



A STUDY AND DESIGN FOR A CONTINUOUS BIOGAS PRODUCTION SYSTEM

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**A PROJECT SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF MECHANICAL
ENGINEERING, FACULTY OF ENGINEERING, UNIVERSITY OF BENIN, BENIN
CITY, EDO STATE IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
AWARD OF BACHELOR OF ENGINEERING (B.Eng.) IN MECHANICAL
ENGINEERING**

2024/2025 ACADEMIC SESSION

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CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that the project titled “A STUDY AND DESIGN FOR A CONTINUOUS BIOGAS PRODUCTION SYSYEM” by Uwaila Love Idemudia, Osamede Weston Oshodin, Jeffrey Oladugba, Henry Tamarauyekedein Kebbi, Jolomi Okome, Daniel Chukwuwendu, Adeh, Gaius Dafe Ibodje, Confidence Ofuzim Imahia-Erhabor, Joshua Efi Isiaka, Joshua Ogheneochuko Ezeh, presented to the Department of Mechanical Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, University of Benin, Benin City, was conducted under the supervision of Professor Dennis Iyeke Igbinomwanhia.

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DEDICATION

This project is dedicated first and foremost to God Almighty, the eternal source of all wisdom and knowledge, for granting us the insight and strength to complete this work. We also dedicate it to our beloved parents and family members, whose unwavering support, prayers, and sacrifices were a constant source of motivation for our entire group. Finally, we dedicate this work to our lecturers and the staff of the Department of Mechanical Engineering, for providing us with the foundational knowledge and academic environment that made this project possible.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT(S)

We wish to express our profound gratitude to all the individuals who offered their support, guidance, and expertise, contributing in numerous ways to the successful completion of this project.

Our deepest and most sincere appreciation goes to our project supervisor, Prof. Dennis Iyeke Igbinomwanhia. His invaluable guidance, patience, and keen insight were the cornerstones of this research. His constructive criticism and consistent mentorship pushed us to refine our ideas and overcome the inevitable challenges of fabrication and testing. We are immensely grateful for the time and knowledge he dedicated to us, guiding us from the initial conceptual design to the final, functional prototype.

We would also like to extend our sincere thanks to the Project Coordinator, Engr. Martin Oshikueme, for his diligent oversight and for ensuring the smooth administrative progress of our work. Our gratitude also goes to the Head of Department and the entire academic and non-academic staff of the Department of Mechanical Engineering for providing the foundational knowledge and the workshop resources that made this practical project possible.

Finally, we cannot forget our colleagues and friends. We are grateful for the collaborative discussions, the mutual encouragement, and the moral support throughout this demanding final year. Your camaraderie and willingness to share ideas were invaluable.

ABSTRACT

Biogas presents a clean, renewable alternative to fossil fuels, capable of turning organic waste into a valuable energy source. However, the widespread adoption of traditional household digesters is hindered by a critical operational inefficiency: most systems operate in batches, requiring a prolonged downtime of up to 21 days for decomposition and reloading. This cycle makes them an unreliable and unsustainable energy source for daily use. This project addresses this core problem by aiming to design, fabricate, and test a mechanically optimized, easily refillable biogas digester that enables a truly continuous production system, thereby eliminating batch-processing delays.

The methodology followed a systematic engineering design process, beginning with a feasibility study and the development of four distinct conceptual designs. A comprehensive conceptual design analysis, utilizing a weighted decision matrix, was carried out to evaluate these concepts against critical attributes like durability, safety, and ease of fabrication. The superior concept was selected for its robust continuous operation capability. This was followed by a detailed design analysis of the chosen concept, specifying all components, materials, and dimensions for a durable, vertical, cylindrical stainless-steel vessel. The design's key innovation is a dual-port feeding mechanism, featuring a top port for initial charging and a side-mounted manual rotary pump for continuous feeding. This design was then successfully fabricated to meet all intended specifications.

Following fabrication, a hydrostatic test was successfully performed on the canister to verify its structural integrity and confirm it was completely sealed and leak-proof. With the vessel's integrity validated, the biological testing phase was initiated. The digester was charged with a buffered cow dung slurry feedstock to begin the anaerobic digestion process. The system is currently under critical observation, with the pressure gauge being continually monitored for positive readings, which indicate the successful onset of gas production within the sealed canister and validate the design as a practical, sustainable alternative.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 BACKGROUND OF THE WORK

Biogas is a renewable fuel generated through anaerobic digestion of organic waste like food scraps, agricultural residues, and manure, and it offers a suitable alternative to fossil fuels. Composed mainly of methane and carbon dioxide, it can power household cooking, heating, and lighting while reducing greenhouse gas emissions and organic waste pollution. Traditional biogas digesters, however, face operational inefficiencies, particularly in feedstock management. Many systems require prolonged downtime (often 21 days) to process a single batch of slurry into combustible methane, disrupting fuel supply and complicating user adoption.

This project focuses on designing a mechanically optimized, easily refillable biogas digester, that ensures continuous operation by eliminating batch-processing delays. Central to this innovation is the integration of continuous feeding mechanisms, engineered to allow seamless addition of fresh organic waste without interrupting active digestion or gas storage. For instance, modular feedstock chambers with quick-seal ports enable users to replenish compost material incrementally, maintaining a steady supply of substrate for microbial activity. This approach bypasses the need to wait for full slurry decomposition, ensuring uninterrupted methane production.

Mechanical engineering principles are critical to achieving this functionality. The digester's structural design prioritizes material durability (e.g., corrosion-resistant polymers or coated steel) to withstand internal gas pressure and acidic byproducts. It has a geometry, often cylindrical or modular, that is optimized for even pressure distribution and ease of refilling. Thermal regulation systems, such as insulated walls, sustain optimal temperatures (20-45 degrees Celsius) to accelerate digestion rates, further reducing reliance on fixed batch cycles.

Key innovations include easily accessible feedstock ports, and gas-pressure balancing mechanisms, which maintain system integrity during refilling.

1.1 STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Today's Biogas production has been greatly helpful in the cooking process, but due to the duration (21 days) it takes for the fermentation and decomposition of the biowaste, it is not a

sustainable and reliable cooking method. The modification of the biogas digester will help to make the cooking cycle continuous and sustainable without having to wait for 21 days, thereby saving time and other costs.

1.2 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

1.2.1 AIMS

To design a mechanically optimized, easily refillable biogas digester that enables continuous biogas production by eliminating downtime through seamless organic waste replenishment, ensuring reliable and sustainable fuel supply for household use.

1.2.2 OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this project are to:

- a) Collect and analyze data collected from a simple biogas digester.
- b) Improve the designs of the simple biogas digester.
- c) Design a durable and corrosion-resistant digester structure.
- d) Test for leakages and integrity of the modified biogas digester.
- e) Evaluate the effectiveness of the modified biogas digester in improving the sustainability of the biogas decomposition.
- f) Draw conclusions and recommendations based on the result of the analysis of the modified biogas digester.

1.3 SCOPE

This research focuses on designing and testing a refillable biogas digester for household use, including mechanical components for easy waste addition, gauge monitoring, and pressure resistance. Limitations include small-scale testing (not industrial applications), feasibility studies for mass production, regional climate variation in different areas and long-term durability studies (1 year and above).

1.4 RELEVANCE OF THE PROJECT

This project addresses urgent societal needs by providing households with a simple, affordable way to turn organic waste into cooking fuel. It reduces reliance on polluting fuels (like charcoal or firewood), cuts down expenses on use of conventional cooking means, and tackles energy

poverty in off-grid communities. The easy-to-refill design ensures consistent fuel supply, making biogas practical for everyday use.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter combines global research on organic waste valorization, anaerobic digestion technology, and biogas digester engineering. It establishes the scientific, technical, and contextual foundation for continuous canister-type digesters, examining historical waste practices, biochemical processes, digester evolution, engineering design principles, and regional applications. The review identifies research gaps to justify the current study's focus.

2.1 INTRODUCTION TO ORGANIC WASTE MANAGEMENT: A HISTORICAL AND RESOURCE PERSPECTIVE

Organic waste, primarily derived from biological sources such as plants, animals, and their metabolic byproducts, has been an intrinsic part of human civilization since its inception. Understanding humanity's historical relationship with these materials is crucial to appreciating the paradigm shift towards viewing them as a resource for energy recovery, such as biogas production, rather than merely a disposal problem. This section traces the evolution of organic waste management, highlighting the transition from traditional utilization to modern resource recovery imperatives.

2.1.1 PRE-INDUSTRIAL UTILIZATION OF ORGANIC RESIDUES

Historically, organic residues were rarely considered "waste" in the modern sense. Pre-industrial societies practiced highly efficient resource cycling out of necessity. Agricultural residues like crop stalks (straw) and husks were extensively used as animal fodder (Smith, 2011) and bedding material (Jones & Brown, 2008). Perhaps most significantly, animal manure was recognized as a vital soil amendment long before the advent of synthetic fertilizers. Ancient texts from China, Mesopotamia, and Rome document the systematic collection and application of manure to maintain soil fertility (Fraser, 2010). Beyond agriculture, dried animal dung (e.g., "cow patties") served as a readily available and essential solid fuel for cooking and heating in many agrarian and pastoral societies worldwide, a practice persisting in many regions today (Reddy, 2015). Certain organic materials, like straw mixed with clay (cob) or manure used as a binder in traditional plasters (Torraca, 2009), also found applications in construction, demonstrating early forms of resource efficiency. This era was characterized by localized, low-energy input

utilization driven by immediate needs within largely closed-loop agricultural systems (Ellis & Wang, 2010).

2.1.2 WHEN WASTE STOPPED BEING USEFUL

The Industrial Revolution and subsequent rapid urbanization fundamentally disrupted traditional waste management practices. The concentration of populations in cities vastly outpaced the development of infrastructure for waste collection and disposal (Melosi, 2005). Organic waste, previously a valuable resource on farms, became a concentrated public health hazard in urban settings. Accumulations of food scraps, human excreta, and animal manure in streets and waterways contributed significantly to the spread of waterborne diseases like cholera and typhoid during the 19th century (Tarr, 1996). While sewage systems began to develop, they primarily focused on removing waste from human settlements, often discharging raw or minimally treated sewage into rivers or oceans, shifting the problem rather than solving it (Gandy, 2004). Simultaneously, the rise of industrial-scale agriculture led to the concentration of animal production (Confined Animal Feeding Operations - CAFOs), generating massive volumes of manure that exceeded the land's capacity for safe application as fertilizer, leading to nutrient pollution (nitrates, phosphates) of groundwater and surface waters (Mallin & Cahoon, 2003). This period marked the transformation of organic residues from a resource into a significant environmental and public health liability requiring costly management.

Table 2.1: Urbanization-driven organic waste issues. UN (2005).

Table 2.1 illustrates the escalating waste challenges caused by urbanization:

Period/Era	Approximate Urban Population (Global)	Dominant Organic Waste Management Practice	Key Environmental/Health Impacts
Pre-1800	Low (<10%)	Localized reuse (fodder, fuel, fertilizer)	Minimal (localized nutrient cycles)
1800-1900	Rapid Increase (10-15%)	Street dumping, rudimentary collection, cesspools	Major epidemics (cholera, typhoid), water pollution
1900-1950	Steady Growth (15-30%)	Development of sewer systems (often combined), landfill beginnings	Continued water pollution, odor, rodent issues
1950-Present	Exponential Growth (>50%)	Engineered landfills, wastewater treatment plants, incineration	Landfill methane emissions, nutrient pollution from CAFOs, treatment sludge disposal

2.1.3 RECOGNIZING ORGANIC WASTE AS A VALUABLE RESOURCE STREAM

The latter half of the 20th century saw growing awareness of the finite nature of fossil resources and the environmental costs associated with both conventional waste disposal and fossil fuel dependence. Concepts like the "limits to growth" (Meadows et al., 1972) and the emerging field of industrial ecology spurred interest in closing material loops (Graedel & Allenby, 2010). Simultaneously, the energy crises of the 1970s highlighted vulnerabilities and spurred research into renewable energy sources, including biomass (Hall et al., 1993). Scientific understanding of anaerobic digestion matured, demonstrating its efficacy not only for waste stabilization and pathogen reduction but crucially for the production of biogas, a versatile renewable fuel (Speece, 1996). This led to the conceptualization of organic waste within frameworks like "waste-to-energy" (WtE) and the "biorefinery" concept, where waste streams are processed to extract

multiple valuable products (e.g., biogas, fertilizers, chemicals) (Cherubini, 2010). The recognition of landfill methane (CH₄) as a potent greenhouse gas (GHG), with a global warming potential many times that of CO₂ (IPCC, 2007), further incentivized diverting organic waste from landfills towards technologies like AD that capture and utilize this methane beneficially.

2.1.4 MODERN CHALLENGES: WASTE VOLUME, ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT, AND RESOURCE RECOVERY IMPERATIVES

Despite the paradigm shift, contemporary society faces unprecedented challenges. Global waste generation continues to rise dramatically, driven by population growth, urbanization, and changing consumption patterns. The World Bank estimates global municipal solid waste (MSW) generation will reach 3.4 billion tonnes per year by 2050, with organic waste (food and green waste) constituting a significant portion, often exceeding 50% in low- and middle-income countries (Kaza et al., 2018). Inefficient management persists, leading to ongoing problems: greenhouse gases emissions from landfills and untreated wastewater, soil and water contamination from leachate and nutrient runoff, air pollution from open burning, and resource depletion associated with extracting virgin materials and producing synthetic fertilizers (Hoornweg & Bhada-Tata, 2012). These challenges underscore the critical imperative for resource recovery. Technologies like anaerobic digestion offer a pathway to address multiple issues simultaneously: reducing waste volumes, mitigating GHG emissions (by capturing methane), producing renewable energy, and recovering nutrients in the form of digestate for soil amendment, contributing to a more circular economy model (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2015).

2.2 FUNDAMENTALS OF BIOGAS PRODUCTION

Anaerobic digestion represents a sophisticated symbiosis of microbial communities that mineralize organic matter under oxygen-depleted conditions. This biochemical cascade not only stabilizes waste but recovers energy in the form of biogas. Understanding these mechanisms is critical for optimizing digester design, operational parameters, and troubleshooting – especially for engineered systems like continuous canister digesters where process stability directly impacts performance.

2.2.1 BIOGAS COMPOSITION AND KEY PROPERTIES

Biogas is a variable mixture whose composition significantly impacts its energy potential and handling requirements:

- I. **Methane (CH₄):** The primary combustible component (50-75% by volume). Its concentration dictates the calorific value (typically 19-25 MJ/m³). Higher CH₄ yields are desirable for energy applications (Deublein & Steinhauser, 2011).
- II. **Carbon Dioxide (CO₂):** A major byproduct (25-50%). While non-combustible, it lowers energy density and can form corrosive carbonic acid (H₂CO₃) when dissolved in condensate, stressing materials.
- III. **Hydrogen Sulfide (H₂S):** Highly corrosive (0.005-2%). It oxidizes to sulfuric acid, causing severe pitting corrosion in steel components (pipes, tanks, engine parts). Even low concentrations (>>100 ppm) necessitate removal for engine use or material durability (Ryckebosch et al., 2011).
- IV. **Trace Components:** Ammonia (NH₃) arises from protein degradation and can inhibit microbes at high levels. Water vapor causes condensation leading to internal corrosion and reduced heating value. Siloxanes (from cosmetics/industrial waste) form abrasive silica deposits in engines during combustion.

Table 2.2: Typical Biogas Composition by Feedstock Type

Biogas constituents vary by feedstock type as follows:

Feedstock	CH ₄ (%)	CO ₂ (%)	H ₂ S (ppm)	Reference
Cattle Manure	55-65	35-45	500-3000	Fantozzi & Buratti, 2011
Food Waste	60-70	30-40	50-500	Zhang et al., 2014
Sewage Sludge	60-65	30-35	100-1000	Appels et al., 2008
Agricultural Residues	55-60	40-45	200-1000	Mao et al., 2015

2.2.2 ANAEROBIC DIGESTION

Anaerobic Digestion is not a single reaction but a sequence of interdependent metabolic stages performed by specialized microbial groups:

- I. **Hydrolysis:** Complex organic polymers (cellulose, proteins, lipids) are enzymatically broken down by *hydrolytic bacteria* (e.g., *Clostridium*, *Bacteroides*) into soluble monomers (sugars, amino acids, fatty acids). This is often the rate-limiting step, especially for recalcitrant materials like lignocellulose. Particle size reduction or pretreatment accelerates hydrolysis (Weiland, 2010).
- II. **Acidogenesis (Acid Formation):** *Acidogenic bacteria* (e.g., *Streptococcus*, *Escherichia*) ferment monomers into volatile fatty acids (VFAs - acetic, propionic, butyric), alcohols (ethanol, methanol), hydrogen (H₂), CO₂, and minor compounds like ammonia and hydrogen sulfide. pH drops significantly here (Batstone et al., 2002).
- III. **Acetogenesis:** *Acetogenic bacteria* (obligate hydrogen producers like *Syntrophobacter*) further oxidize the VFAs and alcohols produced in acidogenesis, primarily into acetic acid (CH₃COOH), H₂, and CO₂. This stage is thermodynamically unfavorable unless H₂ is kept very low by hydrogen-consuming organisms (methanogens).
- IV. **Methanogenesis:** *Methanogenic archaea* (strict anaerobes, e.g., *Methanosaeta*, *Methanosarcina*, *Methanobacterium*) produce methane via two main pathways:
 - a. **Acetoclastic Methanogenesis:** ~70% of methane typically comes from the cleavage of acetic acid: $\text{CH}_3\text{COOH} \rightarrow \text{CH}_4 + \text{CO}_2$. Dominated by *Methanosaeta* at stable, low-acetate conditions.
 - b. **Hydrogenotrophic Methanogenesis:** ~30% comes from the reduction of CO₂ by H₂: $4\text{H}_2 + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_4 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$. Performed by *Methanobacterium* and others. This pathway consumes the H₂ produced in earlier stages, maintaining the low H₂ partial pressure essential for acetogenesis (Demirel & Scherer, 2008).

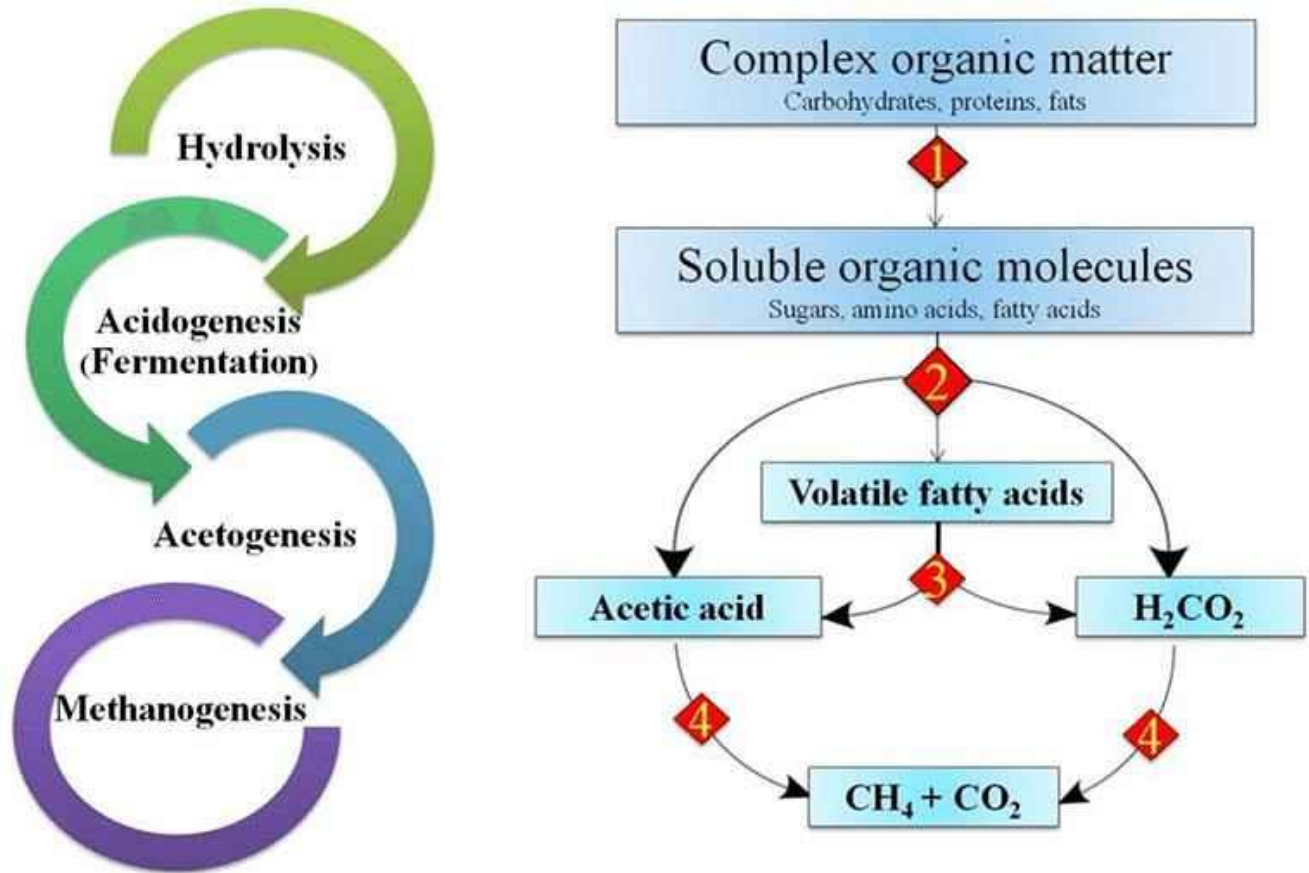


Figure 2.1: Flow Diagram of the Anaerobic Digestion Process. (Muetaz et al., 2019)

2.2.3 FEEDSTOCK CHARACTERISTICS AND SUITABILITY

The efficiency of Anaerobic digestion is profoundly influenced by feedstock physicochemical properties:

1. **Carbon-to-Nitrogen Ratio (C/N):** Microbes require carbon (C) for energy and nitrogen (N) for protein synthesis. An optimal C/N ratio of 20-30 balances these needs (Kayhanian & Rich, 1995).
 - a. **Low C/N (<15-20):** Excess nitrogen degrades to high levels of ammonia ($\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_4^+$), which is toxic to methanogens, particularly acetoclastic ones, inhibiting CH_4 production (e.g., poultry manure).
 - b. **High C/N (>35-40):** Nitrogen limitation slows microbial growth and protein synthesis, reducing digestion rates and biogas yield (e.g., straw, cardboard). Co-digestion (e.g., manure + crop residue) is often used to optimize C/N.

2. **Total Solids (TS) and Volatile Solids (VS) Content:** TS is the total dry matter content. VS represents the organic fraction within TS that is potentially biodegradable. AD systems are classified by TS:
 - a. **Wet Digestion (TS 5-15%):** Pumpable slurry, common in continuously stirred tank reactors (CSTRs). Requires significant water input but offers good mixing and heat transfer.
 - b. **Dry Digestion (TS 20-40%):** Stackable material, often in plug-flow or batch systems. Reduces reactor volume and heating energy but poses challenges in mixing, homogeneity, and potential inhibition (Kothari et al., 2014).
3. **Biodegradability:** The fraction of VS actually converted to biogas. Lignocellulosic materials (high lignin content) are inherently recalcitrant. Pretreatment (mechanical grinding, thermal, chemical like NaOH, or enzymatic) disrupts lignin structure, enhancing hydrolysis rates and ultimate methane yield (Hendriks & Zeeman, 2009).
4. **Presence of Inhibitors:** Certain compounds can severely disrupt microbial activity:
 - a. **Ammonia (NH_3/NH_4^+):** Toxicity threshold depends on pH and temperature (free NH_3 is more toxic). >1500-3000 mg/L NH_4^+ -N can cause inhibition.
 - b. **Long Chain Fatty Acids (LCFAs):** Released from lipid hydrolysis. Can adsorb onto microbial cells, inhibiting transport and activity, especially at concentrations >500-1000 mg/L (e.g., grease trap waste).
 - c. **Heavy Metals (e.g., Cu, Zn, Ni):** Essential as trace elements but toxic at high concentrations. Can precipitate sulfides or directly inhibit enzymes.
 - d. **Organic Toxins (e.g., pesticides, antibiotics, disinfectants):** Can kill sensitive microbial populations (Chen et al., 2008).
5. **Particle Size:** Smaller particles increase the surface area available for enzymatic attack, accelerating hydrolysis. Pre-processing (shredding, milling) is often essential

2.3 EVOLUTION OF BIOGAS TECHNOLOGY

The technological trajectory of anaerobic digestion mirrors humanity's progression from waste management necessity to sophisticated renewable energy systems. This evolution spans millennia, driven by energy crises, environmental imperatives, and engineering innovations, fundamentally transforming biological processes into controllable industrial systems.

2.3.1 ANCIENT ORIGINS AND EMPIRICAL FOUNDATIONS (PRE-1900)

Early civilizations developed pragmatic waste management systems using anaerobic decomposition long before modern energy recovery concepts emerged. Archaeological evidence confirms that ancient Assyria (≈ 1000 BCE) utilized sealed pits for sewage containment, while Ming Dynasty China (14th–17th century) engineered underground "dung tanks" to process human excreta primarily for odor control and fertilizer recovery. These systems operated passively at ambient temperatures without gas capture, relying entirely on natural microbial activity. The scientific foundation began in 1776 when Alessandro Volta identified flammable methane gas from lake sediments, followed by Louis Pasteur's landmark 1859 experiments demonstrating controlled methane production from manure, the first conceptual link between waste and energy potential (Barnett, 1978; McCarty, 2001).

2.3.2 GOBAR GAS PLANTS: FIRST ENGINEERING STANDARDIZATION (1895-1950S)

India's Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC) pioneered the first standardized digester designs in the mid-20th century. Jashbhai Patel's 1951 floating-drum digester featured a movable gas holder atop a masonry tank, while the fixed-dome Janata model (1970s) eliminated moving parts but suffered chronic gas leakage due to inadequate sealing. These designs faced critical limitations: uninsulated masonry caused 40% heat loss, manual slurry handling restricted organic loading rates below 1 kg VS/m³/day, and bitumen-sealed joints permitted 15–30% methane escape. Performance data revealed hydraulic retention times of 50–80 days, double modern systems, with poultry manure digesters failing within 3 years due to ammonia corrosion (Khandelwal, 1981; FAO, 1984).

2.3.3 SCIENTIFIC ADVANCEMENTS (1950s-1990s)

Microbiological breakthroughs transformed digester design, notably Bryant's 1967 discovery that *Methanobacterium omelianskii* was a syntrophic consortium requiring interspecies hydrogen

transfer. This explained recurrent process failures and spurred temperature optimization research. Mesophilic operation ($35\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$) emerged as the efficiency standard, balancing kinetics against energy input, while thermophilic systems ($55\pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$) accelerated hydrolysis but required 60% more heating. Continuous-flow hydraulics replaced batch processing, reducing retention times to 20 days. Mechanical innovations like radial flow impellers resolved scum formation, boosting yields by 25% (Bryant et al., 1967; Speece, 1996).

2.3.5 ADVANCED MATERIAL INNOVATIONS (1980s-PRESENT)

Corrosion-resistant materials revolutionized digester longevity. Stainless steel 316L (2.5% Mo content) resisted pitting at $>1,000$ ppm H_2S , while filament-wound FRP vinylester tanks withstood pH 2–12. Rotational-molded HDPE enabled seamless non-pressurized vessels, though pressure limitations persisted. Ethylene propylene diene monomer (EPDM) geomembranes reduced methane permeability to <0.5 $\text{cm}^3/\text{m}^2/\text{day}$, enabling large-scale lagoon covers (Khalil et al., 2008).

2.3.6 CLIMATE POLICY DRIVING TECHNOLOGICAL LEAP (1997-PRESENT)

The 1997 Kyoto Protocol's clean development mechanism mobilized global biogas investments. Technological integration surged: co-digestion of fats/oils/greases boosted yields 40%, membrane-based biogas upgrading achieved 98% methane purity, and digestate pelletization enabled fertilizer export. Post-2010, 78% of European plants adopted combined heat and power systems, elevating efficiency from 45% to 85% (UNFCCC, 2015; IEA, 2022).

2.4 CONTINUOUS ANAEROBIC DIGESTION SYSTEMS: ELIMINATING OPERATIONAL DOWNTIME

Continuous anaerobic digestion (CAD) systems represent a fundamental change from batch processing by enabling uninterrupted biogas production. This section examines how CAD overcomes the inherent limitations of traditional batch systems, particularly the 21-day decomposition downtime, through engineered hydraulic stability and microbial management.

2.4.1 THE BATCH SYSTEM BOTTLENECK: 21-DAY DECOMPOSITION DOWNTIME

Traditional batch digesters require sequential processing cycles:

1. **Loading Phase:** 1–2 days for feedstock filling
2. **Retention Phase:** 40–60 days for decomposition (microbial lag + active digestion)
3. **Unloading Phase:** 3–5 days for digestate removal
4. **Idle Phase: 21-day mandatory downtime** for reactor cleaning, maintenance, and microbial re-establishment (De Baere, 2000).

Consequences of Downtime

Annual Capacity Loss:

Batch digesters suffer 30–40% reduced annual biogas output compared to continuous systems due to mandatory 21-day idle periods between processing cycles. This extended downtime, required for digestate removal, reactor cleaning, and microbial culture reestablishment, directly diminishes productive capacity, as the facility remains non-operational for over 120 days yearly (De Baere, 2000).

Biogas Yield Fluctuations:

Biogas production varies by $\pm 50\%$ across batch phases, creating operational instability. During the initial 10–15 days after loading, acidogenesis dominates, yielding gas with low methane content (40–50% CH₄). Peak production (60–70% CH₄) occurs only between days 20–40, followed by rapid decline as substrates deplete. This inconsistency complicates energy planning and equipment sizing (Angelidaki et al., 2003).

Labor-Intensive Restarts:

Restarting batch systems demands significant manual effort, particularly inoculum reseeded. Operators must source 20–30% volume of active digestate from functioning reactors, transport it to the site, and acclimate microbes over 7–10 days, a process consuming 15–25 person-hours per restart. Failed reseeded attempts prolong downtime by 3–4 weeks, exacerbating capacity losses (Karim et al., 2005).

2.4.4 OPERATIONAL ADVANTAGES OF CONTINUOUS SYSTEMS OVER BATCH SYSTEMS

Continuous anaerobic digestion systems fundamentally transform biogas production efficiency by eliminating the inherent operational limitations of batch processing. Unlike batch digesters, which require sequential loading, retention, and unloading phases punctuated by extended downtime, continuous systems maintain uninterrupted feedstock processing through steady-state hydraulic balance. This perpetual operation enables 365-day annual productivity compared to just 245 days in batch configurations, directly translating to a 48% increase in volumetric methane yield (Angelidaki et al., 2003). The absence of idle periods between cycles ensures consistent microbial activity, preventing the biomass decay and re-acclimation delays that plague batch reactors during their mandatory 21-day rest phases.

Process stability emerges as another critical advantage, driven by the thermodynamic equilibrium achieved in continuous flow systems. Internal parameters exhibit minimal fluctuation: pH levels vary by less than ± 0.3 units (versus ± 1.5 in batch reactors), while volatile fatty acid (VFA) concentrations remain stable at 200–500 mg/L. This stability stems from continuous buffering against organic shock loads and the avoidance of the acidification peaks common in batch systems during initial feedstock decomposition. Consequently, methanogenic consortia operate at optimal metabolic rates without inhibitory disruptions, enhancing both gas quality (65–75% CH₄) and production consistency.

Scalability is revolutionized through modular design paradigms inherent to continuous canister systems. Operators can incrementally expand capacity by deploying identical reactor units in parallel arrays, allowing seamless scaling from household (5m³) to community-scale (50m³+) applications without redesigning core infrastructure. This modularity, combined with automated feeding mechanisms, reduces manual labor by 70% (Kothari et al., 2014) through programmable slurry pumps and real-time monitoring systems. The elimination of batch-specific tasks, such as manual sludge removal and reactor re-seeding, further streamlines operations, making continuous systems particularly viable for regions with limited technical workforces.

2.5 CRITICAL FACTORS INFLUENCING BIOGAS PRODUCTION EFFICIENCY

The performance of continuous anaerobic digestion systems is governed by a complex interplay of biological, chemical, and physical parameters. Optimizing these factors is paramount for achieving maximum methane yield and operational stability in canister-type digesters. This section provides a comprehensive analysis of the critical variables affecting biogas production, synthesizing global research with emphasis on engineering implications for continuous systems. Each subsection begins with an explanatory overview before detailing specific parameters.

2.5.1 ENVIRONMENTAL PARAMETERS

Environmental conditions directly regulate microbial metabolism and biochemical reaction rates. Maintaining optimal parameters ensures stable consortia of hydrolytic, acidogenic, and methanogenic microorganisms.

A. Temperature Regimes: Temperature governs reaction kinetics and microbial community composition. Anaerobic digestion occurs across three thermal ranges with distinct characteristics:

- a. **Psychrophilic (15–25°C):** Natural decomposition range with slow kinetics (HRT>60 days). Limited to passive systems in cold climates but requires minimal energy input (McKeown et al., 2009).
- b. **Mesophilic (35–37°C):** The industry standard for continuous systems, balancing kinetic efficiency with operational stability. *Methanosaeta* species dominate, providing robust performance with OLR fluctuations. Heat loss mitigation is critical – 1°C drop below 35°C reduces methanogenesis by 7% (El-Mashad et al., 2004).
- c. **Thermophilic (55–58°C):** Accelerates hydrolysis rates by 2.5× but increases ammonia toxicity risk. Requires precise temperature control ($\pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$) as *Methanothermobacter* communities are sensitive to perturbations. Energy input is 60% higher than mesophilic systems (Deublein & Steinhauser, 2011).

B. pH and Alkalinity Dynamics: pH stability is crucial for methanogen function. The optimal range (6.8–7.4) is maintained through bicarbonate buffering (alkalinity >2,500 mg/L as CaCO₃). Key mechanisms include:

- a. VFA consumption by methanogens naturally raises pH
- b. CO₂ dissolution lowers pH
- c. Sodium bicarbonate dosing counters acidification during shock loads
A pH drop >0.3 units/day signals imminent process failure requiring intervention (Chen et al., 2008).

2.5.2 FEEDSTOCK-DETERMINED FACTORS

Feedstock composition critically governs reactor loading capacity, nutrient equilibrium, and inhibition risks in continuous anaerobic digestion systems. Maintaining consistent feedstock characteristics is essential for steady-state operation, as variability disrupts microbial consortia and biogas productivity.

Organic Loading Rate (OLR) Optimization:

OLR defines the daily volatile solids load per reactor volume unit. Exceeding substrate-specific thresholds triggers volatile fatty acid (VFA) accumulation and process failure. For cattle manure, the safe mesophilic OLR ranges from 2–3 kg VS/m³/day, failing beyond 4.5 kg VS/m³/day. Food waste tolerates 3–4 kg VS/m³/day but collapses above 6.0 kg VS/m³/day, while sewage sludge is limited to 1–2 kg VS/m³/day with failure at 3.0 kg VS/m³/day (Appels et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2014). These thresholds reflect feedstock biodegradability and microbial kinetics.

Nutrient Balance and Inhibition Management:

Microbial communities require precise macronutrient ratios. The carbon-to-nitrogen (C/N) ratio must be maintained at 20–30:1; low C/N substrates like poultry manure (C/N=9) cause ammonia inhibition above 1,500 mg NH₄⁺-N/L, while high C/N materials like straw (C/N=80) limit microbial protein synthesis. Co-digestion balances these extremes, e.g., manure-straw blends optimize degradation kinetics (Kayhanian & Rich, 1995). Trace elements act as enzymatic cofactors: cobalt (0.1 mg/L) activates vitamin B₁₂-dependent reactions, nickel (0.5 mg/L) enables F₄₂₀ hydrogenase function, and selenium (0.05 mg/L) supports formate dehydrogenase in methanogens (Demirel & Scherer, 2008).

Inhibitor mitigation requires proactive interventions. Free ammonia becomes toxic above 80 mg/L, necessitating dilution or pH control below 7.8. Hydrogen sulfide exceeding 150 ppm in

biogas demands iron chloride dosing or biofiltration. Long-chain fatty acids accumulate beyond 1,000 mg/L, requiring thermal pre-hydrolysis to prevent microbial inhibition.

2.5.3 OPERATIONAL PARAMETERS

Effective process control in continuous anaerobic digestion systems relies on optimized mixing regimes and precise retention time management to maximize microbial efficiency and biogas yield.

Mixing Dynamics:

Homogenization prevents stratification and scum formation, with two primary methodologies offering distinct advantages. Mechanical mixing, operating at 60–80 rpm, delivers uniform shear distribution essential for viscous slurries but consumes significant energy (0.8–1.2 kWh/m³). Its efficacy depends on impeller design to eliminate dead zones in cylindrical canisters, particularly near baffle interfaces. Conversely, gas recirculation at 0.4–0.6 volume gas per volume reactor per minute (vvm) reduces energy use by 40% by leveraging biogas injection to induce turbulence. While ideal for small-scale systems (<10 m³), exceeding 1.0 vvm risks destabilizing foam formation.

Retention Time Optimization:

Hydraulic Retention Time (HRT) defines the duration feedstock remains in the reactor, with a minimum threshold of 15 days for mesophilic systems to prevent methanogen washout. Solid Retention Time (SRT), representing microbial residence duration, is decoupled from HRT in advanced configurations like membrane bioreactors. This decoupling, achieving SRT values of 50 days at HRTs as low as 8 days, enables higher organic loading rates (OLR) by retaining active biomass while accelerating throughput. Such systems leverage ultrafiltration or biofilm carriers to concentrate microorganisms independent of hydraulic flow.

2.6 CONSTRUCTION TECHNIQUES AND MATERIALS FOR CONTINUOUS CANISTER DIGESTERS

The structural integrity and longevity of biogas digesters depend critically on appropriate material selection and construction methodologies. This section examines global best practices in digester fabrication, emphasizing material science principles, corrosion management, and structural design considerations specific to continuous canister systems. Each subsection begins

with a comprehensive overview of the topic before detailing technical specifications and implementation protocols.

2.6.1 MATERIAL SELECTION CRITERIA

Material choice balances corrosion resistance, mechanical strength, fabrication feasibility, and lifecycle cost. Key parameters include:

- a) **Corrosion Resistance:** Priority for H₂S/CO₂-rich environments
- b) **Tensile Strength:** Minimum yield strength >250 MPa for pressure vessels
- c) **Fabricability:** Weldability/moldability for on-site construction
- d) **Thermal Conductivity:** <0.5 W/m·K for thermal efficiency
- e) **Cost-Effectiveness:** 20-year lifecycle cost analysis (Khalil et al., 2008)

2.6.2 TRADITIONAL CONSTRUCTION MATERIALS

Historically prevalent in developing regions due to local availability and low upfront costs, traditional materials present significant limitations for modern biogas applications. Brick masonry construction demands skilled labor and a specific 1:3 cement-sand mortar ratio yet achieves only minimal pressure containment (15 cm water column), while exhibiting high vulnerability to hydrogen sulfide-induced sulfate attack that causes structural degradation within 3–5 years of operation (FAO, 1984). Ferrocement, utilizing wire mesh-reinforced cement layers at 2–4 cm thickness, offers marginally improved pressure resistance (0.2 bar) but suffers from inherent permeability exceeding 10⁻¹⁰ m/s, necessitating supplemental sealing. Its labor-intensive fabrication process requires 25–40 person-days per cubic meter of reactor volume, increasing project timelines and costs despite material accessibility (Singh et al., 2010).

2.6.3 MODERN ENGINEERED MATERIALS

Contemporary digester construction prioritizes durability through advanced materials that address the corrosive biogas environment. Carbon steel (ASTM A36) requires a minimum 3 mm corrosion allowance combined with epoxy or polyurethane linings, with wall thickness calculated using the ASME Boiler and Pressure Vessel Code formula $t = (P \times D) / (2 \times S \times E - 0.2 \times P)$, though it remains restricted to low-sulfur environments (<50 ppm H₂S) due to corrosion susceptibility. In contrast, stainless steel 316L leverages 2.5% molybdenum content to resist

pitting corrosion at H₂S concentrations exceeding 500 ppm, necessitating tungsten inert gas (TIG) welding with argon shielding to prevent carbide precipitation during fabrication (ASM International, 2006). Fiberglass Reinforced Plastic (FRP), employing a vinylester resin matrix, withstands pH fluctuations from 2 to 12 and achieves tensile strengths exceeding 300 MPa via filament winding, yet requires UV-resistant gel coatings for outdoor durability. High-Density Polyethylene (HDPE) offers chemical inertness and seamless joints through extrusion welding (retaining >90% base strength) within a -50°C to +60°C operational range, though it remains vulnerable to stress cracking under point loads and is unsuitable for pressurized applications (Khalil et al., 2008).

2.6.4 FABRICATION AND JOINING TECHNIQUES

Precision fabrication and joining methodologies are critical to achieving gas-tight integrity in biogas digesters, with techniques tailored to material properties. For steel vessels, welding protocols mandate preheating to 150°C for sections exceeding 20 mm thickness to prevent hydrogen cracking, followed by post-weld heat treatment at 600–650°C to relieve residual stresses, and mandatory dye penetrant testing to detect surface defects invisible to visual inspection. Plastic components employ specialized molding processes: rotational molding creates seamless HDPE vessels with uniform wall thickness, while vacuum infusion techniques enable complex fiberglass reinforced plastic (FRP) geometries by saturating dry fibers with vinylester resin under controlled pressure. Adhesive bonding of FRP components utilizes high-strength methacrylate adhesives achieving 25 MPa shear strength, requiring surface preparation through grit blasting to Sa 2.5 cleanliness standards to ensure optimal bond durability in humid, corrosive environments.

2.7 ENGINEERING ANALYSIS OF CANISTER-TYPE DIGESTER VESSELS

Continuous canister digesters function as thin-walled pressure vessels requiring rigorous structural analysis to ensure safety and longevity. This section examines stress distributions, stability criteria, and design methodologies grounded in pressure vessel engineering principles, with specific application to biogas containment.

2.7.1 PRESSURE VESSEL FUNDAMENTALS

Thin-wall theory applies when vessel radius-to-thickness ratio exceeds 10 ($r/t > 10$). Canister digesters typically operate at low pressures (<0.5 bar) but require analysis for combined loads. Key assumptions include:

- A. Uniform internal pressure distribution
- B. Negligible radial stress component
- C. Homogeneous, isotropic material properties

2.7.2 STRESS ANALYSIS OF DIGESTER VESSEL

The structural integrity of continuous canister digesters relies on fundamental stress analysis principles applicable to thin-walled cylindrical pressure vessels. These vessels operate under low internal biogas pressure but require rigorous evaluation due to cyclic loading and environmental forces. The analysis follows classical pressure vessel theory validated by engineering standards and empirical research.

Primary Stress Components:

Two dominant stresses govern vessel design under internal pressure. The circumferential stress, acting tangentially to resist bursting forces, is determined by:

$$\sigma_h = (P \times D) / (2 \times t) \dots\dots\dots (2.1)$$

where P represents internal pressure, D denotes vessel diameter, and t indicates wall thickness. This stress dominates vessel behavior, typically reaching twice the magnitude of the longitudinal stress acting parallel to the cylinder axis:

$$\sigma_l = (P \times D) / (4 \times t) \dots\dots\dots (2.2)$$

These equations assume uniform stress distribution in thin-walled geometries where diameter exceeds 20 times thickness ($D/t > 20$), as established in pressure vessel mechanics (Harvey, 1991).

Environmental Load Interactions:

External forces superimpose secondary stresses on the primary pressure-induced components. Wind loads generate bending moments proportional to wind velocity squared, while seismic

accelerations induce inertial forces based on vessel mass and ground motion. For buried installations, soil pressure contributes compressive stresses inversely proportional to wall thickness. These combined loads necessitate von Mises stress evaluation to prevent localized yielding at critical junctions (ASME, 2019).

Geometric Discontinuity Effects:

Openings for nozzles, manholes, or instrumentation ports disrupt stress flow, creating localized amplification quantified by the stress concentration factor. This factor increases with the ratio of opening diameter to vessel diameter. Reinforcement strategies follow the area compensation principle, requiring added material cross-section proportional to the removed area. Weld junctions at support attachments exhibit similar stress intensification, necessitating controlled welding procedures and post-weld treatment (Pilkey & Pilkey, 2008).

2.7.3 FATIGUE AND CYCLIC LOADING

Continuous canister digesters experience cumulative structural damage from repeated pressure fluctuations during daily biogas production and consumption cycles. Fatigue failure occurs when cyclic stresses induce microscopic cracks that propagate with each load cycle, ultimately causing sudden rupture below the material's yield strength.

Fatigue life is governed by stress amplitude ($\Delta\sigma$), defined as half the stress range between maximum and minimum operating pressures. The fundamental relationship is expressed as:

$$N_f = C / (\Delta\sigma)^m \dots\dots\dots (2.3)$$

- a. N_f : Cycles to failure
- b. C, m : Material constants (experimentally derived)
- c. $\Delta\sigma$: Stress amplitude (MPa)

For infinite design life (exceeding 10^7 cycles), the stress amplitude must satisfy:

$$\Delta\sigma < 0.5 \times \sigma_e \dots\dots\dots (2.4)$$

- a. σ_e : Endurance limit (material-specific)

2.8 CORROSION ANALYSIS OF BIOGAS SYSTEMS

Corrosion poses a critical threat to the structural integrity and longevity of biogas digesters due to the aggressive chemical environment inherent in anaerobic digestion. This section examines corrosion pathways, material degradation rates, and protective engineering strategies for continuous canister systems, synthesizing global research with practical mitigation approaches.

2.8.1 BIOGAS CORROSION ENVIRONMENT

The internal atmosphere of digesters combines multiple corrosive agents that accelerate material degradation through synergistic interactions:

- i. **Hydrogen Sulfide (H₂S):** Oxidizes to sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄), with corrosion rates increasing exponentially above 200 ppm concentrations.
- ii. **Carbon Dioxide (CO₂):** Forms carbonic acid (H₂CO₃) in condensate, reducing pH to 4.5–5.5 at gas-liquid interfaces.
- iii. **Moisture:** Facilitates electrochemical reactions when relative humidity exceeds 60%.
- iv. **Microorganisms:** Sulfate-reducing bacteria (SRB) generate biogenic H₂S and create differential aeration cells under biofilms (Javaherdashti, 2008).

2.8.2 PRIMARY CORROSION MECHANISMS

The internal environment of biogas digesters drives three distinct corrosion pathways that threaten structural integrity through material degradation. Carbon dioxide dissolution in condensate forms carbonic acid (H₂CO₃), which uniformly corrodes carbon steel at rates of 0.5–2 mm/year. This acidic corrosion intensifies dramatically under two key conditions: the corrosion rate doubles for every 0.5 pH unit decrease below pH 6.5, and kinetics accelerate by 30% per 10°C temperature increase beyond 40°C due to enhanced reaction dynamics and reduced passivation (Nešić, 2007). Sulfide stress corrosion cracking (SSCC) presents a more catastrophic failure mode, where atomic hydrogen penetration under H₂S exposure induces brittle fracture in susceptible materials. This mechanism activates only when three critical thresholds converge: H₂S concentrations exceeding 50 ppm in the gas phase, material hardness surpassing 22 HRC on the Rockwell scale, and tensile stresses greater than 40% of the yield strength (NACE MR0175, 2015). Microbial influenced corrosion (MIC) operates through biofilm formation, where sulfate-reducing bacteria create localized anodic sites that generate extreme pitting rates up to 5

mm/year. These biofilms preferentially colonize vulnerable zones including weld seams and crevices with stagnant slurry, vapor spaces at gas-liquid interfaces, and temperature transition regions between 25–40°C that optimize microbial metabolism (Little et al., 2020).

2.8.3 MATERIAL PERFORMANCE AND SELECTION

Table 1.3: Material Corrosion Performance in Biogas Environments

Material susceptibility to biogas-induced corrosion is outlined below:

Material	H₂S Tolerance (ppm)	Max. Corrosion Rate (mm/year)	Service Life (years)
Mild Steel	<50	1.2–1.8	3–5
316L Stainless Steel	>1,000	0.02–0.05	20+
FRP (Vinylester)	Immune	Negligible	15–20

Source: NACE MR0175/ISO 15156

Corrosion-Resistant Construction for Biogas Digesters

The selection of construction materials for biogas digesters demands rigorous evaluation of corrosion resistance, lifecycle economics, and operational compatibility with anaerobic digestion environments. Mild steel (carbon steel) offers economical initial costs for small-scale projects utilizing low-sulfur feedstocks (<50 ppm H₂S), yet suffers from severe limitations including uniform thinning at 1.2–1.8 mm/year and accelerated pitting under CO₂/H₂S exposure. These vulnerabilities necessitate 3–5 mm corrosion allowances combined with epoxy or polyurethane linings, driving recurring maintenance costs and premature replacement within 3–5 years.

In contrast, 316L stainless steel emerges as the technically superior solution despite a 4.2-fold higher initial cost compared to mild steel. Its 2.5% molybdenum content forms stable molybdate passivation layers that resist H₂S-induced pitting at concentrations exceeding 1,000 ppm, while chloride tolerance up to 2,000 ppm ensures reliability in coastal and industrial regions. Crucially, it maintains structural integrity in thermophilic operations (55°C), where mild steel degrades five times faster. Economically, the extended 20+ year service life without protective coatings offsets upfront investments, eliminating downtime for lining repairs and increasing biogas revenue by

15–30% over a decade. This performance explains its adoption in 78% of European biogas plants processing corrosive feedstocks like food waste and sewage sludge.

Fiberglass Reinforced Plastic (FRP) provides complete immunity to electrochemical corrosion, making it ideal for acidic digestate storage. However, its operational pressure ceiling of 0.5 bar precludes pressurized gas containment applications. In tropical climates, UV degradation mandates regular gel coat maintenance, limiting its utility to non-pressurized components such as effluent tanks in high-H₂S environments where metallic alternatives would fail.

2.9 BIOGAS DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

Nigeria's biogas sector represents a critical nexus of energy poverty alleviation, waste management reform, and agricultural modernization. This section analyzes the nation's unique position through energy statistics, feedstock mapping, policy frameworks, and implementation barriers, contextualizing continuous canister technology within local socioeconomic realities.

2.9.1 NATIONAL ENERGY PROFILE AND RENEWABLE IMPERATIVE

Nigeria faces profound energy deficits despite extensive fossil fuel reserves, characterized by fragmented electricity access and heavy reliance on unsustainable sources. Only 57% of the population has formal electricity access, with rural coverage plummeting to 45% and a reliability index of just 26%, indicating frequent outages and unstable supply (World Bank, 2022). Rural communities depend predominantly on traditional biomass, firewood and charcoal, for 70% of their energy needs, accelerating deforestation and indoor air pollution. Urban areas lean heavily on diesel generators, which contribute 40 GW of decentralized capacity versus a mere 5 GW from the national grid, highlighting systemic infrastructure failures. This energy crisis imposes severe economic burdens, forcing households to allocate 15–30% of their income to energy expenditures (UNDP, 2021). In response, Nigeria's *National Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Policy (NREEEP)* mandates 30% renewable energy integration by 2030, complemented by a COP26 pledge to halve emissions through decentralized clean energy deployment, positioning biogas as a critical mitigation strategy.

2.9.2 FEEDSTOCK AVAILABILITY AND BIOGAS POTENTIAL

Nigeria's agricultural dominance and rapid urbanization generate vast organic waste streams, yet <5% are utilised for energy generation. This subsection quantifies the nation's recoverable

biomass potential, mapping region-specific resources that could transform waste into a consistent energy supply for underserved communities.

Table 2.4: Annual Biogas Feedstock Quantities

Annual feedstock availability for biogas production is detailed below:

Feedstock Source	Quantity	Methane Yield (m ³ /tonne)	Energy Equivalent
Cattle Manure (82M head)	245M tonnes	15–25	3.7–6.2 TWh
Poultry Waste (180M birds)	16.2M tonnes	80–120	10.4–15.6 TWh
Municipal Solid Waste	32M tonnes	90–150	23–38.5 TWh
Cassava Peels	14M tonnes	110–140	12.3–15.7 TWh

(Sources: FAO, 2020; NESREA, 2021; Odejebi et al., 2020)

2.9.3 POLICY FRAMEWORKS AND INSTITUTIONAL DRIVERS

Nigeria's biogas development is constrained by fragmented governance and policy implementation gaps, despite ambitious renewable energy targets. The *National Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Policy (NREEEP)* aims for 20% biogas integration in rural energy systems by 2030 and offers tax holidays for renewable equipment imports. Complementing this, the *Nigerian Energy Support Programme (NESP)*, backed by €20 million EU funding, facilitates mini-grid deployments including biogas projects while establishing technical standards for digester construction through the Standards Organization of Nigeria (SON, 2019). However, these initiatives face systemic barriers: jurisdictional overlaps across 14 federal and state agencies create contradictory mandates, the absence of feed-in tariffs disincentivizes biogas electricity grid injection, and persistent import duties on digester components undermine NREEEP's tax waiver provisions (ECN, 2022). This institutional misalignment stifles investment, with only 12% of pledged biogas projects reaching operational status between 2015–2022.

2.9.4 NIGERIA-SPECIFIC IMPLEMENTATION CHALLENGES

Biogas deployment in Nigeria confronts distinctive technical, socioeconomic, and infrastructural barriers that demand context-specific adaptation strategies. Technical challenges include excessively high hydrogen sulfide concentrations (>1,000 ppm) in poultry-derived biogas due to sulfur-rich livestock diets, alongside abrasive wear from sand contamination in manure, a pervasive issue in arid northern states. Socioeconomic constraints exacerbate implementation, as communal land tenure systems trigger protracted acquisition conflicts, while 72% of smallholder farmers lack collateral to access green loans, stifling decentralized project financing (CBN, 2021). Critical infrastructure deficits further impede scalability: 60% of high-biomass-potential zones suffer limited road access, hindering feedstock logistics, and the skilled technician density of 0.4 per 10,000 people lags far behind regional peers like Kenya (2.1/10,000), crippling maintenance capabilities.

2.9.5 BENEFITS OF CANISTER DIGESTERS IN NIGERIA

Continuous canister digesters offer transformative advantages for Nigeria's decentralized energy sector, addressing critical implementation barriers through innovative engineering. Their modular design enables transport via standard pickup trucks to remote sites and assembly without heavy machinery, overcoming infrastructure limitations. These systems tolerate Nigeria's variable feedstock conditions, accommodating carbon-to-nitrogen ratios between 15–35 through flexible co-digestion protocols and processing high-solids substrates (12–18% total solids) prevalent in local agriculture without pretreatment. Economically, canisters reduce capital costs to approximately \$8,500 per 10m³ unit, less than half the \$23,000 required for fixed-dome installations, while achieving a 3.2-year payback period versus 7.4 years for imported systems, enhancing financial accessibility for smallholders (ohunakin et al., 2019). Climate resilience is engineered through polyurethane insulation maintaining optimal 35°C digestion temperatures within Nigeria's 25–40°C ambient range and UV-stabilized fiberglass reinforced plastic (FRP) resisting tropical solar degradation, ensuring longevity in harsh environments.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter is about the step-by-step process followed in the study and design a continuous biogas production system. The methodology follows a systematic engineering design process, progressing through feasibility analysis, conceptual development, detailed design, and prototype validation.

This is our step-by-step approach to the study and design of a continuous Biogas Production system as shown in the flow chat shown in **Figure 3.1**.



Figure 3.1: Design Flow chart for the design of a continuous biogas production system

3.1 FEASIBILITY STUDIES

The feasibility study evaluates the potential for designing and manufacturing of a continuous Biogas production system for renewable energy production and waste management. It includes

assessments of technical, financial, and economic feasibility, as well as the potential for fabricating biogas digesters for domestic use.

The feasibility study was first carried out to look at whether designing a continuous biogas system made sense in terms of cost, materials, and how well it would work in real life. I considered things like how easily available the raw materials (like animal waste or food scraps) are, whether people actually need or would use biogas, what challenges other similar systems have faced.

From this, I realized that a continuous system is more efficient for steady gas output and better for waste management too.

This project targets all areas where organic waste is readily available. The growing demand for biogas is driven by the increasing need for energy, environmental concerns, and the rising cost of conventional fuels. To meet these demands, the biogas plant was designed to be durable and efficient, using locally available materials and skilled labor.

The cost analysis accounts for all major expenses, including materials, labor, equipment, and overhead costs. Revenue forecasts are based on anticipated sales volumes and defined pricing strategies. The financial evaluation considers key performance metrics such as profitability, Return on Investment (ROI), and the projected payback period. Beyond the financials, the economic assessment also highlights the potential for job creation, income generation, and the stimulation of local economic activity.

3.2 DESIGN SPECIFICATION

The development of a canister-type continuous biogas digester demands thoughtful consideration of several essential features that influence its design, construction, and overall performance. The following specifications serve as the basis for the digester's design:

1. **Cost of the Biogas Digester:** The affordability of the digester is a primary concern. The system must be reasonably priced to ensure it remains accessible and practical for widespread use.
2. **Capacity:** The digester is intended to handle a combined volume of 150 liters, including both the organic slurry and the biogas produced.
3. **Mixing Ratio:** A balanced proportion of organic material to water is critical. The ideal ratio is **1:1.5**, using equal quantities of biodegradable waste (such as animal dung, crop waste, or kitchen scraps) and water.
4. **Maintenance Requirement:** The design should aim for minimal upkeep, while still providing consistent performance and long-term durability.
5. **Construction Material:** Stainless steel is selected for its excellent strength, resistance to corrosion, and cost-efficiency, making it suitable for robust and lasting performance.
6. **Shape of the Digester:** The form of the digester should support efficient flow, easy mixing, and effective discharge of contents. It must also reduce internal resistance and design complications.
7. **Mixing Mechanism:** The inclusion of an effective mixing system is important to ensure uniform distribution of organic matter and microbes, which is essential for optimal gas generation.
8. **Inlet System:** The inlet should be designed for quick, convenient, and effective feeding of input materials into the digester, reducing the risk of blockage or feeding delays.
9. **Outlet System:** The outlet must efficiently discharge the digested slurry while minimizing gas leakage, preventing blockages, and supporting smooth drainage.
10. **Pump:** The appropriate pump capable of transferring slurry into the inlet system should be used to provide an efficient system and avoid time consumption.

11. **Safety Features:** For safe operation, the system must incorporate safety devices like a pressure gauge and pressure release valve to control internal pressure and prevent hazardous overpressure situations.

3.3 CONCEPTUAL DESIGN CONSIDERATION

The diagrams shown below are some of the conceptual designs which were initially developed, but due to factors stated above only one of the designs would fit best as would be seen.

3.3.1 CONCEPT 1: TRANSPARENT FILM FITTED CANISTER

Figure 3.2 gives an illustration of the concept and subsequently a detailed description of its design.

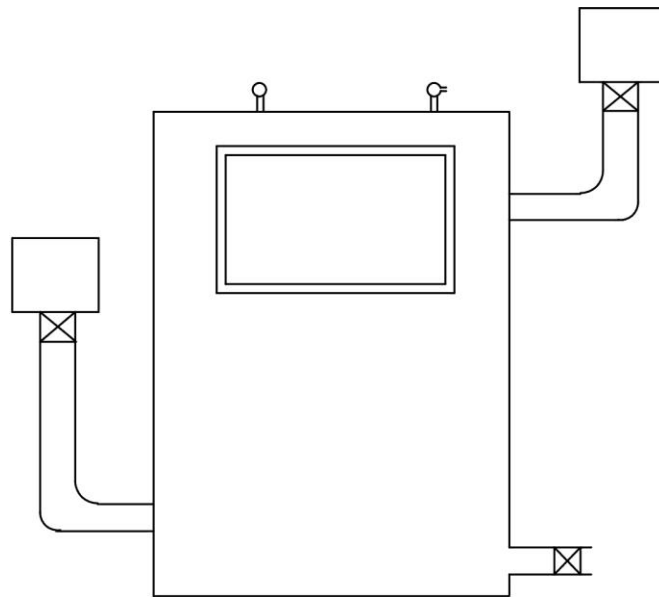


Figure 1.2: Transparent film fitted canister

DESCRIPTION OF THE DESIGN

In this concept it's consist of various parts such as;

A. Pressure gauge

B. One (1) Check valve

C. Drain

D. Waste tank

E. Three (3) manual valves

F. Tempered Glass

G. Pressure Pump

- i. **Inlet Mechanism:** The slurry is first manually blended and then introduced into the digester through the inlet pipe.
- ii. **Gas Storage:** As digestion progresses, the generated biogas gathers in the upper section of the canister, directing it toward the dome.
- iii. **Outlet Mechanism:** Once the digestion phase ends, the digestate must be discharged to allow refilling of the digester with a new slurry batch. The outlet is designed to remove the upper layer of the digestate without interfering with gas generation. When not in operation, the outlet is secured with a threaded cap to avoid leakage, contamination, and unpleasant smells. The digestate outlet is strategically located at a calculated distance from the base of the canister along its height.
- iv. **Complete Drain Outlet:** For total emptying, cleaning, or servicing of the digester, a drain outlet is situated at the base of the canister. This outlet enables the removal of all leftover slurry when required. Similar to the digestate outlet, it is sealed with a threaded cap when not in use to ensure airtight conditions are maintained.

3.3.2 CONCEPT 2: RECIPROCATING PUMP OPERATED CANISTER

Figure 3.3 gives an illustration of the concept and subsequently a detailed description of its design.

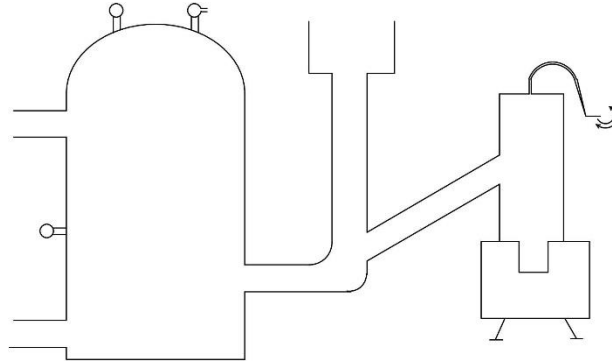


Figure 3.3: Reciprocating Pump Operated Canister

DESCRIPTION OF THE DESIGN

In this concept it's consist of various parts such as;

- A. Pressure gauge
- B. Pressure relief valve
- C. One (1) Check valve
- D. pH sensors
- E. Pump
- F. Three (3) manual valves
 - i. **Inlet Mechanism:** The slurry is first manually blended and then introduced into the digester through the inlet pipe.
 - ii. **Pressure Gauge:** Monitors internal pressure within the pressure vessel.
 - iii. **Pressure relief valve:** Effuses excess gas build up within the vessel
 - iv. **pH sensor:** monitors internal pH within the vessel to ensure acidogenesis does not exceed methanogens (biogas production).

- v. **Gas Storage:** As digestion progresses, the generated biogas gathers in the upper section of the canister, directing it toward the dome.
- vi. **Outlet Mechanism:** Once the digestion phase ends, the digestate must be discharged to allow refilling of the digester with a new slurry batch. The outlet is designed to remove the upper layer of the digestate without interfering with gas generation. When not in operation, the outlet is secured with a threaded cap to avoid leakage, contamination, and unpleasant smells. The digestate outlet is strategically located at a calculated distance from the base of the canister along its height.
- vii. **Complete Drain Outlet:** For total emptying, cleaning, or servicing of the digester, a drain outlet is situated at the base of the canister. This outlet enables the removal of all leftover slurry when required. Similar to the digestate outlet, it is sealed with a threaded cap when not in use to ensure airtight conditions are maintained.
- viii. **Pump:** A reciprocating manual hand pump. It uses suction pressure to pull up the substrate (feedstock) from a pre-treated location inside the feedstock inlet to ensure optimal biogas yield.

3.3.3 CONCEPT 3: DOME SHAPED CANISTER

Figure 3.4 gives an illustration of the concept and subsequently a description of its design.

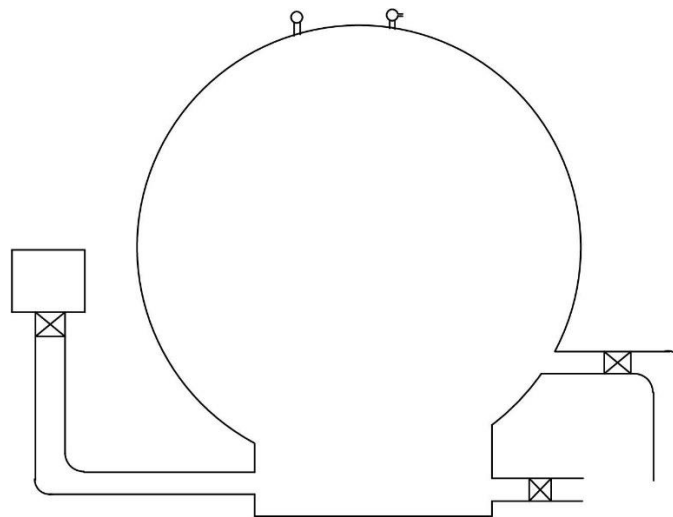


Figure 3.4: Dome Shaped Canister

DESCRIPTION OF THE DESIGN

In this concept it's consist of various parts such as;

- A. Pressure gauge
- B. Magnetic float ball level meter
- C. A Check valve
- D. Three (3) manual valves
- E. Mixing tank
- F. Drain
 - i. **Inlet Mechanism:** The slurry is prepared in the mixing tank, which is equipped with a manual valve at its outlet. Once mixing is completed, the valve is opened, and a manual hand pump is used to transfer the slurry into the digester. To prevent backflow, a check valve is installed ahead of the pump.
 - ii. **Slurry Level Monitoring:** A magnetic float-ball level indicator is integrated into the system to track the slurry volume inside the canister. This visual gauge allows the operator to know when to add fresh feedstock or halt filling to avoid overcapacity.
 - iii. **Outlet Mechanism:** When digestion is complete, the spent material must be discharged. The outlet system is designed to extract the waste from the upper section of the digester, where it exists as a mix of solid and liquid residues. The outlet enables waste removal without interrupting gas production and is tightly sealed to prevent leakage and unpleasant odors.
 - iv. **Complete Drain Outlet:** For full emptying, cleaning, or maintenance of the digester, a drain outlet is located at the base of the canister. This outlet makes it possible to remove all remaining slurry when required. As with the digestate outlet, it is closed with a threaded cap when inactive to maintain an airtight seal.

3.3.4 CONCEPT 4: CONTINUOUS BIOGAS PRODUCTION SYSTEM

Figures 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7 gives detailed illustrations of concept 4 and its components.

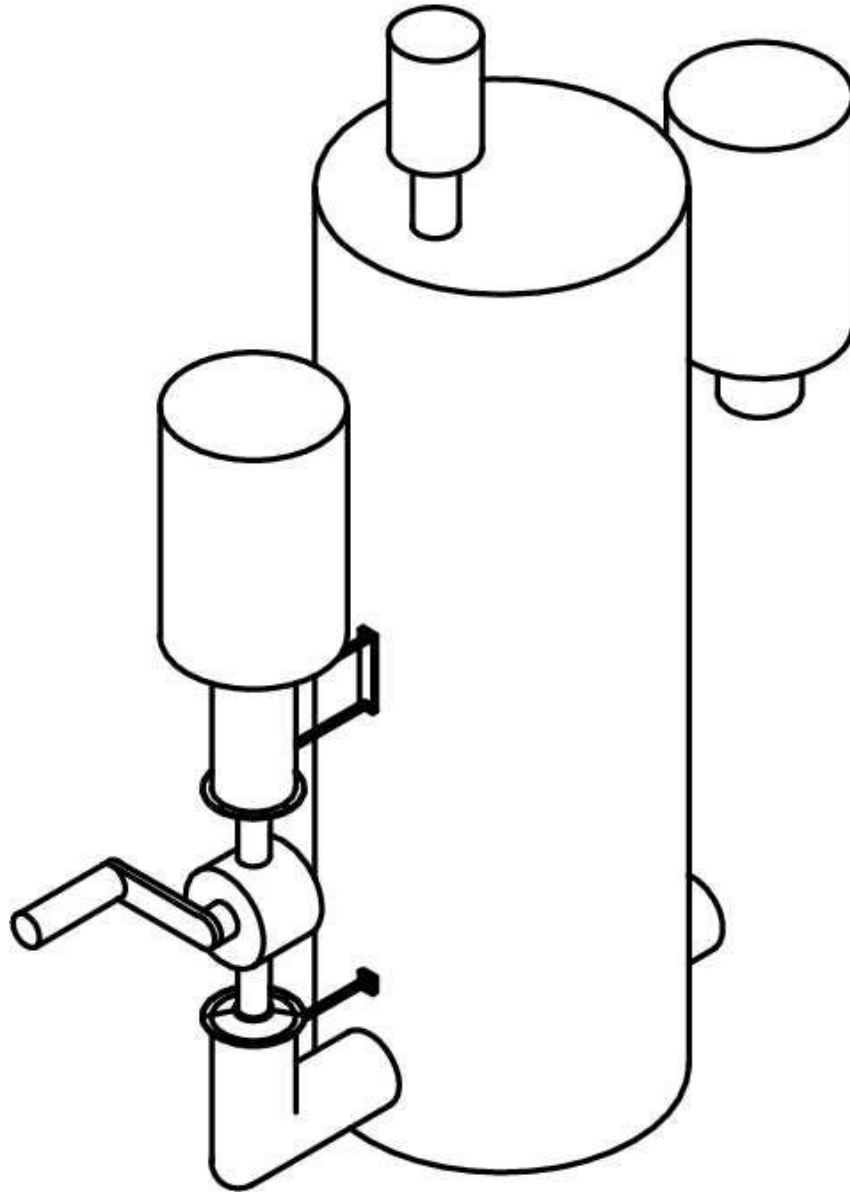


Figure 3.5: Continuous Biogas Production System

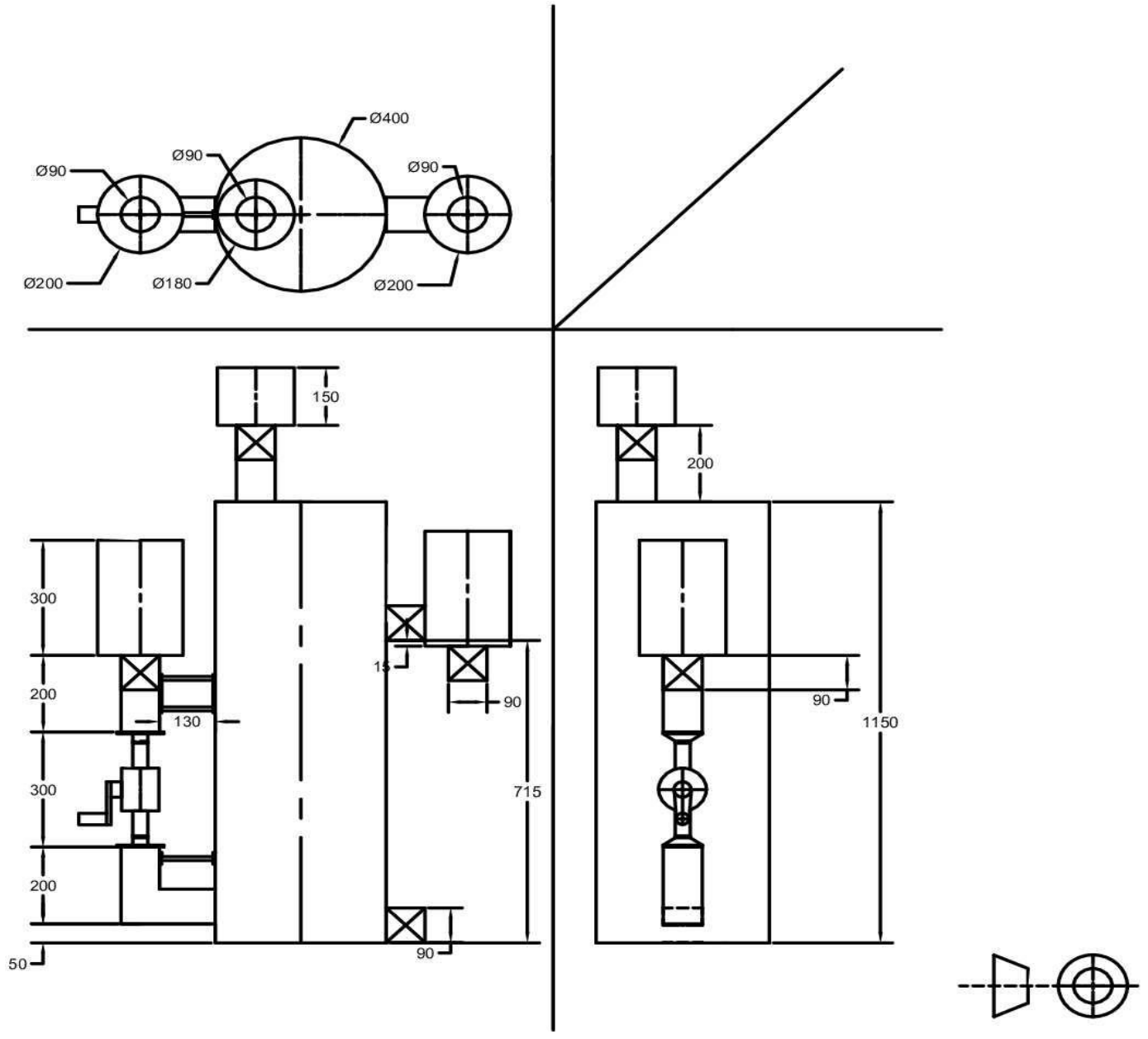


Figure 3.6: Orthographic View of Constructed Digester

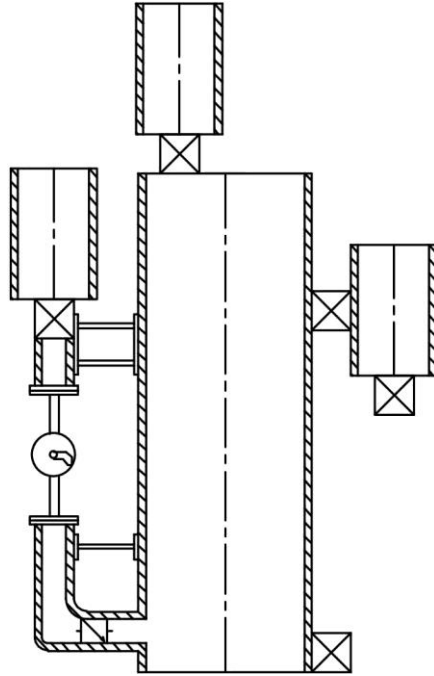


Figure 3.7: Cross-Sectional View of Main Canister

DESCRIPTION OF THE DESIGN

In this concept it's consist of various parts such as;

- A. Pressure relief valve
- B. Rotary manual hand pump
- C. One check valve
- D. Five (5) manual valve
- E. Drain

I. Inlet Mechanism: The structure has two inlet ports:

- a. **Top Feedstock Port:** This is a large-diameter port located on the top lid of the canister. Its main purpose was for the initial, bulk charging of the digester, allowing the startup slurry to be poured in easily before the system was sealed.
- b. **Side Feedstock Port:** This port is side-mounted on the canister and is connected to a manual hand rotary pump. Its purpose is for the continuous operation of the digester after startup. It allows new feedstock to be mechanically pumped into the pressurized canister without unsealing the main lid or letting in air.

- II. **Outlet Mechanism:** Once the digestion phase is finished, the digestate—comprising the remaining liquid and solid residue—must be discharged. The system includes a digestate outlet tank positioned midway up the canister. This outlet allows removal of the upper layer of digestate without disrupting ongoing gas generation. When not in use, the outlet is secured with a threaded cap to prevent leakage and unpleasant odors.

Cross-section of inlet and outlet mechanisms are shown in **Figure 3.8**.

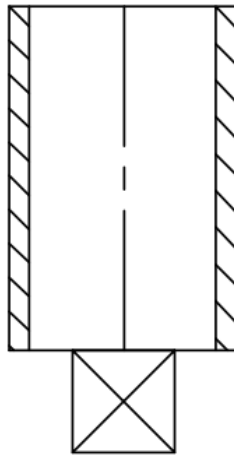


Figure 3.8: Cross-Sectional View of the Inlet Mechanism and Outlet Mechanism

- III. **Complete Drain Outlet:** For periodic cleaning and maintenance, a drain outlet is located at the base of both the canister and the outlet tank. This outlet makes it possible to fully empty any remaining slurry as needed.
- IV. **Manual Ball Valves:** A total of five manual ball valves were integrated into the design. Their purpose was to provide reliable, quarter-turn, leak-proof seals for all feedstock and outlet ports, preventing air intrusion and slurry leaks.



Figure 3.9: Ball Valve

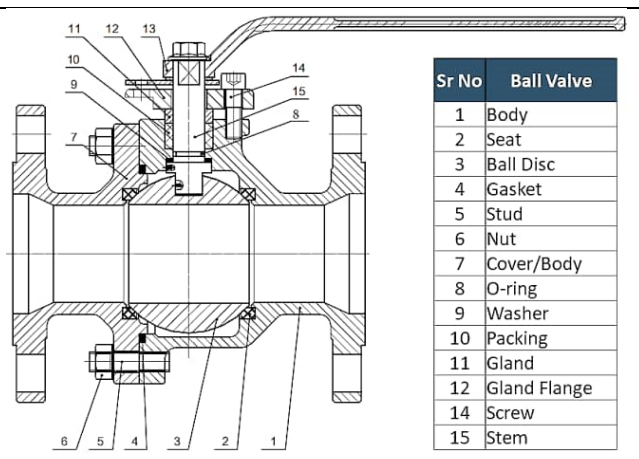


Figure 3.10: Cross-Section of Ball Valve

V. **Check Valve:** The check valve was installed on the side-mounted piping line to prevent backflow of feedstock during subsequent feeding of the digester (seeding).



Figure 3.11: Check Valve

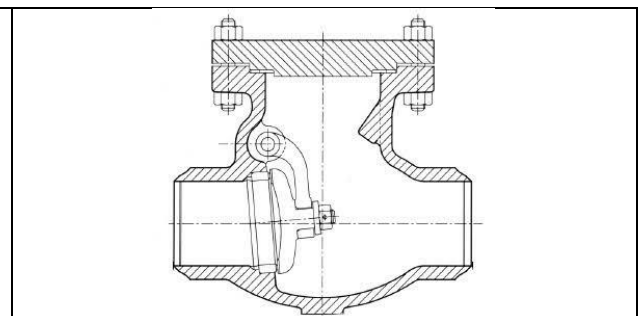
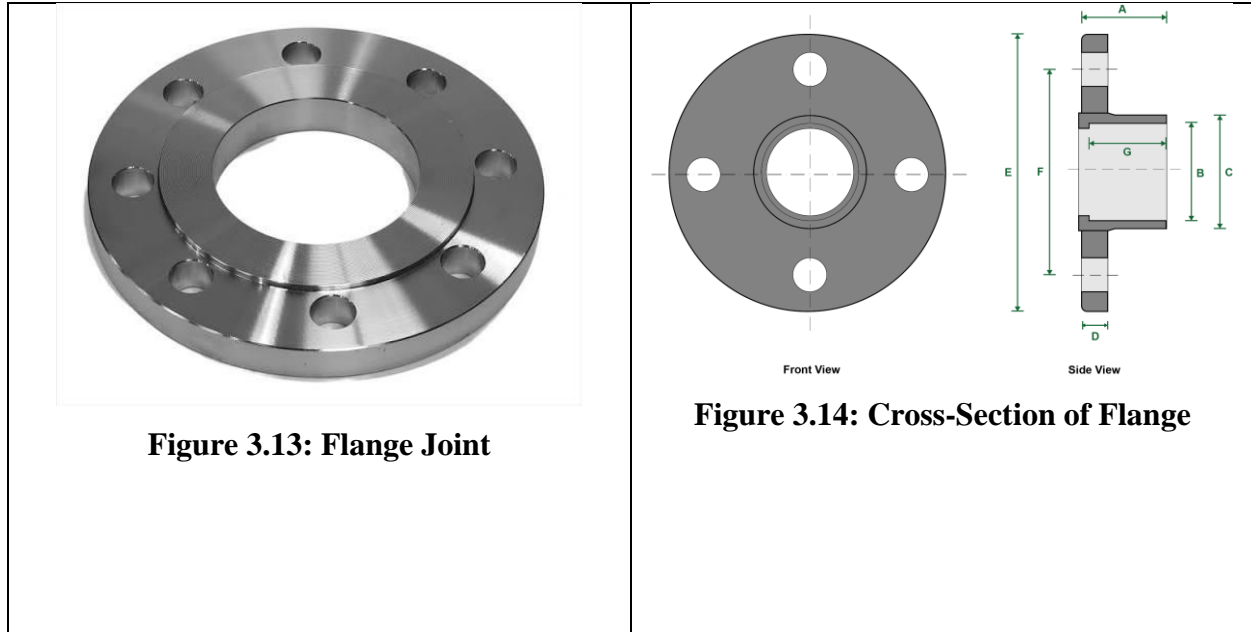


Figure 3.12: Cross-Section of Check Valve

VI. **Flanges:** Four flanges were included on the side-mounted piping. Their purpose was to create secure and sealed connection points for attaching the suction (inlet) and discharge (outlet) ends of the manual rotary pump to the canister.



VII. **Pump:** A manually operated rotary pump was specified for the side-mounted feeding port. This component was designed to provide the necessary mechanical force to pump new slurry into the pressurized canister, enabling continuous operation without electricity.

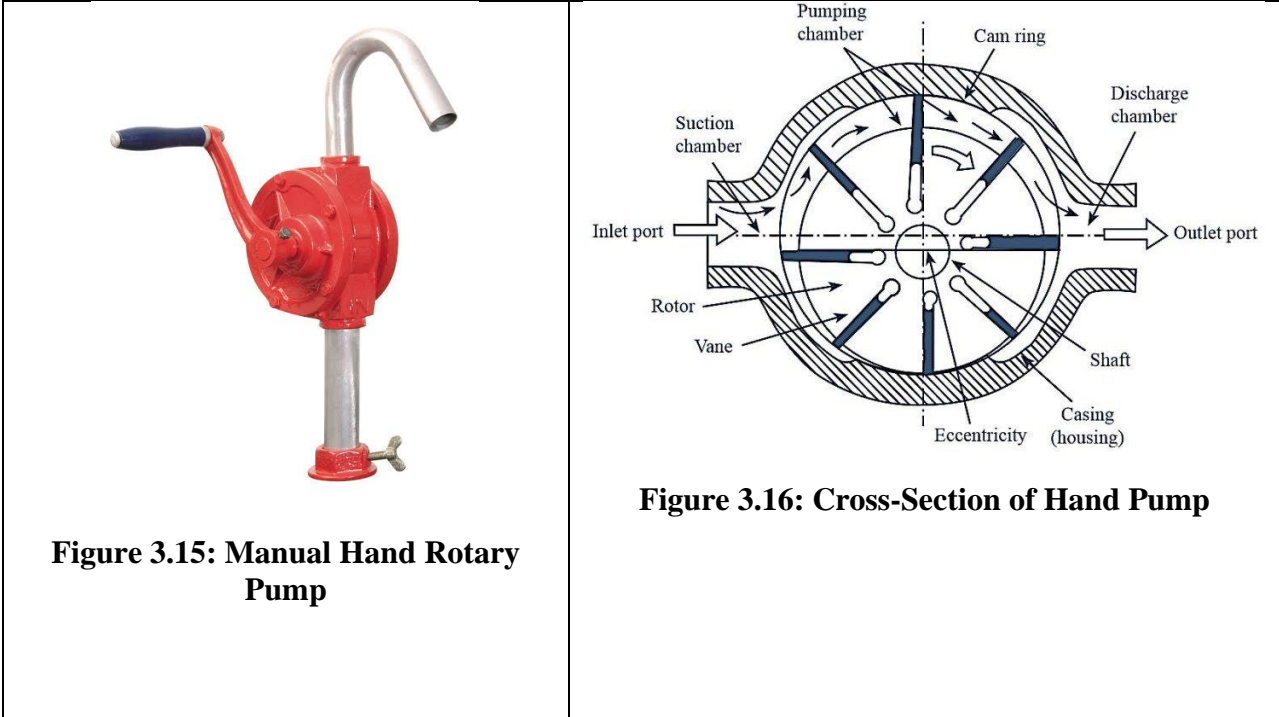


Figure 3.15: Manual Hand Rotary Pump

Figure 3.16: Cross-Section of Hand Pump

VIII. **Elbow Joint:** A single elbow joint was used in the design. Its function was to connect the side-mounted piping assembly to the main body of the canister, creating the necessary angle to direct the feedstock flow from the pump into the digester.



Figure 3.17: Elbow Joint

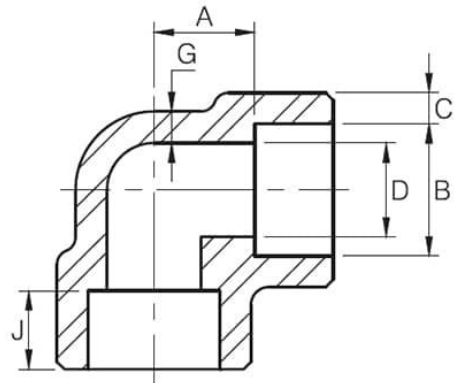


Figure 3.18: Cross-Section of Elbow Joint

3.4 CONCEPT SELECTION: Four potential design concepts were evaluated based on the attributes defined earlier. Each attribute was assigned a weight according to its importance. For every attribute, each concept received a score multiplied by its corresponding weight. The total of these weighted scores determined the overall suitability ranking for each concept.

Table 3.1: Evaluation of the Various Concepts for Decision Making Process

Table 3.1 shows a decision matrix analysis to determine the best concept for the project:

Attribute	Weighting	Concept							
		One		Two		Three		Four	
		Score	Weighted score	Score	Weighted score	Score	Weighted score	Score	Weighted score
Structural Integrity	0.100	7.000	0.700	7.000	0.700	8.000	0.800	6.000	0.600
Ease of Fabrication	0.150	5.000	0.750	6.000	0.900	6.000	0.900	7.000	1.050
Leak-Proofness	0.025	4.000	0.100	5.000	0.125	5.000	0.125	6.000	0.150
Operational Safety	0.150	4.000	0.600	6.000	0.900	5.000	0.750	7.000	1.050
Durability	0.200	6.000	1.200	6.000	1.200	7.000	1.400	5.000	1.000
Adaptability	0.050	5.000	0.250	7.000	0.350	6.000	0.300	8.000	0.400
Mixing system	0.025	5.000	0.125	8.000	0.200	7.000	0.175	6.000	0.150
Inlet design system	0.050	4.000	0.200	6.000	0.300	5.000	0.250	8.000	0.400
Outlet design	0.050	4.000	0.200	6.000	0.300	4.000	0.200	8.000	0.400

system									
Safety measures	0.200	4.000	0.800	5.000	1.000	4.000	0.800	7.000	1.400
Total	1.000		4.725		5.975		5.700		6.600

Based on the evaluation of the different concepts presented in Table 3.1, and using a weighted scale totaling one, assigned according to the importance of each considered attribute. Concept 4 achieved the highest total weighted average score of 6.600, surpassing all other concepts. Therefore, Concept 4 was chosen as the preferred option.

3.5 COMPONENTS OF THE SYSTEM

1. The Digester: The digester is a free-standing cylindrical unit with a flat top. For this system, its volume, circumference, and diameter can be determined as follows. Since the system is designed exclusively for household applications, the feedstock selection is limited to biodegradable waste materials, such as food scraps, animal manure, and similar organic matter.

A. Determining the radius of the canister

From the feasibility studies

Volume=150litres

Converting to m³, volume=0.15m³

With a height=1.2m

$$\text{Volume}=\pi r^2 h \dots\dots\dots (3.1)$$

$$0.15=\pi r^2 \times 1.2 \dots\dots\dots (3.1.1)$$

$$r^2 = \frac{0.15}{\pi \times 1.2} \dots\dots\dots (3.1.2)$$

$r=0.20\text{m}$

Figure 3.19 shows the dimensions of the continuous biogas production system to be constructed.

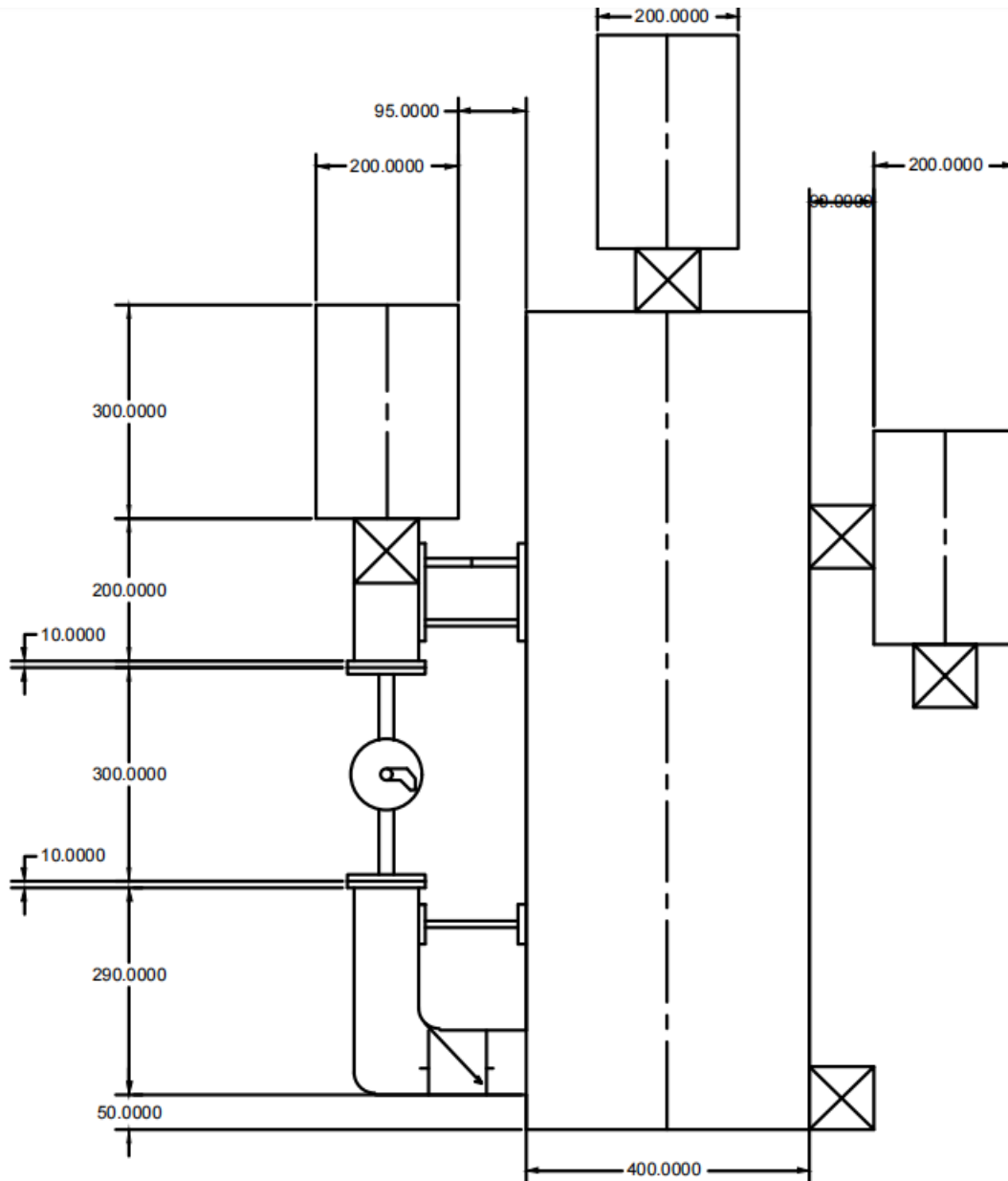


Figure 3.19: Dimensioned Continuous Biogas Production System

B. Determining the circumference(C) of the cross-section of the canister

Using the formula πD

$$D=r \times 2 \dots\dots\dots (3.2)$$

$$D =200 \times 2 \dots\dots\dots (3.2.1)$$

$$D=400\text{mm}$$

Therefore

$$C= \pi D \dots\dots\dots (3.2.2)$$

$$C=3.142 \times 400 \dots\dots\dots (3.2.3)$$

$$C=1256.8\text{mm}$$

C. Determining the radius of the inlet and outlet tank

Volume=10litres

Converting to m^3 , volume= 0.01m^3

With a height= 0.35m

$$\text{Volume}=\pi r^2 h \dots\dots\dots (3.3)$$

$$0.01=\pi r^2 \times 0.35 \dots\dots\dots (3.3.1)$$

$$r^2 = \frac{0.01}{\pi \times 0.35} \dots\dots\dots (3.3.2)$$

$$r=0.1\text{m}$$

D. Determining the circumference of the cross-section of the inlet and outlet tank

Using the formula πD

$$D=r \times 2 \dots\dots\dots (3.4)$$

$$D =100 \times 2 \dots\dots\dots (3.4.1)$$

$$D=200\text{mm}$$

Therefore

$$C=3.142 \times 200$$

$$C=628.4\text{mm}$$

E. Determining to what height the cylindrical canister should be filled up to allow space for the decomposed gas:

The cylindrical shape canister is to be filled with slurry substance in such a way that the slurry substance decomposes to produce biogas. With the radius of the cylinder being 200mm with height of 1150mm; the height the cylinder should be filled up to in such a way that 35 percent of the cylinders volume is meant for the decomposed gas will be:

NOTATION

- a. r — radius of cylinder (mm)
- b. H — total cylinder height (mm)
- c. h_f — slurry fill height (mm)
- d. V_{tot} — total cylinder volume (mm³ or L)
- e. V_{slurry} — slurry volume
- f. V_{gas} — gas volume

The total volume is:

$$V_{\text{tot}} = \pi r^2 H \dots\dots\dots (3.5)$$

If 35% is gas, slurry occupies 65% of V_{tot}:

Slurry volume would then be 0.65.

Because the cross-sectional area is constant:

$$V_{\text{slurry}} = \pi r^2 h_f \dots\dots\dots (3.6)$$

Substitute:

$$\pi r^2 h_f = 0.65 \pi r^2 H \dots\dots\dots (3.6.1)$$

Cancel πr^2 :

$$h_f = 0.65 H \dots\dots\dots (3.6.2)$$

Given $H = 1,150$ mm:

$$h_f = 0.65 \times 1,150 \text{ mm} = 747.5 \text{ mm}$$

In meters:

$$h_f = 0.7475 \text{ m}$$

The slurry should be filled to:

$$h_f = 747.5 \text{ mm (0.7475 m)}$$

F. Determining the volume the slurry and the decomposed gas will occupy:

NOTATION

- a. r — radius of cylinder (mm)
- b. H — total cylinder height (mm)
- c. h_f — slurry fill height (mm)
- d. V_{tot} — total cylinder volume (mm^3 or L)
- e. V_{slurry} — slurry volume
- f. V_{gas} — gas volume

Base area:

$$A = \pi r^2 = \pi (200 \text{ mm})^2 = \pi (40,000) \text{ mm}^2 \approx 125,663.71 \text{ mm}^2 \dots\dots\dots (3.7)$$

Total volume:

$$V_{\text{tot}} = A \times H \approx 125,663.71 \times 1,150 \text{ mm}^3 \approx 144,513,267.65 \text{ mm}^3 \dots\dots\dots (3.8)$$

Convert to liters (1 mm³=10⁻⁶):

$$V_{\text{tot}} \approx 144.513 \text{ L}$$

Slurry volume (65%):

$$V_{\text{slurry}} \approx 0.65 \times 144.513 \approx 93.933 \text{ L} \dots\dots\dots (3.9)$$

Gas volume (35%):

$$V_{\text{gas}} \approx 0.35 \times 144.513 \approx 50.580 \text{ L} \dots\dots\dots (3.10)$$

G. With one complete fill of the inlet tank, the main canister tank will be at a height of:

NOTATION

- a. R — radius of main canister cylinder (mm)
- b. r_{inlet} — radius of inlet cylinder (mm)
- c. H_{per fill} — height in the main canister cylinder per fill (mm)
- d. h_{inlet} — height of the inlet tank (mm)

$$\pi R^2 H_{\text{per fill}} = \pi r_{\text{inlet}}^2 h_{\text{inlet}} \dots\dots\dots (3.11)$$

Cancelling π

$$R^2 H_{\text{per fill}} = r_{\text{inlet}}^2 h_{\text{inlet}} \dots\dots\dots (3.11.1)$$

Making H subject of formula

$$H_{\text{per fill}} = (r_{\text{inlet}}^2 h_{\text{inlet}}) / R^2 \dots\dots\dots (3.11.2)$$

$$H_{\text{per fill}} = (100^2 \times 300) / 200^2$$

$$H_{\text{per fill}} = 75\text{mm}(0.075\text{m})$$

2. THE INLET TANK

Design specifications;

- i. Volume=0.01m³
- ii. Diameter=0.2m
- iii. Height=0.35m

3. THE OUTLET TANK

Design specifications;

- i. Volume=0.01m³
- ii. Diameter=0.2m
- iii. Height=0.35m

4. DRAIN: This is the component of the canister that enables us to totally drain the content of the Digester for cleaning. It consists of a manual hand valve that is 3 inches in diameter

Table 3.2: Manufacturing Specification

The manufacturing specification of the canister to be constructed is given below:

S/N	COMPONENT	PARAMETERS	QUANTITY
1	Digester capacity	0.1445m ³	1
2	Digester tank height	1150mm	

3	Digester diameter	400mm	
4	Operating pressure	10 bar	
5	Inlet and outlet tank capacity	0.1m ³	2
6	Inlet and outlet tank height	300mm	
7	Pressure gauge	10 bar	1
8	Manual valve	Φ75mm	5
9	Check valve	Φ 75mm	1
10	Elbow connector	Φ 75mm	1
11	One end threaded pipe	Φ 75mm	6

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 RESULTS

The fabrication of the continuous operating biogas digester was successfully completed, and the final constructed system met all intended design specifications. The primary aim of the project, which was to create a functional system with clear mechanical provisions for continuous biogas production, was achieved. This was realized through the successful integration of a dual-port feeding mechanism, allowing for both initial charging and subsequent continuous feeding without interrupting the anaerobic environment. The vessel was confirmed to be a thoroughly sealed pressure unit, fulfilling all foundational requirements for the biological startup and operational testing phases.

The key components of the system are as follows:

Figure 4.1 shows the constructed biogas digester system.



Figure 4.1: Fabricated Biogas Digester System

4.1.1 CANISTER

The central component of the system is the digester tank itself. This canister was constructed from high-grade stainless steel, a material selected for its exceptional corrosion resistance and structural integrity. The vessel was designed and fabricated to have a total internal volume of 144.5 Liters. This specific construction was intended to safely withstand the positive gas pressures generated during operation and to provide a durable, completely sealed, and non-reactive environment suitable for maintaining the strict anaerobic conditions required for digestion. It is shown in **Figure 4.2** below:



Figure 4.2: Main Canister

4.1.2 FEEDSTOCK PORTS

The digester was equipped with two distinct feedstock ports, each designed for a specific function to facilitate both startup and continuous operation. A large-diameter port was located on the top lid of the vessel. This port was primarily intended for the initial, bulk charging of the digester with the startup slurry. A second, side-mounted port was also installed on the canister. This port was integrated with a manual hand rotary pump, a key feature designed to accelerate the flow rate and enable the subsequent, continuous feeding of new feedstock into the system without unsealing the main chamber and disrupting the anaerobic environment. A check valve was also incorporated on the side-mounted port to prevent flowback of feedstock during feeding. They are shown in **Figures 4.3** and **4.4** below:



Figure 4.3: Top-mounted and side-mounted Feedstock ports



Figure 4.4: Check Valve

4.1.3 MANUAL HAND ROTARY PUMP

The manual hand rotary pump was a critical component integrated into the side-mounted feedstock port. Its primary function was to accelerate the feeding process, providing the necessary mechanical force to pump new, semi-liquid slurry into the pressurized canister. The inclusion of this pump was essential to the continuous operation of the system, as it allowed for regular, controlled feeding without unsealing the digester and compromising the anaerobic environment. A significant advantage of its design is that it is entirely mechanical, requiring no electrical power to operate. This makes the feeding process highly reliable and sustainable, immune to issues of power availability. It is shown in **Figure 4.5**.



Figure 4.5: Manual Hand Pump

4.1.4 OUTLET PORTS

The digester was built with two outlet ports, each serving a different purpose. A main outlet port was placed high up on the canister's side. This high position was an important design choice for continuous operation. It allowed the spent slurry, or effluent, to be pushed out as new feedstock was pumped in. A second, separate drain port was installed at the very bottom of the tank, the function of this port was to let the canister be completely emptied for cleaning or maintenance. They are shown in **Figure 4.6**.



Figure 4.6: Outlet Ports

4.1.5 SLURRY VALVES

All of the feedstock and outlet ports on the digester were fitted with ball valves. This specific type of valve was selected because it is highly reliable and easy to use. These valves provide a simple quarter-turn to open or close the ports. Most importantly, the ball valves created a perfect,

leak-proof seal. This was essential for two reasons. First, it prevented any of the slurry from leaking out. Second, it was critical for stopping outside air, or oxygen, from getting into the canister and poisoning the anaerobic environment. The slurry valves are shown in **Figure 4.7**.



Figure 4.7: Slurry Valves on the Canister System

4.1.6 PRESSURE MANAGEMENT SYSTEM

A pressure management system was installed on the top lid to ensure safe operation and to monitor the process. It included a pressure gauge to provide a real-time visual reading of the internal pressure, which was our main tool for tracking the digester's activity. Alongside it, a p valve was fitted as a critical safety feature. This valve was used to remove excess gas to protect the canister from any dangerous over-pressurization and provide a point for hose connection. The pressure gauge and gas valve are shown in **Figure 4.8** and **4.9** respectively.



Figure 4.8: Pressure Gauge



Figure 4.9: Gas Valve

4.1.7 BIOGAS YIELD PROJECTION FROM INITIAL FEEDING

Cow dung was selected as the primary feedstock for this project. This was due to its widespread availability and, most importantly, its ideal, well-balanced Carbon-to-Nitrogen (C/N) ratio. The initial feeding of the feedstock was done at mixing ratio of 1:1.5 (water-to-cow dung) up to 65% of the total volume of the canister (93.933L).

After a period of time, we observed a steady and rapid increase on the pressure gauge, indicating the production of mainly CO₂ gas and the onset of the acidogenesis stage of anaerobic digestion. Afterwards, the digestate (used-up slurry) was drained out through the uppermost outlet port to create a true oxygen-free anaerobic environment within the canister.

With the addition of baking soda (sodium bicarbonate) during the initial mixing, which served as a buffer to control the acidity levels within the canister to prevent souring and elimination of the methanogens within the canister, it is expected that biogas (which is the flammable methane produced after the onset of methanogenesis) would be produced in about 3-weeks' time more. **Figures 4.10, 4.11, 4.12 and 4.13** shows the steps carried out in filling the initial feedstock into the biogas digester.



Figure 4.10: Preparation of Cow Dung



Figure 4.11: Addition of Water into Mixing Container



Figure 4.12: Mixing of Slurry



Figure 4.13: Addition of Slurry into Canister

4.2 DISCUSSION

The discussion of the results confirms that the system's design successfully achieves the primary objective of continuous biogas production. The integration of the side-mounted manual pump and the high-level effluent outlet port provides the core mechanism for this. This setup allows for the regular, controlled addition of new feedstock, which in turn displaces an equal volume of spent digestate. This process is engineered to eliminate the significant operational downtime found in traditional batch systems, thereby ensuring a more consistent and uninterrupted gas supply.

The immediate functionality of the sealed canister was confirmed through empirical observation shortly after the initial charging. A steady, positive reading on the pressure gauge was observed after a period of time. This reading was a critical result, as it verified two key points: first, that the vessel was completely sealed and fully leak-proof, and second, that the biological process had successfully initiated, marking the onset of the acidogenesis phase and its associated CO₂ production. This rapid startup led to the projection that, with the aid of the chemical buffer, the system would move through its lag phase and begin flammable biogas production within an approximately three-week timeframe.

This successful startup was achieved despite notable challenges. Difficulties in material procurement were a significant hurdle, which forced a design compromise in using a pump with a smaller bore than originally specified. Furthermore, the cow dung feedstock acquired was not fresh and contained a high volume of sand, which demanded a time-consuming pre-treatment process to avoid future clogs.

In light of these results, the future of this continuous operating digester is promising. The design proves its practicability and durability, offering a sustainable and reliable alternative to batch digestion. This system demonstrates a clear path toward more efficient and continuous biogas production.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 CONCLUSION

This project successfully designed and constructed a canister-type continuous operating biogas digester. Following the fabrication, the system was charged with cow dung feedstock to formally initiate the anaerobic digestion process. The setup is currently under active observation, with the integrated pressure gauge being monitored to track the progression of gas production. However, the project execution faced specific limitations, including persistent power supply challenges and funding constraints. These factors necessitated certain design compromises, particularly regarding the specific type of pump utilized for the feeding mechanism.

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the observations from this project, the following recommendations are proposed to enhance the digester's performance and long-term reliability.

- i. Dedicated biogas storage unit, like a gas bag or floating drum, should be added. This would safely store the produced gas and make it more practical for use
- ii. The digester needs additional internal sensors. A pH probe and a thermometer are needed to directly monitor the slurry and optimize the biological process.
- iii. Feedstock pump with a larger bore should be sourced. This would make the feeding process faster, easier, and less likely to clog.
- iv. A mechanical mixer should be incorporated. Regular stirring would ensure the slurry mixes properly.
- v. Proper thermal insulation should be applied to the canister. This will maintain a stable internal temperature, protecting the microbes and improving gas yield.
- vi. Dedicated de-gritting chamber should be built. This would remove sand from the feedstock before it enters the canister, preventing clogs and saving space.
- vii. Formal maintenance schedule should be created. This involves regularly checking the pump, valves, and seals to ensure the system's long-term safety and durability.
- viii. Transparent strip of film should be installed on the main canister for easy viewing of current feedstock level.

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