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## ALTERNATIVE PROCESS SCHEMES FOR COAL CONVERSION

PROGRESS REPORT NO. 1  
OCTOBER 1, 1978 - JANUARY 31, 1979

February 1979

PROCESS SCIENCES DIVISION  
DEPARTMENT OF ENERGY AND ENVIRONMENT

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TID-4500)

# ALTERNATIVE PROCESS SCHEMES FOR COAL CONVERSION

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OCTOBER 1, 1978 - JANUARY 31, 1979

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February 1979

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## Summary

On the basis of simple, first approximation calculations, it has been shown that catalytic gasification and hydrogasification are inherently superior to conventional gasification with respect to carbon utilization and thermal efficiency. However, most processes which are directed toward the production of substitute natural gas (SNG) by direct combination of coal with steam at low temperatures (catalytic processes) or with hydrogen (hydrogasification) will require a step for separation of product SNG from a recycle stream. The success or failure of the process could well depend upon the economics of this separation scheme.

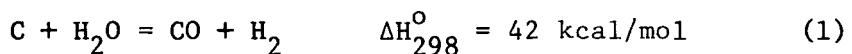
The energetics for the separation of mixtures of ideal gases has been considered in some detail. Minimum energies for complete separation of representative effluent mixtures have been calculated as well as energies for separation into product and recycle streams. The gas mixtures include binary systems of  $H_2$  and  $CH_4$  and ternary mixtures of  $H_2$ ,  $CH_4$ , and CO.

A brief summary of a number of different real separation schemes has also been included. We have arbitrarily divided these into five categories: liquefaction, absorption, adsorption, chemical, and diffusional methods. These separation methods will be screened and the more promising methods examined in more detail in later reports. Finally, a brief mention of alternative coal conversion processes concludes this report.

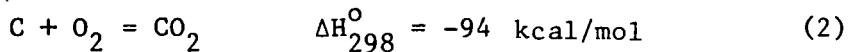
## Introduction

The purpose of this program is to suggest improvements to existing and developing gasification processes and to identify and initiate studies on potentially attractive new gasification concepts.

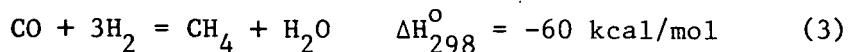
A central step in the conversion of coal to gaseous and/or liquid hydrocarbon products is the gasification reaction wherein coal is contacted with steam in a fixed, fluid, or entrained bed reactor generating a mixture of CO and H<sub>2</sub> called water gas.



The heat required to drive the above reaction is either supplied via an external source or by combustion of some of the coal in the gasifier by supplying air or oxygen to the reactor.

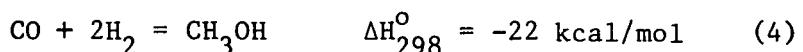


If air is used, the resulting gas has a low Btu (100 to 250 Btu/scf) rating due to the high nitrogen content. Use of oxygen results in a medium Btu gas (250 to 500 Btu/scf). The low or medium Btu synthesis gas thus produced can be subsequently converted to methane (after adjusting the CO/H<sub>2</sub> ratio via the water gas shift reaction) according to

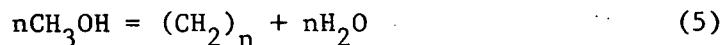


The resulting high Btu gas (1000 Btu/scf) is designated SNG (substitute natural gas) and can be economically transported by pipeline..

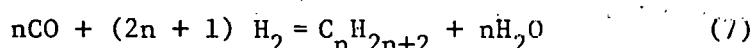
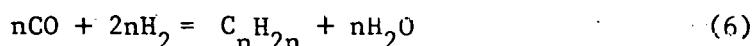
Alternatively, the synthesis gas can be converted to methanol via the catalytic reaction



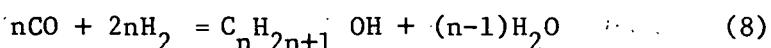
This reaction utilizes hydrogen most efficiently since there is no water produced. The Mobil process can convert this methanol to gasoline by means of a dehydration reaction over a zeolite catalyst.



The conversion of synthesis gas to liquid hydrocarbon products (indirect liquefaction) via the Fisher-Tropsch reaction

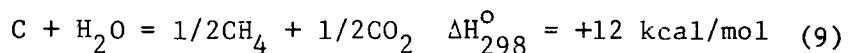


and to oxygenated compounds



has been practiced on a commercial scale at Sasolburg, South Africa for many years. A disadvantage of this reaction is that the resulting process is non-specific and produces a variety of hydrocarbon and oxygenated products.

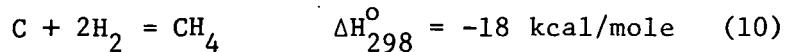
The reaction of coal and steam to methane and  $\text{CO}_2$  competes with (1).



This reaction is practically thermally neutral between steam and coal at reactor conditions and highly desirable since it yields SNG in combination with an easily removed byproduct. However, gasification rates are low in the temperature range ( $650^{\circ}$  to  $750^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) where appreciable concentrations of methane are thermodynamically stable with respect to CO and  $\text{H}_2$  formation. Thus, the introduction of a catalyst to achieve the requisite rates at low gasification temperatures is required. The Exxon catalytic process uses an alkali metal carbonate catalyst and

a cryogenic separation of methane from the CO and H<sub>2</sub> which are recycled to the gasifier.

Coal can also be gasified directly with hydrogen (hydrogasification) at 800° to 900°C and 1500 to 2500 psi.



The products of direct reaction with hydrogen range from primarily liquid to primarily gaseous depending on operating conditions.

Thus, depending on the type of gasifier and the reaction conditions, the gasifier stream contains most of the following components in various proportions: CO, H<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O, H<sub>2</sub>S, NH<sub>3</sub>, COS, N<sub>2</sub>. Separation of the various species as well as environmental control problems are important factors in the selection and design of acceptable processes.

Essentially the purpose of the coal conversion process is to upgrade the H/C ratio from approximately 0.8 to over 1 and as high as 4 for the production of SNG. The hydrogen deficiency is made up by the reduction of water with carbon in the gasifier. Thermal efficiencies can be improved by low temperature gasification and by direct hydrogenation.

#### Hydropyrolysis of Coal

The direct reaction of coal with hydrogen in the gas phase is called hydropyrolysis. Depending upon the reaction conditions and reactor configuration, a slate of hydrocarbon products ranging from primarily liquid to primarily gaseous can be obtained. There are currently a number of processes under development. Three are briefly outlined in the following paragraphs.

Hydrane<sup>(1)</sup> - US Bureau of Mines, Pittsburgh Energy Technology Center

Crushed coal is fed into a two zone hydrogenator operated at 900°C and 1000 psi. The coal falls through the top zone where about 20% of the carbon is converted to methane leaving a char which drops into the second zone where further reaction with hydrogen converts another 35% of the carbon values to CH<sub>4</sub>. The residual char is gasified to provide the hydrogen needed for the process. The off-gases are passed through a methanator where the 2 to 5% CO is converted to methane. No gas separation is required for this process. A flowsheet is shown in Figure 1.

Flash Hydropyrolysis (FHP)<sup>(2)</sup> - Brookhaven National Laboratory

Pulverized coal is contacted with heated hydrogen at elevated pressures in a down-flow entrained bed tubular reactor. Temperatures range from 700° to 900°C with pressures of 1500 to 4000 psi H<sub>2</sub>. The coal is rapidly heated causing rapid devolatilization and thermally induced depolymerization. The free radical ends generated readily add hydrogen forming aromatic hydrocarbons (benzene, toluene, xylene-BTX). Rapid quenching at this point prevents further reaction leading ultimately to formation of gaseous products, principally CH<sub>4</sub>. The coal residence time ranges from 1 to 10 seconds. By operating at 750°C and 2000 psi, up to 20% of the carbon in lignite fed forms benzene and aromatic liquid and about 40% forms methane and ethane. By raising the temperature to 875°C and 2500 psi, no liquid forms and up to 90% of carbon fed is converted to methane for SNG. The process will require separation of recycle H<sub>2</sub> from the product methane.

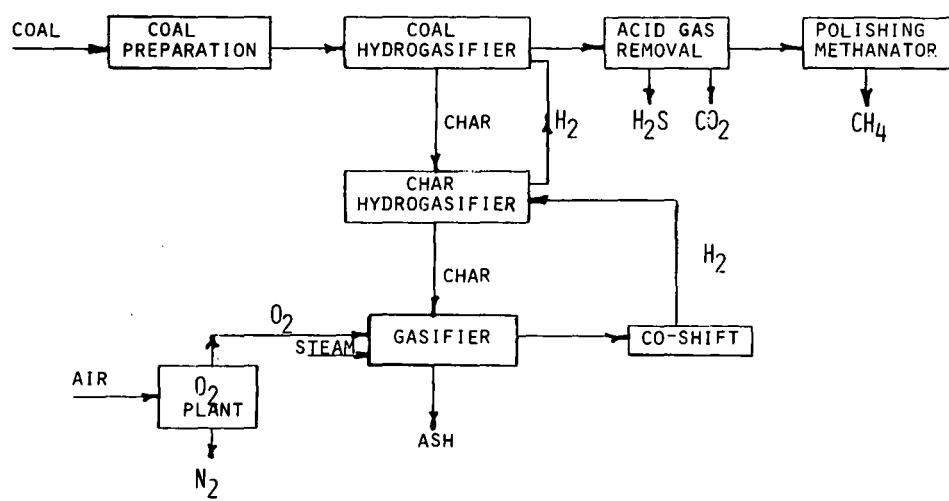


Figure 1. Hydrane process.

Flash Hydropyrolysis<sup>(3)</sup> - Rocketdyne Division, Rockwell International

This process is based on the same principles as the BNL system.

The reactor utilizes rocket engine techniques to achieve rapid mixing of coal and hydrogen and controlled short residence times (30 to 700 msec).

Liquids are formed initially but these react to form gases if not quenched.

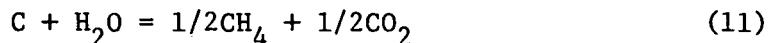
Dense phase transport of coal is used to minimize the gas requirement for feeding and heating the coal.

Catalytic Gasification (Exxon)<sup>(4)</sup>

The kinetics of coal gasification are acceptable at temperatures of 950°C and higher. At this temperature, 50 atm pressure and H<sub>2</sub>O = 2, the equilibrium gas composition is about 12% H<sub>2</sub>O, 8% CO<sub>2</sub>, 8% CH<sub>4</sub>, 36% H<sub>2</sub>, and 36% CO. The reaction is also highly endothermic requiring large amounts of heat. Lower temperature favors the formation of methane.

At lower temperatures, the lowered reaction rate must be catalyzed. The Exxon process utilizes the well-known ability of alkali metal salts to catalyze the gasification reaction. At 700°C, 50 atms, and H<sub>2</sub>O = 2, the equilibrium gas composition is shifted to higher methane: 37% H<sub>2</sub>O, 24% CO<sub>2</sub>, 19% CH<sub>4</sub>, 15% H<sub>2</sub>, and 5% CO. The use of the alkali metal catalysts also prevents swelling and agglomeration in caking coals and it is claimed that the methanation equilibrium is promoted. The equilibrium amount of methane in the gasifier effluent is further enhanced because of the high H<sub>2</sub> content in the gasifier recycle stream (see below). The gasifier effluent is cooled and scrubbed to knock out water and remove ammonia followed by acid gas removal. The stream, now consisting of about 45% H<sub>2</sub>, 42% CH<sub>4</sub>, and 13% CO, is cryogenically separated to a pure methane fraction (~ 34%) and a recycle stream (~ 66%) of composition 70% H<sub>2</sub>, 19% CO, and

11%  $\text{CH}_4$ . The overall reaction for the process is



which as mentioned is almost thermally neutral under reaction conditions.

#### Thermal Efficiency and Coal Utilization for Gasification Processes

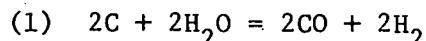
For purposes of indicating overall efficiency, a basic thermodynamic and carbon mass balance analysis of four major methods for converting coal to pipeline gas ( $\text{CH}_4$ ) has been made and is summarized below.

For direct comparison, the systems have been idealized by assuming no material or thermal losses.

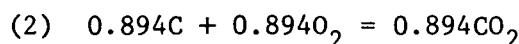
##### 1. Coal Gasification Reference Process

The standard procedure for making SNG consists of the following four basic steps: (1) water gas reaction, (2) carbon oxidation (to supply heat for step(1) which is endothermic), (3) water gas shift, and (4) methanation. A schematic flowsheet for the process is shown in Figure 2. The standard heat of reaction for each of the reactions (higher heating values are used) and carbon and thermal efficiencies are given below.

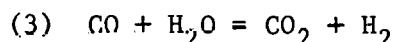
$\Delta H^\circ_{298}$  (kcal/mole)



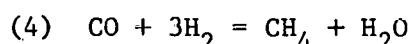
0	-136	-52	0	+84
---	------	-----	---	-----



0	0	(0.894)(-94)	-84
---	---	--------------	-----



-26	-68	-94	0	0
-----	-----	-----	---	---



-26	0	-18	-68	-60
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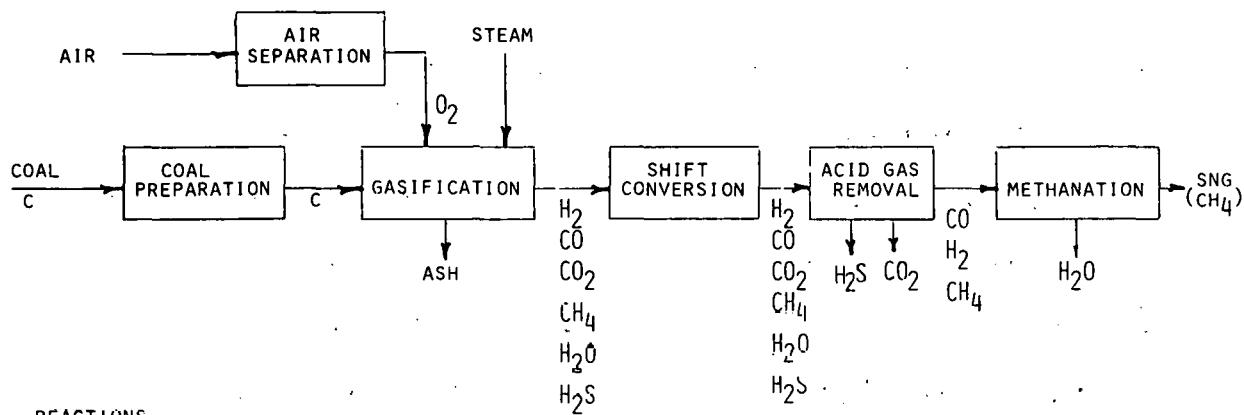
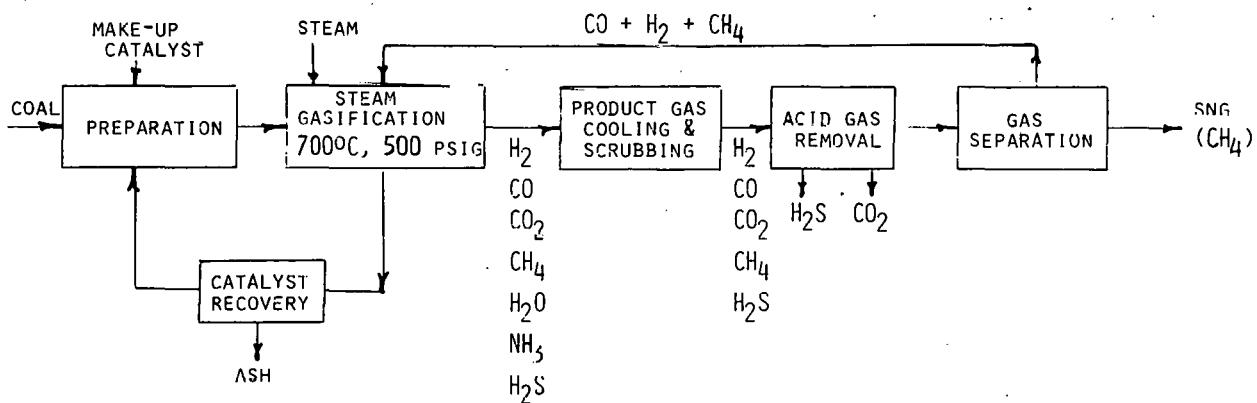


Figure 2. Gasification-reference system (oxygen-gasification-shift-methanation).



NET GASIFIER RUN:  $2C + 2H_2O = CH_4 + CO_2$

Figure 3. Low temperature catalytic gasification (Exxon).

In addition, coal is needed to produce 0.894 mole  $O_2$ . This amounts to 0.254 moles carbon/mole  $CH_4$  assuming 300 kwh(e)/ton  $O_2$  and 34% power cycle efficiency. The heat of coal combustion in the gasifier supplies the endothermic heat of the water gas reaction. The methanation reaction is highly endothermic but produces essentially waste heat.

One of the main drawbacks to this scheme is the fact that reactions (1), (3), and (4) are conducted in separate vessels with cooling of the product gas for removal of undesirable components at each stage. This leads to increased thermal inefficiency and the extra reaction vessels lead to higher capital investment. A one vessel direct conversion system would be a significant advance in gasification technology.

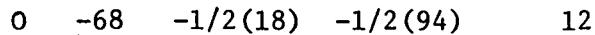
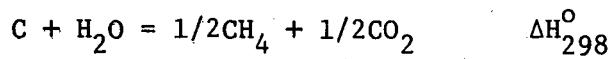
As a first approximation, the carbon conversion efficiency  $\xi$  will be defined as the ratio of moles of methane produced to the moles of carbon consumed and the energy efficiency  $\eta$  as the ratio of the heat of combustion of the product methane to the heat of combustion of the carbon consumed.

$$\xi = \frac{\text{moles methane}}{\text{g-atom carbon}} = \frac{1}{2+0.894+0.254} = 0.318$$

$$\eta = \frac{\Delta H_c \text{ methane}}{\Delta H_c \text{ carbon}} = \frac{212}{(3.148)(94)} = 0.716$$

## 2. Catalytic Gasification (Exxon)

The process essentially involves lowering the temperature of gasification through the use of an alkali metal carbonate catalyst preferably  $K_2CO_3$ . At these lower temperatures, the formation of methane is thermodynamically more favored so that a significant proportion of the gasifier effluent ( $\sim 22\%$ ) is  $CH_4$ . The  $CH_4$  is separated from the  $CO$  and  $H_2$  which are recycled to the gasifier. The simplified flowsheet is shown in Figure 3. The net reaction is



Although the system is almost thermally neutral, heat is required to produce steam. The moles of carbon required to supply the heat of reaction are  $12/94 = 0.128$  so that the carbon utilization is

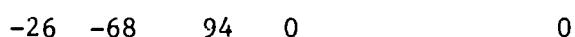
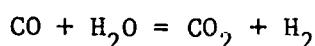
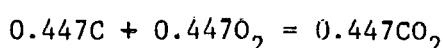
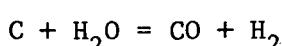
$$\xi = \frac{0.5}{1+0.128} = 0.443$$

and the thermal efficiency

$$\eta = \frac{(0.5)(212)}{(94)(1.128)} = 1.000$$

### 3. Hydrogasification (Flash Hydropyrolysis, Hydrane, etc.)

This process involves the direct hydrogenation of coal with the hydrogen being produced by other means such as coal gasification plus water gas shift. Figure 4 presents a flowsheet for such a process scheme.



The coal required for the production of  $O_2$  is 0.127 which is half that required for process 1. The carbon utilization is

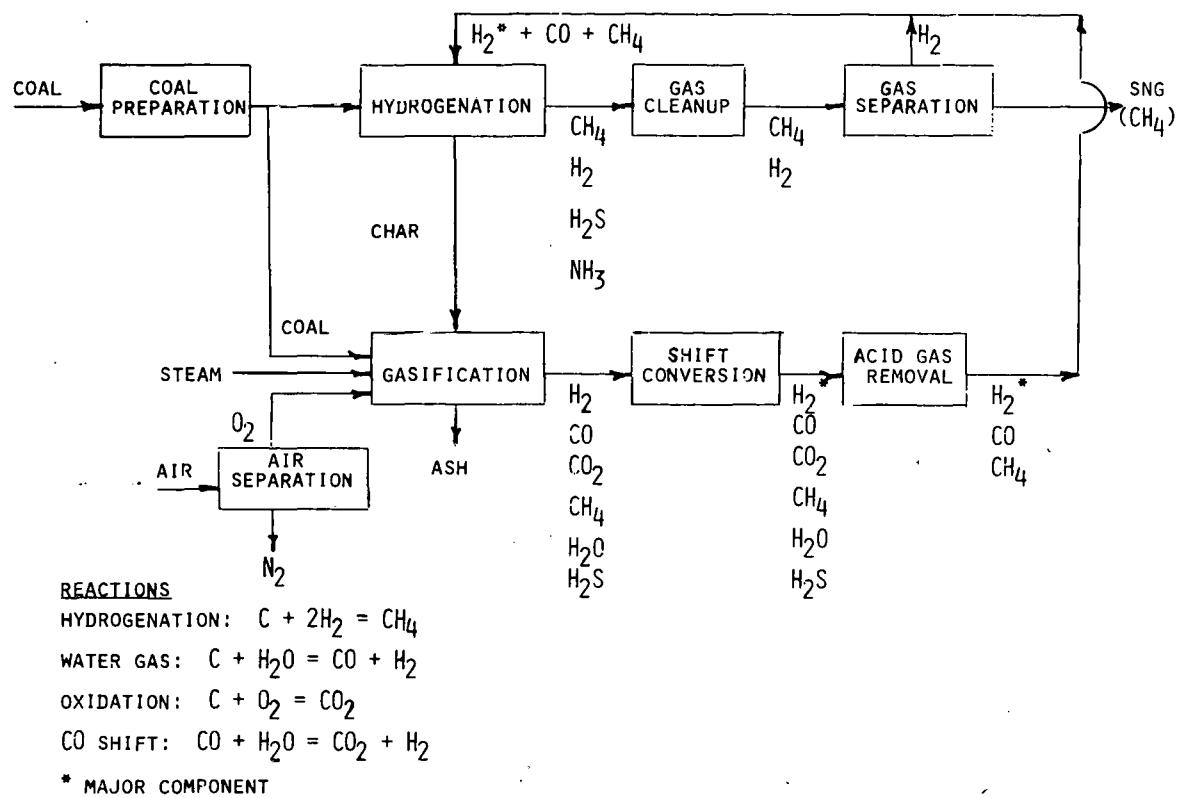


Figure 4. Hydrogenation -  $H_2$  supply by gasification.

$$\xi = \frac{1}{2 + 0.447 + 0.127} = 0.388$$

and the thermal efficiency is

$$\eta = \frac{(212)}{(94)(2.574)} = 0.876$$

#### 4. CO<sub>2</sub> Acceptor Process<sup>(5)</sup>

In this process, lime is added to the gasifier both to remove CO<sub>2</sub> and to provide the heat of reaction for the gasification reaction, thus eliminating the need for an oxygen plant. The removal of CO<sub>2</sub> enhances the water gas shift reaction while the crude effluent gas has a high methane content (~ 12%) and a three to one ratio of H<sub>2</sub>/CO, thus eliminating the need for a separate water gas shift. The calcium carbonate is regenerated (calcined) by using the heat of combustion of coal. The flowsheet for this system is shown in Figure 5.

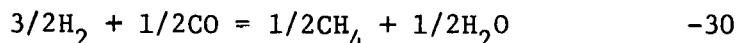
The gasifier reactions are:

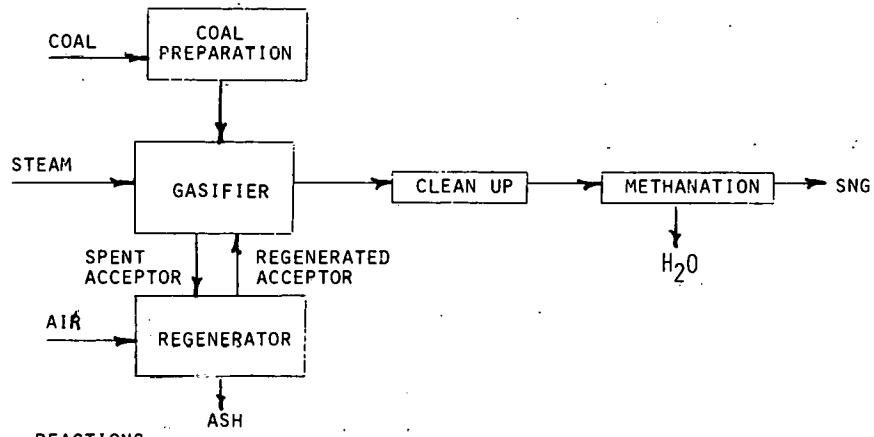
	<u>ΔH<sup>o</sup><sub>298</sub></u>
C + H <sub>2</sub> O = 1/2CH <sub>4</sub> + 1/2CO <sub>2</sub>	12
C + H <sub>2</sub> O = CO + H <sub>2</sub>	42
1/2CO + 1/2H <sub>2</sub> O = 1/2CO <sub>2</sub> + 1/2H <sub>2</sub>	0
CaO + CO <sub>2</sub> = CaCO <sub>3</sub>	-42.5
<hr/>	
2C + 5/2H <sub>2</sub> O + CaO = 1/2CH <sub>4</sub> +	
3/2H <sub>2</sub> + 1/2CO + CaCO <sub>3</sub>	11.5

Regeneration is given by



while methanation requires





REACTIONS

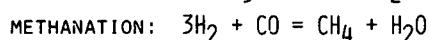
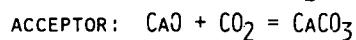
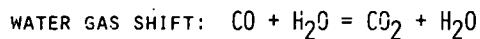
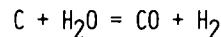
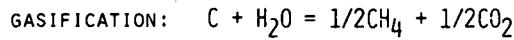


Figure 5. Medium temperature gasification with lime (CO<sub>2</sub> acceptor process).

Regeneration requires  $(42.5 + 11.5)/94 = 0.574$  g/moles carbon. The carbon efficiency is thus given by

$$\xi = \frac{1}{2 + 0.574} = 0.388$$

and the thermal efficiency is

$$\eta = \frac{212}{(2.574)(94)} = 0.876.$$

A summary of the calculated ideal efficiencies for the four gasification processes is given in Table 1.

Table 1

Efficiencies of Coal Gasification Processes  
for Production of SNG ( $\text{CH}_4$ )

<u>Process</u>	<u>Coal Utilization Efficiency - %</u>	<u>Thermal Efficiency - %</u>
1) Coal Gasification Reference	31.8	71.6
2) Catalytic Gasification	44.3	100.0
3) Hydrogasification	38.8	87.6
4) $\text{CO}_2$ Acceptor	38.8	87.6

For production of SNG, the highest utilization and thermal efficiency is the catalytic gasification process. The hydrogasification and  $\text{CO}_2$  acceptor processes are roughly equivalent while the standard coal gasification reference process is clearly the least efficient. The  $\text{CO}_2$  acceptor process suffers from the costly problem of handling large quantities of high temperature solids (lime and limestone). The catalytic gasification and hydrogasification processes have been selected for further study since in addition to their high efficiency

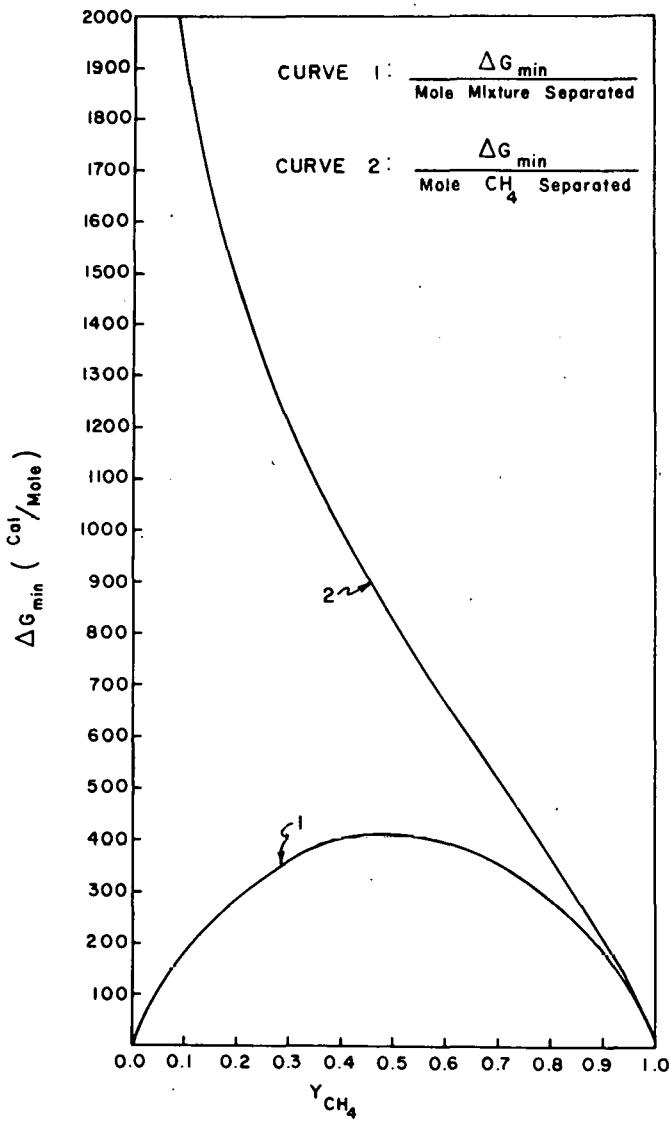


Figure 6.

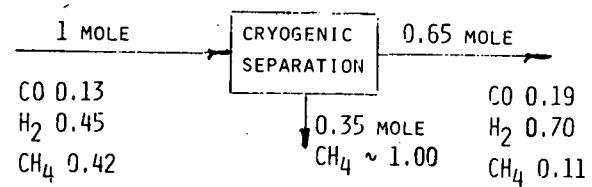


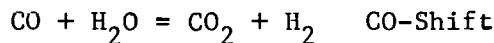
Figure 7.

compared with standard gasification, they both involve effluent streams which must be separated into product ( $\text{CH}_4$ ) and recycle streams. The assessment of various gas separation schemes will be a major task of this program.

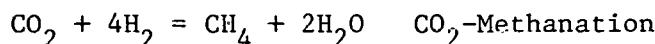
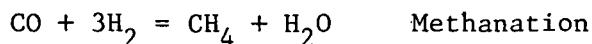
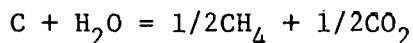
#### Gas Separation

Although the coal gasification (water gas or hydrogenation) is a central step in the coal conversion process, it has become known that the downstream or product separation steps make up a major fraction of the cost of the process. Thus product gas separation is worthy of study for possible improvements.

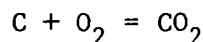
The gasification of coal (considered as carbon) leads to systems containing the following six components: C, CO,  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{H}_2$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , and  $\text{CH}_4$ . Three independent chemical reactions can be written for this system.



From the above reactions, a number of important dependent reactions are readily derived. Among these are the following:



If the gasifier is oxygen-blown, one additional equation is required, e.g.



Thus, the species in the gasifier effluent will consist of five major gases CO,  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{H}_2$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , and  $\text{CH}_4$  and some minor components such as  $\text{NH}_3$ ,

$\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ,  $\text{COS}$ , etc. which derive from the heteroatoms in the coal. Ammonia and water are removed in a condensation step while  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ , and  $\text{COS}$  are acid gases which can be removed by a number of solvent absorption processes such as Purisol, Recitsol, etc. Thus, the focus of attention for gas separation will be the separation of mixtures of  $\text{CO}$ ,  $\text{H}_2$ , and  $\text{CH}_4$ .

### Separations of Ideal Gas Mixtures

As a first approximation, the minimum energy for complete separation of representative mixtures is calculated as the negative of the entropy of mixing for ideal gases multiplied by the temperature.

$$-\Delta G = W_{\min} = T\Delta S_{\text{mix}} = RT \sum_i y_i \ln y_i \quad (12)$$

$R$  = gas constant = 1.987 cal/g-mole- $^{\circ}\text{K}$

$T$  = 298 $^{\circ}\text{K}$

$y_i$  = mole fraction species  $i$  in the gas mixture

$W_{\min}$  = ideal minimum work required for separation into components with each component at the same volume as the initial mixture (cal/g-mole)

The results of the calculation are given in Table 2 for a range of gas mixtures of interest in FHP and catalytic gasification.

Table 2

#### Minimum Energies of Separation for Some Representative Mixtures

	FHP			Catalytic Gasification	
$\text{H}_2$	0.90	0.70	0.5	0.34	0.45
$\text{CH}_4$	0.10	0.30	0.5	0.33	0.40
$\text{CO}$	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.33	0.15
$W_{\min}$ mole mixture	192	362	410	650.5	598
$W_{\min}$ mole methane separated	1920	1207	820	1971	1495
$W(20\%)$ mole methane	9600	6035	4100	9855	7475

The quantity  $W(20\%)$  represents the minimum energy required for separation at an efficiency of 20% which is typical of the maximum efficiency for a cryogenic separation obtained, for example, from the large-scale separation of oxygen from air. It can be readily shown (see Appendix A) that the minimum energy required for total separation is a maximum for equimolar mixtures and is given by the equation

$$W_{\min}^{\max} = RT \ln N \quad (13)$$

where  $N$  is the total number of components and  $x_i = 1/N$ . Figure 6 is a plot of separation energy vs. mole fraction for an ideal binary system for complete separation.

In general, complete separations are not physically or economically feasible so that minimum energies for partial separations are quantities of interest. For example, the Exxon catalytic gasification process cryogenically separates CO, H<sub>2</sub>, and CH<sub>4</sub> into a stream of almost pure methane and a recycle stream with roughly 11% CH<sub>4</sub>, 70% H<sub>2</sub>, and 19% CO (see Figure 7).

The minimum energy required for separation of the inlet stream into the above product and recycle stream into the above product and recycle streams is given by

$$W_{\min} = RT \sum_j \sum_i y_j \ln y_i \quad (14)$$

where the first sum is over all streams (+ for in, - for out). Thus

$$\begin{aligned} W_{\min} &= - (1.987)(298)[0.13 \ln 0.13 + 0.45 \ln 0.45 + 0.42 \ln 0.42] \\ &+ (0.6467)(1.987)(298)[0.19 \ln 0.19 + 0.70 \ln 0.70 + 0.11 \ln 0.11] \\ &+ (0.3533)(1.987)(298)[0] \\ &= 276 \text{ cal/mole mixture} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Delta G_{\min} = 781 \text{ cal/mole CH}_4 \text{ separated}$$

$$\Delta G(20\%) = 3906 \text{ cal/mole CH}_4 \text{ separated}$$

It is also of interest to calculate the separation energy for binary mixtures into two streams, a pure product stream and a recycle stream containing both components as shown in Figure 8. The following equation is derived from that figure:

$$\frac{\Delta G}{RT} = y_A \ln y_A + y_B \ln y_B - a(y_A' \ln y_A' + y_B' \ln y_B') - b(y_A'' \ln y_A'' + y_B'' \ln y_B'') \quad (15)$$

Using the fact that  $y_A + y_B = y_A' + y_B' = 1$  and  $y_A = ay_A'$  allows the above equation to be rewritten in terms of  $y_A$  and  $a$ . (Note that the term  $b(\dots)$  on the right hand side of (15) is zero.)

$$\frac{\Delta G}{RT} = (1 - y_A) \ln(1 - y_A) - (a - y_A) \ln(a - y_A) + a \ln a \quad (16)$$

Division of  $\Delta G$  by  $1 - a = b$  gives the free energy per mole of B separated. Figure 9 is a graph of  $\Delta G$  vs.  $y_{\text{CH}_4}$  with the quantity  $b$  as parameter. The dotted curve gives the energy for complete separation per mole of methane. For example, if the inlet stream contains 40%  $\text{CH}_4$  and the pure product methane stream is 0.3 moles  $\text{CH}_4$  per mole of feed, then the minimum energy required is about 760 cal which is 46% of the energy required for complete separation. The same data is given in Figure 10 with  $\Delta G$  vs.  $b$  and  $y_{\text{CH}_4}$  as parameter. The dotted curve is again the energy required for complete separation. It should be noted that these curves approach a limiting value as  $b \rightarrow 0$ . It can be shown (see Appendix B) that the limiting value of equation 16 as  $b \rightarrow 0$  is given by

$$\Delta G = RT \ln(1 - y_A)$$

$$= RT \ln y_{\text{CH}_4}$$

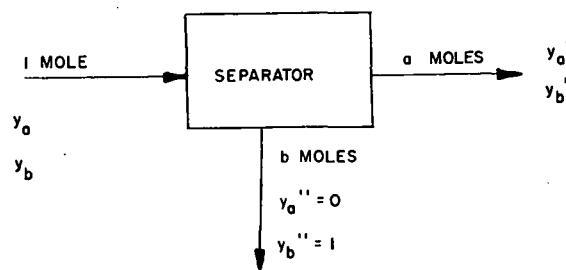


Figure 8.

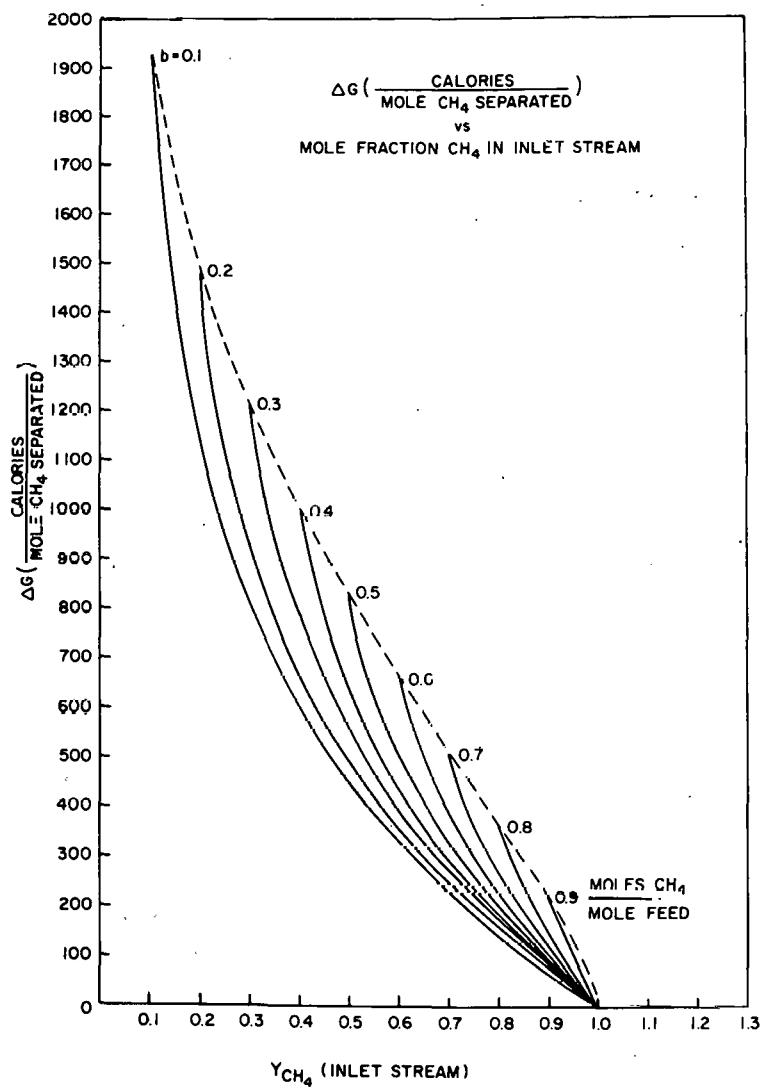


Figure 9.

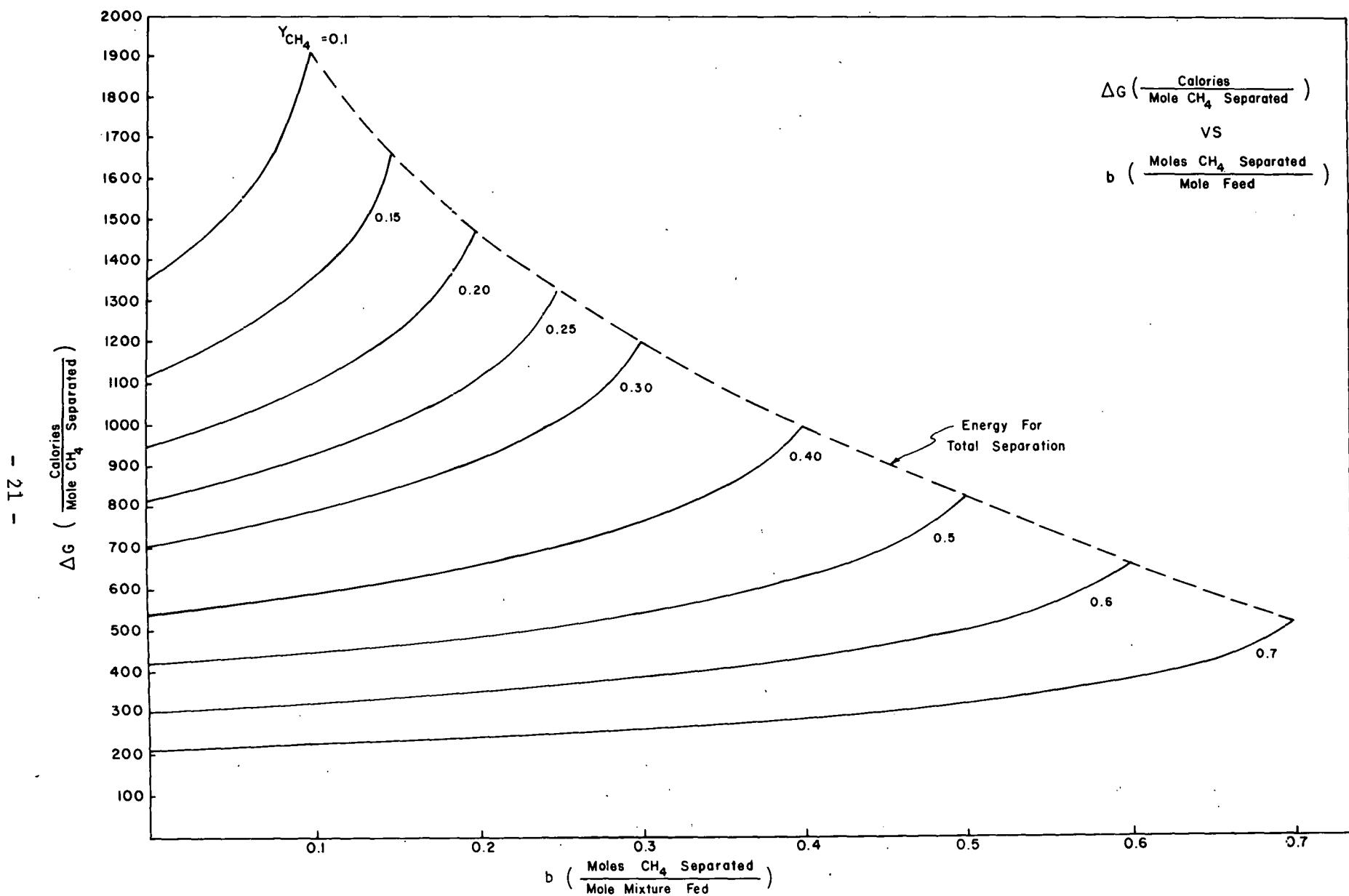


Figure 10.

## Separation Methods

Having discussed the minimum energy for separation of ideal gases, it is appropriate at this point to consider some separation schemes which will be reviewed and evaluated in the near future. A somewhat arbitrary division into five categories has been made. These are:

(1) liquefaction, (2) adsorption, (3) absorption, (4) chemical, and (5) diffusional methods.

1) Liquefaction - Since all gases are completely miscible, any separation method which depends upon phase equilibrium will require the generation of an additional phase. One such method entails liquefaction of at least part of the gas. Since this is possible only below the critical temperature which is below room temperature for most gases, refrigeration is required. The degree of difficulty of the separation depends upon the relative volatilities of the components and fractional distillation of the liquefied gases is frequently required. Since cryogenic distillation is well established technology, it will serve as the base case against which other separation techniques will be measured.

2) Adsorption - The selective adsorption of one or more of the constituents of the gaseous mixture ( $\text{CO}$ ,  $\text{H}_2$ ,  $\text{CH}_4$ ) on various solid sorbents will also be considered. Adsorbents may be naturally occurring or synthetic materials (e.g. molecular sieves) whose internal pore surfaces are accessible for selective combination of solute and solid. In the case of physical adsorption (e.g. adsorption on activated carbon), the attractive forces between solute and sorbent are relatively weak and less specific than those of chemical bonds. If adsorption occurs through chemical bonding, it is termed chemisorption.

In a preliminary evaluation of methods of separating methane from synthesis gas, Dravo Corporation concluded that adsorption on activated carbon was more attractive than cryogenic separation for the following reasons: (1) the adsorption process produces a pure methane product (less than 0.1% CO), (2) it provides for nearly quantitative recovery of methane and hydrogen, (3) it is a flexible process with regard to the number of streams that can be produced, (4) it is mechanically simpler than a cryogenic system, and (5) "break-through" of high boiling components is readily accommodated by the activated carbon system - freezing could occur in the cryogenic system, seriously affecting operations.

3) Absorption - This method of separation involves selectively dissolving one or more components of the gaseous mixture (preferably  $\text{CH}_4$  in our case) in a solvent. The absorbed material may dissolve physically in the liquid or react chemically. Solute would be desorbed by stripping or distillation and the solvent returned to the absorption step for reuse. Absorption is used extensively in the chemical process industries for removing impurities from gaseous product streams and for removing potential pollutants from gaseous process effluents. For example, the byproduct gas from coke ovens is washed with water or sulfuric acid to remove ammonia and again with an oil to remove benzene and toluene vapors. Hydrogen sulfide and carbon dioxide can be removed

from synthesis gas by scrubbing with alkaline solutions or amines. The captured benzene and toluene mentioned above are normally removed from the oil by injecting live steam (steam stripping) into the solute laden oil, whereupon the vapors enter the gas steam and are carried away. The regenerated oil may be recycled for reuse. Tables 3 and 4 list more solute/solvent systems amenable to the gas-absorption process.

In addition to the relative solubilities of the constituents of the gaseous mixture with respect to a particular solvent, several other factors effect the economic viability of the absorption process, such as solvent pumping energy, the energy required to desorb the captured gas(es) and regenerate the solvent, and the volatility and cost of the solvent. All of these factors must be taken into account when designing a commercial gas absorption system.

4) Chemical - The use of clathrate compounds for the separation of gas mixtures will be investigated. Clathrates are cage-like compounds in which a guest molecule (or atom) is enclosed by a structure composed of host molecules. The host molecules are usually hydrogen bonded and there are no chemical bonds between host and guest. For example, hydroquinone clathrates have the general formula  $3C_6H_4(OH) \cdot X$  where X can be  $CH_4$ ,  $CO$ ,  $CH_3OH$ , and others. The gas hydrates are another important class of clathrates. They are formed when water is solidified in the presence of certain gases including  $CH_4$ ,  $C_2H_6$ ,  $C_3H_8$ , and others. In fact, they are claimed to occur in nature and are known to form in gas transmission lines in the presence of water vapor. The formation of methane hydrates as a method of gas separation in effect raises the condensation temperature of methane which might compete with cryogenic separation methods.

Table 3  
Gas-Absorption Systems of Commercial Importance\*

Solute	Solvent	Reagent	Degree of Commercial Importance		
			High	Moderate	Low
CO <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> S	Water	--	X		
CO <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> S	Water	Monoethanolamine	X		
CO <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> S	Water	Diethanolamine	X		
CO <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> S	Water	Triethanolamine	--	--	X
CO <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> S	Water	Diaminoisopropanol	--	--	X
CO <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> S	Water	Methyl diethanolamine	--	--	X
CO <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> S	Water	K <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub> , Na <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>	X		
CO <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> S	Water	NH <sub>3</sub>	--	X	
CO <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> S	Water	NaOH, KOH	--	X	
CO <sub>2</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> S	Water	K <sub>3</sub> PO <sub>4</sub>	--	X	
CO <sub>2</sub>	Propylene carbonate	--	--	X	
CO <sub>2</sub>	Glycerol triacetate	--	--	X	
CO <sub>2</sub>	Butoxy diethylene glycol acetate	--	--	X	
CO <sub>2</sub>	Methoxy triethylene glycol acetate	--	--		X
HCl, HF	Water	--	X		
HCl, HF	Water	NaOH	X		
Cl <sub>2</sub>	Water	--	X		
SO <sub>2</sub>	Water	--	--	--	X
SO <sub>2</sub>	Water	NH <sub>3</sub>	--	X	
SO <sub>2</sub>	Water	Xylydine	--	X	
SO <sub>2</sub>	Water	Dimethyl aniline	--	X	
SO <sub>2</sub>	Water	Ca(OH) <sub>2</sub> , oxygen	--	--	X
SO <sub>2</sub>	Water	Aluminum hydroxide-sulfate	--	X	
NH <sub>3</sub>	Water		X		
NO <sub>2</sub>	Water	--	X		
HCN	Water	NaOH	X		
CO	Water	Copper ammonium salts	X		

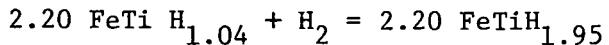
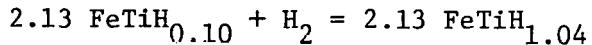
\*Kohl and Reisenfeld, Chem. Eng., 66 (12), 127 (1959); Sherwood and Pigford, "Absorption and Extraction," McGraw-Hill, New York, 1952.

Table 4  
Solutes and Non-Aqueous Solvents for Gas Absorption\*

Solutes	Solvents
Acetylene, $C_2H_2$	Acetic acid (glacial), $C_2H_4O_2$
Air	Acetic anhydride, $C_4H_6O_3$
Ammonia, $NH_3$	Acetone, $C_3H_6O$
Bromine, $Br_2$	Amyl alcohol, $C_5H_{12}O$
Carbon dioxide, $CO_2$	Aniline, $C_6H_7N$
Carbon monoxide, $CO$	Benzene, $C_6H_6$
Chlorine, $Cl_2$	Bromobenzene, $C_6H_5Br$
Ethane, $C_2H_6$	Carbon disulfide, $CS_2$
Ethylene, $C_2H_4$	Carbon tetrachloride, $CCl_4$
Hydrogen, $H_2$	Chlorobenzene, $C_6H_5Cl$
Hydrogen chloride, $HCl$	Chloroform, $CHCl_3$
Hydrogen sulfide, $H_2S$	Ethyl acetate, $C_4H_8O_2$
Methane, $CH_4$	Ethyl alcohol, $C_2H_6O$
Methyl chloride, $CH_3Cl$	Ethylene chloride, $C_2H_4Cl$
Nitric oxide, $NO$	Ethyl ether, $C_4H_{10}O$
Nitrogen, $N_2$	Methyl acetate, $C_3H_6O_2$
Nitrous oxide, $N_2O$	Methyl alcohol, $CH_4O$
Oxygen, $O_2$	Nitrobenzene, $C_6H_5NO_2$
Sulfur dioxide, $SO_2$	Propyl alcohol, $C_3H_8O$
Etc.	Propylene, $C_3H_6$
	Toluene, $C_7H_8$
	Etc.

\*Perry's Chemical Engineers Handbook, 5th Ed.

Another potentially useful chemical system would remove hydrogen via metal hydride formation.<sup>7</sup> For example, the intermetallic compound FeTi reacts reversibly with molecular hydrogen to form iron titanium hydride according to the following scheme:



In order to remove hydrogen, the temperature of the system is raised.

Figure 11 shows the pressure-composition isotherms for the iron-titanium system. A number of other metal hydrides will also be considered.

5) Diffusional - Such processes would achieve separation by diffusion of the components of the gas through a membrane or barrier at different rates. Ideally, the membrane will be highly selective permitting the passage of only one component. The metal palladium is highly selective to hydrogen which is associatively adsorbed on the high pressure side, passes through the metal as hydrogen atoms, and recombines at the low pressure side to reform H<sub>2</sub> gas. R. J. Teitel Associates<sup>8</sup> has developed a microcavity system consisting of hollow glass microspheres which allow diffusion of hydrogen and helium only. The potential for use in a hydrogen separation process will be examined. Finally, other membrane processes such as that under development by DuPont will be examined.

#### Alternative Coal Conversion Processes

Some study is being given to seeking alternate coal conversion processes with the objective of finding potentially attractive new gasification and/or liquefaction concepts. The current concepts are listed

below by subject only and will be expanded upon in future reports.

1. Thermal formation of metal carbides which can be hydrolyzed to hydrocarbon products.
2. The flame hydropyrolysis of coal.
3. Formic acid and formaldehyde treatment of coal for hydrocarbon formation.
4. A moving bed hydropyrolysis reactor.

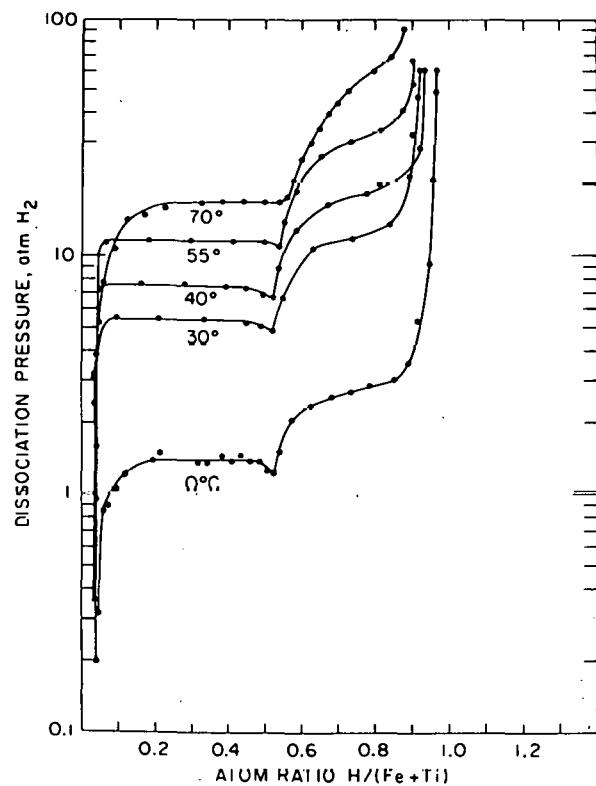


Figure 11. Pressure-composition isotherms for the Fe-Ti-H system.

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## Appendix A

Calculation of the maximum minimum energy of separation for ideal gas mixtures.

$$\text{Let } f = \frac{W}{RT} = \sum_i y_i \ln y_i.$$

It is desired to maximize the above equation subject to the constraint

$$\sum_i y_i = 1$$

Using the method of Lagrange multipliers gives the following expression:

$$\delta f = \sum_i (1 + \ln y_i) \delta y_i$$

$$\lambda \delta g = \lambda \sum_i \delta y_i$$

$$\delta f + \lambda \delta g = \sum_i (1 + \ln y_i + \lambda) \delta y_i = 0$$

$\lambda$  is the Lagrange multiplier. Since  $\delta y_i \neq 0$ , the above expression requires that

$$1 + \ln y_i + \lambda = 0.$$

Therefore

$$y_i = e^{-(1 + \lambda)}.$$

Now

$$\sum_i y_i = \sum_{i=1}^N e^{-(1 + \lambda)} = N e^{-(1 + \lambda)} = 1.$$

We conclude that

$$1 + \lambda = \ln N$$

where  $N$  is the number of components in the mixture. Substitution back into the equation for  $f$  yields

$$f = \frac{W}{RT} = - \sum_{i=1}^N (1 + \lambda) e^{-(1 + \lambda)} = \sum_{i=1}^N \ln N e^{-\ln N} = \ln N.$$

Therefore,

$$W_{\min}^{\max} = RT \ln N$$

with

$$y_i = 1/N$$

### Appendix B

#### Calculation of limiting value for energy of separation of ideal binary gas mixtures.

It is desired to calculate the limit as  $b (=1 - a) \rightarrow 0$  for the expression

$$\Delta G \left( \frac{\text{cal}}{\text{mole B separated}} \right) = \frac{RT}{b} [ (1-y_A) \ln(1-y_A) - (a-y_A) \ln(a-y_A) + a \ln a ]$$

(See Figure 8 in text for diagram of the process and definition of symbols.)

Let  $x = 1 - y_A$  and substitute  $b = 1 - a$  into the bracketed part of the above equation.

$$\begin{aligned} [ ] &= x \ln x - (x-b) \ln(x-b) + (1-b) \ln(1-b) \\ &= x \ln x - (x-b) \ln x (1-b/x) + (1-b) \ln(1-b) \\ &= x \ln x - (x-b) \ln x - (x-b) \ln(1-b/x) + (1-b) \ln(1-b) \end{aligned}$$

Expanding  $\ln(1-x) \approx -x$  yields

$$\begin{aligned} [ ] &\approx x \ln x - x \ln x - b \ln x - (x-b)(-b/x) + (1-b)(-b) \\ &\approx b \ln x + b^2 - \frac{b^2}{x} \end{aligned}$$

Now

$$\Delta G \doteq \frac{RT}{b} (b \ln x + b^2 - \frac{b^2}{x})$$

for small  $b$ . In the limit as  $b \rightarrow 0$ , we have

$$\Delta G \doteq RT \ln x = RT \ln(1 - y_A)$$