Electronic Supplementary Information (ESI)

Techno-economic Assessment of Different Small-scale Electrochemical NH³ Production Plants

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Contents

S1 Process Flow Diagrams, Stream Summary and Equipment List

S1.1 Electrified Haber-Bosch

Figure S1. Process flow diagram of the electrified Haber-Bosch process with an alkaline water electrolyzer (AEL). The electrified Haber-Bosch with a proton exchange membrane electrolyzer (PEMEL) is identical, except that the feed-gas compressor (C-2) requires less compression stages.

Table S1. Stream summary of the electrified Haber-Bosch process with AEL (Figure S1).

Table S1 (continued). Stream summary of the electrified Haber-Bosch process with AEL (Figure S1).

Table S2. Equipment list of the electrified Haber-Bosch process with AEL (Figure S1). CW: Cooling water

Table S3. Stream data modification when replacing AEL with PEMEL in the electrified HB process (referring to Figure S1).

Table S4. Equipment data modifications when replacing AEL with PEMEL in the electrified HB process (referring to Figure S1).

S1.2 Aqueous NRR at Ambient Conditions

Figure S2. Process flow diagram of aqueous NRR at ambient conditions with a H₂ purge.

Table S5. Stream summary of the aqueous NRR process with a H₂ purge at a FE of 90% (Figure S2).

Figure S3. Process flow diagram of the aqueous NRR process at ambient conditions including a N₂/H₂ PSA separation step, N₂ recycle stream and storage vessel.

Table S7. Stream summary of the aqueous NRR process at a FE of 90% with a N₂/H₂ PSA (Figure S3).

Table S8. Equipment list of the aqueous NRR process at a FE of 90% with a N₂/H₂ PSA (Figure S3).

S1.3 NRR SOEL with Water Oxidation

Figure S4. Process flow diagram of the NRR SOEL process with water oxidation.

Table

Table S9 (Continued). Stream summary of the NRR SOEL process with water oxidation process at a FE of 90% (Figure S4).

Table S10. Equipment list of the NRR SOEL process with water oxidation process at a FE of 90% (Figure S4).

S1.4 NRR SOEL with Hydrogen Oxidation

Figure S5. Process flow diagram of the NRR SOEL process with hydrogen oxidation including an additional alkaline water electrolyzer.

Table S11. Stream summary of the NRR SOEL process with hydrogen oxidation at a FE of 90% (Figure S5).

Table S11 (Continued). Stream summary of the NRR SOEL process with hydrogen oxidation at a FE of 90% (Figure S5).

Table S12. Equipment list of the NRR SOEL process with hydrogen oxidation at a FE of 90% (Figure S5).

S1.5 Li-mediated NRR

Figure S6. Process flow diagram of the Li-mediated NRR process with hydrogen oxidation and an additional alkaline water electrolyzer.

Table S13. Stream summary of the Li-mediated NRR process at a FE of 90% (Figure S6).

Table S13 (Continued). Stream summary of the Li-mediated NRR process at a FE of 90% (Figure S6).

Table S14. Equipment list of the Li-mediated NRR process at a FE of 90% (Figure S6).

S2 Supplementary Figures

Figure S7. Reboiler duty as a function of the NH₃ mol fraction in the feed.

Figure S8. Standard equilibrium potentials for water electrolysis (blue), aqueous NRR (green) and indirect NRR (red) based on the Gibbs free energy.

Figure S9. Reaction enthalpy diagram for water electrolysis (blue), aqueous NRR (green) and NRR with H₂ oxidation (red).

Figure S10. Reaction entropy diagram for water electrolysis (blue), aqueous NRR (green) and NRR with H₂ oxidation (red).

Figure S11. The Li-NRR electrolyzer energy efficiency at the aspirational values (0.3 A cm⁻² and FE = 90%) including the energy input for H_2 production from water electrolysis.

Figure S12. Standard equilibrium potentials and the Gibbs free energies for mediated NRR and other NRR electrolyzers. Additional energy input for H_2 production via water electrolysis is not included for indirect NRR electrolyzers. The thermodynamic minimum of electrified and SMR Haber-Bosch are also added for referencing. Standard equilibrium potentials for Li, Ca, Mg and Al plating are obtained from Bard & Faulkner.¹

Figure S13. Sensitivity analysis of a small scale (91 tNH₃ per day) SMR HB plant.

Figure S14. LCOA as a function of the electricity price and the electrolyzer costs for (a) electrified Haber-Bosch with AEL, (b) electrified Haber-Bosch with PEMEL, (c) aqueous NRR at ambient conditions with purge scenario, (d) NRR SOEL with water oxidation, (e) NRR SOEL with hydrogen oxidation. Base case assumptions for O_2 , H₂O and energy import prices in 2050 are used. NRR electrolyzers operate at the ARPA-e aspirational values (0.3 A cm^{-2} and FE = 90%).

Figure S15. LCOA versus the FE and *j* for aqueous NRR at base case assumptions in 2050, using a more optimistic electricity price of \$0.02 per kWh.

Figure S16. Sensitivity analysis of the NRR SOEL process with water oxidation at a constant *j* of 0.3 A cm-2 .

Figure S17. LCOA versus the FE and *j* for NRR SOEL with hydrogen oxidation at base case assumptions in 2050, using a more optimistic electricity price of \$0.02 per kWh.

Figure S18. LCOA of mediated NRR processes using an "optimized" zero-gap membrane electrode assembly electrolyzer with (a) Li-NRR, (b) Mg-NRR and (c) Al-NRR.

Figure S19. Current density as a function of the capital intensity, OPEX and LCOA for (a) NRR SOEL with water oxidation and (b) NRR SOEL with hydrogen oxidation at a FE of 90% using the base case assumption in 2050.

S3 Supplementary Tables

Table S15. An overview of the electrochemical model input parameters.

Table S16. Equipment cost data for conventional process units.12-17

Table S17. Cost projections for electrolyzers, electricity, feedstock and commodity prices for conservative, base case and optimistic scenarios. The large collection of AEL and PEMEL cost estimates reported by Glenk et al.,¹⁸ were used for our analysis. Their exponential fitting through the data points was extrapolated until 2050 and used as the base case scenario (for AEL and PEMEL). A collection of their highest and lowest reported estimates were used to inter- and extrapolate a trend until 2050, which was implemented as conservative and optimistic price assumptions. The base case capital costs for water SOEL were taken from Bohm et al., who used technology learning curve models to predict reductions in the manufacturing cost trend over time.¹⁹ Optimistic and conservative price scenarios were extrapolated from survey data from Schmidt et al.²⁰ The equipment costs of the NRR electrolyzers were derived from water electrolyzer data and converted from \$ per unit power to \$ per unit area via their respective power densities (more details discussed in Section S4.9). The optimistic renewable electricity price is interpolated from utility solar PV price forcasts from ref ^{21,22}. The conservative scenario is adapted from Bogdanov et al. (North America).²³ The base case represents the average between the conservative and optimistic scenario. H_2 commodity pricing was extrapolated from ref ²⁴. The base case cost assumption for the $O₂$ price is the average Europe export tariff in 2021.²⁵ Optimistic cost price is the average O₂ price in Belgium in 2021.²⁵ Conservative O₂ price is assumed. Ultrapure H₂O price is 4-11 \$ per m³ based on Hausmann et al. by combining utility PV solar with reverse osmosis.²⁶ The natural gas price was derived by using statistical analysis from the Henry Hub historical data between 1997-2023. The first quartile (optimistic), median (base case) and third quartile (conservative) of the Henry Hub natural gas spot price historical data (1997-2023) were implemented for the scenarios.²⁷ The CO₂ tax is based on the IPCC 2022 mitigation report (chapter 11).²⁸ All data is inflation corrected to 2022.

a Extrapolated costs from Glenk et al.¹⁸

b Extrapolated costs from Schmidt et al and Bohm et al.^{20,19}

 c Average equipment cost between AEL and PEMEL. Converted to \$ per area with a power density of 11.2 kW per m² (see Table S24).

^d \$ per kW price as a water SOEL. Converted to \$ per area with a power density of 5.92 kW per m² (see Table S24).

^e \$ per kW price as a water SOEL. Converted to \$ per area with a power density of 1.59 kW per m² (see Table S24).

^f \$ per kW price as aqueous NRR. Converted to \$ per area with a power density of 35.7 kW per m² (see Table S24).

Table S18. Lang factors adapted from "Smith – Chemical Process Design and Integration".²⁹

Inside Battery Limit (ISBL)	Jм	$1 - 3.4^*$	
	JP.	$1 - 1.9^*$	
		$1 - 2.1$	
	J pip	0.7	
	Jerec	0.4	
	Ji&c	0.2	
	J elec	0.1	

 $C_{ISBL} = C_E \left(f_m f_p f_T \left(1 + f_{pip} \right) + f_{er} + f_{I \& C} + f_{elec} \right) \# (S1)$

 $C_{OSBL} = C_E \left(f_{util} + f_{off - sites} + f_{build} + f_{side prep} \right) \# (S2)$

* Factors are process condition dependent.

Table S19. General assumptions for the OPEX.

S4 Supplementary Methods

S4.1 NRR Electrolyzers

S4.1.1 Gibbs Free Energy and the Equilibrium Potential

The following half-reactions were considered for direct and indirect electrochemical $NH₃$ synthesis.

$$
N_2 + 6H_2O + 6e^- \rightarrow 2NH_3 + 6OH^-
$$
 (NRR)+(S5)
6 OH⁻ $\rightarrow \frac{3}{2}O_2 + 3H_2O + 6e^-$ (OER)+(S6)

$$
N_2 + 3H_2O \rightarrow 2NH_3 + \frac{3}{2}O_2
$$
 (Overall reaction)+(S7)

$$
N_2 + 6H^+ + 6e^- \rightarrow 2NH_3 \ (NRR) \quad #(S8)
$$

$$
3H_2 \rightarrow 6H^+ + 6e^- \ (HOR) \#(S9)
$$

$$
N_2 + 3H_2 \rightarrow 2NH_3 \ (Overall reaction) \#(S10)
$$

The standard Gibbs free energy is the thermodynamic minimum of the reaction (S7 and S10) and can be calculated by Equation S11 using tabulated standard enthalpies and entropies of formation (NIST database) and stoichiometric coefficients of each reactant and product. Equation S12 shows a calculation example for aqueous NRR.

$$
\Delta G^{0} = \Delta H^{0} - T\Delta S^{0} \# (S11)
$$
\n
$$
\Delta G^{0} = \left(\left[v_{O_{2}} \Delta H^{O_{2}}_{f} + v_{NH_{3}} \Delta H^{NH_{3}}_{f} \right] - \left[v_{N_{2}} \Delta H^{N_{2}}_{f} + v_{H_{2}O} \Delta H^{H_{2}O}_{f} \right] \right)
$$
\n
$$
- T \cdot \left(\left[v_{O_{2}} \Delta S^{O_{2}}_{f} + v_{NH_{3}} \Delta S^{NH_{3}}_{f} \right] - \left[v_{N_{2}} \Delta S^{N_{2}}_{f} + v_{H_{2}O} \Delta S^{H_{2}O}_{f} \right] \right)
$$
\n
$$
= ([1.5 \cdot 0 + 2 \cdot - 45.9] - [1 \cdot 0 + 3 \cdot - 285.83])
$$
\n
$$
- 98 \cdot ([1.5 \cdot 205.15 + 2 \cdot 192.77] - [1 \cdot 191.61 + 3 \cdot 69.95]) \cdot 10^{-3}
$$
\n
$$
= (-91.8 + 857.49) - 298 \cdot (693.265 - 401.46) \cdot 10^{-3} = 765.69 - 86.95789
$$
\n
$$
= 678.73211 \, kJ = 339.366 \frac{kJ}{mol \, NH_{3}} = 19.928 \frac{GJ}{tNH_{3}} + (512)
$$
\n#

The standard Gibbs free energy is related to the standard equilibrium potential via the Faraday constant (96485 C/mol). Three electrons are required to produce one mol of NH₃, thus for aqueous NRR:

$$
E_{eq}^{0} = -\frac{\Delta G^{0}}{nF} = -\frac{339366}{3 \cdot 96485.33} = -1.172 V \#(S13)
$$

The equilibrium potential is calculated via the Nernst law with N_2 , O_2 and NH₃ partial pressures of 1, 1 and 0.1 atm, respectively:

$$
E_{eq} = E_{eq}^{0} - \frac{RT}{nF} \ln \left(\frac{p_{NH_3}}{p_{N_2} p_{O_2}^{1.5}} \right) \# (S14)
$$

S4.1.2 Activation Overpotentials and Ohmic Losses

An additional overpotential is required to overcome the activation barrier of an electrochemical reaction. It is estimated that the minimum overpotential for NRR must be at least 0.4 V.^{31,32} The activation overpotential increases with the current density and can be estimated by approximations of the Buttler-Volmer equation. If the exchange current density (*j*0) is relatively small with respect to j (j / j ₀ > 4) the Tafel equation (Equation S15 and S16) can be considered. In case j_0 is large (j / j_0 < 1), which is often the case for high temperature electrolyzers, the hyperbolic sine approximation (Equation S17 and S18) is more appropriate.³³

$$
\eta_{cat} = -\frac{RT}{n_{cat}F\alpha} \ln \frac{j}{j_{0,c}} \text{#(S15)}
$$

 $\eta_{an} = \frac{RT}{R_{F}T_{F}}$ $\frac{RT}{n_{an}F\alpha}$ ln $\frac{j}{j_{0,c}}$ $\frac{1}{j_{0,a}}$ #(S16)

$$
\eta_{cat} = -\frac{RT}{n_{cat}F\alpha} \sinh^{-1} \left(\frac{j}{j_0}\right) \# (S17)
$$

$$
\eta_{an} = \frac{RT}{n_{an}F\alpha} \sinh^{-1} \left(\frac{j}{j_0}\right) \# (S18)
$$

The ohmic losses are associated with the transport of ions in the membrane (Equation S19) and the electrolyte (Equation S20). The membrane transport losses are usually small because they are < 1 mm. On the contrary, the gap between the working and the counter electrode (d_{gap}) in liquid electrolyzers can be up to a few mm thick. This means that electrolytes with a poor conductivity will have a large influence on the overall cell voltage. The concentration overpotential due to mass transport limitations is not considered in this work.

$$
\eta_{mem} = j \cdot d_{mem} \cdot R_{mem} \#(S19)
$$

$$
\eta_{\Omega} = \frac{j \cdot d_{gap}}{\kappa} \#(S20)
$$

S4.2 H_2 Electrolyzers

The energy consumption of the AEL and PEMEL for electrified Haber-Bosch and the indirect NRR processes are based on commercially available models from Nel (A485) and Siemens (Silyzer 300), respectively.³⁴ All relevant details are listed in Table S20.

Table S20. H₂ electrolyzer operating conditions based on commercially available electrolyzers. Data acquired from ref³⁴⁻³⁶.

^a based on the LHV of H₂ (3 kWh Nm⁻³)

S4.3 Air Separation Unit

Pressure swing adsorption (PSA) for air separation is economically attractive at N_2 capacities < 500 t per day.³⁷ The energy consumption of a PSA ASU depends on the purity of the N₂ product stream, which can very between $1.12 - 1.584$ GJ per tN₂ with corresponding purities between 98 – 99.9 vol% N_2 .³⁸ Vast quantities of O_2 can effect the current efficiency, therefore it is desired to have the highest possible N₂ feed purity. Hence, we assume a PSA energy consumption of 1.584 kJ per tN₂. The energy consumption of the cryogenic distillation unit can vary between 0.44 – 1.33 GJ per tN₂, which depends mainly on the N₂ capacity and final gas pressure.³⁸ The N₂ demand for our process is relatively small compared to a industrial scale Haber-Bosch plant, therefore we assume a single cryogenic column, which is less capital intensive, but consumes more energy (1.33 GJ per tN₂).

S4.4 Heat Exchangers, Compressors and Pumps

The necessary heating or cooling duties of all exchangers are calculated in Aspen Plus, which uses the first law of thermodynamics. The actual energy input in the form of work depends on the exchange medium, wherein steam (from an electric boiler) was used for hot utilities, cooling water (CW) for cold utilities up to 35 °C, and various refrigerants for cold utilities < 35 °C. The energy input of the electric steam boiler can simply be calculated with Equation S21 implementing a boiler efficiency of 0.95.39,40

$$
W_{boiler} = \frac{Q_{demand}}{\eta_{boiler}} \, \#(S21)
$$

The amount of required cooling water for the intercoolers is calculated by:

$$
Q_{intercooler} = \dot{m}_{CW} \cdot C_{P,H_2O} \cdot \Delta T \# (S22)
$$

Where Q is obtained from Aspen and a ΔT of 10 °C is assumed. Additional work input is required for the cooling water pumps, which can be calculated by the following heuristic: 41

$$
W_{CW} = \frac{0.0972 \cdot \dot{m}_{CW} \cdot \Delta P}{\eta_{pump}} \, \text{#(S23)}
$$

With \dot{m}_{CW} , the cooling water mass flow obtained from Q_{cool} , ΔP is the pressure drop in the tubing (assumed to be 2 bar) and η_{pump} is 85% for a reciprocating pump.

The cold utilities < 35 °C are based on a Carnot refrigeration cycle, in which the duty of the compressor can be calculated by the coefficient of performance (COP):

$$
COP = \frac{Q}{W_{comp}} = \frac{0.6T_{evap}}{(T_{cond} - T_{evap})} \, \text{#}(S24)
$$

Where T_{evap} is the evaporation temperature of the selected refrigerant and T_{cond} is the temperature of the condenser. We assume a minimum temperature difference of 10 °C between the hot and cold stream (for all heat exchangers). Therefore, T_{cond} is atleast -10 °C lower than the temperature of the hot stream.

The area of all exchangers were obtained from Aspen Plus, which calculates the overall heat transfer coefficient and the logarithmic mean temperature difference between the hot and cold streams (Equation S25). A U-tube and shell type is considered in case *A* > 10 m² . A plate and frame model is selected for smaller heat exchangers. The equipment cost of pumps and refrigeration compressors are also included in the total capital costs.

$Q = U \cdot A \cdot \Delta T_{LM}$ #(S25)

All compressors are simulated in Aspen Plus as polytropic using the ASME calculation method. The pressure ratio is 2.5. The polytropic and mechanical efficiencies are 0.75 and 0.95, respectively. The pressure ratio determines the required compressor stages to reach the desired final pressure. As an example, O_2 needs to be pressurized up to 163 bar to reach market requirements. Therefore, a six multistage compressor including intercoolers is implemented (see Figure S20). We assumed that the 1st intercooler has no Δ*P*, the 2nd intercooler a Δ*P* = 0.5 psi, and the 3rd intercooler a Δ*P* of 1 psi or 1 bar in case the pressure > 15 bar. The total energy input of a multistage compressor can be

$$
W_{comp} = \sum_{i=1}^{No. stages} (W_{stage,i} + W_{CW,i}) \, # (S26)
$$

expressed as

The total equipment cost of the compressor unit includes the individual compressor stages, U-tube and shell intercoolers and CW pumps.

Figure S20. Aspen simulation of a multistage O₂ compressor with intercooling.

S4.5 Distillation

Distillation columns were designed in Aspen Plus using the RADFRAC model. The column was optimized at an NH₃ distillate purity of 99.5% and NH₃ recovery of 99.9%. Figure S7 shows that the $NH₃$ feed composition has a significant influence on the reboiler duty. We assume a NH₃ feed composition of 10 mol% to minimize the reboiler duty. In general, a minimum amount of stages is required to ensure the desired distillate purity. Beyond this minimum, the number of stages is a trade-off between the equipment and operational costs, since more stages reduce the energy input of the condenser and reboiler. Herein, we focused particularly on minimizing the energy input. The column design specs are illustrated in Figure S21.

Figure S21. Example of the RADFRAC model in Aspen Plus (left) and its design specs (right). ELECNRTL was used as the property package.

The column sizing was based on standard methods available in chemical engineering textbooks, such as "Towler and Sinnot - Chemical Engineering Design".¹² The actual number of stages to estimate the column length is calculated via the plate efficiency:

$$
N_{actual} = \frac{N\mathbb{E}_{theoretical}}{\eta_{plate}} \# (S27)
$$

$$
\eta_{plate} = \frac{log(1 + \eta_{mw}(\frac{mV}{L} - 1))}{log(\frac{mV}{L})} \# (S28)
$$

$$
L_C = \frac{N\mathbb{E}_{actual}}{l_{plate}} \# (S29)
$$

With a murphy plate efficiency (η_{mw}) of 0.9 for an ammonia-water mixture,¹² m the slope of the equilibrium line, *l*_{plate} the plate spacing of 0.5 m, V and L the molar vapor and liquid flow rate, respectively. The diameter of the column is obtained with the vapor flow rate and the maximum allowable superficial velocity (*u*v) using the Souders-Brown equation:

$$
D_c = \sqrt{\frac{4V_w}{\pi \rho_v u_v}} = 3.43 \text{ m} \# (530)
$$

$$
u_v = \left(-0.171 l_{plate}^2 + 0.27 l_{plate} - 0.047\right) \left[\frac{\rho_L - \rho_v}{\rho_v}\right]^{0.5} \# (531)
$$

Where V_w is the mass vapor flow rate, ρ_v the distillate density and ρ_L the bottom liquid density. The wall thickness is related to the maximum allowable stress (σ_{max}), D_{c} , and the pressure:

$$
\sigma_{max} = \frac{PD_c + 1.2t_{wall}P}{2t_{wall}} \#(S32)
$$

The design pressure is assumed to be 10% above the working pressure. Values for *σ*_{max} are tabulated for different steels and temperatures, which can be used to extract t_{wall} . In our case, the column is made from stainless steel grade 304. The head and closure of the column are assumed to have a hemicircular shape and require 60% of the column wall thickness. The sum of the column, condenser and reboiler represent the total equipment cost of the distillation unit.

S4.6 Adsorption

The adsorption column was designed and optimized in Aspen Adsorption. The adsorption cycle consists of adsorption, column regeneration by heating under vacuum and cooling. Zeolite 13x is selected as adsorbent material. The gas adsorption equilibrium isotherms were modelled with the Langmuir approach:

$$
q = \frac{q_s \cdot b \cdot p}{1 + b \cdot p} \, \text{#}(S33)
$$

Where, *q* is the adsorbed gas concentration, q_s is the saturation sorbate concentration, *b* is the adsorption equilibrium constant. The kinetics of the adsorption and desorption process is also influenced by temperature. Therefore, the adsorption equilibrium constant for $NH₃$ is expanded in the form of the van 't Hoff equation;⁴²

$$
b_{NH_3} = b_{0,NH_3} \cdot e^{-\frac{\Delta H_{ads,NH_3}}{RT}} + (534)
$$

Table S21. Adsorption equilibrium isotherm data acquired from Helminen et al. and Park et al.42,43

With ΔH_{ads} representing the heat of adsorption that is specific for the adsorbent material. T_{ads} is set to 313 K in order to minimize the cooling cost from the SOEL product stream and regeneration step. The adsorption capacity is generally higher at room temperature. The adsorbed gas concentration $N₂$ and $H₂$ are to some extent inert to the zeolite, hence Equation S34 is not included in the Langmuir model for N_2 and H_2 . The adsorption time, t_{ads} , was set to 600 s, which is slightly before NH₃ breakthrough occurs as shown in Figure S22. The fixed bed mass transfer coefficients for the gases (Equation S35) can be derived from the Colburn-Chilton correlations for the diffusion mass transport (Equation S36 and S37), where v_s is the superficial velocity.⁴⁴

 $k = 1.17 \cdot v_s \cdot Re^{-0.415}Sc^{-0.667}$ #(S35)

$$
j_D = \frac{k}{v_s} \cdot Sc^{0.667} \#(S36)
$$

$$
j_D = 1.17Re^{-0.415} \quad 10 < Re < 2500 \#(S37)
$$

Aspen Adsorption uses time-dependent partial differential equations (PDEs) to solve the mass, momentum and energy balances during the dynamic simulation. The first-order upwind difference scheme (UDS1) with 40 nodes in 1D was used to discretize the PDEs. The material balance equations govern the adsorption kinetics and the mass transfer coefficients which are solved via a linear lumped resistance model. For the momentum balance, the pressure drop is calculated via the Ergun equation.⁴⁵ It is assumed that the column is isothermal. By using the model input parameters of Table S21 and S22, the optimal length (3 m) and diameter (2 m) of the column were obtained from Aspen Adsorption.

Figure S22. (a) Example of the model in the Aspen Adsorption simulation environment. (b) Obtained NH³ breakthrough curve.

Table S22. A summary of the Aspen Adsorption model parameters.

Although not modelled, it is assumed that the fixed bed is heated internally by steam during the regeneration step. Since the volume is relatively large, we assume that t_{rec} is 1500 s. The heat input can be estimated by rewriting the heat balance over the column during the regeneration step:⁵⁰

$$
Q_{reg} = \frac{m_{zeolite} (C_{p,zeolite} \cdot (T_{reg} - T_{ads}) + \Delta H_{ads} \cdot (q_{ads} - q_{reg}))}{t_{reg}} \; \#(S38)
$$

Where, q_{ads} - q_{res} is the work capacity of the fixed bed and T_{res} = 473.15 K. It is not possible to desorb all NH₃, therefore a 90% recovery is assumed. The heat is supplied by steam from an electric boiler with an efficiency of 95%.³⁹ The vacuum pump power is calculated via the following heuristic:⁵¹

$$
W_{vacuum} = 21.4 \cdot (SF)^{0.924} \cdot \#(S39)
$$

$$
\frac{1}{SF} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}m_{NH_3} \cdot \sqrt{273.15 + T_{reg}} \cdot 28.96}{293.15 \cdot Mw_{NH_3} \cdot P_{vacuum}} \cdot \#0.02 < SF < 16 \quad \#(S40)
$$

Where SF is the size factor and \dot{m}_{NH3} is the NH₃ mass flow leaving the column. To calculate the cooling duty in order to reach T_{ads} , the heat of adsorption can be excluded from the heat balance:

$$
Q_{cool} = \frac{m_{zeolite} \cdot C_{p,zeolite} \cdot (T_{reg} - T_{ads})}{t_{cool}} \quad \#(S41)
$$

With t_{cool} = 1100 s (assumed). Nonetheless, the usage of cooling water will only include the work of the cooling pump as explained earlier in section S4.4. Hence, the total energy input for the adsorption column is:

$$
W_{ads} = W_{compression} + \frac{Q_{reg}}{\eta_{steam}} + W_{vacuum} + W_{CW} \# (S42)
$$

By combing the adsorption, regeneration and cooling time in an adsorption schedule (Figure S23), six adsorption columns are required to enable continuous operation. Thus, the equipment cost of the adsorption unit consist of 6 columns, 1 compressor, 1 vacuum pump and a CW pump.

Figure S23. Adsorption, regeneration and cooling schedule of six adsorption columns.

S4.7 Storage Tanks

NH₃ is stored at -33 °C and 1 atm in a refrigerated double walled storage tank. The capacity of the storage tank is designed to accommodate 30 days of continuous production plus 10% freeboard.¹⁵ The internal tank has a total volume of 4400 m³ when taking a liquid NH₃ density of 682 kg per m³. The internal tank is sized by $D_{int}/H_{int} = 0.75$ as a heuristic. The diameter of the external tank is 2 m wider than $D_{internal}$, while keeping the height constant. An additional refrigeration cycle is designed to reduce NH₃ boil-off losses, which are assumed to be 0.04% of the production capacity.¹⁵

Figure S24. Refrigeration loop to recycle the NH₃ boil-off gasses.

S4.8 Haber-Bosch Synthesis Loop

For the electrified Haber-Bosch process with AEL, the feed gas compressor is simulated as a 6th stage compressor with CW intercoolers. The recycle stream enters the multistage compressor in the 6th stage (see Figure S1), but is simulated separately in Aspen (Figure S25).

Figure S25. Aspen Plus simulation of the feed gas compressor in the electrified Haber-Bosch process.

Figure S26 shows the synthesis loop with heat integration, the reactor, condensation and a flash drum. The heat exchangers, including the coolers have a pressure drop of 1 bar. The Haber-Bosch reactor is modelled as a stoichiometric reactor (RStoic) at 400 °C and 155 bar with reaction S43.

 $N_2 + 3 H_2 \rightarrow 2 NH_3 \# (S43)$

The Haber-Bosch reaction is exothermic, thus for convenience, the heat of reaction (53.8 kJ per mol) was added separately to the product stream. The product stream was used in the heat exchanger network for heat transfer to the reactant stream. Although not implemented here, it is possible to produce additional low pressure (1.57 GJ per tNH₃) or medium pressure steam (0.87 GJ per tNH₃) from the remaining heat for energy export.

The reactor is sized based on the catalyst bed. The total amount of required catalyst is calculated via Temkin-Pyzhev kinetics given by Equations S44-S46.¹⁵ The input parameters are summarized in Table S23.

$$
r_{NH_3} = 2 \cdot M w_{NH_3} \frac{f}{\rho_{cat}} \left(k_1 \cdot \frac{p_{N_2} \cdot p_{H_2}^{1.5}}{p_{NH_3}} - k_2 \frac{p_{NH_3}}{p_{H_2}^{1.5}} \right) \left[\frac{kg NH_3}{kg \, cat \, hr} \right] \# (S44)
$$

\n
$$
k_1 = 1.79 \cdot 10^4 \cdot e^{-\frac{20800}{RT}} \# (S45)
$$

\n
$$
k_2 = 2.57 \cdot 10^{16} \cdot e^{-\frac{47400}{RT}} \# (S46)
$$

Table S23. Haber-Bosch reaction kinetic data.

The dimensions of the catalyst bed can be scaled according to a reference reactor as is further discussed in Morgan et al. (page 142). Using this method, the height and diameter of the bed is 6.98 m and 0.58 m, respectively. Catalyst costs are categorized as consumables, which are listed as operational costs (see Table S19).

The flash drum has a 5 min half-full hold-up time,⁵² thus with a liquid NH₃ stream of 123 L per min, the necessary volume is 1.23 m³. As a heuristic, we assume an optimal L/D of 3, which can range between 2.5-5 m.⁵² Thus, D and L are 0.8 m and 2.4 m, respectively. The wall thickness of both the reactor and the flash drum is calculated with a similar approach as the distillation column for the equipment cost.

Figure S26. Aspen Plus simulation of the Haber-Bosch synthesis loop. RKS-BM was used as the property package.

S4.9 Techno-economic Assumptions

The capital costs of the NRR electrolyzers were derived from cost projections of commercial H₂O electrolyzers. Since these are given in \$ per unit power (\$ per kW), we used this metric as a base price. For the aqueous NRR and the Li-NRR electrolyzer, we assumed that their respective price is somewhere between the AEL and PEMEL, thus C_{ENRR} = $(C_{E,AEL} + C_{E,PEMEL})/2$. The costs (in \$ per kW) of the NRR SOEL are assumed to be the same as a water SOEL. The power density (kW per m^2) is used to convert \$ per kW to \$ per m². The latter is more useful if the *j* is used for the sensitivity analysis. Figure S27 shows that the \$ per kW metric is insensitive to changes in the *j* because it is related to the electrolyzer power, which increases linearly with respect to the *j*, while the required electrode area decays exponentially with the *j*. For water electrolyzers, this issue is less relevant because the cost metrics (\$ per kW) are already based on their performance criteria (0.4 A cm⁻² for AEL and 2 A cm⁻² for PEMEL).^{20,34} Estimating the power density is somewhat arbitrary because its value depends strongly on the selected *j* and *E*cell. To be consistent, a *j* of 0.4 A cm-2 (based on commercial AEL) was selected for all electrolyzers. The corresponding E_{cell} for AEL and PEMEL were taken from Buttler and

Spliethoff.³⁴ The E_{cell} (at 0.4 A cm⁻²) of the NRR electrolyzers were calculated with our electrochemical model.

Equipment Costs of an Aqueous NRR Electrolyzer

Figure S27. Comparison between two different methods for calculating the electrolyzer equipment cost. The Aqueous NRR electrolyzer is used as an example with cost data from Table S24.

The capital cost estimates of the electrolyzers for 2025 and 2050 are listed in Table S24. The capital costs of the AEL in 2025 (\$8119 per m²) are similar to earlier reported estimates (\$5250 and \$7800 per m²).^{20,53,54} It is evident that PEMEL (\$10502 per m²) is currently (2025) more expensive than AEL due to the requirement of expensive metals, such as Pt and IrO_x. Even higher estimates of ~\$30000 per $m²$ for PEMEL were reported elsewhere.⁵⁵ The stack of the AEL and PEMEL are usually around 40-50% of the total costs. The other 50-60% are system related equipment (balance of plant), such as rectifiers, heat exchangers, compressors, gas purifiers and storage facilities.⁵⁶ This means that the balance of plant (BoP) is different for each electrolyzer system.

The aqueous NRR electrolyzer is roughly 1.5 times more expensive (\$15876 per m²) than the PEMEL, which is justifiable because of the increased complexity of a GDE-type system. H_2O SOEL capital costs in the literature vary between \$5600-16000 per $m²$ with a more optimistic estimate from Schmidt et al. (\$5600 per m²),²⁰ and more conservative from Ramdin et al. (~\$16000 per m²).⁵⁴ In our case, the capital costs of the NRR SOEL with water (\$15912 per m²) is more comparable with the conservative estimate, while the NRR SOEL with H₂ (\$4287 per m²) is more similar to the estimate from Schmidt et al. NRR SOEL with H_2 oxidation is generally more stable and has a lower voltage drop across the ceramic material. This could mean that less reinforcement material is required with respect to NRR SOEL with H₂O oxidation, leading to a relatively lower stack cost. Additionally, the NRR SOEL with H₂ consumes less power, which can indicate that smaller and cheaper rectifiers are necessary.

The capital costs of the Li-NRR electrolyzer (\sim \$50000 per m²) is somewhat comparable to the chloralkali process (~\$30000 per m²),⁵³ which is known to be capital intensive. Our cost of merit is reasonable considering the complexity of the Li-NRR system (GDE-based, organic electrolyte, moisture free operation, etc) and the fact that the power density is higher than the chlor-alkali electrolyzer (35.7 vs. 15 kW per m²).

At last, it is expected that future electrolyzers will become significantly cheaper due to constant investment in research & development and scale-up of the manufacturing capacity.²⁰ This is reflected in our capital cost estimates for 2050, which allowed us to investigate the relationship between electrolyzer costs and the LCOA, but also to estimate the necessary cost reductions to achieve SMR Haber-Bosch parity.

Quantity	Unit	AEL	PEMEL	Aqueous NRR	NRR SOEL with H_2O	NRR SOEL with H_2	Li-NRR
j	A $cm-2$	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
E_{cell} [a]	V	$1.7^{[34]}$	$1.6^{[34]}$	2.8	1.5	0.4	8.9
P_{density}	kW m ⁻²	6.8	6.4	11.2	5.92	1.59	35.7
C_{E} (2025)	$$2022}$ kW ⁻¹	1194	1641	1418	2688	2688	1418
C_{E} (2050)	$\frac{1}{2022}$ kW ⁻¹	564 [18]	482 [18]	523 ^[b]	758 ^[c]	758 ^[c]	523 ^[b]
C_{E} (2025)	$\frac{1}{2022}$ m ⁻²	8119	10502	15876	15912	4287	50572
C_{E} (2050)	$$2022}$ m ⁻²	3835	3085	5854	4486	1209	18649
Quantity	Unit	Li-NRR (MEA)	Mg-NRR (MEA)	AI-NRR (MEA)			
j	A $cm-2$	0.4	0.4	0.4			
E_{cell} ^[a]	V	3.8	3.1	2.5			
P_{density}	kW m ⁻²	15	12.5	9.8			
$C_{\rm E}$ (2025)	$$2022}$ kW ⁻¹	1418	1418	1418			
C_{E} (2050)	$$2022}$ kW ⁻¹	523 $[b]$	523 [b]	523 [b]			
C_{E} (2025)	$$2022}$ m ⁻²	21270	17725	13896			

Table S24. Electrolyzer equipment cost estimation.

^a E_{cell}for the NRR electrolyzers are calculated at 0.4 A cm⁻² using the assumptions from Table S15. ^b Average between AEL and PEMEL. ^c Assumed same price as a water SOEL.²⁰ MEA stands for membrane electrode assembly.

The following set of equations are used to calculate the levelized cost of ammonia (LCOA), which is the $NH₃$ selling price at which the end-of-life net present value (NPV) is equal to zero:

Revenue = LCOA · NH₃ capacity + H₂ price · H₂ capacity + O₂ price · O₂ capacity#(S47)

Gross profit = $Revenue - OPEX# (S48)$

 \overline{a}

 $Net profit = Gross profit - (Gross profit - Depreciation) \cdot Tax rate \#(S49)$

$$
Depreciation = \frac{Total\ equipment\ cost - Salvage\ value \cdot Total\ equipment\ cost}{Plant\ years} \#(S50)
$$

 $Cash Flow = Net profit + Depreciation # (S51)$

$$
NPV = 0 = \sum_{t=1}^{n} \frac{Cash Flow}{(1 + interest rate)^t} - total capital costs#(S52)
$$

In the $0th$ year (t = 0), the total capital costs are invested into the construction of the plant, while there is no revenue nor operational expenses. It is assumed that the plant is fully operational in year one (t ≥ 1). We used 25% tax rate, 25% salvage value and 4.28% interest rate with a linear depreciation scheme.

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