



Design of an Off-Grid Solar-Driven System for Dual-Layer Carbon Capture System Integrating Algae and Seashell

BY

MS. APATCHA SATANYORHIN 63011102

**A PROJECT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF BACHELOR OF
ENGINEERING IN ENERGY
KING MONGKUT'S INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY LADKRABANG
ACADEMIC YEAR 2023**

| | |
|-----------------|---|
| Project Title | DESIGN OF AN OFF-GRID SOLAR-DRIVEN SYSTEM FOR DUAL-LAYER CARBON CAPTURE SYSTEM INTEGRATING ALGAE AND SEASHELL |
| Student Name | MISS APATCHA SATANYOTHIN |
| Degree | Bachelor of Engineering |
| Major | Energy Engineering |
| Project Advisor | Dr. Methawee Nukunudompanich, D. Eng |
| Academic Years | 2023 |

ABSTRACT

The study of the efficiency of CO₂ reduction and PV power generation of the dual-layer carbon capture integrating off-grid solar-driven system for 12 days by culture algae with a volume of 6.0 L of dechlorinated water with nutrient 1.0 g L⁻¹ NaCl, air was bubbled into the bottom of the tank with air pump 14 L/min, the ratio of natural light to 6 watts of LED blue lights is 12:12. Combined with layer of 600.5 g of crushed seashell with water to enhance the absorption of carbon dioxide in a working volume of 6.0 L. The study revealed the average CO₂ reduction efficiency of the dual-layer carbon capture system was 54.6%, with the highest efficiency recorded on day 7 at 69.1%, and the lowest on day 12 at 34.6%. The dissolution of calcium carbonate in the shell tank helped buffer CO₂ levels. Additionally, the off-grid solar system provided sufficient power to sustain the experiment throughout the 12 days. The produced power at 10.00 was fluctuated contrasting with at 17.00 that behaved in the stable range. The pH values of both the algae and seashell tanks exhibited notable trends, with the algae tank showing a decrease initially before stabilizing, while the shell tank maintained an alkaline pH attributed to shell dissolution. Observation of the tanks revealed significant algae growth and cleaner water in the shell tank.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The thesis of "Design of an Off-Grid Solar-Driven System for Dual-Layer Carbon Capture System Integrating Algae and Seashell" has been successfully completed. I wish to extend my sincere gratitude to all individuals who contributed to this achievement through their assistance, guidance, and support.

I am particularly grateful to Dr. Methawee Nukuludomphannich, Lectuer in the Department of Industrial Engineering, for serving as my thesis advisor. Her invaluable guidance and encouragement were instrumental in overcoming various challenges encountered during the research process.

Also, would like to express my appreciation to Miss. Neeraphat Kunbuala for her expertise, advice, and support, which greatly contributed to the successful completion of this thesis.

Special thanks are due to Mr. Sittichai Boonkit for his assistance in the practical construction of the project's structure and his unwavering support throughout the thesis.

Lastly, I extend heartfelt thanks to my parents and all other supporters for their constant encouragement and assistance in various aspects, which ultimately led to the accomplishment of this thesis. It is my sincere hope that this research will prove beneficial to the field of biological carbon capture and solar cell installation design, as well as to those with an interest in these areas.

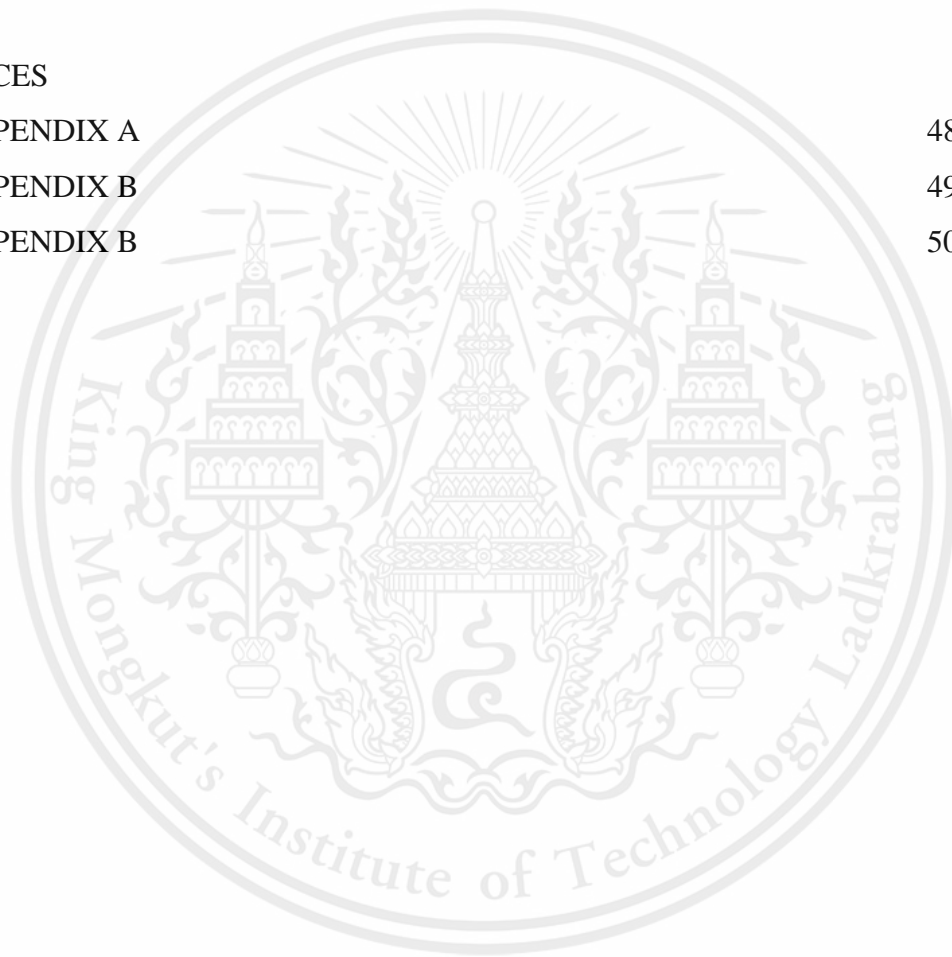
Miss. Apatcha Satanyothin

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | Page |
|--|-------|
| ABSTRACT | (i) |
| ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS | (ii) |
| LIST OF TABLES | (iii) |
| LIST OF FIGURES | (ix) |
| LIST OF SYMBOLS/ABBREVIATIONS | (x) |
| CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION | |
| 1.1 Background and importance | 1 |
| 1.2 Objectives of study | 4 |
| 1.3 Scope | 4 |
| 1.4 Expected benefits | 5 |
| 1.5 Research schedule | 5 |
| CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW | 7 |
| 2.1 Energy consumption and CO ₂ | 7 |
| 2.2 Carbon capture | 8 |
| 2.2.1 Physical carbon capture method | 8 |
| 2.2.2 Biological carbon capture method | 9 |
| 2.3 Microalgae | 11 |
| 2.4 Mussel shell waste | 12 |
| 2.5 Shell dissolution | 13 |
| 2.6 Dry weight and wet weight measurement | 15 |

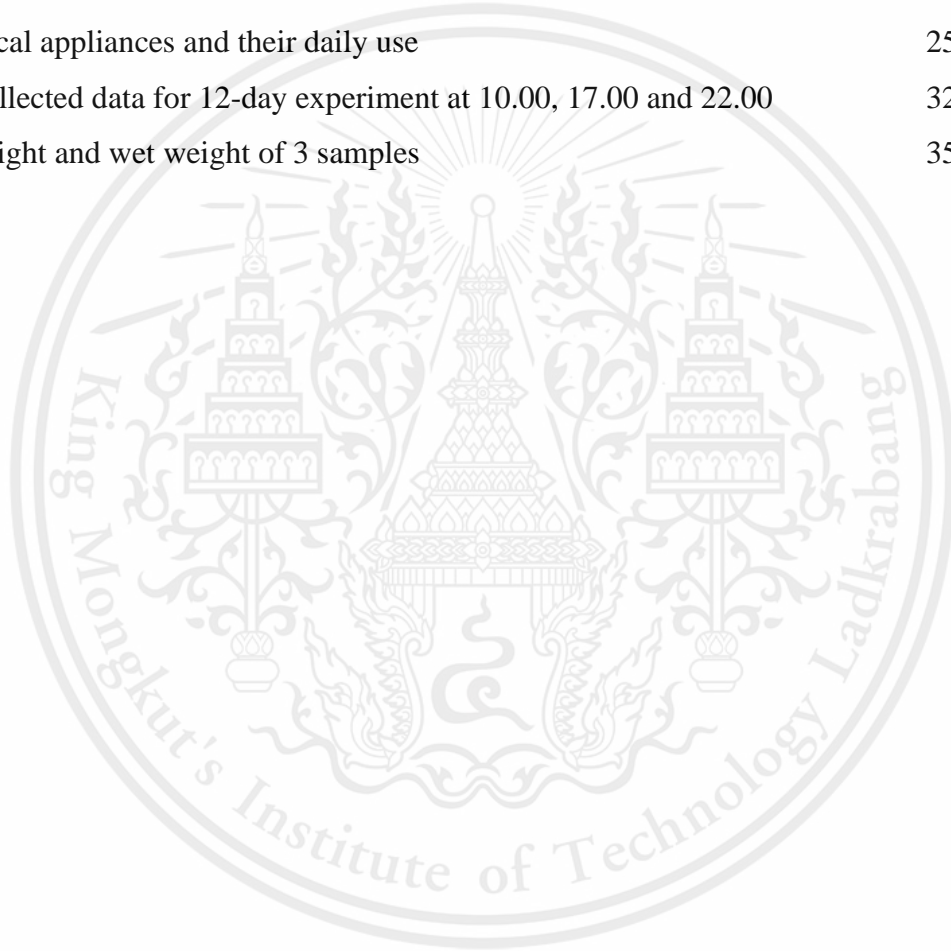
| | |
|--|-----------|
| 2.7 On-grid and Off-grid solar system | 16 |
| 2.8 Power performance of solar system | 17 |
| 2.9 Efficiency of CO ₂ reduction | 18 |
| 2.10 Related research | 18 |
| CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY | 20 |
| 3.1 Material | 20 |
| 3.2 Structural construction | 21 |
| 3.3 Algae system preparation | 22 |
| 3.4 Mussel shell system preparation | 23 |
| 3.5 Water dechlorinating | 24 |
| 3.6 Off-grid solar-driven system | 26 |
| 3.6.1 Load calculation for total energy | 25 |
| 3.6.2 PV module sizing | 25 |
| 3.6.3 Solar charge controller sizing | 26 |
| 3.6.4 Battery sizing | 26 |
| 3.6.5 Inverter sizing | 27 |
| 3.6.6 Solar system set up | 27 |
| 3.7 System operation and experiment | 28 |
| CHAPTER 4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULT | 31 |
| 4.1 Data collection results | 31 |
| 4.2 Algae characterization | 34 |
| 4.2.1 Laser microscope analysis | 34 |
| 4.2.2 Dry weigh measurement | 35 |
| 4.3 Shell characterization | 36 |
| 4.4 The efficiency of CO ₂ reduction | 36 |
| 4.5 The Power performance in off-grid solar system | 38 |
| 4.6 The pH value of algae and seashell tank | 38 |
| 4.7 Algae tank and shell tank observation | 40 |
| 4.7.1 Algae tank observation | 40 |

| | |
|-------------------------------------|----|
| 4.7.2 Shell tank observation | 41 |
| CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSION | 42 |
| 5.1 Summary of experimental results | 42 |
| 5.2 Suggestion | 43 |
| REFERENCES | 44 |
| APPENDICES | |
| APPENDIX A | 48 |
| APPENDIX B | 49 |
| APPENDIX B | 50 |



LIST OF TABLES

| Tables | Page |
|---|------|
| 1.1 The research schedule | 5 |
| 2.1 Comparative description of different physical carbon capture technologies | 9 |
| 2.2 Overview of the mechanisms and limitations of biological carbon capture | 10 |
| 2.3 Configurations of the seven UVic model versions | 13 |
| 3.1. Electrical appliances and their daily use | 25 |
| 4.1 Raw collected data for 12-day experiment at 10.00, 17.00 and 22.00 | 32 |
| 4.2 Dry weight and wet weight of 3 samples | 35 |



LIST OF FIGURES

| Figures | Page |
|---|------|
| 1.1 Global emissions from fossil fuels | 1 |
| 2.1 Simulated time series | 14 |
| 2.2 Off-grid and on-grid solar system | 17 |
| 3.1. Drawing of structural system | 21 |
| 3.2. Drawing of bottom and middle aluminum plates | 21 |
| 3.3(a). System Drawing | 22 |
| 3.3(b). Off-Grid solar energy system structure | 22 |
| 3.4. Flow chart showing the process of algae preparation | 23 |
| 3.5. Flow chart showing the process of mussel shells preparation | 23 |
| 3.6. Diagram of off-grid solar power system connecting with loads | 28 |
| 3.7 Diagram of algae cultivation tank and shell tank operation | 29 |
| 4.1 The characterization of sample algae compared with some of the algal species | 34 |
| 4.2 Photo of algae before and after drying | 35 |
| 4.3 XRD result of mussel shell powder | 36 |
| 4.4 The CO ₂ reduction efficiency of the two-layer carbon capture system | 37 |
| 4.5 Power produced from an off-grid solar cell system at 10:00 and 17.00 | 38 |
| 4.6 The pH of the algae and shell tank for 12 days | 39 |
| 4.7 Pictures of algae cultivation in a algae tank over 12 days | 40 |
| 4.8 Pictures of shells dissolving in a shell tank over 12 days | 41 |

LIST OF SYMBOLS/ABBREVIATIONS

| Symbols/Abbreviations | Terms |
|-------------------------------|--|
| CCS | Carbon capture and storage |
| CCU | Carbon capture and utilization |
| EPA | The US Environmental Protection Agency |
| NEPA | The Energy Policy and Planning Office |
| PV | Photo voltaic |
| MOFs | Metal-organic frameworks |
| ALK | Alkalinity |
| SAT | Surface air temperature |
| OAE | Ocean alkalinity enhancement |
| NaCl | Sodium chloride |
| DCW | Dry cell weight |
| XRD | X-ray diffraction |
| DC | Direct current |
| AC | Alternating current |
| CO ₂ | Carbon dioxide |
| CaCO ₃ | Calcium carbonate |
| Ca ²⁺ | Calcium ions |
| HCO ₃ ⁻ | Bicarbonate ions |
| H ⁺ | Hydrogen ion |

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will discuss the background and importance, objectives, scope, expected benefits, and procedures for carrying out the design of an off-grid solar-driven system for dual-layer carbon capture system integrating algae and seashell research, as shown in the following section

- 1.1 Background and importance
- 1.2 Objectives of the study
- 1.3 Scope of study
- 1.4 Expected benefits
- 1.5 Operation procedures

1.1 Background and importance

Global carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions stemming from fossil fuel sources and cement production over the years. Beginning from 1960 at 9.34 billion metric tons, emissions steadily increased to 36.44 billion metric tons by 2019. This upward trend highlights the significant environmental concern posed by escalating atmospheric carbon dioxide levels, primarily attributed to the combustion of fossil fuels.

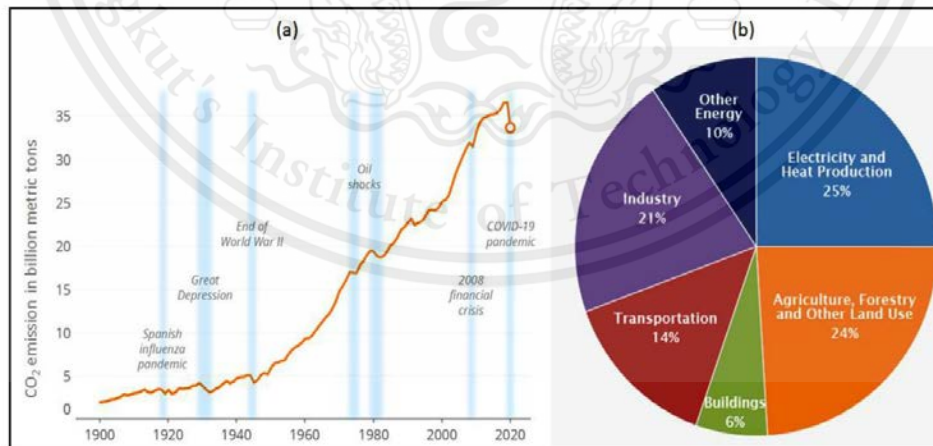


Figure 1.1 Global emissions from fossil fuels: (a) patterns in billion metric tons of CO₂ between 1900 and 2020 [1], and (b) emissions originating from various sectors of the economy [2].

The historical data on global CO₂ emissions reveals occasional declines associated with crises such as pandemics, economic downturns, and conflicts, as depicted by vertical blue lines in Figure 1.1a. For instance, during the 1918 Spanish flu pandemic, CO₂ emissions saw a significant 14% decrease, followed by a 15% rebound in 1920. Similarly, the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 led to a 6.4% drop in global CO₂ emissions (equivalent to 2.3 billion tons), underscoring the temporary nature of emission reductions during crises. According to the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) data from 2010, the primary contributors to CO₂ emissions were electricity and heat production, agriculture, forestry, and land use, and industrial activities. Transportation sectors accounted for 14% of global carbon emissions, while emissions from buildings constituted approximately 6%, as illustrated in Figure 1.1b. The global lockdown measures implemented during the COVID-19 pandemic, particularly those restricting transportation, resulted in immediate, short-term environmental benefits, including improved air quality and reduced emissions.

For Thailand, there has been an improvement in economic conditions, leading to increased energy demand. Consequently, CO₂ emissions from energy use in the first half of 2022 rose by 6.7% compared to the same period last year [3]. The Energy Policy and Planning Office (NEPA) reported that CO₂ emissions from energy use in Thailand during this period were at 131.8 million tons, with increases observed in the transportation and industrial sectors, among others, while emissions from the electricity production sector decreased. Over the past years, there has been a consistent upward trend in CO₂ emissions from energy use in Thailand, rising from 145.5 million tons in 1998 to 263.4 million tons in 2018, averaging an annual increase of 3.0%. This trend aligns with the country's average energy consumption growth of 3.7% per year.

Efforts aimed at reducing atmospheric CO₂ levels encounter significant financial and environmental challenges when employing physical and chemical methods. However, carbon capture offers promising opportunities for economic advancement, including incentives within carbon markets, prevention of costly environmental crises linked to unchecked climate change, and the transformation of CO₂ into valuable products and renewable energy sources.

Carbon capture and sequestration technology has emerged as a significant approach with the potential to effectively address carbon emissions to the atmosphere. This technology involves capturing carbon and either storing it or utilizing it for alternative purposes. There are two main categories of carbon capture technologies that have gained attention in recent years: physical and

biological. Despite its promise, the physical method of carbon capture and sequestration has been found to have drawbacks, including high operational costs due to substantial energy consumption. For instance, the carbon capture unit at the Shanghai power plant in China incurred energy consumption costs amounting to approximately 40% of the total operational expenses of the power plant itself [4].

In the biological method, green plants are employed to convert carbon into energy necessary for their own survival. Initially, this process primarily involved terrestrial plants like trees. However, recent research indicates that microalgae exhibit greater potential for carbon capture and sequestration compared to terrestrial plants. Overview of the potential of microalgae for CO₂ sequestration, there is reported that microalgae are capable of capturing and sequestering carbon at rates 10 to 50 times higher than those of terrestrial plants [5]. This finding suggests that the use of microalgae for carbon capture and sequestration offers notable advantages over other technologies. Microalgae, a group of photosynthetic microorganisms including both unicellular and multicellular species have garnered increased interest in recent years. Their rapid growth rate relative to terrestrial plants makes them well-suited for carbon fixation through photosynthesis. Furthermore, as microalgae grow, they can serve as feedstock materials for the production of biofuels. This characteristic renders microalgae a sustainable biomaterial for carbon capture and sequestration, contributing minimal pollution to the environment.

Especially moss, which is a type of algae that humans often try to remove and clean. Moss is a type of single-celled algae that grows and adheres to areas with flowing water because the flowing water has both oxygen and carbon dioxide and the right temperature combined with the right amount of light, these algae will grow until it clings to a green patch. Some groups tend to stick together in groups, some groups cling to wet area, on the rock, some groups are in the water or underwater, each group has a different color depending on what types of algae there are in moss. In The Use of Alga as Water Quality Indicator in Sansab Canal study [6], when these mosses collected from Sansab Canal were looked at, they found groups of algae that matched the AARL-PP SCORE guide, including *Chlorella Oscillatoria* sp. and *Monoraphidium* sp.. In addition, from the research results it was found that micro-algae *Monoraphidium* sp. are expected to have the greatest contribution to CO₂ reduction, decreasing from 31.0% to 10.0% [7], while *Oscillatoria* sp. and *Chlorella* sp. have been identified as being equally effective at capturing CO₂ [8]. However, algae are living things that have a limited lifespan. The study and comparison of *Chlorella* sp.

Scenedesmus sp. and *Spirulina* sp. [9] found that algae had the highest efficiency in fixing carbon dioxide for 10 days, after which the fixation of carbon dioxide tended to decrease with increasing time.

Another solution for biological carbon capture is seashells, primarily composed of calcium carbonate (CaCO_3). The shells left after consumption can help reduce carbon through a chemical reaction from the dissolution of the shells (Shell dissolution). Zhang *et al.* [10] found that the dissolution of shells can reduce the amount of CO_2 in the atmosphere, increases the alkalinity of the ocean and increases its ability to absorb carbon. The research also predicts that the seashell melting effect will reduce atmospheric CO_2 levels by 100-437 ppm by 3500, compared to simulations without seashell melting. It would also help reduce the problem in regions with large seafood industries like Thailand of having to contend with large amounts of shell waste from the processing of mussels, clams, and oysters, and help increase the value of this waste into advanced technology.

This study proposes for creative solutions focused on repurposing this waste generated by consumers. The researchers aimed to create a dual-layer carbon capture system by utilizing mussel waste, which is rich in CaCO_3 , and microalgae. To enhance the reduction of carbon dioxide emissions, an off-grid solar cell system is integrated, enabling installation in any location without requiring connection to electricity.

1.2 Objectives

- 1.2.1 To create carbon capture system using dual-layer, algae and seashell for CO_2 reduction
- 1.2.2 To integrate an off-grid solar-driven system for dual-layer carbon capture system with algae and seashell
- 1.2.3 To study carbon dioxide reduction and PV power generation by dual-layer carbon capture system integrating algae and seashell

1.3 Scope

- 1.3.1 Seashells: Mussel shells purchased from Thipnaree market, Bang Phli District, Samut Prakan Province, Thailand.
- 1.3.2 Algae: Algae collected from the pond, Khlong Sam, Khlong Luang, Pathum Thani province, Thailand.

1.3.3 Parameter: Efficiency of CO₂ reduction and PV power generation from off-grid solar system

1.4 Expected benefits

1. Gives an understanding of the level of efficiency in reducing carbon dioxide together by algae and seashell.
2. Be beneficial in developing the use of waste to biological carbon capture.

1.5 Research schedule

The research schedule of this research study is shown in Table 1.1

Table 1.1 The research schedule

| Task | Month 1 | Month 2 | Month 3 | Month 4 | Month 5 | Month 6 | Month 7 |
|---|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| | Sep. | Oct. | Nov. | Dec. | Jan. | Feb. | Mar. |
| 1. Start and Research | ↔ | | | | | | |
| 2. Design and Prototype | ↔ | → | | | | | |
| 3. Component Preparation | ↔ | → | | | | | |
| 4. Structural and Component Integration | | | ↔ | → | | | |
| 5. Set Up Power System | | | | ↔ | → | | |
| 6. Test and Collect data | | | | | | ↔ | |
| 7. Report Preparation | | | | | | | ↔ |

1.6 Report Outline

The rest of this report is organized as follows:

Chapter 2 reviews the literature in carbon capture system algae, seashell, off-grid solar system, the process of reduction and power generation.

Chapter 3 describes the design and methodology of an off-grid solar-driven system for dual-layer carbon capture system integrating algae and seashell.

Chapter 4 discusses the data recorded, measurements, or observation.

Chapter 5 closes the report, reviewing the work undertaken and draws conclusions about key parts of the work that was undertaken.



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter discusses the details, theory, and research involved in Design of an off-grid solar-driven system for dual-layer carbon capture system integrating algae and seashell which following the section below.

- 2.1 Energy consumption and CO₂
- 2.2 Carbon capture
- 2.3 Microalgae
- 2.4 Mussel shell waste
- 2.5 Shell dissolution
- 2.6 Dry weight and wet weight measurement
- 2.7 On-grid and Off-grid solar system
- 2.8 Power performance of solar system
- 2.9 Efficiency of CO₂ reduction
- 2.10 Related research

2.1 Energy consumption and CO₂

The relationship between energy consumption and CO₂ emissions is a fundamental aspect of the global energy landscape and climate change mitigation efforts. Energy consumption, particularly from fossil fuels such as coal, oil, and natural gas, is a primary driver of CO₂ emissions, contributing to the accumulation of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere. As energy is generated and utilized for various purposes including electricity generation, transportation, heating, and industrial processes, carbon dioxide (CO₂) is released into the atmosphere through combustion and other energy-related activities. The burning of fossil fuels releases carbon dioxide along with other greenhouse gases, leading to the intensification of the greenhouse effect and global warming. The magnitude of CO₂ emissions is directly proportional to the amount of energy consumed, with higher energy consumption levels correlating to increased CO₂ emissions. Consequently, efforts to reduce CO₂ emissions often involve initiatives aimed at improving energy efficiency, transitioning to renewable energy sources, and implementing carbon capture and storage technologies. By reducing energy consumption and decarbonizing the energy sector, societies can

mitigate CO₂ emissions, mitigate climate change impacts, and foster a more sustainable and resilient future. [11]

2.2 Carbon capture

Carbon capture technologies play a crucial role in mitigating greenhouse gas emissions and combating climate change by capturing CO₂ emissions from various sources, such as power plants and industrial facilities, before they are released into the atmosphere. Carbon capture involves the process of capturing carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions generated from industrial processes or combustion of fossil fuels, preventing their release into the atmosphere. Captured CO₂ can then be transported, stored underground, or utilized in various industrial processes to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and mitigate climate change.

This review explores diverse carbon capture methods, encompassing physical, biological method.

2.2.1 Physical carbon capture method

Physical carbon capture techniques are designed to separate CO₂ from industrial emissions through various physical processes, including absorption, chemical adsorption, and membrane-based separation.

1. Absorption involves the dissolution of CO₂ into a liquid solvent, typically using a chemical solvent such as an amine solution. The absorption process occurs when CO₂ in a gas stream comes into contact with the liquid solvent, where it reacts with the solvent to form a stable compound. This compound can then be heated to release the CO₂, allowing for capture and subsequent storage or utilization. Absorption is commonly used in post-combustion capture systems in power plants and industrial facilities.
2. Chemical adsorption, also known as gas-solid adsorption, relies on the physical adsorption of CO₂ molecules onto the surface of a solid material. This process involves the interaction between CO₂ molecules and the adsorbent material, which can be activated carbon, zeolites, or metal-organic frameworks (MOFs). The adsorption capacity and selectivity of the adsorbent determine its effectiveness in capturing CO₂. Chemical adsorption is often employed in pre-combustion capture systems and can offer advantages such as high CO₂ capture efficiency and low energy requirements.

3. Membrane-based separation utilizes semipermeable membranes to selectively separate CO₂ from gas streams. These membranes allow CO₂ molecules to pass through while blocking other gases such as nitrogen and methane. Membrane-based separation offers advantages such as simplicity, low energy consumption, and scalability. However, challenges such as membrane fouling and limited selectivity for CO₂ over other gases need to be addressed for widespread commercial deployment.

Table 2.1 Comparative description of different physical carbon capture technologies. [12]

| Method | Mechanisms | Advantages | Shortcomings | References |
|---------------------------------------|--|---|--|--|
| CO ₂ capture Adsorption | CO ₂ capture using solid adsorbent such as activated carbon, zeolite, Na ₂ CO ₃ , CaO, etc. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low waste generation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Energy inefficient • Flue gas pre-treatment necessary before channeling to adsorber due to high moisture content and presence of contaminants (e.g., SO_x and NO_x) | Li G. et al., 2008; Hunt et al., 2010; Pires et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2011; Lam et al., 2012 |
| | CO ₂ capture using metal-organic frameworks (MOFs) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High porosity crystallinity and high surface area | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Powdered MOFs have low mechanical strength and difficult handling | Lin et al., 2016; Nandasiri et al., 2016; Trickett et al., 2017 |
| Chemical absorption | Based on chemical absorption and desorption. CO ₂ dissolved/captured chemical solvents, such as monoethanolamine (MEA), amine and potassium hydroxide (KOH) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High CO₂ solubility • Thermally stable | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High solvent loss due to evaporation • React with components other than CO₂, like SO₂ resulting in irreversible degeneration of solvent • High energy consumption for solvent regeneration • Thermally unstable • Equipment corrosion | Kittel et al., 2009; Cole et al., 2011; Pires et al., 2011 |
| | Ionic liquid for CO ₂ absorption | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Environmentally safer as substitute the use of hazardous solvents | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cost intensive • Difficult to scale-up ionic liquids | Ziobrowski et al., 2016 |
| Membrane technology | Separation of CO ₂ from the main stream by passing through a membrane that acts as a filter with selective permeability. Usually polymeric membranes are used | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High separation efficiency and packing density due to the small installation requirements | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Energy intensive as cooling of hot flue gas is essential • High moisture content in the flue gas affects membrane performance due to competitive sorption and plasticisation of the polymer • High membrane cost, fouling of membrane and high membrane surface area requirement | Scholes et al., 2009; Pires et al., 2011; Lam et al., 2012 |

2.2.2 Biological carbon capture method

Biological carbon capture encompasses a range of methods that utilize photosynthetic organisms to sequester CO₂ from the atmosphere or industrial emissions. These are examples of biological method.

1. Microalgae, are microscopic, single-celled organisms that thrive in diverse aquatic environments, ranging from freshwater to seawater. They possess photosynthetic pigments, such as chlorophyll, which enable them to capture CO₂ from the surrounding environment and convert it into organic matter, primarily through the process of photosynthesis. Microalgae

exhibit rapid growth rates and high CO₂ fixation capacities, making them promising candidates for biological carbon capture applications.

2. Macroalgae (Seaweed) commonly known as seaweed, are multicellular algae that grow in marine environments. Like microalgae, macroalgae are capable of photosynthesis and can efficiently capture CO₂ from the surrounding water. Macroalgae cultivation, particularly in coastal areas or offshore environments, offers opportunities for large-scale carbon sequestration. Seaweed can be harvested for various purposes, including biofuel production, animal feed, and fertilizer, providing additional economic incentives for seaweed cultivation as a carbon capture strategy.
3. Terrestrial Plants, including trees, shrubs, and grasses, play a crucial role in carbon sequestration through photosynthesis. Forests, in particular, serve as significant carbon sinks, absorbing CO₂ from the atmosphere and storing it in biomass and soil organic matter. Afforestation (planting trees on previously non-forested land) and reforestation (replanting trees in areas where forests have been cleared) are effective strategies for enhancing biological carbon capture on land. Agroforestry practices, which integrate trees with agricultural crops or livestock, also contribute to carbon sequestration while providing additional benefits such as soil conservation and biodiversity enhancement.

There are more of biological carbon capture methods, including forestation, ocean fertilization, and microalgae cultivation, offer viable options for mitigating climate change by sequestering CO₂. Forestation, in particular, has been recognized as an effective means of absorbing carbon and mitigating climate change.

Table 2.2 presents an overview of the mechanisms and limitations of biological carbon capture and storage (CCS) [12].

| Method | Mechanisms | Advantages | Limitations |
|---|---|--|--|
| Forestation | ∅ Afforestation, reforestation, and the farming of crops and livestock | ∅ No hazards of chemicals | ∅ Long time requirement ∅ Large area requirement ∅ Affect biological diversity ∅ Compete with food crops for arable land |
| Oceanic fertilization | ∅ Fertilizing oceans with iron and other nutrients promoting increased carbon dioxide uptake by the phytoplankton's | ∅ Significant potential for CO ₂ capture | ∅ Cost intensive ∅ May have uncertain and unintended impacts ∅ May affect marine biodiversity |
| Microalgae-based carbon capture and utilizations | ∅ Bioconversion CO ₂ into bioenergy and other valuable products via photosynthesis | ∅ Highly efficient in a wide range of CO ₂ concentration ∅ Faster growth rate than plants ∅ Co-production of food, feed, biofuel and value-added products | ∅ Economically cumbersome culture systems and downstream processing, mainly harvesting ∅ Sensitive to other flue gas components (NO _x , SO _x), predation, contamination and extreme culture conditions (pH, temperature, salinity) |
| <i>Escherichia coli</i> -based carbon capture and utilization | ∅ Bio-assimilation of CO ₂ instead of carbohydrate or other organic molecules. | ∅ Readily tweaked or optimized via genome-editing ∅ production of food, feed, biofuel and value-added products at much lower CO ₂ emissions | ∅ Still at the laboratory stage |

2.3 Microalgae

Microalgae represent a promising solution for carbon capture, overcoming challenges associated with traditional carbon capture and storage (CCS) methods such as high energy consumption, logistical issues, and potential leakage risks. Their exceptional CO₂ fixation efficiency positions them as a viable third-generation bioenergy feedstock, offering a cost-effective and environmentally friendly alternative to conventional CCS technologies. Through photosynthesis, microalgae convert CO₂ into biomass feedstock, which can be utilized for various bioenergy production processes such as fermentation, gasification, and anaerobic digestion. Research underscores the superior carbon capture capabilities of microalgae compared to terrestrial plants, making them an appealing choice for CO₂ capture. Furthermore, microalgae-based integrated bio-refineries enable the production of valuable products beyond bioenergy, including pharmaceuticals, cosmetics, and fine chemicals.

Microalgae comprise diverse forms, including cyanobacteria and eukaryotic algae like green algae and diatoms. Their CO₂ concentrating mechanism facilitates efficient photosynthesis even at low atmospheric CO₂ concentrations [13]. Despite their potential, the economic viability of microalgae remains a challenge, especially for producing low-value bulk products like proteins and fatty acids. Nonetheless, integrated bio-refinery systems offer a pathway to unlock their full production potential.

Among microalgae species, *Chlorella* stands out for its ability to thrive in high CO₂ environments, making it suitable for capturing CO₂ from combustion gases [14]. Studies have demonstrated that *Chlorella* cultivation not only captures CO₂ but also reduces other harmful components like NO_x and SO_x present in combustion gases. Moreover, large-scale microalgae cultivation holds the potential to sequester substantial amounts of CO₂, contributing to global emission reductions.

By harnessing photosynthesis, microalgae convert solar energy and CO₂ into chemical fuels, presenting a sustainable solution for both atmospheric and industrial CO₂ capture

2.4 Mussel shell waste

Mussel shell waste refers to the discarded shells of mussels, which are often generated as a byproduct of the seafood industry. These shells are primarily composed of calcium carbonate (CaCO₃), along with small amounts of proteins and organic matter. Rather than disposing of mussel shells as waste, there are various beneficial uses and applications for this abundant resource. [15]

1. **Soil Amendment:** Mussel shells can be crushed into a fine powder and used as a soil amendment to improve soil structure and fertility. The calcium carbonate content helps to neutralize soil acidity and provide essential nutrients such as calcium for plant growth. Additionally, mussel shell powder can enhance soil water retention and promote beneficial microbial activity.
2. **Aquaculture:** Mussel shells can be utilized in aquaculture systems as substrate material for growing algae or as a component of feed formulations for shellfish and finfish. The rough texture of the shells provides a suitable surface for algae attachment and growth, supporting a healthy aquatic ecosystem. Incorporating mussel shell powder into aquafeed can also enhance calcium intake and shell formation in shellfish species.
3. **Construction Materials:** Mussel shells can be processed into calcium carbonate-based materials such as lime or cement for use in construction applications. These materials can serve as alternatives to traditional cement and concrete, offering environmental benefits such as reduced carbon emissions and lower energy consumption during production.
4. **Water Treatment:** Crushed mussel shells can be used in water treatment processes to remove contaminants such as heavy metals and organic pollutants. The high surface area and porosity

of mussel shell particles make them effective adsorbents for capturing and immobilizing pollutants in water bodies and wastewater treatment facilities.

5. Environmental Remediation: Mussel shell waste can be employed in environmental remediation efforts to restore degraded habitats and mitigate coastal erosion. Mussel shell reefs and barriers can provide habitat for marine organisms, stabilize shorelines, and enhance biodiversity in coastal ecosystems.
6. Reduce CO₂ in seawater: primarily composed of calcium carbonate (CaCO₃), can be deployed in marine environments to enhance the alkalinity of seawater, thereby facilitating the absorption and storage of CO₂ from the atmosphere. This process involves the dissolution of calcium carbonate particles from mussel shells in seawater, resulting in the release of calcium ions (Ca²⁺) and bicarbonate ions (HCO₃⁻) into the water column.

2.5 Shell dissolution

Another solution for biological carbon capture is seashells, primarily composed of calcium carbonate (CaCO₃). The shells left after consumption can help reduce carbon through a chemical reaction from the dissolution of the shells (Shell dissolution)

Table 2.3 Configurations of the seven UVic model versions. [16]

| Model Version | n | K (m ⁻¹) |
|---------------|-----|------------------------|
| L1 | 1.0 | 1.5×10^{-5} |
| L2 | 1.0 | 1.5×10^{-4} |
| L3 | 1.0 | 1.5×10^{-3} |
| H1 | 4.7 | 5.0×10^{-3} |
| H2 | 4.7 | 0.1 |
| H3 | 4.7 | 1.0 |
| REF | — | — |

Zhang et al. (2023) [16] conducted model simulations to investigate how the dissolution of calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) affects climate change dynamics and the ocean carbon cycle. By integrating six different parameterizations of the dissolution effect into the UVic model, they

assessed its impact using the SRES A2 CO₂ scenario, which includes total emissions of 5,462 PgC. The findings suggest that the dissolution effect leads to an increase in seawater alkalinity (ALK) and strengthens the ocean carbon sink, thereby providing a negative feedback mechanism that counteracts the rise in atmospheric CO₂ levels and mitigates global warming. Compared to the reference simulation outlined in Table 2.3, the simulations incorporating the dissolution effect predict a decrease in simulated atmospheric CO₂ concentration ranging from 100 to 437 parts per million (ppm) by the year 3500, as indicated in Figure 2.1.

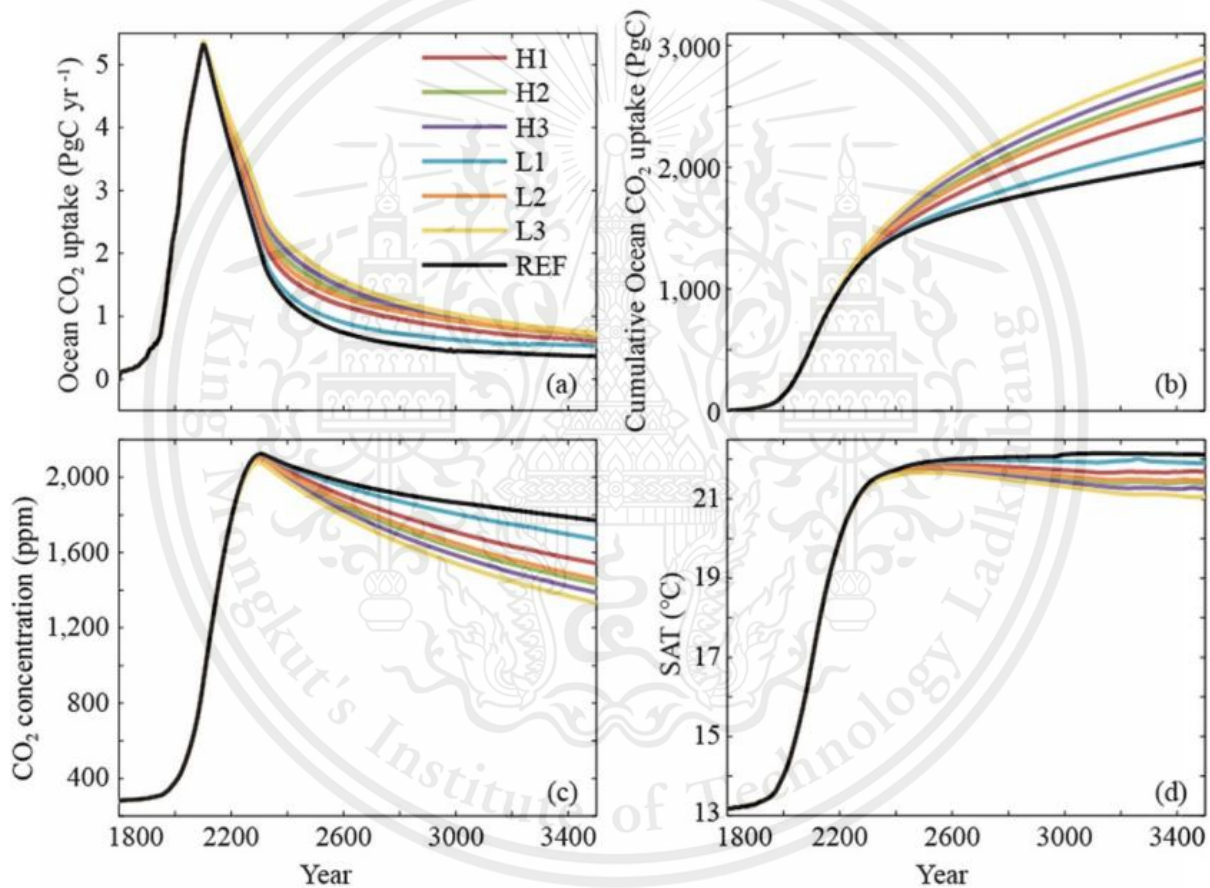


Figure 2.1 Simulated time series of (a) oceanic CO₂ uptake, (b) cumulative oceanic CO₂ uptake, (c) atmospheric CO₂ concentration, and (d) SAT (surface air temperature). Annual and global mean value are showed. Refer to Table 2.3 for the seven model versions. [16]

The impact of the dissolution of calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) on the global carbon cycle varies depending on the specific parameterization of the dissolution-ΩC relationship, highlighting

the importance of addressing parameter uncertainty in influencing carbon cycle dynamics. This dissolution effect, while enhancing the ocean carbon sink, also mitigates seawater acidification, primarily through the increase in alkalinity (ALK). For instance, simulation L3 indicates a rise in surface mean pH by 0.17 by the year 3500, corresponding to a 48% decrease in hydrogen ion concentration ($[H^+]$) compared to the reference simulation. Notably, the Pacific-Indian Ocean experiences more significant acidification compared to the Arc-Atlantic Ocean, leading to stronger dissolution effects and feedbacks on ocean carbon sink and acidification in the former.

Observational studies validate the simulated results, with modeled export flux of $CaCO_3$ at a depth of 130 m in the mid-1990s falling within the observed range. Additionally, simulated $CaCO_3$ production and dissolution rates align with observational data, confirming the accuracy of the model in capturing large-scale ocean $CaCO_3$ cycle fields. The findings suggest a potentially substantial feedback of the dissolution effect on atmospheric CO_2 , with varying estimates reported in previous modeling studies. Under the SRES A2 CO_2 scenario, simulations predict a noticeable decline in atmospheric CO_2 concentration by 100–437 ppm by the year 3500, emphasizing the significance of dissolution effect representations.

Moreover, the study evaluates the potential implications of the dependence of $CaCO_3$ dissolution on ΩC for the global carbon cycle, particularly in the context of marine carbon dioxide removal (mCDR) geoengineering strategies such as ocean alkalinity enhancement (OAE). By elucidating the role of the dissolution effect in the ocean carbon sink and climate system, the results contribute valuable insights for future modeling studies and geoengineering endeavors.

2.6 Dry weight and wet weight measurement

Dry weight and wet weight measurements are fundamental techniques used in various scientific disciplines, including biology, environmental science, and materials science, to quantify the mass of a substance or sample under different conditions. [17]

1. Wet Weight Measurement

Wet weight refers to the weight of a sample when it is in its natural, hydrated state. This measurement includes the mass of both the sample material and any water or other fluids present within it. Wet weight measurements are typically conducted using a balance or scale capable of accurately measuring the mass of the sample in grams or kilograms.

In biological and environmental studies, wet weight measurements are commonly used to assess the biomass of living organisms, such as plants, animals, and microorganisms. For example, wet weight measurements of aquatic plants or algae can provide insights into their growth rates and productivity in aquatic ecosystems.

2. Dry Weight Measurement

Dry weight refers to the weight of a sample after all moisture and water content have been removed through drying. This measurement specifically quantifies the mass of the sample material itself, excluding any water or other volatile substances.

To determine the dry weight of a sample, it is first placed in an oven or desiccator at a controlled temperature for a specified period to remove all moisture. Once the sample is completely dried, it is weighed using a balance or scale. The difference between the initial wet weight and the final dry weight represents the amount of water that was present in the sample. Dry weight measurements are particularly important in environmental studies, where they are used to assess the organic matter content of soil, sediment, or biomass samples. By removing water, dry weight measurements provide a more accurate representation of the organic material present in the sample, which is essential for calculating nutrient content, carbon storage, and other ecological parameters.

2.7 On-grid and Off-grid solar system

On-grid and off-grid solar systems represent two distinct approaches to harnessing solar energy for electricity generation. On-grid systems, also known as grid-tied or grid-connected systems, are integrated with the local utility grid. Comprising solar panels, inverters, and occasionally batteries, these systems convert sunlight into electricity, which is synchronized with the grid's voltage and frequency and supplied directly into it. On-grid systems often utilize net metering, allowing excess electricity to be exported to the grid for credit against the owner's electricity bill.

In contrast, off-grid solar systems operate independently of the utility grid and are designed for standalone facilities or remote locations. These systems include solar panels, batteries for energy storage, charge controllers, inverters, and backup generators. Off-grid systems provide energy autonomy by storing excess solar energy in batteries for use during periods of low sunlight or at night. While on-grid systems offer cost savings and support grid stability, off-grid systems

provide autonomy and reliability, making them suitable for remote areas where grid connection is impractical. Both system configurations offer unique advantages and are chosen based on factors such as location, energy requirements, and grid accessibility.

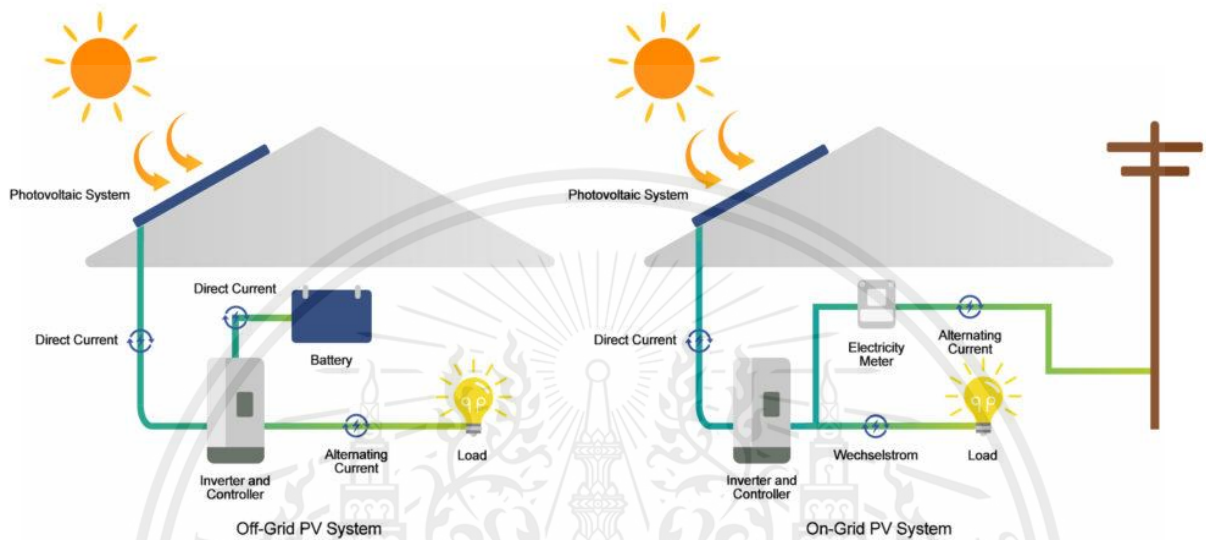


Figure 2.2 Off-grid and on-grid solar system [18]

2.8 Power performance of solar system

Power performance from solar systems is a critical aspect of assessing the effectiveness and reliability of solar energy generation. It encompasses a range of factors that influence the efficiency and output of solar panels in converting sunlight into electricity. One key factor is sunlight intensity, which directly affects the amount of energy captured by solar panels. Higher sunlight intensity leads to increased electricity generation, while lower intensity results in reduced output. Solar panel efficiency is another crucial consideration, representing the ability of panels to convert sunlight into electricity. Higher efficiency panels can generate more power for a given amount of sunlight, making them desirable for maximizing power performance.

Additionally, the angle and orientation of solar panels relative to the sun play a significant role in power performance. Optimal positioning ensures maximum sunlight exposure throughout the day, enhancing electricity generation. Factors such as shading from trees, buildings, or other

obstructions can significantly impact power output by reducing the amount of sunlight reaching the solar panels. Minimizing shading is essential for optimizing power performance.

Temperature also affects solar panel efficiency, with higher temperatures typically leading to reduced performance. Monitoring and managing panel temperature through proper ventilation or cooling systems can help maintain optimal efficiency. Furthermore, the quality and condition of system components, including inverters, wiring, and mounting hardware, are crucial for ensuring consistent power performance. Well-maintained and properly installed components contribute to overall system efficiency and reliability.

System size is another important consideration, as larger solar systems have the capacity to generate more electricity than smaller ones. However, even smaller systems can achieve high power performance with efficient design and operation. Monitoring and analyzing the electricity output of the solar system over time are essential for assessing power performance. Metrics such as capacity factor, efficiency ratio, and degradation rate provide insights into system performance and help identify any issues or opportunities for improvement.[19]

2.9 Efficiency of CO₂ reduction

The efficiency of CO₂ reduction is a pivotal measure used to assess the effectiveness of carbon capture and utilization (CCU) processes in diminishing CO₂ emissions. This metric gauges the percentage of CO₂ that is successfully captured or converted in relation to the initial CO₂ input. The formula typically employed to compute CO₂ reduction efficiency can be calculated by

$$\text{Efficiency of CO}_2 \text{ reduction (\%)} = \left(\frac{\text{Influent of CO}_2 - \text{Effluent of CO}_2}{\text{Influent of CO}_2} \right) \times 100$$

Efficiency calculations may vary based on the specific CCU technology and process objectives. For instance, in carbon capture and storage (CCS) systems, efficiency could pertain to the percentage of CO₂ captured from industrial emissions and permanently stored underground. Conversely, in carbon utilization technologies like carbon capture and utilization (CCU) or carbon capture and utilization (CCU), efficiency might denote the percentage of CO₂ converted into value-added products such as fuels, chemicals, or building materials.

2.10 Related research

This thesis studies design of an off-grid solar-driven system for dual-layer carbon capture system integrating algae and seashell. The related research comprises the following.

Suktalord et al.[6] studies the use of alga as water quality indicator in Sansab Canal, when these mosses collected from Sansab Canal were looked at, they found groups of algae that matched the AARL-PP SCORE guide, Including *Chlorella* sp. *Oscillatoria* sp. and *Monoraphidium* sp..

Juškaite et al.[7] The research results it was found that micro-algae *Monoraphidium* sp. are expected to have the greatest contribution to CO₂ reduction, decreasing from 31.0% to 10.0%,

Anguselvi et al.[8] shows that *Oscillatoria* and *Chlorella* have been identified as being equally effective at capturing CO₂.

Ngen Kum Kong et al. [9] studies and compares of *Chlorella* *Scenedesmus* sp. and *Spirulina* sp. found that algae had the highest efficiency in fixing carbon dioxide for 10 days, after which the fixation of carbon dioxide tended to decrease with increasing time.

Zhang et al. [10] highlight the potential of shell dissolution to reduce atmospheric CO₂ levels, enhance ocean alkalinity, and augment carbon absorption capacity. Their findings suggest a significant decrease in atmospheric CO₂ by 100-437 ppm by 3500 through shell dissolution. This approach offers a solution to regions with substantial seafood industries.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

In methodology is presenting the material used (section 3.1), structural construction (section 3.2), algae system preparation (section 3.3) seashell system preparation (section 3.4), water dechlorinating (section 3.5), off-grid solar-driven system (section 3.6) and system operation and experiment (section 3.7).

3.1 Material

3.1.1 Structural material

- a) Ten of 30x30mm Aluminum profiles (1 meter each)
- b) Two of 5mm Aluminum plates
- c) Four of wheels
- d) Brackets and Connection equipments
- e) A plasma cutting machine

3.1.2 Preparation material

- a) An X-ray diffractometer, Rigaku, MiniFlex
- b) A digital weighing scale, Sartorius, BSA2245-CW
- c) A heating Oven, Memmert
- d) A 3D Measuring laser microscope, Olympus, LEXTOLS5000

3.1.3 Solar driven material

- a) A 370W Monocrystalline half-cut cell, EMP
- b) An 12V 500W Off grid inverter, TBE
- c) A 30A MPPT Solar charger, SUOER
- d) A 12V 100Ah Battery, 3K

3.1.4 Experimental and Operation material

- a) An air pump no.1, 9W, flow rate 14 L/min
- b) An air pump no.2, 6W, flow rate 10 L/min

- c) An air pump no.3, 4W, flow rate 6.6 L/min
- d) Two of 6W LED Blue Bulb, Horse Power, HP-350
- e) Three of Air detector (sensor no.1, sensor no.2, sensor no.3), H8 Plus

3.2 Structural construction

Aluminum-sized 3x3 mm was used as the main component for building the supported structure due to its strength. The design included two levels for placing objects, with a solar panel placing on a stand at 13.5 degrees, as shown in Figure 3.1. In the section of 5 mm thick aluminum sheets, apply them by cutting with Plasma cutting machine and drilling holes according to the drawing in Figure 3.2.

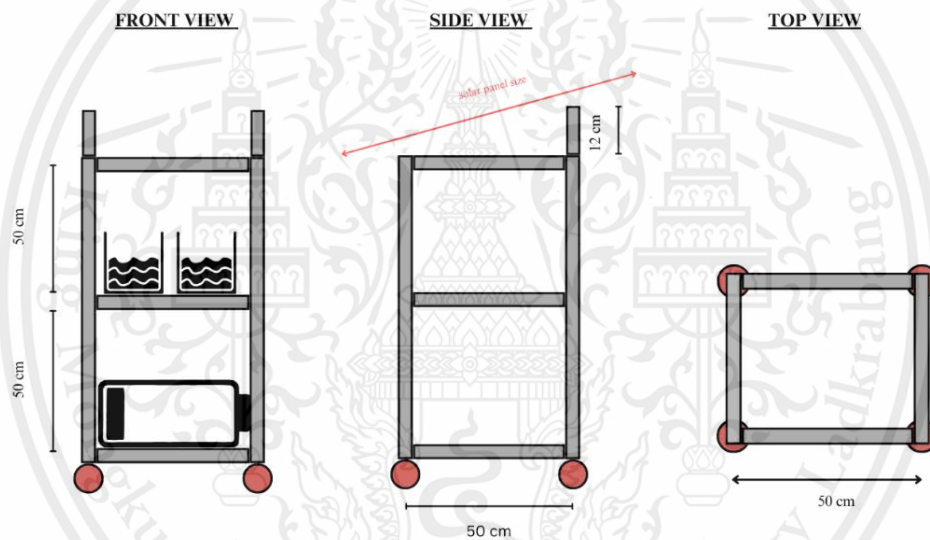


Figure 3.1. Drawing of structural system

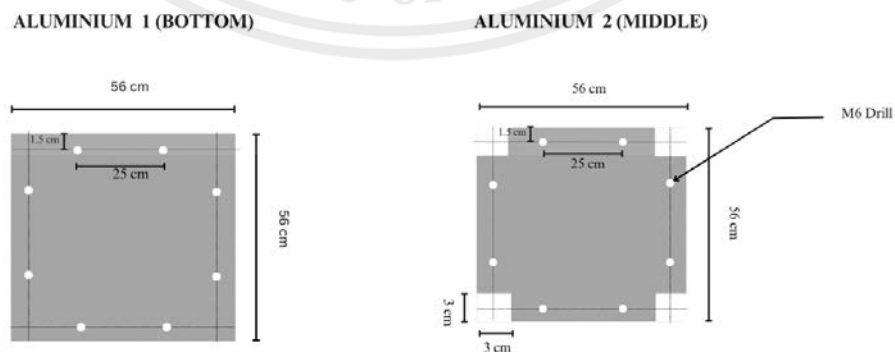


Figure 3.2. Drawing of bottom and middle aluminum plates

The solar panel was installed on top. Off-grid system components are placed on the bottom plate. Tanks of algae and seashell were placed on the upper plate as shown in Figure 3.3.

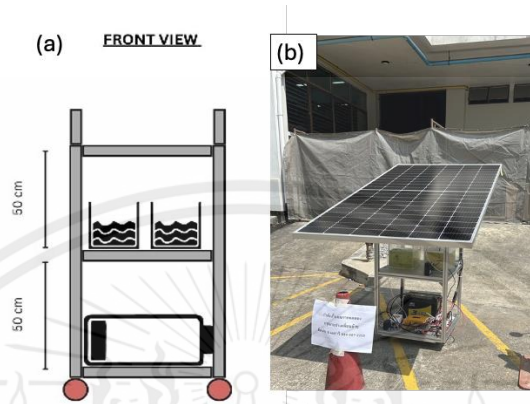


Figure 3.3. (a) System Drawing. (b) Off-Grid solar energy system structure for a two-layer carbon dioxide capture process with algae and mussel shells.

3.3 Algae system preparation

The algae used in the experiment were collected from a still pond, Khlong Sam, Khlong Luang, Pathum Thani Province, Thailand, and dried at 50-60 °C for 3 hours to obtain 3 grams of algae dry weight. The shape and size of the algae were then observed under a 3D Measuring laser microscope (Olympus, LEXTOLS5000). Use a culture tank size 20x20x20 centimeters, add 6.0 liters of chlorine-free water containing the nutrient sodium chloride (NaCl) 1.0 grams per liter, supply air to the bottom of the tank with an air pump at 14 L/min, 24 hours a day. 12 days to raise seaweed The ratio of natural light to 6 watts blue LED lights was 12:12. After cultivation, average biomass productivity was calculated with equation (1) to analyze the rate at which algae accumulated over 12 days in grams per liters per day

$$\text{Biomass productivity}(\text{g L}^{-1}\text{d}^{-1}) = 2 \times \frac{\text{DCW2}-\text{DCW1}}{t_2-t_1} \quad (1)$$

DCW1 and DCW2 are the dry weights of algae before and after cultivation at times t_1 and t_2 , respectively.

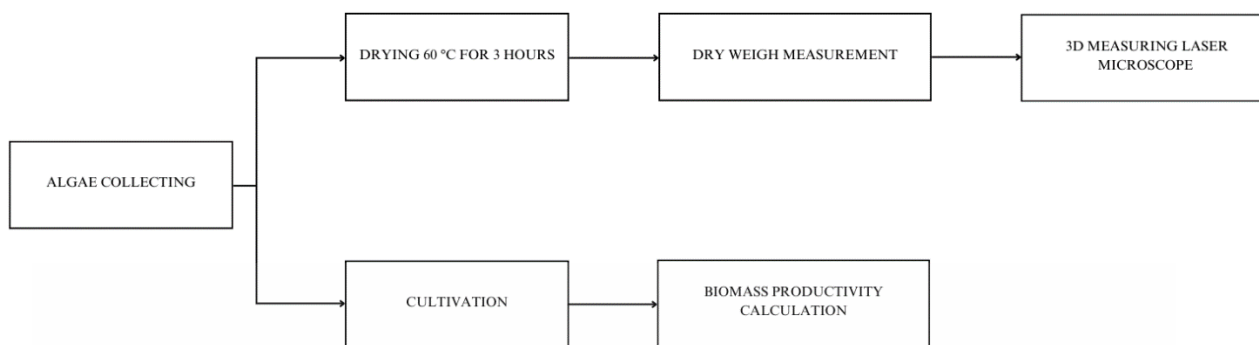


Figure 3.4. Flow chart showing the process of algae preparation

3.4 Mussel shell system preparation

Considering a 1:1 shell to water ratio, the mass of shells required was calculated from the molecular weight of CaCO_3 multiplied by the number of moles of CaCO_3 . Therefore, 600.5 grams of crushed shells were dissolved in 6 liters of water. For shell preparation steps in Figure 3.5, The mussel shells were collected from the Thipnaree market, Bang Phli District, Samut Prakan Province. Mussel shells were cleaned by washing with acetic acid at a concentration of 5 M, and then the samples were washed with distilled water. They were dried at 100–200°C for 5 h and ground into crushed shell, respectively.

The crushed shell powder was then analyzed by X-ray diffraction (XRD; Miniflex600, Rigaku) using $\text{Cu-K}\alpha$, 40 kV and 30 mA. Each specimen was scanned. from 20° to 80° (2θ) with a scanning speed of 6° per minute. Then 600.5 g of crushed peel was combined with prepared dechlorinated water to increase carbon dioxide absorption in a 20x20x20 tank with volume. Working 6.0 liters

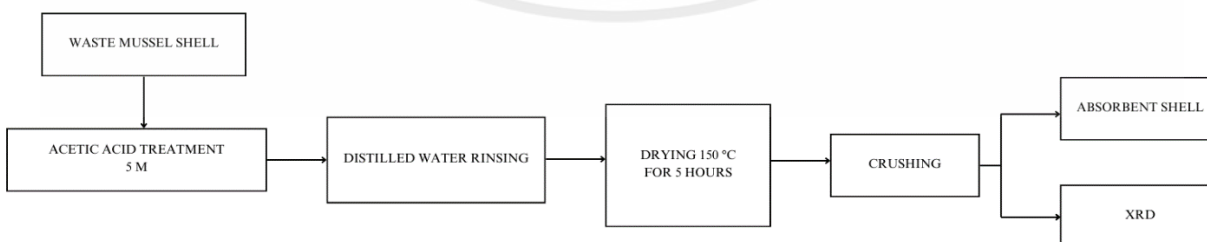


Figure 3.5. Flow chart showing the process of mussel shells preparation

3.5 Water dechlorinating

To prepare water as a culture medium for shell and algae, tap water was aerated with air bubbles using a 9W air pump for 1 hour to evaporate chlorine. The water was then incubated and left exposed to open air for 48 hours.

3.6 Off-grid solar-driven System

The utilized energy system is based on solar power, which is renewable. An off-grid solar system was integrated to power the experiment for 12 days 20 hours of autonomy. Key components of a solar PV system include the solar charge controller, inverter, battery, and electrical loads (appliances).

1. PV module: converts sunlight into direct current (DC) electricity.
2. Solar charge controller: regulates the voltage and current from the PV panels to the battery, preventing overcharging and extending battery life.
3. Inverter: converts the DC output from the PV panels into clean alternating current (AC) suitable for powering AC appliances.
4. Battery: stores excess energy generated by the PV system for use when there is demand, ensuring continuous power supply to electrical appliances.
5. Load: these are the electrical appliances connected to the solar PV system, for this research the considered loads are shown in Table 3.1.

All of components was designed and calculated the size and specification for having most efficiency to power the whole system as detailed below

3.6.1 Load calculation for total energy (Wh/day)

Table 3.1. Electrical appliances and their daily use

| Appliances | Quantity | Rating (W) | Time of use (hr) | Daily use (Wh/day) |
|----------------|----------|------------|------------------|--------------------|
| LED blue bulb | 2 | 6 | 12 | 144 |
| Air pump No. 1 | 1 | 9 | 24 | 216 |
| Air pump No. 2 | 1 | 6 | 24 | 144 |
| Air pump No. 3 | 1 | 4 | 24 | 96 |
| Sensor | 2 | 0.25 | 24 | 12 |
| Total | | | | 612 |

3.6.2 PV module sizing

The first method to determine the size of PV module is to multiply the total daily energy use with 1.3, extra losses for all problems such as lost in system, wire loss, etc., to get the Watt-hours per day required by panel.

$$\text{Total energy requirement from panel} = \text{Total energy} \times 1.3$$

$$\text{Total energy requirement from panel} = 612 \times 1.3$$

$$\text{Total energy requirement from panel (Wh/day)} = 795.6$$

Divide total energy requirement from panel to the panel generation factor following equation (2) to get the size of panel needed

$$\text{Panel size (watt)} = \frac{\text{Total energy requirement from panel}}{\text{Panel generation factor}} \quad (2)$$

Panel generation factor (PGF) is used while calculating the size of solar cells. it is a varying factor depending upon the climate of the site location (depending upon global geographic location). For Thailand PGF is 3.43.

$$\text{Panel size (watt)} = \frac{795.6\text{W}}{3.43}$$

$$\text{Panel size (watt)} = 231.95 \text{ W}$$

The result of 231.95 W is the peak energy required from panel. Therefore, for the safety margin, the solar panel used to install in this research is a 370W Monocrystalline half-cut cell, EMP.

3.6.3 Solar charge controller sizing

This research is using MPPT type of Solar charge controller due to their ability to adjust voltage to match the battery bank's voltage and boost current to compensate for power loss.

To calculate the amperage, use the equation (3),

$$\text{Solar charge controller size (A)} = \frac{\text{Watt of solar panel}}{\text{Battery voltage}} \quad (3)$$

Because a 370 watts solar panel is used and the battery voltage is 12 volts, the size of the Solar charge controller can be calculated according to equation (3). In this research, a 30 amps MPPT SUOER solar charge controller is used.

3.6.4 Battery sizing

Designing battery is important, the battery needs to be sufficiently sized to store enough energy for running the appliances during periods of both nighttime and cloudy days. Equation (4) is used to calculate battery capacity (Ah) using a battery loss coefficient of 0.85. Depth of discharge is 0.6 for lead-acid and storage batteries. (Day of autonomy) 1 day.

$$\text{Battery Capacity (Ah)} = \frac{\text{Total energy per day used by appliances} \times \text{Days of autonomy}}{\text{Battery loss} \times \text{Depth of discharge} \times \text{nominal battery voltage}} \quad (4)$$

$$\text{Battery Capacity (Ah)} = \frac{618 \times 0.83}{0.85 \times 0.6 \times 12}$$

$$\text{Battery Capacity (Ah)} = 84.15 \text{ Ah}$$

Therefore, A 12V 100Ah Battery, 3K, is used in this research for ability to store excess energy.

3.6.5 Inverter sizing

In stand-alone systems, the inverter needs to have sufficient capacity to manage the total wattage utilized simultaneously and should be 25% bigger than total watt of appliances. From data in Table 3.1 shows that the total watt of appliances is 25.25 watts. Thus, the chosen inverter in this research is an 12V 500W Off grid inverter, TBE. This ensures that the inverter can accommodate the surge current experienced during the startup phase.

3.6.6 Solar system set up

After designing and calculating the size of the main components. It was concluded that in this research the following components were used

1. A 370W Monocrystalline half-cut cell, EMP
2. A 30A MPPT Solar charger, SUOER
3. A 12V 100Ah Battery, 3K
4. An 12V 500W Off grid inverter, TBE
5. Load appliances
 - a) An air pump no.1, 9W, flow rate 14 L/min
 - b) An air pump no.2, 6W, flow rate 10 L/min
 - c) An air pump no.3, 4W, flow rate 6.6 L/min
 - d) Two of 6W LED Blue Bulb, Horse Power, HP-350
 - e) Three of Air detector (sensor no.1, sensor no.2, sensor no.3), H8 Plus

All 5 of these components were connected together as in Figure 3.6. Using SOLAR PV CABLE, Black, Red, 4.0 mm², TUV EN50618 wires.

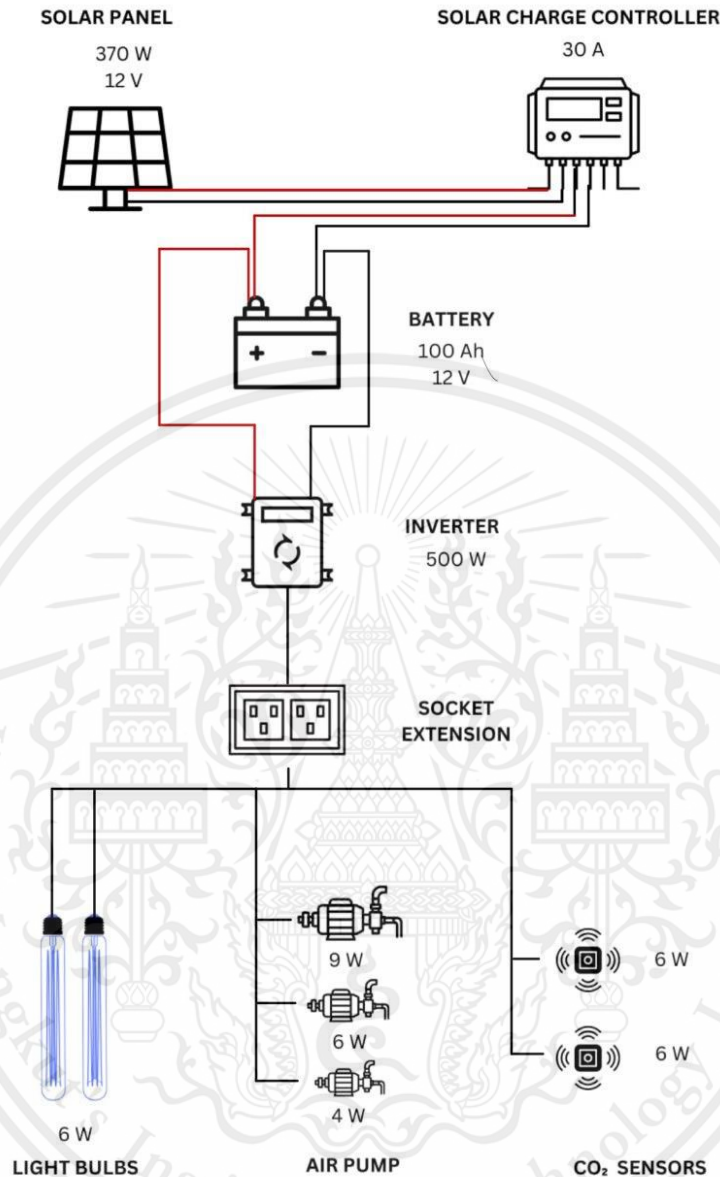


Figure 3.6. Diagram of off-grid solar power system connecting with loads

3.7 System operation and experiment

The two-layer carbon capture system combines the preparation of the algae system in 3.3 and the preparation of the mussel shell system in 3.4. Picture 3.7 shows that the air is sucked in by Air pump no.1 for 14 L/min, which has Sensor no. 1 model H8 Plus to measure CO₂ before bringing air through the pipe to System 1 (Algae tank). In this tank, CO₂ was captured through the process of photosynthesis. Air that has absorbed carbon will be pumped through Air pump 2 at a flow rate

of 10 L/min through pipes connected to System 2 (Shell tank). Crushed shells mixed with water will help store CO₂ by dissolving the shell. Then the air from the shell tank was sucked out of the tank by Air pump no.3. The value of the CO₂ that passed was measured by Sensor no.2, model H8 Plus, attached to the shell tank.

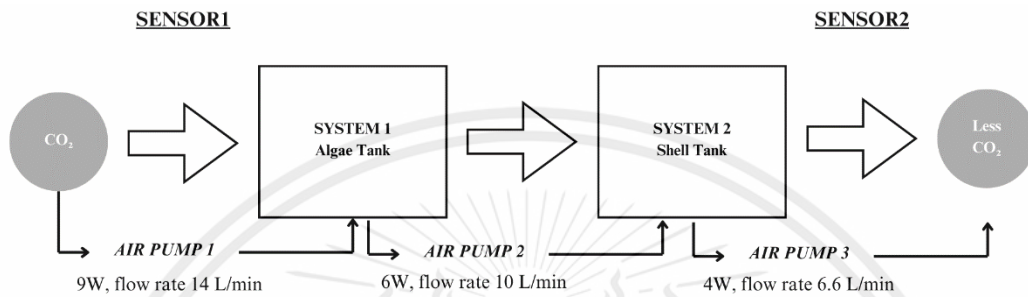


Figure 3.7 Diagram of algae cultivation tank and shell tank operation

The experiment lasted 12 days. Algae samples were collected before and after to assess algae growth in the culture. By collecting data every day at 10.00, 17.00 and 22.00 by leaving the data collection period for 3 minutes and using the average data. The data collected was as follow

1. Carbon dioxide (PPM) of 2 sensors
2. Temperature of 2 sensors
3. Humidity of 2 sensors
4. pH water of the algae tank and shell tank
5. Current of PV generation
6. Voltage of PV generation
7. Picture of algae and shell tanks

After the experiment, the obtained values were calculated to find the efficiency of reducing carbon dioxide of the algae and seashell. Calculated from equation (1) [20]

$$\text{Efficiency of CO}_2 \text{ reduction (\%)} = \left(\frac{\text{Influent of CO}_2 - \text{Effluent of CO}_2}{\text{Influent of CO}_2} \right) \times 100 \quad (5)$$

Where Efficiency of CO₂ reduction is the efficiency in reducing CO₂ (%) for the system, Influent of CO₂ is the amount of CO₂ incoming (PPM) and Effluent of CO₂ is the amount of CO₂ outgoing (PPM).



CHAPTER 4

EXPERIMENTAL RESULT

In this chapter, we present results of 12 days experiments of design of an off-grid solar-driven system for dual-layer carbon capture system integrating algae and seashell. The sections in this chapter are as follows

- 4.1 Data collection results
- 4.2 Algae characterization
- 4.3 Shell characterization
- 4.4 The efficiency of CO₂ reduction
- 4.5 The Power performance in off-grid solar system
- 4.6 The pH value of algae and seashell tank
- 4.7 Algae tank and shell tank observation

4.1 Data collection results

Table 4.1 shows the results of the data collected during the 12-day experiment at 10.00, 17.00 and 22.00. The variables used to collect in this table are carbon dioxide (PPM) of 2 sensors, temperature of 2 sensors, humidity of 2 sensors, pH water of the algae tank and shell tank, current of PV generation, voltage of PV generation. Also, these data will be used for calculation in section 4.4, 4.5 and 4.6.

Table 4.1 Raw collected data for 12-day experiment at 10.00, 17.00 and 22.00

| Day | Time | Sensor1 | | | Sensor2 | | | pH Seashell | | pH Algae | | PV generation | | |
|-----|------|-----------------------|-----------------|--------------|-----------------------|-----------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|----------|---------------|---------------|-------------|-----------|
| | | CO ₂ (PPM) | Temp of SS no.1 | Humidity (%) | CO ₂ (PPM) | Temp of SS no.2 | Humidity(%) | pH Seashell | av. PH shell | pH Algae | av. PH algae | Voltage (V) | current (I) | Power (W) |
| 1 | 10 | 1897 | 33 | 61 | 765 | 32 | 61 | 8.8 | 8.75 | 8.7 | 8.7 | 12.9 | 2.1 | 26 |
| | 17 | 1080 | 33 | 58 | 560 | 33 | 59 | 8.73 | | 8.73 | | 13.3 | 1.8 | 23.4 |
| | 22 | 871 | 28 | 78 | 576 | 28 | 78 | 8.71 | | 8.67 | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 | 10 | 1563 | 30 | 66 | 590 | 30 | 67 | 8.75 | 8.76 | 8.59 | 8.56 | 13.5 | 3.7 | 48.5 |
| | 17 | 1190 | 31 | 66 | 690 | 30 | 67 | 8.75 | | 8.56 | | 14.4 | 3.9 | 54.18 |
| | 22 | 1663 | 29 | 74 | 590 | 29 | 74 | 8.79 | | 8.53 | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 | 10 | 1053 | 31 | 64 | 375 | 32 | 63 | 8.79 | 8.77 | 8.57 | 8.59 | 12.5 | 2.4 | 29.6 |
| | 17 | 1223 | 30 | 65 | 480 | 31 | 63 | 8.75 | | 8.59 | | 14.8 | 3.6 | 52.8 |
| | 22 | 1039 | 28 | 75 | 485 | 28 | 75 | 8.78 | | 8.61 | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 | 10 | 907 | 31 | 66 | 368 | 32 | 63 | 8.89 | 8.85 | 8.64 | 8.67 | 12.5 | 2.4 | 29 |
| | 17 | 998 | 31 | 66 | 364 | 31 | 66 | 8.84 | | 8.69 | | 12.7 | 2.3 | 28 |
| | 22 | 1034 | 28 | 78 | 455 | 28 | 78 | 8.83 | | 8.68 | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 | 10 | 1146 | 33 | 61 | 440 | 34 | 60 | 8.85 | 8.85 | 8.69 | 8.686 6667 | 12.6 | 3.6 | 56.9 |
| | 17 | 1276 | 33 | 56 | 584 | 34 | 55 | 8.85 | | 8.68 | | 13.3 | 2 | 27 |
| | 22 | 981 | 29 | 72 | 324 | 29 | 72 | 8.86 | | 8.69 | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 | 10 | 1753 | 37 | 69 | 574 | 37 | 69 | 8.86 | 8.86 | 8.69 | 8.686 6667 | 13.5 | 5.6 | 74.8 |
| | 17 | 1848 | 34 | 58 | 583 | 34 | 58 | 8.84 | | 8.68 | | 12.5 | 2.4 | 29.7 |
| | 22 | 814 | 28 | 78 | 275 | 28 | 78 | 8.89 | | 8.69 | | 0 | 0 | 0 |

| Day | Time | CO ₂ (PPM) | Temp of SS no.1 | Humidity (%) | CO ₂ (PPM) | Temp of SS no.2 | Humidity (%) | pH Seashell | av. PH shell | pH Algae | av. PH algae | Voltage (V) | current (I) | Power (W) |
|-----|------|-----------------------|-----------------|--------------|-----------------------|-----------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|----------|---------------|-------------|-------------|-----------|
| 7 | 10 | 1188 | 31 | 66 | 477 | 32 | 64 | 8.91 | 8.90 | 8.69 | 8.69 | 12.4 | 2.5 | 32 |
| | 17 | 1848 | 31 | 70 | 475 | 31 | 67 | 8.91 | | 8.69 | | 13.6 | 2.5 | 33.4 |
| | 22 | 954 | 29 | 70 | 256 | 30 | 70 | 8.87 | | 8.69 | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 | 10 | 1534 | 31 | 67 | 475 | 32 | 64 | 8.84 | 8.89 | 8.69 | 8.69 | 13.5 | 3.4 | 45 |
| | 17 | 1828 | 34 | 37 | 603 | 34 | 38 | 8.88 | | 8.69 | | 13.4 | 1.6 | 20.9 |
| | 22 | 1020 | 29 | 72 | 466 | 30 | 70 | 8.94 | | 8.69 | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 | 10 | 1353 | 39 | 53 | 467 | 38 | 52 | 8.89 | 8.90 | 8.69 | 8.69 | 13.2 | 9.4 | 124.1 |
| | 17 | 1201 | 36 | 51 | 509 | 36 | 49 | 8.9 | | 8.69 | | 12.5 | 1.5 | 18.6 |
| | 22 | 1005 | 28 | 75 | 545 | 28 | 75 | 8.92 | | 8.69 | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 10 | 10 | 1732 | 32 | 71 | 785 | 32 | 68 | 8.86 | 8.87 | 8.7 | 8.693 3333 | 13 | 1.5 | 20.6 |
| | 17 | 1056 | 34 | 71 | 658 | 34 | 71 | 8.87 | | 8.69 | | 12.8 | 3.3 | 41.5 |
| | 22 | 830 | 28 | 78 | 598 | 28 | 75 | 8.89 | | 8.69 | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 11 | 10 | 1047 | 32 | 61 | 690 | 34 | 57 | 8.81 | 8.89 | 8.69 | 8.68 | 12.6 | 3.4 | 41.6 |
| | 17 | 1201 | 36 | 51 | 563 | 36 | 49 | 8.9 | | 8.67 | | 13.8 | 3.6 | 49.3 |
| | 22 | 1157 | 28 | 76 | 754 | 28 | 74 | 8.95 | | 8.68 | | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 | 10 | 1342 | 39 | 52 | 765 | 40 | 53 | 8.97 | 8.97 | 8.69 | 8.69 | 13.4 | 9.5 | 125.6 |
| | 17 | 1065 | 34 | 59 | 664 | 34 | 59 | 8.97 | | 8.69 | | 12.2 | 3.3 | 39.8 |
| | 22 | 1273 | 28 | 78 | 980 | 28 | 76 | 8.98 | | 8.69 | | 0 | 0 | 0 |

4.2 Algae Characterization

4.2.1 Laser microscope analysis

The algae samples were analyzed using a laser microscope (Olympus, LEXTOLS5000) at 20× magnification. In Figure 4.1 the texture and color of the algae are shown. The algae were found to have a normal green color indicating growing cells. It can be said that these algae are ready to photosynthesize and produce chlorophyll.

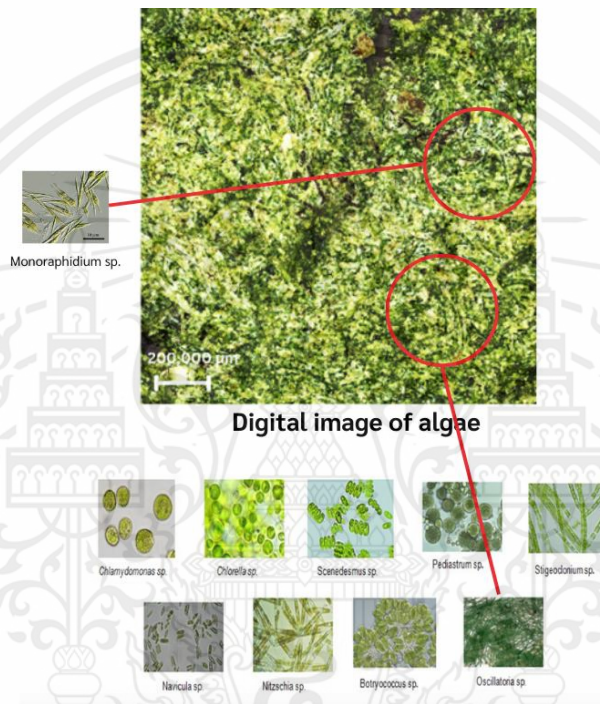


Figure 4.1 The characterization of sample algae compared with some of the algal species being used in wastewater treatment [21]

Figure 4.1 also shows a comparison of the characteristics of species of algae that can be found in wastewater. The red circles that the researcher can observe are similar to *Monoraphidium* sp. and *Oscillatoria* sp., it can be assumed that the sample of algae has the part on these species.

4.2.2 Dry weigh measurement

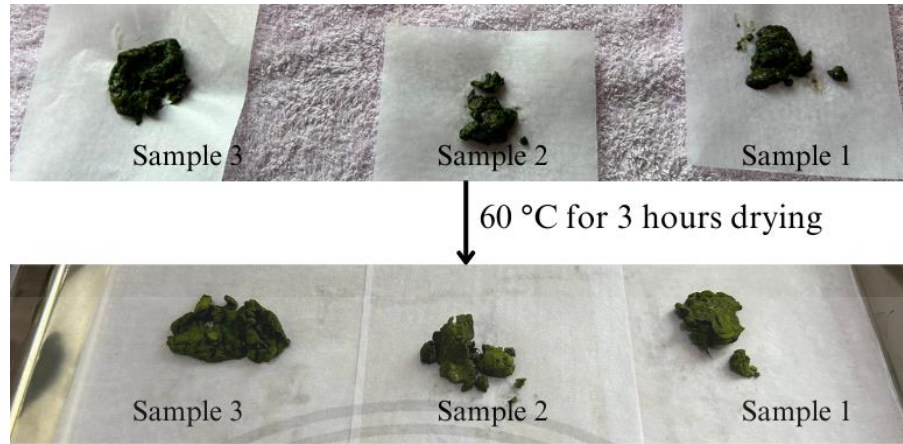


Figure 4.2 Photo of algae before and after drying

Figure 4.2 shows pictures of algae before and after drying. In order to determine the dry weight of algae. The researcher conducted an experiment by drying 3 samples of wet algae by the same condition and weighing them to find the average dry weight of the three algae. The results are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Dry weight and wet weight of 3 samples

| Sample | Wet weight (g) | Dry weight (g) | Dry/wet |
|---------|----------------|----------------|---------|
| 1 | 5.8233 | 1.8348 | 31.5 |
| 2 | 3.3850 | 1.1018 | 32.5 |
| 3 | 3.8475 | 1.512 | 39.3 |
| Average | | | 34.5 |

4.3 Shell characterization

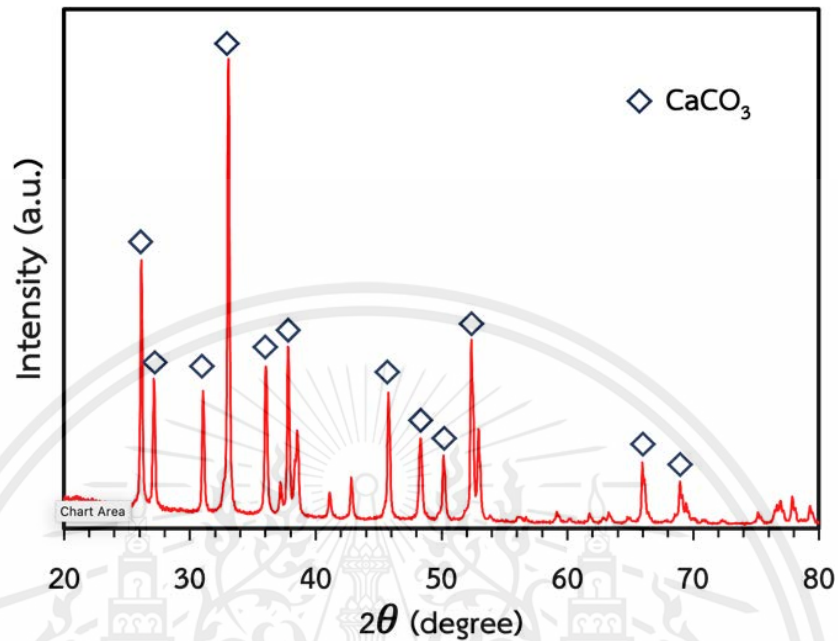


Figure 4.3 XRD result of mussel shell powder

From the XRD results of crushed mussel shell powder as shown in Figure 4.3, it was found that the XRD peak of aragonite (CaCO_3) (JCPDS 01-075-9985) was the location of the peak of most shells. In positions 26° , 27.23° , 33.09° , 37.84° , 45.81° , 48.36° , 50.21° , 52.38° , 66.09° and 68.93° they were found to be very similar. Therefore, it can be concluded that the mussel shells used in the experiment were mainly composed of aragonite or calcium carbonate (CaCO_3).

4.4 The efficiency of CO_2 reduction of 2-layer carbon capture

It was found that from day 1 to day 12, the average CO_2 reduction efficiency of algae and shellfish was 54.6%, and the highest CO_2 reduction efficiency was 69.1% on day 7, while the CO_2 reduction efficiency was the least on day 1. 12 is at 34.6%. From Figure 4.4, it can be seen that the efficiency in reducing CO_2 will gradually increase and at a certain point it will begin to be less effective in reducing CO_2 due to the early stages of the algae experiment. It grows well by using the nutrients available at the beginning, making it highly effective in reducing CO_2 . But as time

passes, the algae grow more but the amount of nutrients decreases [22] due to being used. already in the first period Therefore, when the growth rate of algae decreases, CO₂ fixation decreases as well.

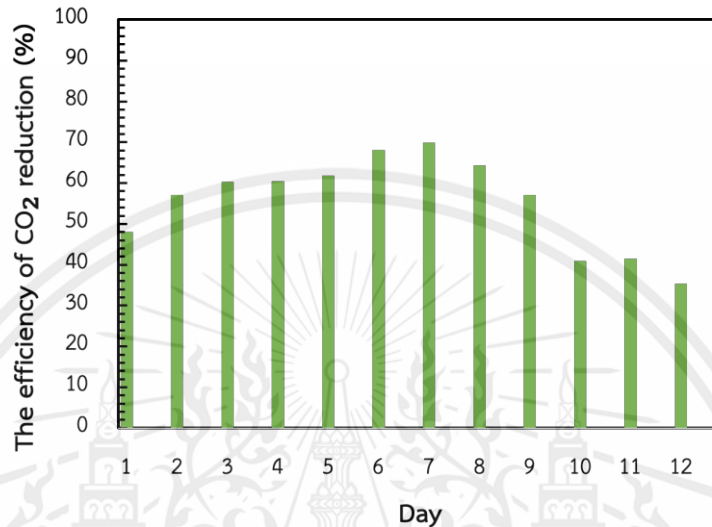


Figure 4.4 The CO₂ reduction efficiency of the two-layer carbon capture system

From the shell dissolution reaction as shown in the chemical equation below [23]



When water and CO₂ mix with calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) contained in mussels, Calcite will dissolve until calcium ions (Ca²⁺) and bicarbonate ions (HCO₃⁻) are dissolved, which makes the water more alkaline. As the water absorbs more CO₂, the water may end up buffered by dissolving carbonate to reverse the reaction and produce CO₂ again. To prevent excessive CO₂ suction from the algae tank into the shell tank causing the reaction to reverse, air pump 2 will have a lower flow rate than air pump 1. Therefore, after reducing the efficiency of reducing CO₂ of only the algae tank, the efficiency in reducing CO₂ of both systems has not decreased much.

4.5 The power performance in off-grid solar system

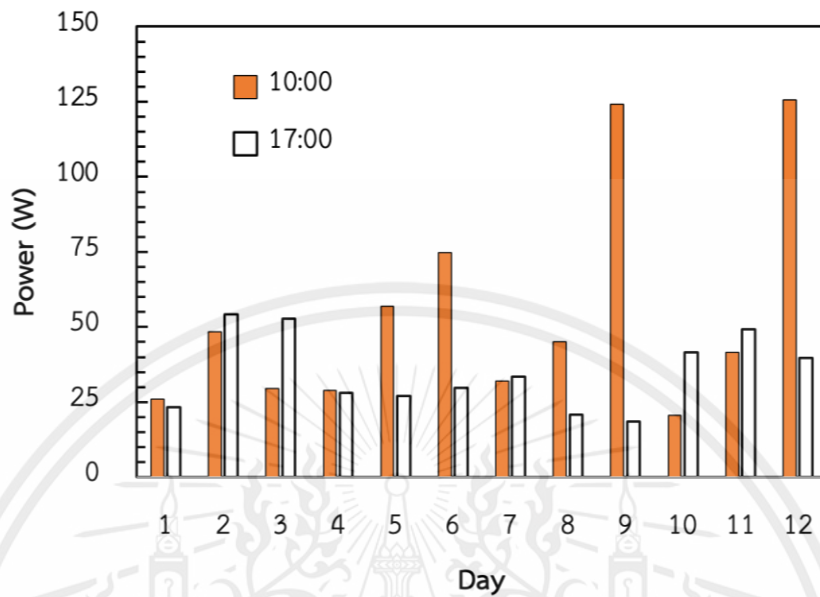


Figure 4.5 Power produced from an off-grid solar cell system at 10:00 and 17:00

Figure 4.5 shows the power production of the double-layer CO₂ capture solar power system at 10.00 and 17.00. It was found that the overall efficiency of power production at 10:00 was higher production efficiency at 17:00. The highest power that can be produced is on day 9 (124.1W) and day 12 (125.6W) and the least was on day 10 (21.9W). From the observation that on the 9th and 12th day, there was strong sunshine. There was also rain in the morning of the 10th, with the power production range between 18.6W - 54.2W.

4.6 The pH value of algae and seashell tank

From Figure 4.6, it was found that on the first day, the pH of the algae tank decreased slightly to 8.56 by blowing air into the system (14 L/min) in the same direction as the research. 'Algae to reduce global warming' (2017) [24] that studied the addition of carbon dioxide in farming *Chlorella* sp. algae found that the pH value would decrease from 7.35 to 6.92. After that, when the algae were able to adjust, they would begin to use some carbon dioxide in order to increase photosynthesis, the pH value will decrease. After that, the pH value will start to stabilize [25].

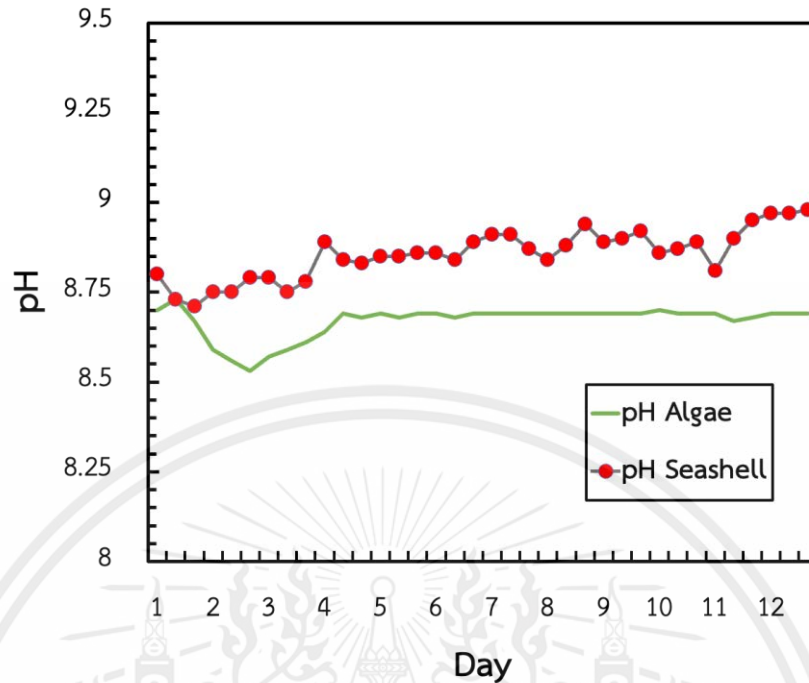


Figure 4.6 The pH of the algae and shell tank for 12 days

Meanwhile, it can be observed that the pH value of the shell tank in Figure 4.6 tends to be more alkaline in the range between 8.71 and 8.98, meaning that the shell dissolves through reaction (6). The dissolution process increases the alkalinity of seawater. (ALK), which increases the ability of water to absorb carbon. It acts as an antagonist against increasing CO₂ levels in the atmosphere, also related to the CO₂ reduction efficiency of the double-layer carbon capture system because the alkalinity of the shell water means that it has the ability to reduce CO₂.

4.7 Tanks observation

4.7.1 Algae tank observation



Figure 4.7 Pictures of algae cultivation in a algae tank over 12 days

Observations of the algae tank in Figure 4.7 from day 1 to day 12 were clearly different. The culture contained 1.0 g of sodium chloride per liter on the first day. Algae in this closed system can use sunlight to grow during the day. At night, algae can use light from a 6-watt blue LED bulb (Horse Power, HP-350) for optimal growth under a limited period of time. All photos were taken at 17.00 every day. From the first day, algae could be seen clinging to the oxygen concentrators and beginning to multiply. On day 4, the water became cloudy from growing algae fragments. On day 8, algae began to float on top of the water. Some clung to the edges and walls of the tank, and on day 12, large amounts of dark green algae gathered in large clumps. More will fall off the walls of the tank and float in the tank, turning the water a darker green. This may indicate old or dead cells of the algae [26].

To calculate the biomass productivity from day 1 to day 12 (12 days), it was calculated by equation (1) where DCW1 equals 3 grams, DCW2 is 30.7 grams. Biomass productivity of the algae is $4.619 \text{ g L}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$.

4.7.2 Shell tank observation

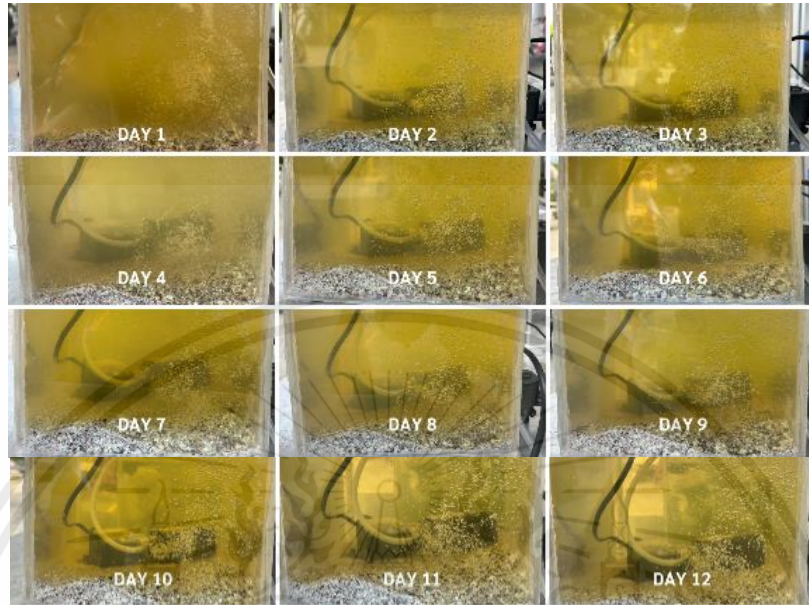


Figure 4.8 Pictures of shells dissolving in a shell tank over 12 days

All photos of the shell tank in Figure 4.8 were taken at 17.00 each day with air pumped with air pump 2 from day 1 to day 12. It is noticeable that the water in the tank is cleaner and clearer.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

This chapter will discuss the summary of the experimental results and suggestions for improving the design of an off-grid solar-driven system for dual-layer carbon capture system integrating algae and seashell, which is shown in the following topic

5.1 Summary of experimental results

5.2 Suggestions

5.1 Summary of experimental results

Off-Grid solar power system design for a 2-layer carbon dioxide capture process with algae and mussel shells for 12 days by growing the algae with 6.0 liters of chlorine-free water with 1.0 sodium chloride (NaCl) nutrient g/L. Air is sucked in with an air pump 1 (14 L/min). The ratio of natural light to 6W blue LED lights is 12:12. Mix a layer of 600.5 grams of crushed mussel shell with water to increase the absorption of carbon dioxide in the working volume of 6.0 liters.

The results show the average CO₂ reduction efficiency of the two-layer carbon capture system was 54.6%, with the highest efficiency recorded on day 7 at 69.1% and the lowest on day 12 at 34.6%, with a correlation. by dissolving calcium carbonate in shell tanks to help reduce CO₂ levels. In addition, the off-grid solar cell power system provided enough power to run the experiment for 12 days. The power produced at 10.00 fluctuated and the power produced tends to depend on weather conditions, contrast to the constant range at 17.00. The pH values of both the algae and shell tanks showed a clear trend. The algae tanks initially decreased in value before stabilizing. Meanwhile, the shell tank maintains an alkaline pH, which is caused by the dissolution of the shells, which increases the CO₂ reduction efficiency. Observation of the algae tank and shell tank. It revealed significant algae growth and a biomass yield of 4.619 g L⁻¹d⁻¹. Meanwhile, in the shell tank, it was found that the water was clearly cleaner.

Overall, the findings indicate the potential of algae and shell to alleviate carbon dioxide levels and highlighting the ability to capture carbon and produce sustainable solar energy.

5.2 Suggestion

The off-grid solar energy system design is able to provide power for 12 days continuously to a two-layer carbon dioxide capture process using algae and mussel shells, which has an average efficiency in reducing carbon dioxide of 54.6% which is the efficiency of the whole system. But, the performance of the algae tank and the seashell tank cannot be determined separately.

Researcher suggests that the sensors should be installed between the algae tank and the shell tank as an alternative for determining the efficiency of reducing carbon dioxide in each tank.

In addition, the information obtained can be developed into science activities that focus on creating solar energy production sources or conserving water sources by reusing waste to reduce carbon dioxide. Raise awareness of the use of mussel shells and algae for their intended purpose.



REFERENCES

- [1] Boden, T.A., Marland, G., Andres, R.J. (2017). Global, Regional, and National Fossil-Fuel CO₂ Emissions. Carbon Dioxide Information Analysis Center. Oak Ridge National Laboratory, U.S. Department of Energy. https://doi.org/10.3334/CDIAC/00001_V2017
- [2] EPA. (2021). Global Greenhouse Gas Emissions Data. Retrieved from <https://www.epa.gov/ghgemissions/global-greenhouse-gas-emissions-data>
- [3] Green Network. (2022). Carbon Dioxide Emissions from the Energy Sector in Thailand's First 6 Months of 2565 BE. <https://www.greennetworkthailand.com/CO2-energy-q2-2565/>
- [4] Xu, X., Gu, X., Wang, Z., Shatner, W., & Wang, Z. (2019). Progress, challenges and solutions research on photosynthetic carbon sequestration efficiency of microalgae. *Renewable & Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 110, 65–82. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rser.2019.04.050>
- [5] Bhola, V., Swalaha, F. M., Kumar, R. R., Singh, M., & Bux, F. (2014). Overview of the potential of microalgae for CO₂ sequestration. *International Journal of Environmental Science and Technology*, 11(7), 2103–2118. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13762-013-0487-6>
- [6] Suktalord, P., Pratsaphan, R., Rakchad, S., Petchpool, T., Kerdsoombat, P., & Laloknam, S. (2016). The Use of Algae as Water Quality Indicator in Sansab Canal. Research Unit of Science, Technology, and Environment for Learning, Faculty of Science, Srinakharinwirot University. <https://doi.org/10.14456/jstel.2016.2>
- [7] Juškaite, L., & Zagorskis, A. (2020). Microalgae strains *monoraphidium griffithi* and *chlorella* sp. for the carbon dioxide capture from biogas. The 11th International Conference ENVIRONMENTAL ENGINEERING 11th ICEE SELECTED PAPERS. <https://doi.org/10.3846/enviro.2020.720>
- [8] Anguselvi, V., Masto, R. E., Mukherjee, A. K., & Singh, P. P. (2019). CO₂ capture for industries by algae. In IntechOpen eBooks. <https://doi.org/10.5772/intechopen.81800>

- [9] เงินคำทอง, ก., ชื่นบาล, ศ., ชื่นบาล, ร., & เงินคำทอง, น. (2017). The Efficiency of Carbon Dioxide Capture by Green Microalgae. https://ph01.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/rmu_tijo/article/view/96537
- [10] Zhang, H., Kuo, W., Gao, F., Li, Z., Yu, Z., Jiang, J., Lian, T., & Feng, G. (2023). Feedbacks of CaCO₃ dissolution effect on ocean carbon sink and seawater acidification: a model study. *Environmental Research Communications*, 5(2), 021004. <https://doi.org/10.1088/2515-7620/aca9ac>
- [11] Li, J., Irfan, M., Samad, S., Ali, B., Zhang, Y., Bădulescu, D., & Bădulescu, A. (2023). The Relationship between Energy Consumption, CO₂ Emissions, Economic Growth, and Health Indicators. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 20(3), 2325. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph20032325>
- [12] Singh, J., & Dhar, D. W. (2019). Overview of Carbon capture Technology: Microalgal Biorefinery concept and State-of-the-Art. *Frontiers in Marine Science*, 6. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmars.2019.00029>
- [13] Wang, Y., Stessman, D., & Spalding, M. H. (2015). The CO₂ concentrating mechanism and photosynthetic carbon assimilation in limiting CO₂: how *Chlamydomonas* works against the gradient. *Plant Journal*, 82(3), 429–448. <https://doi.org/10.1111/tpj.12829>
- [14] Ighalo, J. O., Dulta, K., Kurniawan, S. B., Omoarukhe, F. O., Ewuzie, U., Eshiemogie, S. O., Ojo, A. U., & Abdullah, S. R. S. (2022). Progress in microalgae application for CO₂ sequestration. *Cleaner Chemical Engineering*, 3, 100044. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clce.2022.100044>
- [15] Popović, N. T., Lorencin, V., Strunjak-Perović, I., & Čož-Rakovac, R. (2023). Shell Waste Management and Utilization: Mitigating organic pollution and enhancing sustainability. *Applied Sciences*, 13(1), 623. <https://doi.org/10.3390/app13010623>
- [16] Zhang, H., Kuo, W., Gao, F., Li, Z., Yu, Z., Jiang, J., Lian, T., & Feng, G. (2023). Feedbacks of CaCO₃ dissolution effect on ocean carbon sink and seawater acidification: a model

- study. *Environmental Research Communications*, 5(2), 021004.
<https://doi.org/10.1088/2515-7620/aca9ac>
- [17] Measurements of cell biomass concentration. (n.d.). Retrieved from
<https://user.eng.umd.edu/~nsw/ench485/lab9c.htm>
- [18] Brian. (2022). Off-Grid or On-Grid PV systems: Which to choose? Professional Distributed PV Module Manufacturer. <https://www.maysunsolar.com/off-grid-or-on-grid-pv-systems/>
- [19] Vidyanandan, K. (2017). An Overview of Factors Affecting the Performance of Solar PV Systems. Power Management Institute, NTPC Ltd., NOIDA, India.
- [20] Kao, C. Y., Chiu, S. Y., Huang, T. T., Dai, L., Hsu, L. K., & Lin, C. S. (2012). Ability of a mutant strain of microalgae *Chlorella* sp. to capture carbon dioxide for biogas upgrading. *Applied Energy*, 39, 76-183.
- [21] Vinod, K., Richa, K., Sonika, K., & Pankaj, K. (2020). Sustainable approaches towards wastewater treatment using algal technology along with management of post-harvest biomass.
- [22] Sumardiono, S., Yono, B., Syaichurrozi, I., & Sasongko, S. B. (2014). Utilization of biogas as carbon dioxide provider for *Spirulina platensis* culture. *Biological Sciences*, 6(1), 53-59.
- [23] Sea, M. A., Hillman, J. R., & Thrush, S. F. (2022). The influence of mussel restoration on coastal carbon cycling. *Global Change Biology*, 28(17), 5269–5282.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.16287>
- [24] Zhou, W., Wang, J., Chen, P., Ji, C., Kang, Q., Lu, B., Li, K., Liu, J., & Ruan, R. (2017). Bio-mitigation of carbon dioxide using microalgal systems: Advances and perspectives. *Renewable & Sustainable Energy Reviews*, 76, 1163–1175.

- [25] Suktalord, P., Pratsaphan, R., Rakchad, S., Petchpool, T., Kerdsoombat, P., & Laloknam, S. (2016). The use of algae as water quality indicator in Sansab Canal. หน่วยวิจัยวิทยาศาสตร์ เทคโนโลยี และสิ่งแวดล้อมเพื่อการเรียนรู้คณะวิทยาศาสตร์มหาวิทยาลัยศรีนครินทรวิโรฒ.
- [26] Brittany.Chesser. (2020). Planktonic Algae Die-off - Aquaculture, Fisheries, & Pond Management. Aquaculture, Fisheries, & Pond Management. <https://fisheries.tamu.edu/2020/12/02/planktonic-die-off/>



APPENDIX A COMPLETED STRUCTURE



APPENDIX B

THE SYSTEM AT DAY TIME



APPENDIX C
THE SYSTEM AT NIGHT TIME

