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Macroscopic fuel reactor modelling of a $5 \, kW_{th}$ interconnected fluidized bed for in-situ gasification chemical looping combustion of coal



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HIGHLIGHTS

- A model is developed for the combustion of coal in a novel 5 kw fluidized bed system.
- The fluid dynamics and mass transfer in the fuel reactor with a riser are simulated.
- The model predicts the effects of different operation conditions on the performance.
- The sensitivity analysis for the efficiency of combustion and carbon capture is done.

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords: Macroscopic model Chemical-looping combustion CO₂ capture Simulation Sensitivity analysis

ABSTRACT

A macroscopic model is developed to simulate the fluid dynamics with the transfer of heat and mass in the fuel reactor and the riser of a novel 5 kW_{th} interconnected fluidized bed system for chemical looping combustion of coal. The fuel reactor and the riser are divided into a bottom bed consisting of bubble and emulsion phases, a freeboard with splash and transport phases, a transition zone with different cross-section areas and a riser providing the driving force to recirculate solids between the fuel and air reactors. The developed model is validated by the experimental cases with different operation conditions such as thermal power, temperature and coal feeding rate. Subsequently, the effects of reactor temperature, solids inventory, oxygen carrier to coal ratio and compositions of the fluidizing agent on the reactor performance are analyzed in details by the help of the validated model. The sensitivity analysis shows that the reactor temperature is the most relevant parameter affecting the combustion efficiency and CO_2 capture efficiency. Furthermore, increasing the oxygen carrier to coal ratio in creases the combustion efficiency but decreases the CO_2 capture efficiency, while increasing the volume fraction of CO_2 in the fluidizing agent has the opposite effect on the performance of this experimental unit.

1. Introduction

Chemical looping combustion (CLC) technology has been considered as a very promising CO_2 capture technology from fossil fuel combustion [1,2]. The oxygen carrier transfers the oxidizer from the air reactor to the fuel reactor, so that the fuel no longer mix with the air directly in the fuel reactor. Since gas emissions mainly consist of CO_2 and H₂O, the nearly pure CO_2 can be captured with less energy consumption in comparison with the conventional CO_2 capture technologies.

The plenty of oxygen carriers are required as the bed material to supply the oxidizer and to be heat carrier circulating between the fuel reactor and the air reactor. The interconnected fluidized bed reactor system has been the most popular reactor for CLC, because this reactor configuration can intensify the contact between gas and particles and circulate the bed inventory between two reactors. Lyngfelt et al. proposed the design criterion of an interconnected fluidized bed reactor system for CLC [3] and operated a continuous $10 \, kW_{th}$ CLC reactor using gaseous fuel [4]. Their works demonstrated the feasibility of this reactor for the CLC technology. Designing and using different interconnected fluidized bed reactor systems, several research groups successfully applied CLC to solid fuels [5–14]. The performance of these reactors, such as fuel conversion, the distribution of carbonaceous gases, the residence time of solid materials, are mainly determined by the behavior in the fuel reactor [15,16]. The operation conditions of the fuel reactor also have great influence on the risk of agglomeration/sintring and attrition/fragmentation that impair the reactivity of oxygen carriers and pose a negative effect on the fuel conversion

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Nomenc	lature	t _r	mean reaction time (s)
		t _{mr}	mean residence time (s)
A_0	gas distributor area per nozzle	ug	gas velocity (m/s)
$A_{\rm c}$	section area of the fuel reactor (m ²)	U_g	superficial gas velocity (m/s)
Ar	Archimedes number	$U_{\rm mf}$	minimal fluidization velocity (m/s)
C _{bottom}	solid concentration in the bottom bed	$U_{ m B}$	velocity of bubble phase (m/s)
Cfreeboard	solid concentration in the freeboard bed	$U_{\rm g,int}$	velocity of interstitial gas velocity (m/s)
C _{c-a}	solid concentration in the core-annulus zone	U_t	terminal velocity of particles (m/s)
$C_{\rm spl}$	solid concentration in the splash phase	u_g	real velocity of gas (m/s)
C _{tran}	solid concentration in the transition zone	V	volume of each cell (m ³)
C_{carbon}	carbon concentration in the fuel	x	mass fraction
$C_{\rm b,i}$	concentration of gas compositions in bubble phase	X	mass fraction
$C_{\rm e,i}$	concentration of gas compositions in emulsion phase	X_{OC}	conversion rate of oxygen carriers
$C_{g,i}$	concentration of gas for reduction of oxygen carriers	$\overline{X_{\rm OC}}$	mean conversion rate of oxygen carriers
$D_{\rm B}$	diameter of bubbles (m)	$X_{OC,in}$	mean conversion rate of oxygen carriers at the inlet of the
d_{i}	stoichiometric coefficient for gas combustion		fuel reactor
d _p	diameter of bed material (m)	$X_{OC.out}$	mean conversion rate of oxygen carriers at the outlet o
Ē	activation energy		the fuel reactor
F_{b}	flow of gas compositions in the bubble phase (mol/s)	$X_{\rm char}$	char conversion rate
F _{char}	flow of carbon exiting from the fuel reactor (mol/s)	y _i	molar fraction of gas i
F _{coal}	rate of coal feeding (kg/s)		, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
F_e	flow of gas compositions in the emulsion phase (mol/s)	Greek sy	rmbols
Fexc	flow of gas from the emulsion to bubble phase(mol/s)		
$F_{\rm d}$	drag force	$\delta_{ m B}$	volume fraction of bubble phase
F _{dil}	flow of gas compositions in the dilute phase (mol/s)	ρ_s	average density of solids (kg/m ³)
Fp	friction between particles and wall	$\rho_{m,i}$	molar density of the reacting material (mol/m ³)
F _{OC}	solid circulation rate (kg/s)	$\varepsilon_{\rm s}$	volume fraction of solids in each cell
Fw	friction between gas and wall	ε_{g}	volume fraction of gas in each cell
Fwi	solid flow by the wall-layer (kg/s)	$\varepsilon_{\rm B}$	average bed porosity
F _{WGS}	flow of gas composition from WGS reaction (mol/s)	$ au_{\mathrm{i}}$	time for complete solid conversion for the reaction
H _{bot}	height of bottom bed zone (m)	$\Omega_{ m OD}$	oxygen demand
H _r	height of reactor (m)	$\eta_{\rm comb}$	combustion efficiency
k _{be}	coefficient of mass transfer between emulsion and bubble	$\eta_{\rm CC}$	CO_2 capture efficiency
	phase		
k _a	mass transfer coefficient	Subscrip	t
ĸ	chemical parameters for the reaction rate		
Mw	molecular mass (kg/kmol)	mf	minimum fluidization condition
Р	pressure (Pa or Bar)	sta	saturation condition
r _o	grain radius (µm)	OC	oxygen carrier
Ř	mass transfer resulted from chemical reaction $(kg/m^3 s)$	int	interstitial gas
Roc	oxygen transport capacity of the oxygen carriers	WGS	water gas shift reaction
Saraa	section area (m^2)		-

[17,18]. Therefore, it is significant to seek optimized reactor design and operation conditions for the fuel reactor.

Along with the experimental research, the computational fluid dynamics (CFD) [19–21] and the macroscopic model [22–24] provide other essential tools to investigate the fluid dynamics and chemical kinetics in the fuel reactor. Using CFD model, Mahalatkar et al. not only predicted the emission of the fuel reactor but also captured the reasonable conversion rate of solid fuels and oxygen carriers at different reactor temperatures [25]. Emden et al. used the two-fluid model to research the influence of different reactor configuration and operation including buffer position, solid circulation rate and air reactor length on the reduction degree of oxygen carrier in the fuel reactor [20]. Parker carried out the three-dimensional simulation by using the computational particles instead of the real oxygen carrier particles in the circulating fluidized bed [26]. The simulated solid circulation rate and efficiency had good agreement with the experimental measurements.

However, the computational cost of CFD methods is rather high on account of the large amount and the long reaction time of oxygen carriers, especially for the parametric study [24–26]. The macroscopic model maintaining the effect of fluid dynamics based on empirical/semi-empirical expressions, by contrast, can make out the relationship

between operation parameters and performance at much lower cost [27]. Pallares and Johnsson reviewed the utilization of macroscopic model in the large-scale circulating fluidized bed [27]. This literature showed that the macroscopic model provided satisfying results of fluid dynamics like the axial volume fraction along the bed, particle size segregation and superficial solids net flow with much lower computation time. Considering the chemical reaction model of oxygen carriers derived from experiments [28], Abad et al. developed a macroscopic model to simulate the CLC of gaseous fuel and solid fuel in the fuel reactor separately [15,29,30]. This developed model was also used to investigate the influence of different parameters on the performance of 1MW_{th} chemical-looping combustion of coal, and the optimal temperature and solid inventory were suggested for attaining the maximum carbon separation efficiency [31]. Focusing on developing the model for fuel reactor, Peltola et al. modeled the methane combustion in the dual fluidized bed system and provided a nice method to improve the performance of an pre-commercial scale CLC system [23,32]. Furthermore, the macroscopic model of fuel reactor was used to study the chemical looping with oxygen uncoupling process [33] and the biomass combustion [24].

It has been validated that macroscopic model of the fuel reactor is

very efficient for the design and performance optimization of a new CLC reactor. A new 5 kWth interconnected fluidized bed reactor using coal as fuel has been designed by our research group [34]. The riser installed at the top of the fuel reactor mainly provides the driving force to recirculate the oxygen carrier in this unit. In order to optimize the reactor performance efficiently, it is important to understand the basic relations between the relevant design and operating parameters based on the macroscopic model. To the best of our knowledge, no model considered both the fluid dynamics and chemical reactions in the fuel reactor and the riser is available in the literature. Therefore, a macroscopic model of fuel reactor is developed by coupling different models of fluid dynamics and chemical reactions in the riser in this work. This developed model is validated by the experimental data. Moreover, the effects of different operation conditions, such as temperature, solid inventory, ratio of different fluidizing gas and oxygen demand on the performance parameters, are analyzed for the optimal operation and the future scaleup consideration.

2. Description of 5 KW_{th} reactor

The modeled reactor is obtained from a 5 kWth interconnected fluidized bed for in-situ gasification chemical looping combustion designed and operated at Huazhong University of Science and Technology in China [34]. Fig. 1 shows the schematic of this experimental unit where arrows represent the flow direction of gas and particles. The fuel reactor system and the air rector system have the similar structure including a reactor, a riser, a cyclone and a loop-seal. The risers are equipped to drive the circulation of bed inventory. The fresh hematite particles are loaded in the fuel reactor, the air reactor and two loopseals before starting-up the experimental system. The fluidization gas for the air reactor is air, while the bed material in the fuel reactor is fluidized by the mixture of N2 and CO2. The electric heater and insulation fixed on the wall are used to maintain the high temperature in two reactors. The coal gasification and pyrolysis products react with oxygen carriers in the fuel reactor. The flue gases of the air reactor and the fuel reactor are measured by the gas analyzer. The performance of this experimental rig is primarily dependent on the combustion process in the fuel reactor system. Therefore, the modelling is focusing on the fluid dynamics and conversion of solids in the fuel reactor and the riser.

3. Methodology

The riser installed at the top of the fuel reactor provides the driving force, which leads to the high-velocity fluidization regime in the upper of the fuel reactor. At the moment, the riser features the fast fluidization. Based on the theory of fluidization and the experimental observation, the flow regime in the fuel reactor is divided into the bubble fluidization and the core-annulus flow structure [27,35]. The fast fluidization in the riser is modeled by solving a set of governing equations. Moreover, the models of chemical reactions are coupled into these governing equations. In this work, the model developed is implemented in Aspen Customer Modeler (ACM) platform [36] which is a simulation environment developed by Aspen Technologies. Based on the positions of the inlet of fluidization gas, the inlet of coal feeding and the inlet of oxygen carriers from the loop seal, and the geometry of the transition zone and the riser, Fig. 2 shows the structure divisions for the fuel reactor and the riser. The governing equations for each division are described in the following part.

3.1. Model of the fuel reactor

The bubbling fluidization regime in the bottom bed is divided into two parts [35]: the bubble phase is assumed to be absence of particles, the emulsion phase consists of solids and gas with the minimum fluidizing velocity. Actually, some interstitial gas can pass through the bubbles and have a velocity defined as $U_{g,int}$. Therefore, the superficial gas velocity in the bottom zone is expressed as:

$$U_{\rm g} = (1 - \delta_{\rm B})U_{\rm mf} + U_{\rm B} + U_{g,int} \tag{1}$$

where the $U_{\rm g}$ means the superficial gas velocity, $\delta_{\rm B}$ means the volume fraction of bubbles, $U_{\rm B}$ is the velocity of bubble phase.

The upper zone is characterized by the splash phase and the coreannulus flow. The splash phase begins from the roof of the bottom zone, and considers the back-mixing behavior of solids between the upper zone and the bottom bed. In the core-annulus flow, the solids flow upward in the core and downward in the annulus along the wall of the reactor. The mass transfer of solids between the core and the annulus is also taken into consideration. Therefore, the fluid dynamics in the upper zone is described by the change of solids concentration along the reactor height as:

$$\frac{dC_{\rm spl}}{dz} = -4\frac{U_t}{U_g}C_{\rm spl} \tag{2}$$

$$\frac{dC_{c-a,i}}{dz} = -\frac{0.23}{U_g - U_{t,i}} C_{c-a,i}$$
(3)

where the $C_{\rm spl}$ and $C_{\rm c-a}$ mean the solids concentration in splash phase and the core-annulus flow.

The fundamental behaviors in different zones of the fuel reactor are described above. Abad et al. formulated the model for the fluid dynamics in the fuel reactor in details [15], and the equations used in this work are shown in Table A1.

3.2. Fluid dynamics model in the transition zone and riser

In the transition zone, its length is considerably short, and the velocities of gas and solids are very high. In addition, the mass exchange is neglected because of the fairly short length and residence time of gas and solids. Thus, the conservation equations for up-flow flux through the transition zone are expressed as:



Fig. 1. Schematic of the $5 \, kW_{th}$ interconnected fluidized bed for in-situ gasification chemical looping combustion of coal.



Fig. 2. The schematic of zone division for the fuel reactor and the riser.

$$\frac{d(U_g \rho_g S_{area})}{dx} = 0 \tag{4}$$

$$\frac{d(u_s C_{tran,i} S_{area})}{dx} = 0 \tag{5}$$

It is considered that the pressure drop is resulted from combined effects of the change of solids concentration like in the fuel reactor and the ideal negative throat nozzle.

$$\frac{dP_{transition}}{dz} = \int_0^{H_{tran}} C_{tran}gdz - \frac{d(\rho U_g^2)}{dz}$$
(6)

The pneumatic conveying of the riser is always described by the following governing equations [37,38]. The continuity equations for gas and solid phases are:

$$\frac{d(\rho_g u_g \varepsilon_g)}{dz} = \sum_i R_{g,i}$$
(7)

$$\frac{d(\rho_s u_s \varepsilon_s)}{dz} = \sum_i R_{s,i}$$
(8)

The momentum governing equation for gas-solids mixture is modeled as [37]:

$$\rho_{\rm s}\varepsilon_{\rm s}u_{\rm s}\frac{du_{\rm s}}{dz} + \rho_{\rm g}\varepsilon_{\rm g}u_{\rm g}\frac{du_{\rm g}}{dz} = -\frac{dP_{\rm riser}}{dz} + (\varepsilon_{\rm s}\rho_{\rm s} + \varepsilon_{\rm g}\rho_{\rm g})g + F_{\rm w} + F_{\rm P}$$
(9)

where the four terms on the right-hand side represent the pressure drop, the gravitational forces, the gas-wall friction and the particle–wall friction. In order to solve momentum equation, the pressure drop resulted from the two-phase flow is expressed as:

$$\varepsilon_{\rm s} \frac{dP_{\rm riser}}{dz} = -\rho_{\rm s} \varepsilon_{\rm s} \frac{du_{\rm s}}{dz} + \varepsilon_{\rm s} \rho_{\rm s} g + F_{\rm d} + F_{\rm P}$$
(10)

where F_d is the drag force. Its expression for spherical particles is:

$$F_{\rm d} = 0.75 C_{\rm d} \frac{(u_{\rm g} - u_{\rm s})^2}{d_p} \rho_{\rm g} \varepsilon^{-2.65}$$
(11)

where the drag coefficient C_d is expressed as:

$$C_{\rm d} = \frac{24}{\rm Re_p} (1 + 0.1806 {\rm Re_p^{0.6459}}) + \frac{0.4251}{1 + \frac{6880.95}{\rm Re_p}}$$
(12)

The friction between gas and wall, F_w , is calculated as follows:

$$F_w = \left(0.0056 + \frac{0.5}{\text{Re}^{0.32}}\right) \frac{\rho_g \varepsilon_g u_g^2}{2d_p}$$
(13)

The friction between particles and wall, F_p , is expressed as [39]:

$$F_p = 0.0126 \frac{\varepsilon_s}{\varepsilon_g^3} \left(\frac{\varepsilon_s u_t}{u_g - u_s}\right)^{-0.979} \frac{\rho_s \varepsilon_s u_s^2}{2d_p} \tag{14}$$

3.3. Reactive kinetic model

3.3.1. Coal Pyrolysis and gasification

Table 1 shows the ultimate and proximate analysis of a Chinese bituminous coal as the fuel. It is assumed that the drying and pyrolysis occur instantaneously [15]. The stoichiometric coefficients for the products are determined from coal mass balance [40] and given by:

A certain amount of CO_2 is used as the fluidization gas and the gasification agent. The gasification reactions of char with CO_2 and H_2O are as follows:

$$Char + CO_2 \rightarrow 2 CO$$
 (R2)

$$Char + H_2 O \rightarrow CO + H_2$$
 (R3)

Based on the shrinking core model, the gasification rates of char with CO_2 and H_2O are calculated as:

$$\dot{m}_{\text{char,CO}_2} = \rho_{\text{s}} \varepsilon_{\text{s}} x_{\text{char}} \frac{S_0}{1 - \varepsilon_{0,p}} (1 - X_{\text{Char}})^{2/3} \frac{k_{\text{CO}_2} P_{\text{CO}_2}}{1 + K_{\text{CO}_2} P_{\text{CO}_2} + K_{\text{CO}} P_{\text{CO}}}$$
(15)

$$\dot{m}_{\rm char,H_2O} = \rho_{\rm s} \varepsilon_{\rm s} x_{\rm char} \frac{S_0}{1 - \varepsilon_{0,p}} (1 - X_{\rm Char})^{2/3} \frac{k_{\rm H_2O} P_{\rm H_2O}}{1 + K_{\rm H_2O} P_{\rm H_2O} + K_{\rm H_2} P_{\rm H_2}}$$
(16)

where the S_0 and $\varepsilon_{0,p}$ represent the initial surface area and porosity of the particles [25]. Table 2 shows the kinetic parameters. The gasification rates vary with the type of coal and temperature [41],so these parameters are tuned for the char used in this work based on the literature [42]. The char particle consists of ash and fixed carbon [15]. The local carbon concentration in the char, x_{char} , is calculated in the

Table 1
Properties of coal and hematite particles

Proximate analysis (wt%)	Moisture Volatile Ash Fixed Carbon	1.66 15.54 34.34 48.46
Ultimate analysis (wt%)	Carbon Hydrogen Nitrogen Sulfur Oxygen	55.26 2.12 0.79 0.44 5.39
Lower heating value	24.8	MJ/kg
Average diameter of Hematite Apparent density of Hematite	180 3472	µm kg/m3

Table 2Kinetic parameters for gasification and water gas shift reaction.

	Pre-exponential factor	Activation energy
k _{CO2}	6.0·10 ⁻⁷ (1/s)	110 (kJ/mol)
K _{CO2}	1.37·10 ⁻⁵ (1/Pa)	16 (kJ/mol)
$K_{\rm CO}$	$2.1 \cdot 10^{-5}$ (1/Pa)	-
k _{H2O}	5.2·10 ⁻³ (1/s)	221 (kJ/mol)
$K_{\rm H_2O}$	9.21·10 ⁻⁴ (1/Pa)	72 (kJ/mol)
$K_{\rm H2}$	4.07 (1/Pa)	-
K _{WGS}	$2.17 \cdot 10^7$	192.9 (kJ/mol)
Keq	exp(4577.8/T - 4.33)	

emulsion phase, splash zone and core-annulus zone as [15]:

$$x_{char} = \left(\frac{C_{j,char}}{C_{j,char} + C_{i,OC}}\right) \left(\frac{(1 - X_{char})C_{0,char}}{(1 - X_{char})C_{0,char} + C_{0,ash}}\right)$$
(17)

3.3.2. Reduction of oxygen carrier particles

The oxygen carrier is hematite with low cost and moderate reactivity [43,44]. The reductions of oxygen carriers are shown as:

$$CH_4 + 12 Fe_2O_3 \rightarrow 8 Fe_3O_4 + CO_2 + 2 H_2O$$
 (R4)

$$CO + 3 \operatorname{Fe}_2 O_3 \to 2 \operatorname{Fe}_3 O_4 + CO_2 \tag{R5}$$

$$H_2 + 3 Fe_2O_3 \rightarrow 2 Fe_3O_4 + H_2O$$
 (R6)

The conversion rate of oxygen carrier particles is modeled by the shrinking core model (SCM) [28,45]:

$$\frac{t}{\tau_i} = 1 - (1 - X_{\text{OC},i})^{\frac{1}{3}}, \quad \frac{1}{\tau_i} = \frac{b_i k_{\text{oc},i} C_{g,i}^n}{\rho_M r_g}$$
(18)

The kinetic constant $k_{oc,i}$ is expressed as the Arrhenius formula:

$$k_{\rm oc,i} = k_{0,\rm oc} \exp(-E_{\rm oc,i}/R_{\rm g}T)$$
⁽¹⁹⁾

The kinetic parameters for Eq. (18) are shown in Table 3 [45]. The reduction rates of hematite particles are calculated from the average reaction rates of hematite particles [28,29]. The average rates for reaction R4, R5 and R6 at each height cell are expressed as [28]:

$$R_{\text{oc},i} = d_i R_{\text{g},i} = \rho_{m,\text{OC}} \frac{\overline{dX_{\text{oc},i}}}{dt}$$
(20)

The average conversion rate of hematite particles is calculated as a function of the residence time [28]:

$$\frac{\overline{dX_{\text{OC},i}}}{dt} = \int_0^{t_r} \frac{dX_{\text{OC},i}}{dt} \frac{e^{-t/t_{mr}}}{t_{mr}} dt$$
(21)

where $t_{\rm mr}$ represents the mean residence time of hematite particles and is related to the solids recirculation rate and solids inventory. The mean reaction time $t_{\rm r}$ means how long an hematite particle is reduced from its initial state entering the fuel reactor to the possible maximum variation, and is calculated as [29]:

$$t_{r,i} = \tau_i (1 - \overline{X_{\text{OC,in}}}) \tag{22}$$

where $\overline{X_{OC,in}}$ is the mean conversion of the hematite particles entering the fuel reactor.

The instantaneous conversion rate in Eq. (21), $X_{OC,i}(t)$, is related to the mean conversion rate at the fuel reactor inlet and the reaction time [15]:

$$X_{\rm OC,i}(t) - \overline{X_{\rm OC,in}} = 1 - \left(1 - \frac{t}{t_{\rm mr}}\right)^3$$
(23)

The mean conversion of the hematite particles at the fuel reactor outlet, $\overline{X_{OC,out}}$, can be obtained by integral of the instantaneous conversion as:

$$(1 - \overline{X_{\text{OC,out}}}) = \int_0^{t_{\text{mr}}} (1 - X_{\text{OC}}(t)) \frac{e^{-t/t_{mr}}}{t_{mr}} dt$$
(24)

According to the iteration of Eqs. (23) and (24), the mean reacting time, $t_{r,m}$, and $\overline{X_{OC,out}}$ can be obtained. The calculated value of $\overline{X_{OC,out}}$ should also fit the relation as:

$$F_{\rm OC}R_{\rm OC}(\overline{X_{\rm OC,out}} - \overline{X_{\rm OC,in}}) = Mw_{\rm O}[(F_{\rm H_2O} + 2F_{\rm CO_2} + F_{\rm CO})_{\rm outlet} - (F_{\rm H_2O} + 2F_{\rm CO_2} + F_{\rm CO})_{\rm inlet}]$$
(25)

The reduction of oxygen carriers is also concerned with the gas concentration in the Eq. (18). Based on the experimental measurements, Abad et al. suggested that the local gas concentrations are assumed to equal to that on the particle surface, i.e., $C_{g,i} = C_{pg,i}$ [15]. Taking diffusion of the gas compositions through the gas film into account, the value of $C_{pg,i}$ is determined by the following mass balance to a particle:

$$\frac{\rho_{\rm s} R_{\rm OC}}{b_i M_{\rm O}} \frac{\pi d_p^{\rm s}}{6} \frac{d(X_{\rm OC}(t) - \overline{X_{\rm oc,in}})}{dt} = k_{\rm g,i} \pi d_p^2 (C_{\rm gz,i} - C_{\rm pg,i})$$
(26)

where $C_{gz,i}$ represents the gas concentration in the bulk gas flow, $k_{g,i}$ is the meaning of mass transfer coefficient. In the bottom zone [46] and upper zone [47], this coefficient is calculated as, separately:

$$k_{g,i}|_{bottom} = (2\varepsilon_z + 0.117Ar^{0.39}Sc^{1/3})D_{g,i}/d_p$$
(27)

$$k_{g,i}|_{\text{freeboard}} = (2\varepsilon_z + 0.69 \text{Re}_p^{0.5} Sc^{1/3}) D_{g,i}/d_p$$
 (28)

3.3.3. Water-gas shift reaction

As the Fe-based material could promote the water–gas shift reaction (WGSR) [31], the WGSR is considered in this work.

$$CO + H_2 O \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2$$
 (R7)

The reaction rate is calculated as [48]:

$$R_{\rm WGS} = k_{\rm WGS} e^{-E_1/RT} \left(C_{\rm CO}^{n_1} C_{\rm H_2O}^{n_2} - C_{\rm CO_2}^{n_3} C_{\rm H_2}^{n_4} / K_{\rm eq} \right)$$
(29)

The kinetic parameters for this reactions rate are shown in Table 3.

3.4. Simulation procedure

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Some initial conditions are needed to carry out the simulation. Firstly, the pressure drop is directly related to the bed height in the fuel reactor and expressed as:

$$\frac{dP}{dz} = \int_0^{H_{\text{bot}}} C_{\text{bottom}}gdz + \int_{H_{\text{bot}}}^{H_{\text{FR}}} C_{\text{freeboard}}gdz + \frac{dP_{\text{transition}}}{dz} + \frac{dP_{\text{riser}}}{dz}$$
(30)

Secondly, the oxygen supply from oxygen carriers must fulfill the demand of the fuel based on Eq. (25), which is useful to obtain the mean reaction time. Thirdly, the circulation of the solids inventory can transfer some unburned carbon out of the fuel reactor, which has a significant impact on the conversion efficiency of the solid fuel. The amount of the unburned carbon out of the fuel reactor can be calculated as follows:

$$F_{\text{carbon,out}} = C_{\text{carbon,coal}} F_{\text{coal,in}} / M_{\text{C}} - \left[\left(F_{\text{CO}_2} + F_{\text{CO}} + F_{\text{CH}_4} \right)_{\text{out}} - F_{\text{CO}_2,\text{in}} \right]$$
(31)

The unburnt carbon would be entrained into the air reactor. As the

Table 3 Kinetic parameters of reduction reaction of oxygen carriers.						
	CH ₄	H ₂	СО			
$k_0 (\mathrm{mol}^{1-n}\mathrm{m}^{3\mathrm{n}-2}\mathrm{s}^{-1})$	8.0.10 ⁻⁴	$2.3 \cdot 10^{-4}$	6.2·10 ⁻			
E (kJ/mol)	49	24	20			
	1.0	0.0	1.0			

3

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fluidization gas is air, the unburnt carbon can be oxidized to CO_2 completely, so the char conversion can be expressed as:

$$X_{\text{Char}} = (F_{\text{coal}}C_{\text{fix}} - Mw_c F_{\text{carbon,out}}) / F_{\text{coal}}C_{\text{fix}}$$
(32)

Because fluid dynamics models for the transition zone and the riser are coupled with that of the fuel reactor, the variables at the outlet of fuel reactor are directly used as the initial values of the transition zone and the riser to solve the governing equations.

Fig. 3 presents how to carry out the simulation described above. The oxygen supply, the pressure drop and the char conversion shown in Eqs. (25), (30) and (32) are the main initial parameters. Before solving the equations, the average conversion of hematite particles can be obtained from Eqs. (23) to (24) by an iterative process. Then reduction rates of oxygen carriers are calculated. Once the whole calculation has converged, the new pressure drop, the oxygen supply and the char conversion can be obtained. These values would be compared to the initial value of them. If all values do not fit well, the new assumptions are made to another calculation process until the calculated values are equal to the initial values. It costs about 2 min to simulate each case in a personal laptop with 2G memory and one quad-core CPU.

4. Result and discussion

Five experimental cases are shown in Table.4 where case 3 is selected as the fundamental case to develop the model. Table 5 shows operation parameters for this fundamental case and the geometric information about the reactor. Then the measurements from other cases are used to validate the model. The effects of different operation conditions on the performance are analyzed in the following part.

4.1. Fluid dynamics and mass distribution

Fig. 4(a) shows the profiles of the gas velocity and the solids flow along the reactor height. The gas velocity increases gradually because of gas generation from the heterogeneous reactions in the bottom zone. Drying and pyrolysis happen instantaneously at height 0.1 m where the gas velocity has a sudden increase. The solids flux starts at the top of the bottom bed where the splash phase and core-annular flow begin. As seen in Fig. 4(b), the splash phase dominates the solids concentration that decreases obviously above the bottom zone. Fig. 4(c) shows that the molar flux of CO increases quickly at the bottom of the freeboard as char gasification continues to occur. However, the net productions of CO and H₂ are negative at the upper part of the upper zone, since the reduction rates of oxygen carriers are larger than the generation rate from char gasification. The concentrations of CO_2 and H₂O always increase along the reactor because they are mainly produced by the reduction of hematite particles.

The superficial velocity decreases at the upper of freeboard zone (z > 0.6 m), as shown in Fig. 4(a). This indicates the influence of the core-annulus structure on the gas velocity. The section area of core

decreases from the outlet of fuel reactor to the calculated height where the thickness of the annulus reaches its saturation value. Because the gas is assumed to only flow in the core, its velocity decreases from the calculated height to the outlet. Meanwhile, the up-flow of the solids decreases because of the lateral transportation of particles from core to the annulus. The gas velocity increases sharply through the transition zone because of the quick contraction of the section area. The gas velocity in the riser is almost four times higher than that in the fuel reactor, so the driving force arising from the riser is enough to recirculate the oxygen carriers. The gas velocity in this riser with shorter length is so high, resulting in the relatively short residence time of solids and the relatively short reaction time of heterogeneous reactions. There is little change of the gas flow and volume fraction of solids in the riser, although the heterogeneous reactions are considered in this model.

Figs. 5 and 6 show the profile of gas concentrations in the bottom zone. The drying and pyrolysis products enter into the bubble phase firstly as the coal is fed (see Fig. 5). Therefore, the concentrations of N_2 and CO_2 decrease obviously, as seen in Fig. 6. The char gasification and reduction of oxygen carriers only occur in the emulsion phase in the model. Both the concentrations of H₂ and CO shown in Fig. 5(b) increase above the coal inlet because of the pyrolysis, the heterogeneous reactions and the diffusion from the bubble phase. N2 enters the fuel reactor from the loopseal at height z = 0.135 m, so the concentrations of other gas species decrease. Since the CO₂ is diluted, the production of CO becomes slowly. Moreover, the WGSR and the reduction of oxygen carriers continue to consume CO. Therefore, the concentration of CO is decreased obviously but more H₂ is produced resulted from the WGSR. The total concentrations of gas species are determined by the molar flow of each species in both the emulsion and bubble phases. As shown in Figs. 5 and 6, the curves are similar to the simulated results in the literature [15].

4.2. Comparison with the experimental data

The experimental measurements are used to validate the model developed in this work. Fig. 7 shows the predicted and measured outlet gas concentration of case 1–4. The model provides a fairly good representation of the experimental data. Compared to other cases, the higher volume flow of fluidization gas decreases the residence time of hematite particles, so the combustible gases cannot be converted sufficiently in case 2. The higher operation temperature of case 4 greatly improves the combustion process, so the concentration of CO_2 reaches up to 90%.

The reactor performances are evaluated based on these calculation results. The char conversion rate, the CO_2 capture efficiency and the combustion efficiency are the important performance parameters for this 5 kWth unit. The char conversion rate is expressed in Eq. (32).

The combustion efficiency is directly related to the oxygen demand of complete combustion for combustible gas species. The oxygen demand in the fuel reactor is defined as:



Fig. 3. Flowsheet of the model calculation.

Table 4				
Operation	conditions	of five	experimental	cases.

Cases	P (kW)	Inventory (kg)	Temperature (°C)	Coal feed (kg/min)	Flux gas (L/min)	Volume ratio N ₂ :CO ₂	∆P (Pa)
1	2	2.5	950	4.1	25	20:5	5400
2	3.25	2.5	950	7.9	28	23:5	5500
3	4.75	2.5	950	11.3	25	20:5	5900
4	4.75	2.5	1000	11.3	24	20:5	4900
5	6	2.5	950	16	25	20:5	4770

Table 5

Operation parameters of standard case and reactor geometry.

Operating condition	value	Unit
Temperature T_r Pressure drop $\triangle P$ Inlet gas flow $F_{\rm FR}$ Gas flow from loop seal $F_{\rm lp}$ Coal feeding rate $F_{\rm coal}$ Solid circulation rate $F_{\rm oc}$ Initial bed inventory	950 5900 N ₂ :20, CO ₂ :5 N ₂ :5 11.3 700 2.5	°C Pa L/min L/min g/min g/min kg
Reactor geometry		
Height of fuel reactor, $H_{\rm FR}$	1000	mm
Diameter, D _{FR}	310	mm
Height of riser, H _{riser}	550	mm
Diameter, D _{riser}	45	mm
Height of coal feeding inlet	100	mm
Height of the return port from the loopseal	135	mm

$$\Omega_{\rm OD} = (0.5Y_{\rm CO} + 2Y_{\rm CH_4} + 0.5Y_{\rm H_2})/(\Phi_0(Y_{\rm CO} + Y_{\rm CH_4} + Y_{\rm H_2}))$$
(33)

where the Y represents the volume fraction of gas compositions at the riser exit. Φ_0 is the ratio of oxygen exhaustion to per mole of carbon for complete combustion. Therefore, the combustion efficiency can be calculated as:

$$\eta_{\rm comb} = 1 - \Omega_{\rm OD} \tag{34}$$

The CO_2 capture efficiency is defined as the ratio of carbon emissions of the fuel reactor system to the total carbon emissions of this

 5 KW_{th} unit. The unburnt carbon is entrained into the air reactor, and is oxidized to CO₂ directly. So the CO₂ capture efficiency is calculated by considering the unburnt carbon:

$$\eta_{\rm cc} = (F_{\rm CO_2, FR} + F_{\rm CO, FR} + F_{\rm CH_4, FR}) / (F_{\rm CO_2, AR} + F_{\rm CO_2, FR} + F_{\rm CO, FR} + F_{\rm CH_4, FR})$$
(35)

where $F_{CO_2,AR}$ is the flux of CO₂ produced from the full combustion of unburnt carbon in the air reactor.

Fig. 8 shows the predicted performance parameters of case 1, 2, 3 and 5 at the same temperature 950 °C with different thermal powers. It can be observed that relative errors of two performance parameters for different fuel power are within 10%. These results also validate the developed macroscopic model in this paper. The flow rate of N_2 as fluidization gas at $3.25 \text{ kW}_{\text{th}}$ of fuel power goes up 15%, which decreases the combustion efficiency but increases the carbon capture efficiency. Thus, it is necessary to analyze how different operation conditions impact the performance parameters.

4.3. Operation temperature

The effects of operation temperature on the performance is shown in Fig. 9 where the fuel power is equal to 4.75 kW_{th} . It can be observed that the char conversion and the CO₂ capture efficiency increase more greatly as the temperature is less than 960 °C. The pressure drop of case 4 is 1000 Pa less than that of case 3 with the same coal feeding rate but different temperatures [34], which means more solids including oxygen carriers and char particles in case 4 are entrained out. Although higher temperature is good for the char gasification, less residence time of char



Fig. 4. (a) Gas velocity and solid flux, (b) Volume fraction of solid phase, (c) Flux of gas compositions.



Fig. 5. Profiles of gas concentrations (CH₄, CO, H₂, and H₂O) in the bottom bed (a) gas in the bubble phase (b) gas in the emulsion phase (c) total gas in the bottom.



Fig. 6. Profiles of gas concentrations (CO₂ and N₂) in the bottom bed (a) gas in the bubble phase (b) gas in the emulsion phase (c) total gas in the bottom.

in the fuel reactor reduces this positive effect on the char conversion. The combustion efficiency always increases with the increasing temperature but less dependent on the temperature than the char conversion and CO_2 capture efficiency. The higher temperature in the fuel reactor prompts not only the char gasification but also reduction reactions of hematite particles. Consequently, the reducible gases are almost oxidized by hematite particles at 1000 °C. As shown in Fig. 7, the molar fraction of CO_2 for case 4 is about 90%, so the oxygen demand decreases. The calculated combustion efficiency is about 91.2% that approximates to the measured value at temperature of 1000 °C. However, the higher temperature may result in the sintering phenomenon which will deteriorate the reaction performance of oxygen carrier



Fig. 7. Predictions of the gas concentration out of the fuel reactor against experimental measurements.



Fig. 8. Predicted combustion efficiency and carbon capture efficiency against the experimental measurements.

particles [43]. Usually the upper limit of operation temperature is set to 1000 $^{\circ}$ C.

4.4. Solid inventory in the fuel reactor

Fig. 10 shows the effect of the oxygen carrier inventory on the performance of different cases with the temperature 950 °C. The increase of the oxygen carrier inventory mainly leads to the increasing height of the bottom bed with the unchanged flux of the fluidization

gas, which results in the longer residence times of solids [49]. For example, the calculated residence time of particles increases from 210 s to 910 s as the oxygen carrier inventory increases from 2.5 kg to 19 kg, which increases molar fraction of CO_2 at the outlet of the riser from 84.7% to 91.5%. At the moment, the combustible gases from gasification have enough time to be oxidized by the hematite particles. As a result, the combustion efficiency is also promoted with the increasing of solid inventory.

It can be noted the distinctive effect of the oxygen carrier inventory



Fig. 9. Effect of the operation temperature in the fuel reactor on the performance parameters.

is relatively significant until the inventory is increased to 5.63 kg (corresponding the combustion efficiency about 89.7% and char conversion about 79%). The values of performance parameters change little when the solid inventory is higher than 5.63 kg. This predicted tendency has a good agreement with the measurements [50].

4.5. Oxygen carrier to fuel ratio

The oxygen carrier to fuel ratio plays a significant role in the combustion process. The oxygen supplied by hematite particles must fulfill the complete combustion of reducing gases. Fig. 11 shows the effect of oxygen carrier to fuel ratio on the combustion performance. The CO_2 capture efficiency, the char conversion rate and the variation of solids conversion decrease as this ratio increases. When the ratio is

less than 1, the oxygen supply is insufficient for complete combustion, so the combustion efficiency has a sharp decrease trend with the decreasing of the ratio [31]. The simulated volume fraction of CO_2 increases from 84.7% to 87.4% for the ratio from 1.2 to 1.6, and reaches 88% when the ratio is 2. The volume fraction of reducible gases decreases slightly if the value of the ratio exceeds 1.6, namely, the combustion efficiency is continuously promoted with lower amplitude.

On the other hand, oxygen carrier to fuel ratio is proportional to the circulation flow of the bed inventory and expressed as $\phi = R_{O,hem} F_{OC} / \Omega_{coal}$ [31]. Increasing the ratio leads to the increase of the circulation flow under the condition that the solids inventory remains constant, which lowers the height of bottom zone and decreases the residence time of solids. This impairs the heterogeneous reactions and results in the decrease of the char conversion and the CO₂ capture



Fig. 10. Effect of solid inventory on the performance parameters.



Fig. 11. Effect of the oxygen carrier to fuel ratio on the performance parameters.

efficiency. These predicted results are similar to the experimental evaluation in a continuous CLC reactor using coal as fuel [51]. Therefore, it is necessary to provide the sufficient residence time for the char gasification and the combustion of reducible gases in this experimental facility.

The variation of oxygen carrier conversion, $\Delta X = \overline{X_{\text{OC,out}}} - \overline{X_{\text{OC,in}}}$, can be used to evaluate the average reactivity of the oxygen carriers [52]. Fig. 11 shows that the decreasing speed of ΔX becomes lower gradually as the ratio exceeds 1.0, which means the plenty of oxygen carriers can provide oxygen continuously. Thus, it is important to keep the oxygen carrier to fuel ratio above 1.0 to maintain the higher average reactivity of hematite particles.

4.6. Mixture ratio of N_2 and CO_2

The effect of mixture ratio of N_2 and CO_2 as the fluidizing agent on the performance of the combustion process is evaluated. The motivation is that CO_2 can be supplied as the fluidization gas by recirculating a fraction of flue gas out of the fuel reactor. The total fluidization gas flow is 25 L/min. The tested $N_2:CO_2$ mixtures are set to 25:5, 20:10, 15:15, 10:20, 5:25 and 0:100. Fig. 12 shows that both the carbon conversion rate and the CO_2 capture efficiency increase for higher fraction of CO_2 because CO_2 can promote the char gasification [34]. The calculated total flow rate of CO and H_2 out of the fuel reactor increases from 0.088 mol/min to 0.264 mol/min. However, the increased flow rate of reducible gases has higher oxygen demand. However, the inventory of



Fig. 12. Effect of mixing ratio of N2:CO2 as the fluidizing gas on the performance parameters.

hematite particles in these cases remains unchanged so that the active oxygen content supplied by the oxygen carriers keeps constant. Consequently, the combustion efficiency decreases with the increasing of CO_2 as fluidizing agent.

The mixing ratio of N_2 and CO_2 has less effect on performance improvement when the volume fraction of CO_2 reaches to 66.6%. This makes sense that the excessive gasification products in the fuel reactor lead to the increase of the superficial velocity. This brings about the difference of the solid circulation rate that decreases the residence time of particles. Thus the lower residence time of solids impairs the combustion process. The excessive amount of CO and H_2 as gasification products also inhibits the char gasification, which slows down the char conversion rate. These simulation results have similar trend to the experimental data [51].

4.7. Sensitivity analysis

Based on the results shown above, we conduct the sensitivity analysis to appraise how much different operation conditions influence the performance parameters. The relative linear sensitivity coefficients represents the sensitivity level and is defined as [24]:

$$\chi = \frac{\Delta v/v}{\Delta p/p} \tag{36}$$

where the v represents the target variable, p means the investigated parameters, Δv and Δp represent the change rate of the target variable and the investigated parameters, respectively.

The combustion efficiency and the CO_2 capture efficiency are chosen as the target variables, because the CO_2 capture efficiency has the similar trend to the char conversion rate. The target parameters are the four parameters discussed in previous section. Fig. 13 shows the value of relative linear sensitivity coefficient for each operation parameter. The positive value of χ means the positive effects of investigated parameters on the target variables.

It is obviously observed that the reactor temperature has the greatest contribution to the CO_2 capture efficiency and the combustion efficiency [53]. To determine the upper limit of temperature, the sintering behavior of hematite particles should be taken into consideration [43]. Compared to the solid inventory and the mixing ratio of N₂:CO₂ in the fluidization gas, the oxygen carrier to fuel ratio has higher

relevance to the performance improvement in this experimental setup. The change of the oxygen carrier to fuel ratio can decrease the CO_2 capture efficiency but increase the combustion efficiency. Although the sensitivity coefficient for the solid inventory is low, it is worth noting that the increase on the solid inventory and the ratio of CO_2 in the fluidization gas is likely to offset the disadvantageous effect of the oxygen carrier to fuel ratio on the CO_2 capture efficiency.

5. Conclusion

The developed model is used to describe the fluid dynamics and mass transfer in the fuel reactor and riser of a new $5 \, kW_{th}$ interconnected fluidized bed reactor system. The model is validated by simulating different cases with various operation conditions. After that, how different operation parameters including the reactor temperature, the oxygen carrier inventory, the oxygen carrier to fuel ratio and the mixing ratio of N₂:CO₂ as fluidizing agent influence the char conversion rate, the CO₂ capture efficiency and the combustion efficiency are discussed, separately. Then the sensitivity analysis is also conducted to appraise the importance of four different operation parameters.

As the model can predict the flow of gas and solid phases, the conversion of fuel and oxygen carriers, and gas composition, etc., it provides an efficient tool to investigate the performance optimization for future reactor scaling-up and structure improvement. Some conclusions are obtained as follows:

- (1) The reactor temperature has an important influence on the char conversion and CO_2 capture efficiency. Increasing the operation temperature will promote the char conversion and improve carbon capture efficiency obviously as the temperature is less than 960 °C.
- (2) Increasing the bed inventory will extend the residence time of solids to improve the reactor performance, but too much inventory has no obvious contributon to combustion efficiency. The bed inventory loaded in the fuel reactor should be related to the coal feeding to obtain the best performance. Increasing the ratio of CO_2 as the fluidization gas also promotes the char conversion rate but decreases the combustion efficiency.
- (3) The oxygen carrier to fuel ratio shows different effects on the performance, that is, to increase this ratio will be beneficial for a higher combustion efficiency however lead to a lower CO₂ capture



Fig. 13. Sensitivity analysis about the effect of different operation conditions on the performance parameters.

A1-29

A1-30

A1-31

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efficiency. Increasing the solid inventory and the content of CO₂ in the fluidization gas seem to be able to neutralize the negative effect of the ratio on the CO_2 capture efficiency and to improve the combustion efficiency for this experimental setup.

Appendix A

See .

Table A1

Macroscopic model for Fuel reactor.

Bubble phase		Equation No.
if bottom is saturation		
Bubble fraction	$\delta_B = (\epsilon_{\rm B} - \epsilon_{\rm mf})/(1 - \epsilon_{\rm mf})$	A1-1
Bubble velocity	$U_{\rm B} = U_{B\infty} \delta_B / (1 - \delta_B)$	A1-2
Interstitial gas velocity	$U_{g,\text{int}} = U_g - U_{vis} - U_{mf} \left(1 - \delta_B\right)$	A1-3
Ratio of bubble flow to total flow	$\psi_{sat} = \frac{U_B}{U_a - U_m r(1 - \delta_B)}$	A1-4
If bottom is not saturation	8 mg 22	
Bubble velocity	$U_B = f_h(h + 4\sqrt{A_0})(U_g - U_{mf}(1 - \delta_B))$	A1-5
Bubble fraction	$\delta_B = U_{vis}/(U_{vis} + U_{B\infty})$	A1-6
Single bubble velocity	$U_{B\infty} = 0.71 \sqrt{gD_B}$	A1-7
Bubble size	$D_B = 0.54(U_o - U_{mf})^{0.4}(h + 4\sqrt{A_0})^{0.8}g^{-0.2}$	A1-8
Volume fraction of solids	$\varepsilon_{B} = (1 - \delta_{B})\varepsilon_{mf} + \delta_{B}$	A1-9
Saturation porosity	495.5 , 4.9×10^{-6}	A1-10
	$\varepsilon_B = 0.5452 + \frac{1}{\Delta P_0} + \frac{1}{d_p}$	
Bubble velocity	$U_B = f_b(h + 4\sqrt{A_0})(U_g - U_{mf}(1 - \delta_B))$	
Throughflow velocity	$U_{g,int} = (1 - f_b (h + 4\sqrt{A_0}))(U_g - U_{mf}(1 - \delta_B))$	A1-11
Ratio of bubble flow to total flow	$f_b = (0.26 + 0.7e^{-3300d_p})/(0.15 + U_g - U_{mf})^{1/3}$	A1-12
Emulsion phase		
Minimum fluidization velocity	$U_{\rm ref} = \mu_{\rm c} (\sqrt{C_1^2 + C_2 A r} - C_1) / \rho_{\rm c} d_{\rm re}, C_1 = 27.2 \text{ and } C_2 = 0.0408$	A1-13
Minimum fluidization porosity	$\varepsilon_{mf} = 0.586\phi^{-0.72}Ar^{-0.029}(\rho_{o}/\rho_{s})^{0.021}$	A1-14
The governing equation for gas compositions	· · · · ·	
For bubble phase		
$dF_{b,i} = S_{-} l_{i} \left(C_{+}, C_{+} \right) + u dF_{exc} dF_{WGS,i}$		A1-15
$\frac{1}{dV} = \frac{\partial g \kappa_{be}(c_{e,i} - c_{b,i}) + y_{e,i}}{dV} - \frac{1}{dV}$		
dEat dEwcs i		A1-16
$\frac{de_{e,i}}{dV} = -(1-\delta_B)\left[\sum (-R_{g,i})_{\text{OC}} + \sum (-R_{g,i})_{\text{char}}\right]_e - \delta_B k_{be}(C_{e,i}-C_{b,i}) - y_{e,i}\frac{de_{e,i}}{dV} - \frac{de_{e,i}}{dV}$		111 10
The coefficient of mass transfer [54]		
$k_{be} = 1.631 U_g S c^{0.37}$		A1-17
Freeboard		
The solid mass flux from the bottom zone	$F_{0,i} = 131.1 \left[\frac{A_c u_g}{\rho_o} \left(\frac{\text{Re}_{s,i}}{\rho_o} \right)^{0.31} \right]$	A1-18
and that is at that is a t	$\begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_b & s & Ar_i \end{bmatrix}$	11.10
The solid concentration in the transport phase	$C_{tri,i,H_b} = \frac{F_{0,i}}{A_{c,H}(u_{g,H_b} - u_{l,i})}$	A1-19
The solid concentration in the splash phase	$C_{spl,H_b} = C_{b,H_b} - C_{tr,H_b}$	A1-20
The solid concentration in the freeboard	$C_{\rm freeboard} = C_{\rm spl} + C_{\rm tr}$	A1-21
The upflow flux of solid in the core	$F_{C,i} = C_{tr,i} A_C (U_g - U_{t,i})$	A1-22
The backflow ratio of particles at the outlet	$k_{b,j} = \frac{(F_{w,j})_{Hr}}{F_{v,i}} = \frac{(F_C)_{Hr} - F_{v,i}}{F_{v,i}} = 0.2$	A1-23
The total flow of char and oxygen carrier from the fuel reactor	$F_s = F_{s,OC} + F_{s,char}$	A1-24
The lateral diffusion of particle from the core to annular	$F_{t,j i} = F_{C,j i} - F_{C,j i+1}$	A1-25
The downflow flux of solid in the annular	$F_{wj i} = F_{wj i+1} + F_{tj i}$	A1-26
The solid concentration in the annular	$C_{w,j} = \frac{F_{w,j}}{A_{w,w,i}}$	A1-27
The contact coefficient between gas and particles in the freeboard	$\zeta_{gs} = 1 - 0.75 \left(\frac{C_{frb}}{C_{p}(h = H_{p})} \right)$	A1-28

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The thickness of annular flow The saturation value of thickness The height of core-annular flow

The governing equation for gas compositions

$\frac{dF_{dil,i}}{dV} = -[\zeta_{gs}\sum (-R_{g,i})_{\text{OC}} + \sum (-R_{g,i})_{\text{char}}]_{\text{spl}} - [\zeta_{gs}\sum (-R_{g,i})_{\text{OC}} + \sum (-R_{g,i})_{\text{char}}]_{\text{tr}} - \frac{dF_{\text{WGS},i}}{dV}$	A1-32
Contact efficiency between gas and particles [55]	
$\zeta_{gs} = 1 - 0.75 [C_{freeboard}(h)/C_{bottom}(h = H_{bot})]^{0.4}$	A1-33

 $\delta_w = 0.01076(H_{\rm r}{-}h)$

 $h_{sta} = H_r - 6D_{reactor}$

 $\delta_{w,sta} = 0.06456 D_{reactor}$

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