



**ENVIRONMENTAL AND ECONOMIC ASSESSMENT OF
CARBON CAPTURE AND UTILIZATION AT COAL-FIRED
POWER PLANT IN THAILAND**

BY

SHWE YI WIN

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF
ENGINEERING (ENGINEERING TECHNOLOGY)
SIRINDHORN INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY
THAMMASAT UNIVERSITY
ACADEMIC YEAR 2021**

COPYRIGHT OF THAMMASAT UNIVERSITY

THAMMASAT UNIVERSITY
SIRINDHORN INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

THESIS

BY

SHWE YI WIN

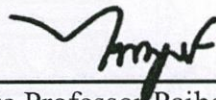
ENTITLED

ENVIRONMENTAL AND ECONOMIC ASSESSMENT OF CARBON CAPTURE AND
UTILIZATION AT COAL-FIRED POWER PLANT IN THAILAND

was approved as partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the degree of Master of Engineering (Engineering Technology)

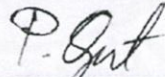
on June 8, 2022

Chairperson



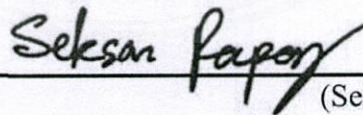
(Associate Professor Paiboon Sreearunothai, Ph.D.)

Member and Advisor



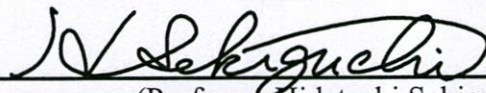
(Associate Professor Pakorn Opaprakasit, Ph.D.)

Member and Co-advisor



(Seksan Papong, Ph.D.)

Member



(Professor Hidetoshi Sekiguchi, Ph.D.)

Director



(Professor Pruettha Nanakorn, D.Eng.)

Thesis Title	ENVIRONMENTAL AND ECONOMIC ASSESSMENT OF CARBON CAPTURE AND UTILIZATION AT COAL-FIRED POWER PLANT IN THAILAND
Author	Shwe Yi Win
Degree	Master of Engineering (Engineering Technology)
Faculty/University	Sirindhorn International Institute of Technology/ Thammasat University
Thesis Advisor	Associate Professor Pakorn Opaprakasit, Ph.D.
Thesis Co-Advisor	Seksan Papong, Ph.D.
Academic Years	2021

ABSTRACT

Greenhouse gas reduction from large point sources has been of interest for global warming mitigation. Coal-fired power plants with carbon capture and utilization (CCU) technology can minimize carbon emissions. In this study, Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) methodology is applied to evaluate the potential environmental risks of capturing carbon dioxide at the coal-fired power plant in Thailand and utilizing it in alternative methanol (CO₂_MeOH) and formic acid (CO₂_FA) productions through direct CO₂ hydrogenation. The study aims to achieve low carbon growth and sustainable development success in Thailand. According to the analyses, the negative carbon feedstock provides larger decarbonization in the CO₂-based productions than the conventional productions (i.e., -862 vs. 712 kgCO₂-eq in a ton of MeOH production while 1.96E3 vs. 4.11E3 kgCO₂-eq in a ton of FA production). Despite the net negative carbon emissions, CO₂_MeOH production can rise 6 out of 8 investigated environmental impact indicators, when 2 out of those would increase in CO₂_FA production. The maximum impact scores as a result of the energy demand of the carbon capture can be reduced by integrating the waste heat recovery from the carbon removal process. Consequently, the higher impacts would

be 4 out of 8 indicators in the CO₂_MeOH production, whereas the CO₂_FA production remains the same pattern.

Furthermore, the investment costs of CCU projects are estimated on a unit price basis to strengthen an economy with a clean energy transition. The findings revealed that the process with the waste heat integration could decrease not only the related environmental risks but also the investment cost. However, total production costs (1227 \$/tCO₂_MeOH & 1044 \$/tCO₂_FA) are still expensive to compete with the conventional production prices (295-368 \$/tMeOH & 546 \$/tFA) and the current global market prices (750 \$/tMeOH & 500-800 \$/tFA), that could be lowered if low electricity cost was available. Selling by-product oxygen from CO₂_MeOH production and cheaper catalysts from local or global market can reduce the total production cost.

Keywords: LCA, Economic assessment, Carbon capture and utilization (CCU), Methanol, Formic Acid

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I may describe my honest gratitude to the academic university advisor, Associate Professor Dr. Pakorn Opaprakasit, who taught and always helped me whenever I faced difficulties during staying in Thailand. I would like to thank the co-advisor, Dr. Seksan Pamong (TIIS, MTEC), National Science and Technology Development Agency (NSTDA), who gave me advice for this research and shared LCA knowledge.

Secondly, I want to give my gratitude to Professor Hidetoshi Sekiguchi, Tokyo Institute of Technology, for allowing me to study for this TAIST-Tokyo Tech Scholarship and was always willing to help and teach me despite being busy. Moreover, I am grateful to all my idol professors and teachers from the Tokyo Institute of Technology who trained and taught me priceless knowledge and experiences online during my first academic year that greatly supported this research.

Again, I would like to thank the “TAIST-Tokyo Tech Scholarship” for providing me with the scholarship to study for my Master’s degree at Sirindhorn International Institute of Technology, Thammasat University, as well as Ms. Palm and the TAIST-Tokyo Tech staff who helped me to learn without any difficulty.

Furthermore, I would like to acknowledge the professors and teachers from Sirindhorn International Institute of Technology (SIIT) and Kasetsart University (KU) who taught and shared the valuable guidance and experience for my knowledge during the online learning period, and all other people who deserve to show my gratitude.

Last but not least, I admire the dedication of my parents, sisters, and brother, who sustain me with physical and mental needs while doing research in Thailand.

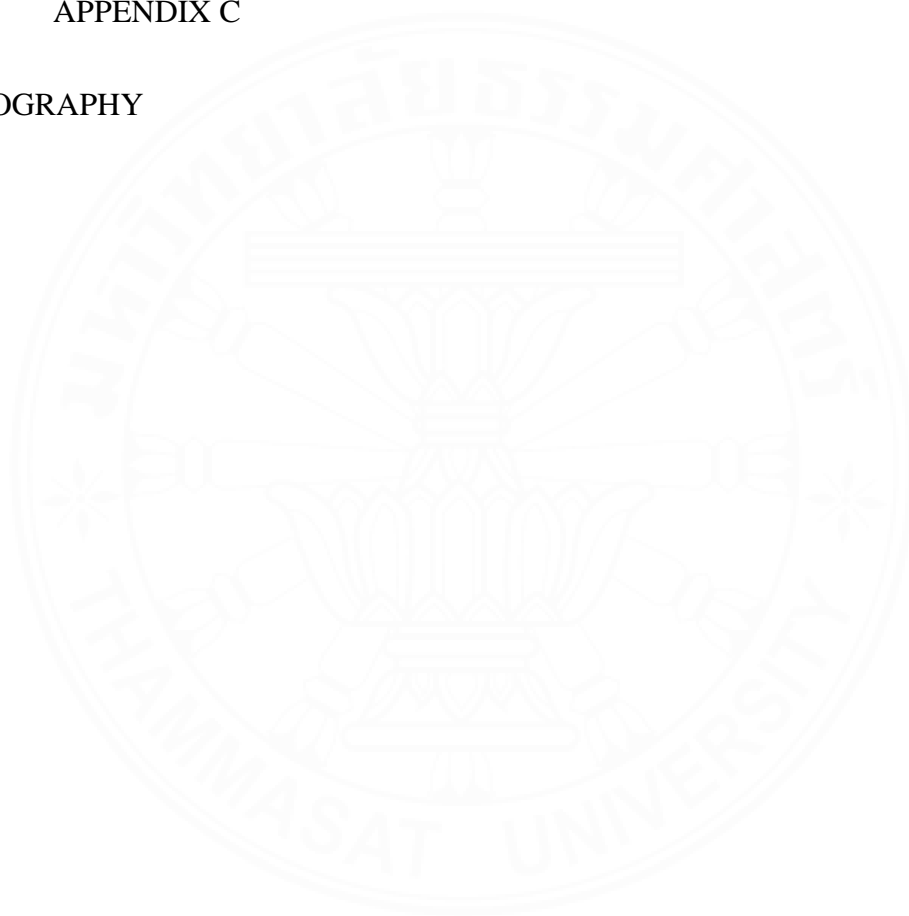
Shwe Yi Win

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	(1)
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	(3)
LIST OF TABLES	(7)
LIST OF FIGURES	(8)
LIST OF SYMBOLS/ABBREVIATIONS	(9)
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the study	1
1.2 Statement of problem	3
1.3 Objectives and scopes	3
1.4 Significance of studies	4
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW	5
2.1 Carbon capture technology emerging	5
2.2 Global Warming Potential (GWP) or Greenhouse gases (GHGs) reduction in the carbon capture process	5
2.3 Human Toxicity Potential (HTP)/ Human Health Impact in the carbon capture process	7
2.4 Captured CO ₂ Utilization (CCU) Processes	8
2.5 Financial evaluation of CCU Projects	13
2.5.1 Electricity prices and the CO ₂ avoided costs	13
2.5.2 Production cost analysis of CCU processes	13
CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY AND MATERIALS	18
3.1 Life Cycle Assessment (LCA)	18

	(5)
3.1.1 Goal and scope	18
3.1.2 Life Cycle Inventory (LCI) analysis	19
3.1.3 Life Cycle Impact Assessment (LCIA)	20
3.1.4 Life Cycle Interpretation	20
3.2 Economic Analysis	20
3.3 Carbon capture technology	23
3.3.1 Energy demand	26
3.3.2 CO ₂ compression and transportation to CCU plant	27
3.4 CCU (CO ₂ _MeOH & CO ₂ _FA) Plants	28
3.4.1 Hydrogen productions for CO ₂ -based Methanol and Formic Acid products	29
3.4.2 Methanol production from CO ₂ hydrogenation	30
3.4.3 Formic acid production from CO ₂ hydrogenation	31
CHAPTER 4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	35
4.1 General LCI data assumptions and limitations	35
4.1.1 Global Warming (GW)	36
4.1.2 Terrestrial Acidification (TA)	37
4.1.3 Freshwater Eutrophication (FWEu)	37
4.1.4 Human non-carcinogenic toxicity (HnCT), Human carcinogenic toxicity (HCT)	38
4.1.5 Fine Particulate Matter Formation (FPMF)	38
4.1.6 Mineral Resource Scarcity (MRS), Fossil Resource Scarcity (FRS)	39
4.1.7 Sensitivity analysis	42
4.2 Economic analysis results	44
CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	51
5.1 Conclusions	51
5.2 Recommendations or Solutions	52
5.3 Policy suggestion	52
CHAPTER 6 RESEARCH TIMEFRAME	54

	(6)
CHAPTER 7 COMMENTS AND REVIEWS ON THESIS	55
REFERENCES	65
APPENDICES	70
APPENDIX A	71
APPENDIX B	73
APPENDIX C	76
BIOGRAPHY	79



LIST OF TABLES

Tables	Page
1.1 Impact assessment boundary	4
2.1 CO ₂ utilization amount and GWP reduction in each CCU process	12
2.2 Ranges of electricity price and CO ₂ avoided cost	13
2.3 Various production prices without or with CO ₂	17
3.1 Main performance parameters of ultra-supercritical (USC) power plant and energy requirement of CO ₂ capture system	24
3.2 Main performance parameters of CO ₂ capture system	25
3.3 Main performance parameters of CO ₂ compression and transportation	25
3.4 Consumptions in 1 ton CO ₂ capture	26
3.5 LCI data for MEA (1 kg) production	27
3.6 LCI data for 1 ton CO ₂ capture infrastructure	27
3.7 LCI data for 1 ton CO ₂ compressor infrastructure	28
3.8 LCI data of 1 ton CO ₂ onshore pipeline transport infrastructure	28
3.9 LCI data for 1 kg of Hydrogen (H ₂) production via water electrolysis technology	29
3.10 LCI data assumption for 1 ton methanol (MeOH) production	31
3.11 LCI data assumption for 1 ton formic acid (FA) production	32
3.12 LCI data for 1 ton of alternative productions	33
3.13 LCI data for 1 ton of the conventional productions	34
4.1 Analysis results of 1 ton of alternative Methanol production	40
4.2 Analysis results of 1 ton of alternative Formic Acid production	40
4.3 CO ₂ capture cost comparison to the existing pulverized-coal power plants	45
4.4 Levelized cost of production (LCOP) of CCU products	47
4.5 Methanol production cost comparison	47
4.6 Formic Acid production cost comparison	47
4.7 Production prices with the waste heat recovery of carbon capture	48
5.1 Research timeframe	54

LIST OF FIGURES

Figures	Page
1.1 Lignite production and consumption in Thailand	2
3.1 Conceptual system boundary of Mae Moh lignite burned power plant with CCU process	19
4.1 Impact assessment result of 1 ton CO ₂ capture	41
4.2 Impact assessment comparison between the two types of methanol production	41
4.3 Impact assessment comparisons between the two types of formic acid Production	41
4.4 Sensitivity analysis of (0% to 100%) heat compensation by integrating waste heat recovery in 1 ton of CO ₂ _MeOH and CO ₂ _FA productions (In terms of impact scores reduction)	43
4.5 Sensitivity analysis of (0% to 100%) heat compensation by integrating waste heat recovery in 1 ton of CO ₂ _MeOH and CO ₂ _FA productions (In terms of impact reduction percentage)	43
4.6 Sample figure of MEA-based carbon capture process with waste heat recovery in a coal power plant	44
4.7 Carbon-based Methanol and Formic Acid total production cost breakdown	48
4.8 Sensitivity analysis of electricity price variation on the LCOP of carbon-based products	49

LIST OF SYMBOLS/ABBREVIATIONS

Symbols/Abbreviations	Terms
CCS	Carbon Capture and Storage
CCU	Carbon Capture and Utilization
ASEAN	The Association of Southeast Asian Nations
EGAT	Electricity Generating Authority of Thailand
tCO ₂ e	ton of carbon dioxide equivalent
GHG _s	Greenhouse gases
USC	Ultra-supercritical
NETL	National Energy Technology Laboratory
COP-26	The UN Climate Change Conference
FGD	Flue Gas Desulphurization
SCR	Selective Catalytic Reduction
ESP	Electrostatic Precipitator
MEA	Monoethanol Amine
IGCC	Integrated Gasification Combined Cycles
PC	Pulverized Coal
GWP	Global Warming Potential
MDEA	Methyl Di-ethanol Amine
HTP	Human Toxicity Potential
kg 1,4 DCB eq	Kilogram 1,4-Dichlorobenzene-equivalent
USC PC	Ultra-Supercritical Pulverized coal
SC PC	Super-Critical Pulverized coal
KS-1 TM	Hindered amine
CaCO ₃	Calcium Carbonate
Ru-Ph	Ruthenium-Phosphino
LCA	Life Cycle Assessment
LCI	Life Cycle Inventory
LCIA	Life Cycle Impact Assessment
CO ₂ _MeOH	CO ₂ -based Methanol
CO ₂ _FA	CO ₂ -based Formic Acid
AOX	Adsorbable Organic Halogen
COD	Chemical Oxygen Demand
BOD	Biological Oxygen Demand
TOC	Total Organic Carbon
DOC	Dissolved Organic Carbon
GW	Global Warming
TA	Terrestrial Acidification
FWEu	Freshwater Eutrophication
HCT	Human Carcinogenic Toxicity

HnCT	Human non-Carcinogenic Toxicity
FPMF	Fine Particulate Matter Formation
MRS	Mineral Resource Scarcity
FRS	Fossil Resource Scarcity
CEPCI	Chemical Engineering Plant Cost Index
EPCC	Engineering, construction management, home office and fees
TPC	Total Plant Cost
BEC	Bare Erected Cost
TOC	Total Overnight Cost
CAPEX	Capital Expenditure
OPEX	Operating Expenditure
Fixed O & M	Fixed operating and maintenance
Var O & M	Variable operating and maintenance
CBM	Cost of bare model
COE	Cost of Electricity
LCOP	Levelized Cost of Production
CRF	Capital Recovery Factor
GJ	Giga joule
MPa	Mega Pascal
SMR	Steam Methane Reforming
ELCD	European reference Life Cycle Database
NaOH	Sodium hydroxide
TEG	Triethylene Glycol
USLCI	U.S Life Cycle Inventory
NHeX ₃ / C ₁₈ H ₃₉ N	tertiary amine or trihexyl amine
IPCC	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Electricity generation from coal burned power plants has been relying on the world to meet the energy demand due to its stable supply and the remaining coal reserves in other nations such as China. Coal-fired power plants, however, are identified as a severe threat to the environment and human beings due to the massive pollutant emissions, mainly from the power plant operation. In the process of daily power production, carbon dioxide (CO₂), toxic gases (e.g., SO₂, NO_x), particulate matters (PM, sometimes called “soot”), volatile organic compounds (VOCs), and other chemical substances directly or indirectly spread into the atmosphere, soil and water by burning fuel in coal-fired power plants through chemical reactions that cause environmental degradation, as well as detrimental health problems to the living things including humans in a variety of ways. Carbon dioxide, among those various pollutants, is regarded as the most serious concern because of the most considerable contribution to the greenhouse effect leading to environmental consequences such as global warming. The concentration of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere will rise gradually without effective emission reduction strategies. At the same time, the world nations have been striving to limit global warming within 1.5°C set out in the Paris Agreement, 2015 to avoid further devastating effects of climate change. Curbing the enormous amount of carbon emission from large point sources such as power generation and industrial plants (i.e., steel, iron, cement, and ammonia productions) through carbon capture technology is a great solution to cope with the global warming. At present, CO₂ capture and utilization (CCU) technology helps to minimize the doubling step of carbon release; on the one hand, it has challenges of higher energy penalty and increasing material and fuel consumption that can maximize not only the scores of environmental impacts but also total capital costs compared to the conventional productions.

Thailand is a developing country among ASEAN members in Southeast Asia. Electricity production plays a vital role in all-around development and coal-fired power plants are essential for enough electricity supply, especially in the northern part

of Thailand. As the outcome of the available coal source from the Mae Moh lignite mine-mouth mining area, coal burned power plants have been running for electricity distribution. According to the energy statistics of the Ministry of Energy, as the whole kingdom, total electricity consumption had risen to 187,046 GWh in 2020 compared to 149,301 GWh in 2010. However, the production and consumption of lignite can be reduced from 17,785,747 tons and 17,843,097 tons in 2010 to 13,250,574 tons and 13,437,692 tons in 2020, all of the lignite production came from the Electricity Generating Authority of Thailand (EGAT) (Energy Policy and Planning Office (EPPO), 2021).

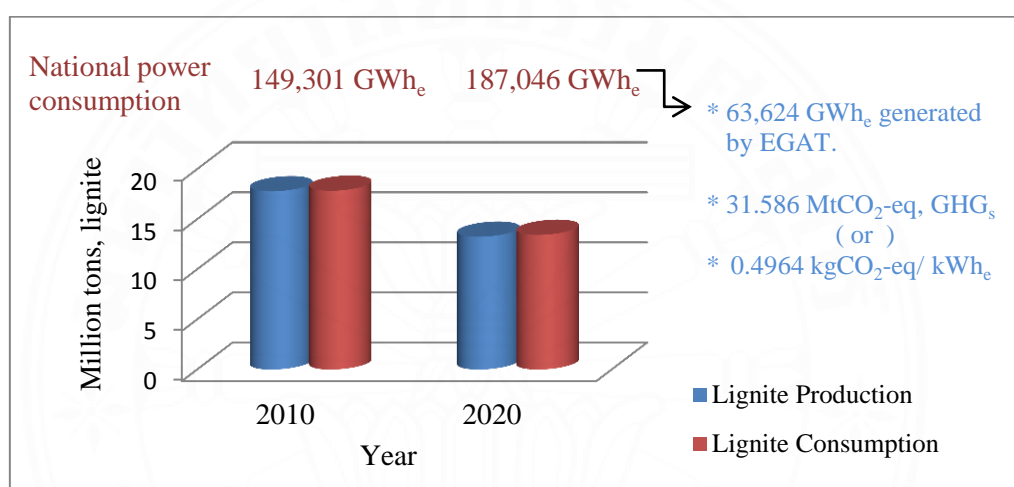


Figure 1.1 Lignite production and consumption in Thailand

EGAT, the large state-owned power enterprise, has taken responsibility for electricity production and transmission to the length and breadth of the nation. It is a large-scale electricity enterprise owned 52 power plants with a total installed capacity of 16,037.32 MW (35.26% of total contracted capacity, 45,480.37 MW), of which 2,220 MW (4.88%) were from Mae Moh lignite power plant (EGAT Sustainability Report (2020)). In 2020, EGAT generated up to 63,624,302 MWh net electricity and released 31,586,257.97 tCO₂-eq of GHG_s, corresponding to the emission intensity of 0.4964 kgCO₂-eq per kWh electricity generated that was the reduction of GHG_s emissions up to 8,758,780 tCO₂-eq exceeding 4,000,000 tCO₂-eq abatement mission (EGAT Sustainability Report (2020)). Meanwhile, Thailand is making an effort to minimize much more GHGs by preparing its climate change act relevant to the country and EGAT is collaborating together with it.

Thailand's Climate Change Master Plan (2015–2050) is aimed to assist the sustainable development goal of Thailand, low carbon growth, and climate change resilience by 2050, by following the plans: (i) building climate resilience by integrating policies and measures in all sectors, (ii) creating mechanisms to reduce GHG emissions, leading to sustainable low carbon growth, (iii) building readiness of master plan implementation by enhancing potential and awareness of stakeholders, and (iv) developing a database, knowledge, and technology to support climate change adaptation and mitigation (Misila, Winyuchakrit, & Limmeechokchai, 2020). As long as larger pollutant emission fuel resources are burned for electricity generation, carbon abatement plans and technology will be required to avoid intense environmental impacts and related human health problems.

1.2 Statement of problem

Carbon capture and storage (CCS) or utilization (CCU) technology is an effective strategy to eliminate the GHGs accumulation, transform into the net-zero transition targets, and mitigate and adapt to climate change. However, the utilization of the captured CO₂ is not completely secure, safe, and efficient like other advanced technologies as it has other environmental consequences such as acidification, eutrophication, human toxicity, more or less on nature and human health. Life-cycle assessment (LCA) is an appropriate tool for finding out and reviewing those potential environmental risks, partly or wholly from the entire process but unsuitable for long-term aspects integration (Petra Zappa, 2012).

1.3 Objectives and scopes

The major objectives of this study are:

- (1) To evaluate the potential environmental risks of the CCU plants for alternative methanol and formic acid productions through direct CO₂ hydrogenation technology compared to the conventional productions. Carbon dioxide is assumed to be captured from the current existing 655 MW capacity, Ultra-Supercritical (USC) boiler of Mae Moh coal-fired power plant in Thailand.

(2) To analyze the cost-benefit estimations of the CO₂ capture process and CO₂-based products.

The total budgets of all plants are estimated using similar NETL methods (Battaglia, Buffo, Ferrero, Santarelli, & Lanzini, 2021; Vincent Chou, 2016). The main impact boundary assumption of this study is summarized in Table 1.1:

Table 1.1 Impact assessment boundary

Process	CO ₂ capture	CCU	Remark
Raw material (without fuel) and energy production, transportation and consumption	Yes ^(a)	Yes ^(b)	Energy from Mae Moh plant & MEA ^(a) , CO ₂ & H ₂ ^(b)
Transportation (Via Pipeline)	Yes ^(c)	No	CO ₂ ^(c)
Plant construction and dismantling	Yes	Yes	Include in Infrastructure
Process operation	Yes	Yes	
End usage	Yes ^(d)	No	Methanol & Formic Acid productions ^(d)

1.4 Significance of study

CCU technology is targeted to minimize the double-steps of CO₂ emissions from the CO₂ capture process to carbon utilization plants by substituting the conventional products in the market with the CO₂-based high-value commercial products, which can create a win-win situation between the environment and the human beings for economic benefits. Although this kind of technology provides better environmental performance, especially GHG_s savings, it has the consequences and trade-offs such as intensive material and energy demand that can raise the questions of associated environmental impact changes and higher production costs that are conducted in this study. The results are aimed to use for future technological developments in the same research field, to minimize or avoid the adverse environmental impacts, to emerge and strengthen a carbon-based product market with lower production costs in the near future, as well as to make the right decision when applying coal burned power plant with CCU.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Carbon capture technology emerging

To substantially curb or combat the effects of global warming and environmental crisis, deploying carbon capture technology is one of the best solutions. Sustainable development goals (SDGs), COP-26, Net Zero targets by 2050, and the Paris Agreement are marching toward carbon neutrality with active and innovative collaborations from both private and industrial sectors worldwide. Emerging CCU technology in the industrial and energy roles helps immense decarbonization. Applying the carbon capture system to power generation plants can reduce our serious concerns rather than the traditional power production method despite a challenging solution due to its trade-offs that are needed to solve gradually through the research and development (R & D) findings. To achieve a carbon clean world, every country will need to participate with the same effort relevant to their country's standards; simultaneously, equitable access to all affordable carbon abatement technology is required to create at pace for long-term sustainability.

2.2 Global Warming Potential (GWP) or Greenhouse Gases (GHG_s) reduction in the carbon capture process

In a carbon capture scenario, the CO₂ capture efficiency and GHG_s reduction vary depending on the power plant type, boiler type, and capture system. Deploying carbon capture technology to coal burned power plants can minimize the CO₂ emissions on average by 90% from power generation process which reduced the global warming potential (GWP) to 71-80% in the Post-combustion system, 76-86% in the Oxy-fuel combustion system and 78-86% in the Pre-combustion system based on the kind of capture solvent when compared to the power plant without carbon capture process (Koornneef, van Keulen, Faaij, & Turkenburg, 2008; Odeh & Cockerill, 2008; Singh, Strømman, & Hertwich, 2011; Tang, Yokoyama, Kubota, & Shimota, 2014; Zhou et al., 2014). However, applying the carbon capture process to power plants increased coal use from 15% to 30% on a gram per kilo watt hours fundamental unit (Odeh & Cockerill, 2008) that contributed to an increase in the total

GHG emissions from 3.3% to 10.7% in the pre-combustion system, 25.5% in the post combustion, and 39% in the oxy-fuel combustion respectively (Zhou et al., 2014). Due to the carbon capture scenario, pulverized coal (PC) power plant increased coal use 24-40%, while 14-25% in the Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle (IGCC) plant (Metz, 2005). The average GWP of a normal power generation plant is 876 kg CO₂eq./MWh in PC plant type, while 1009 kg CO₂eq./MWh in IGCC type (Rosa M. Cue´llar-Franca, 2015). When the power plant is installed carbon capture system, the GWP value per MWh unit basis was 203 kg CO₂eq. (post combustion with MEA) and 154 kg CO₂eq. (oxy-fuel combustion) in PC plant; whereas 190 kg CO₂eq. (pre-combustion) and 200 kg CO₂eq. (oxy-fuel combustion) in IGCC plant (Rosa M. Cue´llar-Franca, 2015).

Almost all of the GWP impact in a traditional power plant without CO₂ capture mainly came from plant operation, followed by coal mining, productions of ammonia and the limestone involved in the Selective Catalytic Reduction (SCR) and Flue Gas Desulphurization (FGD); while in a power plant with Methyl Di-ethanol Amine (MDEA) or Calcium Looping (CaL) or ammonia based carbon capture case, the majority of GWP contribution were from coal mining followed by power generation process, CO₂ transport & storage, MDEA production or aqueous ammonia for the SCR process, and CO₂ pipelines commissioning (Petrescu, Bonalumi, Valenti, Cormos, & Cormos, 2017). The impacts of materials production, infrastructures, decommissioning, CO₂ storage leakage and transportation are insignificant because those impacts are minimal when compared to the power generation and the carbon capture scenarios.

Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle (IGCC) power plant (45.9% net electrical efficiency) with Calcium looping or Chemical looping capture process resulted in higher CO₂ capture efficiency: 91.56% or 99.45% (Petrescu & Cormos, 2017), while in the pulverized coal (PC) power plant, the capture efficiency was 90.49% with amine-based MDEA, 85% with aqueous ammonia and 92.66% with calcium looping (Petrescu et al., 2017). When choosing the IGCC plant, the efficiency of the GWP reduction was higher than the PC plant; as a result, consequent hazards were lower. As the disadvantage, the IGCC plant with a pre-combustion system

occupied greater material requirement that was 1.5 times higher than the same demand of the oxy-fuel or post combustion in the PC plant (Wu Yujia, 2014).

For larger carbon removal efficiency and the effective impact reduction, not only carbon capture process but also additional co-capture or pollutants removal systems such as Selective Catalytic Reduction (SCR), Electrostatic Precipitator (ESP), and Flue Gas Desulphurization (FGD) installed in the power plant can remove the discharges of CO₂, NO_x, PM, SO₂ and so on (Koornneef et al., 2008; Zhou et al., 2014). Unless FGD was installed prior to carbon capturing, duplex total carbon dioxide emissions could increase (Odeh & Cockerill, 2008).

2.3 Human Toxicity Potential (HTP) / Human Health Impact in the carbon capture process

In all IGCC and PC coal-fired power plants, HTP impact due to infrastructure requirements accounted for 43% in the pre-capture, 27% in the post-capture, and 26% in oxyfuel-capture compared to no-capture case (Singh et al., 2011). The majority of its impact came directly from power plant emissions.

Before the carbon capture system, particulate matters (PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, and secondary PM), VOCs, the heavy metals, and different inorganic emissions from plant operation can be reduced by the pollutant removal methods such as ESP, FGD, and SCR without discharge into the air; consequently, air related impact and human health would be decreased too. If the wastes with bottom ash from the power plant were piled up into the landfill, the land impact can rise, then gradually cause higher the aquatic human toxicity potential come from the groundwater leakage (Zhou et al., 2014). In comparison with the traditional power production scenario, the plant with the pre-, post-, or oxy-fuel- combustion decreased HTP and human health impacts related to an air source; in addition, the pre-combustion system was mostly lower than post- and oxy-fuel combustions in HTP (carcinogenic and non-carcinogenic) affected by air, soil, and water except for slightly bigger than the oxy-fuel combustion in HTP (carcinogenic) affected by soil (Zhou et al., 2014).

The HTP score of Ultra-Supercritical, pulverized coal (USC PC) plant showed a decrease compared to that of Supercritical, pulverized coal (SC PC) plant thanks to both generating and capture efficiency improvements; however, USC PC plants

applying MEA-based carbon capture system indicated the significant higher HTP score than the cases without capture (i.e., 54% than SC PC and 181% than USC PC) because of MEA production (51% of total HTP score) and consumption in the carbon capture scenario (Koornneef et al., 2008) and also the MEA hazardous waste and heavy metal emission in water (Odeh & Cockerill, 2008).

In summary, dangerous pollutants such as particulate matter, SO₂, and NO_x can be alleviated by installing pollutant control technologies such as SCR, FGD, and ESP. Furthermore, deploying CO₂ capture to coal-fired power plant can reduce CO₂ emissions so as not to increase GHGs into the atmosphere. It can be proved from the above literature findings that the IGCC plant with carbon capture system occupies the higher capture efficiency with lesser global warming impact compared to the PC plant with the capture process, but its material demand is more than the PC. However, on the other hand, PC plants with MEA solvent need more advanced investigation in the future because most of the impact categories, especially HTP, come from the MEA process rather than power plant operation and the cause of higher energy demand together with more coal and material consumptions for capture system. It is suggested that the increasing amount of emissions from MEA production and consumption can be limited by lowering acid gases in the additional pollutant removal systems before carbon capturing or by using NaOH to reclaim some of the MEA solvent (Koornneef et al., 2008).

2.4 Captured CO₂ Utilization (CCU) Processes

After capturing CO₂ from the different power plants or processes, it can be utilized to produce various carbon-based value-added products on an industrial scale that can substitute the conventional products.

All CO₂ valorization products lower GWP either by the process itself or by comparing with the conventional production as shown in table 2.1; however, there were more or less other environmental impacts increases depending on each CCU process. Firstly, carbon-based polyol production decreased all investigated environmental impacts; the more the CO₂ content (maximum, 30%wt) in the polyol synthesis, the larger the impacts reduction, but it can utilize the smallest amount of CO₂ among all compared carbon-containing products (Niklas von der Assen, 2014).

Similar to the polyol production, if CO₂ content in the carbon-containing rubber product becomes higher, 1.1-2.49 kg CO₂eq per functional unit product of GWP reduction would be achieved despite being not a GHG sink process; in contrast, it can raise other impact categories such as freshwater eutrophication and ionization radiation (Raoul Meys, 2019).

CO₂-based formic acid production gave lower scores in 16 out of 18 observed impact categories except for slight increases in water depletion and ozone depletion compared to the conventional one (Yuchan Ahn & Han, 2019). In the investigated research, by changing the water electrolysis process such as hydrogen cracking, or reformer for hydrogen production in the place of current membrane cell electrolysis, climate change (GWP) and fossil depletion impacts can be minimized significantly. More than that, the best solution is to use the wood chip for process heat requirement and/or hydropower for electricity demand to produce the desired product with the least impact.

Regardless of being higher in the impact categories such as the total resource use (Wieland Hoppe, 2017), cumulative energy demand, acidification potential, eutrophication potential, and ozone depletion potential (Marian Rosental, 2020), the greater the CO₂ utilization amount in the methane and methanol productions gave an advantage of negative GWP values among all compared CO₂ source plants (Wieland Hoppe, 2017) that is due to the negative carbon uptake and also the negligence to the effects of heat because the required heat for carbon capture was assumed to be recovered from each synthesis process and/or the carbon source plant. The thermal energy requirement with MEA-based carbon scrubbing system was 3.13 GJ per 1 ton of carbon capture; however, methanol synthesis can compensate for 1.4 GJ per 1 ton of methanol product (Marian Rosental, 2020). Unless waste heat was integrated from the carbon source plant for carbon capture, seven out of sixteen analyzed environmental indicators occupied the greatest score in the CO₂ based synthesis gas (SNG) production, and all impacts showed the positive sign (Eleonora Bargiacchi, 2020; Wieland Hoppe, 2017). To cut down more the impacts, renewable energy such as wind power was the appropriate energy source to supply electricity.

The highest GHG saving and much lower environmental impacts were available by permanently storing carbon dioxide through carbonation processes (Sara

Ghasemi, 2017), which can utilize the larger amount of CO₂. Moreover, extracting CO₂ from the underground storage to reuse as enhanced oil recovery can meet the future oil demand. Two-thirds of GWP (297.5 vs. 106.5 kgCO₂e/bbl) could be decreased; moreover, when the conventional MEA solvent was changed to KS-1TM (Hindered amine) solvent which required less solvent and energy, or potassium carbonate 30% solution with energy recovery from the base plant, the significant reduction (from 106.5 kgCO₂e/bbl to 91 kgCO₂e/bbl in KS-1TM & 58 kgCO₂e/bbl in potassium carbonate) was found due to lower energy duty (M.A. Morales Mora & Rosa-Domínguez, 2016).

An attractive CCU process at present is the CO₂-based construction materials. The larger amount of CO₂ utilization scenario provided by mineral carbonation is the production of CO₂ concrete blocks. However, the intensive energy and fuel consumptions for the required pressure and temperature increased other environmental impacts such as Acidification Potential (AP), Eutrophication Potential (EP), Human Toxicity potential (HTP), Photochemical Ozone Creation Potential (POCP), Abiotic depletion Potential (ADP), Ozone Depletion Potential (ODP) and Cumulative energy demand (CED); yet some CO₂-cured concrete blocks such as slag-portland cement (SPC) block and wollastonite-portland cement (WPC) block were still environmentally advantageous (Hao Huang, 2019). Another construction material (CaCO₃ nanoparticles) production used as cement filler compared two types of carbon capture technology (MEA & Ionic liquid (IL)) with three different CO₂ reaction scenarios (CO₂ + CaO/CaCl₂/CaCl₂ with waste heat). Due to the intensive energy consumption in the MEA process, 14 out of 16 impact categories, except for freshwater eutrophication, human toxicity with cancer effect were higher in MEA than IL (E. Batuecas 2021). When the internal waste heat (CO₂) from CaCO₃ precipitation was combined in the synthesis reaction as system optimization, the impacts were the lowest amid the compared three scenarios. In the comparison results of the CaCO₃ filled cement and the traditional cement, the first one achieved a 69% GWP reduction over the latter one and also minimized other investigated environmental impacts.

To sum up, all CCU processes enable lower CO₂ emissions from various point sources; however, the use of captured CO₂ in the limited small-scale chemical

productions does not achieve the net life cycle emission reduction despite lesser all environmental impacts. For net-zero carbon emission mitigation, the carbon sink CCU process would be more beneficial and attractive from the environmental and economic perspectives. It is to be noted that all CCU processes need to combine the waste heat released by the carbon capture process to compensate for the energy penalty of carbon capture and/or to extract the required energy from renewable energy so that all related environmental effects, including embodied carbon to be the least when considering an in-depth LCA. The question of whether CCU is an environmentally friendly solution or not depends largely on where the fuel and the resource requirements in the upstream process and the amount of energy in the production stage will be extracted, as well as the captured CO₂ would be deployed in which process.

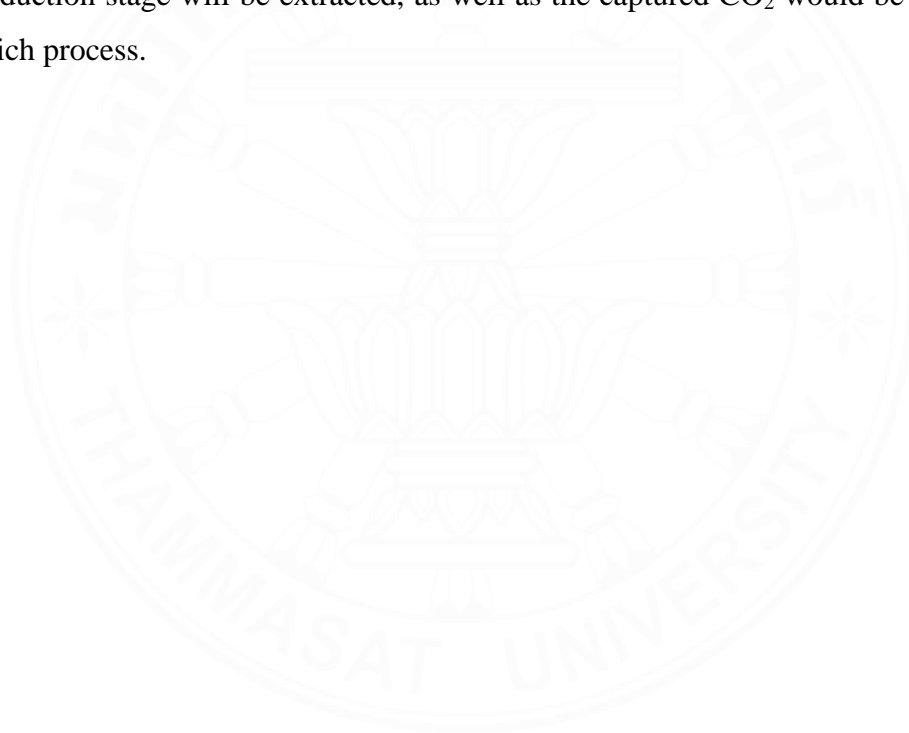


Table 2.1 CO₂ utilization amount and GWP reduction in each CCU process

Case study	CO ₂ based product/ process	Functional unit (FU)	Total CO ₂ contents per FU	GWP reduction
(Niklas von der Assen, 2014)	Polyol	1 kg	0.1 kg (10wt%)/ 0.2 kg (20wt%)/ 0.3 kg (30wt%)	1-5% (0.1kg)*/ 11-18%(0.2kg)*/ 18-30%(0.3 kg)*
(Raoul Meys, 2019)	Rubber	1 kg	0.2 kg	18-34%*
(Yuchan Ahn & Han, 2019)	Formic acid	1 kg	0.978 kg	53.6%*
(Wieland Hoppe, 2017)	Methane, Methanol, Synthesis Gas (SNG)	1 kg	2.75 kg (methane) 1.374 kg (Methanol)	negative values
(Marian Rosental, 2020)	Methanol, Ethylene, Propylene, Benzene, Toluene, Mixed Xylenes	1 ton	1441 kg (Methanol)	88-97%*
(Eleonora Bargiacchi, 2020)	Synthetic Natural Gas (SNG)	1 kg	2.69 kg	30-35%
(Sara Ghasemi, 2017)	Carbonation Product	1 MWh (608 kg CO ₂ emission)	548 kg	65-79%
(M.A. Morales Mora & Rosa-Domínguez, 2016)	Enhanced Oil Recovery (EOR)	1 barrel (bbl)	110 kg	64.2%
(Hao Huang, 2019)	Concrete blocks	1 m ³	40.9-68.5 kg	24.3-56.6%*
(E. Batuecas 2021)	CaCO ₃ nanoparticles	1 kg	0.54-2.45 kg	11.3-126.8%
	Cement		0.593 kg	69%*

* GWP reduction results compared to conventional process

2.5 Financial evaluation of CCU Projects

2.5.1 Electricity prices and the CO₂ avoided costs

The electricity prices without or with carbon capture and the CO₂ avoided costs fluctuate depending on the type of power plant, coal price, capture solvent, and capture technology. The general cost variations are described in Table 2.2 as follows:

Table 2.2 Ranges of electricity price and CO₂ avoided cost.

Cost	PC type	IGCC type	Reference
Electricity Price without carbon capture (US\$/kWh)	0.043-0.052	0.041-0.061	IPCC Special Report, 2005 (Metz, 2005)
Electricity Price with carbon captured (US\$/kWh)	0.82-0.97	0.67-0.94	
Electricity Price with CO ₂ avoided (US\$/kWh)	0.62-0.70	0.59-0.73	
Electricity Price with carbon capture and Enhanced Oil Recovery (EOR) (US\$/kWh)	0.049-0.081	0.040-0.075	
CO ₂ avoided cost with CCS (US\$/t CO ₂ avoided)	30-70	20-70	
CO ₂ avoided cost with CO ₂ capture and Enhanced Oil Recovery (US\$/t CO ₂ avoided)	10-40	0-40	
CO ₂ price (US\$/t CO ₂)	5-180		(Zimmermann et al., 2020)
Levelized Cost of Electricity (LCOE) without CCS (US\$/MWh)	61-87		(Tramošljika, Blecich, Bonefačić, & Glažar, 2021)
Levelized Cost of Electricity (LCOE) with CCS (US\$/MWh)	94-163		
CO ₂ capture (US\$/t CO ₂)	33-58		
CO ₂ avoided cost (US\$/t CO ₂)	44-86		

2.5.2 Production cost analysis of CCU processes

After the first step of CO₂ capture at the power plant, it can be utilized for various industrial-scale productions, such as the products shown in Table 2.1. Utilization of the waste or pollutant CO₂ for numerous products is attractive for businesses because they can be substituted in our daily commodities; however, the total investment costs are higher than the conventional ones (see Table 2.3). In terms

of the different calculation methods, various assumptions, geological conditions, literature data, electricity price, and the limited economic boundary, there is a barrier to estimate the final production cost of CCU projects. The higher prices in consumables (e.g., chemicals, catalysts, and raw materials) are unavoidable to deploy the CCU projects. Raw materials prices of captured CO₂ and H₂ are not economically feasible (Pérez-Fortes, Schöneberger, Boulamanti, & Tzimas, 2016). In addition, CO₂ consume intensive energy because its bond structure is very strong and stable to decompose or synthesize with other chemical substances.

When the larger energy demand handles the CO₂-oriented projects, electricity prices play an essential role in financial profit and environmental impacts reductions. Supplying the vast energy requirements of CCU plants with renewable energy can meet the lower carbon neutrality goal; on the other hand, it can increase the total production cost from an economic perspective. Referring to relying only on renewable power may not be an effective and practical approach because there will come up the questions on its technological readiness, the availability of current generation capacity, and power transportation feasibility. Although energy generation from fossil fuel resources offers lower production costs, higher carbon emissions cannot be neglected (see production prices and carbon emissions in the study (Khamhaeng, Laosiripojana, Assabumrungrat, & Kim-Lohsoontorn, 2021)). Therefore, CCU projects with system optimization are required to consider for a sustainable society with the long-term benefit from both environmental and economic assessments.

To minimize the higher energy demand, the CO₂ capture price increase, and the consequent environmental effects, the two studies (Cheng Xu, 2020; Minh T Ho, Allinson, & Wiley, 2009) demonstrated that applying the waste heat recovery from the carbon removal process was a solution; in that case, the alternative solvents (KS1 and the potassium carbonate) are more efficient than the MEA solvent (Minh T Ho et al., 2009). But that represented only the CO₂ capture process. Further research and development (R&D) investigations are crucial to developing the whole CCU process.

With respect to the economic analysis, the influence factors on the total investment cost are different depending on the CCU process. For example, 61-80% of total plasterboard production cost comes from alkali use to keep the alkalinity in the carbon precipitation process and 17% from fixed operating cost (labor) (Gálvez-

Martos, Elhoweris, Hakki, & Al-horr, 2020). The lowest production price (410 \$/ton) can compete with the conventional one in the market described in Table 2.3.

Concerning synthesis natural gas (SNG) production, capital and operating costs constituted 9.6% & 90.4% at the production capacity of 30 m³/hr, while 4.7% & 95.3% for the capacity of 700 m³/hr (Boreum Lee, 2019). The expenditures of H₂ with renewable energy and CO₂ highly influenced the operating cost (71.4% at 30 m³/hr, 91.7% at 700 m³/hr). The increased production capacity decreased the unit price of SNG. The next similar case revealed that the total SNG production cost-shared 41% capital, 22% operational & 38% energy supply, which was mainly associated with the electricity price and the operation time. The lesser the operation hour, the lower the SNG production and the higher the capital cost per unit (Jordi Guiler, 2018). Selling Oxygen via water electrolysis can lessen the unit price by 30%. Yet carbon-based SNG could not compare the lower price of the conventional SNG.

Since formic acid was produced through direct CO₂ hydrogenation technology with H₂ produced by water electrolysis, consumables (catalysts), the electricity of the electrolyzer, and steam contributed highly to the total production expense (Mar Perez-Fortes, 2016). When a similar technology was applied to the methanol process, the electrolyzer was the biggest contributor (55%) to the capital cost. In contrast, the electricity (process and electrolysis) significantly dominated the operating cost (Pérez-Fortes et al., 2016). Electricity price vastly affected the methanol unit price variations that can be minimized by selling by-product oxygen or integrating process waste heat compensated by 81% heating & 47% cooling of total energy demand (Battaglia et al., 2021). Both formic acid and methanol processes are roughly four times higher than the conventional ones, as shown in Table 2.3. The advantage is a ton of carbon-containing formic acid and methanol can save 0.4 ton of heavy fuel oil and 0.6 ton of natural gas, respectively (Mar Perez-Fortes, 2016; Pérez-Fortes et al., 2016).

The next study (Dongin Kim, 2020) investigated the formic acid (FA) production with two types of catalysts: Ru-Ph and Au/TiO₂. The following results were obtained;

FA production	with Ru-Ph catalyst	with Au/TiO₂ catalyst
FA conversion yield	81% mol	84% mol
Energy efficiency	22.9%	60.9%
Reaction time	1 hr	72 hr
Energy demand	Higher	Lower
Production cost	Lower	Higher
Purity	85 wt%	85 wt%
Emissions (tCO ₂ /tFA)	0.36	0.07

Although both types of productions utilized a similar input amount of CO₂ and H₂, the process heat requirement for vapor-liquid distillation was 75% higher in the former than in the latter because of different mass balances. The first method should not be implemented if steam production is expensive. As for cost breakdown relating to the minimum selling price per ton, H₂ was the maximum expenditure (26.7%), followed by tertiary amine (22.3%), catalyst (20%), utility (9.6%), methanol (7.3%), etc., in the FA with Ru-Ph; whereas the FA with Au/TiO₂ allocated capital cost (45.2%), butylimidazole (22.3%), H₂ (16.5%) and so on (Dongin Kim, 2020). CO₂ price (6.6%) does have much fluctuation in both projects. The reaction time caused the production cost difference. If the first project is implemented, the lower production cost is available, but the second one can achieve lesser carbon emissions from the synthesis process.

Finally, the total investment costs of CCU projects differ based on the assumptions, methodology, and technology. Thus, it is crucial to take the data or method from strong literature unless on-site data is available because that will affect the large variation in the estimated result. Mostly, CCU products are more expensive than the conventional or current market products. Although some products such as polyol (Cora Fernández-Dacosta, 2017) and polyurethane rubber (Georg A. Buchner, 2020) occupy lower investment and smaller environmental impact scores than the traditional ones without CO₂, the limited CO₂ input amount cannot meet large-scale commercial productions. Following the local and global demand, the CCU plants should be implemented for economic advantage.

Table 2.3 Various production prices without or with CO₂

Study	Production/ Process	Unit Price	CO ₂ -based price	Conventional / Market price
(Battaglia et al., 2021)	Methanol	€/ton	2624–2706 (concentrated solar power) 1867–1949 (offshore wind) 1319–1401 (solar PV) 1150–1232 (geothermal) 1019–1101 (bioenergy) 941–1023 (onshore wind) 823–906 (hydropower)	400-800*
(Pérez-Fortes et al., 2016)	Methanol	€/ton	2472	1270
(Gálvez-Martos et al., 2020)	Plaster board	\$/ton	410-5000	570
(Boreum Lee, 2019)	Synthetic Natural Gas (SNG)	\$/MWh	121 (30 m ³ /hr) 94 (700 m ³ /hr)	38-69*
(Jordi Guiler, 2018)	Synthetic Natural Gas (SNG)	€/MWh	70 (Electricity 25€/MWh) 125 (Electricity 40€/MWh)	22 26
(Mar Perez-Fortes, 2016)	Formic acid	€/ton	1524 (Ru-Ph catalyst)	475
(Dongin Kim, 2020)	Formic acid	\$/ton	1029 (Ru-Ph catalyst) 1037 (Au/TiO ₂ catalyst)	931*
(Cora Fernández-Dacosta, 2017)	Polyol	€/kg	1.2	1.4
(Georg A. Buchner, 2020)	Polyurethane Rubber	\$/kg	2.32	2.81
(Bong Jae Lee 2020)	CaCO ₃	\$/MWh	26	N/A
(Sebastian Teir, 2016)	nanoparticles	€/ton	150	

* = market price

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY AND MATERIALS

3.1 Life Cycle Assessment (LCA)

For environmental sustainability, the potential environmental impacts from various processes, products, or services can be evaluated with Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) method partly or wholly from the entire life cycle stage. According to ISO 14040 (Kun-Mo Lee, 2004), the generally defined four steps of LCA are set in this study:

- (I) Goal and Scope,
- (II) Life Cycle Inventory (LCI) analysis,
- (III) Life Cycle Impact Assessment (LCIA), and
- (IV) Life Cycle Interpretation.

3.1.1 Goal and Scope

Concerning the scope defined from cradle to gate boundary, the potential environmental impacts of retrofitting carbon capture technology in the current operating 655 MW, USC boiler, pulverized coal Mae Moh power plant and of the industrial-scale captured CO₂ utilization processes are assessed. The results are aimed to reduce GHG emissions, avoid severe environmental effects, and deploy in similar technology improvements.

As illustrated in figure 3.1, the system boundary is initiated with MEA manufacturing, followed by capturing CO₂ released from the Mae Moh power plant, then compressing and transporting it through the onshore pipeline to the carbon utilization plants producing alternative commercial methanol and formic acid. The required energy for the carbon capture is assumed to be extracted from the base power plant. The utilities and consumables imported from the global or local market would be available at the gate of the CCU plants. The functional unit is defined as a ton of CO₂-based product (1 ton CO₂_MeOH or 1 ton CO₂_FA) for each CCU plant.

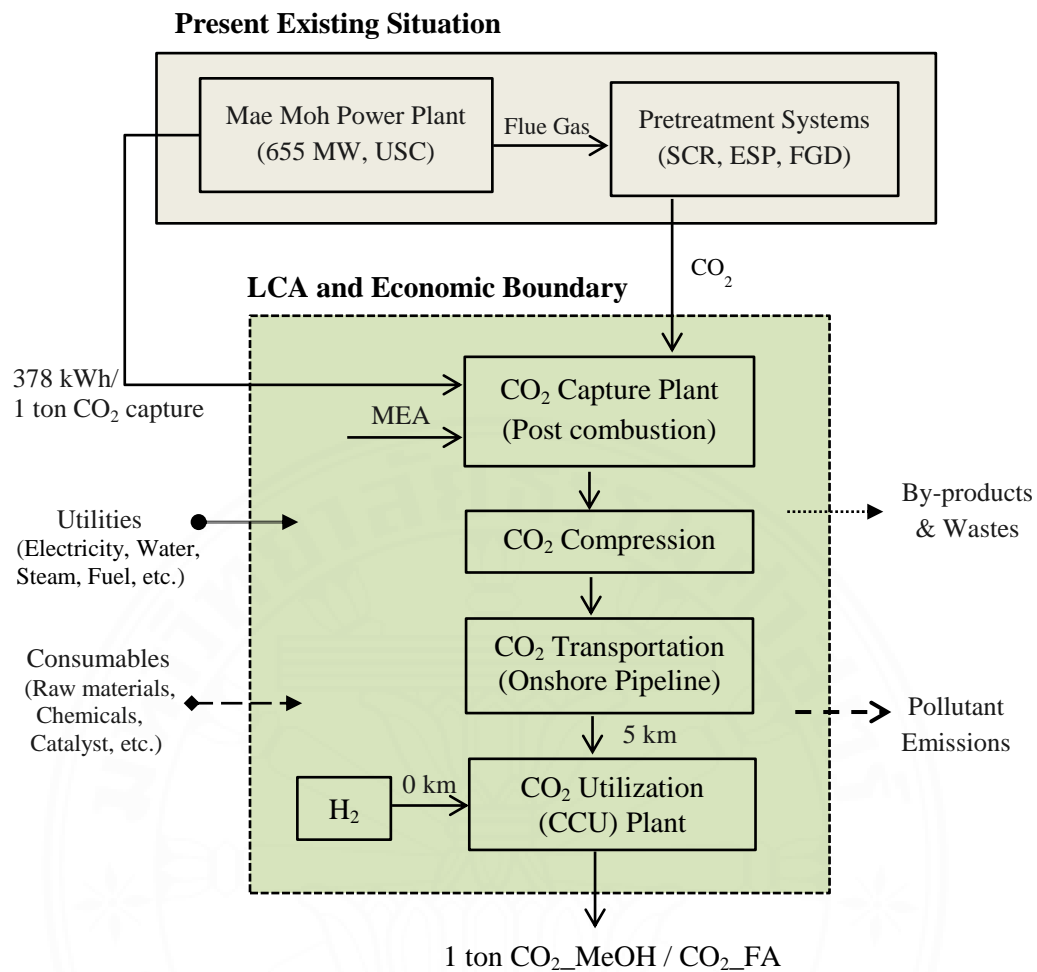


Figure 3.1 Conceptual system boundary of Mae Moh lignite burned power plant with CCU process.

3.1.2 Life Cycle Inventory (LCI) analysis

Detailed impact assessment assumptions from raw material manufacturers to the final carbon utilization stage in the conceptual boundary are described in Table 1.1. The inventory data of the electricity generation of the benchmark power plant is received from the previous literature (Koornneef et al., 2008), including MEA manufacturing (Table 3.5), the infrastructures of the CO₂ capture process (Table 3.6, 3.7 & 3.8), plus again combined with the report data from Mae Moh lignite plant and the ecoinvent dataset from Simapro software. LCI data of the alternative productions are taken from previous case studies (see Table 3.10 & 3.11) and made the general approximate assumptions for this case (see Table 3.12). LCI data of the conventional methanol and formic acid productions are also available from the ecoinvent database

and the study (Rodríguez-Vallejo, Valente, Guillén-Gosálbez, & Chachuat, 2021) (see Table 3.13) to compete with the alternative ones. Additional detailed LCI data assumptions and limitations are described later in the result and discussion section.

3.1.3 Life Cycle Impact Assessment (LCIA)

Eight environmental impact indicators within the emissions of the system boundary are assessed in LCIA because those are the significant impact indicators in the power generation system and the important factors for the society according to Thailand standards. The observed impact indicators are Global Warming (GW), Terrestrial Acidification (TA), Freshwater Eutrophication (FWEu), Human Carcinogenic Toxicity (HCT), Human non-Carcinogenic Toxicity (HnCT), Fine Particulate Matter Formation (FPMF), Mineral Resource Scarcity (MRS) and Fossil Resource Scarcity (FRS). SimaPro free faculty license software with version 9.3.0.3 and the ReCiPe 2016 Midpoint (H) method is applied to characterize and interpret those impacts.

3.1.4 Life Cycle Interpretation

Interpretation results assist the investigators in drawing the conclusion, decision making, and recommendation of the present research and future decision in the related field as well. In this life cycle interpretation, the impacts of CCU products are compared and evaluated with the conventional or traditional products without CO₂. Besides, the sensitivity analyses are performed to decrease the potential environmental hazards much more.

3.2 Economic analysis

To estimate the total costs of both carbon capture and CCU plants, “0.6 power factor rule” is used to scale up the installed equipment cost; moreover, the chemical engineering plant cost index (CEPCI) is used to update the base year cost (2020\$) estimation. The currency exchange rate in this paper is 1 Baht = 0.03 \$, 1 Euro = 1.15 \$, and a dollar is defined as an American dollar.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Cost}_{\text{Res}} &= \text{Cost}_{\text{Ref}} \times \left(\frac{\text{Capacity}_{\text{Res}}}{\text{Capacity}_{\text{Ref}}} \right)^{\text{PF}} \times \frac{\text{CEPCI}_{\text{Res}}}{\text{CEPCI}_{\text{Ref}}} \\ \text{Cost}_{\text{Res}} &= \text{Cost in research case} \end{aligned}$$

$Cost_{Ref}$	= Cost in reference case
$Capacity_{Res}$	= Capacity in research case
$Capacity_{Ref}$	= Capacity in reference case
PF	= Power factor = 0.6
$CEPCI_{Ref}$	= Chemical Engineering Plant Cost Index in reference year
$CEPCI_{Res}$	= Chemical Engineering Plant Cost Index in research year
CEPCI (2011) = 585.7, CEPCI (2017) = 567.5, CEPCI (2020) = 596.2	

Total overnight cost (TOC) or capital expenditure (CAPEX) and operating cost (OPEX) calculations were estimated as NETL cost analysis methods (Battaglia et al., 2021; Vincent Chou, 2016). CAPEX or TOC has two parts: (1) direct TOC or bare erected cost (BEC) and (2) indirect TOC including EPCC (engineering, procurement, and construction cost), contingencies and owner's cost. OPEX is divided into fixed operating and maintenance cost (Fixed O & M) and variable operating and maintenance cost (Var O & M). Fixed O & M cost is associated with the numbers of operating labor, maintenance, taxes, and insurance. Var O & M cost includes utilities such as electricity, water, steam, fuel, etc., and consumables, for instance, raw materials, chemicals, and catalyst. Detailed cost assumptions for this study are as below:

Carbon Capture Plant Cost [after (Vincent Chou, 2016)]	CCU Plant Cost (Battaglia et al., 2021)
Capital Cost (CAPEX/ TOC)	
(A) BEC = Equipment + Labor + Material + Construction+ Installation	(1) Total Equipment Cost (TEC) = 68%
(B) EPCC = 12 % (A)	(2) Pipe, valves and fittings = 20%
(C) Process contingencies =10 % (A)	(3) Process instruments & control = 7%
(D) Project contingencies = 20 % (A)	(4) Electric equipment and materials = 5%
TPC = (A) + (B)+ (C)+ (D)	(5) Total of the bare module costs (CBM) = (1)+(2)+(3)+(4) = 100%
	(5) CBM = 68%
	(6) Erection and installation labor = 24%
	(7) Buildings, materials and labor = 8%
	(A) BEC = (5) + (6) + (7) = 100%
	(B) EPCC = 17.5% (A)
	(C) Process contingencies = 5% (A)

	(D) Project contingencies = 15% (B+C) TPC = (A) + (B)+ (C)+ (D)
(E) Start-up cost = 2%TPC (F) Inventory = 0.5%TPC (G) Financing cost = 2.7%TPC (H) Other owner's cost = 15%TPC TOC = TPC + (E)+ (F)+ (G)+ (H)	
Fixed Operating and Maintenance Cost (Fixed O & M) [after (Vincent Chou, 2016)]	
(I) Total labor Cost in a year (\$/yr) (II) Operating Labor Burden = 30% (I) (III) Over Head Charge Rate = 25% ((I)+(II)) (IV) Annual Operating Labor Cost (AOL) (\$/yr) = (I) + (II)+ (III) (V) Maintenance Labor Cost = 2% TPC (VI) Administrative & Support Labor = 35% AOL (VII) Property Taxes and Insurance= 2 % TPC Total fix O & M (\$/yr) = (IV)+(V)+(VI)+(VII)	
Variable Operating and Maintenance Cost (Var O & M) = Consumables + Utilities + Catalysts	
OPEX = Fixed O & M + Var O & M	

Onshore natural gas pipeline transport cost without including in the NETL report was taken from the previous Thailand case study (Somkiat Khwanpruk, 2015) and added it in the BEC of carbon capture. The working hours of each labor were assumed to be 8 hrs/day. The operators were grouped into 3 shifts/day. To estimate the operating cost (OPEX), electricity, water, and labor prices were referenced from the website (Thailand Board of Investment, 2021) by making the cost assumption from average business or industrial cases. The chemicals and catalysts used in Var O & M were available from the global chemical supply market (Alibaba.com) for large-scale industrial application and also combined with the values from other literature. MEA price was taken from production cost study (Mohammed B Alqaragully, 2015). Detailed cost assumptions can be found in Appendix A. The total energy demand of the carbon capture retrofit case would be extracted from the baseline power plant

without installing a supplementary boiler and coal extraction increase; however its electricity price was considered in the COE calculation.

For the economic evaluation, the discount rate 8%, plant lifetime (30 years for carbon capture plant, 25 years for carbon utilization plants), operation hours (8760 hrs/yr with 80% capacity factor for the carbon capture plant, 8000 hrs/yr for carbon utilization plants), $\pm 15\%$ for the uncertainty cost analysis of all plants were assumed respectively. The cost of electricity (COE) of the carbon capture retrofit plant or Levelized Cost of Production (LCOP) for CCU plants can be calculated as follows:

$$\text{COE / LCOP} = \sum_{t=1}^N \frac{(\text{TOC} * \text{CRF}) + \text{Fix O\&M} + \text{Var O\&M}}{\text{Annual Production} \left(\frac{\text{MWh}}{\text{yr}} / \frac{\text{t}}{\text{yr}} \right)}$$

$$\text{CRF} = \frac{r(1+r)^N}{(1+r)^N - 1}$$

$$\text{CO}_2 \text{ avoided cost (\$/t CO}_2\text{)} = \frac{\text{COE}_{\text{with capture}} - \text{COE}_{\text{without capture}}}{\text{CO}_2 \text{ emission}_{\text{without capture}} - \text{CO}_2 \text{ emission}_{\text{with capture}}}$$

COE = Cost of Electricity (\\$/MWh)

LCOP = Levelized Cost of Production (\\$/t)

TOC = Total Overnight Cost (\\$)

CRF = Capital Recovery Factor (%)

Fix O & M = Fixed Operating & Maintenance cost (\\$/yr)

Var O & M = Variable Operating & Maintenance cost (\\$/yr)

t = lifetime in each year

N = defined total economic lifetime in years

r = interest rate

3.3 Carbon capture technology

In the three classifications of carbon capture systems: pre-combustion, post-combustion, and oxy-fuel combustion, the green-field power plant can deploy any system, whereas oxy-fuel combustion and post-combustion are appropriate only for the existing power plant. In the oxy-fuel combustion technology, oxygen is high-priced and larger energy demand of air separation system in the operation stage can raise carbon dioxide emissions and other environmental effects (Cuéllar-Franca &

Azapagic, 2015). Therefore, post-combustion technology with monoethanolamine (MEA) solvent is opted for capturing carbon dioxide from the current 655 MW, USC boiler of Mae Moh coal-fired power plant because the amine solvent is extensively available in the market and lots of research on this solvent have already been published in spite of being higher energy demand in the MEA regeneration process. The CO₂ capture process for the retrofit case can be studied in (Edward S. Rubin, 2002). The technical parameters of ultra-supercritical power plant (Table 3.1), carbon capture (Table 3.2), and compression & transportation (Table 3.3) are as below:

Table 3.1 Main performance parameters of ultra-supercritical (USC) power plant and energy requirement of CO₂ capture system

Parameter	Value	Reference
USC steam cycle, temperature	600/620°C	(Tramošljika et al., 2021)
USC steam cycle, pressure	285/60 Bar	(Tramošljika et al., 2021)
Gross power output	655 MW	Mae Moh Plant
Initial operation year	2019	Mae Moh Plant
Net power output with MEA carbon capture retrofit	447.3 MW	Assumption & Calculated
Balance of baseline plant	45 MW	Assumption
Total energy demand for CO ₂ capture	122.7 MW	After (Nie, 2009)
CO ₂ Compression	40 MW	(Koornneef et al., 2008)
Net efficiency without carbon capture	45%	Assumption
Net efficiency with carbon capture	33%	
Energy penalty for carbon capture retrofit (% point)	12%-pts	(Metz, 2005)
Plant operation time	8760 hrs/yr	Assumption
Capacity Factor	80%	Assumption
Annual electricity production	3,134,678 MWh/yr	Assumption & Calculated
CO ₂ emissions	730.5 kg/MWh	(Tramošljika et al., 2021)

Table 3.2 Main performance parameters of CO₂ capture system

Parameter	Unit	Value	Reference
NO _x reduction efficiency	%	1.25	(Koorneef et al., 2008)
HF reduction efficiency	%	90	
CO ₂ reduction efficiency	%	90	(Edward S. Rubin, 2002)
SO ₂ reduction efficiency	%	99.5	
NO ₂ reduction efficiency	%	25	
HCL reduction efficiency	%	95	
PM reduction efficiency	%	50	
SO ₃ reduction efficiency	%	100	(Nie, 2009)
CO ₂ (lean solvent) loading	mole CO ₂ /mole MEA	0.05-0.3	(Tramošljika et al., 2021)
CO ₂ (rich solvent) loading	mole CO ₂ /mole MEA	0.3-0.6	
Absorber temperature	°C	30-50	
Absorber pressure	Bar	~1	
Stripper (desorber) temperature	°C	80-160	
Stripper (desorber) pressure	Bar	1-10	
L/G (liquid-to-gas) ratio	kg/kg	2-6	(Edward S. Rubin, 2002)
MEA solution mass fraction	wt%	30	
CO ₂ pressure	kpa	50	(Metz, 2005)
CO ₂ product purity	wt%	99.5 - ≥99.9	(Edward S. Rubin, 2002)- (Metz, 2005)

Table 3.3 Main performance parameters of CO₂ compression and transportation

Parameter	Unit	Value	Reference
Pipeline length	km	5	Assumption
Pipeline diameter	inch	36	
CO ₂ inlet pressure	MPa	0.1	(Koorneef et al., 2008)
CO ₂ outlet pressure	Mpa	11	
Pressure loss in distance	Mpa/km	0.006	
Fugitive CO ₂ emission pipeline	tCO ₂ /(km year)	2.32	
Fugitive CO ₂ emission compressor	tCO ₂ /MW/yr	23.2	

3.3.1 Energy demand

The total energy demand in MEA-based CO₂ capture process is the sum of (1) the steam or thermal consumption in the stripper for CO₂ scrubbing and solvent regeneration and (2) the electricity used for pumps, gas blowers, a multi-stage CO₂ compressor, and the other running devices; in which the thermal energy extracted from the IP/LP steam turbine of the baseline plant is the majority (Zhang et al., 2014). In this case, the total thermal energy loss (12% points) equivalent to 378 kWh per ton of the carbon capture retrofit process is suggested to supply from the base power plant without additional coal consumption. The detailed energy penalty, the chemical consumptions in 1 ton CO₂ capture (Table 3.4), the LCI data of 1 kg MEA production (Table 3.5), and the LCI data of 1 ton CO₂ capture infrastructure (Table 3.6) are described as follows:

Total energy penalty in 1 ton CO₂ capture retrofit case with MEA solvent

Total energy demand = 378 kWh	(12%-pts)
Total heat demand = 4GJ _{steam} (Koornneef et al., 2008) (or) 222 kWh	(7.05%-pts)
Total electricity demand (I+II+III) = 156 kWh	(4.95%-pts)
I. 23.6 kWh for fans and pumps (Koornneef et al., 2008)	(0.75%-pts)
II. 21.4 kWh for other equipment and system	(0.68%-pts)*
III. 111 kWh for Compressor (Koornneef et al., 2008)	(3.52%-pts)

* Own calculation based on boiler capacity

Table 3.4 Consumptions in 1 ton CO₂ capture

Consumption	Value	Reference
Triethylene Glycol, TEG	0.2 kg	(Vincent Chou, 2016)
NaOH	0.13 kg	(Edward S. Rubin, 2002)
Activated Carbon	0.075 kg	
Cooling water makeup	0.8 m ³	
MEA makeup	2.04 kg	(Nie, 2009)

Table 3.5 LCI data for MEA (1 kg) production (Koornneef et al., 2008)

Material/ process	Unit	Value
Input		
Natural gas	MJ	2
Electricity	kWh	0.333
Ammonia	g	788
Ethylene oxide	g	816
Infrastructure chemical plant	P	4 x10 ⁻¹⁰
Transport (truck and train)	tx km	11.23
Output		
Monoethanolamine	kg	1
Ethylene oxide to air	g	1.63
Ethylene oxide to water	g	1.47
Waste heat	MJ	1.2
Ammonia to air	g	1.58
Ammonium to water	g	3.04
CO ₂	g	26.5
Nitrate (NO ₃) to water	g	6.97
COD, BOD	g	21.3
TOC, DOC	g	8.02

Table 3.6 LCI data for 1 ton CO₂ capture infrastructure (Koornneef et al., 2008))

Material/ process	Unit	Value
Steel (Chromium steel)	kg	0.00258
Steel (Chromium steel pipe)	kg	0.000901
Concrete	m ³	0.011E-6

3.3.2 CO₂ compression and transportation to CCU plant

After CO₂ capturing, it would be compressed and dehydrated using the capacity of 40 MW, a four-stage compressor to reach the desired pressure from the atmospheric condition, 0.1 MPa to 11 MPa for onshore pipeline transportation. Finally, it is sent to the CCU plant for commercial carbon-containing chemical products. The pipeline transportation from the carbon capture plant to the CCU plant is assumed to be 5 km long with a 36-inch pipeline diameter. LCI data of 1 ton CO₂ compressor infrastructure (Table 3.7) and LCI data of 1 ton CO₂ onshore pipeline transport infrastructure (Table 3.8) are as follows:

Table 3.7 LCI data for 1 ton CO₂ compressor infrastructure (Koornneef et al., 2008)

Material/ process	Unit	Value
Concrete	m ³	1.048E-6
Diesel	ton	0.75284E-6
Electricity from 655 MW, Mae Moh Plant	MWh	0.98387E-3
Steel (low-alloyed)	t	1.048E-6
Copper (Cathode)	t	0.1129E-6
Polyethylene (Low density)	t	0.3226E-6
Compressor capacity	MW	40
CO ₂ leakage	kg	0.29

Table 3.8 LCI data of 1 ton CO₂ onshore pipeline transport infrastructure [After (Koornneef et al., 2008)]

Material/ process	Unit	Value
Sand	kg	0.107
Diesel	kg	4.2716E-3
Reinforcing steel	kg	0.01277
Drawing of steel pipes	kg	0.01277
Bitumen	kg	0.127E-3
Polyethylene	kg	0.225E-3
Transport total	t x km	0.01254
CO ₂ leakage	kg	0.0038

3.4 CCU (CO₂_MeOH & CO₂_FA) Plants

After carbon capture, compress, and transportation stages, the captured CO₂ is purified up to 99.99% to use as the feedstock and avoid catalyst poisoning in the methanol and formic acid productions. The CO₂ product stream of this study is assumed to get at the desired purity condition. Therefore, an additional purification process is excluded. Hydrogen, being accessible from diverse sources and used as the feedstock in CCU plants, is crucial to converting into carbon-based products. For this research, two types of hydrogen production are considered for each CO₂-containing product: green hydrogen produced from renewable energy for methanol and gray hydrogen from fossil fuel for formic acid. Both offer advantages and disadvantages,

such as higher production cost with less emission impact in green hydrogen and lower production cost with higher emission impact in gray hydrogen (Khamhaeng et al., 2021).

3.4.1 Hydrogen productions for CO₂-based Methanol and Formic Acid products

In methanol production, the reactant H₂, which reacts with CO₂, is produced through water electrolysis technology (see LCI data in Table 3.9). The required electricity is supplied by renewable energy, wind power to cure massive CO₂ emissions. LCI dataset of wind power electricity is directly chosen from Agri-footprint 5 project, ELCD in the software.

Although hydrogen production through water electrolysis offers the advantage of lesser CO₂ emission, the higher price amidst various hydrogen processes might be unattractive to entrepreneurs. Therefore, the lower hydrogen production cost of steam reforming technology is chosen for formic acid, the price is taken from the paper (Khamhaeng et al., 2021), and the electricity is supplied by the medium voltage of the national grid. LCI database of hydrogen (reformer) production is selected from Industry data 2.0. The hydrogen plants are assumed to be located near or inside the same on-site of the CCU plants, so as not to consider additional transport costs and the emissions effects.

Table 3.9 LCI data for 1 kg of Hydrogen (H₂) production via water electrolysis technology. (González-Garay et al., 2019)

Inputs	Value
Water, deionized	18.04 kg
Electricity	52.26 kWh
Outputs	Value
H ₂	1 kg
O ₂	8 kg

3.4.2 Methanol production from CO₂ hydrogenation

At first, the pure and compressed CO₂ and H₂ are combined with the recycled stream to heat up in the heat exchanger before feeding with the copper-based commercial solid catalyst (Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃) into the reactor operating at the 76 bar and 210°C (Mar Pérez-Fortes, 2016). The outflow is divided into two streams: one is employed to preheat the feed to the reactor, while another is used to support the reboiler and preheat the feed to the distillation column (Tuan B.H. Nguyen, 2015). The excess heat generated from the heat exchanger can compensate for the process heat or generate electricity, or be used in the carbon capture process. In this study, the process heat required during the reaction is assumed to be used from the recovered heat. For every 1 kg of methanol production, input electricity, 1.2 MJ is needed, while thermal energy, 1.4 MJ is produced back via the synthesis process (Marian Rosental, 2020). The main chemical reactions in the process are:



After the heat integration process, methanol and water through chemical reactions are condensed at the cooling temperature of 35°C, followed by the gas and liquid separation process in the flash vessel. After that, the mixer of liquid methanol and water is preheated and evaporated in the heat exchanger to insert into the distillation column where water and methanol are separated, while the gas stream passes through the partial condenser enters into the heat exchanger are expanded to 1.2 bar (Pérez-Fortes et al., 2016). Finally, liquid methanol (99.9 wt% with the whole conversion yield, 94%) is produced. In this research, 1 Mt/yr of Methanol production is assumed, and the process simulation data of CHEMCAD software model including equipment and water electrolyser costs was extracted from (Pérez-Fortes et al., 2016). LCI data are taken from the previous case studies (González-Garay et al., 2019; Marian Rosental, 2020; Pérez-Fortes et al., 2016; Sternberg, Jens, & Bardow, 2017; Wieland Hoppe, 2017) to make the LCI assumption for this case (see Table 3.10).

Table 3.10 LCI data assumption for 1 ton methanol (MeOH) production

Research Case Study	Inputs per 1 ton MeOH				Emissions
	CO ₂ (ton)	H ₂ (ton)	Electricity (MWh)	Steam (MWh)	
(Wieland Hoppe, 2017)	1.374	0.189	1.271	-	N/A
(Marian Rosental, 2020)	1.441	0.203	0.330	-	66 kg CO ₂ , 578 kg H ₂ O, 1.4 GJ heat
(Pérez-Fortes et al., 2016)	1.460	0.199	0.177	0.439	90 kg CO ₂ , 768 kg H ₂ O
(González-Garay et al., 2019)	1.46	0.200	0.21	-	80 kg CO ₂ , 571 kg H ₂ O, 0.178 kg NO ₂ , 10 kg MeOH
(Sternberg et al., 2017)	1.436	0.197	1.340	-	62 kg CO ₂
	1.484	0.204	0.69(0.3)	-	112 kg CO ₂
	1.376	0.189	0.67(0.55)	0.37	2 kg CO ₂
This research	1.460	0.200	0.25	0.40	90 kg CO₂, 580 kg H₂O, 0.178 kg NO₂, 10 kg MeOH

3.4.3 Formic acid production from CO₂ hydrogenation

After compressing and cooling CO₂ and H₂ to 105 bar and 30°C, both are fed into the reactor at 90°C for synthesis. Formic acid is produced from methanol; thus, it needs additional two main stages: (1) catalysts and methanol recovery, and (2) FA formation and purification. The chemical reaction and separation stages of FA are as below:



The two main streams react in the presence of ruthenium and phosphine-based catalysts, a tertiary amine, and a polar solvent (a mixture of MeOH and water) in the reactor, later forming an FA-amine adduct which has to be thermally separated to provide FA in the last distillation (Mar Pérez-Fortes, 2016). In the middle of the process, catalyst recovery from the separation of the light phase in a decanter and

methanol recovery in a stripping column working at 3 bar is recycled back to the reactor (Mar Pérez-Fortes, 2016). In the final stage, the vapor-liquid distillation process separates and produces pure formic acid with 85 wt% from the formic acid and tertiary amine compound (Dongin Kim, 2020). Formic acid production amount, 250 kt/yr is adopted in this research. Aspen Plus process simulation data assumption from (Dongin Kim, 2020), equipment costs using 0.6 rule to scale up from (Mar Perez-Fortes, 2016), hydrogen production expense from (Khamhaeng et al., 2021), and CO₂ price from Mae Moh power plant were collected respectively for financial evaluation. LCI data assumptions can be found in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11 LCI data assumption for 1 ton formic acid (FA) production

Research Case	Inputs per 1 ton FA				Emissions
	CO ₂ (ton)	H ₂ (ton)	Electricity (MWh)	Steam (MWh)	
(Yuchan Ahn & Han, 2019)	0.978	0.045	0.207	1.038	21 kg CO ₂
(Sternberg et al., 2017)	0.988	0.071	0.48(0.35)	3.27	32 kg CO ₂
	0.985	0.045	0.530	2.51	29 kg CO ₂
(Mar Pérez-Fortes, 2016)	0.834	0.059	0.296	2.786	166 kg CO ₂ , 60 kg H ₂ O
This research	0.98	0.06	0.31	2.78	30 kg CO₂, 60 kg H₂O

The final LCI data assumption results of both alternative and conventional productions for this study are described in Table 3.12 and Table 3.13 as follow:

Table 3.12 LCI data for 1 ton of alternative productions

a. CO ₂ _MeOH (1 ton) Production		b. CO ₂ _FA (1 ton) Production	
<u>Inputs</u>	<u>Amount</u>	<u>Inputs</u>	<u>Amount</u>
CO ₂ (t)	1.46	CO ₂ (t)	0.98
H ₂ (t) via water electrolysis	0.2	H ₂ (t) via steam reformer	0.06
Electricity (MWh)	0.25	Electricity(MWh)	0.31
Heat (MWh)	0.40	Heat (MWh)	2.78
Cooling Water (m ³)	90	Cooling Water (m ³)	250
		Methanol (t) (Dongin Kim, 2020)	0.15
		Amine (t) (Dongin Kim, 2020)	0.12
<u>Catalysts & Infrastructure</u>		<u>Catalysts & Infrastructure</u>	
CuO (kg) (Pérez-Fortes et al., 2016)	63.26E-3	Ruthenium-based catalyst(kg) (Mar Pérez-Fortes, 2016)	2.5E-3
ZnO (kg) (Pérez-Fortes et al., 2016)	23.76E-3	Phosphino-based catalyst(kg) (Mar Pérez-Fortes, 2016)	1.25E-3
Al ₂ O ₃ (kg) (Pérez-Fortes et al., 2016)	11.88E-3	Infrastructure(P) (Nils Thonemann, 2019)	5E-7
Infrastructure(P) (Marian Rosental, 2020)	2.35E-7		
<u>Outputs</u>	<u>Amount</u>	<u>Outputs</u>	<u>Amount</u>
Methanol(t)	1	Formic Acid (t)	1
CO ₂ (t)	0.09	CO ₂ (t)	0.03
H ₂ O (t)	0.58	H ₂ O (t)	0.06
Methanol(air) (t) (Rodríguez-Vallejo et al., 2021)	0.01		

Table 3.13 LCI data for 1 ton of the conventional productions

[Ecoinvent dataset from Simapro software and the study (Rodríguez-Vallejo et al., 2021)]

a. Methanol (1 ton) production via stream methane reforming (SMR)		b. Formic Acid (1 ton) production via methyl formate route	
<u>Inputs</u>	<u>Amount</u>	<u>Inputs</u>	<u>Amount</u>
Natural gas, high pressure (m ³)	651.79	Carbon monoxide (t)	0.6144
Process Water (t)	0.85	Heat (GJ)	22.795
Cooling water (m ³)	8.16	Electricity (MWh)	0.2878
Copper oxide (kg)	0.09	Methanol (kg)	40
Molybdenum (kg)	0.01	Water, deionised (kg)	600
Zinc (kg)	0.03	Cooling water (m ³)	375.5
Nickel, class1 (kg)	0.02		
Aluminium oxide (kg)	0.24		
Electricity (MWh)	0.074		
Heat (GJ)	6.93		
<u>Infrastructure</u>		<u>Infrastructure</u>	
Methanol factory (P)	3.72E-08	Chemical factory (P)	4E-07
<u>Outputs</u>	<u>Amount</u>	<u>Outputs</u>	<u>Amount</u>
Methanol (t)	1	Formic Acid (t)	1
<u>Emissions to air</u>		<u>Emissions to air</u>	
Carbon dioxide (kg) (Rodríguez-Vallejo et al., 2021)	80	Carbon dioxide (kg)	13.91
Nitrogen dioxide (kg) (Rodríguez-Vallejo et al., 2021)	0.178	Carbon monoxide, fossil (kg)	6.14
Methane, Fossil (kg)	0.98	Methyl formate (kg)	2.64
Nitrogen monoxide (kg)	0.15	Water (m ³)	145.63
Sulfur dioxide (kg)	0.0138		
Methanol (kg)	0.53		
Water/m ³ (m ³)	3.336		
<u>Emissions to water</u>		<u>Emissions to water</u>	
AOX as Cl (kg)	0.001	BOD5 (kg)	1.0784
BOD5 (kg)	0.18	COD (kg)	1.0784
COD (kg)	0.49	DOC (kg)	0.4212
Chlorine (kg)	0.002	Methyl formate (kg)	1.0540
DOC (kg)	0.24	TOC (kg)	0.4212
Methanol (kg)	0.03	Water (m ³)	230.47
Formaldehyde (kg)	0.1		
Phosphorus (kg)	0.01		
Phenol (kg)	0.01		
Suspended solids (kg)	0.02		
TOC (kg)	0.24		
Water (m ³)	5.674		

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 General LCI data assumptions and limitations

The data of the required electricity for each stage was taken from Thailand electricity, medium voltage market, whereas CO₂ capture energy was from Mae Moh (USC) plant, and electricity of H₂ & CO₂-MeOH productions from wind power, ELCD project.

All datasets were based on ecoinvent 3, Cut-off, U except for

- Transportation data, combination truck with average fuel mix/US from USLCI project for MEA manufacture,
- Hydrogen (reformer) production data from Industry data 2.0 project for CO₂- based formic acid product.

LCI data of tertiary amine (NHeX₃) was replaced with trimethyl amine due to no precise data in the Simapro software. The LCIA results in Table 4.1& 4.2 with the investigated potential environmental impact indicators include complete life cycle data from raw materials production, electricity generation, the whole CO₂ capture process, infrastructures, catalysts, chemicals to final captured CO₂ utilization products. The observed results are discussed in detail in subsections.

Although this study assessed the complete LCI data assumptions from MEA manufacture to final CO₂ utilization including plant infrastructure of each stage, there were limitations in the scope due to no available on-site data. Thus, we did not conduct the effects of before and after carbon capture in the power plant by using and comparing a functional unit, upstream activities such as coal extraction and transport, downstream activities such as recycling stages and waste managements, the big uncertainty of taken MEA manufacturing data, lack of detailed pollutant emission data of alternative productions, as well as the final end-users (the grave stage in LCA). These may have changed to the current impact scores from the entire LCA point of view.

4.1.1 Global Warming (GW)

According to the analysis in figure 4.1, the negative global warming (GW) value of -741 kg CO₂-eq is offered for every 1 ton of CO₂ capture. The maximum scores among all inventory inputs are mainly owing to the heat and electricity extractions from the Mae Moh power plant, followed by a small amount from MEA production. The contributions of other chemicals and CO₂ infrastructures (i.e., CO₂ capture infrastructure, CO₂ compressor infrastructure & CO₂ pipeline transport infrastructure) are trivial. In the case of heat duty-free from the waste heat recovery, the carbon emissions into the air could be much more avoided, plus the additional benefit of lowering other impact categories that are discussed in the sensitivity analysis.

When the CO₂-based methanol (CO₂_MeOH) production is compared with the conventional methanol production via natural gas steam-methane reforming technology in figure 4.2, the negative GW value (-862 vs. 712 kg CO₂-eq) is achieved in the CO₂_MeOH resulted from the captured CO₂ feedstock. The maximum GW impact (118 kg CO₂-eq/t CO₂_MeOH) comes from wind power electricity because of the massive electricity requirement (i.e., 10.45 MWh/t CO₂_MeOH) in H₂ production through water electrolysis technology. To supply such vast electricity demand with the least carbon emissions, power generation from wind power (green energy) is the most appropriate supply because of its zero-carbon source rather than other fossil fuel types (gray energy). If electricity was taken from the grid instead of wind power, GW impact would rise to 17.2 kg CO₂-eq/kg methane, in which methanol was transformed via methanation technology (Wieland Hoppe, 2017). By-product oxygen from water electrolysis is not shared to any environmental burden in this study. Direct CO₂ emissions from the methanol synthesis reaction are the second-largest GW, but the effects of catalysts and infrastructure are lesser (see Table 4.1).

Regarding the formic acid productions illustrated in figure 4.3, CO₂-containing formic acid (CO₂_FA) has a lower GW potential with 1.96E3 kg CO₂-eq than the traditional FA; the difference is double. Around 46% of total GW impact in CO₂_FA is due to the process steam, followed by H₂ (20.2%), amine (12.7%), electricity (8.64%), catalysts (4.9%), methanol (3.9%), and finally infrastructure. Direct CO₂ emissions from the formic acid reaction do not have any noticeable GW

effect. The CO₂ uptake (-27.1%) is able to reduce the total GW of CO₂_FA. Process steam assumption of this case is lower than other studies (Sternberg et al., 2017), (Mar Pérez-Fortes, 2016), but nearly three times higher than the study (Yuchan Ahn & Han, 2019), resulting in 76% of total GW from H₂ and 9% from electricity without complete LCI data analysis such as amine and catalysts consumption effects. However, it presented that the lowest GW impact from the heat requirement can be attainable from wood chip burning among the compared diverse sources.

4.1.2 Terrestrial Acidification (TA)

The terrestrial acidification (TA) result of CO₂_MeOH is slightly higher than the MeOH without CO₂, which obtains 1.68 kg SO₂-eq in the former, while 1.56 kg SO₂-eq in the latter. In contrast, CO₂_FA with 16.5 kg SO₂-eq is less than the conventional FA with 20.4 kg SO₂-eq. The biggest TA impact in CO₂_MeOH comes from CO₂ uptake (77%), in which the heat requirement of the carbon capture is the major stressor, whereas it is primarily from catalyst consumption (54%), followed by process heat requirement (19%) in CO₂_FA.

Even though the impacts received from process heat and electricity demands of the alternative productions can be avoided by changing different source generations, the ones gained from the energy requirements of the carbon capture cannot be prevented by switching to another source production. Because this study is based on the coal-fired power plant in Thailand and the required energy for the carbon removal process is already defined practically to be extracted from the base power plant. Thus, the findings in this scenario reflect the potential environmental impacts of CCU implementation at the USC boiler of Mae Moh coal burned power plant.

4.1.3 Freshwater Eutrophication (FWEu)

The freshwater eutrophication (FWEu) score of CO₂_MeOH surpasses the conventional MeOH (i.e., 0.457 vs. 0.0975 kg P-eq). The difference between the two compared products shown in figure 4.2 is about 79%. The major culprit of the highest impact on CO₂_MeOH is the coal combustion in the power plant for electricity supply (97.1%) to the CO₂ capture process. Methanol infrastructure, copper oxide catalyst

and hydrogen cause a slight increase in FWEu by 2%, 0.5%, and 0.38%, respectively. The effects of electricity from wind power and the remaining catalysts are minute.

On the other hand, the analysis results show that CO₂_FA achieves a lower score in FWEu (i.e., 1.07 vs. 1.92 kg P-eq). The FWEu increase in CO₂_FA is mostly from the electricity of carbon capture (27.7%), process heat (19.7%), catalysts (16%), process electricity (14.5%), amine (11.7%), and infrastructure (8.91%) respectively. If we substitute trihexyl amine (NHeX₃) with triethylamine, not trimethylamine, its impact score would be the highest at 27.7%.

4.1.4 Human non-carcinogenic toxicity (HnCT), Human carcinogenic toxicity (HCT)

Human non-carcinogenic toxicity (HnCT) scores are much more serious in CO₂_MeOH (636 kg 1,4-DCB) and CO₂_FA (4.58E3 kg 1,4-DCB) than the conventional products (192 kg 1,4-DCB in MeOH & 3.64E3 kg 1,4-DCB in FA). On the one hand, human carcinogenic toxicity (HCT) is higher in CO₂_MeOH (33.9 kg 1,4-DCB) but lower in CO₂_FA (106 kg 1,4-DCB). The analysis results describe that the two impacts in CO₂_MeOH are caused by the electricity generation from coal for carbon capture, when in CO₂_FA, the metal catalyst used in the reactor dominates the HnCT category. In the software, ruthenium- and phosphino-based catalysts are replaced and analyzed with metal catalysts as the specific types of catalysts cannot be chosen. Although only a tiny amount of catalysts is required in the chemical synthesis, which gives an unexpected higher score in the HnCT of CO₂_FA.

4.1.5 Fine Particulate Matter Formation (FPMF)

The score of fine particulate matter formation (FPMF) exceeds slightly in CO₂_MeOH (0.664 kg PM_{2.5}-eq) compared to the conventional production (0.501 kg PM_{2.5}-eq); on the contrary, CO₂_FA gets a lower score (5.38 vs. 8.9 kg PM_{2.5}-eq). Heat demand of carbon capture attributes largely to FPMF in CO₂_MeOH production. The FPMF result of CO₂_MeOH is uncertain because not only additional co-capture or pollutants removals such as SCR, ESP, and FGD installed in the power plant but also the carbon capture process can remove the discharges of CO₂, NO_x, PM, SO₂, and so on (Koornneef et al., 2008; Zhou et al., 2014) (see. Table 3.2) that was not

involved in this study consideration, but the benefit is expected to reduce the FPMF impact when CCU technology is implemented on-site.

4.1.6 Mineral Resource Scarcity (MRS), Fossil Resource Scarcity (FRS)

The increased mineral resource uses at the production stages and the plant constructions of CO₂-based products increase the mineral resource scarcity (MRS) category in comparison to the conventional productions (i.e., 56.4 vs. 0.932 kg Cu-eq in MeOH, while 22.2 vs. 3.63 kg Cu-eq in FA). The maximum impact comes from hydrogen (96%), more explicitly, from wind power electricity production at the power plant for H₂ feedstock of CO₂_MeOH, while it is due to the metal catalysts (79%) & infrastructure (15%) in CO₂_FA. The electricity of H₂ & MeOH productions was taken from the wind power plant, ELCD project, which assessed the following LCA phases: production, transportation, erection, operation, maintenance, dismantling, and removal of the wind turbines, which cause an increase in MRS category. If the above-described stages of the wind power plant were considered together with recycling of the materials such as iron ore, copper, and aluminum after the end of its lifespan, the environmental degradation would be lesser, especially 70% reduction in abiotic resource depletion (Mozart Tavares da Silva, 2018).

Relating to fossil resource scarcity (FRS) impact, the score is fewer in CO₂ containing products (i.e., 102 vs. 740 kg oil-eq in MeOH, and 958 vs. 1270 kg oil-eq in FA) because the conventional products are vastly based on fossil resources: high-pressure natural gas use (84% impact contributor) and process heat from the natural gas market (13.7% contributor) in the conventional MeOH production. Furthermore, carbon monoxide produced from heavy fuel oil (55.5% impact contributor) and heat from natural gas (37.3% contributor) in conventional FA production. When fossil resource extractions and utilization are able to be reduced in carbon-based products rather than in fossil-based traditional products by reusing carbon dioxide released from fossil fuel (lignite) combustion, the environmental impact becomes lesser.

Table 4.1 Analysis results of 1 ton of alternative Methanol production

Impact category	Total Score	MeOH reaction	H ₂	CO ₂	CuO	ZnO	Al ₂ O ₃	Infrastructure	Electricity
GW (kg CO ₂ eq)	-862.47	90	117.53	-1081.9	0.376	0.018	0.028	8.773	2.770
TA (kg SO ₂ eq)	1.68	0.037	0.241	1.293	0.021	0.000	0.000	0.085	0.006
FWE (kg P eq)	0.46	0	0.002	0.444	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.009	0.000
HnCT (kg 1,4-DCB)	635.70	1.56	-19.223	539.449	27.878	0.104	0.059	86.452	-0.577
HCT (kg 1,4-DCB)	33.93	0	0.221	24.683	0.205	0.001	0.022	8.802	0.000
FPMF (kg PM _{2.5} eq)	0.66	0.004	0.070	0.545	0.007	0.000	0.000	0.038	0.002
FRS (kg oil eq)	101.82	0	24.251	74.699	0.095	0.006	0.006	2.197	0.570
MRS (kg Cu eq)	56.37	0	54.241	0.107	0.085	0.000	0.001	0.635	1.297

Table 4.2 Analysis results of 1 ton of alternative Formic Acid production

Impact category	Total Score	FA reaction	CO ₂	H ₂	Methanol	Heat	Metal catalyst	Infrastructure	Trimethylamine	Electricity
GW (kg CO ₂ eq)	1957.70	30	-726.2	542.75	104.62	1227.4	131.48	75.158	340.6	231.9
TA (kg SO ₂ eq)	16.45	0	0.868	0.991	0.273	3.170	9.002	0.626	0.998	0.526
FWE (kg P eq)	1.07	0	0.298	0.000	0.015	0.212	0.172	0.096	0.126	0.156
HnCT (kg 1,4-DCB)	4580.19	0	362.09	0.006	32.7	375.74	2801.5	628.64	193.46	186.1
HCT (kg 1,4-DCB)	106.31	0	16.57	0.001	2.578	15.878	18.706	31.337	11.594	9.645
FPMF (kg PM _{2.5} eq)	5.38	0	0.366	0.296	0.099	1.182	2.600	0.263	0.374	0.200
FRS (kg oil eq)	957.66	0	50.14	101.14	114.19	360.09	43.703	17.919	204.43	66.04
MRS (kg Cu eq)	22.18	0	0.072	0.025	0.160	0.296	17.495	3.265	0.783	0.084

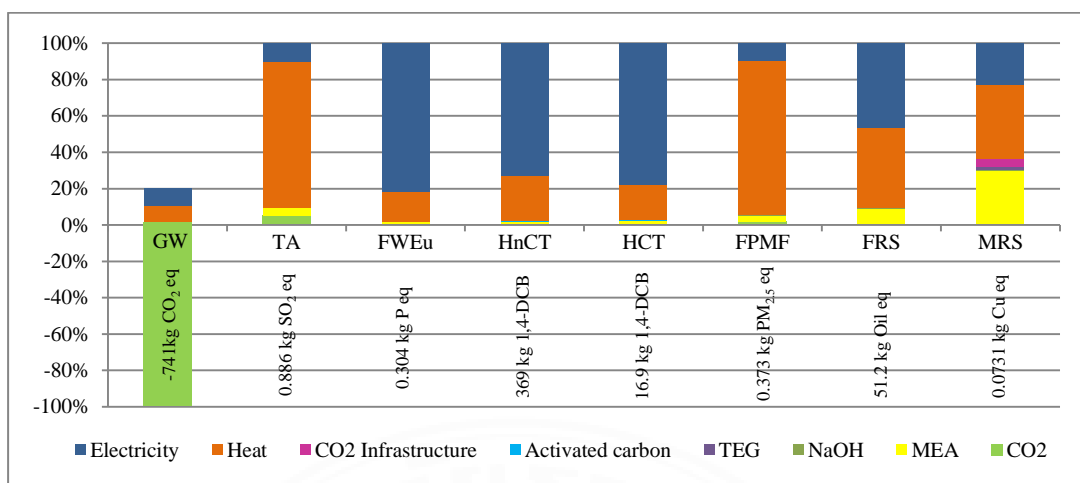


Figure 4.1 Impact assessment result of 1 ton CO₂ capture.

(Total score in each impact is set to 100%)

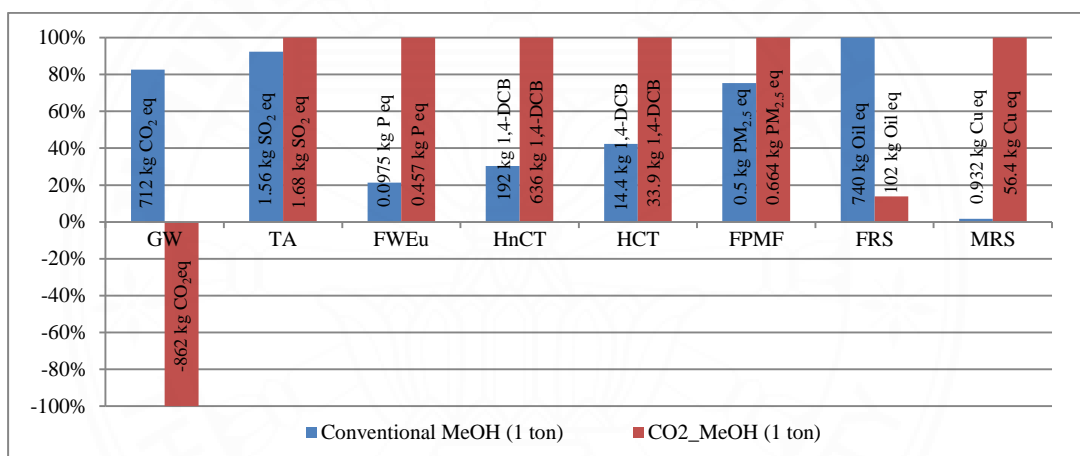


Figure 4.2 Impact assessment comparisons between the two types of methanol production. (Maximum impact score is set to 100%)

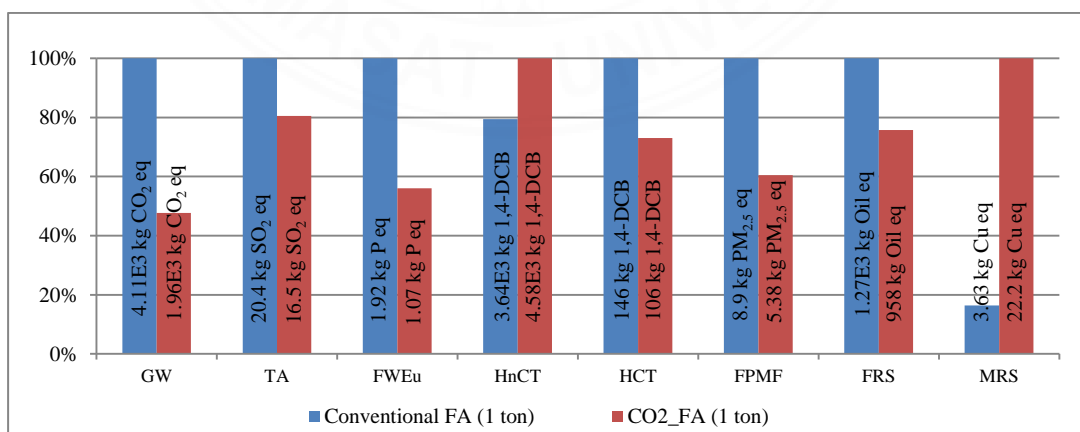


Figure 4.3 Impact assessment comparisons between the two types of formic acid production. (Maximum impact score is set to 100%)

4.1.7 Sensitivity analysis

Sensitivity analyses by impact score reductions in figure 4.4 and by impact percentage reductions in figure 4.5 are carried out based on (0% to 100%) heat compensation from the waste heat recovery of carbon capture to reduce the heat requirement and its related effects. The waste heat extracted from multi-stage compressors with intercoolers and coolers in the MEA-based carbon removal process (see the sample figure 4.6) decrease the total efficiency loss of the power plant due to carbon capture from 3% (Minh T Ho et al., 2009) to 3.86% (Cheng Xu, 2020), which can fulfill half of the heat demand (7.05%).

The sensitivity analysis results illustrated that in terms of the impact score reduction, the noticeable changes are found in the three highest impact indicators: HnCT, FRS, and GW, whereas the very few scores of others do not show significant variations but provide further great benefit to FPMF and TA impacts reductions in CO₂_MeOH production with waste heat rather than the production without waste heat combination. Compared to the scenarios without heat compensation (0%), 50% heat compensation can minimize the impact scores additionally by 10% in GW, 11% in HnCT, 16% in FRS, 30% in TA, 35% in FPMF, 8% in FWEu, 7% in HCT and 0.04% in MRS of the CO₂_MeOH; while by 3% in GW, 1% in HnCT, 1.1% in FRS, 2.1% in TA, 2.9% in FPMF, 2.3% in FWEu, 1.5% in HCT and 0.07% in MRS of CO₂_FA. As a result, four (FWEu, HCT, HnCT, MRS) out of eight observed impacts are higher in CO₂_MeOH with the waste heat integration than the traditional, when CO₂_FA without or with heat integration remains the same pattern.

To sum up, according to the compared results, the potential environmental impacts become higher in 6 out of 8 indicators at CO₂_MeOH production while 2 out of those at CO₂_FA production. The analysis results were taken into account with the complete LCI data from the primary feedstocks: CO₂ and H₂ productions to catalyst consumptions and infrastructures that were found to increase the scores of the investigated indicators despite GHG_s savings. As system optimization, the maximum impact scores associated with the energy demand of CO₂ capture can be cut down by the waste heat integration gained from the carbon removal process that offered further two impacts reductions to CO₂_MeOH production than the production without waste heat combination.

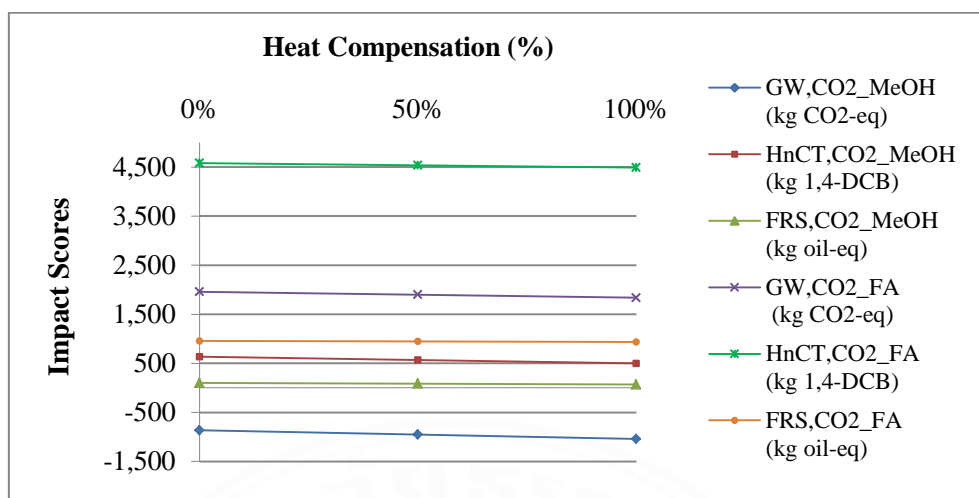


Figure 4.4 Sensitivity analysis of (0% to 100%) heat compensation by integrating waste heat recovery in 1 ton of CO₂_MeOH and CO₂_FA productions.
(In terms of impact scores reduction)

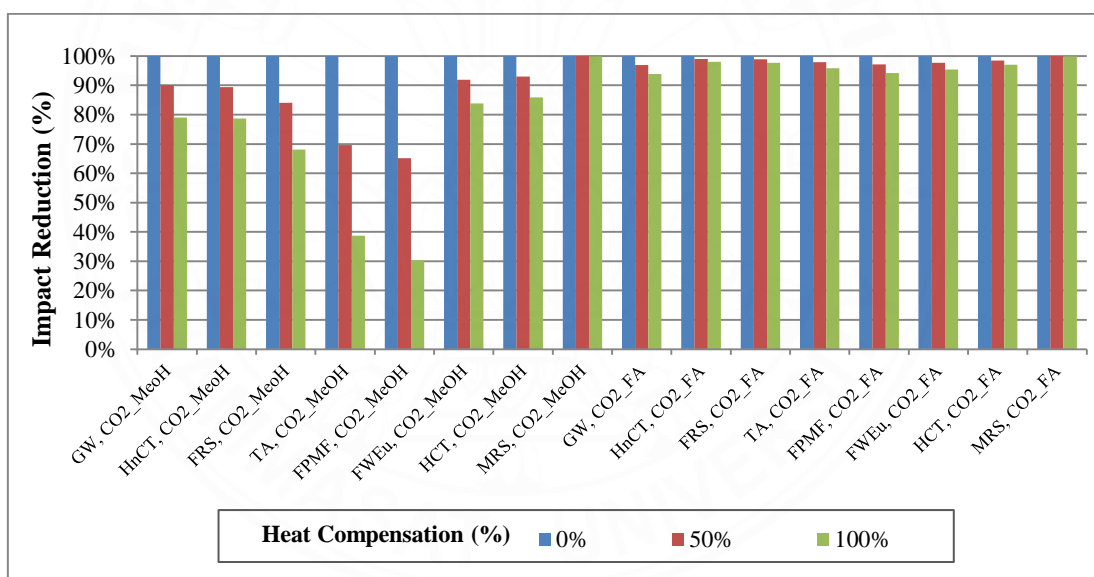


Figure 4.5 Sensitivity analysis of (0% to 100%) heat compensation by integrating waste heat recovery in 1 ton of CO₂_MeOH and CO₂_FA productions.
(In terms of impact reduction percentage)

4.2 Economic analysis results

MEA chemical solvent based carbon capture process

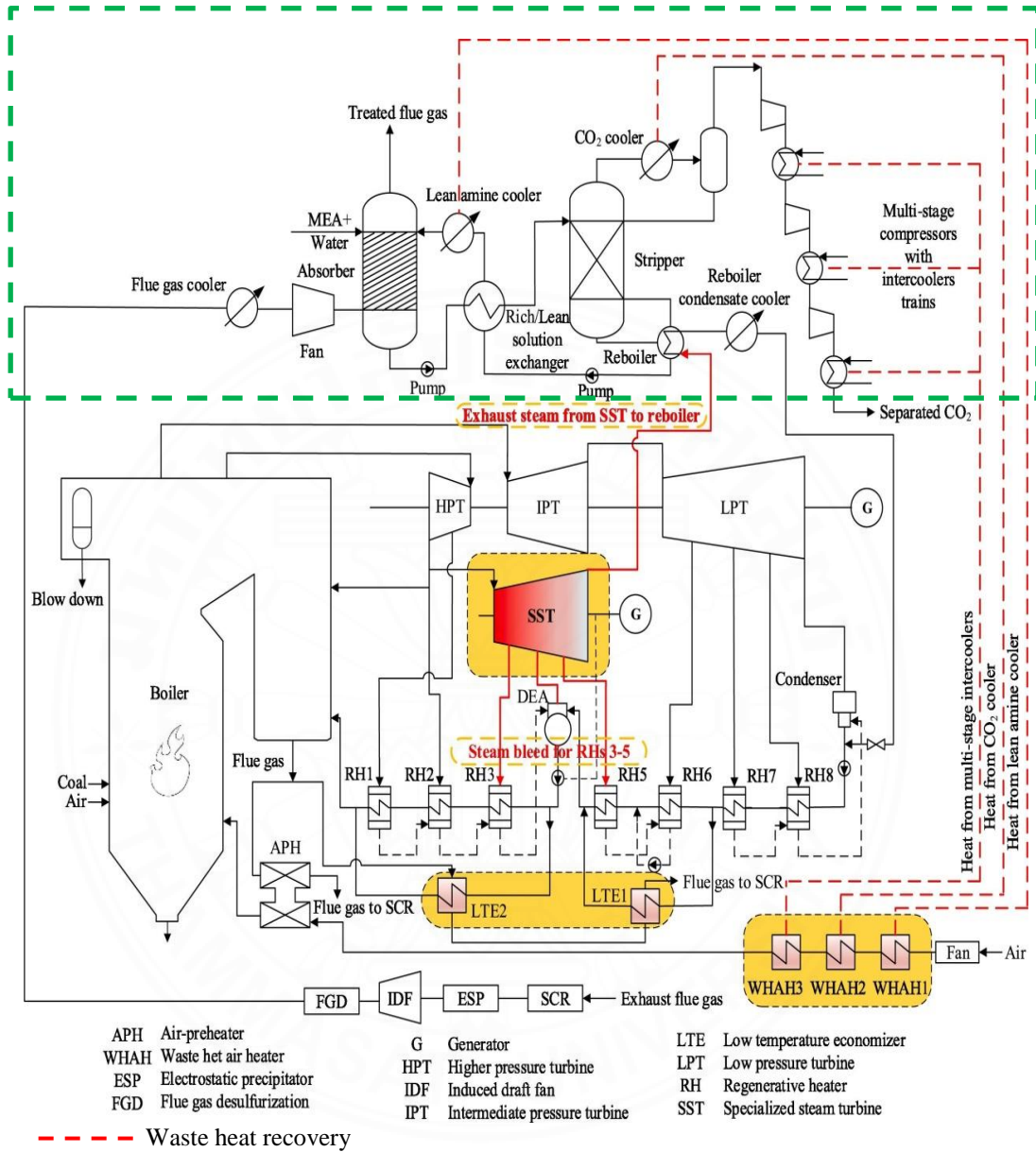


Figure 4.6 Sample figure of MEA-based carbon capture process with waste heat recovery in a coal-fired power plant. (Cheng Xu, 2020)

Table 4.3 CO₂ capture cost comparison to the existing pulverized-coal power plants.

Items	Mae Moh plant with CO ₂ capture (2020)	(Minh T Ho et al., 2009)		(Cheng Xu, 2020)		IPCC Report (Min-Max) (Metz, 2005)
		Without heat recovery	With heat recovery	Without heat recovery	With heat recovery	
Plant type	PC	PC		PC		PC
Boiler Type	USC	Subcritical		USC		Subcritical
Coal Type or combustion rate	Lignite, <4600 kcal/kg	Lignite		21.13 MJ/kg (LHV)		Sub-bitu/ Bitu
Reference plant power output (MW, Gross)	655	550		1089		248-470
Power output with carbon capture (MW, Net)	447.3	287	339	782.7	875.5	140-400
Capacity factor (%)	80	85		N/A		67-91
CO ₂ emission before capture (tCO ₂ /MWh)	0.7305	1.09		0.77		0.9-1.0
CO ₂ emission after capture (tCO ₂ /MWh)	0.073	0.19	0.16	0.105	0.091	0.06-0.37
CO ₂ capture %	90	90		N/A		90-96
Capture technology	MEA (30 wt%)	MEA (30 wt%)		MEA (30 wt%)		MEA (30 wt%)
Plant efficiency (%)	45	31		45.17		33-37
Plant efficiency with carbon capture (%)	33	18	21	32.52	36.38	19-25
Energy penalty in carbon capture (%-pts)	12	13	10	12.65	8.79	12-14
Plant TOC (\$/kW)	N/A	1210		644		0-160
Plant TOC with carbon capture (\$/kW)	N/A	3925	3390	1132-1163 ^a	1035-1063 ^a	647-1941
Incremental cost for carbon capture (\$/kW)	2427	2715	2180	488-519 ^a	391-419 ^a	647-1602
Plant COE (\$/MWh)	N/A	33		61.04		18-26
Carbon capture plant COE (\$/MWh)	84	98	83	95.19-96.55 ^a	86.11-87.33 ^a	51-70
Incremental COE for carbon capture (\$/MWh)	84	65	50	34.15-35.51 ^a	25.07-26.29 ^a	31-62
Cost of CO ₂ avoided (\$/tCO ₂)	127	73	55	51.1-53.14 ^a	36.92-38.72 ^a	45-73

a = including CO₂ transport and storage cost

According to the economic evaluation results in Table 4.3, the cost of electricity production (COE) and the CO₂ avoidance price in Mae Moh Plant are higher than the competitive studies due to different cost assumption methods, CO₂ compression and transportation cost consideration, and the different currency base year. For example, the study (Cheng Xu, 2020) had considered only 162 M\$ for MEA-based CO₂ capture process and 35.8 M\$ for the compression stage in capital cost. In contrast, Mae Moh case assumed 387 M\$ for carbon capture and 78.78 M\$ for compression and drying. In addition, the carbon capture plant of Mae Moh included plant upgrades, EPCC, process contingencies, project contingencies, other owner costs and so on in the capital cost assumption (see calculation in Appendix B). Compared to the cost analyses of the study (Minh T Ho et al., 2009) and the IPCC 2005 report without CO₂ compression and transportation cost (Metz, 2005), the currency base year of the Mae Moh case was updated to 2020 by using CEPCI.

However, the lower CO₂ emission is achieved in the USC boiler compared to the SC boiler. If enhanced oil recovery projects can utilize the captured CO₂ from the plant, the increased COE could be lowered (Tramošljika et al., 2021). The total energy penalty of integrating the carbon capture process into the existing coal power plants can be found the same, at least 12% in all plants; while for new power plants with CO₂ capture, the losses are 9-12% in IPCC report (Metz, 2005). Concerning the cases of Minh Ho (Minh T Ho et al., 2009) and Cheng Xu (Cheng Xu, 2020), the plant with the waste heat integration gained from the MEA-based carbon removal process provided great benefits such as total energy demand fall, the plant efficiency increase, lower CO₂ emissions, and the cost reductions in the carbon capture, COE, and the avoided CO₂ rather than the plant without heat combination. In Table 4.7, a further 13\$ cost reduction in the CO₂ avoided is offered from 50% heat compensation compared to the cost without heat compensation.

Table 4.4 Levelized cost of production (LCOP) of CCU products.

LCOP (\$/ ton product)		
Production	a. Methanol	b. Formic acid
CAPEX/ TOC (\$)	1,366,313,252	60,563,548
Fixed O & M (\$/yr)	47,477,909	3,369,847
Variable O & M (\$/yr)	1,052,185,362	251,978,059
n, year	25	25
r, interest rate	0.08	0.08
CRF, Capital Recovery Factor	0.094	0.094
Production (t/yr)	1,000,000	250,000
LCOP (\$/ton product)	1,227	1044

Table 4.5 Methanol production cost comparison

Methanol production technology	Production capacity (t/d)	CO ₂ emissions (tCO ₂ /tFA)	LCOP (\$/t)	Currency year
Direct CO ₂ Hydrogenation (this study)	3,000	0.136 ^a , 0.09 ^b	1,227	(2020\$)
Stream methane reforming (Blumberg, Tsatsaronis, & Morosuk, 2019)	2,590	N/A (0.695 ^a , 0.073 ^b)	295	(2016\$)
Stream methane reforming (Al-Rowaili et al., 2022)	90	0.08	368	(2021\$)
Global Market Price (Alibaba.com)	1 ton = 750 \$			(2021\$)

a = indirect emissions (Pérez-Fortes et al., 2016),

b = process (direct) emission (Pérez-Fortes et al., 2016)

Table 4.6 Formic Acid production cost comparison

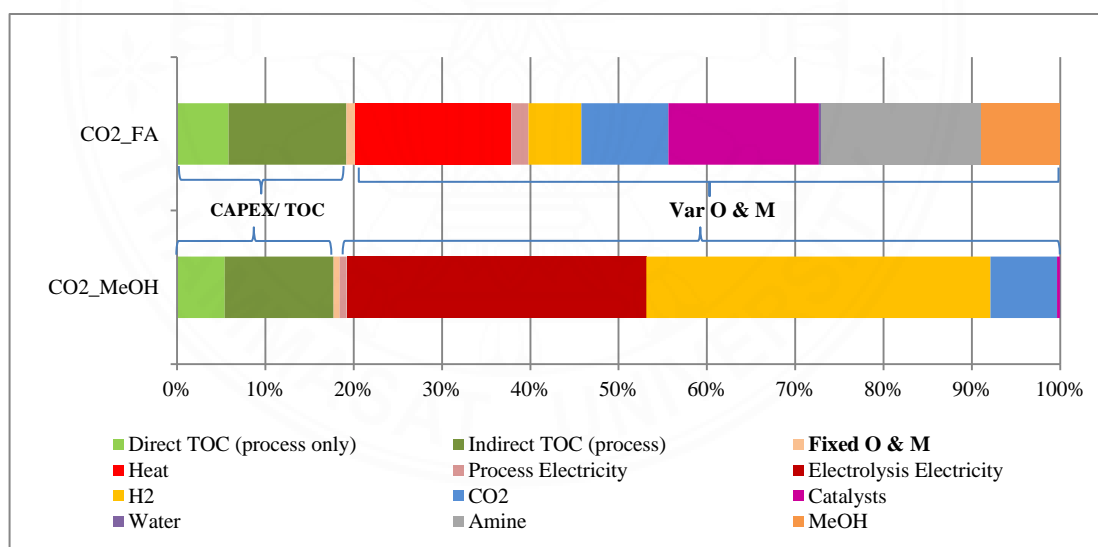
Formic Acid (FA) production technology	Production capacity (t/d)	CO ₂ emissions (tCO ₂ /tFA)	LCOP (\$/t)	Currency year
Direct CO ₂ Hydrogenation (this study)	750	1.03 ^a , 0.03 ^b	1044	(2020\$)
Methyl formate hydrolysis with CO produced from heavy fuel oil (Mar Perez-Fortes, 2016)	N/A	2.18	546	(2014\$)
Global Market Price (Alibaba.com)	1 ton = 500-800 \$			(2021\$)

a = indirect emissions (Dongin Kim, 2020) , b = process (direct) emissions

Table 4.7. Production prices with the waste heat recovery of carbon capture

Price (\$/ton)			System Optimization
CO ₂ avoided	CO ₂ _MeOH	CO ₂ _FA	
127	1227	1044	0% heat compensation
114	1208	1031	50% heat compensation
101	1190	1019	100% heat compensation

Regarding the cost analyses of CCU plants, the LCOP of the industrial-scale methanol produced from the captured CO₂ valorization for this case is a three- to four-fold increase compared to the conventional production prices from the literature (Al-Rowaili et al., 2022; Blumberg et al., 2019), as indicated in Table 4.5. As for formic acid (FA) production, shown in Table 4.6, the LCOP of the CO₂-containing FA is approximately double the conventional FA derived from carbon monoxide synthesis. Furthermore, it can be observed that the gap between CO₂-based product prices and the global market prices is roughly 1.5 times.

**Figure 4.7** Carbon-based Methanol and Formic Acid total production cost breakdown.

In the total production cost analyses depicted in Table 4.4 and figure 4.7 (see detailed calculation in Appendix C), the capital expenditure (CAPEX or TOC) associated with the direct and indirect cost contributes to around 20% of both CO₂_FA and CO₂_MeOH productions; fixed operating and maintenance cost (Fixed

O & M) attribute to by far the lowest proportion; variable operating and maintenance expense (Var O & M) accounts for the maximum (80%) contribution. In the detailed cost breakdown, the feedstock hydrogen via water electrolysis and the electrolysis electricity dominate as the majority of total methanol production cost; on the contrary, the maximum expenditure comes from the catalysts (i.e., amine and catalysts), followed by the heat in the formic acid production. The expense of input CO₂ taken from the CO₂ avoided price and water do not have a distinct effect on the total production cost.

Again, sensitivity analysis is performed on the electricity price to evaluate the maximum variable operating and maintenance (Var O & M) cost reduction in figure 4.8. The required process heat and electricity were assumed to be produced from the same power functional unit (MWh), which costs 80\$ per unit. The electricity cost from wind power was considered at the same price. The electricity price variation has a significant effect on the LCOP of CO₂_MeOH although the waste heat recovery excludes the process heat demand because the water electrolysis process consumes the larger electricity amount, which is needed to be considered when the CCU plant is implemented. However, the electricity price does not notably influence the LCOP of CO₂_FA because of 20% contribution (heat + electricity) to the total production cost, whereas about 35% involvement (process electricity + electrolysis electricity) in CO₂_MeOH production.

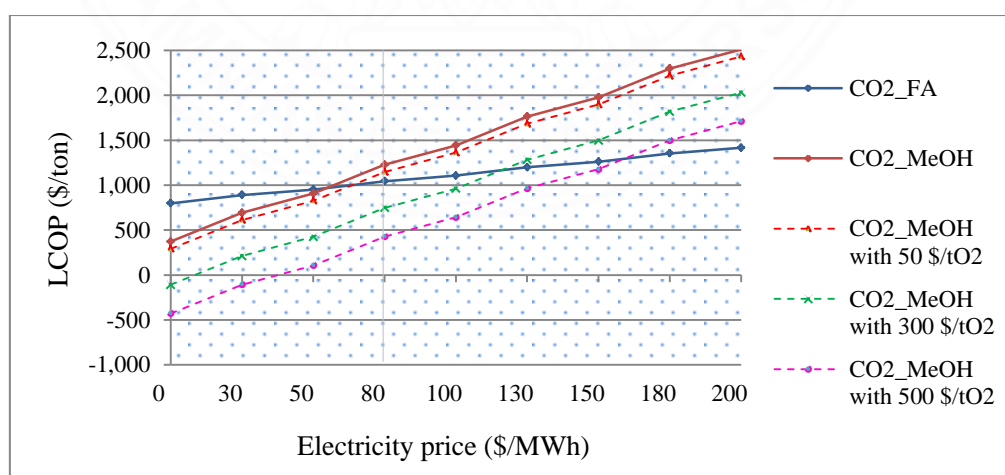


Figure 4.8 Sensitivity analysis of electricity price variation on the LCOP of carbon-based products.

The higher unit price of CO₂_MeOH can be minimized by selling by-product Oxygen (O₂) produced by 1.6 t/t CO₂_MeOH through water electrolysis technology. Depending on the oxygen and electricity selling price range, the LCOP of CO₂_MeOH could be lowered from the maximum 1711~2431 \$/t CO₂_MeOH to the minimum 291~(-429) \$/t CO₂_MeOH, shown in figure 4.8. Regarding the CO₂_FA production price, the maximum expenditures from catalysts, amine, and heat can be reduced if they are available at lower prices from the local or global supply market. For example, although the ruthenium catalyst type is costly (210,000€/kg) in the reference journal (Mar Pérez-Fortes, 2016), the price is reasonable (1065\$/kg) in the global supply market (Alibaba.com) (see Appendix A, page 72). If the cheaper catalyst can be used for CO₂_FA production, the total production cost per unit would be reduced from 1044 \$/t CO₂_FA to 866 \$/t CO₂_FA, which can compete with the global market price.

Overall, the results demonstrate that the industrial-scale captured CO₂-based methanol and formic acid processes are promising technology to implement in Thailand from an environmental point of view despite being unprofitable from an economic perspective with the competitive conventional productions. Both productions would be the most likely to launch for the financial benefit if the government offered an incentive or a favor, such as low or free electricity cost. In addition, selling by-product oxygen would be profitable for CO₂_MeOH production depending on the current market price of oxygen. The lower catalysts and amine prices would offer a reasonable CO₂_FA production cost when compared with the global market price and the conventional production cost.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusions

In conclusion, to decrease the CO₂ emissions from power plants or industries, carbon capture and utilization (CCU) technology has become a promising and attractive solution. Besides, CCU provides an incentive to the entrepreneurs who strive to reduce carbon emissions by transforming the waste pollutants into numerous commercial value-added products, which can fulfill the future fuel shortage or demand for commodities.

The risen environmental impact scores and the higher CO₂ price caused by the heat and electricity extractions of the Mae Moh power plant for carbon capture can be lowered by combining the waste heat recovered from the carbon removal process. Furthermore, waste heat integration can minimize the thermal efficiency loss and the electricity production price in the power plant retrofitting the carbon capture system.

Among various CO₂-based chemical products, CO₂-MeOH production is one of the best processes which can reduce the vast GHG emissions due to the negative carbon feedstock from the carbon capture plant and offer lower energy demand owing to the excess heat recovery through the synthesis process. The CO₂-FA production proved that the most impact categories could be reduced compared to the conventional one, whereas others can have the additional environmental impact increases except for GHG savings. Waste heat combination is a better solution to reduce the environmental impacts and the production costs.

Concerning the cost analysis, the CO₂ (avoided) price does not significantly change the total production costs of CO₂-MeOH and CO₂-FA, but they are more costly than the conventional ones because of the hydrogen production and the electrolysis electricity in CO₂-MeOH, while catalysts, amine, and heat in CO₂-FA. Although both CO₂-containing processes are expensive, subsidies or supply from the government would be beneficial to boost the CCU projects in the green transition with zero (lower) carbon emissions by 2030 or 2050 in Thailand.

5.2 Recommendations or Solutions

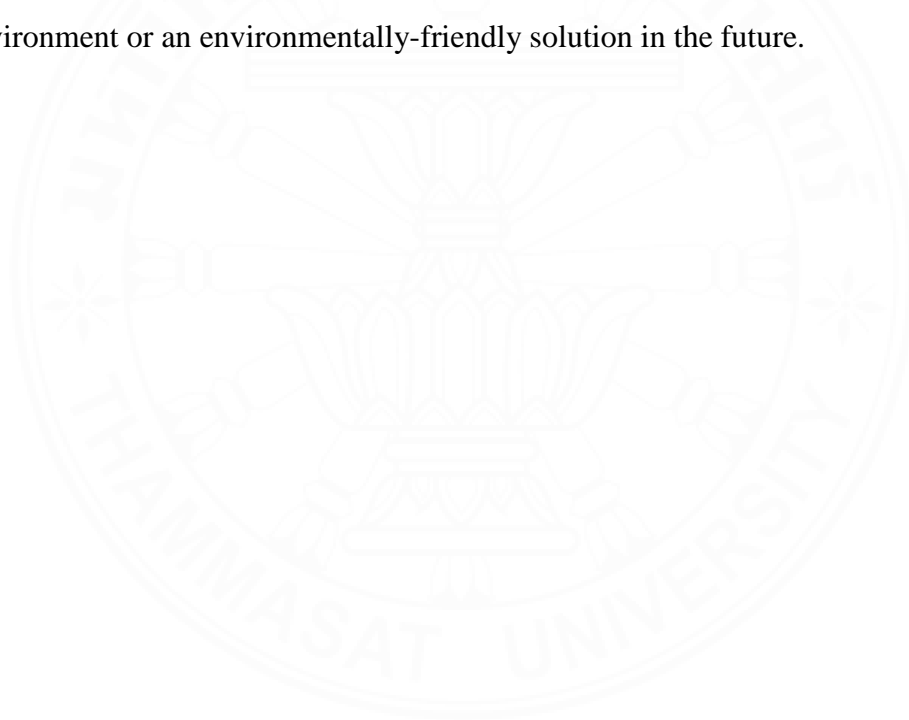
To achieve a low carbon society in Thailand and to produce both CO₂-based products with minimum impacts and low production cost, the followings are recommended:

- (1) The vast electricity generation from wind power (green energy) for H₂ production via water electrolysis technology is the most suitable option in the CO₂_MeOH process due to its lower carbon emissions, rather than other fossil fuels (grey energy) vented larger carbon emissions.
- (2) Consequently, the assessed phases of wind power electricity production raise the MRS impact, which should be alleviated by recycling the materials after the plant lifetime.
- (3) The highest impact scores and the larger CO₂ avoided cost associated with the energy demand of the CO₂ capture should be minimized by the waste heat recovery from the carbon removal process.
- (4) To reduce the maximum global warming impact of process steam, the process heat or steam extraction from the waste heat recovery of methanol synthesis would be recommended for the CO₂_MeOH process, while for CO₂_FA, the steam production from wood chip burning would be better.
- (5) By-product, oxygen through water electrolysis should be co-produced and sold to be cost-effective for CO₂_MeOH production.

5.3 Policy suggestion

Carbon pricing shows a signal to the emitters in their financial investments for carbon releases into the atmosphere, but helps shift the severe environmental burdens from human activities. Placing an adequate carbon price with a firm policy on the coal-fired power plants urges businesses to eliminate or avoid greenhouse gas emissions. It is a tool for the government to transform into a decarbonized economy, low-carbon society, and green energy transition. At the same time, investors emphasize this external cost reduction together with an awareness to global warming, plant efficiency improvement, climate-resilient activities, and market innovation.

Introducing carbon capture technology in a coal-fired power plant is an incentive to avoid the carbon tax in the investment portfolios and the potential climate risks to the environment. In accordance with the policy, carbon revenue reduction on the CO₂ emissions of the coal-fired power plants will be profitable for the investors. For example, if the carbon pricing, 25\$/tCO₂ emission is charged in the power generation of the Mae Moh coal plant, the revenue for CO₂ emissions can be minimized from 83,829,250 \$/yr (without carbon capture) to 8,382,925 \$/yr (with carbon capture). It is the consideration only on the power generation process and does not include the emissions of coal extraction, coal mining, rising coal consumption in the carbon capture plant, etc. Policy set up on the carbon capture technology should offer a financial incentive with the lower the carbon tax, which leads to a clean environment or an environmentally-friendly solution in the future.



CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH TIMEFRAME

This research work has been planned for two academic years with the following twelve steps in Table 5.1 from August 2020, until July 2022.

Table 5.1 Research timeframe

Research Plan	First Academic Year (2020-2021)							Second Academic Year (2021-2022)																
	8	9	10	11	12	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Literature review																								
2. Set up the goal and scope, system boundary, and methodology																								
3. Data collection																								
4. Economic evaluation or cost analysis																								
5. Prepare proposal																								
6. Proposal presentation and submission																								
7. Impact assessment & Interpretation																								
8. Draft report																								
9. Progress presentation																								
10. International conference attending and presentation																								
11. Final presentation																								
12. Final thesis report submission																								

CHAPTER 7

COMMENTS AND REVIEWS ON THESIS

1. Comments and Reviews on Thesis Proposal

Question from Professor Hidetoshi Sekiguchi.

In which productions will these CO₂-based products be utilized because those are just basic chemicals and are used in various productions? Should prepare further utilization processes in the next step.

Answer

For the further steps of CO₂-based methanol and formic acid utilizations (the grave stage in LCA), there is no additional LCA case study. Although there are technical papers on formic acid and methanol utilizations, no one studied from LCA points of view and economic analysis. So, I defined and limited the LCA system boundary in the figure. (An additional explanation can be read on page 62, answer-2, third comment)

Question from Associate Professor Paiboon Sreearunothai.

Why do not you compare the MEA-based carbon capture process with another CO₂ capture process? What are the criteria in your research?

Answer

Because there is no available on-site data to compare the two CO₂-capture processes, besides the CO₂-capture processes with different solvents or technology have not been well developed in Thailand to collect and compare data. Although I can discuss with the authors who published a new CO₂ capture process in a journal or a paper, their explanations and descriptions had limitations because they used their private/ industrial data in detail and cannot share with me all of their technology and intellectual property.

The main criteria in my case study are LCI data based on a functional unit because LCA assessment and economic analysis are mainly estimated or evaluated by using those LCI data. Without LCI data, I cannot do anything in my Thesis.

2. Comments and Reviews on Research Progress

Question from Professor Hidetoshi Sekiguchi.

When you consider the heat recovery, do you check temperatures of heat sources and sinks between which heat is exchanged? Also, in Fig.4.6, five heat exchangers are installed. Does this case indicate best performance? Are there any possibilities to set heat exchangers?

Answer

My research is only environmental and economic assessment, did not include a technical viewpoint. So, the heat recovery with detailed technical parameters was not required to consider. If included all viewpoints (Techno-Economic and Environmental views), the results would be come out the best. In addition, we will need to be familiar with the various software, as each analysis process has to be used with different software.

The waste heat recovery with five heat exchangers (according to the sample figure 4.6) can not be referred as the best performance when checking with the final results in my case study, but it is a better solution or system optimization to reduce the intensive energy demand of MEA-based carbon capture process and its consequent environmental impacts.

Question from Professor Hidetoshi Sekiguchi.

You assume that methanol synthesis use electrolysis for hydrogen production, however, steam reforming is used for formaldehyde synthesis. Why do you assume different synthesis methods? Also, if electrolysis is used for FA, is the index of GW shown as negative similarly to methanol synthesis?

Answer

I assumed different synthesis methods looking at total production cost, carbon emissions, and H₂ input amount. It would be better producing CO₂_MeOH with H₂ via electrolysis to reach my goal of lower carbon emission despite higher investment. If we consider the CO₂_MeOH process with H₂ via steam reforming, most environmental impacts will increase compared to the conventional production because steam reforming technology is based on fossil fuel resources such as Natural gas. If we produce CO₂_FA with H₂ from steam reforming, it is still lower in environmental

impacts and production cost. The key is the H₂ requirement amount that is lesser in CO₂_FA (0.06t/1t FA) than in CO₂_MeOH (0.2t/1t MeOH), thus CO₂_FA with reforming did not show significant environmental impacts.

If water electrolysis is used for FA, according to the software analysis results below, the negative GW index was not shown because as I explained above, the H₂ input amount is small.

Impact category	Unit	CO ₂ _FA with steam reforming	CO ₂ _FA with electrolysis	Conventional FA
Global warming	kg CO ₂ eq	1957	1450	4110
Terrestrial acidification	kg SO ₂ eq	16.5	15.5	20.4
Freshwater eutrophication	kg P eq	1.075	1.08	1.92
Human non-carcinogenic toxicity	kg 1,4-DCB	4580	4570	3640
Human carcinogenic toxicity	kg 1,4-DCB	106	106	146
Fine particulate matter formation	kg PM _{2.5} eq	5.38	5.1	8.9
Fossil resource scarcity	kg oil eq	958	864	1270
Mineral resource scarcity	kg Cu eq	22.18	38.4	3.63

Question from Professor Hidetoshi Sekiguchi.

What is C₁₈H₃₉N? Is it catalyst for FA formation?

Answer

C₁₈H₃₉N = NHex₃ = Tertiary amine (or) Trihexyl amine = catalyst for FA formation
For CO₂-FA formation of this case, Tertiary amine catalyst, Ruthenium and phosphino catalysts are used.

Question from Professor Hidetoshi Sekiguchi.

As compared with the results of methanol, the assessment of FA shows better. What is the most important factor for this result?

Answer

Because it is due to CO₂ and H₂ input amount. When we take a look at the results of Tables 4.1 and 4.2, all environmental impacts of MeOH (despite negative global warming value) came from the input CO₂ due to the energy extraction from Mae Moh coal plant for the CO₂ capture process. The higher the input CO₂ amount in CCU processes, the greater the environmental impacts because of fossil fuel use to capture carbon in my study. That is also one of the reasons why I chose the MeOH

project with H₂ from electrolysis, not from steam reforming (fossil fuel use). CO₂ and H₂ input amount of FA is lower than that of MeOH, so the assessment of FA showed better.

Again, I did not try to go synthesis natural gas (SNG) production via methanation technology because it consume the higher CO₂ amount and finally all impacts will raise. That would be beyond the goal of this study.

Question from Professor Hidetoshi Sekiguchi.

Are there any ideas for improvement of the assessment of methanol except for heat recovery? Also for FA such as HnCT and MRS?

Answer

In order to improve the assessment of all CO₂-based productions, it would be better to utilize not only process heat recovery but also all energy requirements from biomass or renewable power for both CO₂ capture and the synthesis process.

Human non-carcinogenic toxicity (HnCT) and mineral resource scarcity (MRS) impacts of CO₂-FA are due to the metal catalysts (used instead of Ruthenium-Phosphina, Ru-Ph), that cannot be avoided as long as it is used. However, we can change the same method with a different catalyst, Au/TiO₂ (Please see the comparison of Ru-Ph and Au/TiO₂ on page 16, financial evaluation on CCU Projects, Literature Review, Chapter-2). If changed to Au/TiO₂ catalyst, a further detailed assessment will be required. When evaluating it in general, Au/TiO₂ would be better than Ru-Ph because of lower energy demand and the smaller amount of catalyst.

Question from Associate Professor Pakorn Opaprakasit.

In the Simapro software, there are total 18 impact categories. Why you choose only 8 impacts? What are the criterias?

Answer

I chose only 8 impacts because those are the significant impact indicators in the power generation system and the important factors for the society according to Thailand standards. Other impacts such as water consumption and land use are less important than the current investigated impacts.

Question from Dr.Seksan Papong.

In chapter 3, you mention about 655 MW pulverized coal Mae Moh power plant, there needs to be an explanation of existing of the power plant and an explanation of the CCS for Mae Moh power plant. How much CO₂ was generated from 655 MW for one year? How much capacity of the carbon capture plant for 655 MW?

Answer

- an explanation of existing of the power plant and an explanation of the CCU for Mae Moh power plant = (Please read Chapter 1, Background of the study, pages 2-3)
- CO₂ generation from 655 MW for one year = Please see Table 3.1, just simply calculate it as follow;

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{CO}_2 \text{ generation in a year} &= \text{Power output (Gross)} \times \text{operation time} \times \text{capacity} \\
 &\quad \text{factor} \times \text{CO}_2 \text{ emission before carbon capture} \\
 &= 655 \text{ MW} \times 8760 \text{ hrs/yr} \times 80\% \times 0.7305 \text{ tCO}_2/\text{MWh} \\
 &= 3,353,170 \text{ tCO}_2/\text{yr}
 \end{aligned}$$

- Capacity of the carbon capture plant for 655 MW = Please see Table 4.3.

Question from Dr.Seksan Papong.

Chapter 4, your research assumes that the electricity of H₂ & CO₂-MeOH productions come from the wind power plant, how much is the capacity of a wind power plant? Are you considering the production cost of a wind power plant? Are you account for the transportation stage for raw material from the production source to the carbon capture and utilization plant?

Answer

The capacity of the wind power plant in my study is 300 MW according to the taken data information from the Simapro software.

I did not consider the production cost of a wind power plant, but the taken data itself was the LCA assessment of the electricity production from a wind power plant. There is no market choice for electricity produced from wind power in the software.

The raw material productions in my study are MEA, CO₂ & H₂ that were taken into account with the transportation stage.

MEA transportation = Please see at LCI data for MEA (1 kg) production.

CO₂ transportation = 5 km pipeline transportation, please see at LCI data for onshore CO₂ pipeline infrastructure.

H₂ transportation = Assumed to locate the H₂ plant in the same onsite of CCU plant. (No need transportation)

Question from Dr.Seksan Papong.

Where is the location of the Methanol and Formic acid plants in your study?

Answer

Please read in page-27. From the carbon capture plant to the CCU plant was assumed to be 5 km long distance with CO₂ pipeline transportation.

Question from Dr.Seksan Papong.

CO₂ capture cost of Mae Moh plant with CO₂ capture (2020 \$) in Table 4.3. Does the result come from your analysis or literature review?

Answer

I did not attach the reference for it in Table 4.3. I calculated it by using the equations, formula and the assumptions from pages 20-23. You can check that calculation in Appendix B.

Question from Dr.Seksan Papong.

I would to know about the cost of a company emitting 100% CO₂ and paying the carbon tax, and a company investing in the CCS to reduce carbon tax.

Answer

For 100% CO₂ emissions, total CO₂ emissions at 655 MW plant = 3,353,170 ton/yr
If you charge carbon tax, 25\$/tCO₂ emission = 3,353,170 ton* 25\$ = 83,829,250 \$/yr

If you use carbon capture technology, total CO₂ emissions at 655 MW plant with carbon capture = 335,317 ton/yr.

If you charge carbon tax, 25\$/tCO₂ emission = 335,317 ton * 25\$ = 8,382,925 \$/yr

It is only the consideration on the power generation process. Not included the CO₂ emissions on coal mining, increased coal consumption in carbon capture plant, CCU plants, and so on. It depends on your policy how you will charge the carbon tax on a power plant and if introduced carbon capture technology, the carbon tax will be much more reduced or not.

3. Comments and Reviews received from the reviewers at “PACCON 2022 Conference” for full paper conference proceeding.

First Comment - I don't clear some sentence "Despite a net negative carbon emission, CO₂_MeOH production can arise 6 out of 8 investigated environmental impact indicators while 2 out of 8 impacts increase in CO₂_FA production".

Answer

Yes, in that sentence, "net negative carbon emission" is the key of this study. Net negative carbon emission means that we need to add -1 ton CO₂ (air emission) in the Simapro software for every one ton of carbon capture because 1 ton CO₂ emissions into the air is avoided. Minus sign is of importance. However, we got global warming (GW) impact score -741 kg CO₂ eq in the analysis result because of CO₂ emissions from the energy productions and other chemicals in the carbon capture.

After that, we use that negative carbon capture value as the input CO₂ requirements in the CO₂-based productions, so negative value is still achieved in the global warming impact of CO₂_MeOH. Although GW impact is negative thanks to negative carbon emissions, other impacts are higher in the CO₂-based productions than the conventional (i.e., 6 out of 8 investigated impacts increases in CO₂_MeOH, 2 out of 8 impacts increases in CO₂_FA).

Second Comment - "Explain the figure 2, 3, 4 (i.e. Figure 4.1, 4.2, 4.3) in the manuscript, difficult to understand. Should show the score on Environmental impact aspects".

Answer

Yes. I added the figures as the results of LCA software and I hoped every LCA users can understand them, so I removed this description "the Maximum impact score is set to 100%" in the figure due to the limited page numbers for publication. I forgot to target all audience to present clearly. Thank you very much for the comment.

In the figure 2 (Figure 4.1), total score in each impact is set to 100% of which energy production, chemical etc. contribute to how much percentage were revealed.

In the figure 3 (Figure 4.2) and 4 (Figure 4.3), the maximum impact score between the two compared productions (with and without CO₂) is set to 100%. Then, in CO₂-based products, we described which input contributed to how much percentage of total impact score in the manuscript.

Third Comment - "The manuscript was well written with sufficient information. However, there are some points that should be reconsidered as follows;

1. In the second last line of the first paragraph in the Introduction, the statement ...that can "go up"....go up should be replaced with other term.
2. In the second paragraph of the results and discussion, if such limitations were already known to the authors, why they were not included in the assessment? Please clarify.
3. In the conclusion, the discussion should be further clarified in the case of possibility in using wind energy and/or waste heat recovery in Thailand, does the current technology/ infrastructure offer the country to achieve those recommendations?."

Answer

1. I noticed to change this "go up" term, but I did not revise it immediately and forgot it later. Thank you for your alert.

2. Due to Covid-19 situation, I could not go and collect on-site data. For data, I cannot use literature (secondary) data because emission data is different depending on the type of coal, type of power plant and additional pollutant removal installations such as ESP, SCR, FGD in the power plant. Again, there was no complete study which described detailed pollutant emission data of alternative products. Thus, I tried to collect and present the data as much as I can in my study. To go the next step, the final end-user or CO₂-based methanol and formic acid utilization processes (the grave stage in LCA), there is no further case study to collect LCI data, besides as far as I know, these CCU projects have not been implemented in Thailand to use on-site data. I can try CO₂-based Synthesis Natural Gas (SNG) production via methanation technology but at the end, most environmental impacts will become higher, that is not suitable to choose and present. So, those are why there were limitations in my study. According to my literature reviews, above limitations except for final end user stage

may not have too much score difference because coal extraction and transportation will show + sign score, whereas recycling and waste management will show - sign score.

3. I further clarified the possibility of using wind energy and/or waste heat recovery in conclusion and recommendations section as your advice. For the question "Does the current technology/ infrastructure offer the country to achieve those recommendations?" in my view, it is possible to achieve the lower carbon growth with such technology from an environmental point of view, but from an economic benefit perspective, the government's subsidies will be required to implement the CCU projects because CO₂-based products are more expensive than the conventional products.

4. Thesis Preparation

This research work was prepared during two academic years.

In the first year, LCA literature reviews of CCS and CCU were done under the supervision of the co-advisor at NSTDA. General knowledge, lectures related to sustainable development, research preparations, and presentations were well trained by Tokyo Tech professors. LCA data running and results interpretation were taught effectively by a teacher from Kasetsart University. From that LCA training, I became familiar with the LCA software and got to know with my observation that I can request Free license software from the Simapro software team. Thus, I got one-year free license with the latest version from the Simapro software team; furthermore, they provided the necessary training for data simulations. Therefore, I can analyze the LCI data well.

In the second year, I frequently attended the CCU seminars, webinars, and discussions organized online by the western countries such as UK, USA, Canada. Consequently, I gained priceless knowledge and idea to prepare and write my CCU Thesis. Journals, papers, articles, and reports taught me how to write my Thesis in detail, for example, which parameter should be analyzed in the sensitivity analysis. If I did not understand an article, I directly discussed it with the authors via email, but their explanations had limitations due to their private onsite data. Mostly, I found the solutions from the appendix or supplementary files attached to their articles. Moreover, Thailand electricity background data was taken from the websites of

EGAT and the Ministry of Energy. LCI data were collected from journals, reports, and Simapro software. The collected data were combined with the findings of literature reviews to meet the research goal of the lower global warming impact of the CCU projects. Then, I practiced and analyzed the detailed data on my own in the software to produce better results for my Thesis and checked my final results with the other CCU papers. The university advisor evaluated my manuscript and commented on it in accordance with the Master's degree graduation requirement standard. Due to my relentless efforts and the advisor's supervisions and arrangements, all graduation requirements were met on time during two academic years.



REFERENCES

- Al-Rowaili, F. N., Khalafalla, S. S., Al-Yami, D. S., Jamal, A., Ahmed, U., Zahid, U., & Al-Mutairi, E. M. (2022). Techno-economic evaluation of methanol production via gasification of vacuum residue and conventional reforming routes. *Chemical Engineering Research and Design*, 177, 365-375. doi:10.1016/j.cherd.2021.11.004
- Alibaba.com. [cited 2021, October 11]; Available from: <https://www.alibaba.com/>.
- Battaglia, P., Buffo, G., Ferrero, D., Santarelli, M., & Lanzini, A. (2021). Methanol synthesis through CO₂ capture and hydrogenation: Thermal integration, energy performance and techno-economic assessment. *Journal of CO₂ Utilization*, 44. doi:10.1016/j.jcou.2020.101407
- Blumberg, T., Tsatsaronis, G., & Morosuk, T. (2019). On the economics of methanol production from natural gas. *Fuel*, 256. doi:10.1016/j.fuel.2019.115824
- Bong Jae Lee , J. I. L., Soo Young Yun, Cheol-Soo Lim, Young-Kwon Park. (2020). Economic Evaluation of Carbon Capture and Utilization Applying the Technology of Mineral Carbonation at Coal-Fired Power Plant. *Sustainability* 2020, 12, 6175. doi:10.3390/su12156175
- Boreum Lee, H. L., Sanggyu Kang, Hankwon Lim. (2019). Stochastic techno-economic analysis of power-to-gas technology for synthetic natural gas production based on renewable H₂ cost and CO₂ tax credit. *Journal of Energy Storage* 24 (2019) 100791. doi:10.1016/j.est.2019.100791
- Cheng Xu, X. L., Xin Liu, Jun Li,. (2020). An integrated de-carbonization supercritical coal-fired power plant incorporating a supplementary steam turbine, process heat recovery and a modified boiler structure. *Applied Thermal Engineering*, 178. doi:10.1016/j.applthermaleng.2020.115532
- Cora Fernández-Dacosta, M. v. d. S., Christine Roxanne Hung, Gabriel David Oregionni, Ragnhild Skagestad, Prashant Parihar, D.T. Gokak, Anders Hammer Strømman, Andrea Ramirez. (2017). Prospective techno-economic and environmental assessment of carbon capture at a refinery and CO₂ utilisation in polyol synthesis. *Journal of CO₂ Utilization* 21 (2017) 405–422. doi:10.1016/j.jcou.2017.08.005
- Cuéllar-Franca, R. M., & Azapagic, A. (2015). Carbon capture, storage and utilisation technologies: A critical analysis and comparison of their life cycle environmental impacts. *Journal of CO₂ Utilization*, 9, 82-102. doi:10.1016/j.jcou.2014.12.001
- Dongin Kim, J. H. (2020). Comprehensive analysis of two catalytic processes to produce formic acid from carbon dioxide. *Applied Energy* 264 (2020) 114711. doi:10.1016/j.apenergy.2020.114711
- E. Batuecas , F. L., T. Tommasi, S. Bensaid, F.A. Deorsola, D. Fino. (2021). Recycling CO₂ from flue gas for CaCO₃ nanoparticles production as cement filler: A Life Cycle Assessment. *Journal of CO₂ Utilization* 45 (2021) 101446. doi:10.1016/j.jcou.2021.101446
- Edward S. Rubin, A. B. R. (2002). A technical, economic, and environmental assessment of amine-based CO₂ capture technology for power plant greenhouse gas control. *36* 20, 4467-4475. doi:DOE/DE-FC26-00NT40935

- EGAT Sustainability Report (2020). (Electricity Generating Authority of Thailand; 53 Moo 2 Charan Sanitwong Road, Bang Kruai, Nonthaburi, 11130, [cited 2021, October 14]; Available from: <https://www.egat.co.th>).
- Eleonora Bargiacchi, N. T., Jutta Geldermann, Marco Antonelli and Umberto Desideri. (2020). Life Cycle Assessment of Synthetic Natural Gas Production from Different CO₂ Sources: A Cradle-to-Gate Study. *Energies* 2020, 13, 4579. doi:10.3390/en13174579
- Energy Policy and Planning Office (EPPO). (2021). *Ministry of Energy, 121/1-2 Phetchaburi Road, Ratchathewi, Bangkok 10400, Thailand*. Retrieved from www.eppo.go.th
- Gálvez-Martos, J.-L., Elhoweris, A., Hakki, A., & Al-horr, Y. (2020). Techno-economic assessment of a carbon capture and utilization process for the production of plaster-like construction materials. *Journal of CO₂ Utilization*, 38, 59-67. doi:10.1016/j.jcou.2019.12.017
- Georg A. Buchner, N. W., Reinhard Schomäcke. (2020). Techno-economic assessment of CO₂-containing polyurethane rubbers. *Journal of CO₂ Utilization* 36 (2020) 153–168. doi:10.1016/j.jcou.2019.11.010
- González-Garay, A., Frei, M. S., Al-Qahtani, A., Mondelli, C., Guillén-Gosálbez, G., & Pérez-Ramírez, J. (2019). Plant-to-planet analysis of CO₂-based methanol processes. *Energy & Environmental Science*, 12(12), 3425-3436. doi:10.1039/c9ee01673b
- Hao Huang, T. W., Ben Kolosz, John Andresen, Susana Garcia, Mengxiang Fang, M. Mercedes Maroto-Valer. (2019). Life-cycle assessment of emerging CO₂ mineral carbonation-cured concrete blocks: Comparative analysis of CO₂ reduction potential and optimization of environmental impacts. doi:10.1016/j.jclepro.2019.118359
- Jordi Guiler, J. R. M., Teresa Andreu. (2018). Economic viability of SNG production from power and CO₂. *Energy Conversion and Management* 162 (2018) 218–224. doi:10.1016/j.enconman.2018.02.037
- Khamhaeng, P., Laosiripojana, N., Assabumrungrat, S., & Kim-Lohsoontorn, P. (2021). Techno-economic analysis of hydrogen production from dehydrogenation and steam reforming of ethanol for carbon dioxide conversion to methanol. *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, 46(60), 30891-30902. doi:10.1016/j.ijhydene.2021.04.048
- Koornneef, J., van Keulen, T., Faaij, A., & Turkenburg, W. (2008). Life cycle assessment of a pulverized coal power plant with post-combustion capture, transport and storage of CO₂. *International Journal of Greenhouse Gas Control*, 2(4), 448-467. doi:10.1016/j.ijggc.2008.06.008
- Kun-Mo Lee, A. I. (2004). Life Cycle Assessment: Best Practices of International Organization for Standardization (ISO) 14040 Series. 99.
- M.A. Morales Mora, C. P. V., M.A. Leiva, S.A. Martínez Delgadillo, & Rosa-Domínguez, E. R. (2016). Life cycle assessment of carbon capture and utilization from ammonia process in Mexico. *Journal of Environmental Management* 183 (2016) 998-1008. doi:10.1016/j.jenvman.2016.09.048
- Mar Pérez-Fortes, E. T. (2016). Techno-economic and environmental evaluation of carbon dioxide utilisation for fuel production. Synthesis of methanol and formic acid. *JRC Science for Policy Report*. doi:doi: 10.2790/981669

- Mar Perez-Fortes, J. C. S., Aikaterini Boulamanti, Gillian Harrison, Evangelos Tzimas. (2016). Formic acid synthesis using CO₂ as raw material: Techno-economic and environmental evaluation and market potential. *international journal of hydrogen energy* 41(2016) 16444-16462. doi:10.1016/j.apenergy.2020.114711
- Marian Rosental, T. F. a. A. L. (2020). Life Cycle Assessment of Carbon Capture and Utilization for the Production of Large Volume Organic Chemicals. *Frontiers in Climate*, www.frontiersin.org. doi:10.3389/fclim.2020.586199
- Metz, B., O. Davidson, H. C. de Coninck, M. Loos, and L. A. Meyer(eds.). (2005). IPCC Special Report on Carbon Dioxide Capture and Storage. Prepared by Working Group III of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA, . 442 pp.
- Minh T Ho, Allinson, G., & Wiley, D. (2009). Factors affecting the cost of capture for Australian lignite coal fired power plants. *Energy Procedia*, 1, 763-770. doi:10.1016/j.egypro.2009.01.101
- Misila, P., Winyuchakrit, P., & Limmeechokchai, B. (2020). Thailand's long-term GHG emission reduction in 2050: the achievement of renewable energy and energy efficiency beyond the NDC. *Heliyon*, 6(12), 05720. doi:10.1016/j.heliyon.2020.e05720
- Mohammed B Alqaragully, H. Y. A.-G., Aseel M Aljeboree, Fiaq F Karam, and Ayad F Alkaim. (2015). Monoethanolamine: Production Plant. *Research Journal of Pharmaceutical, Biological and Chemical Sciences*. 6.
- Mozart Tavares da Silva, V. Z. R., Fabrízio Nicolai Mancini (2018). Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) and Wind Power Generation: Application of the Methodology and the Generator to Power System. *Brazilian Archives of Biology and Technology – BAPT, Vol.61, no.spe: e18000470, 2018*. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1590/1678-4324-smart-2018000470>
- Nie, Z. (2009). Life Cycle Modelling of Carbon Dioxide Capture and Geological Storage in Energy Production. *Doctor of Philosophy Thesis*.
- Niklas von der Assen, A. B. (2014). Life cycle assessment of polyols for polyurethane production using CO₂ as feedstock: insights from an industrial case study. *Green Chemistry*, 16, 3272–3280. doi:10.1039/c4gc00513a
- Nils Thonemann, A. S. (2019). From Laboratory to Industrial Scale: A Prospective LCA for Electrochemical Reduction of CO₂ to Formic Acid. *Environ Sci Technol*, 53(21), 12320-12329. doi:10.1021/acs.est.9b02944
- Odeh, N. A., & Cockerill, T. T. (2008). Life cycle GHG assessment of fossil fuel power plants with carbon capture and storage. *Energy Policy*, 36(1), 367-380. doi:10.1016/j.enpol.2007.09.026
- Pérez-Fortes, M., Schöneberger, J. C., Boulamanti, A., & Tzimas, E. (2016). Methanol synthesis using captured CO₂ as raw material: Techno-economic and environmental assessment. *Applied Energy*, 161, 718-732. doi:10.1016/j.apenergy.2015.07.067
- Petra Zappa, A. S., Josefine Marx, Mike Haines, Jürgen-Friedrich Hake, John Gale. (2012). Overall environmental impacts of CCS technologies—A life cycle approach. *International Journal of Greenhouse Gas Control*, 8, 12–21. doi:10.1016/j.ijggc.2012.01.014

- Petrescu, L., Bonalumi, D., Valenti, G., Cormos, A.-M., & Cormos, C.-C. (2017). Life Cycle Assessment for supercritical pulverized coal power plants with post-combustion carbon capture and storage. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *157*, 10-21. doi:10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.03.225
- Petrescu, L., & Cormos, C.-C. (2017). Environmental assessment of IGCC power plants with pre-combustion CO₂ capture by chemical & calcium looping methods. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *158*, 233-244. doi:10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.05.011
- Raoul Meys, A. K. a. A. B. (2019). Towards sustainable elastomers from CO₂: life cycle assessment of carbon capture and utilization for rubbers. *The Royal Society of Chemistry, Green Chem.*, *2019*, *21*, 3334–3342. doi:10.1039/c9gc00267g
- Rodríguez-Vallejo, D. F., Valente, A., Guillén-Gosálbez, G., & Chachuat, B. (2021). Economic and life-cycle assessment of OME_{3–5} as transport fuel: a comparison of production pathways. *Sustainable Energy & Fuels*, *5*(9), 2504-2516. doi:10.1039/d1se00335f
- Rosa M. Cue´llar-Franca, A. A. (2015). Carbon capture, storage and utilisation technologies: A critical analysis and comparison of their life cycle environmental impacts. *Journal of CO₂ Utilization* *9* (2015) 82–102. doi:10.1016/j.jcou.2014.12.001
- Sara Ghasemi, G. C., Daniela Zingarettia Matthäus U. Bäbler, Renato Baciocchi. (2017). Comparative life-cycle assessment of slurry and wet accelerated carbonation of BOF slag. *Energy Procedia* *114* (2017) 5393 – 5403. doi:10.1016/j.egypro.2017.03.1675
- Sebastian Teir, T. K., Jouko Pakarinen, Hannu-Petteri Mattila. (2016). Case study for production of calcium carbonate from carbon dioxide in flue gases and steelmaking slag. *Journal of CO₂ Utilization* *14* (2016) 37–46. doi:10.1016/j.jcou.2016.02.004
- Singh, B., Strømman, A. H., & Hertwich, E. G. (2011). Comparative impact assessment of CCS portfolio: Life cycle perspective. *Energy Procedia*, *4*, 2486-2493. doi:10.1016/j.egypro.2011.02.144
- Somkiat Khwanpruk, W. S. a. C. U.-t. (2015). Identification Optimal Strategies for Natural Gas Pipeline Network Management in Thailand. *4th International Conference on Environmental Engineering, Science and Management*.
- Sternberg, A., Jens, C. M., & Bardow, A. (2017). Life cycle assessment of CO₂-based C1-chemicals. *Green Chemistry*, *19*(9), 2244-2259. doi:10.1039/c6gc02852g
- Tang, L., Yokoyama, T., Kubota, H., & Shimota, A. (2014). Life Cycle Assessment of a Pulverized Coal-fired Power Plant with CCS Technology in Japan. *Energy Procedia*, *63*, 7437-7443. doi:10.1016/j.egypro.2014.11.780
- Thailand Board of Investment. (2021, November 29, 2019). *555 Vibhavadi-Rangsit Road, Chatuchak Bangkok 10900 Thailand*., Retrieved from <https://www.boi.go.th/en/index/>
- Tramošljika, B., Blecich, P., Bonefačić, I., & Glažar, V. (2021). Advanced Ultra-Supercritical Coal-Fired Power Plant with Post-Combustion Carbon Capture: Analysis of Electricity Penalty and CO₂ Emission Reduction. *Sustainability*, *13*(2). doi:10.3390/su13020801
- Tuan B.H. Nguyen, U. S., Rafiqul Gani. (2015). Sustainable treatment for CO₂ from the coal-fired power plant through methanol production. *Conference: 21th*

PPC Symposium on Petroleum, Petrochemical, and Polymers, Bangkok, Thailand.

- Vincent Chou, N. K., Eric Lewis, Marc Turner, Mark Woods. (2016). Eliminating the Derate of Carbon Capture Retrofits. *National Energy Technology Laboratory(NETL), DOE/NETL-2016/1796.*
- Wieland Hoppe, N. T., and Stefan Bringezu. (2017). Life Cycle Assessment of Carbon Dioxide-Based Production of Methane and Methanol and Derived Polymers. *Journal of Industrial Ecology*. doi:10.1111/jiec.12583
- Wu Yujia, X. Z., Li Zheng. (2014). Lifecycle Analysis of Coal-fired Power Plants with CCS in China. *Energy Procedia*, 63, 7444-7451. doi:10.1016/j.egypro.2014.11.781
- Yuchan Ahn, J. B., Dongin Kim, Beom-Sik Kim, Cheol-Seung Lee, & Han, a. J. (2019). System-level analysis and life cycle assessment of CO₂ and fossil-based formic acid strategies. *The Royal Society of Chemistry, Green Chem.*, 2019, 21, 3442–3455. doi:10.1039/c9gc01280j
- Zhang, X., Singh, B., He, X., Gundersen, T., Deng, L., & Zhang, S. (2014). Post-combustion carbon capture technologies: Energetic analysis and life cycle assessment. *International Journal of Greenhouse Gas Control*, 27, 289-298. doi:10.1016/j.ijggc.2014.06.016
- Zhou, Q., Koiwanit, J., Piewkhaow, L., Manuilova, A., Chan, C. W., Wilson, M., & Tontiwachwuthikul, P. (2014). A Comparative of Life Cycle Assessment of Post-combustion, Pre-combustion and Oxy-fuel CO₂ Capture. *Energy Procedia*, 63, 7452-7458. doi:10.1016/j.egypro.2014.11.782
- Zimmermann, A. W., Wunderlich, J., Müller, L., Buchner, G. A., Marxen, A., Michailos, S., Schomäcker, R. (2020). Techno-Economic Assessment Guidelines for CO₂ Utilization. *Frontiers in Energy Research*, 8:5. doi:10.3389/fenrg.2020.00005



APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
PRICES OF UTILITIES AND CONSUMABLES

Utility	Unit	Price	Reference
Electricity	\$/kWh	0.08	(Thailand Board of Investment, 2021)
Water	\$/m ³	0.39	
Cooling Water	\$/t	0.0148	
			(Khamhaeng et al., 2021)
Labor/ job position	Unit	Price	Reference
Operator Salary	\$/month	900	(Thailand Board of Investment, 2021)
Engineer/ Supervisor / Lab Technician	\$/month	1,500	
Leader/ Chief Officer	\$/month	3,000	
Other Basic Position (eg. Security, Cleaner)	\$/month	450	
Consumable Cost	Unit	Price	Reference
Activated Carbon	\$/t	1,600	(Alibaba.com)
Caustic soda, NaOH	\$/t	300	
Triethylene Glycol(TEG)	\$/t	500	
Methanol	\$/t	750	(Mohammed B Alqaragully, 2015)
MEA	\$/t	2,000	
Catalyst (CuO/ZnO/Al ₂ O ₃)	\$/kg	109	(Mar Pérez-Fortes, 2016)
Ruthenium-based catalyst	\$/kg	241,500	
Phosphino-based catalyst	\$/kg	97,635	
Trihexylamine, NHeX ₃	\$/kg	833	

Activated Carbon Order Link - https://www.alibaba.com/product-detail/Activated-Carbon-Industry-Waste-Gas-Treatment_1600312435736.html?spm=a2700.galleryofferlist.normal_offer.d_title.59699712nPkyKc&s=p

Caustic soda, NaOH Order Link - https://www.alibaba.com/product-detail/99-Caustic-Soda-NaOH-Sodium-Hydroxide_62000082292.html?spm=a2700.galleryofferlist.normal_offer.d_title.46f940aaeHjbl

TEG Order Link - https://www.alibaba.com/product-detail/High-Quality-Triethylene-Glycol-TEG-for_62565163914.html?spm=a2700.galleryofferlist.normal_offer.d_title.3af460dfmcB7Ws

Made-in-China.com would like to let you know that you have just received a business message reply below.

Message Details	
Message Subject	Re:Inquiry about High Quality Industrial Methanol 99.9% Methyl Alcohol CAS 67-56-1
Message Content	<p>Dear Ms. Shwe Yi :</p> <p>Hello,I am Tracy, Thank you inquiry on made in china .This is our best offer.</p> <p>Methyl Alcohol :</p> <p>CAS#:67-56-1</p> <p>Purity:99.9Min.</p> <p>Price:USD 750/mt FOB Qingdao.</p> <p>Packing:160kg/drum 730Mt/Fcl.(without pallets)</p> <p>Best regards</p> <p>Tracy</p> <p>Shandong Near Chemical Co., Ltd Near International Trade Co.,Limited</p> <p>Mobile: +86-17862112303 QQ:3209925076 Wechat: +17862112303 Whatsapp:+86 17862112303 Skype:+8617862112303 Linkedin:tracy cui Website: https://www.nearchemical.net/ ADD:Fujian Street No.55,Dongying City,Shandong Province.,P.R.C.</p>
Message Basics and Contact Details	
Date & time sent	2021-11-15 17:18:04 (GMT+08:00) Beijing, Hong Kong
Sender	Ms. Tracy
Company	Shandong Near Chemical Co., Ltd.
Email	tracy@nearchemical.net (NOTE: Please REPLY to tracy@nearchemical.net but DO NOT REPLY to en_notifcation@made-in-china.com)
Telephone	86-546-727736
Fax	
Country/Region	China
Homepage	https://www.nearchemical.net
Sender's IP Address	119.187.171.*
Sender's IP Location	China

This is Susan from Wuhan Golden Kylin Industry & Trade Co., Ltd, China. I got your enquiry of Ruthenium catalyst from Alibaba RFQ.

May I know what's your required metal content? We can supply Ruthenium catalyst with metal content 0.5%-10%.

And is 800kg the order quantity in one shipment?

Today we quote Ruthenium catalyst with metal content 5% first for your reference:

Product: [Ruthenium catalyst](#)
Product code: GKS-21096
CAS: 7440-18-8
Quantity: 800KG shipped in LCL
Packing: 8kg/drum with pallet
Payment term: T/T in advance
Price: USD1065/KG FOB Shanghai port, China



Wuhan Golden Kylin Industry & Trade Co.,Ltd
Address: Room 1101, Building 2-2, DaJiang Yuan(North Garden),
JiangDa Road, JiangAn District, Wuhan 430015, China
Web: www.goldenkylin-packaging.com
Alibaba Website: <https://goldenkylin.en.alibaba.com/>
Tel: 0086 27 82645123
Fax: 0086 27 82611835



Please consider the environment - Do you really need to print this email?

We are professional supplier of noble metal catalysts in China. We have built great relationships with countries around the world and win great reputations. We believe we can also satisfy you.

We sincerely hope we can have the opportunity to cooperate with your honorable company, if you have any requirements please feel free to contact us, we will try our best to satisfy you.

APPENDIX B

CO₂ CAPTURE PLANT COST ESTIMATION

Table B.1 Capital cost estimation of carbon capture plant

Cost Assumptions	k\$_ 2020
A. Bare Erected Cost	636,051
B. Engineering, construction management, home office and fees (12 % BEC)	76,326
C. Process contingencies (10 % BEC)	63,605
D. Project contingencies (20 % BEC)	127,210
Total Plant Cost (TPC = A. + B. + C. + D.)	903,192
E. Start-up cost = 2% TPC	18,063
F. Inventory = 0.5% TPC	4,515
G. Financing cost = 2.7% TPC	24,386
H. Other owner's cost = 15% TPC	135,478
Total Overnight Cost (TOC = TPC + E. + F. + G. + H.)	1,085,637

Table B.2 Fixed Operating and Maintenance Cost (Fix O&M) of carbon capture plant

Job Position	Assumption	Total Salary
Operator	5 Ope* 3 shit = 15	13,500
Skilled labor or Supervisor	3	4,500
Leader	2	6,000
Lab Technician	3	4,500
Other Positions (eg. Security, Cleaner)	12	5,400
Total Cost of labor	(\$) for a month	33,900
Total Cost of labor	(\$) for a year	406,800
Total Fixed Operating and Maintenance Cost (\$/yr) = 37,020,116		

Table B.3 Variable Operating and Maintenance Cost (Var O&M) of carbon capture plant

<u>Consumables</u>	per Day	Cost (\$)	\$/yr
Water (m ³)	7,349	0.39	1,046,189
Makeup and Wastewater Treatment Chemicals (lbs):	0	0	0
Limestone (ton)	0	0	0
MEA Solvent (ton)	18.74	2,000	13,680,935
NaOH (tons)	1.19	300	130,774
Triethylene Glycol (ton) for CO ₂ Dryer	1.84	500	335,317
Activated Carbon (ton)	0.689	1600	402,380
Ammonia (19% NH ₃) (ton)	0	0	0
Subtotal consumable Cost (\$)			15,595,595
<u>Waste Disposal</u>			
Fly Ash (ton)*	1,057	0	0
Bottom Ash (ton)*	455	0	0
Subtotal Waste Disposal			0
<u>By-products & Emissions</u>			
Gypsum (tons)	1,691	0	0
Maintenance Material Cost (\$), (2.5% TPC)			22,579,811
Coal (ton)	8,504	136	0
Electricity (1,140,202 MWh/yr)		80	91,216,160
Total Var O & M cost (\$/yr)			129,391,567
Var O&M = 41.28 \$/MWh			

* Waste disposal and by-product cost are not added in the Var O&M as Mae Moh plant sells them and reuses as feedstock in construction material production according to EGAT's annual report, 2018.

Table B.4 Cost of Electricity (COE) and CO₂ avoided cost of carbon capture plant

Coal Power Plant	Carbon capture cost
Plant Size with capture (MW, Net)	447.3
TOC (\$)	1,085,637,332
Fixed O & M (\$/yr)	37,020,116
Variable O & M (\$/yr)	129,391,567
n, year	30
r, interest rate	0.08
CF, Capacity factor	0.8
Annual Generation(MWh)	3,134,678
Capital Recovery Factor(CRF)	0.0888
Fuel Cost	0
Net Heat Rate	0
COE	83.85
CO ₂ avoided cost(\$/MWh)	127

APPENDIX C

CCU PLANT COST ESTIMATIONS

Table C.1 Methanol production cost (1 Mt/yr)

Equipment		M€ (2014 July) 450 kt/yr (Pérez-Forbes et al., 2016)	M\$ (2020) 1 Mt/yr
1	Heat Exchanger without use for CO ₂ compressor	30.0	57.65
2	Furnace	7.20	13.84
3	Turbines	3.30	6.34
4	Distillation Column	1.60	3.07
5	Pressure Vessels	1.30	2.50
6	Reactor	1.00	1.92
7	Pumps	0.20	0.38
8	Compression for H ₂ and recycled gas streams	25.0	48.04
9	CO ₂ purification	0	0
10	Hydrogen production from water electrolysis	147.7	283.82
Total Equipment Cost (TEC)			417.57
Total of the bare module costs (CBM)			614.07
BEC			903.039
TPC			1136.70
TOC			1366.31

Table C.2 Fixed Operating and Maintenance Cost of Methanol production

Job Position	Total Salary	Assumption
Operator	48,600	18 Ope* 3 shit = 54
Skilled labor or Supervisor	9,000	6
Leader	3,000	1
Lab Technician	9,000	6
Other Position (eg. Security, Cleaner)	6,750	15
Total Cost (\$/month)	76,350	
Total Cost (\$/year)	916,200	
Total fixed O & M (\$/yr)	47,477,909	

Table C.3 Variable Operating and Maintenance Cost of Methanol production

Consumables	per 1 ton MeOH	Cost (\$/unit)	\$/yr (1 Mt)
H ₂ (t) via water electrolysis	0.2	-	-
CO ₂ (t)	1.46	127	185,420,000
Electricity (MWh) for process	0.250	80	20,000,000
Electricity (MWh) for electrolysis	10.452	80	836,160,000
Heat (MWh)	0.4	-	-
Cooling (MWh)	0.862	-	-
Cooling Water (t)	90	0.0148	1,332,000
Water (t) for electrolysis	3.608	0.39	1,407,120
Catalyst (CuO/ZnO/Al ₂ O ₃) (t/yr)	44.5	109,480	7,866,242
Total Var O & M (\$/yr)			1,052,185,362

Table C.4 Formic Acid production cost (250 kt/yr)

Equipment		<u>M€</u> (2014 July) (Mar Perez- Fortes, 2016)	<u>M\$</u> (2020)
1	Heat Exchanger without use for CO ₂ compressor	0.200	1.472
2	Separation Processes	0.731	5.380
3	Reactor	0.446	3.282
4	Pumps	0.138	1.016
5	Compression for H ₂ and recycled gas streams	1.000	7.359
6	CO ₂ purification	0.212	0
Total Equipment Cost (TEC)			18.509
Total of the bare module costs (CBM)			27.22
BEC			40.028
TPC			50.386
TOC			60.564

Table C.5 Fixed Operating and Maintenance Cost of Formic Acid (FA) production

Job Position	Total Salary	Assumption
Operator	32,400	12 Ope* 3 shit = 36
Skill labor or Supervisor	6,000	4
Leader	3,000	1
Lab Technician	6,000	4
Other Positions (eg. Security, Cleaner)	4,050	9
Total Cost (\$/month)	51,450	
Total Cost (\$/year)	617,400	
Total fixed O & M (\$/yr)	3,369,847	

Table C.6 Variable Operating and Maintenance Cost of Formic Acid (FA) production

<u>Raw Materials</u>	per 1 ton FA	Cost (\$/unit)	\$/yr (250 kt)
H ₂ (t) via stream reformer	0.06	1260	18,900,000
CO ₂ (t)	0.98	127	31,115,000
<u>Utility cost</u>			
Electricity (MWh)	0.31	80	6,200,000
Heating (MWh)	2.78	80	55,600,000
Cooling (MWh)	2.96	-	-
Cooling Water (t)	250	0.0148	925,000
<u>Consumables</u>			
MeOH (t)	0.15	750	28,125,000
Ruthenium-based catalyst(kg/yr)	30	241,500	44,801,613
Phosphino-based catalyst(kg/yr)	15	97,635	9,056,325
Amine, NHeX ₃ (t/yr)*	0.12	833	57,255,121
Total Var O & M Cost (\$/yr)			251,978,059

* (250/120) x 27,482,458 from (Dongin Kim, 2020) = 57,255,121

BIOGRAPHY

Name	Shwe Yi Win
Education	2010: Bachelor of Engineering (Electronics) Technological University (Toungoo)

