

Green Chemical Engineering: Tackling Discontinuities for a More Sustainable Future

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Introduction to discontinuity



Since the XIX century, **chemical processes** have been **designed to be continuous and operated under steady-state conditions**. Engineers are conventionally trained to pursue **stability** and consistency in process operations, as this approach facilitates control, optimization, and scale-up. **Steady-state processes are ideal, ensuring product quality, efficiency, and safety**.



"Nihil novi sub sole" (Ecclesiaste 1:9)



However, the chemical industry gradually introduced intentionally discontinuous processes, driven by human intervention and innovation. In addition to Matros reactors and simulated moving bed reactors (SMBRs), other examples of anthropogenic discontinuities include:

- Batch and semi-batch processes for specialty chemicals and pharmaceuticals
- Pressure swing adsorption (PSA) for gas separation and purification
- Periodic operation of reactors to enhance selectivity or suppress side reactions
- Pulsed flow in multiphase reactors to improve mass transfer and mixing

These **human-imposed discontinuities** showcased the potential advantages of deviating from the steady-state paradigm, such as **increased flexibility, improved performance, and reduced equipment size**.





In recent years, the growing adoption of **renewable energy sources**, like **solar**, **wind**, **and hydro/tidal power**, has introduced new **exogenous discontinuities to chemical processes**. The intermittent and variable nature of these energy sources has compelled chemical engineers to confront and adapt to **externally imposed fluctuations** in process conditions.

Moreover, the availability and **price volatility of raw materials** can also contribute to process discontinuities. **Economic factors and market dynamics** add another layer of complexity. Fluctuations in demand, changes in product specifications, and supply chain disruptions can all lead to process discontinuities.

The increasing emphasis on sustainability, circular economy principles, and carbon footprint reduction further drives the need for more flexible and adaptive processes.







The shift from steady-state to discontinuous processes represents a significant paradigm change in chemical engineering.

It necessitates a reassessment of core principles and the development of **new tools and strategies to manage variability**. This shift impacts not only process operation but also the **conceptual design of chemical plants**, as flexibility and resilience become critical design criteria.

By embracing the **challenges and opportunities presented by discontinuous processes**, the chemical industry can evolve and contribute to a **more sustainable, agile, and resilient future**.

This paradigm shift sparks new research and innovation, driving the development of more adaptive, environmentally friendly, and economically viable chemical processes.

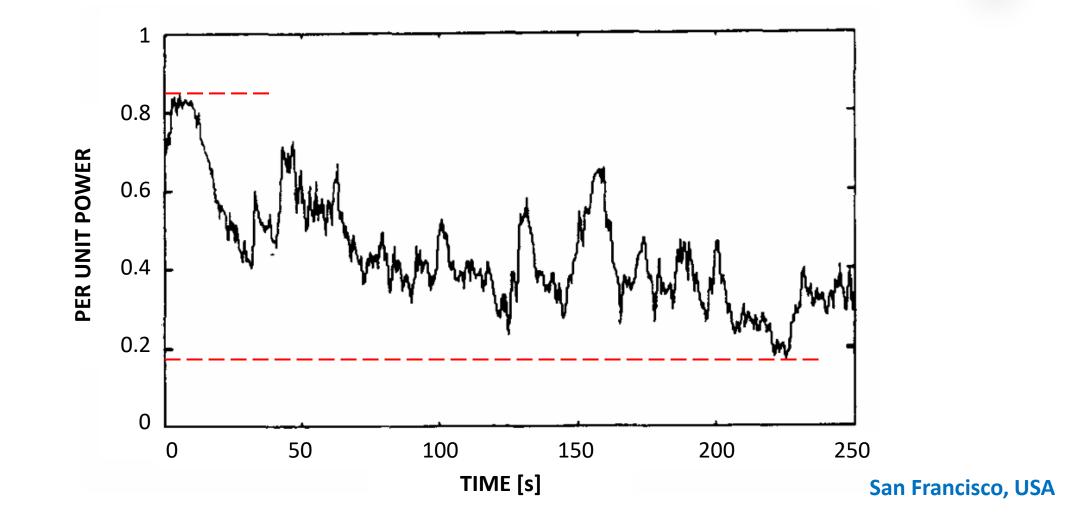






Variability of wind energy production

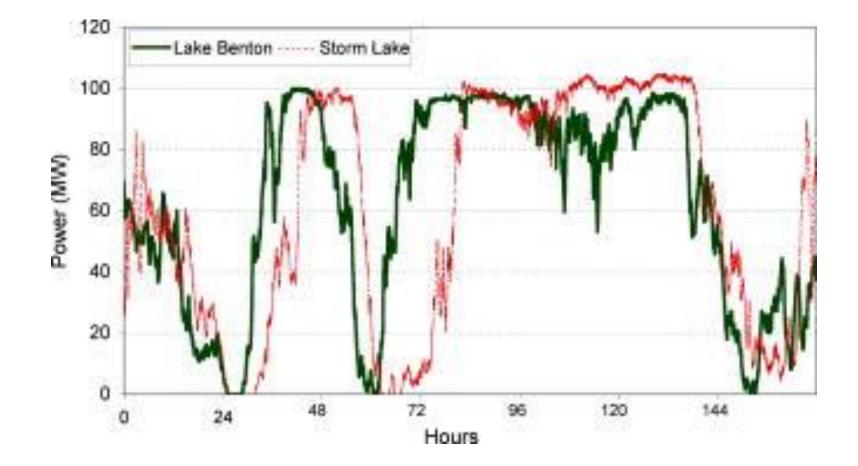
Wind power measurements [@ 1 Hz sampling]



G. McNerney and R. Richardson, "The Statistical Smoothing of Power Delivered to Utilities by Multiple Wind Turbines", (1992).

Wind production of two plants in the USA (200 km distance)





Y.H. Wan, M. Milligan, B. Parsons, "Output Power Correlation Between Adjacent Wind Power Plants", J. Sol. Energy Eng, (2003).

Seasonal effect in wind production in Nordic Regions

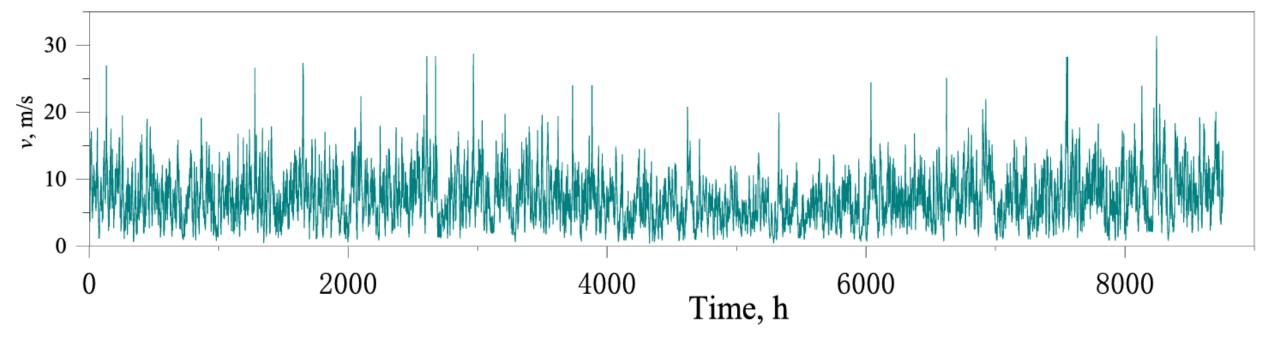
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SWEDEN NORWAY 35% 45% 30% 40% All data Sweden. All data Norway, production (% of capacity) production (% of capacity) average 24% average 33% 25% 35% Spring Sweden, Spring Norway, average 22% average 29% 20% 30% Summer Sweden. Summer Norway, average 16% average 22% 15% 25% Autumn Sweden, Autumn Norway, average 28% average 37% 10% 20% Winter Sweden. Winter Norway, 5% average 32% average 43% 15% 0% 10% + 10 12 14 16 18 20 22 0 2 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20 22 4 0 2 8 6 4 hour of day hour of day

Hannele Holttinen, "Hourly Wind Power Variations in the Nordic Countries", (2004).



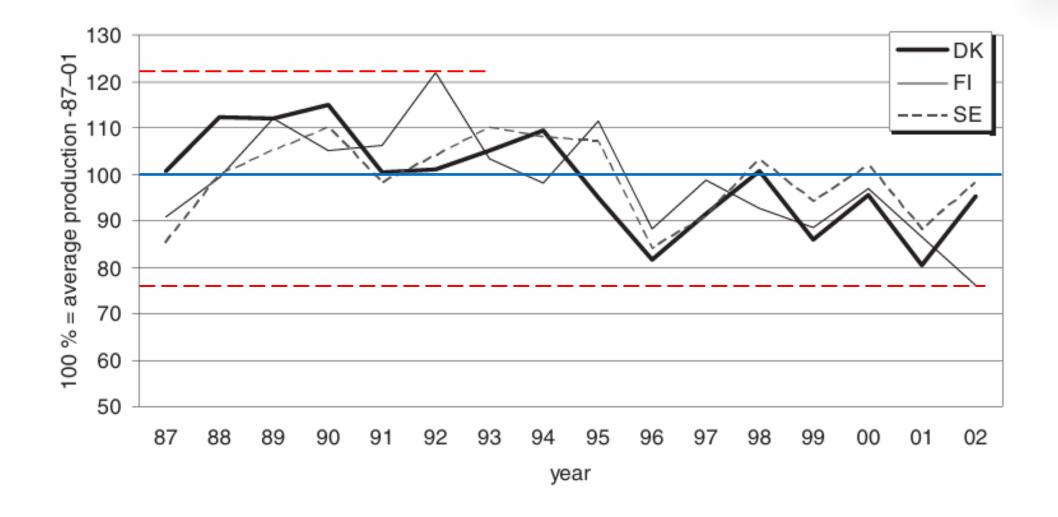




X. Shi, Y. Qian, S. Yang, "Fluctuation Analysis of a Complementary Wind–Solar Energy System and Integration for Large Scale Hydrogen Production", (2020).

Wind production along years in Nordic Regions [DK, FI, SE]





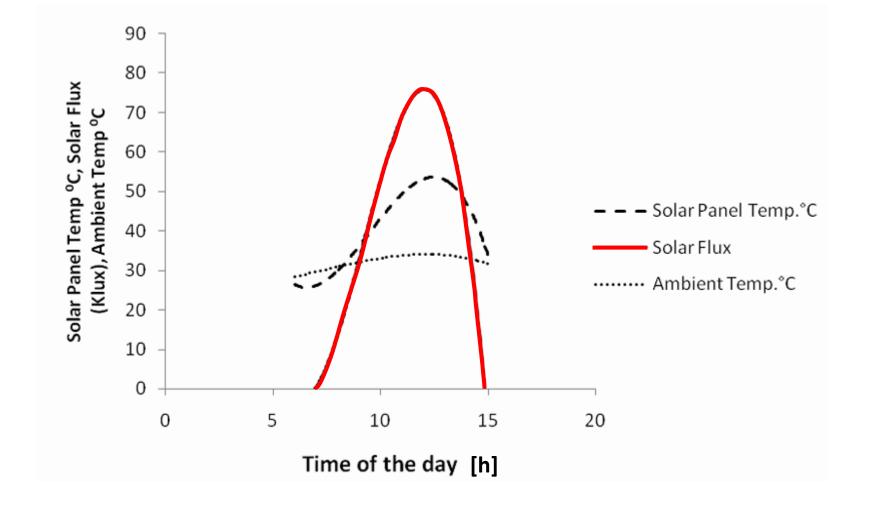
Hannele Holttinen, "Hourly Wind Power Variations in the Nordic Countries", (2004).





Variability of solar energy production





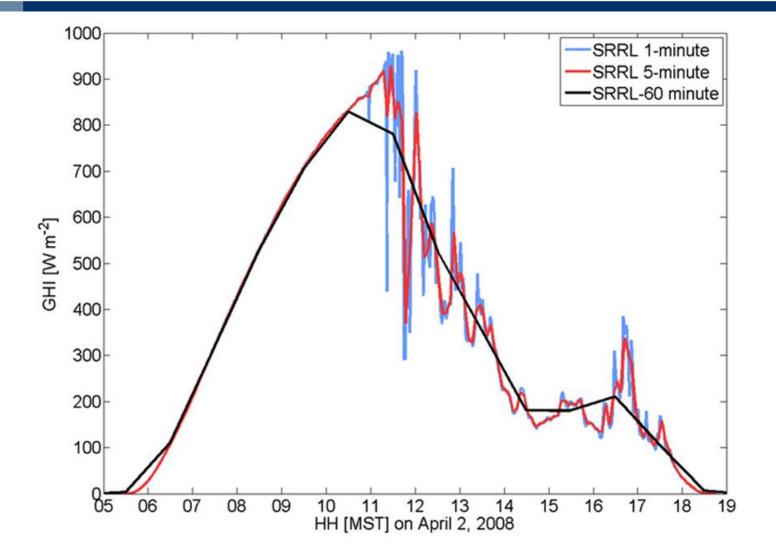
V. B. Omubo-Pepple, C. Israel-Cookey, G. I. Alaminokuma, "Effects of Temperature, Solar Flux and Relative Humidity on the Efficient Conversion of Solar Energy to Electricity", (2009).

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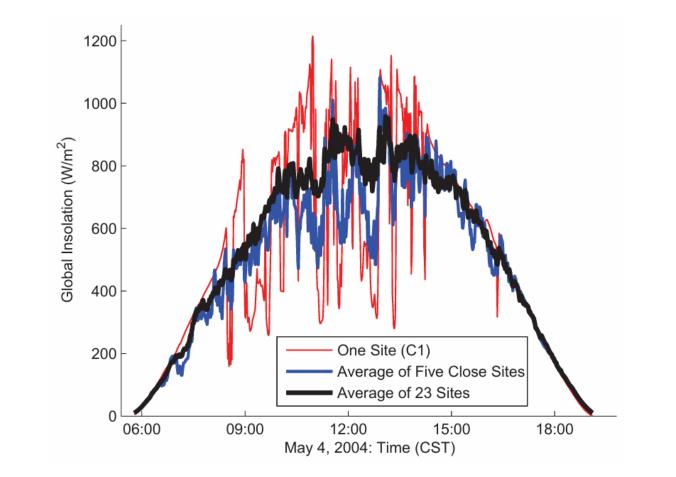




M. Lave, J. Kleissl, "Solar variability of four sites across the state of Colorado", (2010).

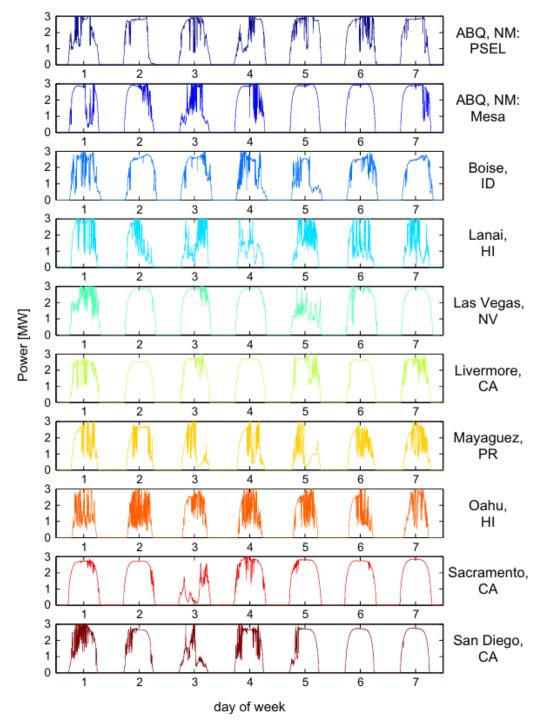






A.D. Mills, R.H. Wiser, "Implications of Geographic Diversity for Short-Term Variability and Predictability of Solar Power", (2011).

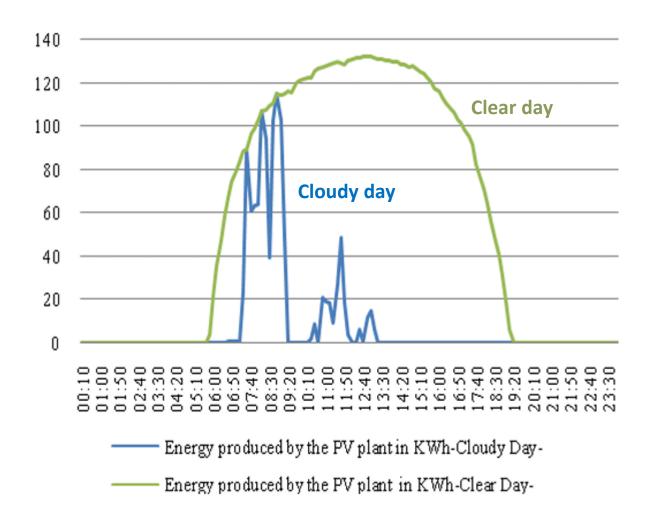
Weekly variability in 10 sites in the western USA (30 s sampling time)



M. Lave, M.J. Reno, R.J. Broderick, "Characterizing local high-frequency solar variability and its impact to distribution studies", (2015).

Cloud effect on solar energy production in Morocco

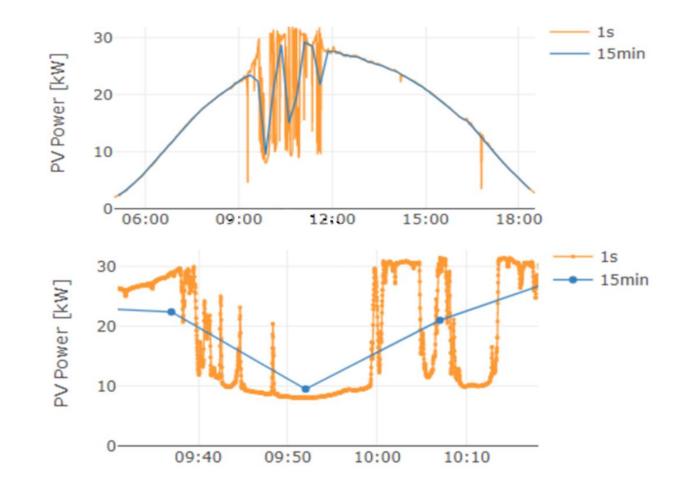




N. Kebir, M. Maaroufi, "Predictive Evaluation of Cloud Motion Impact on a Medium Voltage Solar PV Power System Output", (2015).



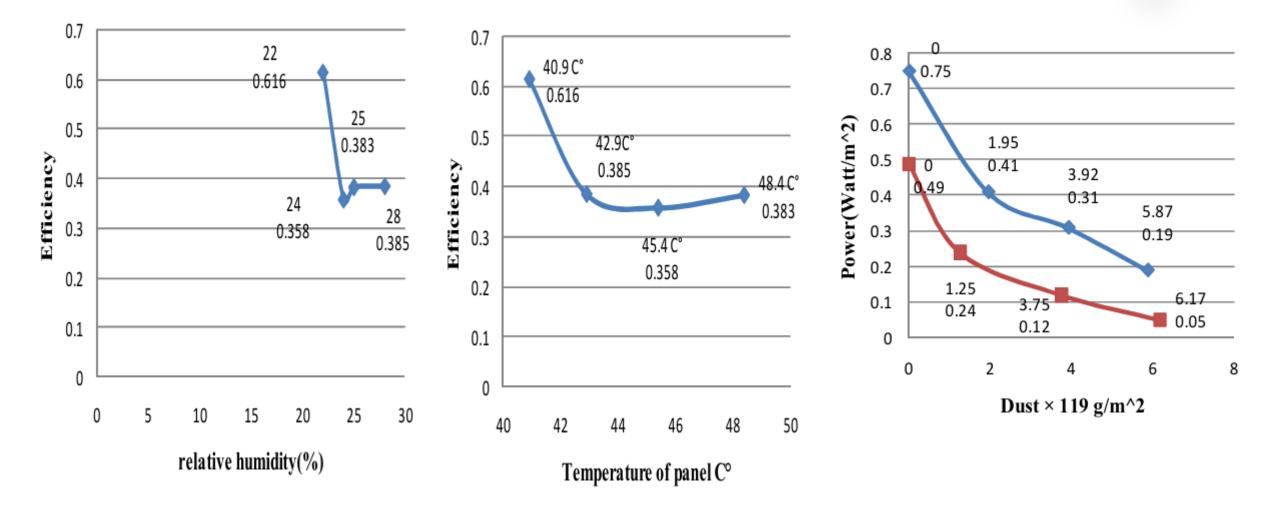




F.P.M. Kreuwela, W.H. Knap, L.R. Visser, W. van Sark, J. Vilà-Guerau de Arellano, C.C. van Heerwaarden. "Analysis of high frequency photovoltaic solar energy fluctuations", (2020).

Weather effects on solar panel efficiency [Qatar]





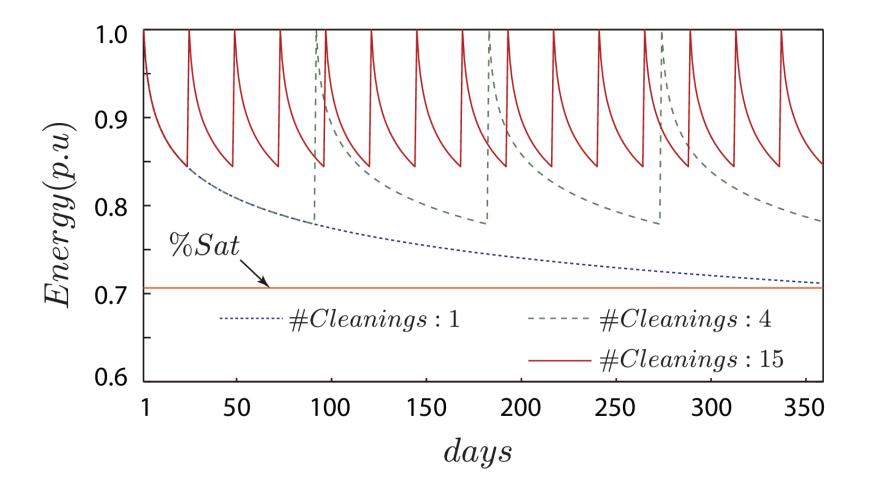
F. Touati, M. Al-Hitmi, H. Bouchech, "Towards Understanding the Effects of Climatic and Environmental Factors on Solar PV Performance in Arid Desert Regions (Qatar) for Various PV Technologies", (2012).

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J.W. Zapata, M.A. Perez, S. Kouro. "Design of a cleaning program for a PV plant based on the analysis of short-term and long-term effects", (2015).



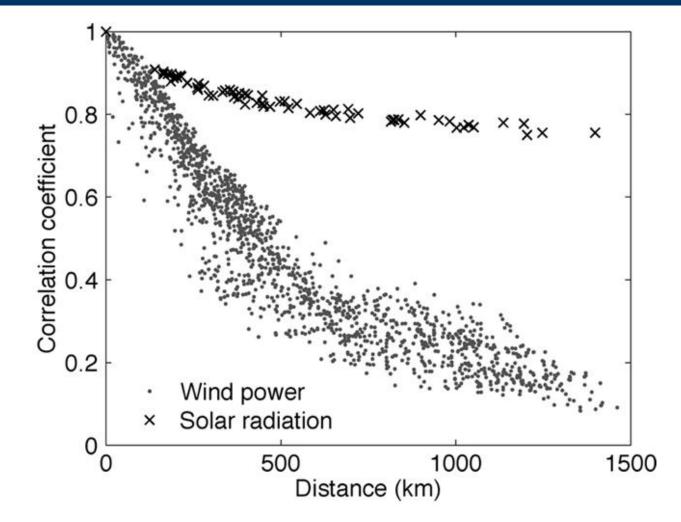


Solar and wind energy variability

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Distance correlation for wind and solar production



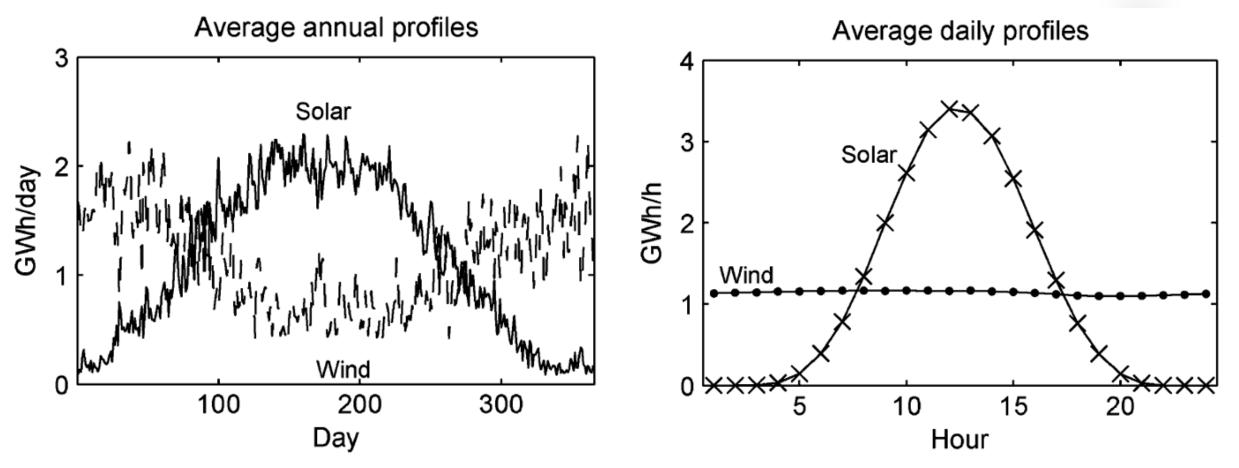


Solar radiation is less affected by the distance between sites with respect to wind power.

J. Widén, "Correlations Between Large-Scale Solar and Wind Power in a Future Scenario for Sweden", (2011).

Wind and solar energy in Sweden





Comparison of wind and solar profiles [year and day].

On an hourly average, wind appears more stable and less variable, while solar follows the usual daylight trend. During the year, wind is higher in winter, while solar is higher in summer. Average data on all plants.

J. Widén, "Correlations Between Large-Scale Solar and Wind Power in a Future Scenario for Sweden", (2011).



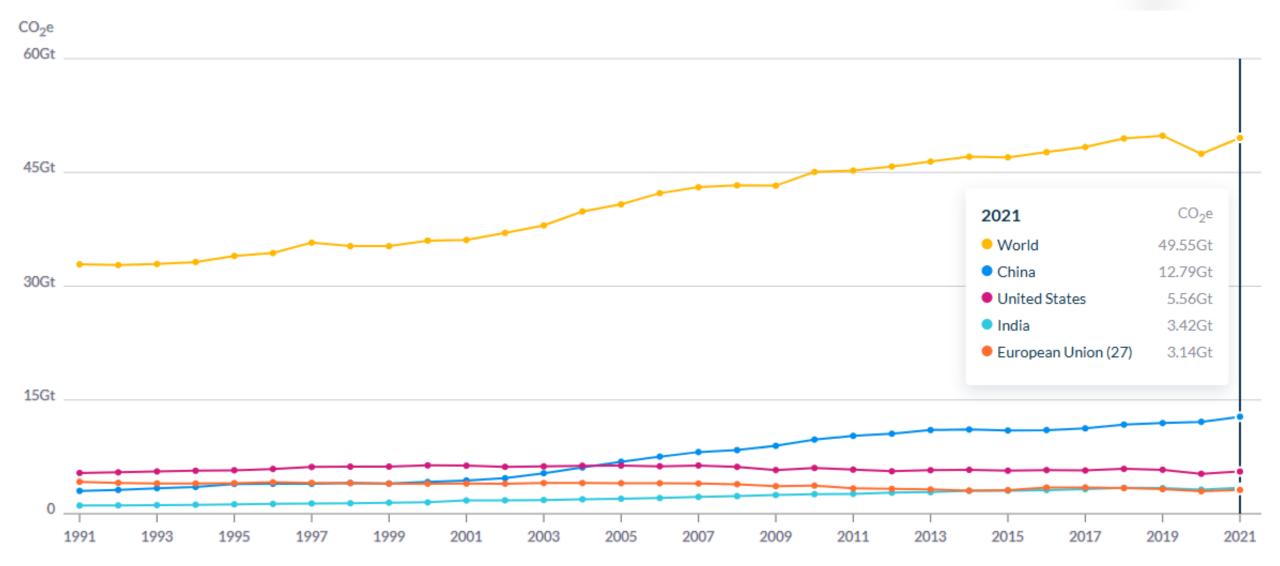


Chemical processes and greenhouse gas emissions



Greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions in the last three decades





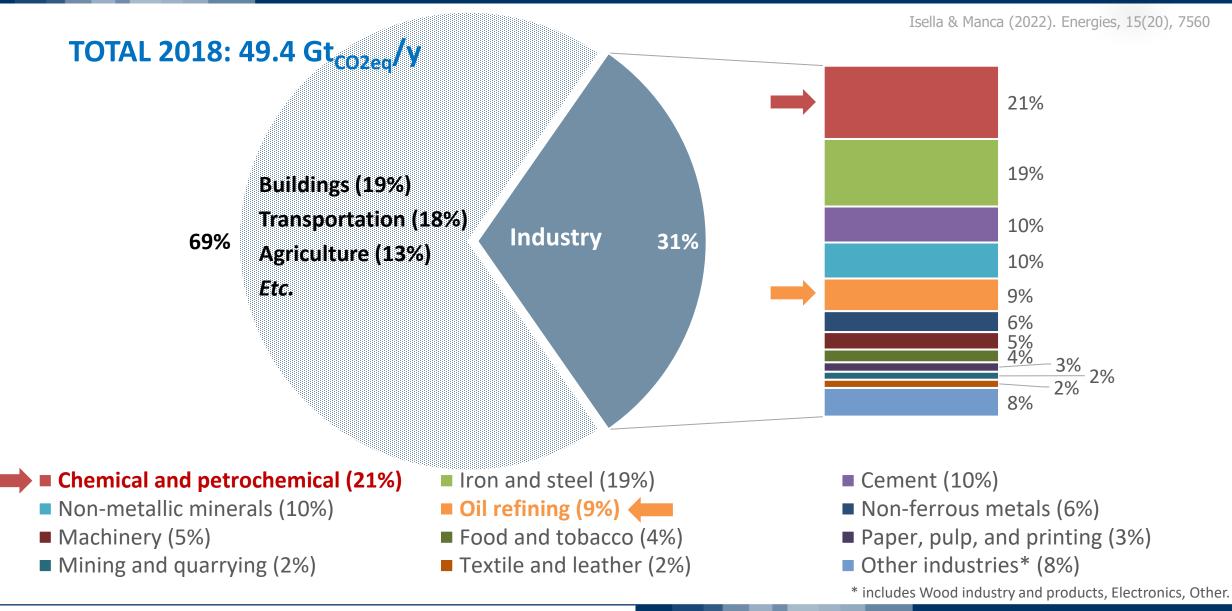
Climate Watch (2024) https://www.climatewatchdata.org/

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World GHG emissions by "end-user" (2018)





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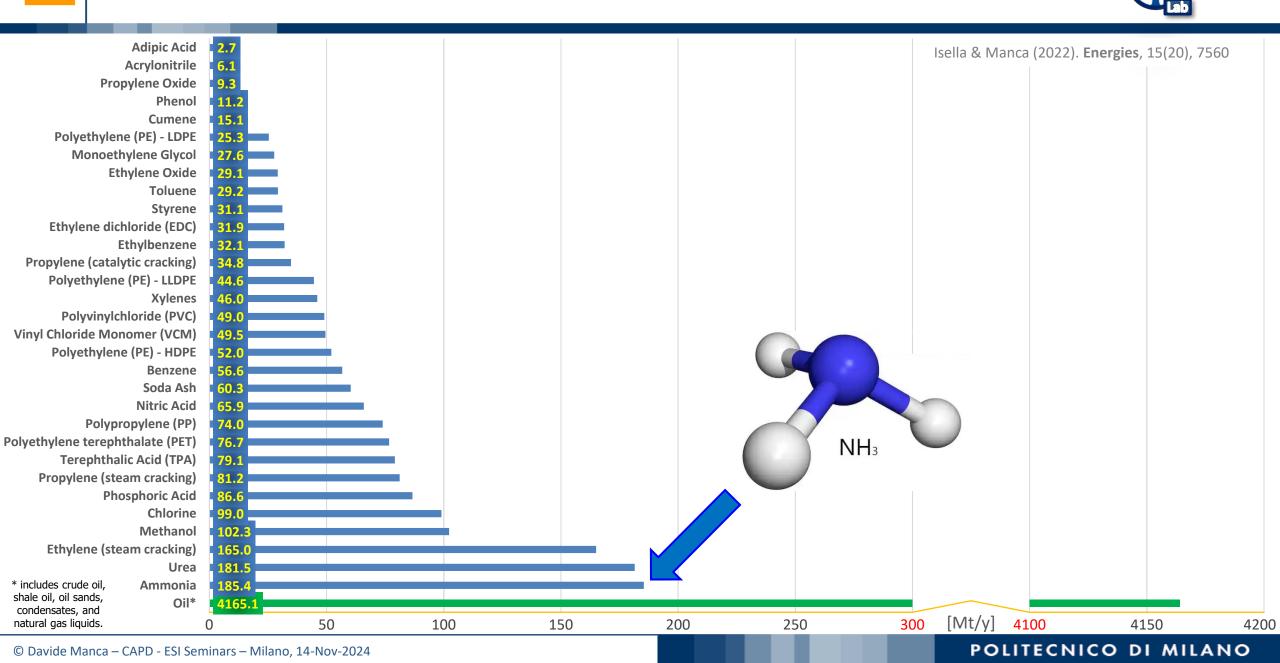




Ammonia

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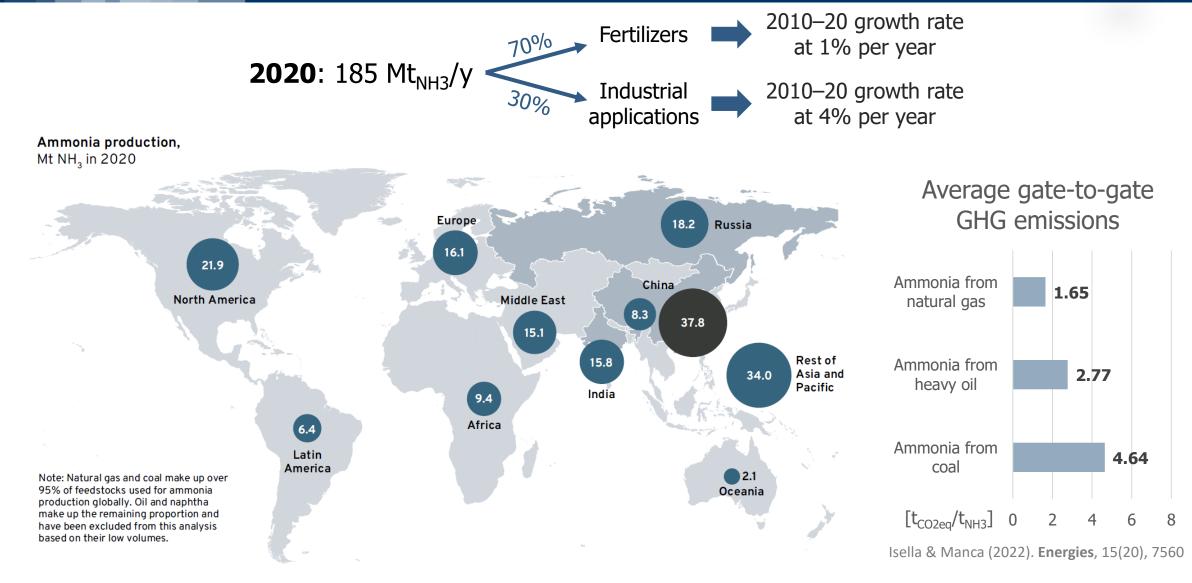
Production volumes in the chemical and refining sector (2020) (Φ)



29

Worldwide ammonia production

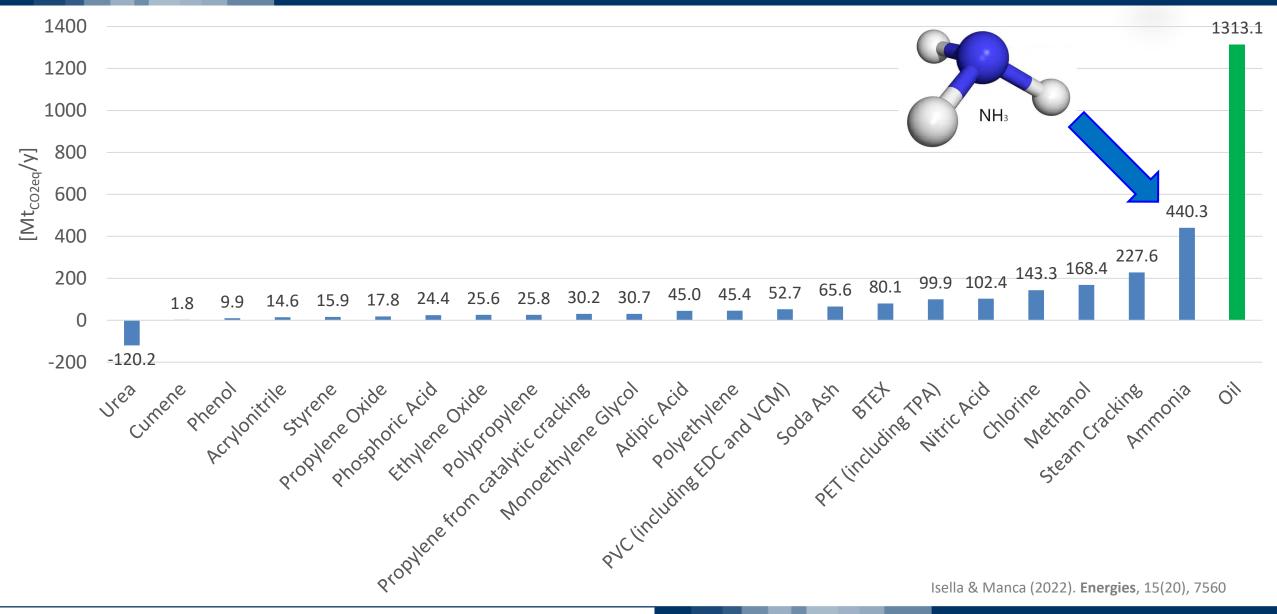




Source: International Fertilizer Association; Industrial Efficiency Technology Database; US Geological Survey

Chemical and oil refining GHG emissions (2020)





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South Africa		Near-zero-emissions technologies				Transitional technologies	
Image: state of the system	Technology	Green ammonia	Blue ammonia	Biomass- based	Methane pyrolysis	Revamp electrolyzer	Partial CCS
	Feedstock	Water	Natural gas, Oil, Coal	Biomass	Natural gas	Natural gas, Oil, Coal	Natural gas
	2020 levelized cost [USD/t _{NH3}]	550~1,400	350~770	770~1,350	480~840	300~670	300~560
	Direct CO ₂ emissions abatement potential	100%	96%	100%	100%	10% Ammonia Possible: A	67%

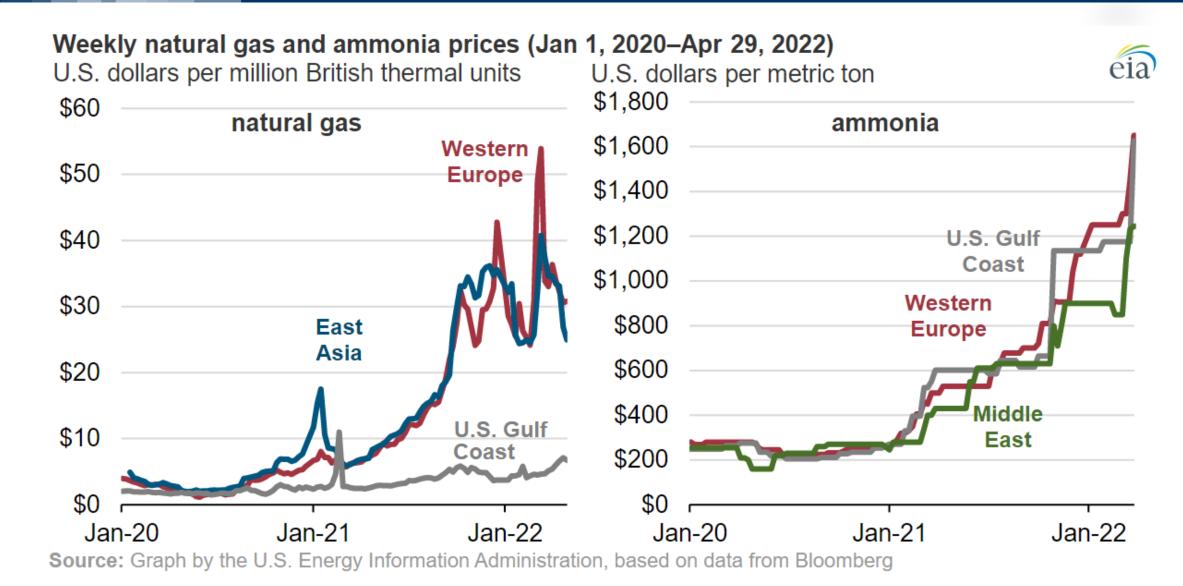
MPP (2022). Making Net-Zero Ammonia Possible: An Industry-Backed, 1.5°C-Aligned Transition Strategy. Mission Possible Partnership.

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Causes of ammonia cost sensitivity to market fluctuations







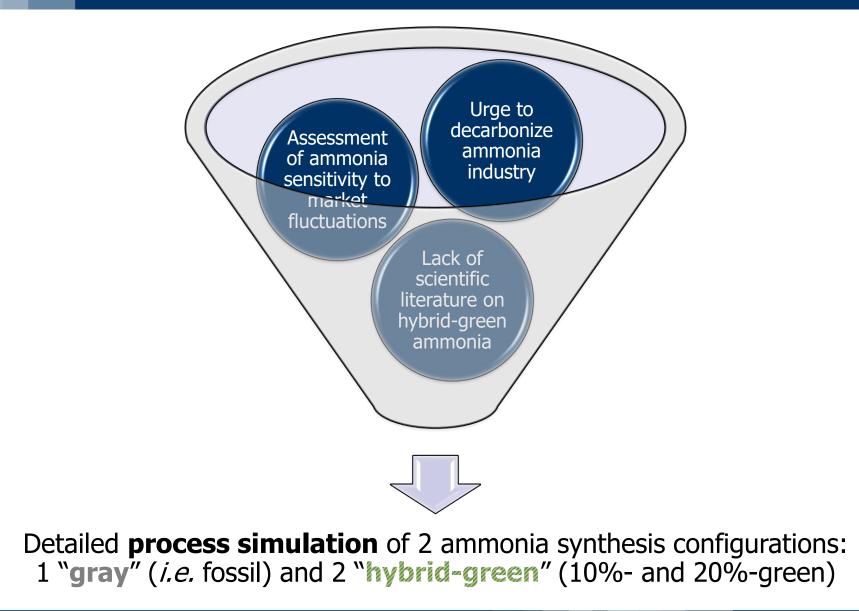


Hybrid green ammonia



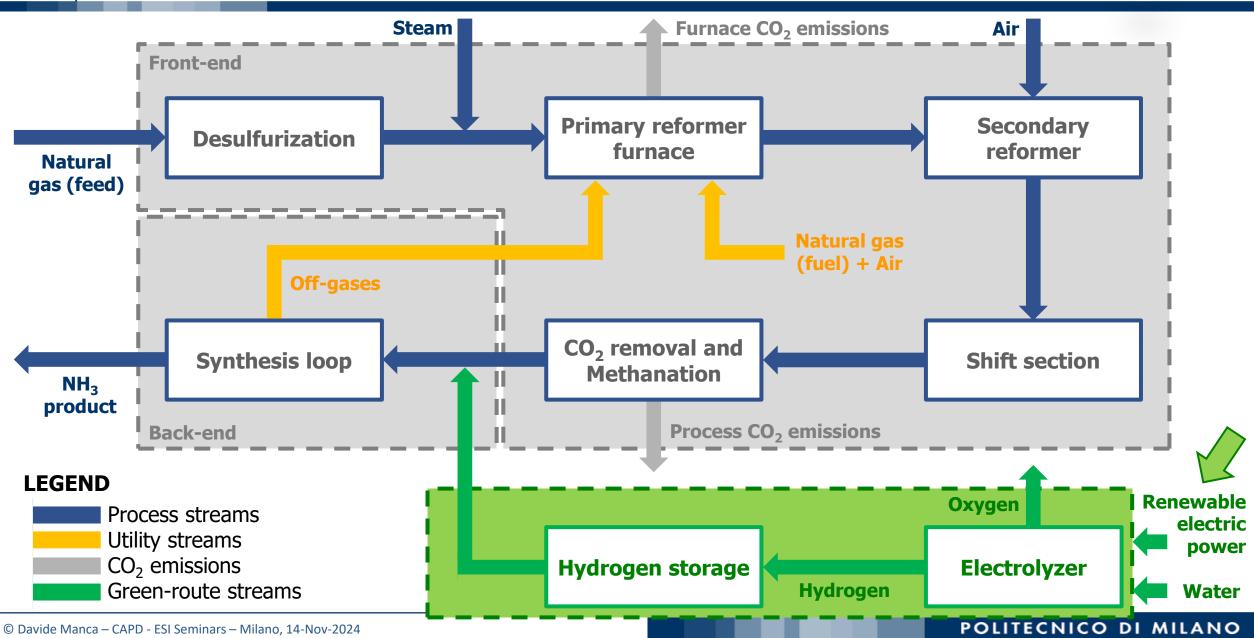
Why investigate hybrid-green ammonia synthesis?





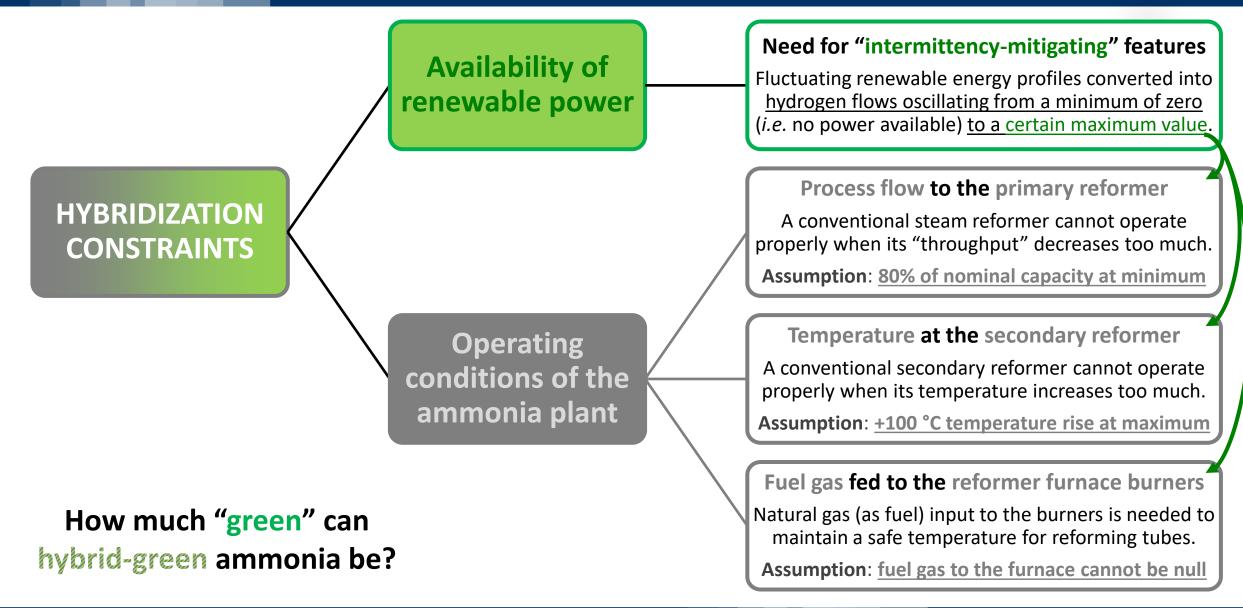
Hybrid-green ammonia model plant (2000 t_{NH3}/d)





Hybridization constraints and model assumptions





Process variables of the model plant (2000 t_{NH3}/d)

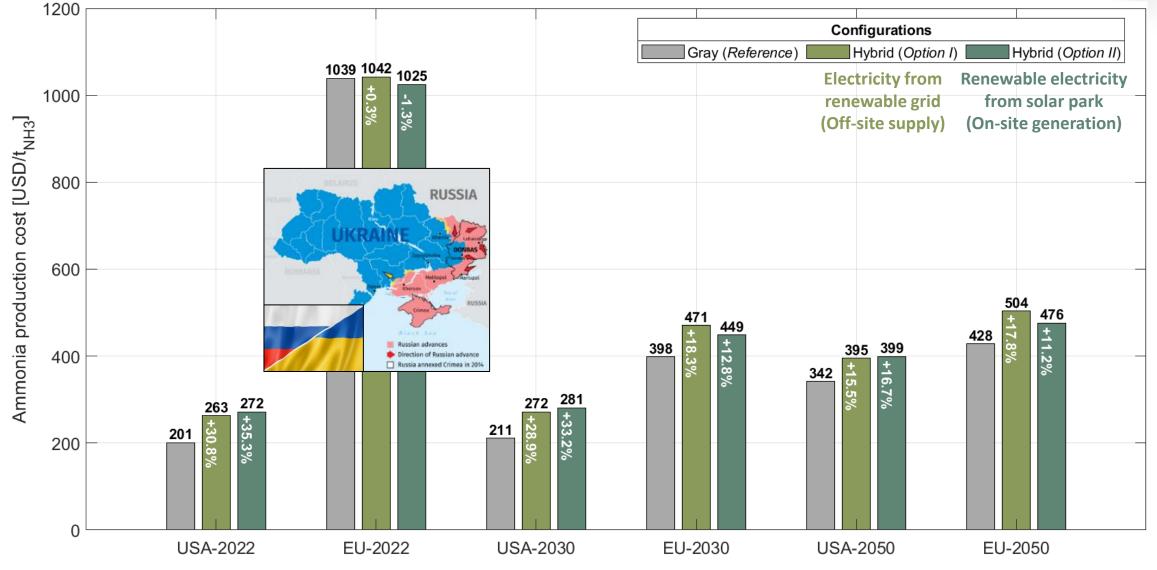


Process variable [unit]		Gray ammonia (deCO ₂ = 0%)		Mean hybrid-green (deCO ₂ = 10%)		High hybrid-green $(deCO_2 = 20\%)$	
Average green H ₂ to the synloop	[t/h]	0		1.74		3.55	
Primary reformer throughput	[t/h]	163	<u>100%</u>	146	<u>89.3%</u>	129	78.8%
Secondary reformer temperature	[°C]	996	<u>100%</u>	1043	<u>104.7%</u>	1104	<u>+108 °C</u>
Natural gas feed to the front-end	[t/h]	38.0	100%	33.9	89.3%	29.9	78.8%
Natural gas fuel to the furnace	[t/h]	12.9	<u>100%</u>	11.9	<u>92.3%</u>	10.7	<u>82.8%</u>
Eurnaca CO, amissians	[t/h]	38.9	100%	34.8	89.5%	30.7	78.8%
Furnace CO ₂ emissions	$[t_{CO2}/t_{NH3}] \qquad 0.467 \qquad 0.418$	0.418	09.370	0.368	70.070		
Process CO ₂ emissions	[t/h]	97.4	100%	87.9	90.3%	78.1	80.1%
	[t _{CO2} /t _{NH3}]	1.17		1.06		0.937	
Total CO ₂ emissions	[t/h]	136.3	100%	122.7	90%	108.8	80%
	[t _{CO2} /t _{NH3}]	1.64		1.48		1.31	

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Gray vs. Hybrid-green production costs





Isella et al. (2024). Chemical Engineering Journal, 486, 150132

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In summary:

- This study shows how hybrid-green ammonia is an up-to-date retrofitting strategy to partially decarbonize (up to -20% of t_{CO_2}/t_{NH_3}) the ammonia production industry.
- Depending less on natural gas inputs, hybrid-green ammonia is cheaper than gray ammonia as the natural gas quotations rise (*e.g.*, Russia-Ukraine war) by the results of the simulated case.
- By gradually entering a "green economy" (e.g., by introducing increasing carbon taxes, decreasing renewable energy costs, fossil fuel limitations, etc.), hybrid-green ammonia is expected to reach progressively higher competitiveness in the modeled market scenarios.

Based on the present analysis, a higher decarbonization extent and a lower retrofit cost may allow the industry to deliver early emissions reductions.



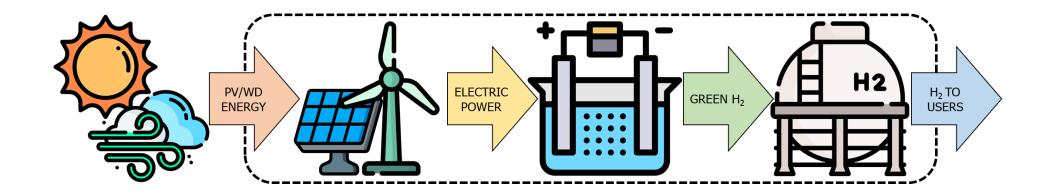


Hydrogen storage in green processes

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Levelized Cost of Hydrogen (LCOH) assessment:

• Solar+Wind power plant + Electrolyzer + Hydrogen storage



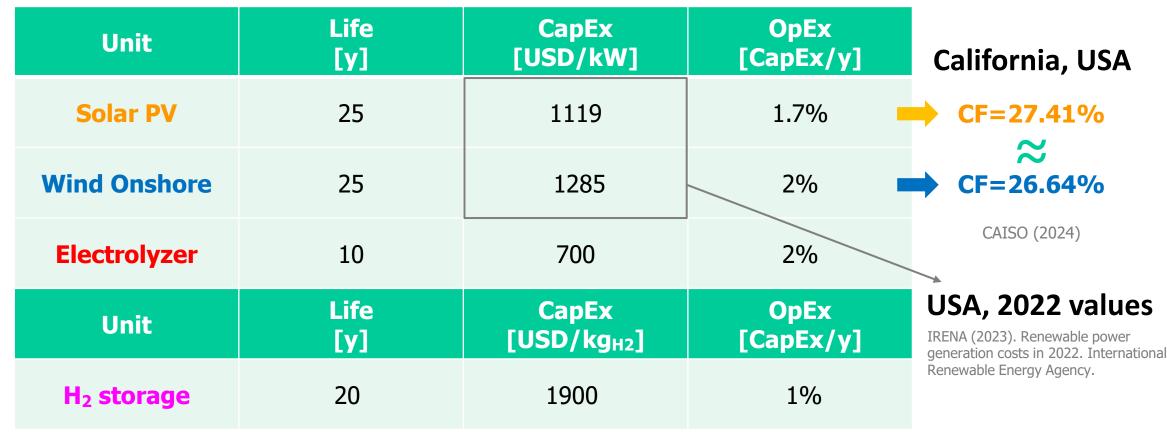
TARGET H₂ PRODUCTIVITY: 1 [t_{H2}/h]

ASSESSED TIMESPAN: 1 [y] = 8760 [h]

e.g., to produce \approx 136 [t_{NH3}/d] or \approx 192 [t_{CH3OH}/d]

i.e., assuming no maintenance breaks or emergency shutdowns occur

TECHNO-ECONOMIC DATA: Discount rate = 5%

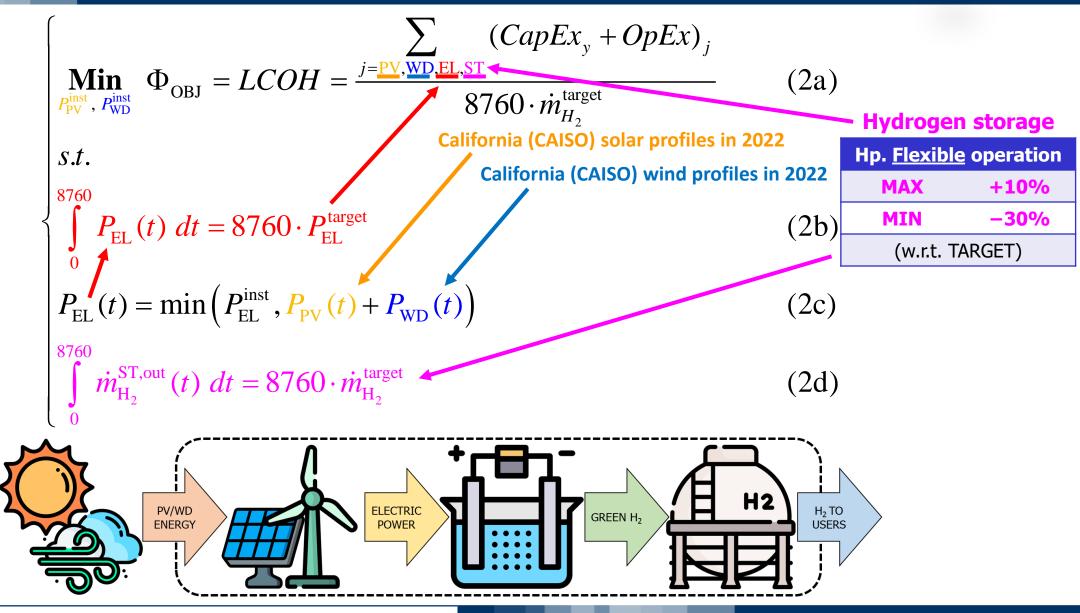


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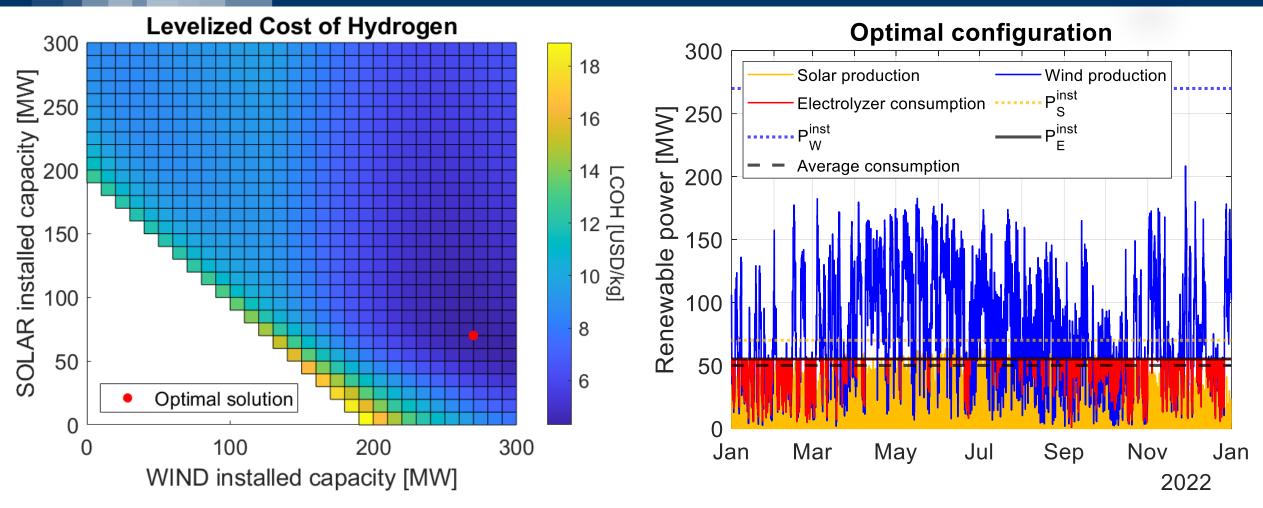
Solar/Wind park + Electrolyzer + H₂ storage





Solar/Wind park + Electrolyzer + H₂ storage

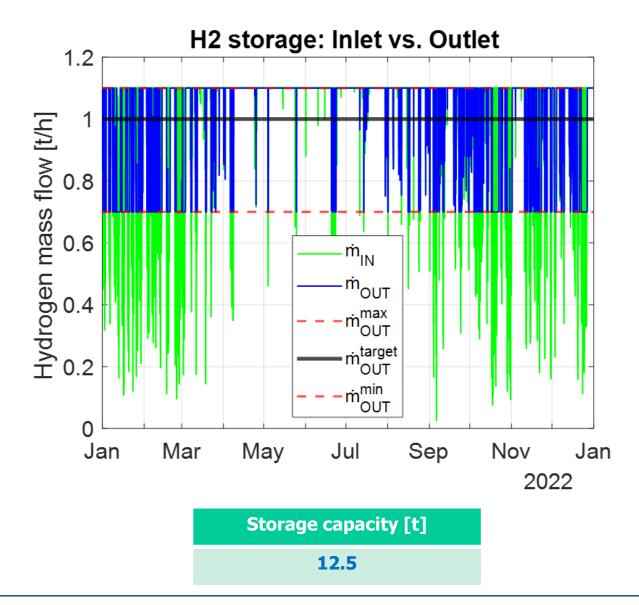


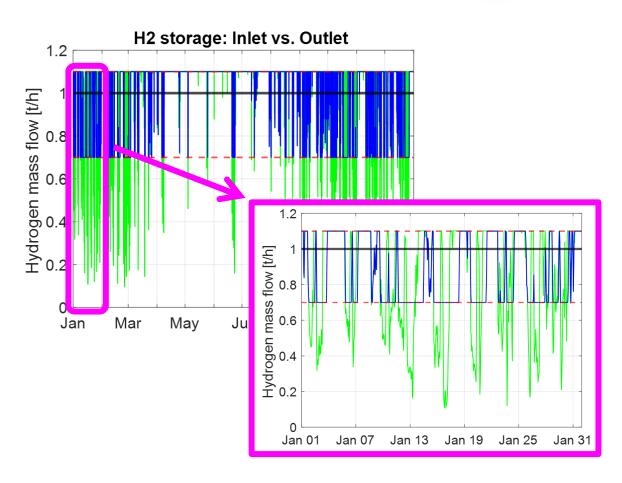


Solar [MW]	Wind [MW]	Electrolyzer [MW]	LCOH [USD/kg]
70	270	55	4.31

H₂ storage



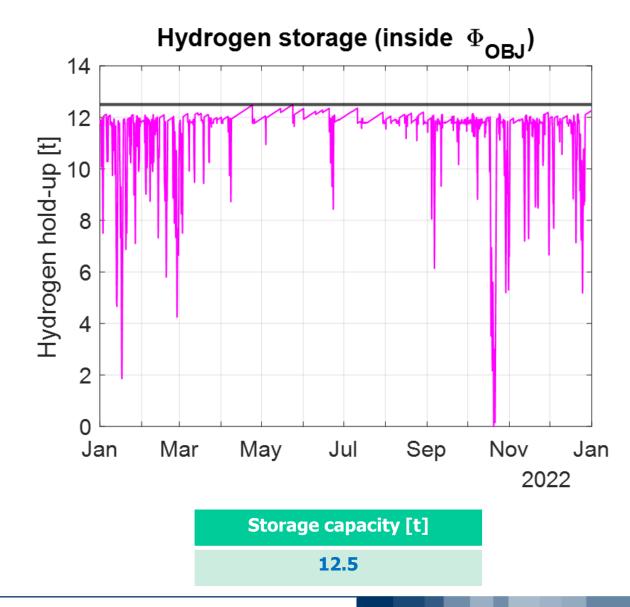




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In summary:

- The control volume of the optimization problem shows a crucial impact on the results.
- When addressing the H₂ storage (e.g., in case of downstream conversion processes), the optimal configurations typically show wind power oversizing as its higher daily/seasonal availability allows for smaller storage (→ higher amounts of renewable energy to be curtailed).

We developed a flexible tool that determines the optimal design (*i.e.*, renewable park, electrolyzer, and electricity/hydrogen storage sizes) of green H₂ production facilities.





Optimal hydrogen storage



Optimally-flexible mass storage



Isella & Manca (Under Review). International Journal of Hydrogen Energy.

INLET $\dot{m}_{IN}(t)$ $\dot{m}_{OUT}(t)$ OUTLET STORAGE TANK m(t)

Given the mass balance of the storage node:

$$\frac{d}{dt}m(t) = \dot{m}_{IN}(t) - \dot{m}_{OUT}(t)$$

How should this term behave to minimize the accumulation instantaneously? (hence the storage capacity)

By applying the following operating schedule...

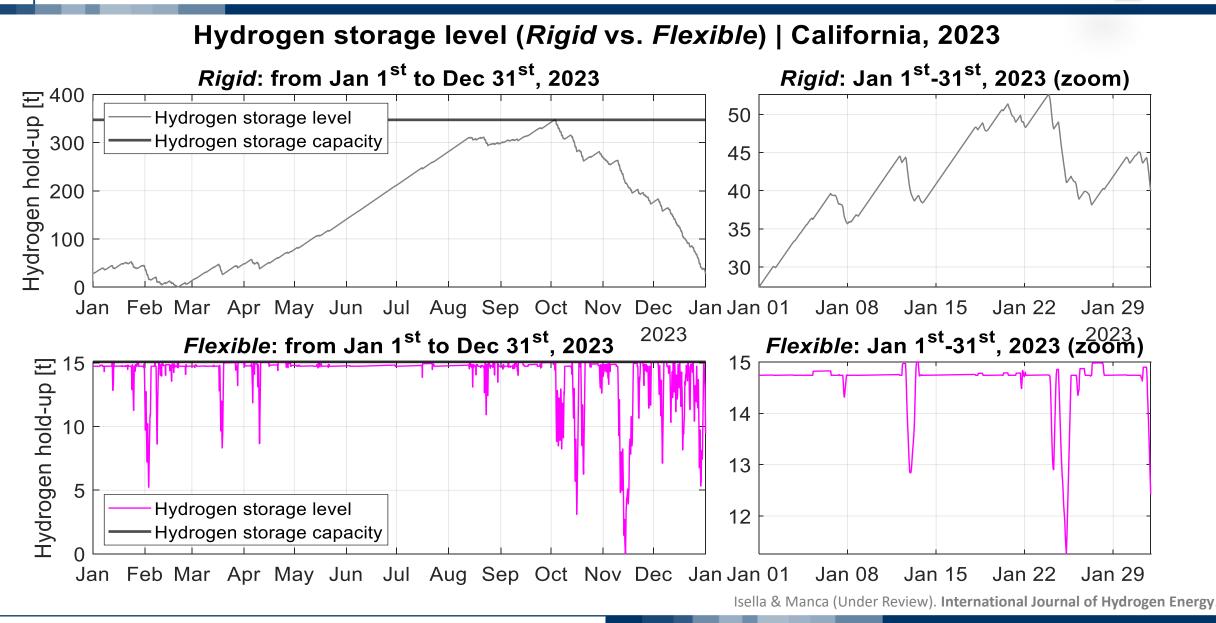
$$\dot{m}_{OUT}(t) = \dot{m}_{IN}(t) + \frac{1}{\Delta t} \cdot \int_{1}^{t-1} \left[\dot{m}_{IN}(\tau) - \dot{m}_{OUT}(\tau) \right] d\tau \quad \Leftrightarrow$$

Filtering for compliance with the upper and lower limits and allowable ramping rates of the downstream process

$$m_{tot} = \max\left(\sum_{\tau=1}^{t} \left[\dot{m}_{IN}(\tau) - \dot{m}_{OUT}(\tau)\right] \Delta t\right) - \min\left(\sum_{\tau=1}^{t} \left[\dot{m}_{IN}(\tau) - \dot{m}_{OUT}(\tau)\right] \Delta t\right)$$

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An example: the same case study with Rigid vs. Flex storage



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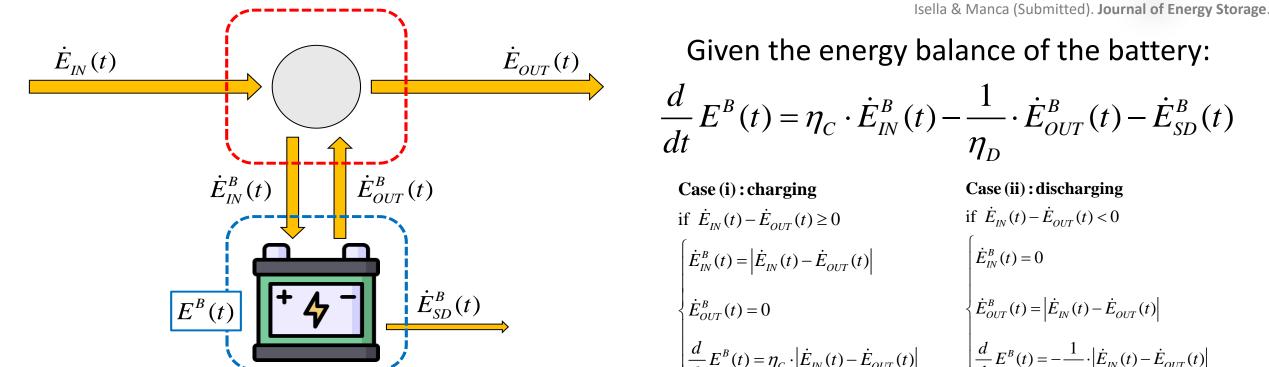


Optimal electricity storage



Optimally-flexible electricity storage





$$\begin{cases} \dot{E}_{IN}^{B}(t) = \left| \dot{E}_{IN}(t) - \dot{E}_{OUT}(t) \right| \\ \dot{E}_{OUT}^{B}(t) = 0 \\ \frac{d}{dt} E^{B}(t) = \eta_{C} \cdot \left| \dot{E}_{IN}(t) - \dot{E}_{OUT}(t) \right| \end{cases}$$

if $\dot{E}_{IN}(t) - \dot{E}_{OUT}(t) < 0$ $\dot{E}_{OUT}^{B}(t) = \left| \dot{E}_{IN}(t) - \dot{E}_{OUT}(t) \right|$ $\left| \frac{d}{dt} E^B(t) = -\frac{1}{\eta_D} \cdot \left| \dot{E}_{IN}(t) - \dot{E}_{OUT}(t) \right| \right|$

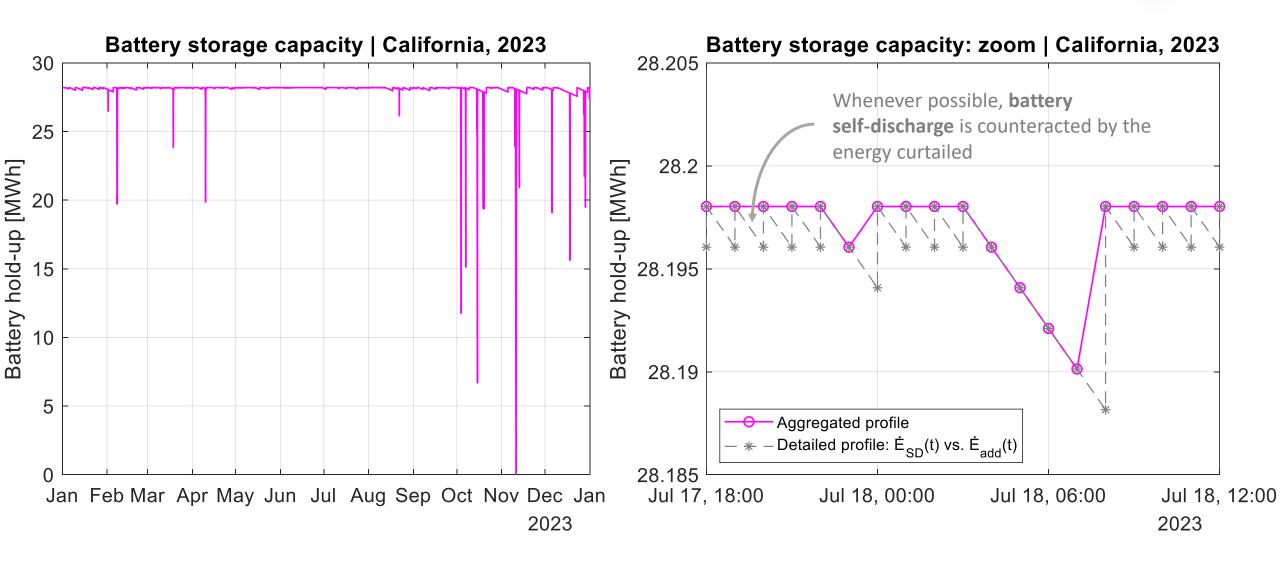
The operating schedule minimizing the storage capacity is:

$$\dot{E}_{OUT}(t) = \begin{cases} \dot{E}_{IN}(t) + \left[\eta_D \cdot \sum_{\tau=1}^{t-1} \left(\frac{d}{dt} E^B(\tau)\right)\right] & \text{if } \sum_{\tau=1}^{t-1} \left(\frac{d}{dt} E^B(\tau)\right) \ge 0 \\ \dot{E}_{OUT}(t) + \left[\frac{1}{\eta_C} \cdot \sum_{\tau=1}^{t-1} \left(\frac{d}{dt} E^B(\tau)\right)\right] & \text{if } \sum_{\tau=1}^{t-1} \left(\frac{d}{dt} E^B(\tau)\right) < 0 \end{cases}$$

Filtering for compliance with the upper and lower limits and allowable ramping rates of the downstream process



Isella & Manca (Submitted). Journal of Energy Storage.







Sustainability of a green ammonia plant

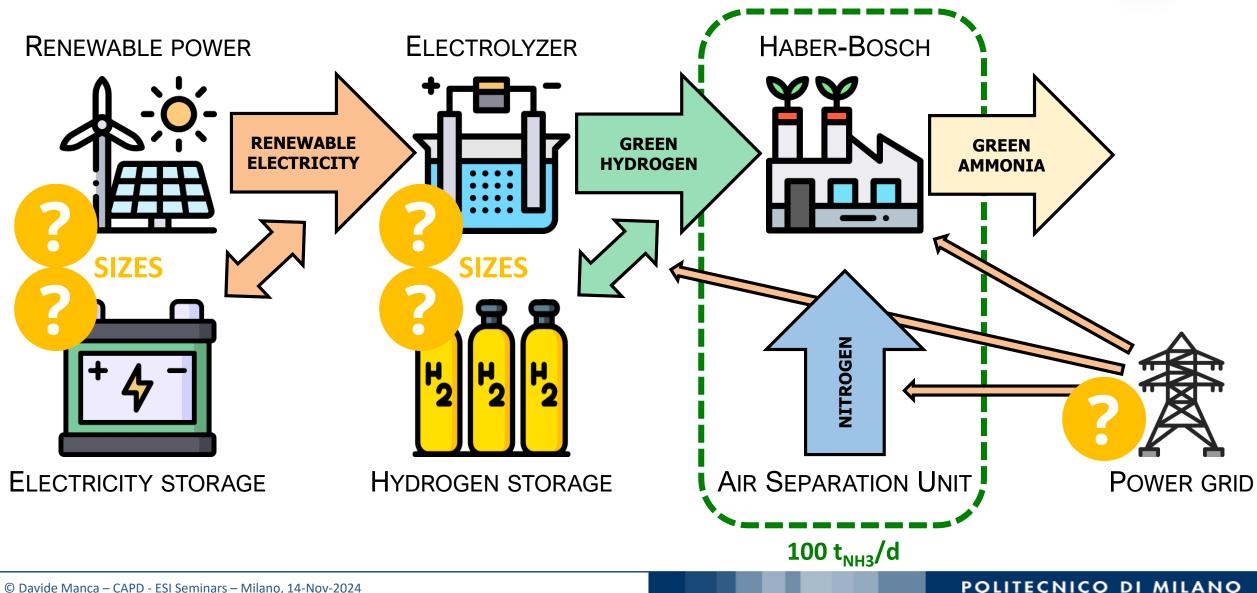


Power-to-Ammonia (P2A) plant

i.e., green ammonia production from renewable power



Isella & Manca (Submitted). Computers & Chemical Engineering.



Power-to-Ammonia (P2A) plant

i.e., green ammonia production from renewable power

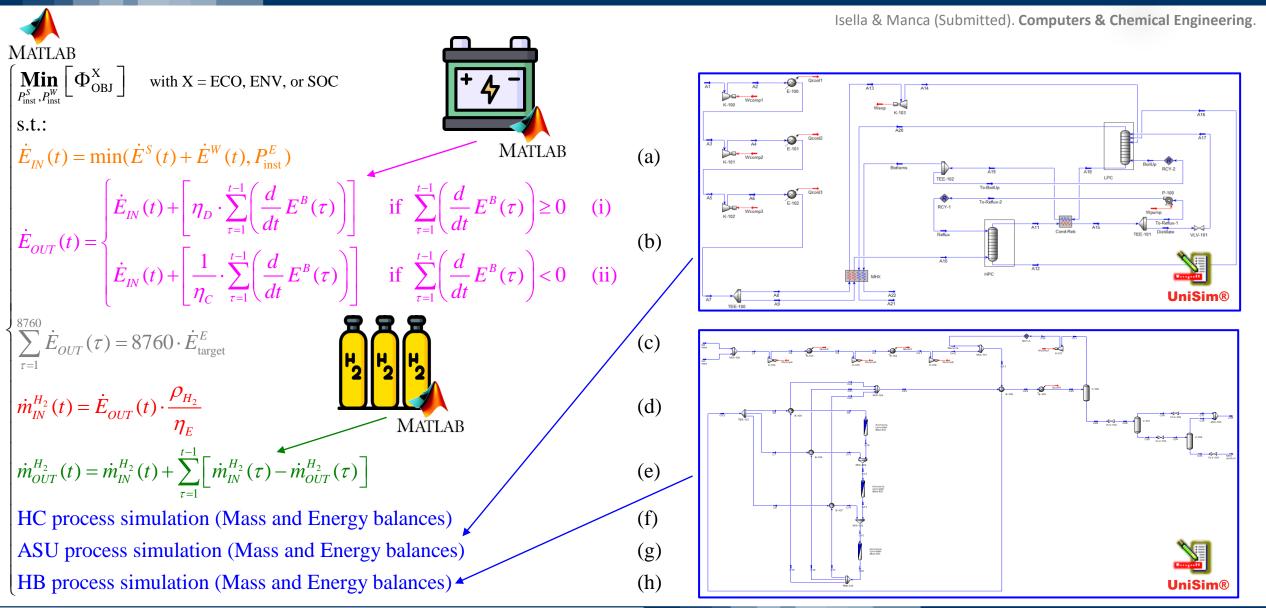


Isella & Manca (Submitted). Computers & Chemical Engineering.



The single-objective optimization (SOO) problem

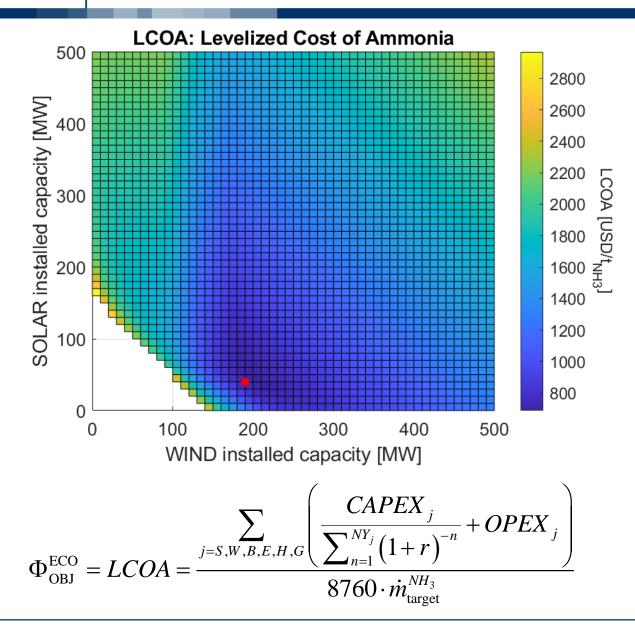


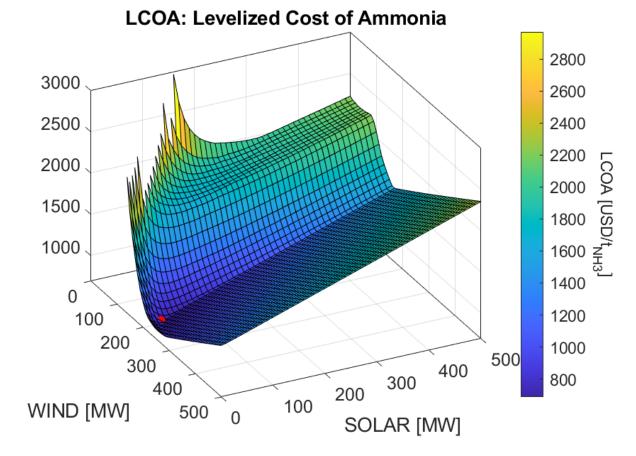


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Economic optimization: LCOA







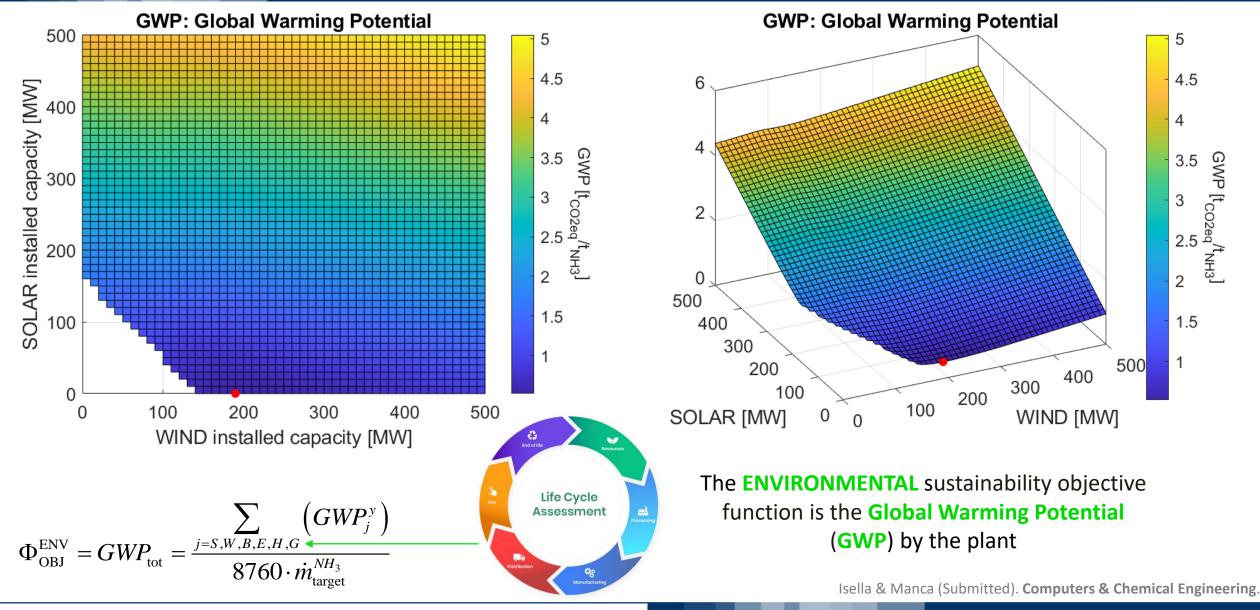
The ECONOMIC sustainability objective function is the Levelized Cost of Ammonia (LCOA)

Isella & Manca (Submitted). Computers & Chemical Engineering.

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Environmental optimization: GWP

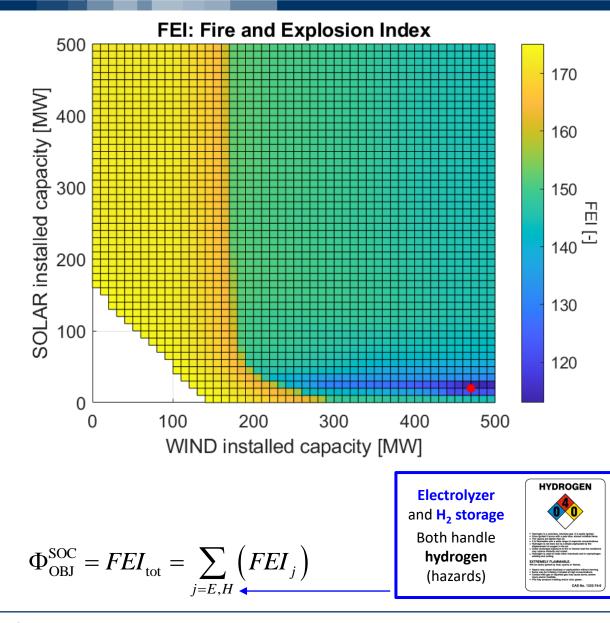


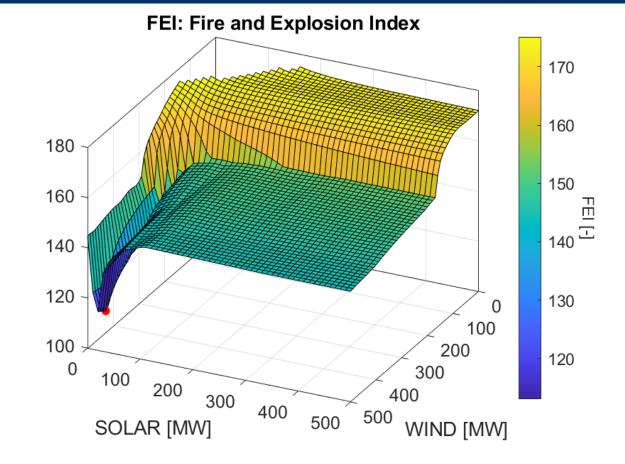


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The SOCIAL sustainability objective function is the Fire and Explosion Index (FEI) by the plant

Isella & Manca (Submitted). Computers & Chemical Engineering.

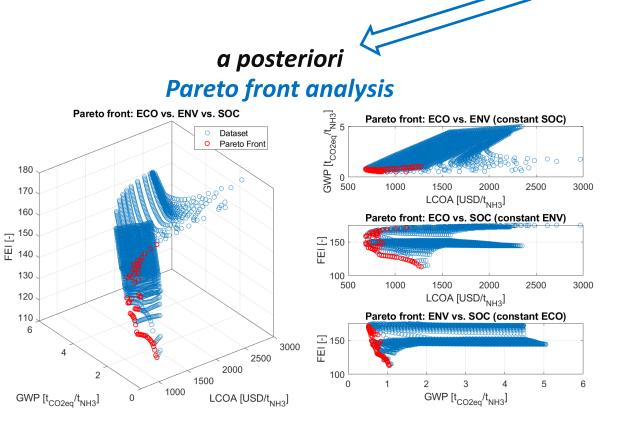
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The multi-objective optimization (MOO) problem



Isella & Manca (Submitted). Computers & Chemical Engineering.

Solving MOO problems always requires some human decision-making

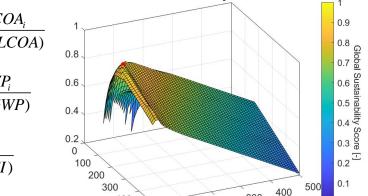


 $GSS = \left\{ w_{ECO} \cdot EcoSI + w_{ENV} \cdot EnvSI + w_{SOC} \cdot SocSI \right\}$ $EcoSI_i = \frac{\max(LCOA) - LCOA_i}{\max(LCOA) - \min(LCOA)}$ $EnvSI_i = \frac{\max(GWP) - GWP_i}{\max(GWP) - \min(GWP)}$

a priori

Scalarization

$$SocSI_i = \frac{\max(FEI) - FEI_i}{\max(FEI) - \min(FEI)}$$



Postponing the decision process after the searching phase, evaluating those points within the decision space whose corresponding objective functions cannot be all simultaneously improved Combining more objective functions into one through an appropriate scalarization function (*e.g.*, linear combination) → weight values = core of the decision-making process

WIND [MW] 500

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300

SOLAR [MW]

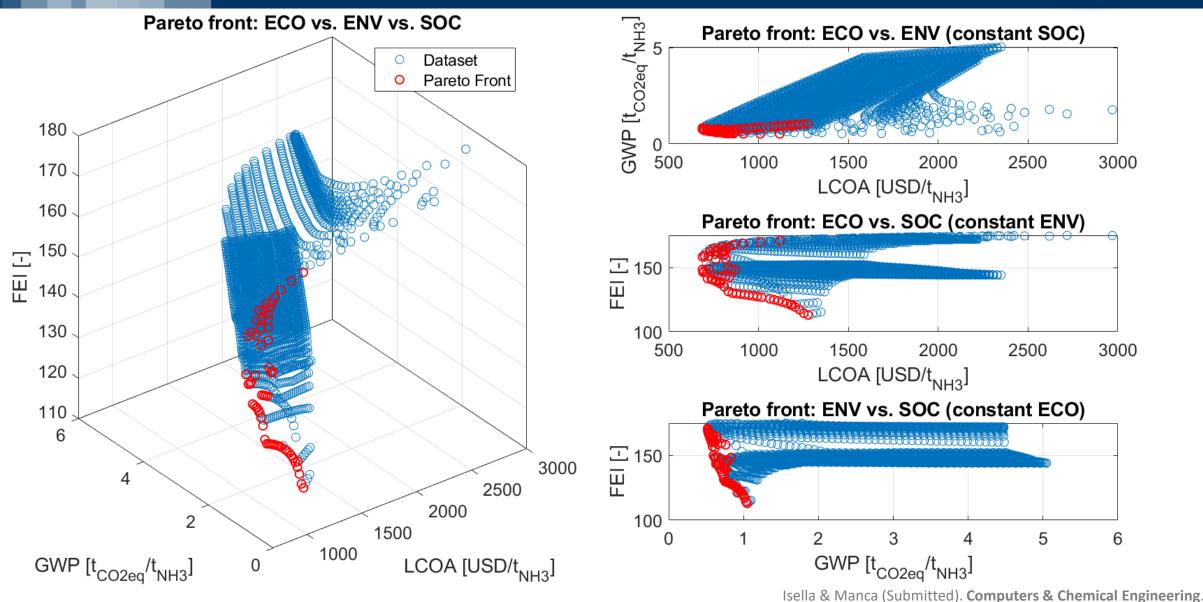
200

100

0

$\mathbf{MOO} \text{ problem} \rightarrow \mathbf{Pareto} \text{ front analysis}$

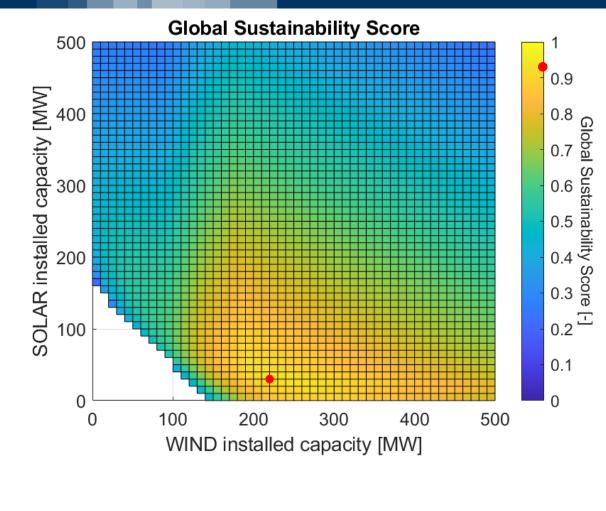




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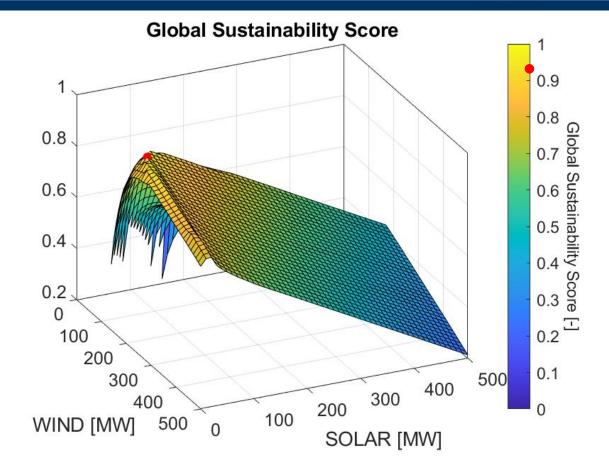






$$\mathbf{Max} \{GSS\} = (w_{\text{ECO}} \cdot EcoSI + w_{\text{ENV}} \cdot EnvSI + w_{\text{SOC}} \cdot SocSI)$$

with $w_{\text{ECO}} + w_{\text{ENV}} + w_{\text{SOC}} = 1$



The Global Sustainability Score (GSS) is the linear combination of the ECO, ENV, and SOC indexes, those coefficients act as user-defined weighting factors for each sustainability pillar (e.g., 60%+30%+10%)

Isella & Manca (Submitted). Computers & Chemical Engineering.





Conclusions

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- The chemical industry is undergoing a paradigm shift from steady-state to discontinuous processes, driven by the adoption of renewable energy sources and the need for more sustainable, flexible, and resilient operations.
- Renewable energy sources, such as solar and wind, introduce significant variability and intermittency to chemical processes, necessitating new approaches to process design, control, and optimization.
- Hybrid-green ammonia production, which combines conventional and renewable hydrogen sources, offers a promising pathway for decarbonizing the ammonia industry while maintaining economic viability.
- **Optimal sizing** and integration of **hydrogen storage systems** are crucial for managing the variability of renewable energy inputs and ensuring stable downstream process operations.
- Advanced optimization techniques, such as multi-objective optimization considering economic, environmental, and social factors, are essential for designing sustainable and efficient green chemical processes.



- Further research is needed to develop **robust control strategies** and **process intensification techniques** that enable chemical plants to operate flexibly and efficiently under variable renewable energy inputs.
- The integration of advanced data analytics, machine learning, and digital twin technologies will be crucial for real-time monitoring, optimization, and decision-making in the context of discontinuous green chemical processes.
- Investigating the potential synergies between green chemical processes and other sectors, such as transportation, energy storage, and waste management, will open up new opportunities for industrial symbiosis and circular economy solutions.
- Developing innovative business models and policy frameworks that incentivize adopting green chemical technologies and support the transition towards a more sustainable and resilient chemical industry will be essential for driving progress in this field.





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Andrea Isella (awaiting the final PhD defense)





Green Chemical Engineering: Tackling Discontinuities for a More Sustainable Future

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