

8

# 9 **Abstract**

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10 This paper addresses an experimental investigation concerning oxy-11 combustion of coal and biomass in a lab-scale fluidized bed reactor. While 12 co-firing has been widely studied under conventional air conditions, few 13 experiences are available to date for  $O_2/CO_2$  atmospheres. The research is 14 focused on  $SO_2$  and  $NO_x$  emissions, along with the deposition rates and 15 ashes mineralogy. The influences of the atmosphere (air vs.  $30/70\%$  O<sub>2</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub>), 16 the coal-to-biomass energy input ratio (80/20%, 90/10%), the chlorine mass 17 fraction in the biomass (0.35%, 1%, 2%) and the Ca:S mole ratio (2.5, 4) are 18 reported and discussed in the paper, for two specific fuels: high sulfur lignite 19 and high chlorine corn stover. Concerning  $SO_2$  emissions a correlation 20 among the sulfur and the chlorine contents is clearly detected, being 21 affected by the direct desulfurization mechanism occurring under oxy-firing 22 conditions. The single effect of the chlorine content is found to be almost 23 1.5% of the desulfurization efficiency.  $NO<sub>x</sub>$  emissions are otherwise more 24 dependent on oxygen excess and CO concentration in the reactor, rather 25 than the fuel share or the chlorine supplied. Thick deposition is only 26 detected when chlorine content in the corn is 2%. Potassium

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27 aluminosilication is found to be enhanced in comparison to potassium 28 sulfation under oxy-firing, especially for the highest Ca:S mole ratio: 29 observed aluminosilication is five times higher when Ca:S ratio is increased 30 from 2.5 to 4. A significant enrichment in iron is also detected for the fly ash 31 composition, with an increase of 30-50% in comparison to air combustion.

32

# 33 **Keywords**

34 Emissions, Deposition, Ashes, Co-firing, Bio-CCS, Fluidized beds; Lignite; 35 Zea mays stover

36

# 37 **1. Introduction**

38 During the last ten years, oxy-fuel combustion has been proven to be a 39 driving technology towards zero emission power plants [1]. Successful 40 experiences have been reported in pulverized-fuel facilities, as Schwarze 41 Pumpe, Ciuden and Callide [2–6]. Application to fluidized bed boilers has 42 also shown promising results in similar scales [7, 8], with the inherent 43 advantages of wide fuel flexibility and low pollutant emissions. According to 44 these developments, oxy-combustion units are ready to get a commercial 45 scale [9].

46 More recently, biomass has been proposed to be used as main or 47 secondary fuel in oxy-fired units, aiming to develop bio-CCS (Carbon 48 Capture and Storage with biofuels) [10, 11]. While conventional combustion 49 of biomass has been extensively studied [12–14], few oxy-combustion 50 experiences are available to date [15]. The permanent disposal of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  from 51 the combustion of residual biomass contributes to remove  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  from the 52 atmosphere, leading to the so-called negative emissions. This enhances the 53 attractiveness of the oxy-combustion technologies.

54 In comparison to coal, firing biomass shows several challenges mainly 55 related to its chemical composition, strongly affected by issues like 56 harvesting, soil residues or use of fertilisers [16]. Main operational problems 57 are related to the presence of alkalis and chlorine, which promote deposition 58 on heat transfer surfaces and can also yield long-term corrosion [17–20].

59 Co-firing of coal and biomass can be considered as an intermediate way to 60 mitigate these problems [21], also enabling the feeding of biomass into 61 larger units [22]. Nevertheless, the synergies between the mineral matters 62 of the fuels have to be well determined. The presence of the sulfur in the 63 coal promotes the reactions between sulfur oxides and alkali chlorides, 64 yielding chlorine-free deposits; the reactions  $(R.1)$  and  $(R.2)$  show this effect: 65

$$
2 \, MCl + SO_2 + \frac{1}{2} O_2 + H_2O \rightarrow M_2SO_4 + 2 \, HCl \tag{R. 1}
$$

$$
2\,MLl + SO_3 + H_2O \rightarrow M_2SO_4 + 2\,HCl
$$
 R. 2

66 Following this reduction mechanism, Kassman et al. [23, 24] reported the 67 effect of injecting ammonium sulfate, resulting in a decrease of the chlorine 68 detected in the deposits.  $SO_2$  oxidation rate (to  $SO_3$ ) was suggested by these 69 authors as the limiting factor for the alkali sulfation, since reaction R.2 70 eventually controls the process.

71 On the other hand, alkalis can also be competitively retained in the coal 72 ashes by silication or aluminosilication [21], releasing chlorine to the gas-73 phase as HCl, according to the reactions (R.3) and (R.4):

74

$$
2 \text{ MCl} + nSiO_2 + H_2O \rightarrow M_2O \cdot nSiO_2 + 2\text{ HCl}
$$
 R. 3

$$
2 \, MCl + (nSiO_2 + Al_2O_3) + H_2O \rightarrow 2 \, MAlSi_{n/2}O_{(n+2)} + 2 \, HCl \tag{R. 4}
$$

75 According to the results given by Sevonius et al. [25], the extent of 76 reaction R.3 is very small at fluidized bed conditions and most of alkali 77 retention is due to aluminosilication.

78 Few results are available in literature concerning co-firing under  $O_2/CO_2$ 79 atmospheres, most devoted to pulverized-fuel burners. Fryda et al. [26] 80 pioneered the research on ash deposition under oxy-fuel conditions, finding 81 out an increase of deposition ratios in comparison to air conditions, but 82 barely affecting the ashes composition. Riaza et al. [27] studied the co-firing 83 of coal and olive residues in an entrained flow reactor, under a variety of 84  $O_2/CO_2$  atmospheres. They reported an improvement of ignition 85 temperature when biomass was added, and an opposite trend for  $NO_x$ 86 emissions: increasing for semi-anthracite but decreasing for bituminous 87 coals. Similar results were reported by Ahn et al. [28]. According to the 88 scheme given by reactions (R.1) and (R.2), Ekvall et al. [29, 30] and Jurado 89 et al. [31] respectively found an increase of  $K_2SO_4$  in deposits and a decrease 90 of  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  under oxy-firing of coal and biomass.

91 As concerns the experiences in fluidized bed combustors, most have been 92 focused on emissions. Tan et al. [32] oxy-fired coal and wood pellets, 93 showing a NO decrease with the biomass-to-coal ratio, without a conclusive 94 trend for the  $SO_2$ . Duan et al. [33] found that NO emissions were strongly 95 dependent on  $O_2$  excess and  $O_2$  primary/secondary split, as also happens for 96 coal air- and oxy-firing.

97 This paper aims at widening the knowledge about oxy-firing of coal and 98 biomass in fluidized bed reactors, focusing the analysis on emissions but 99 also on the behaviour of the solid-phase: deposition ratios and composition, 100 and ashes characterization. This is done for blends of two risky fuels, high-101 sulfur lignite and high-chlorine corn stover, leading to novel results not 102 available up to now.

103

# 104 **2. Experimental setup**

#### 105 2.1 *Facility*

106 The tests were conducted in the fluidized bed reactor at CIRCE 107 Laboratories (Figure 1). The reactor is 2.5 m height and its inner diameter 108 is 0.203 m. Fuel is fed from two independent hoppers, discharging into two 109 variable-speed endless screws. Bed temperature is regulated by water-110 cooled probes, which can be inserted/extracted on-load. Further details of 111 the facility can be found elsewhere [34–36].

112 The installation is instrumented with temperature, pressure and flow 113 meters, providing real-time information about the unit performance. Flue 114 gas composition  $(CO_2, CO, NO, SO_2, O_2)$  is also available, by sampling and 115 analysing at the heat exchanger outlet.

116 An air-cooled deposition probe can be introduced over the splash zone, in 117 order to characterize the deposits. Probe temperature is controlled to 118 maintain a value within 450-500ºC. A removable coupon is inserted in the 119 tip of the probe, in order to proceed with a subsequent SEM/EDX analysis. 120 Solid samples can be taken during the experiments from the bed bottom, the 121 baffle chamber and the cyclone.





123 **Figure 1.-** Oxy-fired fluidized bed facility.

125 The presence of chlorine in the gas-phase can be determined by conveying 126 samples through three  $Na_2CO_3$  impingers. The sample withdrawal is carried 127 out at 0.9 m over the distributor plate. After every experiment, the contents 128 of the impingers are analysed by ion chromatography (IC) in order to 129 determine the chloride concentration.

# 130 2.2 *Fuels*

131 The fuels selected for the experimental campaign were lignite and corn 132 stover. The former is high-sulfur, high-ash coal with large reserves in Spain. 133 The latter is an agricultural residue, selected to seek the interactions among 134 chlorine and sulfur compounds.

135



136 **Table 1.-** Fuel analysis, heating value and ash composition.

138 The coal was supplied by a Spanish mining company. The coalfield is 139 located close to Ariño (Teruel, Spain). The coal was sent to an Italian 140 company in order to mill and sieve it to the required size. Round-trip 141 transportation was done by truck. Once received back, chemical analysis 142 was conducted to random samples of the coal, yielding proximate and 143 ultimate analyses as well as heating values and ash composition (shown in 144 Table 1). According to the classification given by the standard ASTM D388, 145 the coal type is lignite. Its size was in the range 0.3–1 mm, with a mean 146 diameter of 0.7 mm.

147 The corn stover was supplied by a local farmer from Villamayor 148 (Zaragoza, Spain). Geo-coordinates of the field are 41º 41' 17" N, 0º 45' 45" W. 149 Soil type is silty clay. The specific variety of Zea mays is unknown. Sowing 150 was done during the early spring and harvesting during the early fall (year 151 2013). Corn stover bales were stored indoors by the farmer. We directly 152 picked up and transported the bales from the field to the lab building. Since 153 Zea mays cultivars cannot be completely specified, there is a reasonable 154 concern that there may be factors that influence the results obtained, and 155 for this reason the work cannot be independently reproduced. But the 156 authors believe that the research exemplifies the effect of the inorganic 157 constituents of both the coal and corn.

158 Corn stover was milled and sieved between 1 mm and 2 mm. Roughly, 159 half of the initial mass was retained for the experiments. Chemical analysis 160 was conducted to random samples of the sieved stover (results shown in 161 Table 1). Fuels were separately stored in closed containers inside the lab 162 building, at room temperature. The same was done with the limestone and 163 the silica sand used in the tests.

164 The chlorine content in the corn stock (0.35%) was relatively low in 165 comparison to the values reported in other works [37–39]. For this reason, 166 original corn stover was doped with KCl, increasing the chlorine mass 167 fraction to 1% and 2%. This consequently increased the content of mineral 168 matter in the corn stover (to 6.80% and 8.80% respectively), while the rest of 169 the proximate and ultimate fractions were reduced in proportion. To exclude

170 the effect of the moisture and the ash contents in the fuels, compositions in 171 Table 1 are expressed in dry and ash-free basis.

172 In order to control SO<sub>2</sub> emissions, Granicarb limestone was added during 173 the tests in different Ca:S mole ratios. This limestone is commercialized by a 174 gravel plant located at Belchite (Zaragoza, Spain). Granicarb limestone is 175 characterized by its high purity and reactivity ( $CaCO<sub>3</sub> > 97$ %). Limestone 176 mean size was 0.6 mm. Silica sand  $(SiO<sub>2</sub> > 99%)$  was used as inert material 177 in the bed, with mean particle size similar to limestone. Bed height was 178 maintained around 400 mm for all the tests.

179

#### 180 2.3 *Experimental matrix*

181 Six experiments were conducted, according to the conditions given in 182 Table 2. The matrix was defined to make possible the discussion of every 183 independent influence. Air and oxy-fired  $(30/70\% \text{ volume fractions } O_2/CO_2)$ 184 tests were completed, for a similar thermal input (about 22 kW). The fuels 185 were blended in 80/20% and 90/10% coal-to-stover (LHV) ratios, firing three 186 different corn stover samples. Two different Ca:S mole ratios were also 187 tested, 2.5 and 4.

188 The facility is preheated by a propane burner up to  $T_{\text{bed}} \sim 500^{\circ}$ C, and then 189 an air-combustion stage quickly raises the temperature to  $T_{\text{bed}} \sim 850^{\circ}$ C. 190 Then, the firing is switched to  $O_2/CO_2$  atmosphere. Once the operation is 191 stable, deposition probe is inserted and chlorine-capture device is turned on. 192 Operating data were gathered every two seconds during at least one hour 193 and a half of steady-state conditions.

194

# 195 2.4 *Analytical techniques*

196 Hitachi S-3400N microscope equipped with a SDD-EDX detector Rontec 197 XFlash was used to determine the composition and morphology of the 198 particles taken from different sections of the facility (bed bottom, deposition 199 probe, baffle chamber, cyclone). For that, a portion of each sample was 200 disposed onto the holder carbon tape, micrographs were taken with the 201 microscope and areas of interest were chosen for EDX analysis. For solid 202 mixtures as those found in the bed bottom, a number of particles were 203 selected (five from each type: sand, sorbent and ash), and composition of a 204 rectangular area of image was recorded. For finer powders as fly ash or 205 deposits, areas of interest were selected from SEM images to perform the 206 EDX analysis ensuring complete characterization.

207 The composition of the crystalline species was given by X-ray diffraction 208 (XRD) in a Siemens Bruker D8 Advance Series 2 diffractometer, set to select 209 Cu Ka radiation. The diffraction angle scanned was  $20-70^{\circ}$  2  $\theta$  using a step 210 size of 0.05° 2 *θ*. Ion Chromatography (IC) was used to detect the presence of 211 soluble chlorides in the traps.

- 212
- 213

	A1	OXY1	OXY <sub>2</sub>	OXY3	OXY4	OXY5
Fluidizing gas, volume	Air	30/70	30/70	30/70	30/70	30/70
fractions						
Coal-to-biomass energy	80/20	80/20	80/20	90/10	80/20	80/20
input ratio						
Ca:S mole ratio	$2.5\,$	$2.5\,$	$2.5\,$	2.5	4	4
Chlorine mass fraction $(\%)$	1	1	$\overline{2}$	1	0.35	1
$T_{bed}$ ( $^{\circ}$ C)	876	856	859	852	851	862
$T_{\text{fb}}$ (°C)	638	637	621	563	589	605
$\mathrm{u}$ <sub>f</sub> (m s <sup>-1</sup> )	1.18	0.82	0.80	0.74	0.70	0.72
$O_2$ (%)	5.66	5.85	5.34	3.42	1.61	2.31
$CO$ (mg m <sup>-3</sup> )	1139	746	863	473	417	908
$NO$ (mg m <sup>-3</sup> )	240	343	348	514	504	289
$NO$ (mg $MJ^{-1}$ )	46	37	40	59	54	33
$SO_2$ (mg m <sup>-3</sup> )	2207	12155	11078	13493	9790	8671
$SO_2$ (mg $MJ^{-1}$ )	455	1413	1382	1684	1111	1073
Desulfurization eff. (%)	87.7	61.7	62.9	59.5	70.2	71.4
$Cl^{-}$ (mg m <sup>-3</sup> )	66.06	62.78	149.67	61.28	7.91	89.06

214 **Table 2.-** Operating conditions during the tests. CO, NO and SO<sub>2</sub> corrected to 215 6%O2 and Normal conditions (273 K and 101.3 kPa)

- 
- 216
- 217

# 218 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 219 3.1 *Gas-phase*

220 Table 2 shows the mean values of the flue gas composition  $(O_2, CO, NO,$  $221$   $SO<sub>2</sub>$ ), the operating temperatures and the fluidization velocities during 222 every test, and as well as chlorine concentrations in the gas-phase and 223 desulfurization efficiencies. Bed temperature was maintained within 224 850–880°C, while  $O_2$  concentration in flue gases mostly depended on the 225 air/gas flowrate supplied to the reactor, which is proportional to the 226 fluidization velocity. Under oxy-firing conditions, fluidization velocities were 227 in the range  $0.70-0.82$  m s<sup>-1</sup>. Velocity was higher under air-firing conditions 228 (1.18 m/s), since the lower  $O_2$  concentration (21% vs. 30%) requires an 229 increase the air flowrate supplied for the same fuel load.

230 3.1.1 *SO2 and NO emissions* 

231 Taking into account the fuel rate supplied and the  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  concentration in 232 flue gases, desulfurization efficiency was calculated after the tests. A value 233 of 87.7% was obtained for the air-fired test, which is in good agreement with 234 previous experience [35, 40]. It is clearly seen in the Table 2 that 235 desulfurization efficiency drops during oxy-fired tests (16-28% efficiency 236 points). This can be explained by the different sulfation processes taking 237 place in the reactor. Under air-firing conditions, desulfurization takes place 238 by means of an indirect capture mechanism. Firstly, limestone is calcined 239 and then, the resulting CaO is sulfated (R.5 and R.6):

$$
CaCO_3 \leftrightarrow CaO + CO_2 \tag{R. 5}
$$

$$
CaO + SO2 + \frac{1}{2}O2 \rightarrow CaSO4
$$
 R. 6

240 However, the conditions tested during oxy-fired tests (70%  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ ,  $T<sub>b</sub>$  ~ 241 850ºC) imply a shift of the desulfurization mechanism. Limestone is not 242 calcined, taking place the so-called direct desulfurization:

$$
CaCO_3 + SO_2 + \frac{1}{2}O_2 \rightarrow CaSO_4 + CO_2
$$
 R. 7

243 The direct mechanism has been reported to result in lower 244 desulfurization efficiencies by other researchers [41, 42], which is consistent 245 with the numbers shown in Table 2. Therefore, operation of oxy-fired 246 fluidized bed would require an increase of the Ca:S ratio in comparison to 247 the experiences available for air-fired units. This is confirmed by the values 248 in Table 2: if OXY1 is compared to OXY5, an efficiency increase of almost 249 10% efficiency points is observed when increasing Ca:S ratio from 2.5 to 4 250 (the rest of conditions remaining the same).

 $251$  SO<sub>2</sub> emissions are also affected by the chlorine content supplied with the 252 biomass. The higher the chlorine, the lower the  $SO_2$  emitted, as can be seen 253 if test OXY1 (1%) is compared to OXY2 (2%), or OXY4 (0.35%) to OXY5 (1%). 254 This can be a consequence of alkali sulfation (R.1 and R.2), as discussed 255 hereinafter.

 $256$  As concerns actual NO emissions (mg m $-3$ , in Normal conditions), the 257 lowest value is detected during the air-fired tests, provided that the flue gas 258 flowrate  $(m^3 s^{-1})$  is higher [43, 44]. Furthermore, air operation results in the 259 top value for CO emissions, which is known to contribute to NO depletion 260 (by direct reduction or by catalysing the heterogeneous reaction char + NO) 261 [45–47]:

$$
NO + CO \rightarrow CO_2 + \frac{1}{2}N_2
$$
 R. 8

$$
C_{char} + NO \rightarrow CO + \frac{1}{2}N_2
$$
 R. 9

262 The highest value of CO concentration observed for the air-fired test can 263 be explained by the fluidization velocity, yielding a lower residence time of 264 the particles in the dense zone. In general, a good correlation can be 265 observed between CO concentration and fluidization velocity, except for the 266 test OXY5. This is not due to either the chlorine content in the corn or the 267 Ca:S mole ratio, but to some uncontrolled instabilities in the fuel supply 268 during the last test.

269 To avoid the effect of the different flue gas flowrates, emissions are 270 usually compared in normalized units (mg  $MJ<sup>-1</sup>$ ). The reason relies on the

271 different % $O_2$  contents that can be supplied with the gas mixture  $O_2/CO_2$  as 272 explained before. On the contrary to air combustion (fixed  $21\%$  O<sub>2</sub>), oxy-273 combustion can be conducted with enriched  $O_2$  concentrations. The rising of 274 the  $O_2$  concentration means a decrease of the supplied  $O_2/CO_2$  total flowrate 275 —for the same stoichiometric ratio, i.e. oxygen excess— and consequently a 276 decrease of the flue gases flowrate.

277 If comparison is therefore done in normalized units (mg  $MJ<sup>-1</sup>$ ), then oxy-278 fired test OXY1 results in lower NO emissions than air-fired test A1 despite 279 the higher  $\%O_2$  supplied (the rest of conditions remaining the same). This 280 trend is commonly found in open literature and it is explained by the high 281 CO2 concentration in the dense phase, contributing to an increase of char 282 gasification, release of CO and subsequent NO reduction [40, 48, 49]. 283 Guedea et al. [50] estimated the effect of gasification as an increase of 284 5-15% of the initial solid conversion in comparison to air conditions, for 285 typical particle sizes in fluidized beds. Czackiert et al. [51] reported that CO 286 represented 20% of the carbon conversion in the dense zone, for similar 287 operating conditions  $O_2/CO_2$  atmosphere, temperature).

288 On the other hand, it is well known that free CaO catalyses NO 289 formation [52], but this effect was very limited during our oxy-fired tests. 290 According to the experimental values  $\sqrt{2}O_2$  and bed temperatures), the 291 tests were conducted under non-calcining conditions and then the presence 292 of CaO can be considered negligible in comparison to  $CaCO<sub>3</sub>/CaSO<sub>4</sub>$ . This is 293 not the case of the air-fired test, in which calcining conditions occurred, 294 being another cause of the higher NO emission in (normalized) comparison 295 to the test OXY1.

296 No significant influence of corn chlorine content on NO emissions can be 297 observed if test OXY1 is compared to test OXY2: doubling the chlorine 298 supplied, the NO emissions remain almost the same (for similar CO values). 299 The same can be said for the Ca:S ratio: test OXY5 shows a very small 300 reduction of NO emissions in comparison to the test OXY1 ( $Ca: S = 4$  vs. 301  $\text{Ca:}S = 2.5$ ).

## 302 3.1.2 *Chlorine concentration*

303 As explained before, gas samples were conveyed through three 304 impingers in order to detect the chlorine concentration in the gas-phase. 305 This is a useful indicator of the combined extent of sulfation and 306 aluminosilication processes taking place in the reactor, since it is 307 proportional to the HCl concentration in the gas-phase —also KCl aerosols  $308$  and  $Cl<sub>2</sub>$  can be present in the trapped samples—. Chlorine concentration in 309 the gas-phase (see Table 2) can be qualitatively correlated to the analysis 310 carried out to the solid samples (ashes and deposits).

311 Chlorine was trapped in all tests, showing almost the same value if only 312 the atmosphere is changed (air vs.  $O_2/CO_2$ ). Under oxy-firing, the observed 313 trend is the expected according to the chlorine content in the corn stover: 314 test OXY2 shows the highest value, test OXY4 shows the lowest value. The 315 reduction of the biomass in the fuel blend (10% OXY3 vs. 20% OXY1, both 316 with 1% Cl) barely diminishes the chlorine detected in the gas-phase. A 317 significant influence is nevertheless observed if OXY1 and OXY5 are 318 compared, when only Ca:S ratio was modified. Cl<sup>-</sup> concentration raises 319 almost 50%, related to an increase of aluminosilication ratios as discussed in 320 the next section.

# 321 *3.2. Solid-phase*

322 3.2.1. Bottom bed

323 Bottom bed solids collected after the tests are comprised by a mixture of 324 particles rich in calcium (sorbent), particles rich in silica (sand) and 325 particles rich in aluminosilicates (ashes). Surface composition of the three 326 types of solid particles was studied by SEM-EDX, and elemental 327 composition normalized to main elements is shown in Figure 2.





330 **Figure 2.-** Normalized composition of bottom bed solids (% mass fraction) by EDX.

331 An example of silica sand particles is shown in Figure 3.a, where it is 332 possible to see that they are covered by fine ash from extraneous and 333 inherent fuel mineral matter (Al, Fe), and fine matter from sorbent (S and 334 Ca). Small presence of potassium can be detected in some of the tests.

335 Coal ash particles are composed by Al-Si material and Ca and Fe fines, 336 Figure 3.b. No chlorine was detected in the bottom bed ashes during the 337 whole campaign. This was expectable, due to the high volatility of KCl. 338 Some sulfur was self-retained by the ashes, linked to Ca and Fe.

339 Particles rich in calcium and sulfur are considered partially sulfated 340 sorbent, see Figure 3.c. Surface composition in Figure 2 is not an accurate 341 indication of sulfation degree since only the external layer is analysed; 342 nevertheless, the information obtained by means of EDX indicates that fine 343 dust is covering the particles composed of aluminosilicate ash from 344 extraneous fuel mineral matter, and iron from inherent lignite mineral 345 matter as pyrite.



347 **Figure 3.-** Bed particles from test A1: (a) silica sand, (b) coal ash, (c) partially 348 sulfated sorbent.

349 The most important finding from EDX ash composition is the extent of 350 potassium presence on ash surfaces. To further study the interactions 351 between potassium and bed materials, some XRD analysis were performed 352 to bed solids collected during tests A1 and OXY1. The diffractograms are 353 shown in Figure 4.a. The most intense peak for both samples is quartz,  $354$  while the presence of sulphated sorbent as  $CaSO<sub>4</sub>$  is clear. On the other 355 hand, CaO is present in A1 solids whereas uncalcined  $CaCO<sub>3</sub>$  is present for 356 test OXY1 (as expected, due to the different desulfurization mechanism). 357 The diagrams do not identify any specie based on Fe, Al–Si nor species 358 where K would be chemically bound to aluminosilicates or silica. In fact, 359 calcination of lignite ashes in lab-scale furnace indicates that the original 360 crystalline aluminosilicate mineral matter develops into an amorphous 361 phase, since it is not detected in 850ºC ashes (Figure 4.b). In consequence, 362 EDX composition of surfaces is considered more representative than XRD to 363 the purpose of analysing interactions of different elements in coal and 364 biomass mineral matters.

365 Table 3 shows K/Si and K/Al mole ratios, in order to analyse the 366 interactions among the mineral matter. The ratios K/Si and K/Al of test A1 367 show a clear increase from those values in original coal ash, which points 368 out the incorporation of potassium in amorphous aluminosilicates. Test 369 OXY1 and OXY2 show a slight increase, whereas the increase is 370 outstanding for the cases OXY4 and OXY5 (Ca: $S = 4$ ). These results indicate 371 that for those test with high desulfurization efficiency, the reduction of  $SO_2$ 372 yields a decrease of alkali sulfation that may involve an increase of 373 potassium aluminosilication in the dense zone, according to reaction R.4.

374





377 Figure 4.- XRD analysis of: (a) bed solids from tests A1 and OXY1, (b) mineral 378 residue after lignite ashing at 450º and 850ºC.



382 **Table 3.-** Mole ratios in ashes collected from the bed bottom.

383 On the other hand, the decrease of biomass in the fuel share in test 384 OXY3 also resulted in an enhancement of potassium aluminosilication, 385 despite the larger  $SO_2$  concentration from the coal. This could seem a 386 contradiction, but there is another variable also playing a role:  $O_2$ 387 concentration. Several researchers [24, 53] have discussed that alkali 388 sulfation is limited by an intermediate reaction, the oxidation of  $SO_2$  to  $SO_3$ . 389 This is a slow reaction at typical fluidized bed temperatures and highly 390 dependent on  $O_2$  concentration [54]. Therefore, if  $O_2$  concentration 391 diminishes, retention of potassium by aluminosilicates is enhanced in 392 comparison to retention by sulfate.

393 No agglomeration issues were found during the entire experimental 394 campaign. Formation of agglomerates has been described in literature [55, 395 56] due to interactions with silica sand, but mostly when full-load is given 396 by firing biomass (or residues). Combination of  $SiO<sub>2</sub>$  from bed material and 397 low melting point of biomass ash can promote agglomeration of the solids. 398 But this effect has not been observed in our experiments, due to the low feed 399 ratio of biomass (20% on energy basis) and the high ash content of the 400 lignite (over 30%). The solids inventory in the bed is then involving a 401 different chemistry. First, there is less apportioning of biomass ashes to the 402 bed and, secondly, reactivity is modified by the significant presence of 403 aluminosilicates from the coal ashes.

#### 404 3.2.2 *Fly ash*

405 EDX composition of a representative sample of fine solids gathered from 406 the cyclone is shown in Table 4 for tests A1, OXY1, OXY2 and OXY5 (on-407 load extraction was not possible during tests OXY3 and OXY4 due to 408 operational constrain). They are a mixture of Al-Si fly ashes,  $CaSO<sub>4</sub>$  sorbent 409 particles elutriated form the reactor, and an important presence of iron.

410





#### Table 4.- Elemental mass fractions (%) by EDX.

412

413 SEM images of fly ashes from OXY1 and OXY5 tests are shown in 414 Figure 5.a. and 5.b. It is possible to see the mixture of different types of 415 solids, where the presence of 20 to 30  $\mu$ m spheres is clearly seen. EDX 416 composition of the spheres determined their composition as iron oxide; their 417 spherical shape indicates that the iron particles from inherent pyrite 418 originally had a molten state, which corresponds to FeO–FeS eutectic 419 identified in oxy-combustion of coal [57]. Similar iron morphology is found in 420 OXY1 bottom bed ashes, as shown in Figure 5.c.

421



422



426 Table 5 shows the calculation of K/Si and K/Al indexes according to the 427 ash composition. For test A1 fly ash, the indexes show similar values than 428 those found in bed particles. For the fly ash in oxy-combustion experiments, 429 the trend is opposite to the bottom bed solids, since lower aluminosilication 430 ratios are detected for the test OXY5 in comparison to OXY1. This is 431 meaningful, since the potassium retained in the bed zone is not available 432 beyond the splash zone. The amount of potassium found in fly ash in tests 433 OXY1 and OXY2 can be related to the presence of condensed  $K_2SO_4$  onto the 434 elutriated particles.





436

437 **Table 5.-** Element ratios in fly ashes collected from the cyclone.

438

# 439 *3.3. Deposits*

440 Some fuel-related indexes, based on empirical experiences, are widely 441 used to predict the risk of deposition of alkali chlorides onto the heat 442 transfer surfaces in combustion systems. The first index relates the sulfur 443 and chlorine contents, S/Cl. Values over 4 are considered adequate, since 444 alkalis can be sulfated and then chlorine is released to the gas-phase as HCl 445 [21]. In the case of a fluidized bed reactor, this index has to be calculated 446 taking into account that sorbent is usually added, and then sulfur 447 availability is reduced. In our case, a modified S\*/Cl index has been 448 calculated, taking into account the desulfurization efficiencies reported in 449 Table 2. The second index relates the silicon and aluminium contents to the

450 sodium and potassium contents,  $(Si + Al) / (Na + K)$ . Values over 10 are 451 considered promoting potassium aluminosilication, thus avoiding the alkali 452 chloride deposition [58, 59]. Table 6 summarizes the values of these indexes 453 for the combination of fuels and compositions used during the tests, as well 454 as the deposition rate observed in the probe inserted in the reactor. 455 According to the numbers in Table 6, no chlorine should be expected in the 456 deposits, even for the test OXY2 with the highest chlorine content.

- 457
- 458





459 **Table 6.-** Fuel-related indexes and deposition rates observed.

460

461 No deposit was found on the coupon in test A1. Deposits on the probe 462 after the tests OXY1, OXY2 and OXY4 were analysed by SEM-EDX as 463 representative of the three different initial corn compositions (Table 7). The 464 surface analysis confirmed the absence of chlorine. Provided that Fe from 465 coupon surface could overlap Fe content in deposits, elemental composition 466 values were normalized to Al, Si, S, K and Ca.

467



468 **Table 7.-** EDX normalized composition (% mass fraction) of deposits from 469 tests OXY1, OXY2 and OXY4.

470 Deposits in test OXY1 are comprised by a mixture of  $K_2SO_4$  and  $CaSO_4$ 471 along with some aluminosilicate fines. Morphology of deposit is shown in 472 Figure 6.a, where it is also possible to identify small spheres of iron. For test 473 OXY2 (2% chlorine in the corn, the most fouled case), the presence of  $K_2SO_4$ 474 is clearly detected. Crystals of potassium sulfate can be easily seen in 475 Figure 6.b. No molten deposits were detected. For test OXY4 (0.35% chlorine 476 in the corn), potassium sulfate is less relevant and aluminosilicates are the 477 major constituent. These results are fully consistent with the chlorine 478 contents in the fuel and the Ca:S ratios supplied during the experiments.



480

479

481 **Figure 6.-** SEM images of deposits: a) test OXY1, b) test OXY2.

482

483 **4. Conclusions** 

484 SO<sub>2</sub> capture efficiency is affected not only by the  $O_2/CO_2$  atmosphere, 485 but also by the chlorine content supplied with the biomass. As concerns NO 486 emissions, no relevant biomass-related influences are detected for the 487 conditions tested.

488 Significant potassium contents in the bottom bed ashes have been found 489 linked to amorphous aluminosilicates, especially for the oxy-fired tests with 490 higher desulfurization efficiencies. As concerns fly ash composition, the 491 presence of potassium is related to condensation of alkali sulfates on the 492 solid surfaces. Oxy-firing largely increases the iron found in ash.

493 In relation to the deposits on the probe, no chlorine was detected even 494 for the test with the largest deposition rates. The presence of  $K_2SO_4$  in 495 deposits has shown a consistent relation to the KCl content supplied with 496 the fuel.

497 The observed results can be representative for large-scale fluidized bed 498 boilers. Despite the differences in fluid dynamics, most of the phenomena 499 addressed in our lab-scale research are related to the chemical conversions 500 in the dense zone, and then comparative trends are meaningful.

501

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508

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