



Towards sustainable hydrogen production: Integrating electrified and convective steam reformer with carbon capture and storage

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ABSTRACT

This work reports the design of a process for hydrogen production based on electrified steam methane reforming (e-SMR) coupled with a convective reforming (convective SMR) and carbon capture and storage (CCS) as an alternative to conventional fuel-fired reforming to reduce natural gas (NG) consumption as well as carbon dioxide emissions. The energy required by the reforming reaction is supplied by direct electric heating instead of burning fossil fuel in the radiant section of a furnace, saving 35 % NG and reducing CO₂ emission by 29 %. Implementing convective SMR reduces the electric load of the main e-SMR reactor and ensures a slightly higher thermal efficiency (80.2 %) compared to conventional fuel-fired reforming (78.9 %). Further CO₂ emissions (85 %) and NG consumption reduction (50 %) are possible by adopting amine-based CO₂ capture. If coupled with an energy integration scheme, it is possible to capture 75 % of the CO₂ produced, preserving high energy efficiency (79.4 %). This requires only a 14 % increase in capital costs, which is strongly beneficial compared to applying CO₂ capture to flue gases of the fuel-fired reforming (69.8 % efficiency and 80 % more capital costs).

The process based on e-SMR coupled with convective SMR and CO₂ capture ensures a levelized cost of hydrogen (LCOH) of 0.281 € Nm⁻³ H₂, which is much lower than the conventional fuel-fired reforming with CO₂ capture applied to flue gases (0.309 € Nm⁻³ H₂). Moreover, it has comparable CO₂ emissions (1.59 vs 0.99 kg CO₂ emitted kg⁻¹ H₂) but produces lower CO₂ (6.39 vs 9.88 CO₂ produced kg⁻¹ H₂) compared to fuel-fired reforming due to using renewable electricity as energy source for the SMR. Compared to conventional fuel-fired reforming, the same process provides similar LCOH (0.283 vs 0.282 € Nm⁻³ H₂) but with drastically lower CO₂ emissions (1.59 vs 8.99 kg CO₂ emitted kg⁻¹ H₂).

1. Introduction

With more than 95 Mt produced in 2022, hydrogen is a critical raw material for many energy-intensive industries [1]. The demand for hydrogen will be ever-growing since it also plays a crucial role in decarbonizing industrial processes, space heating (industrial, commercial, building and residential heating), fuel cell applications, and transportation [2–7]. Globally, 90 % of the hydrogen produced is consumed in ammonia and methanol synthesis, GTL processes and oil refining. Ammonia alone uses 50 % of the global hydrogen production.

Other major users include metal, glass, electronics, food and other chemical and petrochemical industries [8].

Currently, the major share of H₂ production relies on fossil fuel feedstock, such as natural gas, light and heavy hydrocarbons from refineries and coal. As a byproduct, producing H₂ from fossil fuels emits large quantities of CO₂, aggravating greenhouse gas (GHG) concentrations. The most applied technologies for H₂ production are steam methane reforming (SMR), which is the most used, autothermal reforming (ATR), partial oxidation (POX) and coal gasification [9–12].

Grey H₂ production refers to producing H₂ from fossil fuels without carbon capture. It is estimated that around 200 billion Nm³ of natural

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Nomenclature

Electrified steam methane reforming	e-SMR	NG-steam superheating	NG-steam SPH
steam methane reforming	SMR	Air preheater	APH
Natural gas	NG	Steam to carbon ratio	S/C
Water gas shift	WGS	(NG) feed pre-heater	FPH
Convective steam methane reforming	Convective SMR	Low-pressure	LP
Carbon capture and storage	CCS	Electrolyte no random two liquids	ELECTNRTL
Levelized cost of hydrogen	LCOH	Piperazine	PZ
Greenhouse gases	GHG	Key performance indicators	KPI
Autothermal reforming	ATR	Percentage methene slip	CH ₄ slip, %
Partial oxidation	POX	Percentage of carbon monoxide slip	CO slip, %
Capital cost	CAPEX	High-temperature shift (reactor)	HTS
Start of run	SOR	Direct material	DM
Pressure swing adsorption	PSA	Direct material reference (cost equipment)	DM _{ref}
Operating cost	OPEX	Chemical engineering cost plant index	CEPCI
Monoethanolamine	MEA	Chemical engineering cost plant index reference (cost equipment)	CEPCI _{ref}
Activated methyl diethanolamine	a-MDEA	Scale factor	f
High-pressure steam	HPS	(Equipment) size	S
Hydrogen low heating value	LHV _{H₂}	(Equipment) reference size	S _{ref}
Electricity from turbine	el.turbine	Total plant cost	TPC
Duty electrically heated reformer	Q _{e-SMR}	Engineering, procurement and construction	EPC
Methane low heating value	LHV _{CH₄}	Total required cost	TRC
Specific carbon dioxide emission	CO _{2spec}	Total installed cost	TIC
High-pressure superheated steam	HPSS	Cooling water	CW
Minimum energy requirement	MER	Process flow diagram	PFD
Energy relaxation	REL	Low-pressure (steam)	LP
Waste heat boiler	WHB	Hydrodesulfurization	HDS
Water economizer	ECO	Start of run	SOR
Low-temperature shift (reactor)	LTS	Two phase separator	TPS
Steam superheater	Steam SPH	Gas heated reformer	GHR

gas (NG) is consumed each year for H₂ production only for fossil fuel combustion in the firebox of the furnaces, resulting in approximately 1 % of global CO₂ emissions. Therefore, as per the European Commission plan, it is crucial to take actions on H₂ production to reduce global CO₂ emissions.

For example, recent literature [6,13] emphasizes the convergence of hydrogen energy systems (HES) with renewable energy sources (RES), which is crucial for advancing sustainable energy solutions, while reducing greenhouse gas emissions and enhancing energy [7,14]. Additionally, the integration of low-carbon technologies into sustainable energy systems is becoming increasingly important to meet growing energy demands and address environmental concerns. Moreover, the role of customer satisfaction in the adoption of energy innovations, such as electricity-based technologies and renewable solutions, has been highlighted as a key factor in the successful transition to greener energy markets with reduced carbon dioxide emissions [15].

In this framework, there are several ways to decrease the amount of carbon dioxide released into the atmosphere and lower energy requirements. One option is to use an alternate method for producing hydrogen that does not depend on fossil fuels. This involves utilizing renewable energy sources like biogas reforming and water electrolysis to generate what is known as “green hydrogen” [16,17]. Green hydrogen has almost no carbon dioxide emissions.

Water electrolysis has the potential to serve as a crucial solution in a future sustainable energy system [18–20] and for scaling up hydrogen production as part of a carbon-neutral energy solution [5].

Compared to conventional fuel-fired reforming, it has a much higher external energy demand for electricity (50.0 vs –11.0 kWh kg⁻¹ H₂) [21,22]. Considering the energy present in the NG used in the conventional fired SMR both as feedstock for the burners, the energy consumption of electrolysis seems to be not much higher (50 vs 43 kWh

kg⁻¹ H₂). On the other hand, it is important to note that in electrolysis, all the energy is provided by electricity, which is roughly twice as expensive compared with NG in the current economic framework (80 vs 40 € MWh⁻¹) [21,23,24]. In addition, the capital expenditure (CAPEX) for electrolysis is 2–4 times higher than SMR, depending on whether CCS to flue gases is applied. Indeed, considering the DM (direct material) for a 100,000 Nm³ h⁻¹ H₂ plant with 25 y lifetime electrolysis has a cost of around 320 M€ compared to 84 and 159 M€ respectively, for a fired SMR plant without and with CCS by the flue gases [21,22].

Biogas reforming is being explored as a possible solution for expanding the hydrogen economy, especially in regions with limited access to solar and wind energy sources [25,26]. However, it cannot currently replace NG as the primary feedstock for producing H₂ in Europe.

An alternative to reducing CO₂ emissions in hydrogen production is directly improving the existing process, including steam methane reforming, by implementing carbon capture and storage [27–29]. This will allow for the creation of low-carbon hydrogen, which can decarbonize the current process in the short and medium term. CCS is essential for reducing CO₂ emissions [13] and can contribute up to 23 % of the reduction of process industry emissions [30]. Among the technologies for carbon dioxide capture, chemical absorption via ammine is the most industrially mature [31–35], although there have been several studies on the use of membranes [36–38]. The latter are also playing a critical role in the separation and purification of hydrogen, particularly in thermochemical processes and have demonstrated their ability to improve hydrogen production efficiency.

For 1 kg of H₂ produced in the conventional fuel-fired reforming process, about 9 kg of CO₂ are generated [39,40]. There are two main options for capturing CO₂ in this process:

- CO₂ capture from the shifted syngas before it enters the pressure swing adsorption unit (PSA) with a capture rate of approximately 99 % from the syngas stream. It captures around 60 % of the total produced CO₂ in the process.
- CO₂ capture from the SMR flue gases with a capture rate of about 90 % of the total CO₂.

Integrated carbon capture supports producing H₂ with low emissions. However, it increases capital (CAPEX) and operating (OPEX) costs. The CAPEX increases by approximately 16 % and 78 %, respectively, with the capture from syngas or the flue gases [21]. Also, the energy efficiency is reduced by about 5.7 % and 11.5 % when compared to grey fuel-fired SMR, respectively, with the capture from syngas or the flue gases [21]. It is evident how operating the carbon capture from the syngas is more convenient than the flue gas, even though only the CCS by flue gases can capture almost all CO₂ produced in a conventional fuel-fired SMR. The low cost of the syngas option relates to the higher partial pressure of CO₂ in the syngas stream and the absence of contaminants, such as S and O₂, in the syngas. The standard technology for capturing CO₂ from flue gases is based on monoethanolamine (MEA), which has a higher vapor pressure, is more prone to degradation, and is less effective than activated methyl diethanolamine (a-MDEA) [35,41]. a-MDEA is currently the state-of-the-art for capturing CO₂ from shifted syngas [42,43]. However, it requires a pressure of approximately 20 bara or higher and is unsuitable for carbon capture from flue gases [43–45].

In this framework, it is crucial to consider the cost of transporting and storing CO₂. To make NG reforming cost-competitive with fossil fuel-based H₂, these costs must be kept below 50 € t⁻¹, assuming the current level of emission price of around 85 € t⁻¹ [46].

In conventional fuel-fired SMR, only 50 % to 65 % of CO₂ is produced by the chemical conversion of CH₄ into H₂ and CO₂. The remaining 35 % to 50 % of CO₂ is produced by burning NG (or other fossil fuel feedstock) in the furnace to provide the necessary heat and achieve the high temperature required for the reforming reaction [47]. One possible solution to prevent the combustion of fossil fuels for generating heat is the direct electrification of the process [48–51]. The use of electrical energy is a crucial approach for reducing carbon emissions in industry [52]. This can lead to the reduction in the use of furnaces in running highly endothermic chemical processes [53–55]. The direct electrification of the reforming process (e-SMR), which involves resistive heating, is currently being studied intensively as it is a powerful solution to improve high-temperature thermochemical processes, including H₂ production. Both industry and academia are putting in a lot of effort to study this solution [48,56–59]. Moreover, the electrification of highly endothermic reactions may also be favored by reducing the cost of electricity, which is being pushed by the increasing share of renewables. The cost of electricity from renewables is expected to fall below 45 \$ MWh⁻¹ within 2030–2040 [60]. The flexibility of electrified steam methane reforming is also useful in adapting to the actual intermittent production of green electricity [61]. This solution has the potential not only to avoid or reduce the presence of furnaces and the associated CO₂ emissions related to combustion but also to allow all the CO₂ to be in a unique stream at elevated pressure and concentration. To achieve this, a new process scheme that involves an electrically heated reactor is required. However, one of the main problems related to integrating the e-SMR in an H₂ production plant is the utilization of PSA tail gases. PSA is the standard method for tail gas purification in modern hydrogen plants [62]. In conventional fuel-fired reforming, these gases are burned together with the fresh NG in the firebox. These gases are derived from the purification of H₂ from syngas and contain about 10–15 % of the H₂ produced in the plant, the unreacted CH₄ and CO [63]. Therefore, it is imperative to recover the energy present in this stream to increase energy efficiency and make the process economically competitive.

Some proposed solutions in the past only apply if CO₂ capture is present and large rotary equipment is required to utilize this stream. This is not in line with the latest trend in the chemical industry [64].

However, a good solution for fuels with low heating values is using a convective reformer to recover heat for syngas conversion, such as PSA tail-gases [47].

This work introduces the innovative design of electrified steam methane reforming (e-SMR) process coupled with a convective reformer for tail gas utilization integrated into an H₂ production plant. This process effectively reduces the amount of CO₂ emissions from combustion in conventional SMR processes while utilizing the tail gas from H₂ purification to decrease the energy required for operating the e-SMR. The excess energy produced by the process generates electricity via high-pressure steam used in the process. Given the potential for rising carbon emission taxes in the near future and to further reduce the specific CO₂ emissions related to H₂ production, a second scheme has been developed. This new system integrates an e-SMR with a convective SMR and a system for CO₂ capture by syngas. In this second scheme, all excess energy is used for CO₂ capture.

2. Material and methods

This work presents two different process configurations for H₂ production. The first configuration (A) integrates an e-SMR reactor with a convective SMR for the utilization of PSA tail gas. This configuration uses the extra heat for electricity production via high-pressure superheated steam (HPSS) and does not require fuel to provide the reaction heat. Natural gas (NG) is used only as a feedstock. This process is preferred in scenarios with no or low CO₂ taxation. Conventional fuel-fired reforming is used as a benchmark for comparison with this process.

The alternative configuration (B) incorporates CO₂ capture from the syngas, which helps to reduce CO₂ emissions from the process. The heat needed to regenerate the solvent used in the CO₂ capture is obtained from the extra heat generated in the first process through HPSS production and from the heat derived from the condensation of the syngas. The latter is not thermally integrated in configuration A for the latter exergy content, which is not exploitable for HP steam production. Configuration B is suitable in a context with high CO₂ taxation and low electricity prices. The process's performance is benchmarked on fuel-fired reforming with CO₂ capture by flue gases, producing blue hydrogen with similar CO₂ emissions.

Configuration A and B are simulated in Aspen Plus® V12. The H₂ productivity is set to 100 kNm³ h⁻¹. The Peng-Robinson equation of state, combined with the Boston-Mathias alpha function and the Steam Table (STEAM-TA) thermodynamic models were selected for accurately modeling both the gas phase and water-steam systems [65,66]. The R-Gibbs reactor and the REquil reactor were employed to simulate the reformer and the water–gas shift reactors, respectively, while a stoichiometric reactor was used for modeling the complete combustion reaction in the burner [67]. The accuracy of these models has been validated against data from multiple industrial applications, ensuring their reliability in representing the processes analyzed [31–33,47]. For simplicity, NG is considered to be made of 98 % CH₄ and 2 % N₂, reflecting the NG used in industrial chemical parks within Europe. The presence of N₂ in the composition of our simulated feedstock reflects the inert materials typically found in natural gas (NG) [68,69], which pose challenges by increasing the equipment size and requiring a purge stream to prevent their accumulation within the system. The process involves four reactors, i.e. the electrified reformer (e-SMR), the convective reformer, the water gas shift reactor (WGS) and a combustion reactor operated by a burner. Both reforming reactors are modelled as R-Gibbs reactors in Aspen Plus® with main reactions the following:



Fig. 1 provides the basic process diagram without heat integration, where the electrified reformer is coupled with a convective reformer.

Reforming reactions are endothermic with $\Delta H_{298\text{K}} = 206 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$,

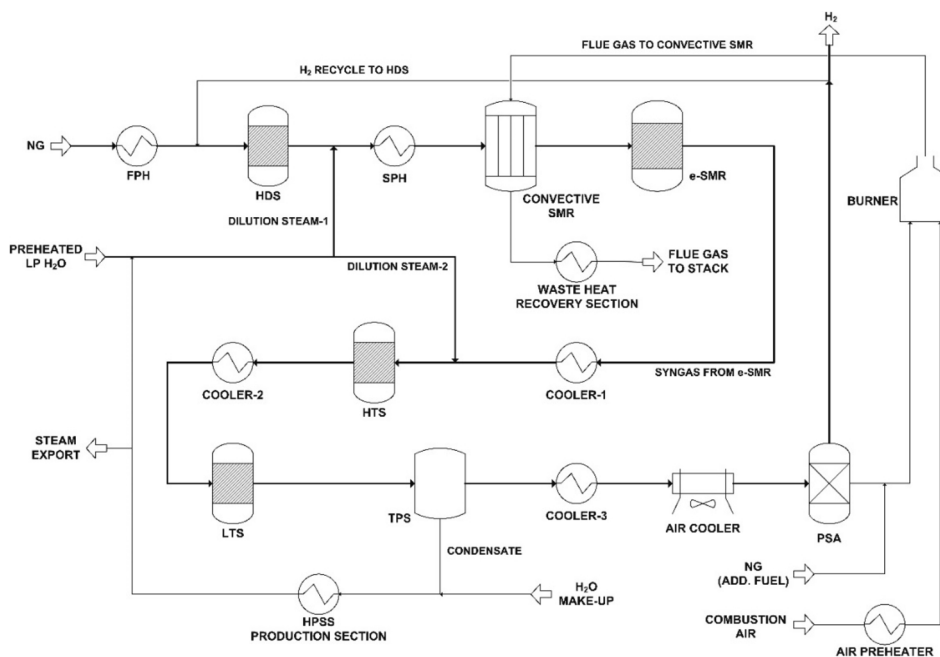


Fig. 1. E-smr coupled with convective smr. basic process flow diagram without energy integration. streams in bold represent the main material flow from natural gas (NG) to hydrogen (H_2).

while the WGS reaction is exothermic with $\Delta H_{298K} = -41 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ [70]. To simulate the WGS reactors, the R-equilibrium reactor model is used in Aspen Plus® with the indication of the reaction. On the other hand, the burner is simulated as R-Stoic in Aspen Plus®, in which combustion reactions are automatically generated [71].

2.1. Configuration A: electrified and convective reforming coupling

In configuration A, NG at 30 bar and 25 °C is heated to 370 °C to eliminate sulfur and olefins compounds in the purification section. This purification section is composed of two steps in which the first is based on a catalytic conversion over CoMo or NiMo of the sulfur components in hydrogen sulfide (HDS), while the second is operated with ZnO for removing H_2S [72,73].

The process produces high-pressure superheated steam (HPSS) at 40 bar and 400 °C, either exported for electricity production or used in the process (Fig. 1). To prepare HPSS for process use, it undergoes desuperheating with preheated water near the boiling point (200 °C, 30 bar) to attain saturation conditions at 30 bar.

The saturated steam is divided into two streams, one used as dilution steam, while the other is introduced before the WGS reactors to meet the minimum steam-to-dry ratio criteria required by the catalyst, which should be higher than 0.45 to prevent over-reduction [74,75].

The NG-steam mixture undergoes preheating until it reaches a temperature of 450 °C in the NG-mixture SPH (superheater). The mixture is then partially converted in the convective reforming, providing a syngas stream at 600 °C.

The reaction is sustained by the hot flue gases that enter at a temperature close to 1300 °C. These gases are gradually cooled down by counter-current heat transfer with the catalyst bed. The flue gas is gradually added from the bottom of the system. The resulting product gas is then cooled in a bayonet tube. Finally, the flue gas exits the reactor at a temperature of 600 °C. The operating temperature and the design of the reactor are determined based on the well-proven Topsøe HTER convective reformer [76–78].

The convective reformer is a well-established technology used by major industrial players such as Johnson Matthey and Technip FMC [79–81]. Previously, convective reforming was mostly applied to

capacity increase revamps, but nowadays, it is mainly used as a key enabler for efficient low-carbon H_2 and syngas production. It is primarily coupled with an SMR or an ATR to reduce the energy consumption and CO_2 emission of the process [82,83].

In the past [84], the convective reformer has been coupled with an electrically operated reactor, using hot syngas as a heat medium. This gives rise to the problem of metal dusting, which can lead to metal corrosion and reduce the reactors' lifetime, with operating issues arising after just a few weeks of operation [85]. Metal dusting occurs when hot syngas is present, up to 450 °C. The process shown in Fig. 1 prevents this problem since the heating fluid used is flue gas instead of syngas, in which CO and H_2 are absent.

The convective reformer, heated by the flue gas produced from burning the PSA tail gas, converts part of the NG (31 % mol.) and reduces the electricity consumption in the e-SMR.

The partially converted mixture then enters the e-SMR, where most CH_4 is converted. This reactor is electrically heated using electrical resistive heating wires in a structured ceramic catalyst close to the catalyst, according to SYPOX technology [86]. This reactor has a 95 % thermal efficiency and can reach temperatures up to 1200 °C [87]. The reactor works with commercially available Ni catalysts.

The leaving syngas mixture is cooled by indirect heating and adding saturated steam. The WGS is completed in two steps at 350 and 195 °C at SOR (start of run) to keep the CO slip below 1 %. Two steps are necessary instead of only one, currently used in H_2 production plants based on fired reforming, to reduce the CO that goes to the fired heater, which would otherwise oxidized to CO_2 . The WGS reactors use commercial Fe/Cr and Cu-based catalysts [75].

After the mixture is cooled to around 35 °C, the proper temperature for PSA operation, the condensate is separated, and the H_2 is purified in the PSA with a 90 % recovery efficiency, resulting in high-purity hydrogen [88]. The tail gases from the PSA process are burned to recover the heat in a fired heater. A standard value of 10 % excess air is used [89], and the air is preheated to 300 °C to increase the combustion temperature and the furnace's thermal efficiency. A small amount of NG is added to the burner to ensure a minimum of 10 % in CH_4 to preserve flame stability [33]. The resulting flue gas is first utilized in the convective reformer and then in a fired heater to meet the process's

preheating requirement. Any excess heat is used to produce export steam.

The performance of the process is affected by the operating conditions of the e-SMR. To account for this, a sensitivity analysis is conducted by varying the outlet temperature of the e-SMR from 900 to 1100 °C and the S/C ratio (steam to carbon ratio) from 2.5 to 3.5. The selected range is based on the conditions used in conventional fuel-fired reforming and the temperature range achievable by the SYPOX reformer [47,87]. In a fuel-fired reformer, the maximum temperature that can be attained is around 900 °C using the Terrace-Wall™ reformer [21].

The performance parameters that are monitored are the process thermal efficiency and the CO₂-specific emissions, which are defined respectively as:

$$CO_{2spec} = \frac{kgCO_2emitted}{kgH_2produced} \quad (3)$$

$$\eta = \frac{H_2 \bullet LHV_{H_2} + HPSS \bullet \eta_{turbine}}{CH_4 \bullet LHV_{CH_4} + Q_{e-SMR}} \quad (4)$$

In (3), it is assumed that the HPSS at 395 °C and 40 bar is utilized for internal electricity production through a condensing turbine. The turbine has an energy efficiency ($\eta_{turbine}$) of approximately 29 % in converting heat to electricity, generating 0.9 MW per kg of steam [21]. In equation (3), the carbon dioxide associated with the carbon intensity of the electricity required for the e-SMR is not considered. Indeed, it is considered to use an energy mix based on renewable electricity with near-zero carbon intensity. Moreover, in the current framework, the carbon tax is imposed only on the direct CO₂ emission by the process and not on the carbon intensity associated with the electricity from the grid.

An energy analysis is conducted to minimize excess heat and utilize it for steam production, maximizing energy efficiency as per equation (4). A temperature approach of 25 °C is used for the pinch analysis, which is an appropriate value even when gas streams are involved [90]. This is the standard method for energy integration in hydrogen plant [47,91].

Figs. 2 and 3 provide the results of the analysis. The reactor is operated at 1000 °C and S/C = 3. These conditions ensure slightly lower energy efficiency (about 80.5 %) than the maximum achievable (81.1 %). However, the conversion is lower than that attainable by the SYPOX e-SMR reactor of 1200 °C [87]. At the same time, the selected S/C determines a CO₂ production near the minimum achievable (6.42 vs 6.21 kg CO₂ kg⁻¹ H₂). The resulting trade-off minimizes the operating costs of energy (electricity and NG consumption) and CO₂ production as byproducts (taxation and cost of transport and storage).

Integrating the PSA tail gas in a convective reformer for the selected

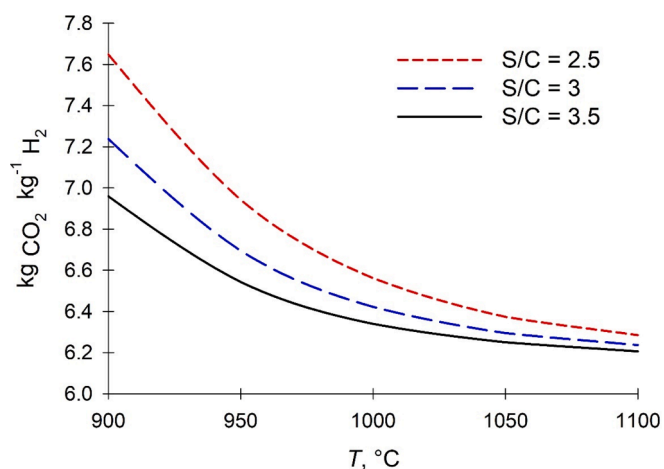


Fig. 2. Specific CO₂ emission (equation (3)) of the e-SMR coupled with a convective SMR at different e-SMR outlet temperatures and inlet S/C to the convective SMR.

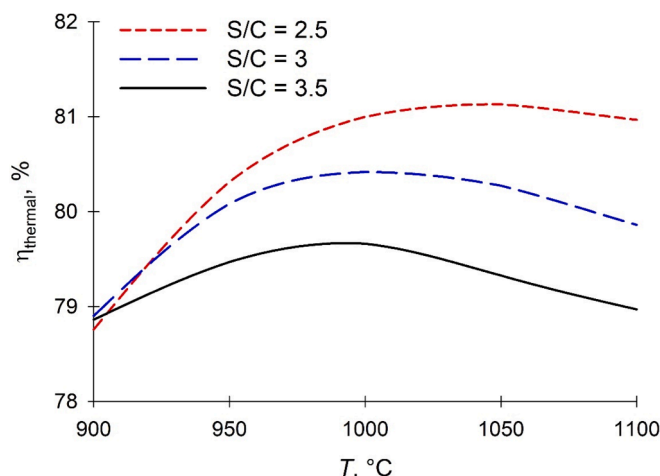


Fig. 3. Thermal efficiency (equation (4)) of the e-SMR coupled with a convective SMR at different e-SMR outlet temperatures and inlet S/C to the convective SMR.

condition results in a required duty of about 29 % less in the e-SMR compared with the case that only e-SMR is used for the feed conversion. The duty of the e-SMR is further reduced by about 33 %, considering that electricity produced by the condensing turbine using HPSS steam is used to power the e-SMR. This helps to significantly reduce the cost associated with electricity consumption in the electrified reactor.

Fig. 4 provides the process diagram of Configuration A, coupling the electrified and convective SMR for H₂ production and producing electricity via HPSS. The scheme results from the thermal integration following process conditions selected for the e-SMR, using minimum energy requirements (MER) and energy relaxation (REL).

According to the thermal integration scheme, after passing through two reformers, the syngas is cooled down in a waste heat boiler (WHB) from 1000 to 320 °C, producing HP steam in a fixed-head shell-and-tube heat exchanger, where the syngas flows through the tubes, and boiling water in the shell [92].

The cooled syngas is fed to the first shift reactor, and 79 % of the CO is converted to H₂ and CO₂. The resulting stream is partially cooled in the feed pre-heater (FPH) by the NG and used to superheat the HPS steam produced in the waste heat boiler (WHB). The steam-water mixture that leaves the risers of the WHB is effectively separated in the steam drum (not shown in Fig. 4) by cyclones and demisters before feeding the steam superheater (SPH). The export steam is then expanded in a condensing turbine (not shown in Fig. 4) for electricity production.

The syngas is further cooled in two economizers (ECO-II and ECO-I), which bring the water to boiling temperature before entering the WHB, exchanging almost only latent heat. The LTS reactor is located between the two economizers. The syngas is then cooled in APH-I, preheating the combustion air and then in an external air cooler (AIR COOLER). The mixture enters at 35 °C in the two-phase separator (TPS) equipped with a wire-mesh mist eliminator where the process condensate is effectively removed [93,94]. The make-up water (S-35) is added to the condensate from the syngas and restarts the water cycle.

The flue gases are cooled down in the convective SMR before they are used for NG-steam superheating (NG-steam SPH), in a second stage of air preheating (APH-II), and for heating the water in the low-pressure (LP) economizer. The flue gas exits at around 150 °C and is then sent to the stack. The water enters the LP economizer at 35 °C, allowing the required temperature difference of approximately 70 °C between the flue gases and the inlet to the fired heater [95]. The water close to the boiling point is sent to a desuperheater to take a part of the HPSS to saturation. This step is achieved in a spray or a venturi type [96]. The water that enters ECO-LP is derived from the desuperheater return from the backpressure turbine.

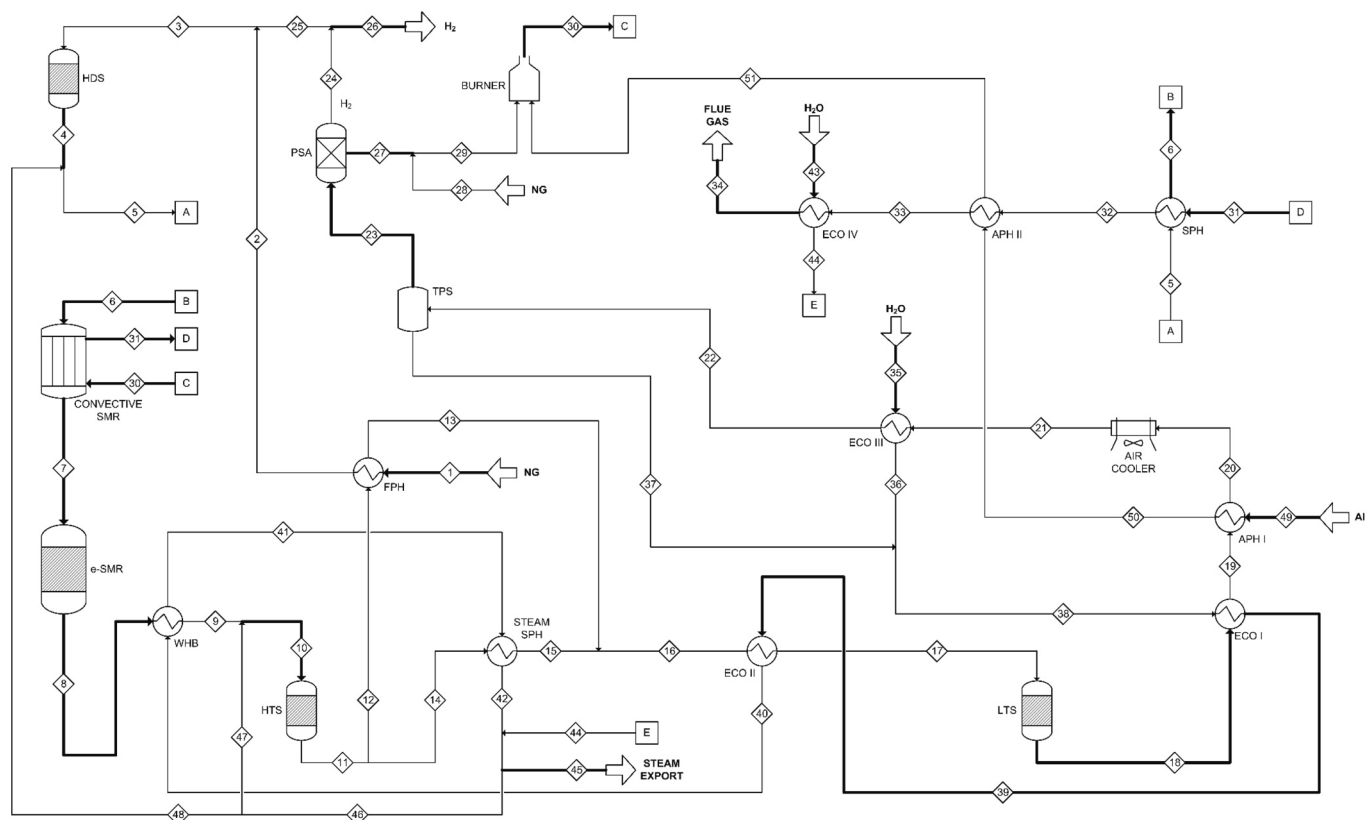


Fig. 4. Process flow diagram of electrified and convective reforming coupling (Configuration A). The streams in bold are listed in Table 3, while the others can be found in the Supplementary Material.

2.2. Configuration B: electrified and convective reforming coupling with CO₂ capture by shifted syngas

Configuration A allows for a reduction of around 40 % in CO₂ emissions compared to a conventional fuel-fired reforming applied to an H₂ production plant. It avoids fuel combustion to provide heat for the endothermic reaction. Such a process offers an advantage over traditional SMR without CO₂ capture and is suitable in the context of a low carbon tax.

To further decrease CO₂ emissions, it is necessary to approach emissions resulting from the syngas processing (Configuration B). The resulting implementation is suitable for a framework of high carbon tax and is competitive with the fuel-fired reformer with CO₂ capture by the flue gas. A single absorption step is used on the syngas before the PSA, followed by a stripping column to regenerate the solvent represented by standard activated MDEA (a-MDEA) [97].

Despite adding the CO₂ capture, the PSA is still required to purify H₂. Indeed, the capture process only removes the CO₂, while unreacted CH₄ and CO and inert N₂ remain in the mixture, which is unacceptable for H₂ use.

Adding capture avoids CO₂ emissions and reduces the PSA cost, which scales with the inlet molar flow rate (Table 1) [98].

Zeolites-based H₂ purification, CO₂ capture, and methanation can be used to avoid PSA; however, this scheme is not considered due to the high complexity of the process and the low purity of hydrogen achievable [8].

The CO₂ capture section is simulated in Aspen Plus® V12 using the ELECTNRTL (electrolyte non-random two-liquid) suitable for aqueous solutions with electrolytes [99,100]. The CO₂ absorption and stripping reactions used are retrieved from the Aspen Plus® documentation [101]. The model is validated using industrial data on a-MDEA solvent [102]. Metal Pall rings 35 mm with a surface area of 135 m² m⁻³ and 96 % void fraction are used as packing [103]. An aqueous solution of 3.325 mol l⁻¹ of MDEA and 0.175 mol l⁻¹ of piperazine (activator) is considered. The lean loading is kept at 0.008 mol CO₂ mol⁻¹ amine, below the maximum limit of 0.01 mol CO₂ mol⁻¹ amine, to avoid corrosion [104]. The solution is fed at a temperature of 40–50 °C to obtain purified syngas at around 45 °C [21], avoiding an additional heat exchanger to pre-cool the syngas before the PSA. A rate-based model procedure is considered in Aspen Plus® V12 for validating the model and designing the CO₂

Table 1
Parameters used to calculate costs related to the plant components.

Equipment	Scaling parameter	Reference capacity	Reference cost (M€)	Scale factor	Reference year
Sulphur adsorber	Thermal input of the plant (MW)	413	0.66 [113]	0.67	2011
ATR + GHR	Thermal input of the plant (MW)	1537	106.5 [114]	1537	2000
ATR	Thermal input of the plant (MW)	400	47.8 [115]	0.7	2001
e-SMR	Reactor Power (MW)	6	1.5	–	2024
WGS section (HTS + LTS)	Thermal input of the plant (MW)	815	3.7 [112]	815.2	2013
PSA	Molar inlet flowrate, (kmol h ⁻¹)	17,069	28 [112]	17,069	2007
Power island	H ₂ productivity (Nm ³ h ⁻¹)	100,000	18.8 [21,113]	0.67	2014
MDEA ammine section	CO ₂ capture (kg h ⁻¹)	47,400	9.6 [21,112]	0.8	2014
CO ₂ Compression section	CO ₂ compressed (kg h ⁻¹)	47,400	8.0 [21]	0.67	2014

capture section [105].

CO₂ capture affects both CAPEX and OPEX because of the heat required to regenerate the amine. In the proposed configuration, the CO₂ from the shifted syngas is maximized by using the excess heat from the process for the solvent's regeneration, thus avoiding external electricity demand. The regeneration of the rich solution requires about 2.6 to 2.85 MJ kg⁻¹ CO₂ [102,106]. In Configuration B, it is possible to capture 82 % of the CO₂ from the shifted syngas by using the heat derived from the High-Pressure Steam System (HPSS) and the heat derived from the condensation of the syngas. This corresponds to approximately 75 % of the CO₂ produced in the plant. Indeed, 92.5 % of the CO₂ is produced before the capture section, while the remaining 7.5 % is due to burning the PSA tail gas and the slipstream of NG. The slipstream of NG is essential to maintain the flame stability in the burner flame.

Fig. 5 provides the process diagram of Configuration B, where the electrified and convective SMRs are coupled, and the CO₂ is captured in a dedicated section.

According to Fig. 5, the syngas from the two-phase separator is sent to a packed column, where it is treated with a lean amine solution in a counter-current process. The process takes place at a pressure of 26 bara. The solution is then flashed to 7 bara to recover the H₂ captured due to physical absorption. This impure H₂ is then sent to the burner with the tail gas as fuel.

The rich solution is heated in a recuperative heat exchanger and then flashed to a pressure of about 2 bar [21]. This allows the stripper to use LP (low-pressure) steam to strip the CO₂ and reverse the reaction between the amine and the CO₂. The steam and CO₂ mixture are cooled in a condenser to recover the wet CO₂. The reflux is sent back to the stripper, which helps to wash the incoming gas mixture and avoid any loss of amine in the wet CO₂ stream.

The regenerated solution is cooled using an external air cooler before

entering the adsorber at the appropriate temperature. Two integrated reboilers provide the heat required for the regeneration of the amine. The specific energy required for the regeneration of the amine is about 61 kWh m⁻³, corresponding to 0.74 kWh kg⁻¹ CO₂ captured. The first reboiler is located after the LTS reactor and uses the heat derived from the condensation of the hot syngas. Since a phase change occurs on both sides of the reboiler, a high heat transfer coefficient is achieved, resulting in a low area required in the kettle reboiler. The second reboiler in the system follows the same rationale as the first. The HPSS previously used for electricity production is now desuperheated using hot water from the ECO-II to produce low-pressure steam (4.4 bar, 179 °C). The latent heat is then used to generate the second stream of boiling water that enters the bottom of the stripper. The use of saturated steam generated by desuperheating high-pressure superheated steam (HPSS) has been previously explored as a viable solution in carbon capture systems integrated within hydrogen production plants [31]. The first reboiler accounts for 63 % of the heat required for solvent regeneration, while the remaining 37 % is provided by the second reboiler.

The resulting condensate is collected at 140 °C and sent to the deaerator with the water make-up and condensate from the syngas. The water make-up and condensate are first heated in the condensate heat exchanger to bring them to a temperature 10–20 °C below the operating pressure of the deaerator (4.4 bar). The water is purified in the deaerator by removing CO₂ and O₂, which could otherwise build up in the system, damaging the water cycle equipment.

About 10 % of the LP steam produced in the desuperheater is sent to the deaerator. Here, a portion of this steam loses its thermal energy, allowing for an increase in the water temperature. As the temperature increases, the gas solubility in water decreases, and the uncondensed LP steam removes the gas. The steam vented to the atmosphere is 0.25 % of the water that exits the deaerator, allowing for good water degassing,

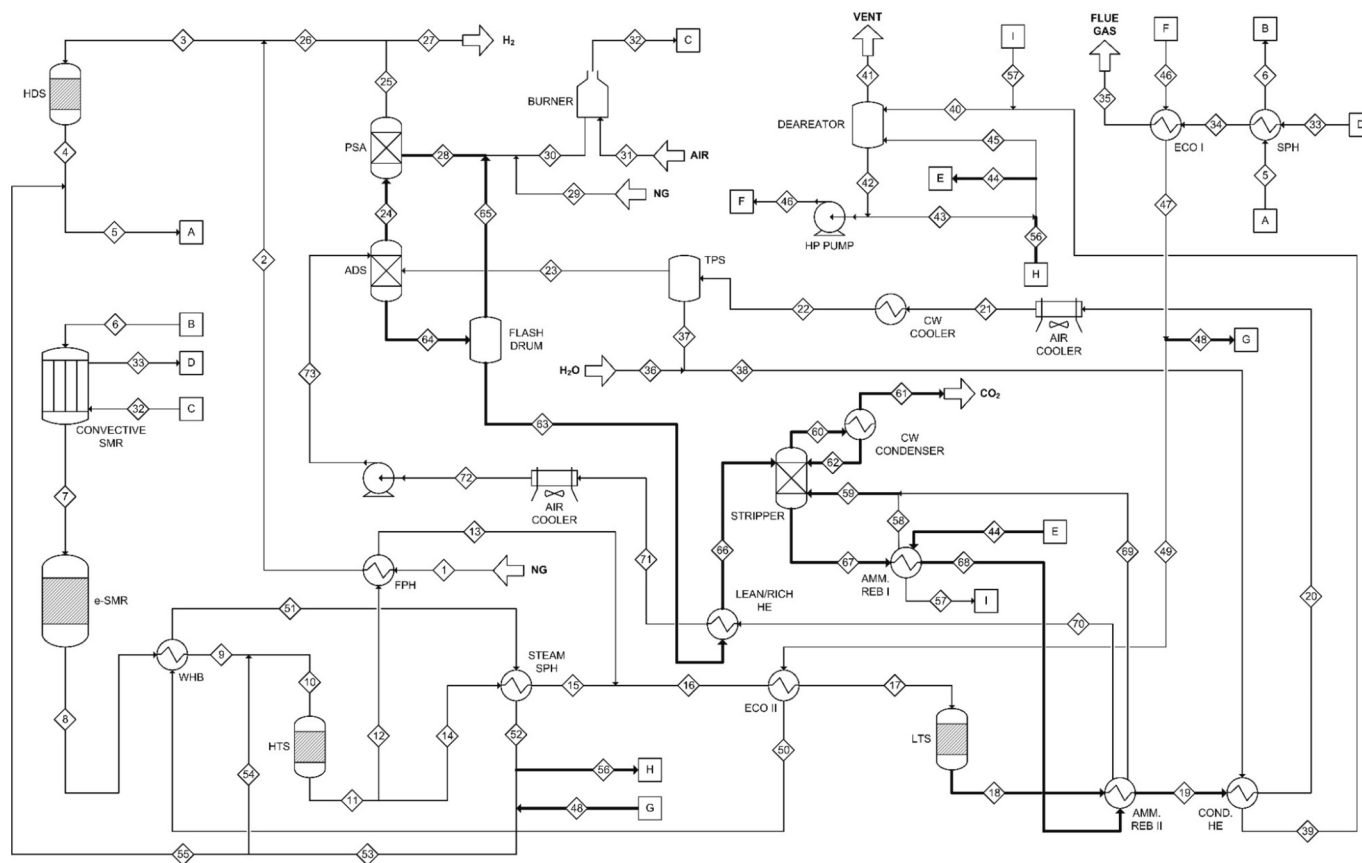


Fig. 5. Process flow diagram of electrified and convective reforming coupling with CO₂ capture by shifted syngas (Configuration B). The streams in bold are listed in Table 4, while the others can be found in the Supplementary Material.

regardless of whether a tray or packed type deaerator is used [107]. HPSS steam is produced in the process, with a portion used for amine regeneration, as stated above, and the other portion used to provide the saturated steam required. One part is dilution steam, while the other is quenching steam, as in configuration A.

The wet CO₂ is compressed to 80 bar using a seven-stage centrifugal compressor (not shown in Fig. 5). This pressure is slightly higher than the critical pressure of pure CO₂ to prevent any risk of two-phase flow due to the presence of non-condensable gases. The gas leaving the fifth compression stage is then fed into a dehydration unit that uses a molecular sieve/activated Al₂O₃ adsorbent dryer. The dryer is designed to produce CO₂ with a dew point temperature of -40 °C [21]. After compression, the CO₂ is pumped to a required pressure between 110 and 150 bar [21,108]. An inter-stage cooler is installed after each compression stage, and seawater is used as a cooling medium. The condensed water in the intercooler is separated from the gas in a knock-out drum.

2.3. Key performance indicators

The proposed alternatives will be compared using the following key performance indicators (KPIs):

- I. The percentage of dry CH₄ slip at the outlet of the reforming section (CH₄ % slip).
- II. The percentage of dry CO slip at the outlet of the water gas shift section (CO % slip).
- III. The specific energy consumption, which includes the energetic content of the feed to the process and external utilities (kWh kg⁻¹ H₂).
- IV. The specific CO₂ production associated with the actual H₂ production route (kg CO₂ kg⁻¹ H₂).
- V. The specific CO₂ emission associated with the actual H₂ production route (kg CO₂ emitted kg⁻¹ H₂).
- VI. The overall process thermal efficiency.

Data on conventional fuel-fired reforming w/o CO₂ capture by flue gases will be used as the base case for benchmarking process configurations A and B [21].

2.4. Economic assessment

The production cost of hydrogen is estimated by calculating the capital expenditure (CAPEX) and operational expenditure (OPEX), which is then used to determine the levelized cost of hydrogen (LCOH). This helps in comparing the economic feasibility of the proposed processes with conventional fuel-fired steam reforming without carbon capture from flue gases. Data for CAPEX and OPEX for fuel-fired reforming are based on the literature and the CAPEX is updated using the CEPCI (Chemical Engineering Cost Plant Index) index.

LCOH estimate is an AACE Class 4 estimate (accuracy range +35/-15%) [109] based on the 2021 price level in Euros (€) to avoid market price instability [110,111]. The method involves first calculating the total plant cost (TPC) based on the developed process flow diagram. From this, the fixed costs are determined, and the variable costs are assessed from the M&EB [21,32,112].

The TPC comprises direct materials, constructions, EPC service, other costs, and contingency. The direct material is defined based on the size of the different equipment and the available literature (Table 1).

A scaling parameter f is used for each piece of equipment to report the price to the current case, which is actualized based on the CEPCI according to equation (5):

$$DM = DM_{ref} \cdot \left(\frac{S}{S_{ref}}\right)^f \cdot \left(\frac{CEPCI_{2021}}{CEPCI_{ref}}\right) \quad (5)$$

where DM_{ref} and $CEPCI_{ref}$ are, respectively, the direct material cost and the CEPCI reference index. For the e-SMR reactor, internal information from SYPOX is used (1.5 M€ for a module of 6 MW). The cost of the convective reformer is estimated by subtracting the cost of an ATR from the cost of an ATR coupled with a GHR (gas-heated reformer). The heat exchangers are preliminarily sized with Aspen EDR®. The tail gas furnace, including the coil inside, are cost-estimated using Aspen Cost Estimator® based on the furnace thermal duty. The EPC (Engineering Procurement and Construction) service is obtained from the DM. The cost and contingency for the EPC service are a fraction of the previous cost, which varies according to the section of the process considered. The Total Requirement Cost (TRC) is estimated based on the following cost components: interest during construction (8 % of TPC), spare parts (0.5 % of TPC), working capital, start-up (2 % of TPC), and owner costs (7 % of TPC). The TRC is calculated based on the Total Plant Cost (TPC) and is estimated based on a plant lifetime of 25 years.

To calculate the Levelized Cost of Hydrogen (LCOH), variable and fixed operating costs are estimated. The variable costs include NG, electricity, raw water, CO₂ emission cost, CO₂ transport, and storage, based on data reported in Table 2.

The fixed costs include labour costs (60,000 € yr⁻¹ per operator), overhead charges (30 % of the labour costs for process operation and maintenance), maintenance (1.5 % of TPC) and other fixed costs (1 % of TPC). It is assumed that the plant required the same number of operators as a conventional fuel-fired steam reforming plant with the same H₂ productivity.

A sensitivity analysis on variable OPEX is performed according to the ranges reported in Table 2.

It is important to clarify that the operating costs shown in Fig. 2 are specific to the European context. To capture a broader range of scenarios, sensitivity analyses were performed on operating costs that may vary across different regions. These analyses enable the identification of the most cost-effective hydrogen production process under diverse conditions.

Furthermore, both Configurations A and B achieve substantial reductions in carbon dioxide emissions compared to conventional fired steam methane reforming (SMR) and further decrease natural gas consumption when compared to fired reforming with CCS by flue gases. This makes them effective in minimizing environmental impact.

The use of scenario-specific operating costs, combined with adjustments to reflect varying conditions, is a well-established industrial practice. This approach enables a comprehensive comparison of the profitability of innovative technologies versus traditional methods, providing a solid foundation for economic evaluation [21,32,33].

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Mass and energy balances

The mass balances for process configurations A (Fig. 4) and B (Fig. 5) are illustrated respectively in Tables 3 and 4. Only the main streams are reported for process configuration A, while for process configuration B, the streams related to CO₂ capture are included. The complete stream tables are reported in the Supplementary Material.

Table 2

Price of raw materials based on European market and utilities and range for the sensitivity analysis.

Chemical	Base case price	Sensitivity range	Reference
Feedstock and fuel (NG)	45 € MWh ⁻¹	20 ÷ 60	[24]
Raw water	2 € t ⁻¹	–	[21]
Electricity price	80 € MWh ⁻¹	40 ÷ 120	[23,31–33]
CO ₂ emission tax	85 € t ⁻¹	60 ÷ 120	[46]
CO ₂ transportation/storage	40 € t ⁻¹	20 ÷ 60	[46]

Table 3
Configuration A (electrified and convective reforming coupling): mass balance.

Process stream	S-1	S-4	S-6	S-7	S-8	S-10	S-18	S-23	S-26
Temperature (°C)	25	366	450	600	1000	315	220	145	143
Pressure (bar)	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30
Mole Flow (kmol h ⁻¹)	1336.0	1366.0	5374.0	6178.2	7903.4	8653.4	8653.4	8653.4	8653.4
Mass Flow (kg h ⁻¹)	21,753	21,813	94,019	94,013	94,013	107,524	107,524	107,524	107,524
Composition (mol/mol)									
H ₂ O	0	0	0.7458	0.5306	0.3052	0.3654	0.2596	0.2596	0.2596
CO	0	0	0	0.0121	0.1182	0.1080	0.0022	0.0022	0.0022
CO ₂	0	0	0	0.0530	0.0418	0.0382	0.1440	0.1440	0.1440
CH ₄	0.9800	0.9585	0.2436	0.1468	0.0056	0.0051	0.0051	0.0051	0.0051
H ₂	0	0.0219	0.0056	0.2532	0.5258	0.4802	0.5860	0.5860	0.5860
O ₂	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
N ₂	0.0200	0.0196	0.0050	0.0043	0.0034	0.0031	0.0031	0.0031	0.0031
	S-27	S-30	S-31	S-34	S-35	S-39	S-43	S-45	S-49
Temperature (°C)	35	25	600	325	221	154	15	36	25
Pressure (bar)	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	6	6	1.1
Mole Flow (kmol h ⁻¹)	1854.4	20.6	3862.0	3862.0	3862.0	3862.0	2497.9	2497.9	2250.0
Mass Flow (kg h ⁻¹)	58,048	335	123,296	123,296	123,296	123,296	45,000	45,000	64,913
Composition (mol/mol)									
H ₂ O	0.0062	0	0.1677	0.1677	0.1677	0.1677	1	1	0
CO	0.0102	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
CO ₂	0.6718	0	0.3442	0.3442	0.3442	0.3442	0	0	0
CH ₄	0.0239	0.9800	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
H ₂	0.2734	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
O ₂	0	0	0.0208	0.0208	0.0208	0.0208	0	0	0.2100
N ₂	0.0144	0.0200	0.4673	0.4673	0.4673	0.4673	0	0	0.7900

Table 4
Configuration B (electrified and convective reforming coupling and CO₂ capture by shifted syngas): mass balance.

Process stream	S-18	S-19	S-24	S-28	S-44	S-48	S-56	S-57	S-59
Temperature (°C)	220	140	49	49	175	180	148	140	123
Pressure (bar)	30	30	26	26	4.4	30	30	4.4	2
Mole Flow (kmol h ⁻¹)	8653.4	8703.2	5365.8	4538.2	1044.5	638.3	5874.7	1044.5	1037.7
Mass Flow (kg h ⁻¹)	107,524	108,882	22,261	9149	18,818	11,500	105,835	18,818	18,898
Composition (mol/mol)									
H ₂ O	0.2596	0.2665	0.0019	0	1	1	1	1	0.9947
CO	0.0022	0.0016	0.0025	0	0	0	0	0	0
CO ₂	0.1440	0.1438	0.0427	0	0	0	0	0	0.0043
CH ₄	0.0051	0.0050	0.0082	0	0	0	0	0	0
H ₂	0.5860	0.5800	0.9397	1	0	0	0	0	0
O ₂	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
N ₂	0.0031	0.0031	0.0050	0	0	0	0	0	0
MDEA	0.2596	0.2665	0.0019	0	1	0	0	0	0.0005
PZ	0.0022	0.0016	0.0025	0	0	0	0	0	0.0005
	S-60	S-61	S-62	S-63	S-64	S-65	S-66	S-67	S-68
Temperature (°C)	110	45	45	79	80	79	115	123	123
Pressure (bar)	2.00	2.00	2.00	7.00	26.00	7.00	7.00	2.00	2.00
Mole Flow (kmol h ⁻¹)	3005.7	1057.9	1946.8	20022.0	20010.0	29.1	20022.0	22828.7	21795.4
Mass Flow (kg h ⁻¹)	80,465	45,213	35,253	592,921	594,031	1059	592,921	600,803	581,904
Composition (mol/mol)									
H ₂ O	0.6639	0.0483	0.9982	0.8611	0.8599	0.0015	0.8611	0.9160	0.9122
CO	0	0	0	0	0	0.0004	0	0	0
CO ₂	0.3356	0.9513	0.0013	0.0488	0.0499	0.8166	0.0488	0.0012	0.0011
CH ₄	0	0	0	0	0	0.0012	0	0	0
H ₂	0.0001	0.0003	0	0	0.0003	0.1797	0	0	0
O ₂	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
N ₂	0	0	0	0	0	0.0006	0	0	0
MDEA	0.0002	0	0.0004	0.0855	0.0854	0	0.0855	0.0786	0.0823
PZ	0.0001	0	0.0002	0.0045	0.0045	0	0.0045	0.0042	0.0044

In configuration A (electrified and convective reforming coupling), 21,753 kg h⁻¹ of NG is used as feedstock, 335 kg/h is consumed as fuel, and 45,000 kg/h of raw water are used to produce 9140 kg/h of pure H₂ and 58490 kg/h of HPSS (385 °C, 40 bar). 58490 kg/h of CO₂ are

emitted with the flue gases.

The process configuration B (e-SMR with CO₂ capture from shifted syngas), uses 21,753 kg h⁻¹ of NG as feedstock and 335 kg h⁻¹ as fuel. It also requires 45,600 kg h⁻¹ of raw water to produce 9155 kg h⁻¹ of pure

H₂. Due to the process, 13865 kg h⁻¹ of CO₂ are emitted in the flue gases.

Table 5 presents the energy balance of Configuration A and B. The reference volume corresponds to the overall process. Only equipment that uses external energy sources is included in the energy balance. Most heat exchangers are heat-integrated, so they are irrelevant to the total energy balance. The convective reformer is also irrelevant to the total energy balance, but the electricity savings it enables are provided.

3.2. Key performance indicators

Based on Section 2.3, the KPIs calculated for the process configurations proposed are compared to those of the benchmark process based on fuel-fired SMR processes (Table 6). The energy values for the fuels are determined based on the LHV.

Configuration A is ideally suited for scenarios with no or low carbon taxes. Despite the absence of carbon capture, this configuration still achieves approximately a 29 % reduction in carbon emissions compared to conventional fired reforming, largely due to the integration of electrified reforming. Additionally, it optimizes energy efficiency through convective reforming and enables the sale of surplus electricity to the grid.

The electrified configuration reduces CH₄ slip compared to the conventional fuel-fired reforming. This is primarily due to the higher temperature that can be achieved with an electrified Reformer (e-SMR), which can reach up to 1200 °C, as compared to the maximum temperature of 900 °C in the process side of the furnace of conventional fuel-fired reforming [21]. Furthermore, incorporating a second stage of WGS in the new process scheme reduces CO slip in the syngas to nearly zero. This reduction of CH₄ and CO slips is of great significance, as it reduces the need for NG as feedstock and maximizes the capture of CO₂. In fact, the unreacted CH₄ and CO contribute to CO₂ emissions. Moreover, the reduction in CH₄ and CO slip in the process configuration using electrified reforming is reflected in the energy required for feedstock, which is approximately 15 % lower than fired reforming. In terms of external energy supplied as NG to the burners, both process configurations using electrified reforming require only a minimal amount of NG, as it is only used to ensure the stability of the flame in the burner. Indeed, those latter rely on using renewable electricity as external energy. The electrified reforming process requires more external energy in the form of electricity, as the electrified reactor is taken to a higher outlet temperature than the fuel-fired reformer. However, in the developed scheme, the electricity required by the e-SMR is lower by

Table 5
Configurations A and B: energy balances.

Inlet streams	Configuration A e-SMR + convective SMR		Configuration B e-SMR + convective SMR + CO ₂ capture	
	Mass flow rate (t/h)	Power (MW)	Mass flow rate (t/h)	Power (MW)
NG to process	21.8	326.3	21.8	326.3
NG to burner	0.3	5.0	0.3	5.0
Outlet streams	Mass flow rate (t/h)	Power (MW)	Mass flow rate (t/h)	Power (MW)
H ₂ to B.L.	9.2	362.9	9.1	358.9
Flue gases	123.3	13.7	108.3	11.4
Export steam	20.6	18.3	0	0
Equipment	Power (MW)		Power (MW)	
e-SMR	85.2		87.8	
Convective SMR	34.8		31.0	
Raw H ₂ air cooler	-21.2		-7.9	
Lean air cooler	0		-19.1	
Stripper C.W. condenser	0		-25.3	
Raw H ₂ C.W. Cooler	0		-1.8	

about 33 % than a normal electrified reactor, owing to the presence of the convective reformer, which allows a 30 % CH₄ conversion at the e-SMR inlet. It should be considered, as a meter of comparison, that the use of a double-stage recuperative reforming in parallel with the primary (SMR) and secondary reformer in the syngas section of the ammonia plant can reduce from 15 to 30 % feed and fuel consumption as well as CO₂ emission [82].

The fired configuration with CO₂ capture requires 10 % additional NG to obtain the necessary steam for amine regeneration, reducing the electricity export to the grid. On the other hand, for the electrified configuration, the addition of CO₂ capture only utilizes the energetic content of the export steam without requiring additional NG or electricity. From the total energy input perspective, it is evident that both electrified configurations have similar energy consumption to conventional fuel-fired reforming for the same H₂ production. In comparison, fuel-fired reforming with flue gas CO₂ capture requires more energy, leading to a thermal efficiency that is about 10 % lower than the other processes.

Configuration B is tailored for scenarios where a carbon tax is applied, and transport and storage costs remain manageable, ensuring the competitiveness of blue hydrogen compared to grey hydrogen produced via fired SMR. Unlike Configuration A, no surplus electricity is exported to the grid, as the energy is fully utilized for carbon dioxide capture from the syngas stream. This allows for the capture of approximately 75 % of emissions of Configuration A without the need for additional external energy.

The incorporation of the CO₂ capture unit results in an increase in costs (see Table 7), but this increase is lower than in cases where flue gases are captured, due to the high pressure of the syngas stream.

The e-SMR configuration only generates CO₂ related to the process, requiring 40 % less CO₂ capture than the fired configuration. The electrified reforming configuration with CO₂ capture emits slightly more CO₂ than the corresponding fired one (1.59 vs 0.99 kg CO₂ emitted kg⁻¹ H₂). This is due to the amount of CO₂ capture possible with one amine scrubbing, exploiting only the excess energy of the process. Alternatively, a two-stage adsorption scheme or the use of external renewable electricity can allow for the capture of all CO₂. However, these solutions result in higher OPEX or CAPEX [34].

3.3. Levelized cost of hydrogen (LCOH)

Table 7 shows the total plant cost (TPC) and capital cost for process configurations, and Fig. 6 displays the contributions to the total plant cost.

The data presented in Table 7 shows that the fuel-fired SMR and e-SMR + convective SMR (Configuration A) have similar CAPEX, with a slightly lower CAPEX for the latter. The subdivision of the CAPEX in the different sections of the process is almost the same for both fuel-fired SMR and e-SMR + convective SMR (Fig. 6). However, when adding the CO₂ capture of flue gases to the fuel-fired SMR, the CAPEX increases by 80 %. It is important to note that CO₂ capture has the same impact on the CAPEX as the H₂ plant. Considering CO₂ capture and compression, the resulting CO₂ treatment impacts CAPEX more than the H₂ plant, accounting for 40 % of the total CAPEX.

In contrast, CO₂ capture from the shifted syngas only increases the CAPEX by about 13 %. The CO₂ treatment (capture and compression) also accounts for less than a quarter of the H₂ plant in the total cost. This is because the recovery system required for CO₂ capture from flue gases is complex and includes the purification of flue gases by sulphur compounds by use of the caustic solution, circulation of gases by use of a fan, double-stage adsorption, and regeneration of the degraded solution of MEA in the reclaiming [21,35]. On the other hand, CO₂ capture from syngas does not require a purification stage or reclaiming step. Moreover, it is possible to operate with only one stage of absorption, which reduces the needed column packing height. It is also worth noting that the capture of CO₂ from syngas occurs at a higher pressure, which

Table 6

Key performance indicators of the benchmark processes and the proposed configurations.

	Benchmark process [21]		Configuration A	Configuration B
	Fuel-fired reforming	Fuel-fired reforming with CO ₂ capture	e-SMR + convective SMR	e-SMR + convective SMR + CO ₂ capture
CH ₄ slip (%)	3.03	3.03	0.81	0.80
CO slip (%)	4.65	4.65	0.31	0.21
Energy in the feed (kWh kg ⁻¹ H ₂)	37.70	37.70	31.86	31.86
External energy (kWh kg ⁻¹ H ₂)	6.23 (NG fuel)	10.56 (NG fuel)	0.49 (NG fuel)	0.49 (NG fuel)
	-1.28 (electricity export)	-0.38 (electricity export)	9.34 (electricity e-SMR)	9.6 (electricity e-SMR)
			-0.56 (electricity export)	
Total energy inlet (kWh kg ⁻¹ H ₂)	42.65	47.88	41.13	41.95
kg CO ₂ produced kg ⁻¹ H ₂	8.99	9.88	6.39	6.39
kg CO ₂ emitted kg ⁻¹ H ₂	8.99	0.99	6.39	1.59
Thermal efficiency (%)	78.85	69.80	80.22	79.38

Table 7

Total plant cost of the benchmark processes and the proposed configurations (in M€).

	Benchmark process		Configuration A	Configuration B
	Fuel-fired reforming	Fuel-fired reforming with CO ₂ capture	e-SMR + convective SMR	e-SMR + convective SMR + CO ₂ capture
Direct material	83.79	158.90	80.98	90.86
Construction	60.14	101.62	58.88	68.08
Direct Field Cost	143.93	260.52	139.86	158.94
EPC Services	4.33	7.14	4.15	4.78
Other costs	26.06	45.04	25.97	29.29
Total Installed Cost (TIC)	174.32	312.70	169.98	193.01
Contingencies	34.86	62.54	34.00	38.60
Total Plant Cost (TPC)	209.19	375.24	203.98	231.61

increases the driving force and further reduces the required packing height. Furthermore, it minimizes the column diameter needed to avoid flooding phenomena, reducing the CAPEX. Finally, due to the presence of the e-SMR, 40 % less CO₂ must be captured by the syngas compared to the flue gas.

The CAPEX associated with the power island in Fig. 6 refers to the capital expenditures related to the equipment required for electricity generation from high-pressure superheated steam. This includes components such as the steam turbine and the electricity generator. The CAPEX associated with the power island is not present for configuration B developed since no export steam for electricity generation is present.

Table 8 provides the hourly consumption of feedstocks and utilities and derived operating costs per year.

The operating cost of the NG is about 30 % higher in the conventional fuel-fired reformer compared to the e-SMR + convective SMR process w/o CCS. The CO₂ tax has a crucial contribution to fuel-fired reformers and proposed configuration A. Implementing CCS helps reduce the operating cost since the CO₂ transport and storage price is less than half compared to the CO₂ carbon tax. Electricity cost impacts the proposed process configurations, which utilize electricity as an external power source for the reactions. This is even more impactful since electricity costs about double that of NG. In this framework, using a convective reformer coupled with electrification results in a 34 MW saving of electricity needed in the reformer, corresponding to around 22.8 M€ yr⁻¹.

Furthermore, in Fig. 7, the Levelized Cost of Hydrogen (LCOH) for the different process configurations is reported and factored for the different components.

Fig. 7 shows that the conventional fuel-fired reforming process remains the most cost-effective, with the lowest LCOH (28.2c€ Nm⁻³ H₂). However, the coupling of e-SMR and convective SMR with CO₂ capture is highly competitive (28.3c€ Nm⁻³ H₂) despite the relatively high electricity cost compared to the cost of NG.

On the other hand, Configuration A (e-SMR and convective SMR coupling) has a higher cost (29.1c€ Nm⁻³ H₂), primarily due to the taxation on CO₂ emissions.

Lastly, fuel-fired reforming with CO₂ carbon from the flue gases has the highest LCOH (30.9c€ Nm⁻³ H₂), mainly due to the high CAPEX, representing 20 % of the LCOH. The CAPEX is in the range of 11–12 % for the other processes. Additionally, this process produces a high amount of CO₂, about 9.88 kg CO kg⁻¹ H₂, which implies higher costs for transporting and storing CO₂ to produce blue H₂.

3.4. Sensitivity analysis on OPEX

The sensitivity analysis is applied to the operating costs on the ranges reported in Table 2, and results are reported in Figs. 8–11.

NG price significantly impacts all the processes analyzed, but those relying on fuel-fired reforming are more affected than those based on electrified reforming (Fig. 8). This is even true for the fuel-fired reforming with the CO₂ capture from the flue gas since additional NG (10 % higher than fired SMR without CCS) is fired in the furnace to produce the steam necessary for the ammine regeneration.

The e-SMR configuration without CO₂ capture (Configuration A) is less competitive than that with CO₂ capture for all the sensitivity ranges of NG, as both consume the same amount of NG. The process relying on Configuration B is more profitable than the fuel-fired reforming without and with CO₂ capture for NG prices higher than 26 and 46 € MWh⁻¹, respectively.

It emerges that the LCOH of the fired reformer with and without CO₂ capture decreases with increasing electricity prices, primarily because the processes export electricity to the grid. In particular, the LCOH of the fired reformer without CO₂ capture decreases steeply. On the other hand, the electrified configurations show an increase in LCOH with an increase in electricity prices. However, Configuration B has a slightly deeper increase because of the lower contribution of the convective reformer to the CH₄ conversion (Table 5).

Finally, the LCOH of Configuration B is lower than the fuel-fired reforming up to an electricity price of 78 (without CO₂ capture) and 108 € MWh⁻¹ (with CO₂ capture), respectively.

According to Fig. 10, only the configurations with CO₂ capture are influenced by the cost of transport and storage of CO₂. The fuel-fired process is more affected since the required CO₂ storage is about doubled. As a result, this process has the highest LCOH for all sensitivity ranges.

Configuration B becomes less profitable than the fuel-fired reforming without CCS at CO₂ transport and storage prices higher than 37 € t⁻¹

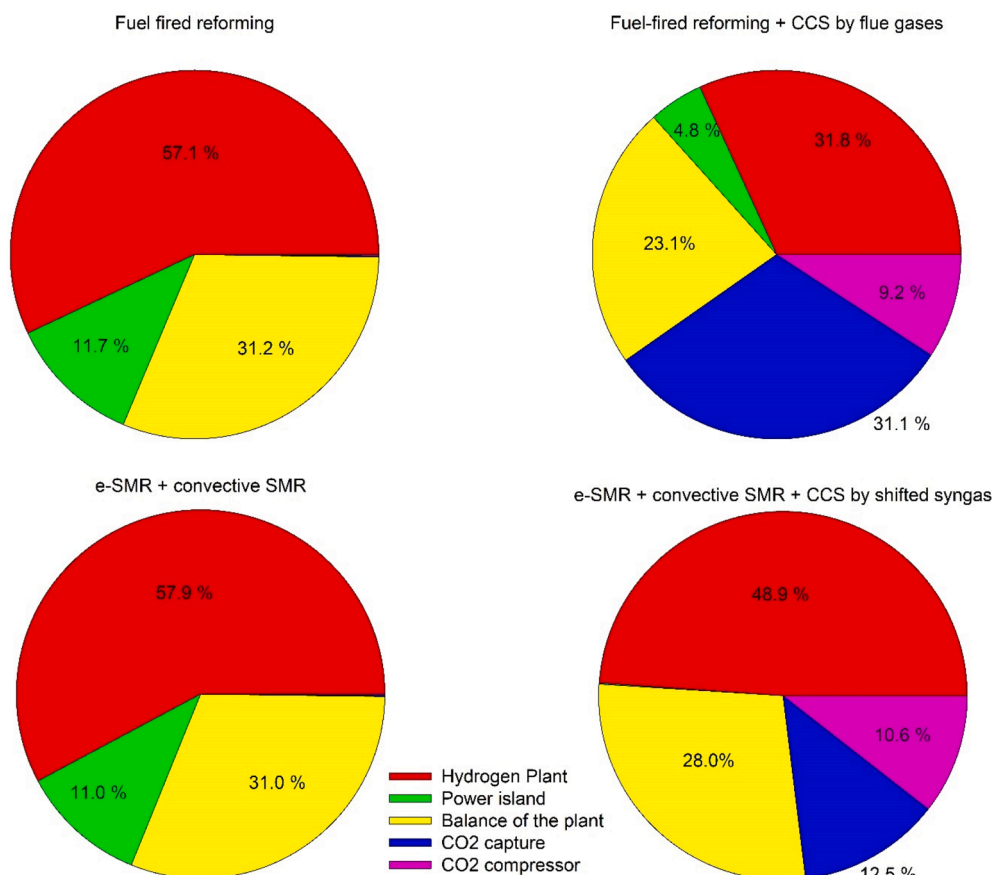


Fig. 6. Contributions to the total plant cost (TPC) of the proposed configurations and benchmark processes. Red: H₂ plant cost. Magenta: CO₂ compressor. Cyan: CO₂ capture section. Green: Power island. Yellow: Balance of the plant.

Table 8
Variable operating cost of the benchmark processes and the proposed configurations.

	Benchmark process				Configuration A		Configuration B	
	Fuel-fired reforming		Fuel-fired reforming with CO ₂ capture		e-SMR + convective SMR		e-SMR + convective SMR + CO ₂ capture	
	kg h ⁻¹	M€ y ⁻¹	kg h ⁻¹	M€ y ⁻¹	kg h ⁻¹	M€ y ⁻¹	kg h ⁻¹	M€ y ⁻¹
NG feedstock and fuel	30,560	147.84	33,580	162.43	22,090	111.00	22,090	111.00
Raw water	59,700	0.10	42,100	0.07	45,035	0.08	45,600	0.08
CO ₂ emitted	80,885	57.20	8880	6.28	58,500	41.38	14,545	10.28
CO ₂ transport and storage	0.00	0.00	80,075	26.65	0.00	0.00	43,955	14.63
Electricity	MWh y ⁻¹	M€ y ⁻¹	MWh y ⁻¹	M€ y ⁻¹	MWh y ⁻¹	M€ y ⁻¹	MWh y ⁻¹	M€ y ⁻¹
Electricity	95,700	-7.65	28,380	-2.27	668,670	53.49	737,330	58.99
Total variable OPEX		197.49		193.16		205.95		194.98

CO₂.

The CO₂ tax influences LCOH in all analyzed processes, but those without CO₂ capture are more impacted. Among these, the fuel-fired process is more impacted by the CO₂ tax than the electrified process because of NG burn in the firebox.

Configuration B becomes more profitable than the fuel-fired process without CCS at taxation higher than 87 € t⁻¹ CO₂ (Fig. 11), a value slightly higher than the one used in the base case scenario (Table 2). On the other hand, the fired reforming with CCS by flue gas and the developed configuration B become economically competitive compared to the fired reforming without CCS only at the higher extreme of the sensitivity range (top right, Fig. 11).

4. Conclusions

This study presents an innovative process for hydrogen production from natural gas, combining electrified and convective reforming with CO₂ capture. The proposed configurations focus on reducing carbon emissions by eliminating traditional fuel combustion and incorporating advanced heating technologies.

Two configurations were developed to maintain high hydrogen productivity while minimizing emissions. The first configuration utilizes excess heat for electricity generation, avoiding emissions from natural gas combustion. The second configuration incorporates CO₂ capture on syngas, further reducing emissions.

Electrification of the reformer simplifies the system by eliminating the firebox and reducing furnace complexity, while high-temperature operations and additional water-gas shift stages contribute to

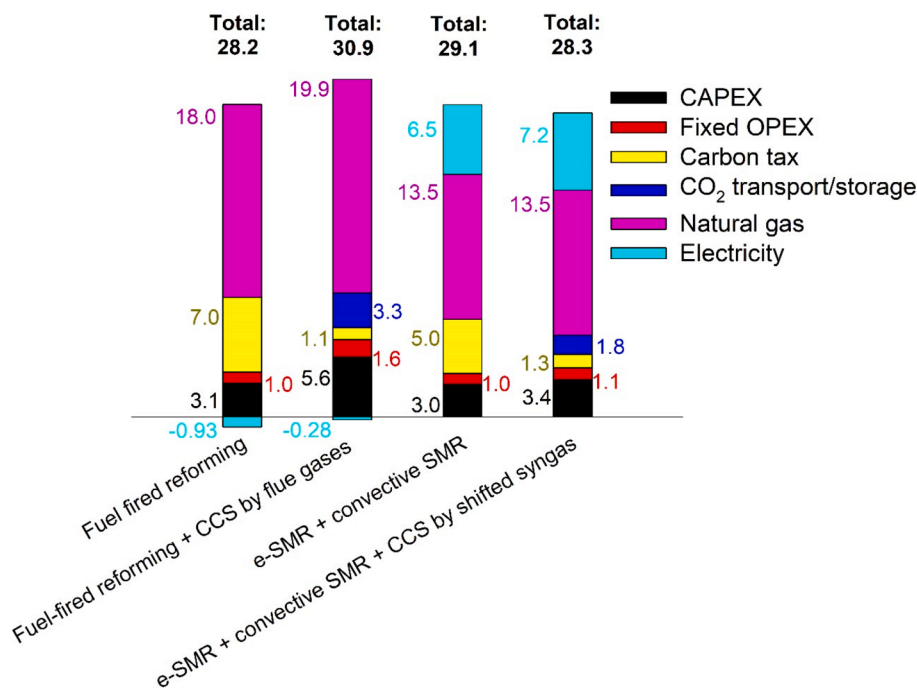


Fig. 7. LCOH for the benchmark processes and the proposed configurations (€ Nm⁻³ H₂).

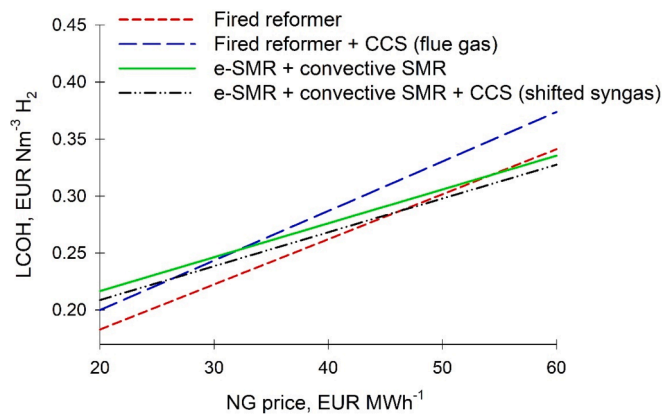


Fig. 8. Impact of the NG price on the LCOH in the different process configurations.

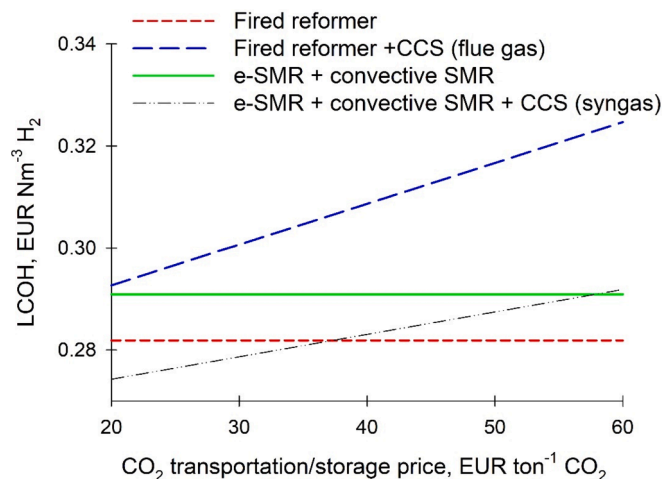


Fig. 10. Impact of the CO₂ storage and transportation price on the LCOH in the different process configurations.

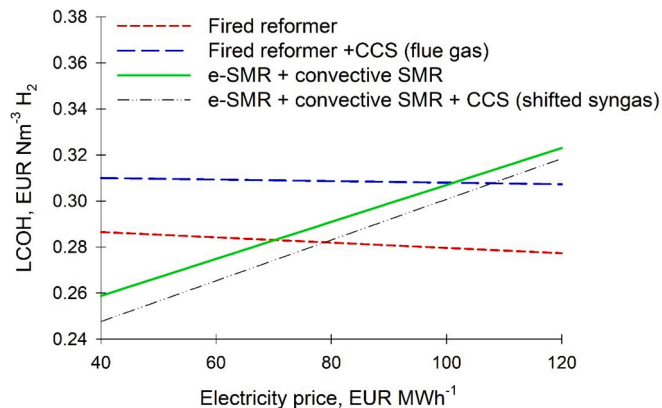


Fig. 9. Impact of the electricity price on the LCOH in the different process configurations.

improved energy efficiency. Additionally, the convective reformer efficiently recovers energy from PSA off-gases.

While both configurations significantly reduce emissions, Configuration B, which includes CO₂ capture, still emits slightly more CO₂ than fired reforming with flue gas CO₂ capture. This difference arises because the process relies on excess heat rather than additional fuel combustion for steam generation.

From an economic perspective, the electrified configurations exhibit a CAPEX similar to that of conventional fired reforming. However, the inclusion of CO₂ capture in the fired reforming process has a greater impact on costs compared to its implementation in the electrified configuration. The levelized cost of hydrogen (LCOH) for the electrified configurations remains lower, positioning Configuration B as competitive compared to fired reforming with and without carbon capture.

As energy landscapes evolve with rising natural gas prices, declining electricity costs, and increasing CO₂ taxation, electrified reforming with CO₂ capture has the potential to become a favorable solution for

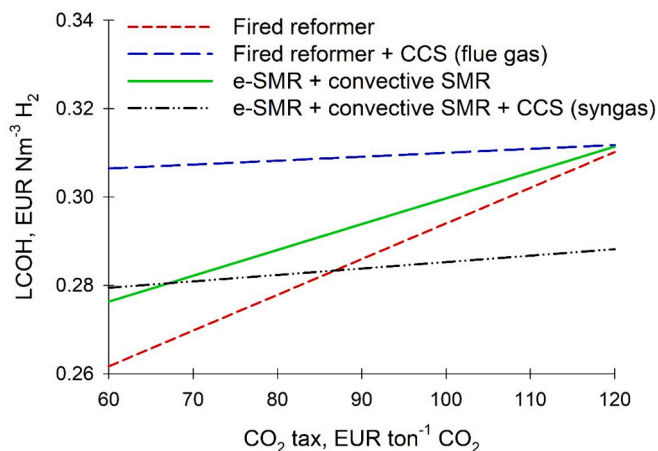


Fig. 11. Impact of the CO₂ taxation on the LCOH in the different process configurations.

decarbonizing hydrogen production. Future studies should focus on refining equipment designs and exploring the feasibility of complete CO₂ capture from the syngas stream, alongside comparative analyses with autothermal reforming (ATR) plus CO₂ capture.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Diego Maporti: Writing – original draft, Software, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Simone Guffanti:** Visualization, Conceptualization. **Federico Galli:** Writing – review & editing, Validation, Supervision, Conceptualization. **Paolo Mocellini:** Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Supervision, Resources, Project administration, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization. **Gianluca Pauletto:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Resources, Project administration, Methodology, Funding acquisition, Conceptualization.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

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