

Ideas for storing CO₂ from the Turceni Power Plant, in closed mining areas from the Jiu Valley, Romania

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Abstract. Considering the Getica project, and the feasibility study prepared in 2011 in order to capture and storage CO₂ from the Turceni Power Plant and in view of the temporary cessation of this project, we propose a study on the storage of CO₂ in disused and closed mining areas, from the Jiu Valley, with impact on the environment and on exploitation and monitoring for long-term more than 1000 years and also alignment with similar projects in other countries, Europeans or not. Mainly, the majority of long-term capture and storage projects are carried out in deep-water aquifers, such as aquifers under the North Sea and the Barents Sea, or specially storage projects created in dissoluted salt mines, such as those in the Santos Basin in the Atlantic Ocean in Brazil, as well as others, like the pilot projects in India, with storage in volcanic rocks, etc. Storage projects in large-capacity coal mines such as those in Romania, Serbia or Bulgaria, to discuss common issues with neighboring countries, can create an exchange of knowledge with those countries on long and very long-term storage of CO₂ in coal mines, with an obvious gain in greening the atmosphere and in the health of the environment.

1 Introduction

The history of the Jiu Valley (Table 1) is related to the discovery and exploitation of coal deposits. The process of industrialization from the communist period until 1992, when were the first signs of mine closure, produced a significant migration to the Jiu Valley, with an impact on population growth. The massive restructuring followed by the closure of the mines and their preservation, negatively affected both the number of inhabitants and the number of employees in the extractive industry, the number of employees being reduced with about 75% up to 2017, compared to the existing one in 1989 [1].

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Table 1. Table of history for Jiu Valley extractive industry [1].

Year	Description	
1855	The first geological explorations in Jiu Valley	
1859	Petritu is officially the first mining perimeter in the Jiu Valley and the deepest coal mine in Europe	
	The extensive industrialization process of the second half of the communist period has led to significant flows of migration to the mining cities of the Jiu Valley, with an obvious impact on the population growth	
1989	60,679 employees in the extractive industry	
	The massive restructuring followed by the mine closure; negatively affected both the number of inhabitants and the number of employees in the extractive industry	
2017	3767 employees in the extractive industry	
2030	Scenarios	I. inaction scenario
		II. modernization of one of the mines and the gradual closure of four others by 2030
		III. development of the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors in the period 2020–2030

The first scenario presented in the table 1 is the worst. The second scenario, including the modernization of one of the mines with the gradual closure is an interesting view for arrangement of the mines for CO₂ storage, and after that gradually closing with careful monitoring. The third scenario also is an available if the CO₂ capture is closely related to CH₄ extraction [2-4].

Before CO₂ can be stored, it must be captured as a relatively pure gas. The flue gases of coal-fired power plants contain about 10-12% of the volume of CO₂ and of natural gas plants about 3-6%. In the United States, CO₂ is commonly separated and captured as a by-product from industrial processes [2]. One of the CO₂ separation method is that the sorbent molecule is an amine, a derivative of ammonia. The exhaust is bubbled through an amine-containing solution, and the amine chemically binds the CO₂, removing it from the exhaust gases. The CO₂ is then separated from the amine and converted back to a gas for disposal with some energy consume, up to 25 % of a plant's power-generating capacity [5]. Another technology is the membrane technology for CO₂ capture that is not as mature as conventional amine processes, but has many benefits including, simplicity of operation, modular construction, small footprint, no hazardous by-product emissions, no changes to the power plant steam cycle, and potentially lower capital and operating costs. A number of groups are working to improve different membrane processes and materials tailored for CO₂ capture [6].

2 The Getica project for Turceni Power Plant

The CCS demo project developed in Romania as Getica CCS, aims to be an integrated CCS project, covering the entire CCS chain: carbon dioxide (CO₂) capture, transport and storage. The Getica project was planned to start in December 2015 at one of the six existing units in PP Turceni, namely at Unit no. 6 of 330 MW. The optimal choice of technology in terms of post-combustion CO₂ capture technologies has been focused on the Chilled Ammonia Process (CAP) and the Advanced Amine Process (APA), as these are the furthest post-combustion CO₂ capture technologies in development, and closest to commercialization. The selected Alstom technology [6], like in the most recent results of operating 20 MWe CAP in AEP Mountaineer see the Figure 1, confirm the assumptions taken into

consideration in the Feasibility Study of the Getica project. There are already implemented a number of successful pilot and demonstration units across the globe [7].



Fig. 1. The Mountaineer project aimed to achieve a minimum 90% carbon capture rate [8].

The project location was thought out to be implemented in Gorj county, in the South West Development Region, at Turceni Energy Complex, Romania. The South West Development Region comprises five counties: Dolj, Olt, Valcea, Mehedinti and Gorj. For transportation, the technology is by pipeline, which is suitable for not very long distances (maximum $100 \div 200$ km). In order to reduce the CO₂ volume and therefore the pipeline diameter the CO₂ is transported in supercritical phase, at a pressure higher than 90 bar (abs), and at the exhaust of the carbon dioxide capture plant's compression line the pressure being commonly between $110 \div 120$ bar (abs). The CO₂ product will have a purity of 99.7%, at $30 \div 40^\circ\text{C}$ and 120 bar (abs) [7, 8].

3 Petrosani Basin located in the Jiu Valley

Between the Retezat and Sebeş Mountains to the N., the Vâlcan and Parâng Mountains to the S. is located the Petrosani Basin, with a maximum length of 45 km and a width of 9 km. It is crossed by the Jiu river, and it was probably formed in the Eocene by tectonic sinking. The filling deposits belong to the Paleogene, Neogene and Quaternary. Within them, several lithological complexes were separated:

- a. the complex of lower red conglomerates, 200 to 600 m thick, are attributed to the Eocene and Oligocene.
- b. the productive clayey-marly complex (300 - 600 m thick), includes up to 25 layers of coal, are attributed to the Oligocene - Lower Aquitanian.
- c. the pebbles and torrential gravels (400 - 800 m thick) are attributed to Pliocene.
- d. the conglomerate complex, (1,200 – 1,500 m thick), are attributed to Burdigalian.

Structurally, the deposits of the Petroşani Basin form a wrinkled and faulted syncline. The basin is developed on a crystalline foundation, with a discontinuous frame of Jurassic limestone and Cretaceous deposits. It has a foundation composed of crystalline schists and

Mesozoic limestones, over which appear Aquitanian, Burdigalian, Tortonian and Sarmatian-Pliocene Oligocene formations (Lupei, 1968) (Figure 2) [9].

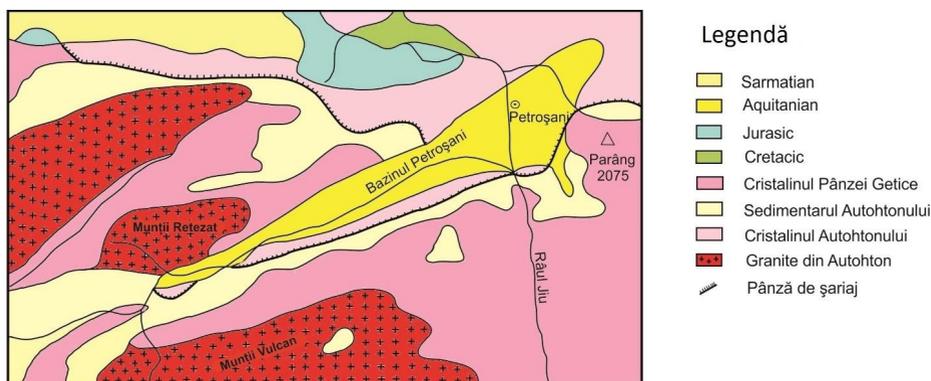


Fig. 2. Geological sketch of the Petroșani Basin (after N. Gherasi and Gh. Manolescu) [9].

The sedimentary formations on the southern flank of the Petroșani Basin rest on rocks belonging to the metamorphic series of Sebeș - Lotru (of Austrian age) within the Getic Canvas. From a tectonic point of view, the Petroșani Basin takes the form of a strongly fractured syncline, especially on the flanks. A system of major faults oriented along the basin (west-east direction) delimits the syncline so that the depression appears as a graben. A second fault system divides the sedimentary filling of the basin into numerous blocks detached from each other, both vertically and horizontally. The northern flank of the basin is represented by an inverse fault within the Cerna - Jiu system [9].

An example is the history of coal mining at Petrila opened in 1860 and officially ceased the activity in 2015, with an exploitation maximum depth of 940 m see the Figure 3 [1].

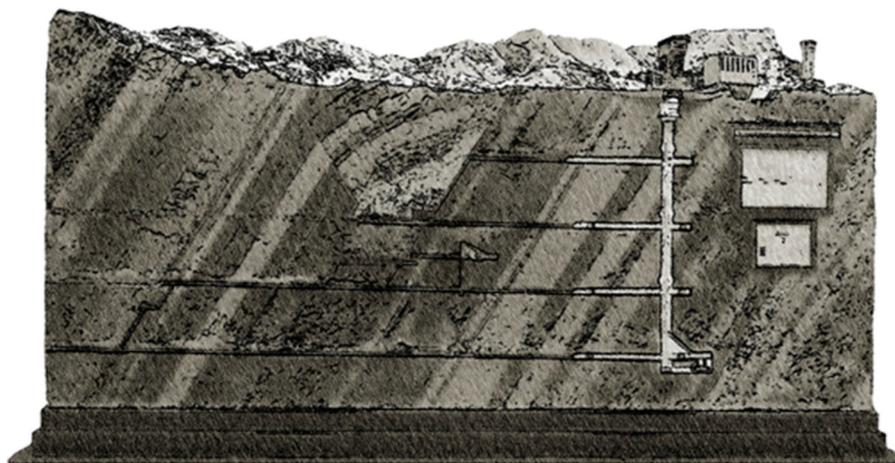


Fig. 3. Outline of the opening, preparation and exploitation works of the coal deposit from Petrila.

The study of stratigraphic columns based on results of research drilling, mapping of horizontal mining works (transversal, directional) and geo-mechanical studies related of mining fields from Jiu Valley Basin, have shown the existence of a wide variety of sedimentary rocks that have been classified into five main and distinct categories: sandstones category, clays category, marls category, marl-limestones category and microconglomerates category and the varieties of these types. The closure of the

underground space consisted mainly of embankment works, filling works and watertight insulation works of concrete or masonry, resistant in time, respecting the shape and dimensions of the mining works profiles [1]. A very short, concise and easy to understand description of the phenomenon is this that in underground mines, after the extraction of useful minerals from a seam, the stresses inside the massif change which leads to the destruction of the stability of the surrounding rocks. After the stresses inside the surrounding rocks are redistributed, the rocks are set in motion and occupy the space created after the mining. In some cases the shifting of the rocks conglomerate takes place within certain limits, without affecting the integrity of the surface. Most of the times, though, the movement is transmitted to the surface, affecting it and, consequently, degrading civilian and industrial facilities situated within the mining area [2].

A technical obstacle for injection of CO₂ in coal mines is the low initial reservoir pressure, which will be close to atmospheric pressure just after abandonment. Other sequestration systems start injection at pressures where CO₂ is liquid or liquid-like. In coal mines, the initial pressure is often close to atmospheric (Figure 4). If liquid CO₂ would be injected into such a reservoir, then liquid CO₂ would evaporate and cool parts of the reservoir significantly below 0°C. The water present at the injection point freeze and blocks the subsequent injection. The freezing also may damage and collapse parts of the reservoir. Partially the problem can be solved by customising the injection pressure. If CO₂ is transported by pipeline in supercritical phase, then it will come as “liquid” CO₂ at high pressure (110 ÷ 120 bara). A schematic example of customised injection equipment to increase the injection rate of CO₂ at a low density and so prevent freezing of the reservoir when injecting it, can be seen in the figure 4, a, b, c [10].

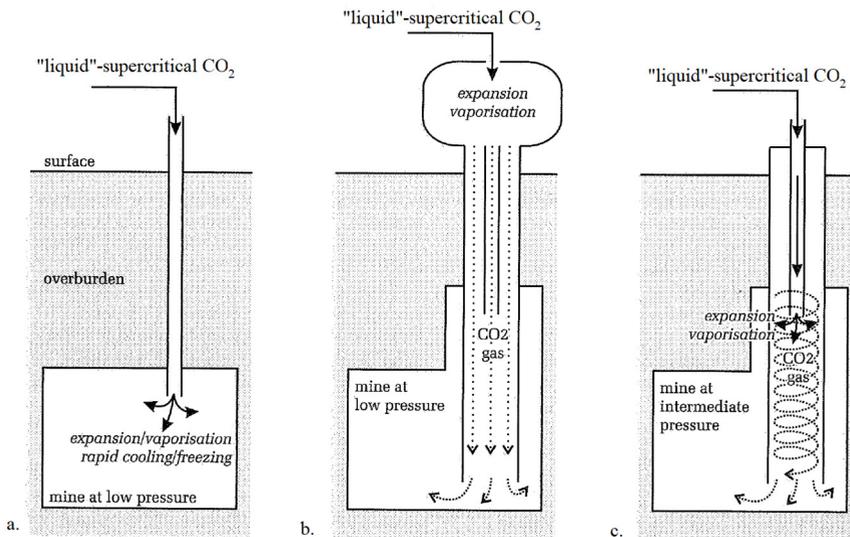


Fig. 4. Schematic example of customised injection equipment [10].

As with depleted gas reservoirs and salt caverns, CO₂ store in coal mines is inspired by storage projects for natural gas in abandoned coal mines, the oldest of which dates back to 1961. The Leyton coal mines, located near Denver Colorado, were in operation from 1903 until 1950, producing 5.4 million tonnes sub-bituminous coal from two horizontal seams at 210 m and 225 m depth in the upper Cretaceous Laramin formation. There are two other abandoned mine converted natural gas storage reservoirs, both located in the gassy Hainaut coalfield in southern Belgium. Piessens and Dusar (2003) have recently carried out a detailed feasibility study on using abandoned coal mines for long-term CO₂ storage, with

special reference to a Belgian colliery, see the Figure 5, for the sites of Peronnes and Anderlues (highlighted with a circle in magenta) [10].

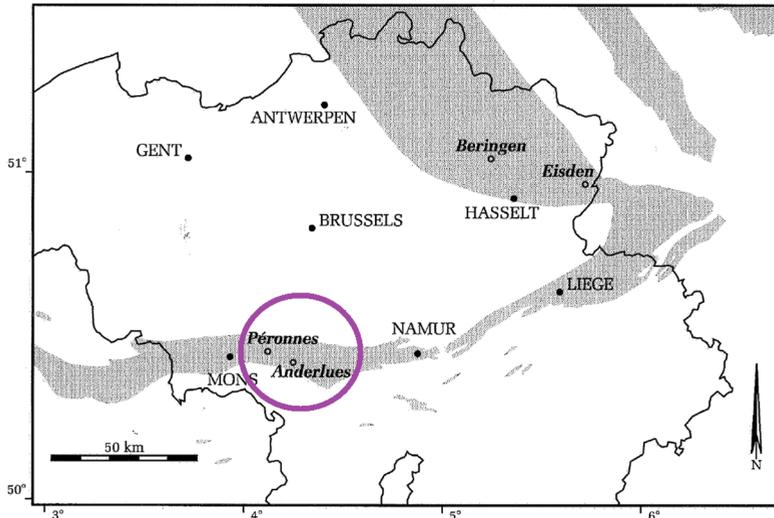


Fig. 5. Map of the outcropping or shallow surface coal basin (gray area) in Belgium [10].

4 Capacity of CO₂ storage

Coal layers considered unusable for technical or economic reasons are proving to be of major importance for the storage of carbon dioxide captured in CCS processes. Coal is characterized by the existence of a large volume of micropores to which different gases have an absorption affinity, a ton of coal being able to absorb more than 25 m³ of methane. At the same time, coal is characterized by a higher affinity for gaseous CO₂ than for methane see the Figure 6, so that the ratio between the volumes of CO₂ and methane (CO₂/CH₄), absorbed in the coal bad can take values from 1 (in the case of anthracite), to 10 or even more in the case of lower quality coals, like lignite.

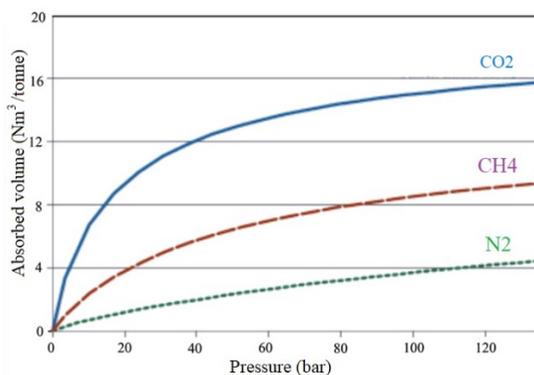


Fig. 6. Absorption curves of different gases in coal [4].

The CO₂ injected, moves through the existing crack slopes on the stratification planes and by diffusion it spreads in the coal bad, being absorbed by the micropores, releasing the existing gases with lower affinity. CO₂ also acts as a plasticizer for coal and under specific conditions of temperature and pressure, the coal changes its state, turning into a plastic

district, faults of post-Carboniferous origin are known to cross the overburden and the roof of the mines. The sequestration capacity of the Anderlues colliery for different amounts of overpressure, assuming that the shafts are sealed at a depth of about 600 m is shown in the figure 8. Calculation is done with CO₂-VR (vertical reservoir) software made by Piessens & Dusar [10]. X-axis: depth of the water table; leftmost Y-axis: amount of sequestered CO₂, right Y-axis: amount of overpressure at the top of the reservoir (600 m), in percentage relative to the hydrostatic pressure [10-20].

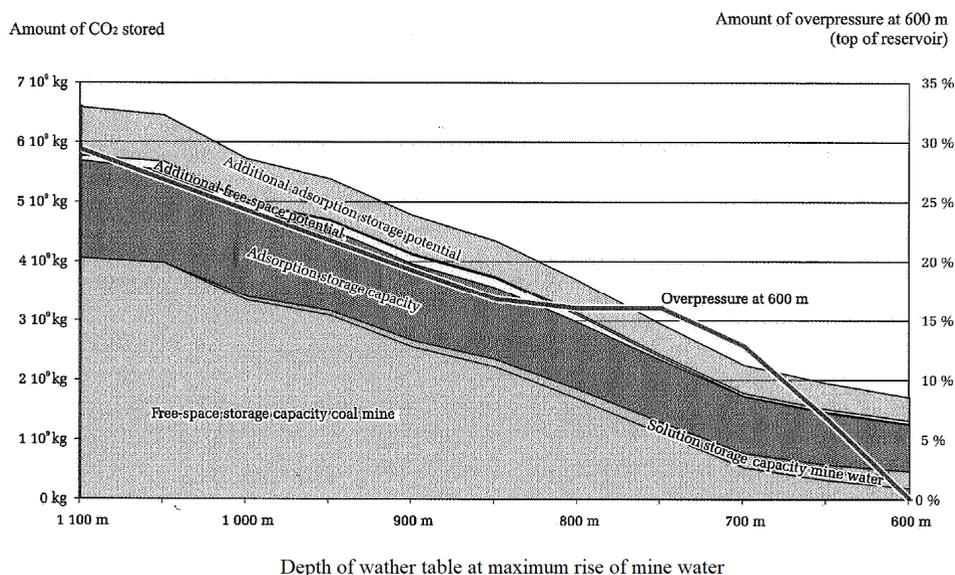


Fig. 8. The sequestration capacity of the Anderlues colliery for different amounts of overpressure, assuming that the shafts are sealed at a depth of about 600 m [10].

Piessens and Dusar (2003) have suggested some special requirements which need to be met in order to obtain a safe and stable reservoir with sufficient capacity. Firstly, the highest level of the mine should be at least 500 m deep, with well-sealed shafts and a tight, dry cap rock. Secondly, in order to prevent mine flooding, the storage pressure should be higher than the hydrostatic pressure of the surrounding strata. This overpressure, typically: hydrostatic pressure + 30% (for high depth) see the figure 8 above, require a stringent leak-proof on the top seal of the reservoir and the existing shafts [10].

5 Production of H₂ from coal mine methane

Over 95% of the world's hydrogen is produced using the steam methane reforming process (SMR). In this reaction, natural gas is reacted with steam at an elevated temperature to produce carbon monoxide and hydrogen. A subsequent reaction - the water gas shift reaction - then reacts additional steam with the carbon monoxide to produce additional hydrogen and carbon dioxide [21].

The reforming reaction with methane as:



The water-gas shift (WGS) reaction is:



From [2] Table 1, the medium of the reserves of coal in the not yet exploited mines: Lonea Pilier, Petrila, Dâlja, Aninoasa, Bârbăteni, Câmpul lui Neag and Valea cu Brazi (Figure 9), is about 110 million tones, at a medium depth of 200 meters. From the same table 1, we have a medium deposit of methane of 543 million m³, and the medium potential of CO₂ that will replace the methane, about 16 million tones.



Fig. 9. The Jiu Valley Coal Basin [22].

If we take from [2] that the price for 1MCF methane is about \$2.00 at the well head, that is about \$56.64/1000 m³, results \$30,755,500/coal mine and \$215,300,000 per all 7 coal mines that have to be explored. If we consider that the mine methane used for a cogeneration plant see the figure 1, and with a cogeneration efficiency at minimum of 75%, the price of the CH₄ recovered will be about \$164,475,000. The CO₂ production and injection underground, from [2] is also about 60÷70% the costs from CH₄ production, that results in a total of \$96,885,000 the value of the CH₄ extracted. If a part of CH₄ is used for hydrogen generation by reforming with CO₂ injection in the coal and if we consider the equations 2 and 3, from 1 mole CH₄ and 1 mole of H₂O we obtain 1 mole CO and 3 mole H₂, and from 1 mole CO and 1 mole H₂O we obtain 1 mole H₂ and 1 mole CO₂ results that from 16 tonnes CH₄ we obtain 8 tonnes H₂. For 0.55 tonnes/1,000m³ CH₄, results 68,750 tonnes H₂ per 1 million m³ CH₄. If we consider from [22] that the price for H₂ reformation is about \$1.48/kg, we can obtain a production of 1000 tonnes H₂, with a price of \$1,480/tonne, means \$101,750/1 mil m³ CH₄ (pure)/68,750 tonnes H₂. For mine gases with 25% CH₄, the price will be greater. From [23] 9.3 kg CO₂/kg H₂ are produced. The CO₂ should also be injected underground and the cycle is repeated.

For CH₄ recovery, a small compressor natural gas station can assure about 5,000 m³/h natural gas flow at 45 bar (abs) [24]. In 1 year (8,000 hours) can be extracted and pumped in the National Pipe System 10 million pure CH₄ from about 40 million m³ mine gas, at 25% vol. purity. The amount of 543 million m³ of CH₄/coal mine, can be extracted in about 14 years that is approaching the 20 years lifetime of a high scale implemented project.

For H₂ recovery, if we consider the \$1.48/kg H₂ produced, the ROI (return of investment) is about 21.63% in 20 years [25]. In 14 years results about 15%, that is a good value for such development scale.

6 Conclusions

The concept of geological storage of CO₂ as a measure to combat climate change dates back to the 1970's, but was not much researched until the early 1990s. First initiatives in the field of geological storage of CO₂ were the storage in deep geological formations of the acid gas mixture (H₂S and CO₂ with small traces of hydrocarbons) from and separated from

some oil fields in the Alberta Basin (Canada) since 1994 (Bachu and Gunter, 2005) and with the start in 1996 of separate CO₂ injection from the gas mixture extracted from the gas field Sleipner (Norway, North Sea) in the sandy Utsira Formation in the first large-scale CCS project [3].

Potential CO₂ reservoirs, implicitly in the case of the Jiu Valley coal basin, must satisfies several criteria, the essential ones being the following:

- sufficient low porosity, low permeability and high storage capacity;
- the presence of an impermeable covering rock (marl, clay, rock salt), which prevents upward migration of CO₂;
- the presence of a trap structure, in other words a structure like the dome, to control CO₂ migration within the reservoir formation;
- located at a depth of over 600 meters, where the pressure and temperature are sufficient raised to allow storage of CO₂ in the supercritical fluid phase to maximize the amount of storage;
- absence of drinking water: CO₂ will not be injected into waters that will be used for consumption and human activities [4].

The hydrocarbon processing industries (HPI) are expanding the production of hydrogen whose demand is approximately 50 million tonnes/year. The hydrogen demand is directed to many different process industries like fats and oil processing, chemicals, pharmaceutical, metallurgy, semiconductor production and aerospace industries. The investments of the capital, the operating costs and primary energy requirements should be evaluated by decision makers [26]. Because the hydrogen can be extracted also by coal gasification, results a great opportunity in reshaping the coal mining industry and transforming the Jiu Valley into green area.

Due to collaboration with University of Petroșani, National Research and Development Institute for Gas Turbines COMOTI start the developing of the storage projects in depleted gas deposits or in depleted or conserved coal or salt mines. The activities of the Research Laboratories of the Petroșani University, are aimed at developing topics with fundamental and applicative impact, in integrative, multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches, in accordance with the priority issues at regional, national and international level, which will ensure the increase of visibility and competitiveness.

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