

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

### Applied Catalysis B: Environmental



journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/apcatb

# Importance of the Cu oxidation state for the SO<sub>2</sub>-poisoning of a Cu-SAPO-34 catalyst in the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction



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#### ARTICLE INFO

Keywords: NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR SO<sub>2</sub> poisoning Deactivation Cu-CHA DFT

#### ABSTRACT

Cu-exchanged zeolites of the CHA structure are state-of-the-art catalysts for selective catalytic reduction of  $NO_x$  with  $NH_3$  in diesel aftertreatment systems. However, these catalysts deactivate in the presence of  $SO_2$ , which is a constituent of diesel exhaust gas. In this article, the deactivation behavior and mechanisms of a Cu-SAPO-34 catalyst were studied with reactor tests and DFT calculations. Exposure of the catalyst to two different  $SO_2$  concentrations and durations, but with the same total  $SO_2$  exposure, calculated as the product of partial pressure of  $SO_2$  and exposure time, lead to the same degree of deactivation. Exposure of the Cu-SAPO-34 catalyst to  $SO_2$  in the presence and absence of NO and  $NH_3$  at different temperatures between 200-600 °C showed different trends for the deactivation. Below 400 °C, the S/Cu ratio on the catalyst increased with temperature in absence of NO and  $NH_3$ , while it decreased with increasing temperature in the presence of NO and  $NH_3$ . This is explained by the ability of NO and  $NH_3$  to reduce Cu(II) to Cu(I). DFT calculations show that  $SO_2$  adsorbs more strongly on Cu(I) than on Cu (II). Above 400 °C, the S/Cu ratio decreased with temperature irrespective of the presence of NO and  $NH_3$ . In all cases, the S/Cu ratio is lower than 1. This is not compatible with extensive deposition of ammonium sulfate when co-feeding  $SO_2$ ,  $H_2O$  and  $NH_3$ . A more likely explanation for the deactivation is that  $SO_2$  is mainly related to the Cu sites. This is further corroborated by DFT calculations showing that  $SO_2$  and  $SO_3$ , which is possibly formed by oxidation of  $SO_2$  over Cu sites, interact similar with Cu in Cu-SAPO-34 and Cu-SSZ-13.

#### 1. Introduction

Diesel engines operate with excess air in the combustion, leading to production of nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>). NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from diesel engines are a source of air pollution and are therefore regulated. To meet legislation requirements for NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, a modern aftertreatment systems for diesel engines contain one or more catalysts for the reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> to N<sub>2</sub> by selective catalytic reduction with NH<sub>3</sub> (NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR). The NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR proceeds according to the reaction:  $4 \text{ NH}_3 + 4 \text{ NO} + \text{ O}_2 \rightarrow 4 \text{ N}_2 + 6 \text{ H}_2\text{O}$ . Urea injected in the exhaust gas stream is commonly used as a source for NH<sub>3</sub>, and, if properly controlled, the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction can reach very high degrees of NO<sub>x</sub> removal. The currently applied catalysts for NH3-SCR are based on Voxide, Fe-zeolites or Cu-zeolites.

Current zeolite state-of-the-art  $NH_3$ -SCR catalysts are based on the CHA structure due to its better hydrothermal stability than other commercial zeolite structures [1]. The CHA structure exists with an

overall chemical composition of  $H_nAl_nSi_{1-n}O_2$  (SSZ-13) or  $H_nSi_nAlP_{1-n}O_4$  (SAPO-34), under the assumption that only P is substituted by Si. Cu ions are introduced into the ion-exchange positions in these materials, and these Cu sites are the source of the catalytic activity of Cu-CHA catalysts. Compared to Fe-zeolites and vanadia-based SCR catalysts, the main advantages of the Cu-CHA catalysts are superior low-temperature SCR activity and lower N<sub>2</sub>O selectivity [2,3]. A disadvantage of the Cu-CHA catalysts is their susceptibility towards poisoning by SO<sub>2</sub> [4,5]. SO<sub>2</sub> is an inevitable compound in diesel exhausts, and even at concentration levels below 15 ppm, as in ultra-low sulfur diesel [4,6], the resulting SO<sub>2</sub> in the exhaust gas, typically about 1–2 ppmv, has a significant impact on the performance of Cu-CHA catalysts. It is therefore important to understand how SO<sub>2</sub> affects the Cu-CHA catalysts.

The gas stream that the SCR catalyst is exposed to in a diesel exhaust system consists of several other compounds than  $SO_2$ , including but not limited to  $O_2$ ,  $H_2O$ , NO and NH<sub>3</sub>. These compounds may affect the

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2018.05.038

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Received 19 February 2018; Received in revised form 9 May 2018; Accepted 14 May 2018 0926-3373/ @ 2018 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

interaction of SO<sub>2</sub> with the Cu-CHA catalyst. Several SO<sub>2</sub>-poisoning studies have been carried out in gas compositions where NO and NH<sub>3</sub> are omitted [4–11]. Such experiments have shown that the deactivation is due to  $SO_2$  interactions with Cu, which is dependent on the temperature of SO<sub>2</sub> exposure. Adsorption of SO<sub>2</sub> mainly takes place at temperatures around 200 °C [5], while chemical reactions between SO<sub>2</sub> and Cu become more dominating at temperatures around 400 °C [5]. SO<sub>2</sub> reacts at the Cu sites in the CHA, resulting in (Cu,S) species with S in oxidation state +6, which are assigned to isolated Cu-sulfates [4,12]. This assignment is corroborated by their decomposition temperature of around 650 °C, which is consistent with the decomposition of bulk  $CuSO_4$  [4.11.13], and by an observed 1:1 correlation between the S/Cu ratio of these species and the deactivation [11]. The formation of sulfates implies that SO<sub>2</sub> is oxidized over the catalyst, and the rate of oxidation increases with temperature [10]. The effect of the gas composition on the deactivation by SO2 is not fully understood, and therefore, it is important to improve the understanding in order to be able to transfer results to the SO<sub>2</sub>-poisoning occurring in real exhausts.

It has been argued that the effect of NO and NH<sub>3</sub> on SO<sub>2</sub>-poisoning is the formation of ammonium sulfate, which may infer mass transfer limitations by pore-blocking [14–16]. However, ammonium sulfate decomposes at about 350 °C, and can therefore feasibly be removed [16]. Moreover, the presence of NO and NH<sub>3</sub>, or release of NH<sub>3</sub> from ammonium sulfate, has a suggested beneficial effect on the regeneration of SO<sub>2</sub>-poisoned catalysts, due to the reducing properties of the SCR gas mixture and NH<sub>3</sub> [8,16].

In this article the SO<sub>2</sub> deactivation behavior of a Cu-SAPO-34 catalyst was investigated. The Cu-SAPO-34 was chosen because of its high hydrothermal stability so that high-temperature regeneration did not result in deterioration of the zeolite structure; something that cannot always be avoided with SSZ-13. We investigated the effect of SO<sub>2</sub> exposure time, SO<sub>2</sub> concentration, and the presence of NO and NH<sub>3</sub> on the deactivation by SO<sub>2</sub>. DFT calculations were used to evaluate the interactions between Cu, SO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>3</sub> in order to obtain a better understanding of the temperature dependence, and effect of NO and NH<sub>3</sub>, on the deactivation.

#### 2. Experimental

#### 2.1. Catalyst material and reactor testing conditions

In this study, we used a Cu-SAPO-34 catalyst with a (P+Al)/Si of 6.5 and a Cu-loading of 1.9 wt%, as determined by ICP-OES. The steady-state conversions of NO in the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR reaction were measured in a fixed-bed quartz reactor with an inner diameter of 2 mm, using 5 mg catalyst on dry matter basis, and a sieve fraction of 150–300  $\mu$ m. The SCR-feed gas for the activity measurements consisted of 500 ppmv NO, 530 ppmv NH<sub>3</sub>, 10% O<sub>2</sub> and 5% H<sub>2</sub>O, in N<sub>2</sub> at a total flow of 225 N mL/min- The inlet and outlet gas composition was determined using a Gasmet CX4000 FTIR analyser. Prior to the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR activity measurements, the catalyst was heated for 1 h in the SCR-feed gas at 550 °C. The effect of SO<sub>2</sub> on the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR activity was determined from a comparison of the NO<sub>x</sub> conversion before and after exposure of the catalyst to an SO<sub>2</sub>-containing feed gas in the same reactor setup.

The catalyst was exposed to SO<sub>2</sub> in a flow with either SCR-feed gas, or with 10% O<sub>2</sub> and 5% H<sub>2</sub>O, balanced by N<sub>2</sub> to a total flow rate of 225 N mL/min. The inlet concentrations of SO<sub>2</sub> were 1.5 or 15 ppmv. The temperature and duration of SO<sub>2</sub> exposure were varied and are stated specifically with the results.

The evaluation of the  $NH_3$ -SCR activity is based on the rate constant for the  $NH_3$ -SCR reaction. The rate constants (*k*) are derived from measured steady state  $NO_x$  conversions, as shown in Eq. (1), assuming plug flow of the gas and that the  $NH_3$ -SCR reaction is first order in NO.

$$k = -\frac{F}{W}\ln(1-X) \tag{1}$$

F is the total molar flow rate, W is the total mass of catalyst on a dry matter basis, and X is the NO<sub>x</sub> conversion.

The deactivation of the catalyst is calculated from a comparison of rate constants after  $SO_2$  exposure or regeneration with the corresponding rate constant of the fresh catalyst. In this article, we define the deactivation as:

Deactivation = 
$$1 - \frac{k}{k_{fresh}}$$
 (2)

#### 2.2. Computational

Spin polarized Density Functional Theory (DFT) calculations were used to obtain adsorption energies of  $O_2$ ,  $SO_2$  and  $SO_3$  on Cu species in SAPO-34 and SSZ-13. The calculations were performed with the GPAW package [17,18] using a real space grid-based projector augmented wave method. A grid spacing of h = 0.2 Å and a Fermi smearing of 0.1 K were found sufficient to obtain a satisfactory convergence of the relative energies. To account for Van der Waals interactions the BEEFvdW functional was used [19]. This functional has shown to produce reliable results for the interaction of molecules with zeolites [20,21]. Both SSZ-13 and SAPO-34 were represented by periodic cells with hexagonal symmetry containing 36 T-atoms (SSZ-13 cell parameters: a,b = 13.886 Å, c = 15.116 Å,  $\alpha = 120^\circ$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma = 90^\circ$  and SAPO-34 cell parameters: a,b = 14.602 Å, c = 15.287 Å,  $\alpha = 120^\circ$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma = 90^\circ$ ).

#### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Deactivation by $SO_2$ exposure and scalability

Fig. 1A shows the measured steady state  $NO_x$  conversions for the fresh catalyst, after exposure to  $SO_2$ , and after regeneration at 550 °C. For the  $SO_2$  exposure, 1.5 ppmv of  $SO_2$  was added to the SCR-feed, which is in the  $SO_2$  concentration range expected in automotive diesel exhaust, and the catalyst was held at 300 °C for 8 h. The regeneration of the catalyst was performed at 550 °C for 1 h in SCR-feed gas without  $SO_2$ . Exposure to  $SO_2$  leads to significantly lower steady state  $NO_x$  conversions in the temperature range 150–300 °C. Regeneration at 550 °C restores most of the original  $NO_x$  conversion in this temperature range. This behavior has also been observed for an aluminosilicate Cu-CHA catalyst, and can be understood in terms of irreversible and reversible deactivation [11]. According to the definitions in [11], the deactivation measured after regeneration at 550 °C is the irreversible deactivation, and the difference in deactivation after  $SO_2$  exposure and regeneration at 550 °C is the reversible deactivation.

For practical reasons when investigating SO<sub>2</sub> deactivation, it is often useful to accelerate the SO<sub>2</sub>-poisoning by increasing the SO<sub>2</sub> concentration and proportionally shortening the exposure time. The results are then interpreted in terms of the total SO<sub>2</sub> exposure, calculated as the product of the SO<sub>2</sub> partial pressure and the exposure time, rather than the SO<sub>2</sub> concentration. This interpretation requires that a direct proportionality exists between the exposure time and SO<sub>2</sub> concentration, such that these two parameters can be scaled with respect to SO<sub>2</sub>-poisoning. This scalability was investigated by comparing the results of the non-accelerated SO<sub>2</sub> exposure, i.e. exposure to 1.5 ppmv SO<sub>2</sub>, to the results from a catalyst exposed to an accelerated SO<sub>2</sub> exposure. For the accelerated SO<sub>2</sub> exposure, the SO<sub>2</sub> concentration was increased by a factor 10 and the exposure time was correspondingly decreased, thus exposing to 15 ppmv SO<sub>2</sub> in SCR-feed gas for 48 min at 300 °C. The steady state NOx conversions before and after the accelerated SO2 exposure, and after 1 h regeneration at 550 °C in SCR-feed gas, are plotted in Fig. 1B.

The appearance of the  $NO_x$  conversion curve for the accelerated  $SO_2$  exposed catalyst in Fig. 1B, is very similar to that shown in Fig. 1A. The  $NO_x$  conversions of the fresh catalyst shown in Fig. 1B are slightly lower than those of the fresh catalyst in Fig. 1A, which is due to small

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