2</sub> produced in the precalciner.
- This study has determined that a CO<sub>2</sub> capture cement plant with oxy-combustion in the precalciner only is capable of capturing 47% of the CO<sub>2</sub> emitted from the plant (excluding those emissions associated with the additional power requirements). This can occur with minimal impact on the kiln operation.
- The footprint of a CO<sub>2</sub> capture cement plant using oxy-combustion capture in the precalciner only and producing 1 Mt/y of cement is estimated to be similar to a conventional cement plant i.e. approximately 15.5 ha.

### 10.2.3 Environmental

- An oxy-combustion capture cement plant will achieve emission standards well below current cement plants. This is an added advantage of CO<sub>2</sub> capture.

#### 10.2.4 Economics

- For the oxy-combustion capture cement plant considered in this study the cost per tonne of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions avoided is €42.4/t.
- For the oxy-combustion capture cement plant considered in this study the cost delta associated with the capture plant compared to the cost of the plant without capture is €16.8 per tonne of cement product.

#### 10.2.5 Retrofitting

- Key constraints influencing the economic feasibility of applying oxy-combustion capture as a retrofit solution are:
  - The process and design of the existing kiln.
  - The space requirements for the ASU, CO<sub>2</sub> purification and compression equipment.
- The electrical energy supply capacity to be sufficient for the maximum load to be increased by approximately 15 MW to accommodate the additional power requirements (for a 1 Mt/y cement plant).
- The most feasible scenario for retro-fitting oxy-combustion in the precalciner only would be if the existing precalciner operated as a separate line calciner (SLC). SLC operation is not currently the preferred technology within the cement industry.
- However, given the significant cost differential between employing oxy-combustion and post-combustion capture it may be more economic to undertake a major rebuild of the kiln (i.e. from single to twin preheater towers) and undertake the oxy-combustion retrofit rather than implementing the post-combustion option. The costs of undertaking the retrofit would need to be assessed on a case by case basis.

#### 10.2.6 Capture Ready

- Installation of a cement plant that is designed to be capture-ready for oxy-combustion in the precalciner only would require twin preheater towers with separate induced draft fans dedicated to each tower. Ideally the SLC configuration would be installed. However, switching from a parallel precalciner combustion chamber to fully separate venting would only require minor preheater ductwork modifications.
- Sufficient space would need to be provided for the air separation unit and CO<sub>2</sub> purification and compression plant and would ideally be installed adjacent to the preheater tower and kiln on the side closest to the precalciner. This study has estimated that the space required for a 1 Mt/y cement plant would be approximately 0.5 ha.
- A capture-ready oxy-combustion plant would need to make allowance for the additional power requirement by ensuring that a suitable grid connection was available. This study has estimated that a 1 Mt/y cement plant employing CO<sub>2</sub> capture in the precalciner would require an additional installed electrical supply capacity of approximately 15 MW.

### 10.3 Overall

- The most significant air in-leaks at a cement plant occur in the raw mill, preheater and kiln. Technological developments to reduce these air in-leaks should be encouraged as they will improve the efficiency and costs of carbon capture using either oxy-combustion or post-combustion methods.
- Auxiliary power for post-combustion capture should be met by combustion of a low sulphur fuel as this will reduce the desulphurisation costs associated with the flue gas from the energy plant.
- Combustion of biomass to generate the auxiliary power for post-combustion will reduce the carbon footprint of the plant.
- Until more research and development has been undertaken on the oxy-combustion solution for cement production, post-combustion capture will remain the lowest technical risk capture solution.
- For the case considered in this study, oxy-combustion capture at cement plants offers the lowest cost solution for capturing CO<sub>2</sub> at new-build cement plants. However, there are a number of fundamental technical issues which will need to be further investigated for this option to be successfully deployed.
- This study has focussed on oxy-combustion capture within the precalciner only. The option for the whole plant to operate in an oxy-combustion mode should also be pursued particularly if higher capture rates are required.
- The option of co-locating a post-combustion capture (or oxy-combustion capture) cement plant with a post-combustion capture (or oxy-combustion capture) power station offers significant cost-saving opportunities.

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## Appendix A Coal Specification

<b>Proximate analysis:</b>	<b>weight %</b>
Coal (dry, ash-free)	78.3
Ash	12.2
Moisture	9.5
<b>Ultimate analysis:</b>	<b>weight %</b>
Carbon	82.5
Hydrogen	5.6
Oxygen	9.0
Nitrogen	1.8
Sulphur	1.1
Chlorine	0.03
<b>Ash analysis:</b>	<b>weight %</b>
SiO <sub>2</sub>	50.0
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	30.0
TiO <sub>2</sub>	2.0
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	9.7
CaO	3.9
MgO	0.4
Na <sub>2</sub> O	0.1
K <sub>2</sub> O	0.1
P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	1.7
SO <sub>3</sub>	1.7
Gross CV (HHV)	27.06 MJ/kg
Net CV (LHV)	25.87 MJ/kg
Hardgrove Index	45
Ash fusion point (reducing atmosphere)	1350°C

The coal specification is based on an open-cut coal from Eastern Australia.

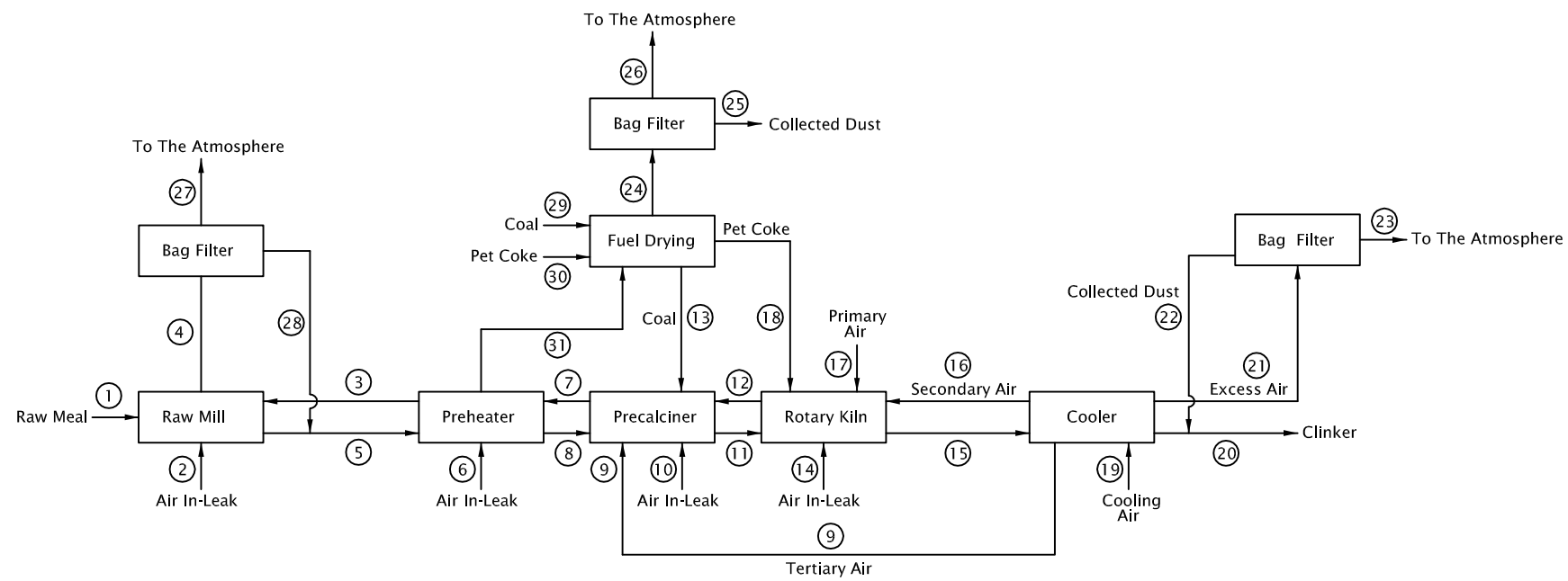
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**Appendix B Petroleum Coke Specification**

<b>Proximate analysis:</b>	<b>weight %</b>
Petroleum coke (dry, ash-free)	97.6
ash	0.4
moisture	2.0
<b>Ultimate analysis:</b>	<b>weight %</b>
Carbon	87.6
Hydrogen	3.7
Oxygen	1.7
Nitrogen	1.5
Sulphur	5.5
Net CV (LHV)	34.16 MJ/kg

---

## **Appendix C PFD and Stream Compositions for Base Case Option**



Notes

Key to symbols

P1	13.02.08	AK	Preliminary Issue		
Rev	Date	Drawn	Description	Chk'd	App'd

**m Mott MacDonald**  
 Victory House  
 Trafalgar Place  
 Brighton BN1 4FY  
 United Kingdom  
 Tel +44 (0)1273 365000  
 Fax +44 (0)1273 365100  
 Web www.mottmac.com

Client  
 International Energy Association  
 Greenhouse Gas R&D Programme  
 (IEA GHG) CO2 Capture in the Cement Industry

Title  
 Base Case Cement Plant

Designed		Eng.Chk.	
Drawn	AK	Coordination	
Dwg.Chk.		Approved	
Scale	Project 234996 CAD file 234996-BC-FS01	Status	Pre
Drawing No	234996/BC/FS01	Rev	P1

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## CO2 capture in the cement industry

**Post-combustion**

Refer to drawing no. 234996/PC/FS02

Spreadsheet designed by Simon Turner 13/06/2007  
 Spreadsheet reviewed by Pete Lilley 17/08/2007  
 Spreadsheet checked by Duncan Barker 21/11/2007

**Mass flowrates**

STREAM NUMBER	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31			
STREAM NAME	Raw meal	Air Inleak (raw mill)	Preheater Exit Gas to Raw Mill	Raw Mill Exit Gas	Raw Meal Exit	Air Inleak (Preheater)	Precalciner Exit Gas	Preheated Raw Meal	Tertiary Air	Air Inleaks to precalciner	Precalcined raw meal	Rotary Kiln Exit Gas	Dry Coal	Air Inleaks to Kiln	Clinker	Secondary Air	Primary Air	Dry Pet Coke	Cooling Air	Cooled Clinker	Excess Air	Collected Dust	Air	Exit Gas from Fuel Drying	Collected Dust post FD	Bag Filter Exit Gas post FD	Bag Filter Exit Gas post raw mill	Collected Dust post raw mill	Wet Coal	Wet Pet Coke	Preheater Exit Gas to Fuel Drying			
<b>COMPONENT</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>kg/s</b>		
Carbon dioxide		0.01	22.99	22.99		0.00	25.54		0.01	22.99		4.35		0.00		0.01	0.00		0.03		0.02		0.02	2.55	2.55	22.99					2.55			
Hydrogen													0.10					0.04														0.20		
Nitrogen		11.99	27.94	39.93		3.12	27.93		13.70	3.61		10.61		1.20		8.28	1.13		50.79		28.80		28.80	3.10		3.10	39.93		0.10	0.04	3.10			
Oxygen		3.69	1.77	5.46		0.96	1.10		4.21	1.11		0.31		0.37		2.55	0.35		15.61		8.85		8.85	0.20		0.20	5.46		0.16	0.02	0.20			
Argon		0.20	0.47	0.68		0.05	0.47		0.23	0.06		0.18		0.02		0.14	0.02		0.86		0.49		0.49	0.05		0.05	0.68				0.05			
Carbon													1.43						0.98										1.43	0.98				
Nitrogen dioxide			0.14	0.14			0.16					0.05												0.02		0.02	0.14					0.02		
Sulphur dioxide			0.17	0.06		0.11	0.00		0.11			0.15				0.27					0.27				0.02	0.02	0.06					0.02		
Raw meal	kg/s	48.06									50.38																							
Clinker	kg/s															29.98								28.48										
Sulphur	kg/s	0.16													0.06														0.02	0.06				
Ammonia	kg/s																																	
Limestone	kg/s																																	
Gypsum	kg/s																																	
MEA	kg/s																																	
Ash	kg/s											0.27		0.27		0.28			0.01					0.28						0.27	0.01			
Dust	kg/s			3.28	0.96	0.96		13.88	0.96	0.40		1.37	4.79	0.01	1.98	0.24					2.83	0.85	0.85	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.96		0.01	0.36		
<b>Total Dry Flow</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>48.22</b>	<b>15.88</b>	<b>56.77</b>	<b>70.22</b>	<b>51.62</b>	<b>4.13</b>	<b>69.08</b>	<b>61.75</b>	<b>18.56</b>	<b>4.79</b>	<b>20.30</b>	<b>2.02</b>	<b>1.59</b>	<b>32.57</b>	<b>11.22</b>	<b>1.50</b>	<b>1.13</b>	<b>67.29</b>	<b>31.92</b>	<b>39.02</b>	<b>0.85</b>	<b>38.17</b>	<b>5.96</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>5.94</b>	<b>69.25</b>	<b>0.96</b>	<b>2.01</b>	<b>1.13</b>	<b>6.50</b>			
<b>Water</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>4.19</b>	<b>0.07</b>	<b>1.78</b>	<b>5.52</b>	<b>0.52</b>	<b>0.02</b>	<b>1.43</b>	<b>0.08</b>	<b>0.02</b>	<b>0.44</b>	<b>0.02</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>0.05</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>0.31</b>	<b>0.17</b>	<b>0.17</b>	<b>0.40</b>	<b>0.40</b>	<b>0.40</b>	<b>0.40</b>	<b>0.40</b>	<b>5.52</b>	<b>0.21</b>	<b>0.02</b>	<b>0.20</b>	<b>0.20</b>	<b>0.20</b>			
<b>Phase</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>Solid</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Solid</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Solid</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Solid</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Solid</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Solid</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Solid</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Solid</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Solid</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Solid</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Solid</b>	<b>Solid</b>	<b>Solid</b>	<b>Gas</b>	<b>Gas</b>		
<b>Temperature</b>	<b>°C</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>330</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>900</b>	<b>780</b>	<b>908</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>870</b>	<b>1025</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>1350</b>	<b>1025</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>279</b>	<b>279</b>	<b>130</b>	<b>130</b>	<b>130</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>330</b>			
<b>Pressure</b>	<b>bar(a)</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>1.013</b>	<b>&lt;1.013</b>	<b>&lt;1.013</b>	<b>&lt;1.013</b>	<b>1.013</b>	<b>&lt;1.013</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>1.013</b>	<b>1.013</b>	<b>&lt;1.013</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>1.013</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>1.013</b>	<b>1.013</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>1.013</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>1.013</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>1.013</b>	<b>&lt;1.013</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>&lt;1.013</b>	<b>&lt;1.013</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>&lt;1.013</b>	<b>&lt;1.013</b>		
<b>Total Wet flow</b>	<b>kg/s</b>	<b>52.41</b>	<b>15.96</b>	<b>58.54</b>	<b>75.74</b>	<b>52.14</b>	<b>4.15</b>	<b>70.51</b>	<b>61.75</b>	<b>18.64</b>	<b>4.81</b>	<b>37.46</b>	<b>20.73</b>	<b>2.04</b>	<b>1.60</b>	<b>32.57</b>	<b>11.27</b>	<b>1.50</b>	<b>1.14</b>	<b>67.60</b>	<b>31.92</b>	<b>39.19</b>	<b>0.85</b>	<b>38.34</b>	<b>6.36</b>	<b>0.01</b>	<b>6.34</b>	<b>74.77</b>	<b>0.96</b>	<b>2.22</b>	<b>1.15</b>	<b>6.70</b>		
<b>Total Stream Enthalpy</b>	<b>MJ/hr</b>	<b>-2327796</b>	<b>-4644</b>	<b>-1059804</b>	<b>-1079820</b>	<b>-2242116</b>	<b>-1332</b>	<b>-1253196</b>	<b>-2455236</b>	<b>57456</b>	<b>-1260</b>	<b>-1448100</b>	<b>-276588</b>	<b>-8028</b>	<b>-576</b>	<b>-1166616</b>	<b>32616</b>	<b>-576</b>	<b>-2052</b>	<b>-19944</b>	<b>-1280160</b>	<b>-5616</b>	<b>-12384</b>	<b>22752</b>	<b>-105588</b>	<b>-18</b>	<b>-105588</b>	<b>-1038384</b>	<b>-41436</b>	<b>-16668</b>	<b>-1116</b>	<b>-</b>		
<b>Total Stream Enthalpy</b>	<b>MJ/s</b>	<b>-646.61</b>	<b>-1.29</b>	<b>-294.39</b>	<b>-299.95</b>	<b>-622.81</b>	<b>-0.37</b>	<b>-348.11</b>	<b>-682.01</b>	<b>15.96</b>	<b>-0.35</b>	<b>-402.25</b>	<b>-76.83</b>	<b>-2.23</b>	<b>-0.16</b>	<b>-324.06</b>	<b>9.06</b>	<b>-0.16</b>	<b>-0.57</b>	<b>-5.54</b>	<b>-355.6</b>	<b>-1.56</b>	<b>-3.44</b>	<b>6.32</b>	<b>-29.33</b>	<b>-0.005</b>	<b>-29.33</b>	<b>-288.44</b>	<b>-11.51</b>	<b>-4.63</b>	<b>-0.31</b>	<b>-</b>		

**Notes**  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the clinker is assumed to be 100% CaO  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the raw meal is assumed to be 100% limestone  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Ash is assumed to be 100% SiO<sub>2</sub>  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Coal is assumed to be carbon  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Pet Coke is assumed to be carbon  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Dust in streams 3, 4, 5, 8 and 28 are assumed to be 100% CaCO<sub>3</sub>  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Dust in streams 7, 9, 11, 12, 15, 16, 20, 21 and 22 are assumed to be 100% CaO  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Dust in streams 13, 24, 25 and 29 are assumed to be 100% Coal  
 The enthalpy for all liquid and gaseous components was calculated in CHEMCAD using SRK equation of state method.  
 The enthalpy for all solid components was calculated in CHEMCAD using latent heat method.  
 Solid components were: coal, pet coke, calcium carbonate, calcium oxide, ash

**CO2 capture in the cement industry**

**Post-combustion**

Refer to drawing no. 234996/PC/FS02

Spreadsheet designed by Simon Turner 13/06/2007  
 Spreadsheet reviewed by Pete Lilley 17/08/2007  
 Spreadsheet checked by Duncan Barker 21/11/2007

**Mass compositions**

STREAM NUMBER		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31			
STREAM NAME		Raw meal	Air Inleak (raw mill)	Preheater Exit Gas to Raw Mill	Raw Mill Exit Gas	Raw Meal Exit	Air Inleak (Preheater)	Precalciner Exit Gas	Preheated Raw Meal	Tertiary Air	Air Inleaks to precalciner	Precalcined raw meal	Rotary Kiln Exit Gas	Dry Coal	Air Inleaks to Kiln	Clinker	Secondary Air	Primary Air	Dry Pet Coke	Cooling Air	Cooled Clinker	Excess Air	Collected Dust	Air	Exit Gas from Fuel Drying	Collected Dust post FD	Bag Filter Exit Gas post FD	Bag Filter Exit Gas post raw mill	Collected Dust post raw mill	Wet Coal	Wet Pet Coke	Preheater Exit Gas to Fuel Drying			
COMPONENT	% (w/w) dry	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)		
Carbon dioxide			0.05	40.49	32.75		0.05	36.97		0.04	0.05		21.45		0.05		0.04	0.05		0.05		0.04		0.05	42.88		42.98	33.20		4.85	3.67	39.26			
Hydrogen													4.82						3.68																
Nitrogen			75.47	49.22	56.86		75.47	40.43		73.83	75.47		52.28	1.55	75.47		73.83	75.47	1.49	75.47		73.83		75.47	52.11		52.24	57.65		1.56	1.49	47.72			
Oxygen			23.20	3.12	7.77		23.20	1.60		22.70	23.20		1.53	7.75	23.20		22.70	23.20	1.69	23.20		22.70		23.20	3.30		3.31	7.88		7.79	1.69	3.02			
Argon			1.28	0.63	0.96		1.28	0.69		1.25	1.28		0.89		1.28		1.25	1.28		1.28		1.25		1.28	0.88		0.89	0.98				0.81			
Carbon														71.07						87.16										71.38	86.86				
Nitrogen dioxide				0.25	0.20			0.23					0.27												0.26		0.26	0.20					0.24		
Sulphur dioxide				0.30	0.08		0.22	0.00	0.18			0.40	0.00											0.85		0.32	0.32	0.08					0.29		
Raw meal		99.67				97.61		98.15				95.05																							
Clinker													92.05										89.23												
Sulphur		0.33				0.31			0.10			0.17			0.95					5.47			0.20							0.95	5.32				
Ammonia																																			
Limestone																																			
Gypsum																																			
MEA																																			
Ash				5.79	1.37	1.87			20.09	1.56	2.18													0.87							13.48	0.50			
Dust												0.72			13.42					0.85															
											3.65		23.59		6.07		2.18				8.86		2.18	100.00	0.00	0.24	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.48	5.61		
<b>Total</b>	% (w/w) dry	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	#REF!	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	
<b>Water</b>	% (w/w) wet	8.00	0.46	3.04	7.29	1.01	0.46	2.03		0.45	0.46		2.10	1.00	0.46		0.45	0.41	0.97	0.46		0.44		0.45	6.29		6.30	7.38		9.50	1.94	2.95			

**CO2 capture in the cement industry**

**Post-combustion**

Refer to drawing no. 234996/PC/FS02

Spreadsheet designed by Simon Turner 13/06/2007  
 Spreadsheet reviewed by Pete Lilley 17/08/2007  
 Spreadsheet checked by Duncan Barker 21/11/2007

**Molar flowrates (dry)**

STREAM NUMBER		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31			
STREAM NAME	MW (g/mol)	Raw meal mol/s	Air Inleak (raw mill) mol/s	Preheater Exit Gas to Raw Mill mol/s	Raw Mill Exit Gas mol/s	Raw Meal Exit mol/s	Air Inleak (Preheater) mol/s	Precalciner Exit Gas mol/s	Preheated Raw Meal mol/s	Tertiary Air mol/s	Air Inleaks to precalciner mol/s	Precalcined raw meal mol/s	Rotary Kiln Exit Gas mol/s	Dry Coal mol/s	Air Inleaks to Kiln mol/s	Clinker mol/s	Secondary Air mol/s	Primary Air mol/s	Dry Pet Coke mol/s	Cooling Air mol/s	Cooled Clinker mol/s	Excess Air mol/s	Collected Dust mol/s	Air mol/s	Exit Gas from Fuel Drying mol/s	Collected Dust post FD mol/s	Bag Filter Exit Gas post FD mol/s	Bag Filter Exit Gas post raw mill mol/s	Collected Dust post raw mill mol/s	Wet Coal mol/s	Wet Pet Coke mol/s	Preheater Exit Gas to Fuel Drying mol/s			
Carbon dioxide	44.01		0.17	522.30	522.47		0.04	580.29		0.19	0.05		98.91		0.02		0.11	0.02		0.70		0.40		0.11	0.40	58.03		58.03	522.47		48.30	20.58	58.03		
Hydrogen (H <sub>2</sub> )	2.02												48.30						20.58																
Nitrogen (N <sub>2</sub> )	28.01		427.97	997.32	1425.29		111.27	996.86		489.07	128.98		378.80	1.12	42.80		295.68	40.32	0.60	1813.01		1028.25		1028.25	110.81		110.81	1425.29		1.12	0.60	110.81			
Oxygen (O <sub>2</sub> )	32.00		115.17	55.33	170.50		29.94	34.51		131.62	34.71		9.72	4.89	11.52		79.57	10.85	0.60	487.91		276.72		276.72	6.15		6.15	170.50		4.89	0.60	6.15			
Argon	39.95		5.09	11.86	16.95		1.32	11.86		5.82	1.53		4.51		0.51		3.52	0.48		21.56		12.23		12.23	1.32		1.32	16.95				1.32			
Carbon	12.01													119.44						81.77										119.44	81.77				
Nitrogen dioxide	46.01			3.06	3.06			3.41					1.17																					0.34	
Sulphur dioxide	64.06			2.68	0.91	1.77		0.00	1.77			2.37	0.00				4.24								0.34		0.34	3.06					0.30		
Raw meal	100.90	476.28			499.33			600.72				352.85																							
Clinker	56.08					4.96						1.99																							
Sulphur	32.06	4.96												0.60						1.92										0.60	1.88				
Ammonia	17.03																																		
Limestone	100.90																																		
Gypsum	172.17																																		
MEA	61.08																																		
Ash	88.64											3.06		3.06		3.12				0.06											3.06	0.06			
Dust	100.90			32.56	9.56	9.55			137.56	9.55		13.56	47.45	#REF!	19.60	2.42															9.55	0.09	0.05	3.62	
<b>Total dry molar flow</b>	mol/s	481.24	548.39	1625.12	2148.74	515.61	142.58	1764.49	614.02	630.71	165.27	373.81	540.55	#REF!	54.84	563.48	381.31	51.67	105.53	2323.18	545.17	1326.02	8.42	1317.60	177.09	0.14	176.95	2139.19	9.55	177.49	105.54	278.51			
<b>Water</b>	18.015	232.73	4.05	98.64	306.33	29.09	1.05	79.46	4.63	306.33	1.21	4.63	24.21	1.13	0.40		2.79	0.34	0.61	17.08		9.66		9.66	22.18		22.18	306.33		11.71	1.24	10.96			
<b>Total wet molar flow</b>	mol/s	713.98	552.44	1723.76	2455.07	544.70	143.64	1843.94	614.02	635.33	166.49	373.81	564.76	#REF!	55.24	563.48	384.09	52.01	106.15	2340.26	545.17	1335.68	8.42	1327.27	199.27	0.14	199.13	2445.52	9.55	189.20	106.78	289.47			
<b>Molecular weight</b>	g/mol	73.40	28.89	33.96	30.85	95.73	28.89	38.24	100.57	29.34	28.89	100.20																							



## **Appendix D PFD and Stream Compositions for Post-Combustion Option**



# CO2 capture in the cement industry

## Post-combustion

Refer to drawing no. 234996/PC/FS02

Spreadsheet designed by Simon Turner 13/06/2007  
 Spreadsheet reviewed by Pete Lilley 17/08/2007  
 Spreadsheet checked by Duncan Barker 21/11/2007

### Mass flowrates

STREAM NUMBER	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	
STREAM NAME	Raw meal	Air Inleak (raw mill)	SCR Exit Gas	Raw Mill Exit Gas	Raw Meal Exit	Air Inleak (Preheater)	Precalciner Exit Gas	Preheater Exit Gas	Preheated Raw Meal	Dry Coal	Tertiary Air	Air Inleaks to precalciner	Rotary Kiln Exit Gas	Precalcined raw meal	Dry Pet Coke	Primary Air	Secondary Air	Air Inleaks to Kiln	Clinker	Cooling Air	Cooled Clinker	Excess Air	Air	Collected Dust	Vapourised Ammonia	SCR Exit Gas	Wet Coal	
COMPONENT	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	
Carbon dioxide		0.01	22.36	22.37		0.00	25.54	25.54			0.01	0.00	4.35			0.00	0.01	0.00		0.03		0.02	0.02		0.00	2.55		
Hydrogen										0.10					0.04												0.10	
Nitrogen		11.99	28.24	40.23		3.12	27.93	31.04		0.03	13.70	3.61	10.61		0.02	1.13	8.28	1.20		50.79		28.81	28.81		1.10	3.23	0.03	
Oxygen		3.69	2.02	5.70		0.96	1.10	1.97		0.16	4.21	1.11	0.31		0.02	0.35	2.55	0.37		15.61		8.86	8.86		0.34	0.23	0.16	
Argon		0.20	0.48	0.68		0.05	0.47	0.53			0.23	0.06	0.18			0.02	0.14	0.02		0.86		0.49	0.49		0.02	0.05		
Carbon										1.43					0.98												1.43	
Nitrogen dioxide			0.00	0.00			0.16	0.16					0.05														0.00	
Sulphur dioxide			0.17	0.06	0.11		0.00	0.19	0.11				0.00	0.15					0.27		0.27						0.02	
Raw meal	48.06				50.39				60.62					35.61														
Clinker																			29.98		28.48							
Sulphur	0.16				0.16				0.06	0.02				0.06	0.06				0.06		0.06						0.02	
Ammonia			0.00																					0.08	0.00			
Limestone																												
Gypsum																												
MEA																												
Ash										0.27				0.27	0.01				0.28		0.28						0.27	
Dust			3.29	0.96	0.96		13.88	3.65	0.96		0.40		4.79	1.37			0.24	1.98		2.83	0.85	0.00	0.85					
<b>Total Dry Flow</b>	48.22	15.88	56.55	70.00	51.62	4.13	69.08	63.07	61.76	2.01	18.56	4.79	20.30	37.46	1.13	1.50	11.22	1.59	32.57	67.30	31.92	39.02	38.17	0.85	1.54	6.08	2.01	
Water	4.19	0.07	1.84	5.58	0.52	0.02	1.43	1.97		0.02	0.08	0.02	0.44		0.01	0.01	0.05	0.01		0.31		0.17	0.17		0.01	0.21	0.21	
Phase	-	Solid	Gas	Gas	Gas	Gas	Gas	Gas	Solid	Solid	Gas	Gas	Gas	Solid	Solid	Gas	Gas	Gas	Solid	Gas	Solid	Gas	Gas	Solid	Liquid	Gas	Solid	
Temperature	°C	9	9	310	110	100	9	900	330	780	100	908	900	870	100	9	1025	279	1350	9	59	279	279	279	9	310	9	
Pressure	bar(a)	-	1.013	<1.013	<1.013	-	1.013	<1.013	<1.013	-	-	1.013	1.013	<1.013	-	-	1.013	1.013	1.013	-	1.013	-	1.013	1.013	-	10	<1.013	-
<b>Total Wet flow</b>	52.42	15.96	58.39	75.59	52.15	4.15	70.51	65.05	61.76	2.03	18.64	4.81	20.73	37.46	1.14	1.50	11.27	1.60	32.57	67.61	31.92	39.20	38.35	0.85	1.55	6.29	2.22	
<b>Total Stream Enthalpy</b>	MJ/hr	-2332137.6	-4644	-940716	-1061748	-2245968	-1224	-1253952	-1060236	-2458440	-8028	57456	-1260	-276588	-1450548	-2052	-576	-13608	-576	-1169388	-19944	-1283256	-7416	22464	-28368	-1548	-91728	-16668
<b>Total Stream Enthalpy</b>	MJ/s	-647.816	-1.29	-261.31	-294.93	-623.88	-0.34	-348.32	-294.51	-682.9	-2.23	15.96	-0.35	-76.83	-402.93	-0.57	-0.16	-3.78	-0.16	-324.83	-5.54	-356.46	-2.06	6.24	-7.88	-0.43	-25.48	-4.63

### Mass flowrates

STREAM NUMBER	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54
STREAM NAME	Wet Pet Coke	Exit Gas from Fuel Drying	Collected Dust post raw mill	Bag Filter Exit Gas post raw mill	Bag Filter Exit Gas post FD	Collected Dust post FD	Coal for CHP	Air	CHP Exit Gas	LP Steam	Vapourised Ammonia	CHP SCR Exit Gas	Gas Mixer Exit Gas	Limestone	Water	Gypsum from FGD	Effluent from FGD	Exit Gas from FGD	Make up water	Surplus Water	Flue Gas to Atmosphere	CO2 to drying	Waste water from drying	Dry CO2	Compressed CO2	Make Up MEA	Waste MEA
COMPONENT	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s	kg/s
Carbon dioxide		2.55		22.37	2.55			0.03	18.99		0.00	18.99	43.91					44.06			6.61	37.45		37.45	37.45		0.00
Hydrogen	0.04							0.35																			
Nitrogen	0.02	3.23		40.23	3.23			53.13	53.13		2.61	56.00	99.45					99.45			99.45						
Oxygen	0.02	0.23		5.70	0.23			16.33	0.00		0.80	0.80	6.74					6.68			6.68						
Argon		0.05		0.68	0.05			0.90	0.90		0.04	0.95	1.68					1.68			1.68						
Carbon	0.98							5.17																			
Nitrogen dioxide		0.00		0.00	0.00				0.37				0.00					0.00			0.00						
Sulphur dioxide		0.02		0.06	0.02				0.14				0.21					0.00			0.00						
Raw meal																											
Clinker																											
Sulphur	0.06													0.07													
Ammonia			0.00										0.18														
Limestone					0.00								0.00		0.45												
Gypsum																0.57		0.11									
MEA																										0.08	0.08
Ash	0.01								0.98																		
Dust	0.01	0.01	0.96	0.00	0.00	0.01							0.00					0.00			0.00						
<b>Total Dry Flow</b>	1.13	6.10	0.96	69.04	6.08	0.01	7.25	70.39	74.50	0.00	3.64	76.88	152.00	0.45	0.00	0.57	0.11	151.88	0.00	0.00	114.43	37.45	0.00	37.45	37.45	0.08	0.08
Water	0.02	0.41		5.58	0.41		0.76	0.32	4.22	56.17	0.02	4.53	10.52		4.04		3.92	10.52	108.81	107.23	11.58	0.53	0.53	0.00	0.00	0.25	0.25
Phase	-	Solid	Gas	Solid	Gas	Solid	Solid	Gas	Gas	Gas	Liquid	Gas	Gas	Solid	Liquid	Solid	Liquid	Gas	Liquid	Liquid	Gas	Gas	Liquid	Gas	Gas	Liquid	Liquid
Temperature	°C	9	130	110	130	130	100	9	400	140	9	310	140	9	9	59	50	50	9	27	27	27	27	27	43	9	45
Pressure	bar(a)	-	<1.013	-	<1.013	<1.013	-	-	1.013	1.013	3.5	10	1.013	1.013	-	-	-	-	1.013	1.38	2.76	1.013	1.62	1.013	12	110	-
<b>Total Wet flow</b>	1.15	6.51	0.96	74.62	6.50	0.01	8.01	70.71	78.72	56.17	3.66	81.40	162.52	0.45	4.04	0.57	4.03	162.40	108.81	107.23	126.00	37.97	0.53	37.45	37.45	0.34	0.34
<b>Total Stream Enthalpy</b>	MJ/hr	-1116	-106092	-41436	-1020312	-106056	-18	-62640	-20628	-725220	-2777688	-3132	-748728	-1920024	-19548	-233028	-21960	-228492	-1979136	-6532452	-6409044	-877716	-1277280	-30852	-1250928	-1274688	-1260
<b>Total Stream Enthalpy</b>	MJ/s	-0.31	-29.47	-11.51	-283.42	-29.46</																					

# CO2 capture in the cement industry

## Post-combustion

Refer to drawing no. 234996/PC/FS02

Spreadsheet designed by Simon Turner 13/06/2007  
 Spreadsheet reviewed by Pete Lilley 17/08/2007  
 Spreadsheet checked by Duncan Barker 21/11/2007

### Mass compositions

STREAM NUMBER		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	
STREAM NAME		Raw meal	Air Inleak (raw mill)	SCR Exit Gas	Raw Mill Exit Gas	Raw Meal Exit	Air Inleak (Preheater)	Precalciner Exit Gas	Preheater Exit Gas	Preheated Raw Meal	Dry Coal	Tertiary Air	Air Inleaks to precalciner	Rotary Kiln Exit Gas	Precalcined raw meal	Dry Pet Coke	Primary Air	Secondary Air	Air Inleaks to Kiln	Clinker	Cooling Air	Cooled Clinker	Excess Air	Air	Collected Dust	Vapourised Ammonia	SCR Exit Gas	Wet Coal	
COMPONENT		% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)
Carbon dioxide	% (w/w) dry		0.05	39.54	31.95		0.05	36.97	40.49		4.85	0.04	0.05	21.45		3.68	0.05	0.04	0.05		0.05		0.04	0.05		0.04	41.98	4.85	
Hydrogen	% (w/w) dry																												
Nitrogen	% (w/w) dry		75.47	49.94	57.47		75.47	40.42	49.22		1.56	73.83	75.47	52.28		1.49	75.47	73.83	75.47		75.47		73.83	75.47		71.68	53.02	1.56	
Oxygen	% (w/w) dry		23.20	3.57	8.15		23.20	1.60	3.12		7.79	22.70	23.20	1.53		1.69	23.20	22.70	23.20		23.20		22.70	23.20		22.04	3.79	7.79	
Argon	% (w/w) dry		1.28	0.84	0.97		1.28	0.69	0.83			1.25	1.28	0.89			1.28	1.25	1.28		1.28		1.25	1.28		1.22	0.90		
Carbon	% (w/w) dry										71.38					87.16												71.38	
Nitrogen dioxide	% (w/w) dry			0.00	0.00			0.23	0.25					0.27													0.00		
Sulphur dioxide	% (w/w) dry			0.30	0.08	0.21		0.00	0.30	0.18			0.00	0.40						0.82		0.84					0.31		
Raw meal	% (w/w) dry	99.67				97.61				98.16					95.06														
Clinker	% (w/w) dry									0.10	0.95					5.47				0.20		89.24							
Sulphur	% (w/w) dry	0.33				0.31								0.17															
Ammonia	% (w/w) dry			0.00																						5.02	0.00	0.95	
Limestone	% (w/w) dry																												
Gypsum	% (w/w) dry																												
MEA	% (w/w) dry																												
Ash	% (w/w) dry			5.81	1.38	1.87		20.09	5.79	1.56	13.48	2.18		23.59	0.72	0.50				0.85		0.87						13.48	
Dust	% (w/w) dry														3.65			2.18		6.07		8.86	2.18	0.00	100.00				
Total	% (w/w) dry	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Water	% (w/w) wet	8.00	0.46	3.15	7.39	1.01	0.46	2.03	3.04		1.00	0.45	0.46	2.10		0.97	0.41	0.45	0.46		0.46		0.44	0.45		0.43	3.34	9.50	

### Mass compositions

STREAM NUMBER		28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54
STREAM NAME		Wet Pet Coke	Exit Gas from Fuel Drying	Collected Dust post raw mill	Bag Filter Exit Gas post raw mill	Bag Filter Exit Gas post FD	Collected Dust post FD	Coal for CHP	Air	CHP Exit Gas	LP Steam	Vapourised Ammonia	CHP SCR Exit Gas	Gas Mixer Exit Gas	Limestone	Water	Gypsum from FGD	Effluent from FGD	Exit Gas from FGD	Make up water	Surplus Water	Flue Gas to Atmosphere	CO2 to drying	Waste water from drying	Dry CO2	Compressed CO2	Make Up MEA	Waste MEA
COMPONENT		% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)	% (w/w)
Carbon dioxide	% (w/w) dry		41.88		32.40	41.98			0.05	25.49		0.04	24.70	28.89					29.01				100.00		100.00	100.00		
Hydrogen	% (w/w) dry	3.67						4.85																				
Nitrogen	% (w/w) dry	1.49	52.90		58.27	53.02		1.56	75.47	71.31		71.68	72.85	65.43					65.48						86.91			
Oxygen	% (w/w) dry	1.69	3.78		8.26	3.79		7.79	23.20	0.00		22.04	1.04	4.43					4.40						5.84			
Argon	% (w/w) dry		0.89		0.99	0.90			1.21			1.22	1.23	1.11					1.11						1.47			
Carbon	% (w/w) dry	86.86						71.38																				
Nitrogen dioxide	% (w/w) dry		0.00		0.00	0.00				0.50			0.00	0.00					0.00						0.00			
Sulphur dioxide	% (w/w) dry		0.31		0.08	0.31				0.18			0.18	0.14					0.00						0.00			
Raw meal	% (w/w) dry																											
Clinker	% (w/w) dry																											
Sulphur	% (w/w) dry	5.32						0.95																				
Ammonia	% (w/w) dry		0.00			0.00						5.02		0.00											0.00			
Limestone	% (w/w) dry														100.00			100.00										
Gypsum	% (w/w) dry																100.00											
MEA	% (w/w) dry																										100.00	100.00
Ash	% (w/w) dry	0.50						13.48		1.31																		
Dust	% (w/w) dry	0.48	0.23	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00							0.00					0.00									
Total	% (w/w) dry	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Water	% (w/w) wet	1.94	6.33		7.48	6.35		9.50	0.46	5.36	100.00	0.43	5.56	6.47		100.00		97.22	6.48	100.00	100.00	9.19	1.39	100.00	0.00	0.00	75.00	75.00

# CO2 capture in the cement industry

## Post-combustion

Refer to drawing no. 234996/PC/FS02

Spreadsheet designed by Simon Turner 13/06/2007  
 Spreadsheet reviewed by Pete Lilley 17/08/2007  
 Spreadsheet checked by Duncan Barker 21/11/2007

### Molar flowrates (drv)

STREAM NUMBER		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27				
STREAM NAME		Raw meal	Air Inleak (raw mill)	SCR Exit Gas	Raw Mill Exit Gas	Raw Meal Exit	Air Inleak (Preheater)	Precalciner Exit Gas	Preheater Exit Gas	Preheated Raw Meal	Dry Coal	Tertiary Air	Air Inleaks to precalciner	Rotary Kiln Exit Gas	Precalcined raw meal	Dry Pet Coke	Primary Air	Secondary Air	Air Inleaks to Kiln	Clinker	Cooling Air	Cooled Clinker	Excess Air	Air	Collected Dust	Vapourised Ammonia	SCR Exit Gas	Wet Coal				
COMPONENT	MW (g/mol)	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s			
Carbon dioxide	44.01		0.17	508.06	508.22		0.04	580.29	580.34			0.19	0.05	98.91			0.02	0.11	0.02				0.40	0.40		0.02	58.04					
Hydrogen (H <sub>2</sub> )	2.02										48.30																		48.30			
Nitrogen (N <sub>2</sub> )	28.01		427.97	1008.07	1436.03		111.27	996.86	1108.14		1.12	489.07	128.98	378.80			0.60	40.32	295.68	42.80			1813.22		1028.46	1028.46	39.40	115.15	1.12			
Oxygen (O <sub>2</sub> )	32.00		115.17	63.10	178.27		29.94	34.51	61.48		4.89	131.62	34.71	9.72			0.60	10.85	79.57	11.52			487.96		276.77	276.77	10.60	7.21	4.89			
Argon	39.95		5.09	11.95	17.04		1.32	11.86	13.18			5.82	1.53	4.51					0.51				21.57		12.23	12.23	0.47	1.36				
Carbon	12.01										119.44																		119.44			
Nitrogen dioxide	46.01			0.00	0.00			3.41	3.41					1.17															0.00			
Sulphur dioxide	64.06			2.61	0.89			0.00	2.98					0.00															0.30			
Raw meal	100.90	476.36								499.41																						
Clinker	56.08																								534.66				507.92			
Sulphur	32.06	4.96				4.96																			1.99				1.99			
Ammonia	17.03			0.00																									4.54	0.00		
Limestone	100.90																															
Gypsum	172.17																															
MEA	61.08																															
Ash	88.64																															
Dust	100.90			32.56	9.56	9.55		137.57	36.18	9.55	3.06	4.01		47.45	13.56	0.06					2.42				19.60			28.02	8.43	0.01	8.42	
<b>Total dry molar flow</b>	mol/s	481.33	548.39	1626.34	2150.01	515.64	142.58	1764.50	1805.69	614.05	177.40	630.71	165.27	540.55	373.83	105.53	51.67	381.31	54.84	563.55	2323.45	545.24	1326.29	1317.87	8.42	55.03	182.06	177.40				
Water	18.015	232.77	4.05	102.24	309.97	29.10	1.05	79.46	109.61		1.13	4.63	1.21	24.21		0.61	0.34	2.79	0.40				17.08			9.67	9.67	11.68	11.71			
<b>Total wet molar flow</b>	mol/s	714.10	552.44	1728.58	2459.98	544.74	143.64	1843.95	1915.29	614.05	178.53	635.33	166.49	564.76	373.83	106.15	52.01	384.09	55.24	563.55	2340.53	545.24	1335.95	1327.54	8.42	55.40	193.74	189.12				
<b>Molecular weight</b>	g/mol	73.40	28.89	33.78	30.73	95.73	28.89	38.24	33.96	100.57	11.37	29.34	28.89	36.71	100.21	10.72	28.89	29.34	28.89	57.79	28.89	58.54	29.34	28.89	100.90	27.91	32.49	11.74				

### Molar flowrates (drv)

STREAM NUMBER		28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54		
STREAM NAME		Wet Pet Coke	Exit Gas from Fuel Drying	Collected Dust post raw mill	Bag Filter Exit Gas post raw mill	Bag Filter Exit Gas post FD	Collected Dust post FD	Coal for CHP	Air	CHP Exit Gas	LP Steam	Vapourised Ammonia	CHP SCR Exit Gas	Gas Mixer Exit Gas	Limestone	Water	Gypsum from FGD	Effluent from FGD	Exit Gas from FGD	Make up water	Surplus Water	Flue Gas to Atmosphere	CO2 to drying	Waste water from drying	Dry CO2	Compressed CO2	Make Up MEA	Waste MEA		
COMPONENT	MW (g/mol)	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s		
Carbon dioxide	44.01		58.04		508.22	58.04			0.74	431.44		0.04	431.48	997.74					1001.07			150.16	850.91		850.91	850.91				
Hydrogen (H <sub>2</sub> )	2.02	20.58						174.17																						
Nitrogen (N <sub>2</sub> )	28.01		115.15		1436.03	115.15		4.03	1896.45	1896.45		93.23	1999.08	3550.26					3550.26			3550.26								
Oxygen (O <sub>2</sub> )	32.00	0.60	7.21		178.27	7.21		17.63	510.36	0.00		25.09	25.09	210.57					208.90			208.90								
Argon	39.95		1.36		17.04	1.36		1.11	22.55	22.55		1.11	23.66	42.07					42.07			42.07								
Carbon	12.01	81.77						430.70																						
Nitrogen dioxide	46.01		0.00		0.00	0.00				8.06			0.00	0.00					0.00			0.00								
Sulphur dioxide	64.06		0.30		0.89	0.30				2.15			2.15	3.34					0.00			0.00								
Raw meal	100.90																													
Clinker	56.08																													
Sulphur	32.06	1.88						2.15																						
Ammonia	17.03		0.00			0.00						10.74		0.00					0.00			0.00								
Limestone	100.90													4.45																
Gypsum	172.17																3.34		1.11											
MEA	61.08																													
Ash	88.64	0.06						11.02			11.02																	1.38	1.38	
Dust	100.90	0.05	0.14	9.55	0.01	0.00	0.14							0.01					0.01			0.01								
<b>Total dry molar flow</b>	mol/s	105.54	182.20	9.55	2140.46	182.06	0.14	639.71	2430.10	2371.67	0.00	130.21	2481.46	4803.98	4.45	0.00	3.34	1.11	4802.31	0.00	0.00	3951.40	850.91	0.00	850.91	850.91	1.38	1.38		
Water	18.015	1.24	22.89		309.97	22.89		42.23	17.86	234.26	3118.12	0.88	251.26	584.12		224.19			584.12			6039.84	5952.22							
<b>Total wet molar flow</b>	mol/s	106.78	205.09	9.55	2450.43	204.95	0.14	681.94	2447.96	2605.93	3118.12	131.09	2732.71	5388.09	4.45	224.19	3.34	1.11	5386.43	6039.84	5952.22	4593.93	880.12	29.21	29.21	850.91	850.91	15.40	15.40	
<b>Molecular weight</b>	g/mol	10.80	31.75	100.90	30.45	31.70	100.90	11.74	28.89	30.21	18.02	27.91	29.79	30.16	100.90	18.02	172.17	18.44	30.15	18.02	18.02	27.43	43.15	18.02	44.01	44.01	21.87	21.87		



# CO2 capture in the cement industry

## Post-combustion

Refer to drawing no. 234996/PC/FS02

Spreadsheet designed by Simon Turner 13/06/2007  
 Spreadsheet reviewed by Pete Lilley 17/08/2007  
 Spreadsheet checked by Duncan Barker 21/11/2007

### Molar Compositions (drv)

STREAM NUMBER		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	
STREAM NAME		Raw meal	Air Inleak (raw mill)	SCR Exit Gas	Raw Mill Exit Gas	Raw Meal Exit	Air Inleak (Preheater)	Precalciner Exit Gas	Preheater Exit Gas	Preheated Raw Meal	Dry Coal	Tertiary Air	Air Inleaks to precalciner	Rotary Kiln Exit Gas	Precalcined raw meal	Dry Pet Coke	Primary Air	Secondary Air	Air Inleaks to Kiln	Clinker	Cooling Air	Cooled Clinker	Excess Air	Air	Collected Dust	Vapourised Ammonia	SCR Exit Gas	Wet Coal	
COMPONENT	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	
Carbon dioxide	mol% (dry)		0.03	31.24	23.64		0.03	32.89	32.14			0.03	0.03	18.30			0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03		0.03	0.03		0.03	0.03	31.88	27.23
Hydrogen	mol% (dry)										27.23					19.50													27.23
Nitrogen	mol% (dry)		78.04	61.98	66.79		78.04	56.50	61.37			0.63	77.54	78.04	70.08		0.57	78.04	77.54	78.04		78.04		77.54	78.04		71.60	63.25	0.63
Oxygen	mol% (dry)		21.00	3.88	8.29		21.00	1.96	3.40		2.76	20.87	21.00	1.80		0.56	21.00	20.87	21.00		21.00		20.87	21.00		19.27	3.96	2.76	
Argon	mol% (dry)		0.93	0.73	0.79		0.93	0.67	0.73			0.92	0.93	0.83			0.93	0.92	0.93		0.93		0.92	0.93		0.85	0.75		
Carbon	mol% (dry)									67.33						77.49													67.33
Nitrogen dioxide	mol% (dry)			0.00	0.00			0.19	0.19					0.22														0.00	
Sulphur dioxide	mol% (dry)			0.16	0.04			0.00	0.16		0.28			0.00		0.62					0.74		0.77				0.16		
Raw meal	mol% (dry)	98.97				96.85				97.84					94.40														
Clinker	mol% (dry)																												
Sulphur	mol% (dry)	1.03				0.96				0.32	0.34				0.53	1.82					94.87		93.16					0.34	
Ammonia	mol% (dry)			0.00																						8.25	0.00		
Limestone	mol% (dry)																												
Gypsum	mol% (dry)																												
MEA	mol% (dry)																												
Ash	mol% (dry)										1.72					0.82	0.06				0.55		0.57					1.72	
Dust	mol% (dry)			2.00	0.44	1.85		7.80	2.00	1.56		0.64		8.78	3.63			0.64		3.48		5.14	0.64	0.00	100.00				
Total	mol% (dry)	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

### Molar Compositions (drv)

STREAM NUMBER		28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	
STREAM NAME		Wet Pet Coke	Exit Gas from Fuel Drying	Collected Dust post raw mill	Bag Filter Exit Gas post raw mill	Bag Filter Exit Gas post FD	Collected Dust post FD	Coal for CHP	Air	CHP Exit Gas	LP Steam	Vapourised Ammonia	CHP SCR Exit Gas	Gas Mixer Exit Gas	Limestone	Water	Gypsum from FGD	Effluent from FGD	Exit Gas from FGD	Make up water	Surplus Water	Flue Gas to Atmosphere	CO2 to drying	Waste water from drying	Dry CO2	Compressed CO2	Make Up MEA	Waste MEA	
COMPONENT	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	mol% (dry)	
Carbon dioxide	mol% (dry)		31.85		23.74	31.88			0.03	18.19		0.03	17.39	20.77					20.85				100.00			100.00	100.00		
Hydrogen	mol% (dry)	19.50						27.23																					
Nitrogen	mol% (dry)	0.57	63.20		67.09	63.25		0.63	78.04	79.96		71.60	80.56	73.90					73.93							89.85			
Oxygen	mol% (dry)	0.56	3.96		8.33	3.96		2.76	21.00	0.00		19.27	1.01	4.38					4.35							5.29			
Argon	mol% (dry)		0.75		0.80	0.75			0.93	0.95		0.85	0.95	0.88					0.88							1.06			
Carbon	mol% (dry)	77.48						67.33																					
Nitrogen dioxide	mol% (dry)		0.00		0.00	0.00				0.34			0.00	0.00					0.00							0.00			
Sulphur dioxide	mol% (dry)		0.16		0.04	0.16				0.09			0.09	0.07					0.00							0.00			
Raw meal	mol% (dry)																												
Clinker	mol% (dry)																												
Sulphur	mol% (dry)	1.78						0.34																					
Ammonia	mol% (dry)		0.00			0.00				0.00		8.25		0.00												0.00			
Limestone	mol% (dry)														100.00														
Gypsum	mol% (dry)																100.00												
MEA	mol% (dry)																											100.00	100.00
Ash	mol% (dry)	0.06																											
Dust	mol% (dry)	0.05	0.08	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00				0.46			0.00															
Total	mol% (dry)	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

## **Appendix E PFD and Stream Compositions for Oxy-Combustion Option**



# CO<sub>2</sub> capture in the cement industry

## Oxy-combustion option

Refer to drawing no. 234996/OC/FS03

Spreadsheet designed by Duncan Barker  
 13/06/2007  
 Spreadsheet reviewed by Peter Lilley  
 12/07/2007  
 Spreadsheet checked by Simon Turner  
 13/12/2007

### Mass flowrates

STREAM ID		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
STREAM NAME		Wet raw meal	Raw mill air in-leaks	Dried raw meal	Exit gases from raw mill	Dry raw meal to kiln preheater	Dry raw meal to precalciner preheater	Kiln preheater air in-leaks	Kiln preheater exit gases	Kiln preheater exit gases to raw mill	Raw coal	Dried coal	Coal dryer air in-leaks	Exit gas from coal dryer	Raw pet coke	Dried pet coke	Pet coke dryer air in-leaks	Exit gas from pet coke dryer	Kiln preheater to precalciner	Kiln preheater to kiln	Kiln exit gas to kiln preheater	Kiln inlet air in-leaks	Precalciner preheater to precalciner	Precalciner to precalciner preheater	Precalciner preheater air in-leaks	Precalciner preheater exit gas	Feed to kiln
COMPONENT																											
Ash	kg/s										0.28	0.28			0.00	0.00											
Carbon	kg/s										1.66	1.66			0.82	0.82											
Hydrogen	kg/s										0.11	0.11			0.03	0.03											
Nitrogen	kg/s		12.04		75.77			1.13	13.03	11.02	0.18	0.18	0.24	1.67	0.02	0.02	0.24	0.81			9.49	2.41		2.14	2.00	4.14	
Oxygen	kg/s		3.70		21.09			0.35	1.41	1.19	0.04	0.04	0.07	0.23	0.01	0.01	0.07	0.14			0.32	0.74		0.80	0.62	1.42	
Sulphur	kg/s	0.16									0.02	0.02			0.05	0.05											
Carbon dioxide	kg/s		0.01		7.21			0.00	8.48	7.17			0.00	0.93			0.00	0.37			5.46	0.00		34.84	0.00	34.84	
Argon	kg/s		0.20		1.29			0.02	0.22	0.19			0.00	0.03			0.00	0.01			0.16	0.04		0.46	0.03	0.49	
Nitrogen dioxide	kg/s				0.03				0.03	0.03				0.00				0.00			0.03				0.16	0.16	
Sulphur dioxide	kg/s				0.06				0.20	0.17				0.02				0.01			0.11				0.12	0.12	
Raw meal	kg/s	48.67		51.03		18.33	32.59												25.55	6.39			58.84				51.81
Clinker	kg/s																										
Dust	kg/s								0.93	0.78	0.00	0.10		0.00	0.00	0.04		0.00			17.55			27.90		1.65	
Total dry flow	kg/s	48.67	15.96	51.03	105.45	18.33	32.59	1.49	24.29	20.55	2.29	2.38	0.32	2.89	0.93	0.97	0.32	1.35	25.55	6.39	33.12	3.19	58.84	66.42	2.66	42.82	51.81
Water	kg/s	4.23	0.00	0.52	4.18	0.19	0.33	0.00	0.52	0.44	0.24	0.02	0.00	0.27	0.02	0.01	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.33	0.00	0.00	2.07	0.00	2.07	0.00
Phase	-	Solid	Gas	Solid	Gas	Solid	Solid	Gas	Gas	Gas	Solid	Solid	Gas	Gas	Solid	Solid	Gas	Gas	Solid	Solid	Gas	Gas	Solid	Gas	Gas	Gas	Solid
Temperature	°C	9	9	100	110	100	100	9	330	330	9	100	9	70	9	100	9	70	870	870	1100	9	870	900	9	330	900
Pressure	bar(a)	-	1.013	-	<1.013	-	-	1.013	<1.013	<1.013	-	-	1.013	-	-	-	1.013	<1.013	-	-	-	1.013	-	<1.013	1.013	<1.013	-
Total wet flow	kg/s	52.90	15.96	51.54	109.62	18.52	32.92	1.49	24.81	20.99	2.53	2.41	0.32	3.16	0.95	0.98	0.32	1.38	25.55	6.39	33.45	3.19	58.84	68.49	2.66	44.89	51.81
Total Stream Enthalpy	MJ/hr	-2360088	-1260	-2240280	-400392	-800676	-1423188	-86.4	-313776	-265032	-18504	-8640	-18	-42408	-972	-1692	-18	-13320	-996264	-249156	-775116	-187.2	-2294352	-2132280	-154.8	-1244736	-2001384
Total Stream Enthalpy	MJ/s	-655.58	-0.35	-622.3	-111.22	-222.41	-395.33	-0.024	-87.16	-73.62	-5.14	-2.4	-0.005	-11.78	-0.27	-0.47	-0.005	-3.7	-276.74	-69.21	-215.31	-0.052	-637.32	-592.3	-0.043	-345.76	-555.94

### Mass flowrates

STREAM ID		27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51
STREAM NAME		Kiln exit	Kiln exit air in-leaks	Primary air	Secondary air	Tertiary air	Inlet air to air cooler	Exhaust air from clinker cooler	Cooled clinker	Recycled gas	Purge stream	Air to ASU	Waste gas from ASU	Oxygen from ASU	Heated oxygen to gas mixer	Recycled gas with oxygen	Heated recycled gas with oxygen	Cooled tertiary air to raw mill	Cooled purge stream	Cooled and dedusted purge stream	Water from cooler	Cooled CO <sub>2</sub> rich waste stream	Inerts from gas clean up	Water from CO <sub>2</sub> purification	CO <sub>2</sub> rich stream for compression	Compressed CO <sub>2</sub> rich stream
COMPONENT																										
Ash	kg/s																									
Carbon	kg/s																									
Hydrogen	kg/s																									
Nitrogen	kg/s		1.20	1.01	7.27	20.21	59.98	32.50		2.04	2.11	18.30	18.20	0.10	0.10	2.14	2.14	20.21	2.11	2.11		2.11	1.68		0.43	
Oxygen	kg/s		0.37	0.31	2.24	6.21	18.44	9.99		0.70	0.72	5.63	0.11	5.51	5.51	6.21	6.21	6.21	0.72	0.72	0.00	0.72	0.64	0.00	0.09	
Sulphur	kg/s																									
Carbon dioxide	kg/s		0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.04	0.02		17.13	17.71	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	17.13	17.13	0.01	17.71	17.71	0.00	17.71	1.40	0.00	16.31	
Argon	kg/s		0.02	0.02	0.12	0.34	1.02	0.55		0.24	0.25	0.31	0.09	0.22	0.22	0.46	0.46	0.34	0.25	0.25	0.00	0.25	0.21	0.00	0.04	
Nitrogen dioxide	kg/s									0.08	0.08	0.31	0.09	0.22	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.34	0.08	0.08	0.00	0.08	0.06	0.00	0.02	
Sulphur dioxide	kg/s									0.06	0.06				0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.05	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00	
Raw meal	kg/s																									
Clinker	kg/s	33.51							31.92																	
Dust	kg/s				1.60	1.60				0.81	0.84					0.81	0.81	1.60	0.84	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Total dry flow	kg/s	33.51	1.60	1.34	11.23	28.37	79.47	43.06	31.92	21.05	21.77	24.25	18.42	5.83	5.83	26.89	26.89	28.37	21.77	20.93	0.05	20.88	3.98	0.01	16.89	16.89
Water	kg/s	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.02	1.05	0.11	0.11	0.00	0.00	1.02	1.02	0.00	1.05	1.05	0.79	0.26	0.00	0.26	0.00	0.00
Phase	-	Solid	Gas	Gas	Gas	Gas	Gas	Gas	Solid	Gas	Gas	Gas	Gas	Gas	Gas	Gas	Gas	Gas	Gas	Gas	Liquid	Gas	Gas	Liquid	Gas	Liquid
Temperature	°C	1350	9	9	1125	795	9	270	59	330	330	40	16	16	310	325	775	404	248	248	35	13	7	20	7	43
Pressure	bar(a)	-	1.013	1.013	<1.013	<1.013	1.013	<1.013	-	<1.013	<1.013	1.013	1.2	1.6	<1.013	<1.013	<1.013	<1.013	<1.013	<1.013	1.013	1.013	1.013	1.013	1.013	9.33
Total wet flow	kg/s	33.51	1.60	1.34	11.23	28.37	79.47	43.06	31.92	22.07	22.82	24.36	18.53	5.83	5.83	27.90	27.90	28.37	22.82	21.99	0.84	21.14	3.98	0.27	16.89	16.89
Total Stream Enthalpy	MJ/hr	-1214748	-93.6	-79.2	-17424	18180	-5940	38052	-1298052	-612072	-632664	-7092	-6264	-180	5616	-606564	-553860	-25920	-639936	-604080	-45864	-584568	-45144	-15048	-526500	-533484
Total Stream Enthalpy	MJ/s	-337.43	-0.026	-0.022	-4.84	5.05	-1.65	10.57	-360.57	-170.02	-175.74	-1.97	-1.74	-0.05	1.56	-168.49	-153.85	-7.2	-177.76	-167.8	-12.74	-162.38	-12.54	-4.18	-146.25	-148.19

### Note

Moisture content within air inleaks has been ignored  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the clinker is assumed to be 100% CaO  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the raw meal is assumed to be 100% limestone  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Ash is assumed to be 100% SiO<sub>2</sub>  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Coal is assumed to be carbon  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Pet Coke is assumed to be carbon  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Dust in streams 8, 9, 25, 35, 36, 41, 42 and 44 are assumed to be 100% CaCO<sub>3</sub>  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Dust in streams 20, 23, 30, 31 and 43 are assumed to be 100% CaO  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Dust in streams 11 and 15 are assumed to be 100% Coal  
 The enthalpy for all liquid and gaseous components was calculated in CHEMCAD using SRK equation of state method.  
 The enthalpy for all solid components was calculated in CHEMCAD using latent heat method.  
 Solid components were: coal, pet coke, calcium carbonate, calcium oxide, ash

# CO<sub>2</sub> capture in the cement industry

## Oxy-combustion option

Refer to drawing no. 234996/OC/FS03

Spreadsheet designed by Duncan Barker  
13/06/2007  
Spreadsheet reviewed by Peter Lilley  
12/07/2007  
Spreadsheet checked by Simon Turner  
13/12/2007

### Mass compositions

STREAM NUMBER		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	
STREAM NAME		Wet raw meal	Raw mill air in-leaks	Dried raw meal	Exit gases from raw mill	Dry raw meal to kiln preheater	Dry raw meal to precalciner preheater	Kiln preheater air in-leaks	Kiln preheater exit gases	Kiln preheater exit gases to raw mill	Raw coal	Dried coal	Coal dryer air in-leaks	Exit gas from coal dryer	Raw pet coke	Dried pet coke	Pet coke dryer air in-leaks	Exit gas from pet coke dryer	Kiln preheater to precalciner	Kiln preheater to kiln	Kiln exit gas to kiln preheater	Kiln inlet air in-leaks	Precalciner preheater to precalciner	Precalciner preheater to precalciner	Precalciner preheater air in-leaks	Precalciner preheater exit gas	
<b>COMPONENT</b>																											
Ash	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	12.20	11.72	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Carbon	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	72.44	69.56	0.00	0.00	87.60	83.99	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Hydrogen	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	4.92	4.72	0.00	0.00	3.70	3.55	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Nitrogen	% (w/w) dry	0.00	75.47	0.00	71.86	0.00	0.00	75.47	53.64	53.64	7.90	7.59	75.47	57.95	1.70	1.63	75.47	60.44	0.00	0.00	28.66	75.47	0.00	3.22	75.47	9.67	
Oxygen	% (w/w) dry	0.00	23.20	0.00	20.00	0.00	0.00	23.20	5.79	5.79	1.58	1.52	23.20	7.92	1.50	1.44	23.20	10.09	0.00	0.00	0.96	23.20	0.00	1.21	23.20	3.32	
Sulphur	% (w/w) dry	0.33	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.97	0.93	0.00	0.00	0.00	5.50	5.27	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
Carbon dioxide	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.05	0.00	6.84	0.00	0.00	0.05	34.90	34.90	0.00	0.00	0.05	32.28	0.00	0.00	0.05	27.70	0.00	0.00	16.48	0.05	0.00	52.45	0.05	81.36	
Argon	% (w/w) dry	0.00	1.28	0.00	1.22	0.00	0.00	1.28	0.91	0.91	0.00	0.00	1.28	0.98	0.00	0.00	1.28	1.03	0.00	0.00	0.49	1.28	0.00	0.69	1.28	1.15	
Nitrogen dioxide	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.13	0.13	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.12	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.10	0.00	0.00	0.09	0.00	0.00	0.24	0.00	0.37	
Sulphur dioxide	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.05	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.82	0.82	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.76	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.65	0.00	0.00	0.32	0.00	0.00	0.18	0.00	0.29	
Raw meal	% (w/w) dry	100.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
Clinker	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
Dust	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.81	3.81	0.00	4.28	0.00	0.00	0.00	4.19	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	53.00	0.00	0.00	42.00	0.00	3.84	
<b>Total</b>	% (w/w) dry	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	
Water	% (w/w) wet	8.00	0.00	1.00	3.81	1.00	1.00	0.00	2.09	2.09	9.50	1.00	0.00	8.60	2.00	1.00	0.00	2.34	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	3.02	0.00	4.61	

### Mass compositions

STREAM NUMBER		26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51
STREAM NAME		Feed to kiln	Kiln exit	Kiln exit air in-leaks	Primary air	Secondary air	Tertiary air	Inlet air to air cooler	Exhaust air from clinker cooler	Cooled clinker	Recycled gas	Purge stream	Air to ASU	Waste gas from ASU	Oxygen from ASU	Heated oxygen to gas mixer	Recycled gas with oxygen	Heated recycled gas with oxygen	Cooled tertiary air to raw mill	Cooled purge stream	Cooled and dedusted purge stream	Water from cooler	Cooled CO2 rich waste stream	Inerts from gas clean up	Water from CO2 purification	CO2 rich stream for compression	Compressed CO2 rich stream
<b>COMPONENT</b>																											
Ash	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Carbon	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Hydrogen	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Nitrogen	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	75.47	75.47	64.75	71.23	75.47	75.47	0.00	9.67	9.67	75.47	98.82	1.74	1.74	7.95	7.95	71.23	9.67	10.06	0.00	10.08	42.09	0.00	2.54	2.54
Oxygen	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	23.20	23.20	19.90	21.90	23.20	23.20	0.00	3.32	3.32	23.20	0.61	94.53	94.53	23.10	23.10	21.90	3.32	3.45	0.01	3.46	15.95	0.02	0.51	0.51
Sulphur	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Carbon dioxide	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	0.05	0.05	0.04	0.05	0.05	0.05	0.00	81.36	81.36	0.05	0.07	0.00	0.00	63.71	63.71	0.05	81.36	84.61	1.63	84.82	35.19	4.05	96.58	96.58
Argon	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	1.28	1.28	1.10	1.21	1.28	1.28	0.00	1.15	1.15	1.21	1.28	0.51	3.73	3.73	1.71	1.71	1.21	1.15	1.20	0.00	1.20	5.18	0.00	0.27
Nitrogen dioxide	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.37	0.37	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.29	0.29	0.00	0.37	0.38	1.77	0.38	1.59	2.91	0.10	0.10
Sulphur dioxide	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.29	0.29	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.22	0.22	0.00	0.29	0.30	96.59	0.05	0.00	93.02	0.00	0.00
Raw meal	% (w/w) dry	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Clinker	% (w/w) dry	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Dust	% (w/w) dry	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	14.21	5.62	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.84	3.84	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.01	3.01	5.62	3.84	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
<b>Total</b>	% (w/w) dry	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Water	% (w/w) wet	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	4.61	4.61	0.46	0.60	0.00	0.00	3.65	3.65	0.00	4.61	4.79	93.60	1.24	0.00	96.00	0.00	0.00

### Note

Moisture content within air inleaks has been ignored  
For molar flows and heat capacities the clinker is assumed to be 100% CaO  
For molar flows and heat capacities the raw meal is assumed to be 100% limestone  
For molar flows and heat capacities the Ash is assumed to be 100% SiO<sub>2</sub>  
For molar flows and heat capacities the Coal is assumed to be carbon  
For molar flows and heat capacities the Pet Coke is assumed to be carbon  
For molar flows and heat capacities the Dust in streams 8, 9, 25, 35, 36, 41, 42 and 44 are assumed to be 100% CaCO<sub>2</sub>  
For molar flows and heat capacities the Dust in streams 20, 23, 30, 31 and 43 are assumed to be 100% CaO  
For molar flows and heat capacities the Dust in streams 11 and 15 are assumed to be 100% Coal  
The enthalpy for all liquid and gaseous components was calculated in CHEMCAD using SRK equation of state method.  
The enthalpy for all solid components was calculated in CHEMCAD using latent heat method.  
Solid components were: coal, pet coke, calcium carbonate, calcium oxide, ash

# CO<sub>2</sub> capture in the cement industry

## Oxy-combustion option

Refer to drawing no. 234996/OC/FS03

Spreadsheet designed by Duncan Barker  
 13/06/2007  
 Spreadsheet reviewed by Peter Lilley  
 12/07/2007  
 Spreadsheet checked by Simon Turner  
 13/12/2007

### Molar flowrates (dry)

STREAM NUMBER		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	
STREAM NAME		Wet raw meal	Raw mill air in-leaks	Dried raw meal	Exit gases from raw mill	Dry raw meal to kiln preheater	Dry raw meal to precalciner preheater	Kiln preheater air in-leaks	Kiln preheater exit gases	Kiln preheater exit gases to raw mill	Raw coal	Dried coal	Coal dryer air in-leaks	Exit gas from coal dryer	Raw pet coke	Dried pet coke	Pet coke dryer air in-leaks	Exit gas from pet coke dryer	Kiln preheater to precalciner	Kiln preheater to kiln	Kiln exit gas to kiln preheater	Kiln inlet air in-leaks	Precalciner preheater to precalciner	Precalciner to precalciner preheater	Precalciner preheater air in-leaks	Precalciner preheater exit gas	Feed to kiln	
COMPONENT	MW (g/mol)	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	
Ash	88.64	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.15	3.15	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Carbon	12.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	137.95	137.95	0.00	0.00	67.92	67.92	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Hydrogen (H <sub>2</sub> )	2.016	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	55.78	55.78	0.00	0.00	17.09	17.09	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Nitrogen (N <sub>2</sub> )	28.02	0.00	429.82	0.00	2704.13	0.00	0.00	40.23	464.95	393.35	6.45	6.45	8.60	59.74	0.56	0.56	8.60	29.05	0.00	0.00	338.76	85.96	0.00	0.00	76.30	71.52	147.82	0.00
Oxygen (O <sub>2</sub> )	32.00	0.00	115.70	0.00	659.16	0.00	0.00	10.83	43.92	37.16	1.13	1.13	2.31	7.15	0.44	0.44	2.31	4.25	0.00	0.00	9.96	23.14	0.00	25.14	19.25	44.39	0.00	0.00
Sulphur	32.06	5.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.69	0.69	0.00	0.00	1.60	1.60	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Carbon dioxide	44.01	0.00	0.18	0.00	163.90	0.00	0.02	192.59	162.93	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	21.19	0.00	0.00	0.00	8.48	0.00	0.00	124.00	0.04	0.00	791.62	0.03	791.65	0.00	0.00
Argon	39.94	0.00	5.11	0.00	32.18	0.00	0.00	0.48	5.53	4.68	0.00	0.00	0.10	0.71	0.00	0.00	0.10	0.35	0.00	0.00	4.03	1.02	0.00	11.53	0.85	12.38	0.00	0.00
Nitrogen dioxide	46.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.57	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.68	0.57	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.68	0.00	0.00	3.44	0.00	3.44	0.00	0.00
Sulphur dioxide	64.06	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.89	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.11	2.63	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.34	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.14	0.00	0.00	1.67	0.00	0.00	1.92	0.00	1.92	0.00	0.00
Raw meal	100.09	486.29	0.00	509.82	0.00	183.15	325.60	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	255.32	63.83	0.00	0.00	587.90	0.00	0.00	0.00	517.66	0.00
Clinker	56.08	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Dust	100.09	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	9.25	7.83	0.00	1.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.41	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	175.38	0.00	0.00	278.74	0.00	16.44	0.00	0.00
<b>Total dry molar flow</b>		491.30	550.82	509.82	3560.84	183.15	325.60	51.56	720.04	609.15	205.15	206.17	11.02	89.20	87.61	88.01	11.02	42.29	255.32	63.83	654.48	110.16	587.90	1188.68	91.66	1018.05	517.66	0.00
Water	18.016	234.92	0.00	28.61	231.98	10.28	18.27	0.00	28.77	24.34	13.33	1.34	0.00	15.09	1.05	0.54	0.00	1.79	0.00	0.00	18.50	0.00	0.00	114.91	0.00	114.91	0.00	0.00
<b>Total wet molar flow</b>		726.22	550.82	538.43	3792.82	193.43	343.87	51.56	748.81	633.49	218.48	207.51	11.02	104.29	88.66	88.56	11.02	44.08	255.32	63.83	672.97	110.16	587.90	1303.59	91.66	1132.96	517.66	0.00
<b>Molecular weight</b>	g/mol	72.85	28.97	95.73	28.90	95.73	95.73	28.97	33.13	33.13	11.57	11.59	28.97	30.31	10.72	11.08	28.97	31.29	100.09	100.09	49.71	28.97	100.09	52.54	28.97	39.63	100.09	0.00

### Molar flowrates (dry)

STREAM NUMBER		27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51		
STREAM NAME		Kiln exit	Kiln exit air in-leaks	Primary air	Secondary air	Tertiary air	Inlet air to air cooler	Exhaust air from clinker cooler	Cooled clinker	Recycled gas	Purge stream	Air to ASU	Waste gas from ASU	Oxygen from ASU	Heated oxygen to gas mixer	Recycled gas with oxygen	Heated recycled gas with oxygen	Cooled tertiary air to raw mill	Cooled purge stream	Cooled and dedusted purge stream	Water from cooler	Cooled CO <sub>2</sub> rich waste stream	Inerts from gas clean up	Water from CO <sub>2</sub> purification	CO <sub>2</sub> rich stream for compression	Compressed CO <sub>2</sub> rich stream		
COMPONENT	MW (g/mol)	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s	mol/s		
Ash	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
Carbon	12.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Hydrogen (H <sub>2</sub> )	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Nitrogen (N <sub>2</sub> )	28.02	0.00	42.98	36.21	259.56	721.18	2140.52	1159.77	0.00	72.67	75.15	653.17	649.55	3.63	3.63	76.30	76.30	721.18	75.15	75.15	0.00	75.15	59.83	0.00	15.32	15.32	0.00	
Oxygen (O <sub>2</sub> )	32.00	0.00	11.57	9.75	69.87	194.12	576.17	312.18	0.00	21.82	22.57	175.82	3.52	3.52	172.30	172.30	194.12	194.12	22.57	22.57	0.00	22.57	19.86	0.00	2.71	2.71	0.00	
Sulphur	32.06	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Carbon dioxide	44.01	0.00	0.02	0.02	0.11	0.30	0.90	0.49	0.00	389.19	402.46	0.28	0.28	0.00	0.00	389.19	389.19	0.30	402.46	402.46	0.02	402.44	31.85	0.01	370.58	370.58	0.00	
Argon	39.94	0.00	0.51	0.43	3.09	8.58	25.47	13.80	0.00	6.08	6.29	7.77	2.33	5.44	5.44	11.53	11.53	8.58	6.29	6.29	0.00	6.29	5.17	0.00	1.13	1.13	0.00	
Nitrogen dioxide	46.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.69	1.75	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.69	1.69	0.00	1.75	1.75	0.02	1.73	1.37	0.01	0.35	0.35	0.00	
Sulphur dioxide	64.06	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.94	0.97	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.94	0.94	0.00	0.97	0.97	0.00	0.81	0.16	0.00	0.16	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Raw meal	100.09	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Clinker	56.08	597.58	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	569.12	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Dust	100.09	0.00	0.00	0.00	15.94	15.94	0.00	0.00	0.00	8.08	8.36	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	8.08	8.08	15.94	8.36	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
<b>Total dry molar flow</b>		597.58	55.08	46.41	348.57	940.14	2743.06	1486.24	569.12	500.49	517.55	837.04	655.67	181.37	181.37	681.86	681.86	940.14	517.55	509.19	0.86	508.34	118.07	0.18	390.09	390.09	0.00	
Water	18.016	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	56.49	58.42	6.15	6.15	0.00	0.00	56.49	56.49	0.00	58.42	58.42	43.81	14.60	0.00	14.60	0.00	14.60	0.00	0.00
<b>Total wet molar flow</b>		597.58	55.08	46.41	348.57	940.14	2743.06	1486.24	569.12	556.98	575.97	843.19	661.82	181.37	181.37	738.35	738.35	940.14	575.97	567.61	44.67	522.94	118.07	14.78	390.09	390.09	0.00	
<b>Molecular weight</b>	g/mol	56.08	28.97	28.97	32.22	30.18	28.97	28.97	56.08	39.63	39.63	28.89	28.00	32.16	32.16	37.79	37.79	30.18	39.63	38.74	18.88	40.4						

# CO<sub>2</sub> capture in the cement industry

## Oxy-combustion option

Refer to drawing no. 234996/OC/FS03

Spreadsheet designed by Duncan Barker  
 13/06/2007  
 Spreadsheet reviewed by Peter Lilley  
 12/07/2007  
 Spreadsheet checked by Simon Turner  
 13/12/2007

### Molar compositions (dry)

STREAM NUMBER		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	
STREAM NAME		Wet raw meal	Raw mill air in-leaks	Dried raw meal	Exit gases from raw mill	Dry raw meal to kiln preheater	Dry raw meal to precalciner preheater	Kiln preheater air in-leaks	Kiln preheater exit gases	Kiln preheater exit gases to raw mill	Raw coal	Dried coal	Coal dryer air in-leaks	Exit gas from coal dryer	Raw pet coke	Dried pet coke	Pet coke dryer air in-leaks	Exit gas from pet coke dryer	Kiln preheater to precalciner	Kiln preheater to kiln	Kiln exit gas to kiln preheater	Kiln inlet air in-leaks	Precalciner preheater to precalciner	Precalciner to precalciner preheater	Precalciner preheater air in-leaks	Precalciner preheater exit gas	
<b>COMPONENT</b>																											
Ash	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.53	1.53	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Carbon	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	67.24	66.91	0.00	0.00	77.53	77.17	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Hydrogen	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	27.19	27.06	0.00	0.00	19.51	19.42	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Nitrogen	mol% (dry)	0.00	78.03	0.00	75.94	0.00	0.00	78.03	64.57	64.57	3.14	3.13	78.03	66.97	0.64	0.64	78.03	68.70	0.00	0.00	51.76	78.03	0.00	6.42	78.03	14.52	
Oxygen	mol% (dry)	0.00	21.00	0.00	18.51	0.00	0.00	21.00	6.10	6.10	0.55	0.55	21.00	8.01	0.50	0.50	21.00	10.04	0.00	0.00	1.52	21.00	0.00	2.11	21.00	4.36	
Sulphur	mol% (dry)	1.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.34	0.33	0.00	0.00	1.82	1.81	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
Carbon dioxide	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.03	0.00	4.60	0.00	0.00	0.03	26.75	26.75	0.00	0.00	0.03	23.75	0.00	0.00	0.03	20.05	0.00	0.00	18.95	0.03	0.00	66.60	0.03	77.76	
Argon	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.93	0.00	0.90	0.00	0.00	0.93	0.77	0.77	0.00	0.00	0.93	0.80	0.00	0.00	0.93	0.82	0.00	0.00	0.62	0.93	0.00	0.97	0.93	1.22	
Nitrogen dioxide	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.09	0.09	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.08	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.10	0.00	0.00	0.29	0.00	0.34	
Sulphur dioxide	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.43	0.43	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.38	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.32	0.00	0.00	0.25	0.00	0.00	0.16	0.00	0.19	
Raw meal	mol% (dry)	98.98	0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
Clinker	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
Dust	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.28	1.28	0.00	0.49	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.46	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	26.80	0.00	0.00	23.45	0.00	1.62	
<b>Total</b>	mol% (dry)	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	

### Molar compositions (dry)

STREAM NUMBER		26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51
STREAM NAME		Feed to kiln	Kiln exit	Kiln exit air in-leaks	Primary air	Secondary air	Tertiary air	Inlet air to air cooler	Exhaust air from clinker cooler	Cooled clinker	Recycled gas	Purge stream	Air to ASU	Waste gas from ASU	Oxygen from ASU	Heated oxygen to gas mixer	Recycled gas with oxygen	Heated recycled gas with oxygen	Cooled tertiary air to raw mill	Cooled purge stream	Cooled and dedusted purge stream	Water from cooler	Cooled CO2 rich waste stream	Inerts from gas clean up	Water from CO2 purification	CO2 rich stream for compression	Compressed CO2 rich stream
<b>COMPONENT</b>																											
Ash	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Carbon	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Hydrogen	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Nitrogen	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	78.03	78.03	74.46	76.71	78.03	78.03	0.00	14.52	14.52	78.03	99.07	2.00	2.00	11.19	11.19	78.71	14.52	14.76	0.00	14.78	50.67	0.00	3.93	3.93
Oxygen	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	21.00	21.00	20.04	20.65	21.00	21.00	0.00	4.36	4.36	21.00	0.54	95.00	95.00	28.47	28.47	20.65	4.36	4.43	0.02	4.44	16.82	0.04	0.69	0.69
Sulphur	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Carbon dioxide	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.00	77.76	77.76	0.03	0.04	0.00	0.00	57.08	57.08	0.03	77.76	79.04	2.34	79.17	26.97	5.73	95.00	95.00
Argon	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.93	0.93	0.89	0.91	0.93	0.93	0.00	1.22	1.22	0.93	0.36	3.00	3.00	1.69	1.69	0.91	1.22	1.24	0.00	1.24	4.38	0.00	0.29	0.29
Nitrogen dioxide	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.34	0.34	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.25	0.25	0.00	0.34	0.34	2.43	0.34	1.16	3.93	0.09	0.09
Sulphur dioxide	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.19	0.19	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.14	0.14	0.00	0.19	0.19	95.21	0.03	0.00	90.30	0.00	0.00
Raw meal	mol% (dry)	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Clinker	mol% (dry)	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Dust	mol% (dry)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	4.57	1.70	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.62	1.62	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.19	1.19	1.70	1.62	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
<b>Total</b>	mol% (dry)	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

**Note**  
 Moisture content within air in-leaks has been ignored  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the clinker is assumed to be 100% CaO  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the raw meal is assumed to be 100% limestone  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Ash is assumed to be 100% SiO<sub>2</sub>  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Coal is assumed to be carbon  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Pet Coke is assumed to be carbon  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Dust in streams 8, 9, 25, 35, 36, 41, 42 and 44 are assumed to be 100% CaCO<sub>3</sub>  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Dust in streams 20, 23, 30, 31 and 43 are assumed to be 100% CaO  
 For molar flows and heat capacities the Dust in streams 11 and 15 are assumed to be 100% Coal  
 The enthalpy for all liquid and gaseous components was calculated in CHEMCAD using SRK equation of state method.  
 The enthalpy for all solid components was calculated in CHEMCAD using latent heat method.  
 Solid components were: coal, pet coke, calcium carbonate, calcium oxide, ash

**Appendix F Economic Analysis Spreadsheets**





<b>Production</b>		<b>Capital Cost</b>	<b>Million €</b>	<b>Operating Costs at load factor</b>	<b>90%</b>	<b>Economic parameters</b>		<b>Results summary</b>	
Cement	1.0 Mt	Installed costs	491.6	Fuel	21.6	Discount rate	10%	Cement production cost	129.4 €/t
Power generation	356,400 MWh/y	Average contingencies	6.5% 31.8	Power	0.0	Base year	2008	Emission avoidance cost	118.1 €/t CO <sub>2</sub>
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	188,424 t/y	Owners costs	7.0% 34.4	Limestone	3.8	Coal price	65.00 €/t	Excluding Power	
		Total capital cost	557.8	Other raw materials	6.0	Pet coke price	80.00 €/t	Emission avoidance cost	107.4 €/t CO <sub>2</sub>
				Water	0.04	Power Purchase Price	50.00 €/MWh	Including Power	
<b>Consumption @ 90% load factor</b>		<b>Decommissioning cost</b>	<b>0</b>	Cooling water	0.1	Power Sale Price	50.00 €/MWh	CO <sub>2</sub> emissions avoided, including power	77%
Coal	291,633 t/y			Consumables	0.7	Water price	0.10 €/t		
Pet Coke	32,876 t/y	<b>Stocks</b>		Total Variable Costs	32.2	Cooling water price	0.02 €/t		
Power	333,665 MWh/y	Fuel	15 days	Fixed costs		CO <sub>2</sub> emissions for external power	0.52 tCO <sub>2</sub> /MWh		
Water	0.390 Mt/y	Limestone	7 days	Maintenance	16.8				
Cooling Water	4.4 Mt/y	Other raw materials	15 days	Labour	6.7				
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions including power	0.177 t/t	<b>Working Capital</b>		Administration, rates & insurance	11.8				
		Fuel	0.9	Total fixed	35.4				
<b>Reference plant data</b>		Limestone	0.1	Total Operating Costs	67.6				
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	0.728 t/t	Other raw materials	0.2						
Cement production cost	65.6 €/t	Total working capital	1.2						
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions including power	0.770 t/t								

CASH FLOW ANALYSIS  
Million \$

Year	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036			
	000	00	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26			
<b>Load Factor</b>				60%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%			
<b>Equivalent yearly hours</b>				5256	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884			
<b>Expenditure Factor</b>	0%	20%	45%	35%																												
<b>Cement Production</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.0		
<b>Revenues</b>																																
Power generation	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.0		
<b>Operating Costs</b>																																
Fuel	0.0	0.0	0.0	14.4	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6	0.0	
Power	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
Limestone	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	0.0
Other raw materials	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	0.0	
Water	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
Cooling water	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	
Consumables	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.0	
Maintenance	0.0	0.0	0.0	11.2	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	16.8	0.0	
Labour	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.5	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	0.0	
Administration, rates & insurance	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.9	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	0.0	
<b>Fixed Capital Expenditures</b>	0.0	111.6	251.0	195.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
<b>Working Capital</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
<b>Decommissioning Cost</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
<b>Total Cash Flow (yearly)</b>	0.0	111.6	251.0	240.7	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	66.5	0.0		
<b>Total Cash Flow (cumulated)</b>	0.0	111.6	362.6	603.3	669.8	736.2	802.7	869.2	935.6	1002.1	1068.6	1135.0	1201.5	1267.9	1334.4	1400.9	1467.3	1533.8	1600.3	1666.7	1733.2	1799.7	1866.1	1932.6	1999.0	2065.5	2132.0	2198.4	2198.4	0.0		

Production		Capital Cost		Operating Costs at load factor		Economic parameters		Results summary	
Cement	1.0 Mt	Installed costs	290.0	Fuel	6.9	Discount rate	10%	Cement production cost	81.6 €/t
Power generation	5,548.0 MWh/y	Average contingencies	5.8% 16.7	Power	8.7	Base year	2008 %	Emission avoidance cost	35.8 €/t CO <sub>2</sub>
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	282,853 t/y	Owners costs	7.0% 20.3	Limestone	3.8	Coal price	65.00 €/t	Excluding Power	40.2 €/t CO <sub>2</sub>
<b>Consumption @ 90% load factor</b>		Total capital cost	327.0	Other raw materials	1.6	Pet coke price	80.00 €/t	Emission avoidance cost	
Coal	72,061 t/y	<b>Decommissioning cost</b>		Sea Water	0.3	Power Purchase Price	50.00 €/MWh	Including Power	
Pet Coke	27,091 t/y	0		Cooling water	0.04	Power Sale Price	50.00 €/MWh	CO <sub>2</sub> emissions avoided, including power	52%
Power	180,109 MWh/y	<b>Stocks</b>		Consumables	0.7	Water price	0.10 €/t		
Water	11.30 Mt/y	Fuel	15 days	Total Variable Costs	21.9	Cooling water price	0.02 €/t		
Cooling Water	1.7 Mt/y	Limestone	7 days	Fixed costs		CO <sub>2</sub> emissions for external power	0.52 tCO <sub>2</sub> /MWh		
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	0.283 t/t	Other raw materials	15 days	Maintenance	10.7				
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions including power	0.374 t/t	<b>Working Capital</b>		Labour	4.8				
		Fuel	0.3	Administration, rates & insurance	7.2				
<b>Reference plant data</b>		Limestone	0.1	Total fixed	22.8				
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	0.728 t/t	Other raw materials	0.1	Total Operating Costs	44.7				
Cement production cost	65.6 €/t	Total working capital	0.4						
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions including power	0.770 t/t								

CASH FLOW ANALYSIS  
Million \$

Year	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036	
<b>Load Factor</b>				60%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	
<b>Equivalent yearly hours</b>				5256	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884
<b>Expenditure Factor</b>	0%	20%	45%	35%																										
<b>Cement Production</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
<b>Revenues</b>																														
Power generation	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Operating Costs</b>																														
Fuel	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.6	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9	6.9
Power	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.8	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7	8.7
Limestone	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8
Other raw materials	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6
Water	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Cooling water	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Consumables	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Maintenance	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.2	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7
Labour	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.2	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8
Administration, rates & insurance	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.8	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	
<b>Fixed Capital Expenditures</b>	0.0	65.4	147.2	114.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Working Capital</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Decommissioning Cost</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Total Cash Flow (yearly)</b>	0.0	65.4	147.2	144.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7	44.7
<b>Total Cash Flow (cumulated)</b>	0.0	65.4	212.6	357.2	402.0	446.7	491.4	536.1	580.9	625.6	670.3	715.0	759.8	804.5	849.2	893.9	938.7	983.4	1028.1	1072.9	1117.6	1162.3	1207.0	1251.8	1296.5	1341.2	1385.9	1430.7	1430.7	1430.7







<b>Production</b>		<b>Capital Cost</b>	<b>Million €</b>	<b>Operating Costs at load factor</b>	<b>90%</b>	<b>Economic parameters</b>		<b>Results summary</b>	
Cement	1.0 Mt	Installed costs	295.0	Fuel	Million €/year	Discount rate	10% %	Cement production cost	97.3 €/t
Power generation	0 MWh/y	Average contingencies	6.5% 19.1	Power	6.7	Base year	2008	Emission avoidance cost	51.2 €/t CO <sub>2</sub>
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	109,263 t/y	Owners costs	7.0% 20.6	Steam	8.3	Coal price	65.00 €/t	Excluding Power	
		Total capital cost	334.7	Limestone	11	Pet coke price	80.00 €/t	Emission avoidance cost	55.2 €/t CO <sub>2</sub>
<b>Consumption @ 90% load factor</b>		<b>Decommissioning cost</b>	0	Other raw materials	6.0	Power Purchase Price	50.00 €/MWh	Including Power	
Coal	63,317 t/y	<b>Stocks</b>		Water	0.02	Power Sale Price	50.00 €/MWh	CO <sub>2</sub> emissions avoided, including power	75%
Pet Coke	32,876 t/y	Fuel	15 days	Cooling water	0.1	Water price	0.10 €/t		
Power	166,833 MWh/y	Limestone	7 days	Consumables	0.7	Cooling water price	0.02 €/t		
Water	0.240 Mt/y	Other raw materials	15 days	Total Variable Costs	36.7	Steam price	10 €/t		
Cooling Water	2.6 Mt/y	<b>Working Capital</b>		Fixed costs		CO <sub>2</sub> emissions for external power	0.52 t/t cement		
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	0.109 t/t	Fuel	0.3	Maintenance	11.8				
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions including power	0.196 t/t	Limestone	0.1	Labour	4.0				
		Other raw materials	0.2	Administration, rates & insurance	7.1				
<b>Reference plant data</b>		Total working capital	0.6	Total fixed	22.9				
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	0.728 t/t			Total Operating Costs	59.6				
Cement production cost	65.6 €/t								
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions including power	0.770 t/t								

CASH FLOW ANALYSIS		Million \$																														
Year	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036			
	000	00	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26			
<b>Load Factor</b>				60%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%			
<b>Equivalent yearly hours</b>				5256	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884		
<b>Expenditure Factor</b>	0%	20%	45%	35%																												
<b>Cement Production Revenues</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.0		
<b>Power generation</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
<b>Operating Costs</b>																																
Fuel	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.5	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	0.0	
Power	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.6	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.3	0.0
Steam	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.3	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	0.0
Limestone	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	3.7	0.0
Other raw materials	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	0.0
Water	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Cooling water	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0
Consumables	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.0
Maintenance	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.9	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	11.8	0.0
Labour	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.7	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	0.0
Administration, rates & insurance	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.7	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	0.0
<b>Fixed Capital Expenditures</b>	0.0	66.9	150.6	117.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Working Capital</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Decommissioning Cost</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Total Cash Flow (yearly)</b>	0.0	66.9	150.6	157.5	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	59.6	0.0	
<b>Total Cash Flow (cumulated)</b>	0.0	66.9	217.5	375.0	434.6	494.2	553.8	613.3	672.9	732.5	792.1	851.7	911.3	970.9	1030.5	1090.0	1149.6	1209.2	1268.8	1328.4	1388.0	1447.6	1507.1	1566.7	1626.3	1685.9	1745.5	1805.1	1864.7	1805.1	0.0	





<b>Production</b>		<b>Capital Cost</b>	<b>Million €</b>	<b>Operating Costs at load factor</b>	<b>90%</b>	<b>Economic parameters</b>		<b>Results summary</b>	
Cement	1.0 Mt	Installed costs	442.4	Fuel	Million €/year	Discount rate	10%	Cement production cost	121.6 €/t
Power generation	267,300 MWh/y	Average contingencies	6.5% 28.6	Power	17.9	Base year	2008	Emission avoidance cost	105.0 €/t CO <sub>2</sub>
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	195,341 t/y	Owners costs	7.0% 31.0	Limestone	3.8	Coal price	65.00 €/t	Excluding Power	
		Total capital cost	502.0	Other raw materials	6.0	Pet coke price	80.00 €/t	Emission avoidance cost	95.9 €/t CO <sub>2</sub>
<b>Consumption @ 90% load factor</b>		<b>Decommissioning cost</b>	0	Water	0.04	Power Purchase Price	50.00 €/MWh	Including Power	
Coal	234,554 t/y			Cooling water	0.1	Power Sale Price	50.00 €/MWh	CO <sub>2</sub> emissions avoided, including power	76%
Pet Coke	32,786 t/y	<b>Stocks</b>		Consumables	0.7	Water price	0.10 €/t		
Power	250,929 MWh/y	Fuel	15 days	Total Variable Costs	28.5	Cooling water price	0.02 €/t		
Water	0.390 Mt/y	Limestone	7 days			CO <sub>2</sub> emissions for external power	0.52 tCO <sub>2</sub> /MWh		
Cooling Water	4.5 Mt/y	Other raw materials	15 days	<b>Fixed costs</b>					
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions including power	0.187 t/t	<b>Working Capital</b>		Maintenance	17.7				
		Fuel	0.7	Labour	7.1				
<b>Reference plant data</b>		Limestone	0.1	Administration, rates & insurance	12.5				
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	0.728 t/t	Other raw materials	0.2	Total fixed	37.2				
Cement production cost	65.6 €/t	Total working capital	1.1	Total Operating Costs	65.8				
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions including power	0.770 t/t								

CASH FLOW ANALYSIS

Million \$

Year	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036		
	000	00	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26		
<b>Load Factor</b>				60%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%		
<b>Equivalent yearly hours</b>				5256	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884		
<b>Expenditure Factor</b>	0%	20%	45%	35%																											
<b>Cement Production</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0		
<b>Revenues</b>																															
Power generation	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.0	
<b>Operating Costs</b>																															
Fuel	0.0	0.0	0.0	11.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.9	0.0	
Power	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
Limestone	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	0.0
Other raw materials	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	0.0
Water	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Cooling water	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0
Consumables	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.0
Maintenance	0.0	0.0	0.0	11.8	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	0.0
Labour	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.7	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.1	0.0
Administration, rates & insurance	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.3	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	0.0
<b>Fixed Capital Expenditures</b>	0.0	100.4	225.9	175.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Working Capital</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Decommissioning Cost</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Total Cash Flow (yearly)</b>	0.0	100.4	225.9	220.1	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	65.0	0.0	
<b>Total Cash Flow (cumulated)</b>	0.0	100.4	326.3	546.4	611.3	676.3	741.2	806.2	871.2	936.1	1001.1	1066.0	1131.0	1195.9	1260.9	1325.9	1390.8	1455.8	1520.7	1585.7	1650.6	1715.6	1780.5	1845.5	1910.5	1975.4	2040.4	2105.3	2105.3	0.0	

<b>Production</b>		<b>Capital Cost</b>	<b>Million €</b>	<b>Operating Costs at load factor</b>	<b>90%</b>	<b>Economic parameters</b>		<b>Results summary</b>	
Cement	3.0 Mt/y	Installed costs	272.8	Fuel	Million €/year	Discount rate	10% %	Cement production cost	37.274 €/t
Power generation	0.0 MWh/y	Average contingencies	5.0% 13.7	Power	20.2	Base year	2008 %		
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	2,185,266 t/y	Owners costs	7.0% 19.1	Limestone	11.2	Coal price	65.00 €/t		
		Total capital cost	305.6	Other raw materials	4.7	Pet coke price	80.00 €/t		
<b>Consumption @ 90% load factor</b>		<b>Decommissioning cost</b>	0	Water	0.07	Power Purchase Price	50.00 €/MWh		
Coal	189,951 t/y	<b>Stocks</b>		Cooling water	0.0	Power Sale Price	50.00 €/MWh		
Pet Coke	98,628 t/y	Fuel	15 days	Consumables	2.2	Water price	0.10 €/t		
Power	242,427 MWh/y	Limestone	7 days	Total Variable Costs	50.5	Cooling water price	0.02 €/t		
Water	0.7 Mt/y	Other raw materials	15 days	Fixed costs					
Cooling water	0.0 Mt/y	<b>Working Capital</b>		Maintenance	12.2				
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	0.728 t/t	Fuel	0.8	Labour	5.8				
<b>CO<sub>2</sub> emissions</b>		Limestone	0.2	Administration, rates & insurance	8.8				
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions - power generation	0.520 kg/kWh	Other raw materials	0.2	Total fixed	26.8				
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions including power	0.770 t/t	Total working capital	1.2	Total Operating Costs	77.3				

CASH FLOW ANALYSIS		Million \$																													
Year	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036		
	000	00	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26		
<b>Load Factor</b>				60%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%		
<b>Equivalent yearly hours</b>				5256	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884		
<b>Expenditure Factor</b>		0%	20%	45%	35%																										
<b>Cement Production Revenues</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	0.0	
<b>Operating Costs</b>																															
Fuel	0.0	0.0	0.0	13.5	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	20.2	0.0
Power	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	0.0
Limestone	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.5	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	11.2	0.0
Other raw materials	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.1	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	4.7	0.0
Water	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0
Cooling water	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Consumables	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.4	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	0.0
Maintenance	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.1	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	0.0
Labour	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	5.8	0.0
Administration, rates & insurance	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.9	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	8.8	0.0
<b>Fixed Capital Expenditures</b>	0.0	61.1	137.5	107.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
<b>Working Capital</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
<b>Decommissioning Cost</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
<b>Total Cash Flow (yearly)</b>	0.0	61.1	137.5	159.7	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	77.3	0.0	
<b>Total Cash Flow (cumulated)</b>	0.0	61.1	198.7	358.4	435.7	512.9	590.2	667.5	744.7	822.0	899.3	976.6	1053.8	1131.1	1208.4	1285.6	1362.9	1440.2	1517.4	1594.7	1672.0	1749.3	1826.5	1903.8	1981.1	2058.3	2135.6	2212.9	2212.9		

<b>Production</b>		<b>Capital Cost</b>	<b>Million €</b>	<b>Operating Costs at load factor</b>	<b>90%</b>	<b>Economic parameters</b>		<b>Results summary</b>	
Cement	3.0 Mt	Installed costs	570.2	Fuel	Million €/year	Discount rate	10%	Cement production cost	72.2 €/t
Power generation	1,069,200 MWh/y	Average contingencies	6.5% 36.9	Power	64.8	Base year	2008	Emission avoidance cost	64.6 €/t CO <sub>2</sub>
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	565,272 t/y	Owners costs	7.0% 39.9	Limestone	11.3	Coal price	65.00 €/t	Excluding Power	
		Total capital cost	647.0	Other raw materials	18.1	Pet coke price	80.00 €/t	Emission avoidance cost	58.8 €/t CO <sub>2</sub>
				Water	0.12	Power Purchase Price	50.00 €/MWh	Including Power	
<b>Consumption @ 90% load factor</b>		<b>Decommissioning cost</b>	<b>0</b>	Cooling water	0.3	Power Sale Price	50.00 €/MWh	CO <sub>2</sub> emissions avoided, including power	77%
Coal	874,899 t/y			Consumables	2.2	Water price	0.10 €/t		
Pet Coke	98,628 t/y	<b>Stocks</b>		Total Variable Costs	96.7	Cooling water price	0.02 €/t		
Power	1,000,995 MWh/y	Fuel	15 days	Fixed costs		CO <sub>2</sub> emissions for external power	0.52 tCO <sub>2</sub> /MWh		
Water	1.2 Mt/y	Limestone	7 days	Maintenance	22.1				
Cooling Water	13.1 Mt/y	Other raw materials	15 days	Labour	10.1				
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	0.188 t/t			Administration, rates & insurance	17.7				
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions including power	0.177 t/t	<b>Working Capital</b>		Total fixed	49.9				
		Fuel	2.7	Total Operating Costs	146.7				
<b>Reference plant data</b>		Limestone	0.2						
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions	0.728 t/t	Other raw materials	0.7						
Cement production cost	37.3 €/t	Total working capital	3.6						
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions including power	0.770 t/t								

CASH FLOW ANALYSIS  
Million \$

Year	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036	
	000	00	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	
<b>Load Factor</b>				60%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	
<b>Equivalent yearly hours</b>				5256	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	
<b>Expenditure Factor</b>	0%	20%	45%	35%																										
<b>Cement Production</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	0.0
<b>Revenues</b>																														
Power generation	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.3	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.4	0.0
<b>Operating Costs</b>																														
Fuel	0.0	0.0	0.0	43.2	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8	64.8
Power	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Limestone	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.6	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3
Other raw materials	0.0	0.0	0.0	12.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1	18.1
Water	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Cooling water	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Consumables	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.4	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2
Maintenance	0.0	0.0	0.0	14.7	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1	22.1
Labour	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.7	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1
Administration, rates & insurance	0.0	0.0	0.0	11.8	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7	17.7
<b>Fixed Capital Expenditures</b>	0.0	129.4	291.1	226.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Working Capital</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Decommissioning Cost</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Total Cash Flow (yearly)</b>	0.0	129.4	291.1	325.6	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	143.3	0.0
<b>Total Cash Flow (cumulated)</b>	0.0	129.4	420.5	746.1	889.4	1032.7	1176.0	1319.2	1462.5	1605.8	1749.1	1892.3	2035.6	2178.9	2322.2	2465.4	2608.7	2752.0	2895.3	3038.5	3181.8	3325.1	3468.4	3611.6	3754.9	3898.2	4041.5	4184.7	4184.7	

Production	Capital Cost	Operating Costs at load factor	Economic parameters	Results summary
Cement 3.0 Mt	Installed costs 336.4	Fuel 20.6	Discount rate 10% %	Cement production cost 46.4 €/t
Power generation 16,644 MWh/y	Average contingencies 5.8% 19.4	Power 26.2	Base year 2008 %	Emission avoidance cost 20.4 €/t CO <sub>2</sub>
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions 848,559 t/y	Owners costs 7.0% 23.5	Limestone 11.3	Coal price 65.00 €/t	Excluding Power 22.9 €/t CO <sub>2</sub>
<b>Consumption @ 90% load factor</b>	Total capital cost 379.3	Other raw materials 4.8	Pet coke price 80.00 €/t	Including Power 52%
Coal 216,183 t/y	<b>Decommissioning cost</b> 0	Sea Water 0.7	Power Purchase Price 50.00 €/MWh	
Pet Coke 81,273 t/y	<b>Stocks</b>	Cooling water 0.11	Power Sale Price 50.00 €/MWh	
Power 540,327 MWh/y	Fuel 15 days	Consumables 2.2	Sea Water price 0.02 €/t	
Water 33.9 Mt/y	Limestone 7 days	Total Variable Costs 65.8	Cooling water price 0.02 €/t	
Cooling Water 5.1 Mt/y	Other raw materials 15 days	Fixed costs	CO <sub>2</sub> emissions for external power 0.52 tCO <sub>2</sub> /MWh	
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions 0.283 t/t	<b>Working Capital</b>	Maintenance 12.5		
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions including power 0.374 t/t	Fuel 0.8	Labour 7.2		
<b>Reference plant data</b>	Limestone 0.2	Administration, rates & insurance 10.9		
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions 0.728 t/t	Other raw materials 0.2	Total fixed 30.5		
Cement production cost 37.3 €/t	Total working capital 1.3	Total Operating Costs 96.3		
CO <sub>2</sub> emissions including power 0.770 t/t				

CASH FLOW ANALYSIS  
Million \$

Year	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023	2024	2025	2026	2027	2028	2029	2030	2031	2032	2033	2034	2035	2036	
<b>Load Factor</b>				60%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	90%	
<b>Equivalent yearly hours</b>				5256	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884	7884
<b>Expenditure Factor</b>		0%	20%	45%	35%																									
<b>Cement Production</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
<b>Revenues</b>																														
Power generation	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Operating Costs</b>																														
Fuel	0.0	0.0	0.0	13.7	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6	20.6
Power	0.0	0.0	0.0	17.5	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2	26.2
Limestone	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.5	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3	11.3
Other raw materials	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.2	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8	4.8
Water	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Cooling water	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Consumables	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.4	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2
Maintenance	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.3	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5
Labour	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.8	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.2
Administration, rates & insurance	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.2	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9	10.9
<b>Fixed Capital Expenditures</b>	0.0	75.9	170.7	132.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Working Capital</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Decommissioning Cost</b>	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
<b>Total Cash Flow (yearly)</b>	0.0	75.9	170.7	198.2	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3	96.3
<b>Total Cash Flow (cumulated)</b>	0.0	75.9	246.5	444.7	541.0	637.3	733.6	829.9	926.2	1022.4	1118.7	1215.0	1311.3	1407.6	1503.9	1600.1	1696.4	1792.7	1889.0	1985.3	2081.6	2177.8	2274.1	2370.4	2466.7	2563.0	2659.3	2755.5	2755.5	2755.5

## Appendix G Note on Emission Factors

Emission factors throughout the assessment have been sourced using published reference sources and are noted within the text. It should be remembered that all emission factors are subject to a degree of uncertainty and therefore the calculations derived should be considered as approximations. Emission factors for energy use, for example, are subject to the exact operating regimes and fuel type, while transport emissions vary between vehicle type, and usage patterns such as the vehicle speed.

In order to determine the emission factor for average grid electrical consumption (and to estimate avoided emissions), emission factors supplied by Defra were used in combination with the energy statistics presented in the Digest of UK Energy Statistics (DUKES) to derive an average grid emission factors. This was done by calculating the sum of the emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> from each type of power generation (coal, natural gas, oil etc.) divided by the total electricity supplied to the grid (net). In this way the individual efficiencies of each type of power generation are also accounted for. The overall emission factor for the grid was calculated as 520 kg/MWh supplied to the grid. The derivation of this emission factor is presented in Table G-1.

**Table G-1: Derivation of Grid Emission Factor (2006 Base Data)**

Generation Method	Coal	Oil	Gas	Nuclear	Renewable	Other	Total
Fuel Consumed GWh	378805	15075	328515	213661	38896	20865	
Emission Factor (t/GWh)	320	270	190	0	0	320	
kTonnes CO <sub>2</sub> emitted	121,218	4,070	62,418	0	0	6,677	194,383
Total electricity supplied to the grid (2006)				=	376793 GWh		
Tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> /GWh = 194,383,000 tonnes CO <sub>2</sub> / 376793 GWh				=	<u>520 kg/MWh</u>		