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For the removal of air pollutants from the flue gas, a flue gas treatment system is required downstream the boiler. Such treatment systems consist of a system of cleaning processes for the reduction of particulate, vapour and gaseous substances in the flue gas.
There are special flue gas treatment components for removal of special pollutants, however, some components are able to remove more than one pollutant.

The selection of the appropriate flue gas treatment system depends in particular on the composition respectively pollution of the fuel, the resulting composition of the raw gas, the expected maximum concentrations of pollutants in the raw gas and their fluctuations and the required efficiency of the treatment process to meet the applicable emission limits. An overview of the flue gas treatment components for the removal of pollutants is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Overview of flue gas treatment components for removal of pollutants

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<th>Pollutant</th>
<th>Apparatus/Process</th>
<th>Principle</th>
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</table>

1. Flue gas treatment options

1.1. Removal of particles and particle-bounded heavy metals

For removal of particles, the following components were usually used in flue gas treatment systems downstream the waste incineration:

- Centrifugal Separator
- Electrostatic Separator
- Filtering Separator
- Wet Separator.

Due to their low separation efficiency, cyclones can only be used for pre-dedustig. Wet scrubbers intend to remove acidic compounds of the flue gas, the separation of dust is just a side effect (exception: venture scrubbers which are appropriate for fine dust separation). Electrostatic separators are often used in flue gas cleaning installations, mostly as pre-dedusting step upstream of a scrubber system. However, to achieve the emission limits of the European Industrial Emission Directive, fibrous layer filter with pulse jet cleaning are the most common installation for dust removal in flue gas cleaning.
1.1.1. Electrostatic separators

Electrostatic Separators are used to capture particulate pollutants by means of the electrostatic attraction. There are:

- Dry Electrostatic Precipitators, and
- Wet Electrostatic Precipitators.

Figure 1: Flue gas treatment systems for the removal of particles

Figure 2: Example for a typical dry electrostatic precipitator

Wet ESP are often used for cleaning gases saturated with water vapor in the flue gas purification of chemical processes. As part of the FGT of thermal waste treatment plants, they are rarely used, and only in combination with wet scrubbers to achieve a downstream removal of aerosols and particulate matter.

Dry ESP are more often part of the flue gas cleaning concept but usually not as the only dedusting aggregate for Waste-to-Energy plants as the emission limit of 10 mg/Nm$^3$ can hardly be met. An exemplarily design of a dry ESP is shown in Figure 2.

In the ESP, the particles are electrically charged in an electric field – 20 and 100 kV – and disposed at the collecting electrode. The principle is shown in Figure 3.

![Figure 3: Removal of dust in an electrostatic precipitator](source: Scheuch GmbH: Dry Electrostatic Precipitator. Company Brochure)

1.1.2. Filtering separators

Filtration is a mechanical process for separating mixture of substances. Both mixtures of liquid and solids – suspensions – and mixtures of gases and solids can be separated. For filtering, the mixture pass through a filter medium. Through the filter medium e.g. particles will be retained from the gas stream.

![Figure 4: Principle of surface and depth-loaded filtration](source: Liqui-Filter, company material. Im Internet: http://www.liqui-filter.info/know-how/absaugen-und-filtern-von-luft/wie-arbeiten-unsere-filter.html, extracted on 1st February 2012, edited)
The filter effect depends on the particle size and can take place on the surface of the
filter medium, but also in the filter medium itself. Accordingly, there are:

- Surface Filtration, and
- Depth-Loaded Filtration (Figure 4).

With respect to the filter medium one distinguishes between:

- Fibrous Layer Filter, and
- Packed Bed Filter.

For dust removal in the flue gas of Waste-to-Energy plants, only fibrous layer filters
which can be cleaned on-line (during operation) can be used. Fabric filters with 4 to 8
chambers (mostly 6), vertical bags and pulse jet for cleaning the filter tubes are com-
monly installed in waste incineration plants (Figure 5). Filter designs with horizontal
bags also exists.

If the fabric filter operates not only as a dust collector but also as a sorption filter the
filter medium should be always designed for a surface filtration.
1.2. Removal of $\text{NO}_x$

For the removal of $\text{NO}_x$ two established processes exist:

- Selective Non-Catalytic Reduction (SNCR), and
- Selective Catalytic Reduction (SCR).

Both processes are able to remove $\text{NO}_x$ with the efficiency needed to meet an emission value of 100 mg/m$^3$ STP. Reagents and plant configurations are shown in Figure 6.

Figure 6: Flue gas treatment systems for the removal of $\text{NO}_x$

Figure 7: Example for a SNCR system

Source: Martin GmbH für Umwelt- und Energietechnik: Firmenbroschüre Das Martin SNCR System
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- high plant availability at low investment and operating costs
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Homepage: www.luehr-filter.com

- The TWIN-NO$_x$® process produces excellent results by combining the advantages of the reagents ammonia and urea solution.
- Selective Cooling optimizes the temperature of the flue gases at the injection positions for the SNCR process. NO$_x$ reduction rates are improved and the consumption of reagents is reduced further.
- Adaptive Cooling enables a more precise control of cooling water and NO$_x$ emissions, achieving better NO$_x$ reduction rates and a minimized NH$_3$ slip.

Adaptive Cooling

- Low investment costs
- Reduced consumption of reagents
- Easy retrofitting
- High availability
- Improved NO$_x$ reduction rates
- New EU standards are safely met.

SNCR plant in a coal-fired power plant (225 MW$_{el}$), Poland
1.2.1. SNCR

In the selective non-catalytic reduction process (SNCR) nitrogen oxide (NO\textsubscript{x}) in the flue gas is reduced by reaction with ammonia (NH\textsubscript{3}) to elemental nitrogen (N\textsubscript{2}). For this purpose, aqueous ammonia solution (NH\textsubscript{4}OH) or urea solution (NH\textsubscript{2}CONH\textsubscript{2}) is injected into the hot flue gas in the first boiler pass. As a carrier medium for the reagent, pressurised air, steam or pressurised water can be used. A typical SNCR system is shown in Figure 7.

\[
\text{NH}_4\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{NH}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}
\]

\[
4 \text{ NO} + 4 \text{ NH}_3 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 4 \text{ N}_2 + 6 \text{ H}_2\text{O}
\]

\[
2 \text{ NO}_2 + 4 \text{ NH}_3 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 3 \text{ N}_2 + 6 \text{ H}_2\text{O}
\]

To avoid NH\textsubscript{3}-slip, NH\textsubscript{3} oxidation and NO generation, the reduction reaction in the SNCR process takes place in a narrow temperature range from 850 to 1,100 °C, with an optimum at approximately 970 °C (Figure 8). For the optimisation of the injections of reagent in the right temperature zone an IR-pyrometer or an acoustical gas temperature measurement can be installed. The efficiency of SNCR can be increased by increasing the stoichiometric factor for ammonia water but is limited due to the inevitable NH\textsubscript{3}-slip.

![Figure 8: NH\textsubscript{3}-reaction depending on temperature as a function of temperature](source: Dittrich, R.; Nowag, R.: Vergleichende Beurteilung und Abscheideleistung von SNCR-/SCR-Technik. VDI-Wissensforum: BAT und preisorientierte Rauchgasreinigungstechniken, München, 2002, edited)

1.2.2. SCR

In the selective catalytic reduction process (SCR), a catalyst is used to increase the efficiency of the reaction of nitrogen oxide (NO\textsubscript{x}) in the flue gas with the reagent ammonia (NH\textsubscript{3}).
NH₃ is mostly provided by the injection of ammonia water. The reaction equations are the same as for the SNCR but the catalysed process takes place at lower temperatures (160 to 450 °C). As ammonia water is converted almost stoichiometrically there is hardly any NH₃-slip. With respect to the location of the SCR-catalyst there are four different plant configurations (Figure 9):

a) High-Dust-SCR  
b) Low-Dust/High SOₓ-SCR  
c) Low-Dust/Low-SOₓ-SCR  
d) Tail-End-SCR.

Most common for Waste-to-Energy installations is the Tail-End-SCR (Figure 10) which is located downstream the removal of particles and acid compounds in the flue gas and therefore ensures long lifetime of the catalyst. However, as the temperature of the flue gas after the fabric filter is usually too low for the catalytic reduction of NOₓ, for this configuration a reheating of the flue gas is necessary, which requires steam or natural gas. Most common are catalysts consisting of TiO₂ as carrier material with V₂O₅ as active component and WO₃ as promoter.
1.3. Removal of organic pollutants and vaporous heavy metals

For the removal of organic pollutants (mainly PCDD/F) and vapour forms of heavy metals (mainly Hg), the following established processes exist:

- Entrained Flow-Filter Layer Process
- Fixed or Moving Bed Adsorber.

For organic pollutants, additionally an oxidation catalyst can be used.

1.3.1. Entrained flow-filter layer process

In an entrained flow adsorber, the adsorbent (mostly lignite active coke) is injected directly into the flue gas and carried away with this. Organic pollutants (such as PCDD/F) and heavy metals in vapour form (such as Hg) are adsorbed on the surface of the adsorbent and removed with the particles in the downstream fabric filter. On the filter bags of the fabric filter layer of dust and adsorbent is developed which contributes to the adsorption processes. In Figure 11 the basic principle of the entrained flow-filter layer process is shown.

The advantage of this process is that it can be perfectly combined with conditioned-dry removal of acid compounds where usually a reactor and a fabric filter are part of the system too. So the technical equipment can be minimised.

1.3.2. Fixed or moving bed adsorber

Fixed or moving bed adsorbers are usually located downstream of a wet FGT process (Figure 12). The flue gas flows through a granular bed of an adsorbent. For technical and economic reasons, mostly lignite coke is chosen. The separation of organic pollutants and vaporous heavy metals is based on the principle of physical adsorption.
1.4. Removal of acid compounds

For the removal of acid compounds, mainly HCl and SO₂ downstream waste incineration, there are the following three established flue gas treatment systems in Europe:

- wet
- semi-dry and
- dry.

Usually, calcium or sodium based absorbent are used as reagent for the removal. In Figure 13, the further subdivision of the main systems is shown.

Example for a moving bed adsorber with four three-layer active coke bed

1.4.1. Lime-based processes

The separation of the pollutants takes place via adsorption on the surface of calcium hydroxide particles. These particles are brought into contact with the flue gas in a variety of forms. The primary reactions take place according to the following equations:

SO₂ + Ca(OH)₂ → CaSO₃ x ½ H₂O + ½ H₂O
SO₃ + Ca(OH)₂ → CaSO₄ + H₂O
2 HF + Ca(OH)₂ → CaF₂ + 2 H₂O
CO₂ + Ca(OH)₂ → CaCO₃ + H₂O
2 HCl + Ca(OH)₂ → CaCl₂ x 2 H₂O

Reaction of lime with HCl in two steps:
Ca(OH)₂ + HCl → Ca(OH)Cl + H₂O (l)
Ca(OH)Cl + HCl → CaCl₂ + H₂O (l)

Reaction of lime with calcium chloride:
Ca(OH)₂ + CaCl₂ → 2 Ca(OH)Cl

The reactivity sequence between calcium hydroxide and the pollutants can be set out as follows:
SO₃ > HF > HCl >> SO₂ > CO₂

The most important calcium-hydroxide-based processes are described in below.

1.4.1.1. Conditioned-dry sorption with hydrated lime

In this process, separation of the pollutants via deposition on lime is ameliorated by a hydrate shell which is formed around – and inside the pores of – the lime particles and results from the H₂O contained in the flue gas. This means that the separation is governed by the dissolution rate of the pollutants in aqueous solution. The absorption and adsorption processes run parallel throughout the separation process.

An increased level of relative humidity is required for the capillary condensation and the formation of the hydrate shell on the surface. The flue gas is therefore first conditioned in order to optimize the downstream pollutant separation process. This conditioning consists primarily of a reduction of the gas temperature to approximately 130 to 150 °C in order to achieve a relative humidity of approximately 6 percent. Flue gas temperatures below 130 °C should, however, be avoided, as, depending on surface temperature, the salts created during the reaction may increase the risk of corrosion to those parts of the facility in direct contact with the flue gas.

The presence of liquid water allows for the dissolution of the reaction partner (see the following reactions) and for an ionic reaction to take place, the fastest reaction rate at our disposal.
Ca(OH)$_2$ $\overset{\ominus}{\overset{\oplus}{\oplus}}$ Ca(OH)$_2$ (aq) $\leftrightarrow$ Ca$^{2+}$ (aq) + 2 OH$^-$ (aq)

SO$_2$ + 3 H$_2$O $\leftrightarrow$ H$_3$O$^+$ (aq) + HSO$_3^-$ (aq) + H$_2$O $\leftrightarrow$ 2 H$_3$O$^+$ (aq) + SO$_3^{2-}$ (aq)

HCl + H$_2$O $\leftrightarrow$ H$_3$O$^+$ (aq) + Cl$^-$ (aq)

HF + H$_2$O $\leftrightarrow$ H$_3$O$^+$ (aq) + F$^-$ (aq)

Ca$_2^+$ (aq) + SO$_3^{2-}$ (aq) $\rightarrow$ CaSO$_3$ (aq)

Ca$_2^+$ (aq) + 2 Cl$^-$ (aq) $\leftrightarrow$ CaCl$_2$ (aq)

Ca$_2^+$ (aq) + 2 F$^-$ (aq) $\rightarrow$ CaF$_2$ (aq)

H$_2$O$^+$ (aq) + OH$^-$ (aq) $\rightarrow$ 2 H$_2$O

Reducing the temperature or increasing the relative humidity can be effected via an economizer (ECO) or a cooling tower (CT). However, a combination (Combi) of both the gas cooling and humidifying processes is also possible. The cooling tower allows one to increase the absolute humidity in the system via the amount of injected water. The injected water promotes the separation of pollutants adhering to the hydrate lime particles.

Figure 14: Mollier h-x diagram with optimum temperature-humidity range for conditioned dry absorption with calcium hydroxide (A = starting point)

Source: Karpf, R.; Basic features of the dry absorption process for flue gas treatment systems in waste incineration; Earth Engineering Center, Columbia University, New York, April 2015

In order to increase the separation efficiency, a part of the residue of the reaction products in the fabric filter should be feed back into the flue gas. This permits the un-reacted contingent to be brought back into contact with the pollutants as well as
providing a quantity of chloride to improve separation efficiency, especially that of SO₂. Concerning the presence of calcium chloride, a quantity of HCl/SO₂ > 1 at the inlet of the flue gas treatment system is necessary.

The higher the fabric filter temperature, the less efficient the SO₂-separation due to the decrease in relative humidity.

1.4.1.2. Spray absorption with lime slurry

The semi-dry spray absorption process is an alternative method. Here a spray dryer is used to inject a suspension of lime and water (lime slurry) into the flue gas stream. The suspension is generally created from quicklime (CaO) and water via an on-site slaking process. The fact that this is conducted on-site is of additional benefit to the reactivity of the reagent. When the suspension is injected into the flue gas stream, the water component evaporates and only the solid lime particles remain in the flue gas. The liquid phase of this process has proven to be more efficient concerning HCl-removal than it is by applying slaked lime (calcium hydroxide) in dry form.
Since CO$_2$ is also an acid gas component, the amount of CO$_2$-molecules compared to the amount of the other acid gas molecules such as HCl, HF, SO$_2$ is much higher. Consequently, the possibility of a reaction between CO$_2$ and a lime particle is much greater than that of a reaction between the other acid gas components and formed calcium carbonate (CaCO$_3$). For the liquid phase, an HCl- or SO$_2$-molecule can react with the already formed CaCO$_3$ and out through the CO$_2$-molecule again due to the higher acid state. However, this is only possible in the case of the liquid phase.

Therefore, the spray absorption process will operate with a higher lime consumption (higher stoichiometric ratio (SR)) compared to a conditioned dry absorption process with a dry lime injection. The dosage of lime slurry that is applied is generally too high in cases of a stoichiometric ratio of $2.3 < \text{SR} < 3.5$. In order for sufficient drying of the particles, an inlet temperature of approximately 200 °C and a certain outlet temperature (mostly $> 140$ °C) prior to the spray absorber process is desirable, depending on the dimensions of the spray absorber (e.g. residence time). In some cases, the outlet temperature should be lower than 140 °C, especially for SO$_2$-removal, except where this is not possible. If a higher degree of separation efficiency is required, dry calcium hydroxide can be injected upstream of the fabric filter.

### 1.4.1.3. Lime slurry scrubber

In a wet flue gas treatment system the acid compounds of the raw gas are absorbed in a liquid in a scrubbing system. While semi-dry and dry flue gas treatment systems are always waste water free, in wet flue gas treatment systems the waste water from the scrubbers which is contaminated with salts and heavy metals has to be taken account to. This waste water must be treated in an appropriate manner, using either

- waste water cleaning or
- an effluent evaporation.

Both variants cause high technical effort and herewith high investment cost. Because even after a cleaning process the discharge of saline effluent is in most countries critical, a wet flue gas system should be designed effluent-free which requires a spray dryer and a fabric filter upstream the scrubbing system. Most common for waste incineration plants are wet systems with water as absorbent for HCl and with lime milk as absorbent for SO$_2$ (Figure 17).

Beside hydrated lime, sodium hydroxide or limestone solution as absorbent are possible to be used.

The typical wet system for waste incineration consists of two scrubbers, one for the removal of HCl in an acid environment and one for the removal of SO$_2$ in a neutral environment. The acid liquids are neutralised with hydrated lime.

\[
\text{HCl}(g) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(l) \rightarrow \text{H}_3\text{O}^+ + \text{Cl}^-
\]

\[
\text{SO}_2(g) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(l) \leftrightarrow \text{H}^+ + \text{HSO}_3^-
\]

\[
2 \text{HSO}_3^- + \text{Ca}^{2+} \rightarrow \text{Ca(HSO}_3)_2
\]

\[
\text{Ca(HSO}_3)_2 + \text{Ca(OH)}_2 + \text{O}_2 + 2 \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 2 \text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2 \text{H}_2\text{O}
\]
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For the evaporation of the salt solution a spray dryer must be installed. The vaporised salts are removed in the downstream fabric filter. The higher the raw gas concentration, the higher is the amount of water which has to be evaporated in the spray dryer. Depending on raw gas concentration, relatively high raw gas temperatures after the boiler are required which can be adverse to energy efficiency of the boiler. Lignite activated coke can be used in addition to eliminate lightly volatile heavy metals (e.g. mercury) and hazardous organic pollutants (e.g. PCDD/F).

1.4.2. Sodium-based processes

1.4.2.1. Dry sorption with sodium hydrogen carbonate

Sodium hydrogen carbonate allows the implementation of a purely dry technique, as it enables a good dedusting result for HCl und SO₂ at comparatively high temperatures and regardless of the flue gas humidity.

As, in most cases, activated carbon is added to the sodium bicarbonate during the process in order to achieve a better dedusting result with regard to heavy metals and dioxins/furans in the flue gas, the flue gas temperature must be cooled to 140 to 180 °C in order to prevent desorption occurring in the activated carbon. At temperatures > 140 °C, the sodium hydrogen carbonate decomposes into sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃), carbon dioxide (CO₂) and water (H₂O):

\[
\begin{align*}
2 \text{NaHCO}_3 \xrightarrow{\sigma > 140 ^\circ C} & \text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3 + \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \\
\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3 + \text{SO}_2 & \rightarrow \text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3 + \text{CO}_2 \\
\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3 + \frac{1}{2} \text{O}_2 & \rightarrow \text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4 \\
\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3 + 2 \text{HCl} & \rightarrow 2 \text{NaCl} + \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \\
\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3 + 2 \text{HF} & \rightarrow 2 \text{NaF} + \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}
\end{align*}
\]
The reactivity sequence can be set out as follows:

$$\text{SO}_3 > \text{HCl} > \text{SO}_2 >> \text{HF} > \text{CO}_2$$

When compared to the application of lime, the chemical decomposition and transition of the gaseous reaction products into the flue gas stream reduces the quantity of residue requiring subsequent disposal.

This decomposition also leads to a greater specific surface. The greater the available reaction surface, the more efficient the separation performance of the sodium carbonate. The removal performance also generally increases in line with a rise in temperature. The temperature must, however, be confined to a specific corridor if activated carbon is also being used to separate mercury.

![Figure 18: Dry FGT process with sodium hydrogen carbonate](image)

Main Features of the process:
- Very good reactivity of $\text{NaHCO}_3$ with HCl and SO$_2$
- The higher the temperature, the more efficient the separation of HCl and SO$_2$. However, limitation of the temperature is advisable due to mercury separation
- The desired temperature corridor should lie between 180 to 190 °C if activated carbon is being used
- Desired bicarbonate grind: the smaller the grain size, the better the separation performance
- No influence of HCl/SO$_2$ ratio on separation performance
- No influence of humidity on separation performance
- Poor reactivity with HF
- Stoichiometric values of $1.1 < SR < 1.4$ are common. A slight improvement in the separation performance if recirculation is applied within the bicarbonate process
- Additives are very expensive
- Low amount of residual substances compared to lime-based process.
1.4.2.2. Sodium hydroxide scrubber

Sodium-based reagents in form of sodium hydroxide are also used in wet flue gas cleaning systems to remove the acids from the flue gas:
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{NaOH}_\text{(l)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_\text{(l)} & \rightarrow \text{Na}^+ + \text{OH}^- + \text{H}_2\text{O}_\text{(l)} \\
\text{HSO}_3^- + \text{Na}^+ & \rightarrow \text{NaHSO}_3\text{(l)} \\
\text{SO}_4^{2-} + 2 \text{Na}^+ & \rightarrow \text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4\text{(l)}
\end{align*}
\]
A typical plant configuration is shown in Figure 19.

![Figure 19: Wet FGT process with sodium hydroxide](image)

2. Achievable emission values

2.1. Particles

The fractional efficiency of the different de-dusting technologies varies greatly (Figure 20).

Cyclones are only appropriate for pre-dedusting to remove coarse particles \( x_p > 10 \mu\text{m} \). E.g. a cyclone which is able to separate particles with a size of 10 µm with an efficiency of approximately 80 percent (depending on the cyclone diameter) will separate particles with 5 µm only with an efficiency of 5 percent.

Electrostatic precipitators (ESP) as single dedusting aggregate do not reach the efficiency to be in accordance with the dust emission limit of 10 mg/m³ STP for waste incineration. The main task of a scrubber is not to remove particles but to remove acid pollutants, even though particles will be separated in the scrubber. Venturi scrubbers are implemented to reduce fine particles and aerosols but are not able to handle the whole fly ash amount. Therefore it is most common to install another de-dusting technology upstream the scrubbers to reduce the dust load of inlet flues gas.

Only fabric filters are suitable for removal of particle sizes \( x_p < 10 \mu\text{m} \) with a sufficient efficiency needed to reach the emission limit of 10 mg/m³ STP.
2.2. Nitrogen oxides

SNCR as well as SCR are state-of-the art technologies to comply with the emission limits for Waste-to-Energy plants. In Figure 21 an evaluation of the NO\textsubscript{x} emissions
of 50 Waste-to-Energy plants in Germany considering the DeNO\textsubscript{x} system is shown. Basically, with the SCR lower emission values for NO\textsubscript{x} are possible.

### 2.3. Acid pollutants

The dry flue gas treatment system with sodium hydrogen carbonate is flexible if variations of the raw gas concentration of acid compounds occur. The stoichiometric ratio varies between 1.1 to 1.3, even if there are very high concentrations of HCl und SO\textsubscript{2}. It is possible to go approximately 50 percent below the limits of the European Directive on Industrial Emissions with just slightly increased amount of NaHCO\textsubscript{3}.

The semi-/conditioned dry flue gas treatment systems have to operate with a higher stoichiometric ratio (approximately 2) to be able to buffer away raw gas peaks and ensure the compliance of the limits. In wet and effluent-free flue gas treatment systems the gas temperature difference between boiler exit and fabric filter defines the amount of vaporisable salt solution. Therefore, the wet flue gas treatment has to operate with higher raw gas temperatures in case of high raw gas concentrations of HCl and SO\textsubscript{2} (much higher than at present design point). The scrubbers are designed for a fixed efficiency (height of scrubber, number of levels with nozzles). Almost zero emissions of HCl are possible. Absorbent consumption is stoichiometric and therefore most efficient.

### 2.4. Dust and heavy metals

For dry and semi-dry flue gas cleaning systems, the removal of heavy metals depends on dust removal efficiency because most heavy metals are condensed at the surface of dust particles. Therefore, the efficiency of removal of particle bounded heavy metals such as Cd, Tl, Sb, As, Pb, Cr, Co, Cu, Mn, Ni, V und Sn cannot be higher than the efficiency of dust removal. Removal of mercury as a vaporous heavy metal can be controlled by the application of activated carbon. Please keep in mind that the adsorption efficiency is a function of the adsorption temperature!

For effluent free wet flue gas treatment systems, the efficiency of fine dust removal and herewith the particle bounded heavy metals is determined also by the efficiency of the fabric filter. An additional removal can be reached by the use of a venturi step, which, however, causes an additional pressure loss and therefore higher electricity consumption. However, the wet system allows higher separation of mercury present as chloride which is soluble in the scrubber water.

### 2.5. Overview for Germany

In Figure 22, the annual average emissions of municipal solid waste incineration plants in Germany are shown. In average operation, all emissions are much below the legal standard, for dust, heavy metals and dioxins actually below 10 percent of the limit. There are no appreciable differences in the efficiency of wet and semi-dry/conditioned-dry flue gas cleaning concepts except for HCl, where wet flue gas treatment reaches very low emission values.
Figure 22: Emissions of municipal solid waste incineration plants in Germany for different flue gas treatment systems (number of plants = 50)

For further details please refer to Löschau [11].

3. Examples for concepts for retrofit and new installations

The following examples give an impression about the potential of optimisation and ideas/concepts for new installations.

3.1. Changing from a wet to a dry system

Many wet flue gas treatment systems of waste incineration plants are at the end of their lifetime, which makes a retrofit necessary. However, more and more frequently plant
operators decide to substitute the wet system (an example is shown in Figure 23) by a dry (an example is shown in Figure 24) or conditioned-dry system. The following changing from a wet to a dry system is based on an optimisation of the operating costs with the same emission limits.

The change results in savings by:

- loss of natural gas consumption by the loss reheating in the SCR-system
- loss of the gas-gas-heat exchanger instead
- using the enthalpies of the flue gas for the preheat of the turbine condensate by a heat exchanger upstream of the stack
- reduction of the electrical energy consumption because of loss scrubber operation (reduction of pressure loss, loss of the pumps, loss of the gas-gas-heat exchanger).

In Table 2 the main results from the concept evaluation are summarised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Saving in MWh</th>
<th>Saving in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electrical energy consumption</td>
<td>15.000</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural gas consumption</td>
<td>54.000</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steam consumption/heat recovery</td>
<td>31.000</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For further details of the concept please refer to Karpf [8].

### 3.2. Retrofit to an energy optimised concept

In the recent years, energetic optimisation of Waste-to-Energy plants is focused more. The main goal for the following optimisation (Figure 25) is the realisation of an energy recovery nearly with the existing equipment.

The advantages of this concept are as follows:

- Separation of the main pollutant HCl with the cheap CaO (lime slurry)
• Keep the requested emission levels of HCl, SO₂ with sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO₃) also with various waste compositions
• Operate the existing catalysts as a low temperature catalyst at ~ 180 °C
• Loss natural gas (unless for start-up or thermal regeneration)
• Loss of the gas/gas-heat exchanger (~ 20 mbar)
• Heat recovery (~ 1 MWh/line with 50 K temperature reduction for the calculated system, but depends on the size of the plant)
• Reduction of corrosion problems.

![Flow sheet from an energy optimised dry absorption system](image)

**Figure 25:** Flow sheet from an energy optimised dry absorption system

### 3.3. Change from spray absorption to conditioned-dry sorption

Also the replacement of a spray absorption system by a conditioned-dry system could have significant advantages and can reduce the plant’s operation costs (Table 3). Furthermore the cooling effect can be increased with the pure water injection instead of lime milk injection so that the SO₂-reduction can be significantly increased too.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operation Costs</th>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Conditioned dry absorption</th>
<th>Spray absorption</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lignite coke</td>
<td>EUR/h</td>
<td>3,048</td>
<td>3,048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activated coke</td>
<td>EUR/h</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lime Ca(OH)₂</td>
<td>EUR/h</td>
<td>21,15</td>
<td>26,741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lime CaO</td>
<td>EUR/h</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>10,71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water</td>
<td>EUR/h</td>
<td>2,49</td>
<td>2,21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compressed air (8 bar)</td>
<td>EUR/h</td>
<td>54,4</td>
<td>54,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical energy</td>
<td>EUR/h</td>
<td>16,24</td>
<td>18,56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual products</td>
<td>EUR/h</td>
<td>61,56</td>
<td>73,32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sum operation costs</td>
<td>EUR/h</td>
<td>158,89</td>
<td>188,99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference</td>
<td>EUR/h</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30,11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18,95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual costs at 8.000 h/a</td>
<td>EUR/a</td>
<td>1,271.084</td>
<td>1,511.928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difference</td>
<td>EUR/a</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>240.844</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Exemplarily comparison of operation costs for substitution of spray absorption by conditioned-dry system with cooling tower
3.4. Concept for a new installation

In the following example, a two staged dry flue gas treatment system with sodium bicarbonate and lime in combination with a SCR was implemented as optimal solution (Figure 26). The reasons for that concept for a new installation was to realise for all pollutants 50 percent of EU emission limits and for NOx emission even values < 70 mg/m³. Furthermore it was a requisition on an optimised energy efficiency and heat recovery.

Figure 26: Flow sheet for a flue gas treatment combination of sodium bicarbonate and lime (Waste-to-Energy Plant Delfzijl (NL))

In Table 4 the consumptions of this concept are shown.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>kWh/t</th>
<th>kg/t</th>
<th>m³/t</th>
<th>kg/t</th>
<th>kg/t</th>
<th>kW/t waste</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electrical Energy</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sodium bicarbonate NaHCO₃</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lime Ca(OH)₂</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active coke</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pressurised air</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ammonia</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residues</td>
<td>35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waste water</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Consumptions of WtE plant Delfzijl (NL)

For further details to the concept please refer to Bieber und Karpf [2].

4. References


Thomé-Kozmiensky, K. J.; Thiel, S. (Eds.): Waste Management, Volume 5
– Waste-to-Energy –

ISBN 978-3-944310-22-0  TK Verlag Karl Thomé-Kozmiensky

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Publisher: TK Verlag Karl Thomé-Kozmiensky • Neuruppin 2015
Editorial office: Professor Dr.-Ing. habil. Dr. h. c. Karl J. Thomé-Kozmiensky,
Dr.-Ing. Stephanie Thiel, M. Sc. Elisabeth Thomé-Kozmiensky.
Layout: Sandra Peters, Ginette Teske, Janin Burbott-Seidel, Claudia Naumann-Deppe
Printing: Universal Medien GmbH, Munich

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