# Flexible operation of modular electrochemical $CO_2$ reduction processes

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Abstract: Electrochemical  $CO_2$  reduction  $(eCO_2R)$  is an emerging technology that is capable of producing various organic chemicals from  $CO_2$ , but its high electricity cost is a big economic obstacle. One solution to reduce the cumulative electricity cost is demand side management, i.e., to adjust the power load based on time-variant electricity prices. However, varying the power load of  $CO_2$ -electrolyzers often leads to changes in Faraday efficiency towards target components and thereby influences the product composition. Such deviations from the target product composition may be undesired for downstream processes. We tackle this challenge by proposing a flexible operating scheme for a modular  $eCO_2R$  process. We formulate the economically optimal operation of an  $eCO_2R$  process with multiple electrolyzer stacks as a parallel-machine scheduling problem. Adjusting the power load of each sub-process properly, we can save electricity costs while the desired product composition is met at any time. We apply an algorithm based on wavelet transform to solve the resulting large-scale

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nonlinear scheduling problem in tractable time. We solve each optimization problem with a deterministic global optimization software MAiNGO. We examine flexible operation of a modular  $eCO_2R$  process for syngas production. The case studies show that the modular structure enables savings in the cumulative electricity cost of the  $eCO_2R$  process via flexible operation while deviations in the syngas composition could be reduced. Also, the maximum ramping speed of the entire process is found to be a key parameter that strongly influences the cost saving.

### 1 Introduction

Electrochemical carbon dioxide  $(CO_2)$  reduction  $(eCO_2R)$  is an emerging technology that is capable of producing various organic chemical compounds out of  $CO_2$ . Being integrated with renewable energy systems,  $eCO_2R$  has been known as a promising alternative to conventional fossil-based chemical production. Recent research on  $eCO_2R$  has focused on synthesis of novel catalysts for the production of, e.g., carbon monoxide, formic acid, ethylene, and ethanol [9]. In addition, electrode and reactor design [25], conceptual process design [7], and techno-economic and sustainability analysis [20] are of interest as well.

The electricity cost is one of the major cost drivers of  $eCO_2R$  technologies [14]. A straightforward solution to the electricity cost reduction is to lower the overpotential of, particularly, the anode oxygen evolution reaction [24]. On the other hand, if an  $eCO_2R$  process is powered by grid electricity, one can adjust the plant load to fluctuations in electricity (spot) prices. This flexible operation, namely demand side management (DSM) or demand response (DR), leads to savings in overall electricity costs [8]. In academia, DSM has been applied to various industrial plants, such as air separation units, chlor-alkali plants, and aluminium plants [18].

A major challenge of flexible operation of  $eCO_2R$  processes is that the composition of the effluent stream depends on the current density (or applied volt-

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age). For example, increasing the current density of  $CO_2$ -electrolyzers dedicated to syngas (a mixture of hydrogen and carbon monoxide) production leads to a higher  $H_2/CO$  ratio due to the changes in the Faraday efficiencies toward hydrogen and carbon monoxide [26]. The deviation of the product composition from the nominal level is typically undesired for downstream processes. This feature is distinct from other conventional electrolysis, such as water electrolysis and chlor-alkali electrolysis, in which the product concentrations do not significantly change with respect to the current density. To meet the product specification, a part of the components should be separated, which would complicate the process configuration and worsen the economic viability as well.

To tackle this challenge, we propose a flexible operation of modular  $eCO_2R$ processes. Motivated from the parallel machine scheduling [13], an  $eCO_2R$  process consists of N identical sub-processes that can be operated independently from one another. Adjusting the power load of each sub-process properly according to the instantaneous electricity prices rather than keeping the power load fixed, we can save the overall electricity costs while the desired product concentration can be met.

We formulate scheduling problems to determine the optimal load profile of each sub-process. In this study, syngas is chosen as a target product of an  $eCO_2R$  process. Since the syngas production rate and power requirement are represented as nonlinear functions of the current density, we solve nonlinear scheduling problems. In order to reduce the computational cost, we apply our recently proposed algorithm based on wavelet transform [21]. We conduct a sensitivity analysis that perturbs the maximum ramping speed of each subprocess to see how much it influences the electricity cost savings.

### 2 System description

Figure 1 depicts the block flow diagram of an  $eCO_2R$  process, which is modularized and thus capable of running flexibly. The entire system consists of N

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Fig. 1: Block flow diagram of a generalized modular  $eCO_2R$  process for chemical production

identical sub-processes that are independently operable. Herein, we consider a moderate size of N (2 ~ 8). Carbon dioxide and water are fed into electrolyzer stacks in each sub-process and then target chemicals are synthesized at the cathode chambers via electrochemical CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reactions. Meanwhile, oxygen, a byproduct, is generated in the anode chambers.

Recent studies on electrochemical  $CO_2$  reduction have reported per-pass conversion of  $CO_2$  below 35% [14]. Thus, the significant amount of unreacted  $CO_2$  remains in the cathode effluent streams and has to be separated by a  $CO_2$ separation unit(s). In this study, we introduce N identical  $CO_2$  separation units connected to N  $CO_2$ -electrolyzer stacks to treat the respective cathode effluent. The separated  $CO_2$  is then preferably recycled for reducing the  $CO_2$  feed cost.

To enable DSM, the process requires overcapacity, meaning that we install more than the minimum number of electrolyzer cells needed to achieve the target production rate. In addition, the products from all the stacks are mixed and stored in a storage tank. This intermediate storage is mandatory for the constant supply of the product to the downstream process.

## 3 Mathematical formulation

The scheduling model presented below is developed to determine the optimal operation of each sub-process of an  $eCO_2R$  process. The following assumptions

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are made:

- quasi-steady-state model with discrete-time variables;
- perfect forecast of electricity prices in the day-ahead market;
- no side-product generated;
- unreacted CO<sub>2</sub> in the cathode effluent is completely removed;
- considering power demand for electrolysis only.

#### 3.1 Mass balances

The molar amount of a component c produced by stack s at time step t  $(n_{s,c,t})$ is calculated by

$$n_{s,c,t} = \frac{\operatorname{FE}_{s,c,t} j_{s,t} A_{\operatorname{Cell}} N_{\operatorname{Cell}}}{F z_c} \Delta t, \quad \forall s \in S, c \in C, t \in T,$$
(1)

where  $\text{FE}_{s,c,t}$  denotes the Faraday efficiency toward component c of stack s,  $j_{s,t}$  the current density of stack s,  $A_{\text{Cell}}$  the active electrode area,  $N_{\text{Cell}}$  the number of cells per stack,  $\Delta t$  the length of time step, F the Faraday constant, and  $z_c$  the number of electrons transferred. Note that  $\text{FE}_{s,c,t}$  of CO<sub>2</sub>-electrolyzers often sharply varies with respect to  $j_{s,t}$ . For example, when a silver catalyst is applied to the cathode, the CO<sub>2</sub> reduction reaction that generates CO is superior at low current density due to its low onset potential while the hydrogen evolution reaction becomes dominant at high current density [25]. Therefore, this dependency should be properly represented by exploiting either experiment or simulation data.

The total amount of each component and the target product is calculated by

$$n_{c,t} = \sum_{s} n_{s,c,t}, \quad \forall c \in C, t \in T,$$
(2)

$$n_{\text{Prod},t} = \sum_{c} n_{c,t}, \quad \forall t \in T.$$
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To maintain the product quality, an additional constraint is imposed:

$$Q(n_{c,t}) = q_{\text{Prod}}, \quad \forall t \in T.$$
(4)

where  $Q(n_{c,t})$  calculates the product quality as a function of  $n_{c,t}$ , e.g., the  $H_{2/CO}$  molar ratio of syngas, and  $q_{Prod}$  is the target value.

We consider the amount of the stored product limited to the maximum storage capacity  $C_{\text{Prod}}$ :

$$-\frac{C_{\text{Prod}} n_{\text{Prod}}^{N}}{2\,\Delta t} \leqslant \sum_{\tau=1}^{t} (n_{\text{Prod},\tau} - n_{\text{Prod}}^{N}) \leqslant \frac{C_{\text{Prod}} n_{\text{Prod}}^{N}}{2\,\Delta t}, \quad \forall t \in T,$$
(5)

where  $n_{\text{Prod}}^N$  is the nominal production level. Initially, half of the storage tank is assumed to be filled by the product.

#### 3.2 Power consumption

The power consumption at time step t can be calculated by

$$P_t = \sum_{s} (j_{s,t} A_{\text{cell}} U_{s,t} N_{\text{Cell}}) \Delta t, \quad \forall t \in T,$$
(6)

where  $U_{s,t}$  denotes the cell potential of stack s at time step t. As the current density  $j_{s,t}$  increases, the cell potential  $U_{s,t}$  rises due to, for example, the activation and ohmic overpotentials.

#### **3.3 Ramping constraints**

Suitable ramping constraints should be imposed in order to make the quasisteady state assumptions adequate for optimizing the operation of the dynamic systems, such as

$$-\Delta j \leqslant j_{s,t} - j_{s,t-1} \leqslant \Delta j, \quad \forall s \in S, t \in T,$$

$$\tag{7}$$

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where  $\Delta j$  denotes the maximal ramping speed.  $\Delta j$  is calculated by

$$\Delta j = \frac{j^{max} - j^{min}}{T_{\text{Ramp}}},\tag{8}$$

where  $j^{max}$  and  $j^{min}$  denote the maximal and minimal allowable current density, respectively.  $T_{\text{Ramp}}$  denotes the minimal ramping duration between the two extreme operating points.

### 3.4 Symmetry-breaking constraints

We impose the lexicographic ordering constraints [22] that exclude alternative solutions to break the symmetry and shorten the computation time accordingly:

$$j_{s,t} \ge j_{s+1,t}, \quad \forall s = \{1...S_T - 1\}, t \in T,$$
(9)

where  $S_T$  is the total number of stacks. This constraint forces, for example, the current density of Stack 1 to be higher than those of other stacks over the simulation horizon.

#### 3.5 Objective function

We minimize the sum of the electricity costs over the time horizon:

$$\min_{j_{s,t}} \sum_{t} p_t P_t, \tag{10}$$

where  $p_t$  denotes an electricity spot price.

## 4 Case Study

We demonstrate the proposed operation concept on a syngas production system based on co-electrolysis of  $CO_2$  and  $H_2O$ . Four identical and independently operable sub-processes produce syngas via the following electrochemical reactions over Ag catalysts:

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$$2 \operatorname{H}^+ + 2 \operatorname{e}^- \longrightarrow \operatorname{H}_2$$
  
 $\operatorname{CO}_2 + 2 \operatorname{H}^+ + 2 \operatorname{e}^- \longrightarrow \operatorname{CO} + \operatorname{H}_2 \operatorname{O}_2$ 

We choose a desired  $H_{2/}CO$  molar ratio of 1, which is suitable for liquid fuel synthesis via the Fisher-Tropsch process with iron-based catalysts [10] and oxo-synthesis for isomeric aldehydes production [2]. Therefore,

$$n_{\mathrm{H}_{2},t}/n_{\mathrm{CO},t} = q_{\mathrm{Syn}}, \quad \forall t \in T,$$
(11)

where  $q_{\text{Syn}} = 1$  and  $n_{\text{H}_2,t}$  and  $n_{\text{CO},t}$  are the total molar amount of H<sub>2</sub> and CO produced at time step t. Each sub-process comprises one CO<sub>2</sub>-electrolyzer stack and one CO<sub>2</sub> separation unit. Each stack consists of 30 electrolyzer cells, so the total number of electrolyzer cells is 120. The total syngas production rate is 5.87 kmol/h, which can be manufactured by 100 electrolyzer cells operated at the nominal current density (117 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>) determined by Brée et al. (2020). The effective area of one electrolyzer cell is assumed to be 2.7 m<sup>2</sup>, which is the size of the typical chlor-alkali electrolyzer cell [19]. The syngas storage is capable of supplying syngas to a downstream for maximum of six hours ( $C_{\text{Syn}}$ ). The time step size is an hour.

The design of the electrochemical reactor (f) in Vennekötter et al. (2019) is adapted to the electrolyzers considered in this case study. It is a proton exchange membrane (PEM) reactor with zero-gap configuration at the anode and a silver gas diffusion electrode (GDE) at the cathode. Brée et al. (2020) developed a dynamic model, which was validated to the experimental data of the aforementioned reactor setup. Using the developed model, we generate the Faraday efficiency and cell potential at different current density as plotted in Figure 2-(a) and (c).

The original dynamic model for calculation of Faraday efficiency and cell potential are highly nonlinear, so they are not suitable to the scheduling model.

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Fig. 2: Faraday efficiency (a) and cell potential (c) of the  $\text{CO}_2$ -electrolyzer; and the underlying and surrogate functions of  $f^{\text{FE}}$  (b) and  $f^{\text{U-j}}$  (d). The simulation results and underlying functions are taken from Brée et al. (2020). The errors of the surrogate functions are below 1%.

We derive the cubic polynomial functions  $f_{s,c,t}^{\text{FE}}$  and  $f_{s,t}^{\text{U-j}}$  as the surrogate functions of  $\text{FE}_{s,c,t} j_{s,t}$  (effective current density) in (1) and  $U_{s,t} j_{s,t}$  (power density) in (6) as follows:

$$f_{s,c,t}^{\text{FE}} = \text{FE}_{s,c,t} \, j_{s,t} = \alpha_{\text{FE},c} \, j_{s,t}^3 + \beta_{\text{FE},c} \, j_{s,t}^2 + \gamma_{\text{FE},c} \, j_{s,t} + \delta_{\text{FE},c},$$
$$\forall s \in S, c \in \{\text{H}_2, \text{CO}\}, t \in T, \quad (12)$$

$$f_{s,t}^{\text{U-j}} = U_{s,t} j_{s,t} = \alpha_P j_{s,t}^2 + \beta_P j_{s,t} + \gamma_P, \quad \forall s \in S, t \in T,$$
(13)

where  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ , and  $\delta$  are the coefficients of the surrogate functions. The underlying and surrogate functions are plotted in Figure 2-(b) and -(d). Note that, in Vennekötter et al. (2019), the current density is measured up to 100 mA/cm<sup>2</sup>. In this study, we extrapolate the Faraday efficiency and cell potential at the current density of 100 to 150 mA/cm<sup>2</sup> with the rigours dynamic model of Brée et al. (2020).

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Regarding the removal of bulk  $\text{CO}_2$  from syngas, several technical candidates are available, such as chemical absorption, adsorption and membrane gas separation. These options differ in energy demand, operating and capital expenses, and dynamic responses. In this study, we assume that the unreacted  $\text{CO}_2$  is separated via an arbitrary separation technology. As mentioned in Section 3, we exclude the energy demand for  $\text{CO}_2$  separation because it is much smaller than the energy demand for electrolysis. For example,  $\text{CO}_2$  is assumed to be separated by pressure swing adsorption (PSA) that demands approximately  $1.75 \text{ GJ}_{\text{elec}}/t_{\text{CO}_2}$  [5]. This amounts to only 11.5% of the power demand of  $\text{co}_2$ electrolysis at the nominal current density (assuming 30 % of  $\text{CO}_2$  per-pass conversion). Note that the energy demand of PSA given in Bui et al. (2018) is required for capturing  $\text{CO}_2$  from flue gases, of which the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration is below 20 mol.%. As the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration of the cathode effluent of the  $\text{CO}_2$ electrolyzer stack would be much higher (up to 50 mol.%), the specific energy demand for the  $\text{CO}_2$  separation would be even lower (see Hasan et al. 2014).

Dynamic responses of electrochemical reactions are generally fast, e.g., water electrolysis [6], so the CO<sub>2</sub> separation unit is likely to limit the ramping speed of the sub-processes ( $T_{\text{Ramp}}$ ). Possible technologies for CO<sub>2</sub> separation would differ in the ramping speed. For instance, membrane gas separation and PSA allow fast ramping [11, 23] while chemical absorption [15] takes longer time to change the operation level. In order to investigate how much the maximal ramping speed affects the optimal operation as well as the cost savings, we assume different values of  $T_{\text{Ramp}}$  (one to three hours).

An hourly electricity spot price profile (Figure 3) for three days is taken from the German EPEX SPOT market, recorded end of May in 2018 [1].

Our optimization problem is a nonlinear program due to the nonlinear surrogate functions  $f_{s,c,t}^{\text{FE}}$  and  $f_{s,t}^{\text{U-j}}$ . Nonlinear scheduling problems are rarely solved because they are computationally challenging to obtain global solutions. To tackle this challenge, linear approximation is usually applied to reformulate the problem into mixed-integer linear programs, e.g., Zhang et al. (2016), however,

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such an approximation could generate inaccurate results. Instead, we apply the wavelet-based grid adaptation algorithm [21]. We can find near-optimal solutions of (nonlinear) scheduling problems in a tractable time by using a few optimization variables only. Moreover, this algorithm always creates feasible schedule as the correct nonlinear models can be used. Herein, the current density  $j_{s,t}$  are the optimization variables. The entire horizon (144 h) comprises two time intervals (128 and 16 steps) concatenated. As a result, the number of degrees of freedom is greatly reduced compared to 574 (144 × 4) in the original problem. The mathematical models are implemented in our in-house open-source software for deterministic global optimization MAiNGO [3] based on McCormik relaxation [16, 17].

The simulation results are illustrated in Figure 3. The results show that the optimal current density of each stack is adjusted to the time-variable electricity prices while at anytime meeting the  $H_2/CO$  ratio of the mixed syngas stream entering the syngas storage. Because of the symmetry-breaking constraints (9) imposed, Stack 1 and Stack 4 always operate at the highest and lowest current densities, respectively. Interestingly, more than two stacks occasionally follow the same trajectory, e.g., Stack 2 and 3 in the case of 2 hr of the maximal ramping duration. This kind of optimal trajectories would facilitate the process control in practice. During the period of low electricity prices, some stacks are operated at relatively high current density, which results in not only the higher syngas production rate but also the higher  $H_2/CO$  ratio than the nominal levels (see Figure 2-(a)). Other stacks, however, run at below the nominal current density due to the syngas ratio constraint (11).

As shown in Figure 3, the shorter the maximal ramping duration, the more dynamical the operation of the sub-processes. As a result, more dynamic operation ends up with higher savings in the cumulative electricity cost compared to the steady operation at the nominal current density. It indicates that employing a  $CO_2$  separation unit that allows fast changes in the operation level will considerably improve the overall economics of the modular  $eCO_2R$  system

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by DSM.

## 5 Conclusion

We proposed the modularization of an electrochemical  $\rm CO_2$  reduction process for the purpose of reducing the electricity costs by demand side management. The modularization is an effective operation strategy to meet a certain product quality while properly shifting the power demand of individual sub-processes. We formulated a nonlinear scheduling problem to minimize the cumulative electricity costs of an electrochemical system while optimizing the operation of each sub-process. The case study demonstrated our operation idea on co-electrolysis of CO<sub>2</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>O for the production of syngas. The entire system is made of four sub-processes, each of which produces syngas and separates unreacted  $CO_2$  independently. We used the wavelet-based grid adaptation algorithm to obtain near-optimal solutions in a reasonable computation time. The simulation results suggest that the flexible operation of the modular process can reduce the electricity costs while maintaining the syngas ratio. Moreover, the maximum ramping speed of the sub-process, which is likely to be determined by the  $CO_2$ separation unit, is found to be a key factor that has a considerable impact on cost savings.

For future research, we should investigate the influences of other parameters, e.g., the degree of modularization (i.e., the number of sub-processes) and the strength of electricity price fluctuation, on cost savings. Also, additional capital costs required for employing flexible operation and modular configuration should be analyzed. Particularly, installing a fewer number of large  $CO_2$  separation units is worth investigating because of benefits from economies-of-scale.

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Fig. 3: Profiles of the current density of the four stacks in the  $eCO_2R$  process and their expected electricity cost savings for different maximal ramping duration. The power load of the reference case (N = 1) running at the nominal level is fixed in time.

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