

# **NOX Reduction, Selective Catalytic (and Non-Catalytic) Reduction Systems (SCR and SNCR)**

**An Online Continuing Education Course for Engineers**

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# NO<sub>x</sub> Reduction, Selective Catalytic (and Non-Catalytic) Reduction Systems (SCR and SNCR)

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NO<sub>x</sub>, a product of fossil fuel combustion, has great negative impacts on health, environment, and agriculture. Therefore, NO<sub>x</sub> emission control has become an important factor in the design of fossil fuel burning equipment.

Two techniques are normally adopted for controlling/minimizing NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from the combustion sources. First is to minimize the NO<sub>x</sub> formation by influencing the combustion process in the combustion regions. The second approach, however, relies on chemically converting NO<sub>x</sub> emission, after its formation during the combustion process. The first approach is based on the design modifications to reduce NO<sub>x</sub> formation during the combustion process. The second approach is based on adding additional systems/equipment to convert NO<sub>x</sub> into environmental friendly species.

This training is built around post-combustion technologies for NO<sub>x</sub> reduction, namely SCR (Selective Catalytic Reduction) and SNCR (Selective Non-Catalytic Reduction) systems even though reducing NO<sub>x</sub> generation by influencing the combustion process is briefly discussed. SNCR and SCR are, in fact, the two main processes commonly used in power plants for high NO<sub>x</sub> removals.

SCR and SNCR systems will be discussed in greater details and compared. However, the main focus of this training will still be Selective Catalytic Reduction (SCR) Systems, as this is the most commonly used technique for post-combustion NO<sub>x</sub> reduction. Some of the topics which will be covered for the SCR systems will include, process, chemistry, design, operation, maintenance, catalyst management, and cost.

## Background Information

Ozone forms in the atmosphere when three atoms of oxygen combine forming O<sub>3</sub>. While the chemical structure of ozone is the same; however, two categories of ozone are defined, based on the location where exists (distance from the earth). Stratospheric (good) Ozone is found naturally in the earth's upper atmosphere, 6 to 30 miles above the earth's surface. This Ozone forms a protective layer that shields the earth and its inhabitants from the sun's harmful UV rays.

Tropospheric (bad) Ozone, on the other hand, is formed and found near the ground level (0 to 6 miles). Ground Level Ozone (Smog) is a harmful air pollutant which can

cause an acute respiratory problem, aggravate asthma, and impair the immune system. It can damage crops, reducing growth rates and crop yields. Ground-level Ozone is responsible for millions of dollars in reduced crop production in the United States each year.

Bad Ozone forms near the ground level when pollutants (Oxides of Nitrogen, NO<sub>x</sub>) chemically react with Volatile Organic Compounds (VOCs) in the presence of sunlight. Emissions from stationary combustion sources such as (electric utility and industrial) boilers and transportation vehicle exhaust are the two major sources of NO<sub>x</sub> and VOCs generation. Other contributors of the VOCs release include gasoline vapors, chemical solvents, and biogenic sources (resulting from the activity of living organisms or biological processes, as fermentation).



## NO<sub>x</sub> Formation and Control

NO<sub>x</sub> (NO and NO<sub>2</sub>, nitrogen monoxide and nitrogen dioxide), a group of highly reactive gases, are the by-product of the combustion of all fossil fuels. During the combustion process nitrogen oxides (NO and NO<sub>2</sub>) form in and around the high-temperature regions (around 2600°F), in and around the flame zones. The reaction can briefly be described as:



NO<sub>x</sub> normally consists of 95% NO and 5% NO<sub>2</sub>. More of these gases form when fuels are burned at higher temperatures. NO<sub>x</sub> plays an important role in the atmospheric reactions that create harmful particulate matters, acid rain in the mountain regions, the buildup of nutrients in coastal estuaries leading to oxygen depletion that degrades water quality and harms fishes, and ground-level ozone (smog). NO<sub>x</sub> additionally contributes to global warming.

Historically, the quantity of these inorganic compounds in the combustion products was not high enough to affect boiler performance, and as a result, their presence was largely ignored. NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, however, are currently regulated by the US states and federal authorities, as well as by most developed countries. NO<sub>x</sub> emissions have become an important factor in the design and operation of fossil fuel burning equipment.

Two techniques are normally adopted for controlling/minimizing NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from the combustion sources. First is to minimize the NO<sub>x</sub> formation by influencing the combustion process in the combustion regions. The second approach relies on

chemically converting NO<sub>x</sub> emission, after its formation during the combustion process. The first approach is based on design modifications to reduce NO<sub>x</sub> formation during the combustion process. The second approach is based on adding additional systems/equipment to convert NO<sub>x</sub> into environmental friendly species.

The N<sub>2</sub> contributing to the NO<sub>x</sub> formation in a combustion process can originate from either the combustion air or the fuel. Product is called Thermal NO<sub>x</sub>, if N<sub>2</sub> is originated from the air, otherwise is referred to as Fuel NO<sub>x</sub>. Fuel and thermal NO<sub>x</sub> constitute 60-80% and 40-20% of the total NO<sub>x</sub>, respectively. The most important design criteria for controlling thermal and fuel NO<sub>x</sub> from the coal-burning equipment can be summarized as:

- Coals with lowest Nitrogen content and lowest Oxygen/Nitrogen ratios will generally generate the least amount of NO<sub>x</sub>.
- Fuel NO<sub>x</sub> generation can be minimized by minimizing the Excess Oxygen. This is done by reducing the amount of air admitted to mixing with coal, in the early stages of combustion.
- The contribution of thermal to total NO<sub>x</sub> can be reduced by operating at minimum possible excess air. Additionally, minimizing gas temperature throughout the furnace by using the low turbulence diffusion flames and large water-cooled furnaces will reduce thermal NO<sub>x</sub>.

Of the above three factors which might be used to reduce NO<sub>x</sub> by influencing the combustion process, the first one might be limited due to the fuel type being burned. Lowering O<sub>2</sub> level and/or reducing combustion temperature are typically used to lower the NO<sub>x</sub> generation.

Common technologies used to provide lower NO<sub>x</sub> generating combustion environments (lower excess oxygen and dominant temperatures), include: flue gas recirculation, staged combustion, burners out of service, over-fire air, staged air or fuel introduction, and low NO<sub>x</sub> burners. Suppressing the N<sub>2</sub> content by O<sub>2</sub> enrichment or by chemical reactor (non-thermal) combustion are emerging technologies for reducing NO<sub>x</sub> generation during combustion.

## Control of NO<sub>x</sub> Emission

Reducing NO<sub>x</sub> generation by influencing the combustion process was briefly discussed above. Interested individuals may refer to many available resources for more details. The main purpose of this training, however, is to discuss the post-combustion NO<sub>x</sub> reduction (the second approach). In this approach, the NO<sub>x</sub> contents of the flue gas are chemically converted, with the help of a reagent. This is achieved by introducing a reducing agent into the combustion product to react with NO<sub>x</sub> emissions to produce

atmospheric N<sub>2</sub> and water vapor. Ammonia species (Anhydrous NH<sub>3</sub>, Aqueous NH<sub>3</sub>, or Urea) are preferred over other chemicals, as a reducing agent, due to their selective nature (Ammonia's preference for reacting with NO<sub>x</sub>, overreacting with Oxygen), relatively low cost, and water byproduct.

If ammonia reacts with NO<sub>x</sub> in the presence of a catalyst, this technology is called SCR (Selective Catalytic Reduction). If no catalyst is involved, the technology is then called SNCR (Selective non-Catalytic Reduction). For SNCR (also called Thermal DeNO<sub>x</sub>), the reaction needs to take place at a higher temperature, as compared to SCR. SCR has a higher capital cost, particularly due to the catalyst costs; however, SNCR has a higher operating cost due to higher reagent consumption.

Both SCR and SNCR have higher capital and operating costs as compared to other techniques used to reduce NO<sub>x</sub> generation from combustion. However, at the same time, SNCR and SCR, with 30-50% and about 80-90% NO<sub>x</sub> removal capabilities, respectively, are very efficient technologies for removing NO<sub>x</sub>. The decision between using SCR or SNCR is made based on the boiler and fuel types as well as the desired level of NO<sub>x</sub> reduction.

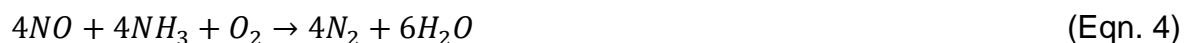
Benefits of the SNCR system include lower capital equipment cost, simple operation, and minimal impact on the boiler operation. The SNCR operating cost is mainly related to its reagent consumption. In addition to lower NO<sub>x</sub> removal capability, the other downsides of the SNCR system include limited retrofit ability and problems related to changes in load and other operating conditions.

In addition to higher NO<sub>x</sub> removal capability, other benefits of the SCR system include easier retrofit ability and being tolerant of loading changes, and relatively simple to operate. High capital equipment cost, sensitivity to fuel quality, and greater impact on the boiler operation are the downsides of the SCR systems. Reagent consumption, catalyst replacement, and operating draft losses constitute the SCR operating costs.

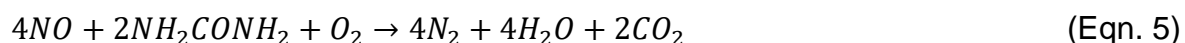
## Selective Non-Catalytic Reduction (SNCR) Systems

SNCR process takes place in the boiler, immediately downstream of the combustion zone, where the flue gas temperature is high enough for the process to occur. Ammonia or urea is injected into the flue gas through multiple points, to react with NO<sub>x</sub> (Figure 1). SNCR systems have been used for large (coal, gas, and oil) utility and industrial boilers, as well as for waste and sludge incinerators. A simplified presentation of the reactions taking place between the reagent and NO<sub>x</sub> can be given by the following equations.

Ammonia:



Urea:

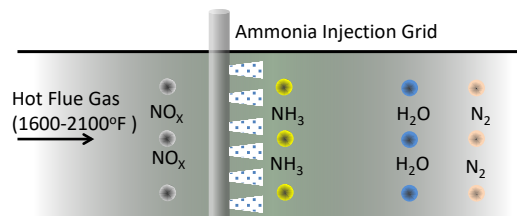


SNCR systems may use either ammonia (anhydrous or aqueous) or urea as their reducing agent. Therefore based on the reagent used, two SNCR systems may be differentiated. In anhydrous ammonia systems, vaporized ammonia is blended with air or steam before injection into the boiler flue gas. But, in aqueous ammonia systems, ammonia solution (concentration not more than 29%) is directly injected into the flue gas, evaporating after injection.

In urea systems, dry urea supplies are first converted into solutions of typically 50% concentrations. The solutions then evaporate as injected into the boiler flue gas.

The SNCR reactor is expected to accomplish the following four tasks.

- 1 – Mixing the reagent throughout the flue gas stream,
- 2 – Evaporating the reagent (if is liquid),
- 3 – Decomposing the reagent into ammonia free radicals,
- 4 – Reacting the free radicals with NO<sub>x</sub>



**Figure 1: NO<sub>x</sub> reacts with injected reactant, in SNCR reactor, producing water and nitrogen.**

Using ammonia as a reagent, the SNCR process chemistry may be summarized as,

Decomposition:



NO<sub>x</sub> reduction reactions:



Optimum design of the reagent injectors is one of the most critical aspects of the SNCR systems. Of primary consideration are the placement of the injectors and their relation to the boiler arrangement. This should provide proper temperature and sufficient residence time to drive the chemical reaction. Other important design factors include the injector nozzle design/selection, spray pattern, as well as the droplets size and velocity. The reducing agent should be distributed across the reaction zone blending with the flue gas.

## Process Effects in SNCR

It is worthwhile mentioning that in certain cases, NO<sub>x</sub> reduction level for SNCR has even approached 75% however, for the majority of the applications, the SNCR efficiency is typically within 30-50%. Reason for the lower actual SNCR efficiency is the difference in the operating condition for different applications. Operating parameters such as exhaust gas temperature, velocity profile and composition, SNCR reactor residence time, the amount of NO<sub>x</sub> to be removed, the reagent injected, and many more, all impact the SNCR efficiency. A few of the more important parameters are discussed below.

**Temperature:** Chemical reaction in the SNCR is highly dependent on temperature. The best temperature range is normally 1600°F to 2100°F however it may change based on the reagent being used. Operating temperature range and rate of NO<sub>x</sub> removal may also be modified by using additives. The SNCR operating temperature being too high may cause ammonia to oxidize forming, instead of removing, NO<sub>x</sub>, equation 12. On the other hand, very slow reaction kinetics at low operating temperatures will result in low NO<sub>x</sub> removal and a high level of ammonia slip. High ammonia slip will increase the risk of fly ash contamination. A direct consequence of this can be a loss of market value due to odor/health.



**Residence Time:** The SNCR reactor residence time is the interval when the exhaust gas and the reagent, together, are at the operating temperature. Flue gas volume flow rate, relative to the reactor volume, generally determines the SNCR residence time. The optimal residence time for occurrence of the NH<sub>2</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub> reaction is typically 0.3 to 1.0 seconds. Residence time for the SNCR applications can be as low as 0.1 seconds to as high as several seconds. SNCR applications may require a residence time of 0.3 seconds. Residence times longer than 1.0 second may result in lower NO<sub>x</sub> reduction; therefore, it will not be beneficial.

**Inlet NO<sub>x</sub> and Reagent Concentration:** The rate for NO<sub>x</sub> reduction is directly related to the inlet NO<sub>x</sub> concentration. NO<sub>x</sub> reduction will increase with the inlet NO<sub>x</sub> concentration. However, as the inlet NO<sub>x</sub> rate, as well as the reagent concentration, increases, the rate of NO<sub>x</sub> reduction decreases.

**Reducing Reagent Concentration:** The rate for NO<sub>x</sub> reduction is directly related to the ratio of the molar amount of reducing reagent to the amount of NO<sub>x</sub> to be removed. SR (Stoichiometric Ratio) is defined as the ratio of the molar amount of ammonia to the molar amount of NO<sub>x</sub> to be removed. SR is defined as the ratio of the molar amount of ammonia to the molar amount of NO<sub>x</sub> to be removed. SR (Normalized Stoichiometric Ratio) is defined as the ratio of the molar amount of reagents can be compared. Since one mole of urea will produce two moles of equivalent ammonia, NSR is 1 for ammonia and 2 for urea.

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