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**Article:**

Daood, S.S., Yelland, T. and Nimmo, W. (2017) Selective non-catalytic reduction – Fe-based additive hybrid technology. *Fuel*, 208. pp. 353-362. ISSN: 0016-2361

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2017.07.019>

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# 1 Selective non-catalytic reduction – Fe-based additive 2 hybrid technology

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## 6 HIGHLIGHTS

- 7 • A Fe-based additive altered performance of selective non-catalytic reduction.
- 8 • Pseudo-catalytic activity provides active sites for ammonia to reduce NO.
- 9 • This interaction led to greater NO reduction and greater ammonia utilisation.
- 10 • This is an economically viable opportunity for full-scale coal combustion plants.

## 11 ABSTRACT

12 Fe-based additives can be used to improve coal combustion and reduce NO<sub>x</sub> emissions; further to  
13 this, iron oxide (Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) has been found to interact with ammonia. Therefore, it is critically  
14 imperative to understand and assess the impact of the Fe-based additive on the use of ammonia  
15 based selective non-catalytic reduction (SNCR) and to evaluate the economic feasibility of such  
16 a combination for full-scale use. Experiments were performed using a 100 kWth down fired-  
17 combustion test facility burning pulverised coal over three Fe-based additive concentrations,

18 while the ammonia input was varied between normalised stoichiometric ratios 0-3. This study  
19 finds evidence of an interaction between the Fe-based additive and SNCR. The interaction leads  
20 to greater ammonia utilisation and an increased  $\text{NO}_x$  reduction due to the SNCR of >10%. The  
21 interaction is theorised to be pseudo-catalytic with the fuel additive providing an active site for  
22 ammonia to reduce NO. Using Carnegie Mellon University's 'Integrated Environmental Control  
23 Model' (IECM), this has been shown to create an economically viable opportunity to increase  
24 SNCR effectiveness.

## 25 KEYWORDS

26 SNCR,  $\text{NO}_x$ , coal, additive, ammonia, Fe

## 27 NOMENCLATURE

28 AFR – Ammonia flow rate (ml/min)

29  $\eta_{\text{NH}_3}$  – Ammonia utilisation efficiency

30  $\text{NO}_{\text{initial}}$  – The concentration of NO in the flue gas prior to ammonia injection (ppm)

31 NSR – Normalised stoichiometric ratio

32 Q – Volumetric flow rate of air (ml/min)

33

## 34 1. INTRODUCTION

35 The use of coal for power generation has only grown in popularity across the world in spite of  
36 leading nations pledging to maximise efforts to reduce the inevitable impact of climate change,  
37 in solidarity with many other future affected nations. The focus of many energy researchers is  
38 therefore to create opportunities for economical clean coal technologies, particularly regarding  
39 innovative  $\text{SO}_x$  and  $\text{NO}_x$  control technologies.

40 NO<sub>x</sub> abatement technologies have been extensively reviewed [1] and are understood to be largely  
41 split into two categories: combustion modification and post combustion abatement. The most  
42 common combustion modification techniques include variations of low NO<sub>x</sub> burners and over  
43 fire air (OFA); these can have the unintended side-effect of reducing the combustion efficiency  
44 and increasing carbon in ash [2]. Nevertheless, they are a popular choice when a European plant  
45 operator is in need of economical NO<sub>x</sub> reduction; this is due to only modest costs [2] and their  
46 ability to reach the old Large Combustion Plant Directive (LCPD) (2001/20/EC) [3] emission  
47 limits. Under the Industrial Emissions Directive (IED) (2010/75/EU), existing coal and biomass  
48 plants over 500MW<sub>th</sub> and new coal and biomass plants over 300MW<sub>th</sub> in the EU are required to  
49 keep their NO<sub>x</sub> emissions below 200 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup> [4]. In the UK, this has been a costly and laborious  
50 task, and has already seen a number of coal power plants opt-out and choose to shut down [5]. In  
51 China and the US, these limits are even tighter reaching 100 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup> [6] and 117 mg/Nm<sup>3</sup> [7]  
52 respectively. These emission limits effectively require plant operators to install a post-  
53 combustion abatement technology; this has forced a dilemma: accept the large financial blow but  
54 secure long-term NO<sub>x</sub> compliance with selective catalytic reduction (SCR) or install selective  
55 non-catalytic reduction (SNCR) at a low cost and risk intermittent limit breaches. This is a  
56 simpler choice for those running on biomass, or co-firing with biomass, as initial NO  
57 concentrations tend to be far lower.

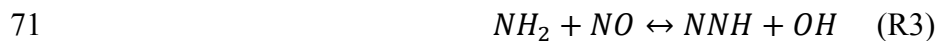
58 SCR can achieve NO<sub>x</sub> reductions of up to 90% [2], however the catalyst that makes this possible  
59 is prone to rapid fouling and the whole process is known to be very cost intensive (around  
60 \$2600-7400/ton of NO reduced [8]). SNCR is seen as a less attractive prospect with a  
61 substantially lower maximum removal rate (in this paper found to be ~45%); however, it is  
62 relatively simple to implement [2] and far less cost intensive (around \$670-2200/ton of NO

63 reduced [8]) than SCR. SNCR is also attractive due to being unaffected by fly ash and easily  
64 modified to work with other NO<sub>x</sub> abatement technologies [9].

65 The technique of SNCR involves the reduction of NO by a reagent, usually ammonia or urea, at  
66 a temperature window between 850 °C and 1175 °C [2]. The reagent, ammonia in this study,  
67 reacts with hydroxyl radicals (OH) to form an amidogen radical (-NH<sub>2</sub>):



69 This radical is selectively reactive towards NO and primarily reacts in the following reactions:



72 Reaction (R3) is important because it is a chain branching reaction that regenerates OH radicals  
73 needed for the chain propagation reaction (R1). However, the NNH radical undergoes a further  
74 reaction:



76 Which leads to:



78 The H atom is then involved in a chain branching reaction to create more hydroxyl radicals.  
79 Therefore, even though reaction (R3) is not as efficient as reaction (R2) at reducing NO, it is just  
80 as vital because it leads to the SNCR process being self-sustaining.

81 .

82 Another option would be to install SNCR while also capitalising on the research highlighting the  
83 tendency of Fe to reduce NO [10] [11] [12]. In Daood, et al. (2014, 2014), a commercial Fe-  
84 based fuel additive, for use with pulverised coal combustion, was demonstrated and discussed  
85 [13] [14]. This technology was found to reduce NO emissions, reduce carbon in fly ash and  
86 increase combustion efficiency. This fuel additive technology has proven to be potentially  
87 beneficial for coal power generators and may provide the extra NO<sub>x</sub> reduction needed to comply  
88 with emission limits. However, the main constituent of the Fe-based additive, iron oxide (Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>),  
89 has been reported to display SCR like properties [15]. Considering the plurality of encouraging  
90 research into the in-flame NO reduction benefits of Fe [10] [11] [12] [13] [14] and investigations  
91 into the effect of alternate additives on NO reduction in SNCR [16] [17], it is unexpected that  
92 there is a knowledge gap regarding the potential effect of Fe on SNCR.

93 Previously, fuel additives for pulverised coal combustion have received a sceptical view, as seen  
94 by a 1994 European Commission report that found many manufacturers' claims to be unjustified  
95 [18] and, later, a 2007 report by IEA Clean Coal Centre which commented on a general  
96 ineffectiveness of commercially available additives [19]. It is, therefore, categorically imperative  
97 for detailed investigation of promising additives to be undertaken to answer any outstanding  
98 questions and allow operators to benefit from technological development. Recently, there have  
99 been positive industrial trials for some new coal additives, including Pentomag 2550 I; which,  
100 when used in a coal fired boiler, was found to achieve fuel savings of 7.36% which amounted to  
101 net savings of 2038000 rupees [20].

102 Although fuel additives technologies have not been widely adopted, the use of process additives  
103 to boost SNCR performance has been extensively studied. This involves controlling the  
104 concentrations of reducing agents naturally found in combustion mixtures, such as hydrogen [21]

105 [22], carbon monoxide [21] [23] and hydrocarbons [23] [24] or introducing reagents to influence  
106 process conditions, such as hydrogen peroxide to provide a rapid source of hydroxyl radicals  
107 [25]. In general, they were found to produce desirable effects such as lowering the optimal  
108 temperature window for SNCR; however, this was accompanied by decreased maximum NO  
109 reductions, decreased selectivity and greater conversion of NO to NO<sub>2</sub>. From these studies, it is  
110 implicit that there is a desire and drive to improve SNCR performance. This drive could be  
111 legislative, environmental or economical in nature, and, as of yet, there has been little success in  
112 finding a commercially viable option. Hybrid SNCR-SCR technologies have also been  
113 demonstrated as an option to maximise NO<sub>x</sub> reduction due to SNCR, providing up to 75%  
114 reduction [26] while eliminating ammonia slip using a volumetrically smaller SCR. However,  
115 further demonstrations found issues regarding the flue gas temperature through the catalyst and  
116 arsenic poisoning of the catalyst [27].

117 Therefore, the aim of this study is to identify a novel hybrid of Fe-additive - SNCR to boost  
118 SNCR performance with the intention to help power generators achieve NO<sub>x</sub> legislation  
119 requirements. The objectives are: to critically assess the impact of the Fe-based additive on the  
120 use of SNCR and to evaluate the economic feasibility of such a combination. This study finds  
121 that the Fe-based additive has a positive impact on SNCR in terms of NO<sub>x</sub> reduction and reagent  
122 consumption, while also proving to be an economical option for improving SNCR performance.

## 123 **2. METHODOLOGY**

### 124 **2.1. Pilot Scale Test facility.**

125 The 4 m tall pulverized fuel (PF) combustion test facility (CTF) consists of eight modular  
126 cylindrical sections with an internal diameter of 400 mm and a down-fired burner containing a

127 fixed block swirl. The walls of the top sections behind the refractory are water-cooled to avoid  
128 temperature creep and provide stable operating conditions. The PF rig is designed up to  $100 \text{ kW}_{\text{th}}$   
129 input of coal ranging from  $15\text{-}20 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  based on the calorific value of the fuel. The coal feeding  
130 arrangement contains a Rospen twin-screw feeder, with an uncertainty of  $\pm 0.5\%$ , and a vibratory  
131 feeding tray. The Fe-based additive is added to the coal vibratory tray through a smaller separate  
132 feeder with a single fine pitch screw. This smaller feeder can be calibrated to feed the Fe-based  
133 additive from  $0.27 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$  to  $1 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$ ; a 3 point calibration is done on this feeder to give  
134 repeatability confidence. The output from the vibratory tray is fed into the primary air. Due to the  
135 turbulent nature of the primary air and the length of pipe between the vibratory tray and the  
136 burner (roughly 9-10 m), it can be assumed that the additive and coal are homogeneously mixed  
137 when arriving at the burner. The majority of the combustion air is split between the primary  
138 (carrier) air and secondary air, which is supplied through a dedicated compressor and a blower  
139 fan.

140 The flue gas is monitored using a water-cooled probe inserted at a sample port in the eighth  
141 section located in proximity to the flue point of the CTF; this sample then passes through a series  
142 of filtration and conditioning units to remove water vapour and particulates. The sample probe is  
143 periodically purged using compressed air to remove condensed water and deposited fly ash  
144 which may block the probe or influence measurements. The concentrations of the major flue gas  
145 constituents,  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{CO}$  and  $\text{O}_2$ , are measured using chemiluminescence, non-dispersive  
146 infra-red and paramagnetic based standard instruments respectively. Further details of the test  
147 facility have been discussed in Daood et al. (2014, 2014) [13] [14].

148 The arrangement for the ammonia injection consisted of a specialized mixing skid with  
149 calibrated flowmeters for the measurement of both pure ammonia and nitrogen used as a carrier.

150 The momentum induced by the mixed nitrogen helps induce thorough mixing of the injected  
151 ammonia into the hot gas mixture inside the furnace. The ammonia and nitrogen mixture,  
152 through a water-cooled injection probe, is introduced at the module that provides a compromise  
153 between highest possible NO reduction and lowest possible ammonia slip as discussed in section  
154 3.1. This arrangement benefits in the maximum reactivity of the reducing amides with the oxides  
155 of nitrogen within the optimum temperature window (850 °C to 1100 °C). The appropriate  
156 ammonia flow rate (*AFR*) is calculated using:

$$157 \quad AFR = (NO_{initial} \times 10^{-6}) \times Q \times NSR$$

158 The NSR is a term used to standardise the desired NO<sub>x</sub> reduction between different reagents, e.g.  
159 a NSR of 1 will theoretically reduce 1 mole of NO and requires 1 mole of ammonia or 0.5 moles  
160 of urea. The calculated ammonia flow rate is converted to an arbitrary flow value using the  
161 manufacturer's calibration chart.

## 162 2.2. Experimental method.

163 Once the aforementioned temperature ramp from the switch to coal from propane has levelled off  
164 at ~1300 °C, steady state is assumed to be achieved and the NO concentration in the flue gas is  
165 designated as the coal baseline level. Following the acquisition of sufficient data points,  
166 approximately 100-120 points (with one reading every ten seconds), at the coal baseline,  
167 ammonia is added at a flow rate to give a desired NSR. The NSR range under investigation is  
168 between 0-3. This is because during preliminary tests, it was discovered that above a NSR 3 the  
169 self-inhibition effect is observed and NO<sub>x</sub> reduction is greatly decreased. After all the desired  
170 NSRs have been investigated, the ammonia addition ceases and there is a return to coal baseline.  
171 This confirms that no reduction in NO can be attributed to a change in initial conditions. Fe-

172 based additive is then added and the steady state NO reduction is observed. Using the NO  
173 concentration in the flue gas for the Fe-based additive baseline as  $NO_{initial}$ , ammonia is re-  
174 introduced to the system at the same NSRs as before. Each combination of NSR and Fe-based  
175 additive concentration is observed and recorded for approximately ten minutes. This gives a  
176 direct indication of the effect of Fe-based additive on the NO reduction by SNCR. A simplified  
177 infographic of the experimental procedure can be seen in figure 1.

### 178 2.3. Coal characterisation.

179 The coal used to collect the data presented here is Durrans grade 240 coal, the as-received  
180 ultimate analysis and calorific value is displayed in table 1.

## 181 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 182 3.1. Optimisation of the SNCR: Effect of the $NH_3$ injection (distance from the wall- 183 temperature window) on the $NO_x$ reduction

184 A major issue concerning the implementation of SNCR regards how successfully the injected  
185 ammonia would react with the flue gas NO within the optimum temperature window. This effect  
186 has been studied by varying the dilution rate of the nitrogen, the radial injection position and the  
187 axial position for the optimum temperature window. Figure 2 summarises the impact of the axial  
188 position with varying dilution rate of the nitrogen on the  $NO_x$  reduction and ammonia slip  
189 ( $mg/Nm^3$ ). The NO reduction rate is reduced below 1000 °C causing an increase in the ammonia  
190 slip; this could result initially in the formation of the ammonia sulphates, which usually re-  
191 condenses in the flue gas path post convective section of the boiler. Similarly, the reaction rate is  
192 slowed down above 1100 °C due to oxidation of the ammonia as evident from the near zero  
193 ammonia slip values. Usually a subtle balance must be established to gain the maximum  $NO_x$

194 reduction at the expense of minimum ammonia slip without compromising the overall secondary  
195 installations of the plant. This fine balance can also be greatly affected by the uniform and  
196 effective dispersion of the reducing ammonia within the flue gas path at the correct temperature  
197 window. Figure 3 illustrates the effectiveness of the radial dispersion position of the injected  
198 ammonia towards NO<sub>x</sub> reduction. The maximum NO<sub>x</sub> reduction is achieved at the 150 mm radial  
199 position of the injection probe from the sidewall. The effectiveness of the homogeneous  
200 distribution of the injected ammonia has a direct impact on the reactivity rate. Nitrogen carrier  
201 flowrate of 30 l/min with injection probe at 150 mm position from the wall ensured a greater  
202 penetration depth for the reactions resulting in the highest NO<sub>x</sub> reduction. It is evident that the  
203 overall penetration of the reducing agent, especially when injected at the right angle close to the  
204 sidewall, is less; this substantially improves at 150 mm traversed position. This could be due to  
205 the improved lateral and radial mixing of the penetrated reducing agent at that specific location.

### 206 3.2. Effect of Fe-based additive on SNCR

207 Following a simplified and prolonged procedure to that described in section 2.2, figure 4  
208 summarises the benefit of utilising the fuel enrichment process with SNCR for NSR 1.5 by  
209 presenting the NO concentration in the flue gas as the conditions in the CTF are changed,  
210 including the addition of the additive and ammonia. Figure 4 shows that there is a clear  
211 additional benefit to the NO<sub>x</sub> abatement potential of combining Fe-based additive with SNCR,  
212 with NO concentrations in the flue gas reducing from ~750 ppm to ~375 ppm. The only repeated  
213 conditions were for coal and Fe-based additive baselines. This represents the overall tolerance  
214 for the established baselines to be within 5% confidence for the CTF. The methodology adopted  
215 for this continuous data log was to highlight the varying impact of SNCR with respect to solely  
216 coal and coal with Fe-based additive. This data has been recorded for an optimum temperature

217 window, i.e.  $1000^{\circ}\text{C} < \text{optimum temperature window} < 1100^{\circ}\text{C}$ , and  $\text{NSR} = 1.5$ , with 30 l/min of  
218 carrier nitrogen.

219 Figure 5 directly compares the NO reduction rates of SNCR with the combined SNCR-Fe-  
220 additive hybrid, including varying concentrations of the additive in the fuel, as the NSR  
221 increases. The SNCR reduction rate is with respect to the coal baseline value of NO in the flue  
222 gas and the combined reduction rates are with respect to the Fe-based additive baseline values of  
223 NO in the flue gas. Therefore, the initial NO concentration for the combination is lower and  
224 SNCR should be less effective [2].

225 However, figure 5 clearly shows greater SNCR effectiveness in the presence of Fe-based  
226 additive, indicating that the presence of the additive at the location of ammonia injection, module  
227 5 (2.24m axial distance from the quarl), is facilitating NO reduction due to ammonia. The low  
228 ammonia region ( $\text{NSR} < 1$ ) has a similar NO reduction for all Fe-based additive concentrations,  
229 which is an indication that additive concentration is relatively independent to the mechanism at  
230 this stage. The reduction rates of the hybrid proceed to diverge when  $\text{NSR} > 1$ , and the  
231 concentration of additive starts to affect the effectiveness of the SNCR. The greatest reduction is  
232 observed with the greatest concentration of additive, this implies that the additive may be acting  
233 as an active site for NO reduction by ammonia. When the additive concentration is reduced, a  
234 lower reduction is observed. This could indicate that active sites on the fuel additive are  
235 becoming completely occupied and that the number of active sites limits this NO reduction  
236 mechanism; this also can lead to a negative effect on NO reduction as seen for a 1.5 NSR and 3%  
237 Fe-based additive (this is further discussed in section 3.3 and figure 11). When investigating an  
238 error of two standard deviations from the mean in figure 5, there is obvious variation associated  
239 with the absolute NO reduction at each additive concentration; this is due to the heterogeneity of

261 the coal's chemical composition. However, the trends associated with each condition remain  
262 confirmed on the basis of the average mean values.

263 Figure 6 shows the effect of the fuel additive on ammonia utilisation efficiency of SNCR, where  
264 the ammonia utilisation efficiency is calculated using [28]:

$$265 \quad \eta_{NH_3} = \frac{(NO_{initial} - NO_{final})}{(NO_{initial} \times NSR)}$$

266 This property represents the proportion of reagent that is used to reduce NO, with the remaining  
267 reagent either oxidised by oxygen or lost in slip. The initial NO concentration used for the SNCR  
268 values is the NO in the flue gas at the coal baseline, whereas the initial NO concentration used  
269 for the hybrid is the NO in the flue gas at the Fe-based additive baseline.

270 Figure 6 shows that at  $NSR \leq 1$ , the  $NH_3$  utilisation efficiency is far larger for the hybrid  
271 technology; therefore, SNCR in the presence of the additive is far more effective. At  $NSR = 3$ ,  
272 the efficiencies for each scenario come close to converging; this suggests that as more ammonia  
273 is introduced, the active sites become full and the SNCR NO reduction mechanism becomes the  
274 more active mechanism. This effect can be seen at lower NSRs for a lower concentration of  
275 additive, implying that there is a relationship between the two. The lack of ammonia slip is a  
276 vital parameter that also indicates a high  $NH_3$  utilisation efficiency. Figure 6 includes a  
277 representation of a two standard deviation error; this reaffirms the analysis that there is a great  
278 increase in ammonia utilisation when the additive is present.

279 The reductions observed in this study may not be the highest reduction possible; this is due to  
280 two factors. One is that the residence time between ammonia injection in the CTF and flue gas  
281 may be insufficient for maximum reduction. The other is that the temperature recorded at the

282 ammonia injection is 1100 °C ( $\pm 8$  °C); this is on the high end of the optimum temperature  
283 window for SNCR and therefore may be affected by NH oxidation system that becomes  
284 competitive with the NO reduction mechanism at  $\sim 1200$  °C.

### 285 3.3. Catalytic interaction between Fe-based additive and SNCR

286 When using Fe-based additive in conjunction with the conventional NO<sub>x</sub> abatement technique,  
287 an additional ‘bonus’ reduction was expected. This cumulative reduction was predicted to work  
288 as so: the additive would have the same effect as reported in Daood, et al. (2014, 2014) [13] [14]  
289 within the quarl and the first 4 sections of the combustion test facility and then in section 5, the  
290 location of the ammonia injection, there would be reduction due to the selective non-catalytic  
291 properties of ammonia. However, the reduction observed did not follow the expected cumulative  
292 trend. Figure 7 displays the observed reduction of NO concentration in the flue gas with varying  
293 degrees of additive concentration in the coal inlet compared with a number of scenarios that  
294 would have represented cumulative reduction. If a cumulative effect were taking place then the  
295 observed results would fall in line with the predicted results. Since the initial NO concentration is  
296 lower when the additive is present, due to the in-flame reduction caused by the Fe-based  
297 additive, the reduction due to SNCR will be slightly decreased [2]. Therefore, a k factor was  
298 applied to simulate that lower reduction effect; where a k factor of 0.9 indicates that the SNCR is  
299 90% as effective compared to when the additive is not present (and the initial NO concentration  
300 is at coal baseline levels) and a k factor of 1 indicates no change in SNCR performance. The  
301 predicted results are calculated as such:

302  $[NO]_{NSR,k} = [NO]_{additive} \times (1 - (k \times SNCR\%_{NSR}))$

303 Where  $SNCR\%_{NSR}$  is the NO reduction due to SNCR at a given NSR and  $[NO]_{additive}$  is the  
304 concentration of NO in the flue gas at the additive baseline.

305 This suggests that the cumulative reduction is not the active mechanism here. When there is  
306 assumed to be no drop in effectiveness of SNCR ( $k=1$ ), the NO reduction is not as great as  
307 observed. Under an increasing Fe-based additive concentration in the coal feed, there is a greater  
308 divergence in NO reduction between the observed results and the predicted results. The data  
309 from the trial with 3% Fe-based additive, shows that at an NSR 3, the observed NO reduction is  
310 similar to a predicted reduction with a 15% ( $k=0.85$ ) decrease in effectiveness of SNCR.  
311 However, the observed trend before this point ( $NSR \leq 1.5$ ) is vastly different from the predicted  
312 trends. This all suggests that there is an interaction between the additive and the ammonia. When  
313 investigating the uncertainty surrounding the observed results using two standard deviations  
314 from the mean, it remains apparent that it is improbable that cumulative reduction is the active  
315 mechanism. This is summarised by the majority of the data from the k factor conditions is  
316 outside the 95% accuracy range of the observed values.

317 Figure 8 shows a mechanism suggested by Apostlescu, et al., (2006) [15] where iron oxide was  
318 tested as a catalyst for NO reduction by SCR. This Eley-Rideal mechanism involves an ionised  
319 iron atom acting as a binding site for the ammonia creating an amide, which in turn reduces the  
320 NO to  $N_2$ , therefore facilitating the  $NH_3/NO$  reduction mechanism by removing the reliance on  
321 hydroxyl radicals to initiate the mechanism by reacting with ammonia.

322 Figure 8 may, also, help explain why the fuel additive becomes detrimental for additive  
323 concentration at 3% and  $NSR > 1.5$  (as observed in figure 5 and figure 7). As the number of

324 active sites is exhausted, the SNCR mechanism becomes active once again and the reaction (R1)  
325 is initiated:



327 However, the ratio of hydroxyl radicals to ammonia molecules is very large compared to solely  
328 SNCR at the same NSR. The high hydroxyl concentration enables the reaction (R6) to compete  
329 with, and even become dominant over, reactions (R2) and (R3).



331 The imidogen (NH) produced from reaction (R6) is then oxidised to NO; this results in a greatly  
332 decreased NO reduction and NH<sub>3</sub> utilisation. This phenomenon is usually observed when SNCR  
333 is undertaken at a temperature far above the optimum, as the reaction rate of hydroxyl radical  
334 creation reactions are greatly increased. Returning to figure 5, as the NSR is increased past 1.5  
335 the 3% additive concentration scenario shows an increase in NO reduction. The greater ammonia  
336 concentration would lead to a greater reaction rate for reaction (R1), increasing the concentration  
337 of NH<sub>2</sub> but decreasing the concentration of OH radicals. Since NH<sub>2</sub> favours reducing NO, the  
338 reaction (R6) will no longer be as competitive with the reactions (R2) and (R3), the system will  
339 stabilise and NO elimination will become greater than NO formation. A pictorial representation  
340 can be seen in figure 11.

341 Although there appears to be a catalytic type effect, this mechanism cannot be described as SCR.  
342 Within SCR systems at temperatures above ~750 °C, NO<sub>x</sub> reduction will rapidly decrease due to  
343 the increasing competition of ammonia combustion reactions with NO reduction reactions [29];  
344 i.e. the system is no longer selective and will lead to low ammonia utilisation efficiency and high  
345 costs.

346 The Fe-based additive and SNCR hybrid technology is also far less sensitive to dust compared to  
347 conventional catalysts used in SCR applications; especially the typical catalyst poisons, which  
348 can have a substantial impact on a plant's balance sheets. The benefits of the Fe-based additive  
349 [13] have already proven to be scalable (i.e. small-scale: 100 kW<sub>th</sub> and plant-scale: 233 MW<sub>th</sub>);  
350 therefore it is also expected that the hybrid catalytic effect of the fuel additive and SNCR from  
351 the small-scale tests could be a good precursor of the full-scale demonstrations.

### 352 3.4. Possible economic impact of Fe-based additive

353 The effects on NO reduction and NH<sub>3</sub> utilisation efficiency combine to reduce the optimum NSR  
354 for the SNCR from 2 to 1, displayed in figure 9. The reduction of the optimum NSR is an  
355 opportunity for pulverized coal power generators to make substantial savings on chemical costs,  
356 while continuing to meet NO<sub>x</sub> reduction legislation. Decreasing the quantity of ammonia into the  
357 system would also have a positive effect on the potential ammonia slip; this could be key for  
358 operators that see ammonia as becoming a fully regulated pollutant.

359 An alternative economic benefit would be to use the additive without altering the ammonia  
360 flowrate to greatly enhance the SNCR system and achieve a greater NO reduction. This region of  
361 NO reduction would be accessible without the additive but would dramatically increase reagent  
362 costs and the likelihood of a prominent ammonia slip. Carnegie Mellon University's 'Integrated  
363 Environmental Control Model' (IECM) was used to show how effective Fe-based additive would  
364 have to be to achieve an economic benefit over increasing ammonia input. A generic 650MW  
365 pulverised coal fired boiler was modelled with a capacity factor of 47% using a coal with an  
366 equivalent proximate make up to Durrans grade 240 coal. The NO<sub>x</sub> emission rate was altered to

367 0.5202 mg/kJ to give a similar initial NO concentration to that of the flue gas during the steady  
368 state coal baseline within the CTF.

369 The model offers the integration of a number of environmental controls. To best simulate a  
370 conventional modern coal fired power plant, wet flue gas desulphurisation, cold side electro-  
371 static precipitators, low NO<sub>x</sub> burners and SNCR were used. The option to include OFA was not  
372 available with SNCR. The LNBS were said to account for a 30% reduction in NO<sub>x</sub> [1], and the  
373 SNCR was said to account for another 30% reduction [30]. The reduction capability of the  
374 SNCR was increased while observing the OPEX (operating expenditure). The NO in the flue gas  
375 followed a linear reduction while the OPEX increased dramatically and the ammonia slip  
376 increased beyond advisory levels.

377 Using the Fe-based additive at the baseline SNCR conditions (30%) is likely to increase the NO  
378 reduction by SNCR to ~45%. The OPEX associated with using the Fe-based additive at 5.5% of  
379 the coal feed rate with SNCR operating at 30% was compared with the values of the OPEX from  
380 the IECM scenarios in which the SNCR was operating at 30% and 45% NO reduction. This  
381 comparison can be observed in figure 10. The OPEX for the Fe-based additive scenario was  
382 calculated by combining the estimated cost of the additive with the total OPEX of the IECM  
383 scenario in which the SNCR is running at 30%, assuming a cost of £45/tonne. Figure 10,  
384 therefore, shows that use of the Fe-based additive provides the plant operator with a unique  
385 opportunity to reduce NO<sub>x</sub> emissions while only increasing OPEX by ~\$5M/yr compared to  
386 ~\$30M/yr and without the worry of an unacceptable ammonia slip. The combination of the  
387 additive's in-flame NO<sub>x</sub> reduction, the NO<sub>x</sub> reduction due to LNBS and the increased  
388 effectiveness of SNCR could, cumulatively, help a plant operator to comfortably meet NO<sub>x</sub>  
389 emission limits.

390 This hybrid technology could even prove to be a financially viable alternative for the costly SCR  
391 system. Using the IECM, an identical plant with SCR running at 80% NO<sub>x</sub> removal and using a  
392 catalyst with a cost of \$10,000/m<sup>3</sup> [31] was simulated. This showed that although SCR would  
393 only have a slightly higher OPEX than the hybrid technology, the annualised capital cost is  
394 almost \$5million/yr greater, indicating that this is not a sustainable option for most generators.  
395 On the other hand, this figure is likely to be practically inaccurate as the model is for a new build  
396 plant. The EPA claim that retrofitting an existing boiler with SCR exhibits a higher CAPEX  
397 (capital expenditure) [32], with 30% of this increased CAPEX being attributable to demolition of  
398 structures and relocation of displaced equipment [33]. Therefore, this furthers the argument for  
399 using the fuel enrichment process in conjunction with SNCR as retrofitting is minimal and  
400 requires no down time; meaning no loss in revenue from the plant and negligible capital needed  
401 for the retrofitting process.

#### 402 4. CONCLUSIONS

403 From the data presented here, it is evident that there is an interaction between the Fe-based  
404 additive and ammonia during selective non-catalytic reduction (SNCR). A combination of these  
405 technologies can increase the NO<sub>x</sub> reduction by SNCR by >10% and provide a greater ammonia  
406 utilisation efficiency, which could decrease the chance of ammonia slip. The interaction between  
407 the technologies is theorised to be a pseudo-catalytic reaction between the ammonia and one of  
408 the major components of the fuel additive, iron oxide. The iron oxide is theorised to act as a  
409 binding site for ammonia, facilitating contact between the reagent and the NO and increasing the  
410 number of NO reduction reactions. This theory is used to explain why there is not only an  
411 increased NO reduction, but also, the greater ammonia efficiency. The possible financial benefits  
412 were analysed and a large-scale commercial furnace was simulated using the IECM to compare

413 economic impacts. This showed that use of the Fe-additive - SNCR hybrid technology has a  
414 modest impact on the OPEX but creates a unique scenario where the NO<sub>x</sub> reduction observed  
415 would not be economically feasible when SNCR is exclusively applied. The Fe-additive - SNCR  
416 hybrid technology was also shown to be an economically viable alternative to SCR. Therefore,  
417 the hybrid is a credible alternative to hybrid SNCR/SCR and process additives for power  
418 generators wishing to improve their SNCR performance.

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##### 424 **Author Contributions**

425 The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval  
426 to the final version of the manuscript. All the authors contributed equally.

427

428

##### 429 **Acknowledgement**

430 The authors are grateful to International Innovative Technologies UK Ltd (Unit 5 Queens Court,  
431 Third Avenue, Team Valley Trading Estate, Gateshead, NE11 0BU) for providing access to the  
432 test facility and Fe-based additive for this research.

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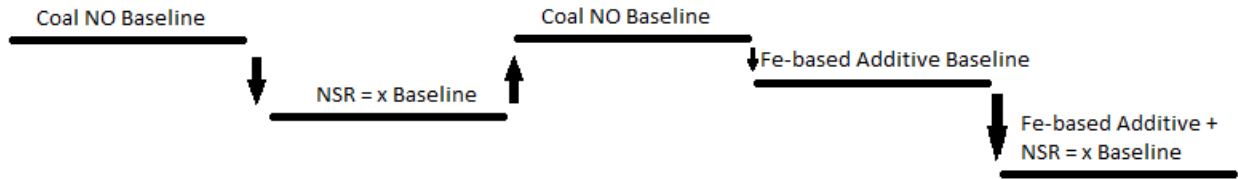


Figure 1 - Infographic of Experimental Procedure

Table 1 - As-received ultimate analysis of Durrans Grade 240 coal with the net fuel calorific value

	Wt% AR
Carbon	69.2 %
Hydrogen	4.4 %
Oxygen	18.0 %
Nitrogen	0.8 %
Sulphur	0.6 %
Ash	3.0 %
Moisture	4.0 %
Net fuel calorific value	27.3 MJ/kg

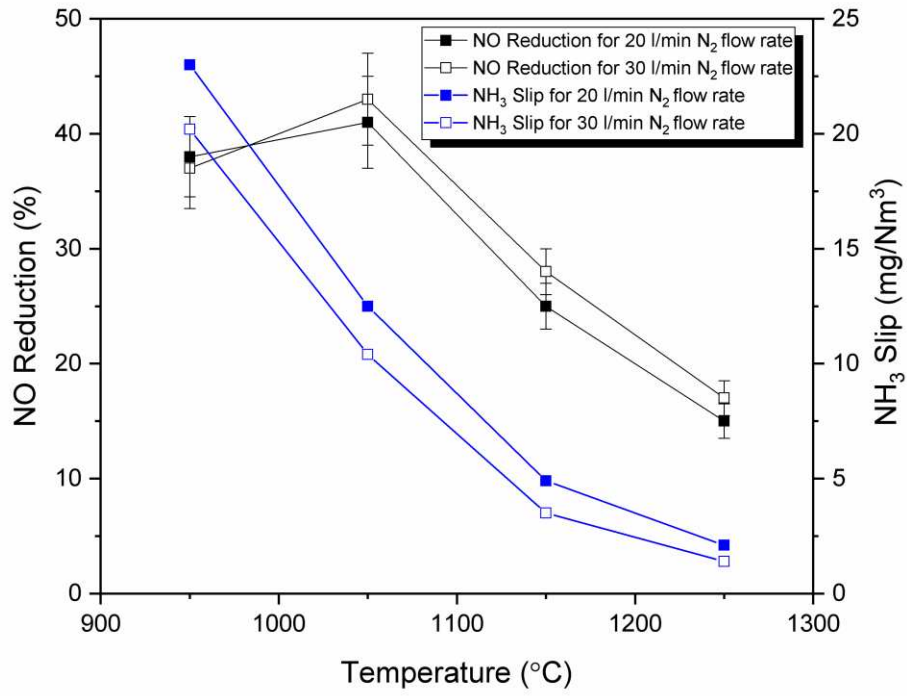


Figure 2 - NO<sub>x</sub> reduction and NH<sub>3</sub> slip as function of temperature and N<sub>2</sub> dilution rate for normalised stoichiometric ratio (NSR)

2.5

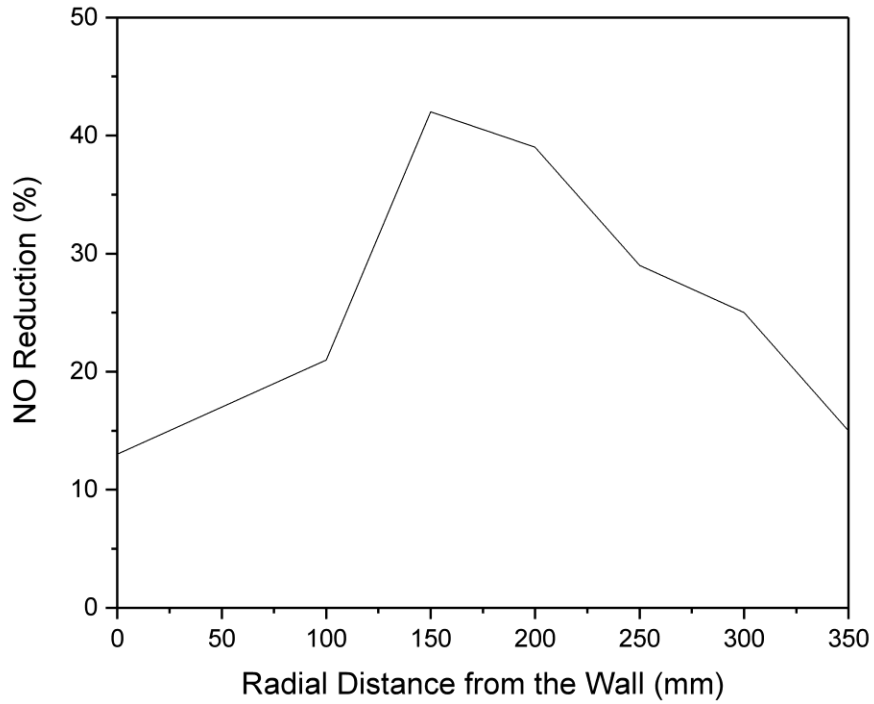


Figure 3 - NO<sub>x</sub> reduction as a function of NH<sub>3</sub> injection distance from the wall

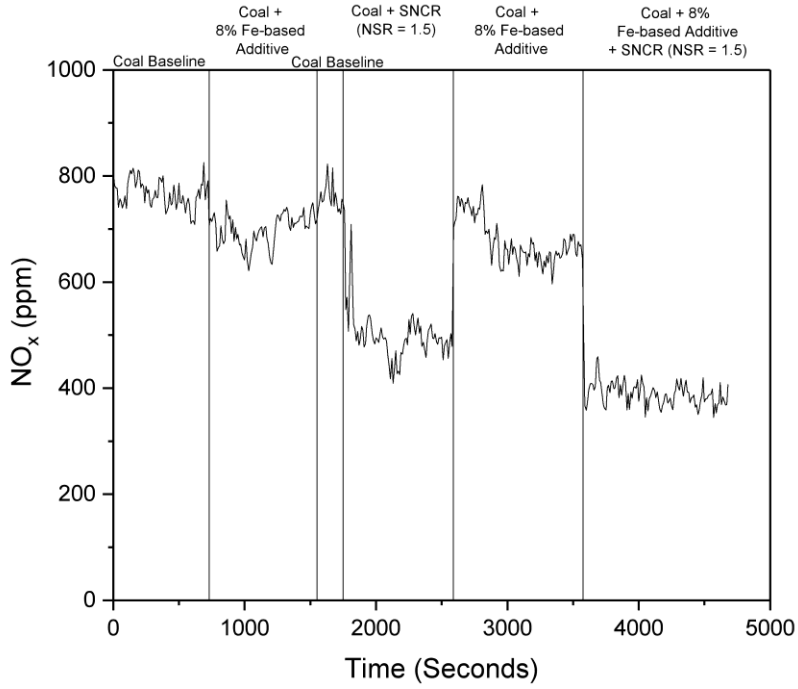


Figure 4 - Continuously logged NO emission for NSR 1.5 + 8% Fe-based fuel additive

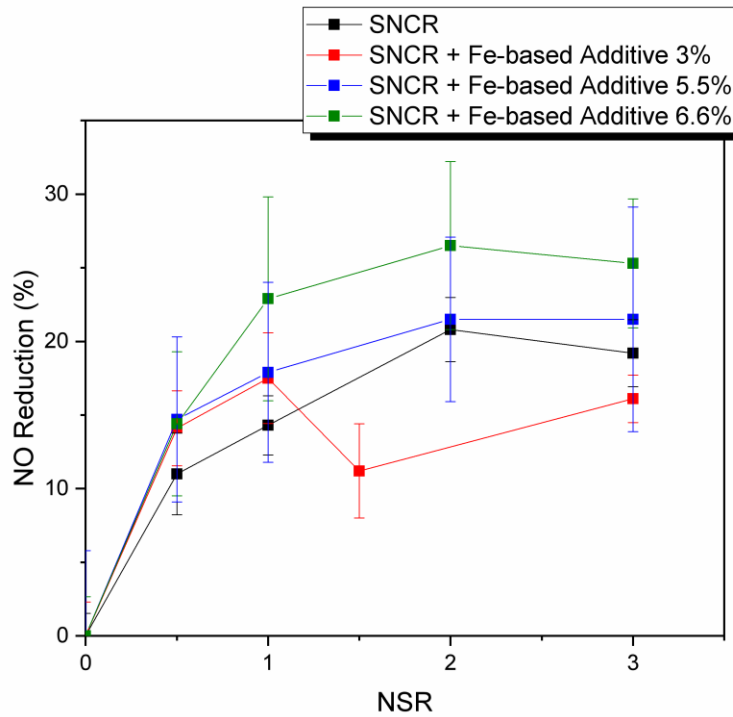


Figure 5 – NOx reductions due to SNCR in the presence of varying concentrations of Fe-based additive

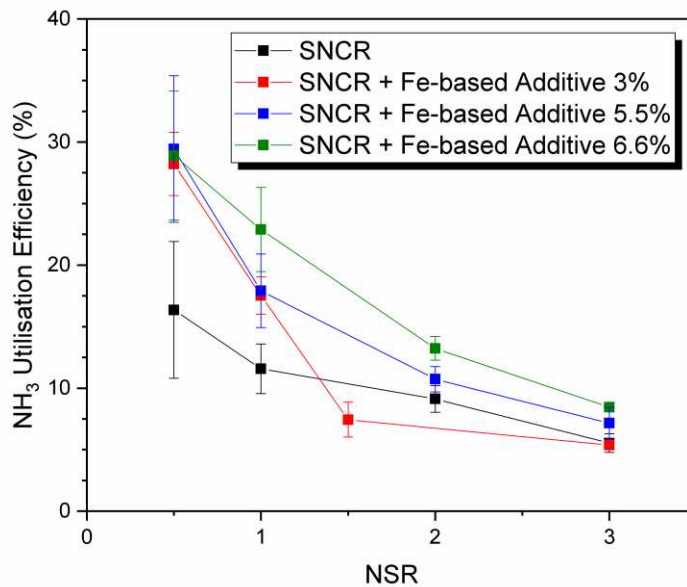


Figure 6 – Ammonia utilisation efficiency of SNCR in the presence of varying concentrations of Fe-based additive

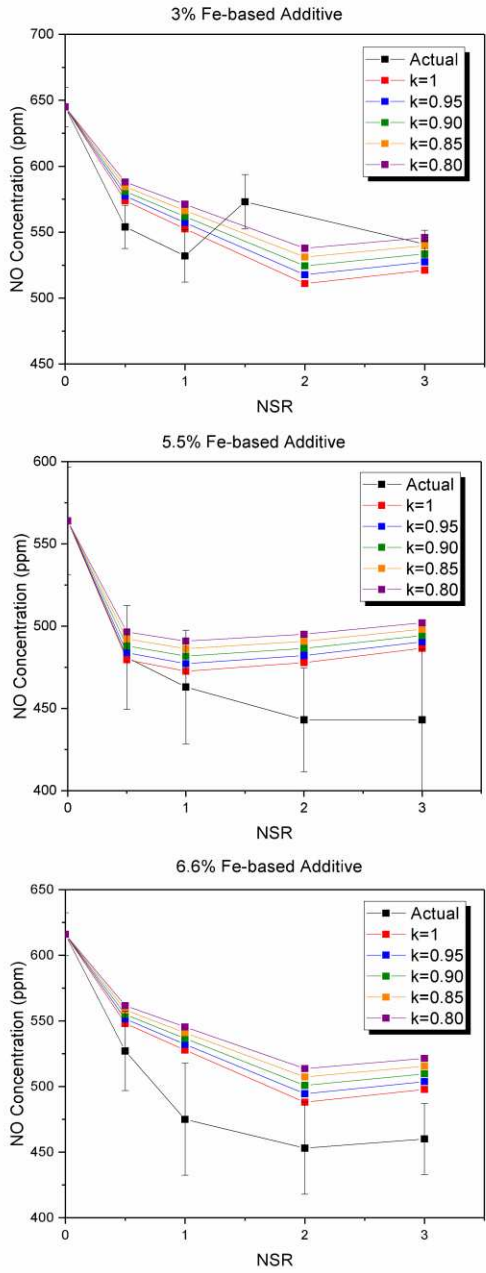


Figure 7 - Predicted Additive Effect Compared with Actual Effect



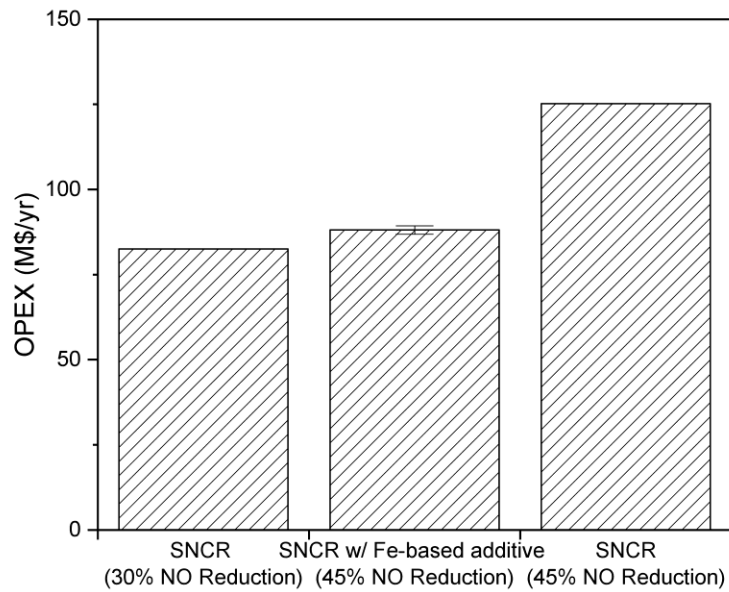


Figure 10 – Comparison of the total OPEX of different scenarios to show cost effective benefits to SNCR. Error bars represent uncertainty in Fe-based additive price.

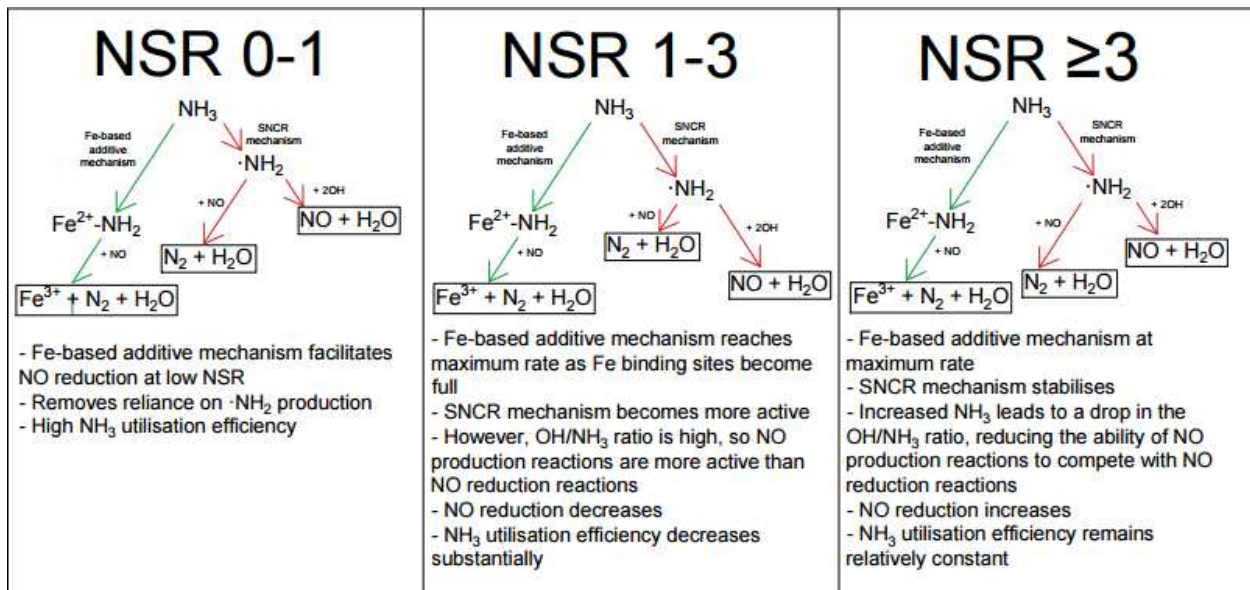


Figure 11 – Evolution of the NO related mechanisms for a Fe-based additive feed rate of 3% with increasing NSR