Importance of Vanadium-Catalyzed Oxidation of SO2 to SO3 in Two-Stroke Marine Diesel Engines

Colom, Juan M.; Alzueta, Maria; Christensen, Jakob Munkholt; Glarborg, Peter; Cordtz, Rasmus Faurskov; Schramm, Jesper

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The importance of vanadium catalyzed oxidation of SO₂ to SO₃ in two-stroke marine Diesel engines

Juan M. Colom,∗,†,‡ Maria U. Alzueta,† Jakob M. Christensen,† Peter Glarborg,‡
Rasmus Cordtz,¶ and Jesper Schramm¶

†Aragón Institute of Engineering Research (I3A). Department of Chemical and Environmental Engineering, University of Zaragoza, Zaragoza, Spain
‡DTU Chemical Engineering, Technical University of Denmark, 2800 Lyngby, Denmark
¶DTU Mechanical Engineering, Technical University of Denmark, 2800 Lyngby, Denmark

E-mail: juanmcd@unizar.es

Abstract

Low speed marine Diesel engines are mostly operated on heavy fuel oils, which have a high content of sulfur and ash including trace amounts of vanadium, nickel, and aluminum. In particular vanadium oxides could catalyze in-cylinder oxidation of SO₂ to SO₃, promoting formation of sulfuric acid and enhancing problems of corrosion. In the present work, the kinetics of the catalyzed oxidation was studied in a fixed bed reactor at atmospheric pressure. Vanadium oxide nanoparticles were synthesized by spray flame pyrolysis, i.e., by a mechanism similar to the one leading to formation of the catalytic species within the engine. Experiments with different particle compositions (vanadium/sodium ratio) and temperatures (300-800 °C) show that both the temperature and the sodium content have a major impact on the oxidation rate. Kinetic
parameters for the catalyzed reaction are determined and the proposed kinetic model fits well with the experimental data. The impact of the catalytic reaction is studied with a phenomenological 0D engine model where fuel oxidation and SO\textsubscript{x} formation is modeled with a comprehensive gas phase reaction mechanism. Results indicate that the oxidation of SO\textsubscript{2} to SO\textsubscript{3} in the cylinder is dominated by gas phase reactions and that the vanadium catalyzed reaction is at most a very minor pathway.

**Introduction**

Compared to other ways of transport, maritime transport and shipping benefit from low CO\textsubscript{2} emissions, even though emissions of NO\textsubscript{x} and SO\textsubscript{x} may be a concern. Two-stroke marine Diesel engines used for low-speed vessels can operate on heavy fuel oils, which are the most economic option among fuels but typically contain large amounts of sulfur (2.5-3.5 wt%). During combustion, the sulfur is quickly oxidized to SO\textsubscript{2} with a small fraction oxidized further to SO\textsubscript{3}. Presence of SO\textsubscript{3} may lead to formation of sulfuric acid (H\textsubscript{2}SO\textsubscript{4}), which can cause corrosion if the temperature locally drops below the sulfuric acid dew point (cold corrosion).\textsuperscript{1,2} In order to improve the efficiency and future development of the engines, an understanding of the SO\textsubscript{3} formation mechanisms is required.

The formation of SO\textsubscript{3} in the cylinder of a large two-stroke marine Diesel engine burning heavy fuel oil was studied by Cordtz et al. with a phenomenological 0D model.\textsuperscript{2} Oxidation of SO\textsubscript{2} to SO\textsubscript{3} can take place through a sequence of gas-phase reactions, which are reasonably well established.\textsuperscript{3,4} However, fuel oil contains trace amounts of vanadium that cannot be easily removed from the oil. Particles emitted from two-stroke marine Diesel engines on modern container ships have been reported to belong to two size ranges: 5-8 and 30-100 nm,\textsuperscript{5} particle measurements were done in the raw exhaust gases of the ship, and thus the ones in the stroke of the engine would correspond to the smaller size. The 5-8 nm nanoparticles, which dominate the total number of particles, are composed mainly of V, Ni, and S. Vana-
Dium oxide (V₂O₅) is known to catalyze SO₂ oxidation¹ and thus may facilitate formation of SO₃ in the cylinder.

It has been reported that vanadium becomes more reactive when doped with alkali elements such as potassium, cesium or sodium.¹,⁶ Sodium is typically present in considerable quantities in the engine cylinder, originated partly from sea water contamination⁷ and partly from the fuel oil. Reported mass ratios of V/Na in the engine exhaust are in fairly good agreement, with values of 7.9 in the exhaust gas ash particles of a large scale medium-speed Diesel engine⁸ and 6.3 in the particulate matter from a large ship Diesel engine.⁹ A report from the International Bunker Industry Association (IBIA) indicates that the V/Na ratio in the marine engine would be in the range 7-10 or higher, depending on the centrifuge system that removes water.

In this context, the objective of this work is to investigate the relative importance of homogeneous and heterogeneous (catalyzed by vanadium oxides) oxidation of SO₂ into SO₃ through experiments and kinetic modeling. Representative vanadium aerosols, produced by flame spray pyrolysis, are used in fixed bed reactor experiments to determine the rate of the catalytic reaction as a function of particle composition (V/Na ratio), SO₂ concentration, and temperature. The contribution of the catalyzed oxidation of SO₂ is then determined, based on computations with the phenomenological model of Cordtz et al.²

**Experimental**

The vanadium particles used in the present study are produced in a flame spray pyrolysis setup,¹⁰,¹¹ where oxide nanoparticles are formed by spraying a combustible solution of organometallic salts into a flame. The setup is described in detail by Høj et al.¹² In the flame, catalytically active oxide nanoparticles are produced by a mechanism similar to the
one leading to formation of the catalytic species within an engine.\textsuperscript{13} The combustible solution is composed of organo-metallic precursors (vanadium (III) acetylacetonate and sodium 2-ethylhexanoate) at a total metal concentration of 0.125 M dissolved in methanol. The solution is fed at a rate of 3 mL min\textsuperscript{-1}, dispersed by a 5 NL min\textsuperscript{-1} flow of O\textsubscript{2} and ignited by an annular 1/3 mol/mol CH\textsubscript{4}/O\textsubscript{2} flame.

The flame pyrolysis allows the vanadium aerosols to be formed under conditions that resemble those of an engine. The aerosol size range (11-21 nm) is similar to the values reported for marine Diesel engines (5-8 nm). The particle diameter d\textsubscript{p} was calculated assuming spherical particles: d\textsubscript{p} = 6/(SSA•ρ), where ρ is the density of the particles (taking into account the content and densities of V\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{5} and Na\textsubscript{2}O in the particles), and SSA is the specific surface area, determined by BET surface analysis. Table 1 summarizes these values. No agglomeration of particles is considered. The present experiments were conducted with V/Na mass ratios of 4, 7.9, and 15, in addition to reference experiments made with pure vanadium.

The kinetics of SO\textsubscript{2} oxidation over vanadium oxides is studied in a fixed bed reactor at atmospheric pressure. Details of the experimental setup and procedures can be found elsewhere.\textsuperscript{14} The reactor is a fixed bed quartz reactor, with solids placed on a porous quartz plate in an isothermal zone. Reactant gases are introduced separately in the reactor and mixed just above the porous plate. The reactor is placed in a three-zone electrically heated oven, operated in the 300-800°C temperature range. The reactor temperature is measured under inert conditions with a type K thermocouple. 0.25 grams of the synthesized aerosols are mixed with an equal amount of silica particles (150-200 µm) to form a fixed bed with good heat dispersion. At the higher temperatures, the vanadium-sodium compounds may melt (melting points are around 550-700°C) and the dispersion of the small synthesized particles with quartz particles can help to avoid a large pressure drop. A total flow rate of 157 mL min\textsuperscript{-1} (1 atm, 25°C) is used, with a composition of 1380 ppm of SO\textsubscript{2}, 14% O\textsubscript{2} and 2.6%
H$_2$O, all diluted in N$_2$. The amount of oxygen is in large excess compared to the SO$_2$ to obtain pseudo-first order reaction conditions,$^6,^{14}$ and representative of the exhaust gases of marine Diesel engines.$^8$

The oxidation of SO$_2$ is exothermic, but due to the high dilution under the present experimental conditions the heat release can be neglected. Water vapor is present in significant amounts in the combustion products and may conceivably have an impact on the catalyzed reaction. For this reason, the stream including N$_2$ and O$_2$ was saturated with water vapor by passing the gas through an evaporator at room temperature. Upon dilution with N$_2$ to satisfy the flow rate needed in the analyzer ($\sim$1000 mL min$^{-1}$), the product gas from the reactor was led to a continuous UV-NGA2000 MLT4 analyzer (Rosemount Analytical) in order to quantify the SO$_2$ concentration.

Results and discussion

Vanadium catalyzed SO$_2$ oxidation

A series of experiments is conducted in the fixed-bed reactor for the different V/Na compositions (Table 1), varying the temperature and the SO$_2$ inlet concentration. Figure 1 shows results of the conversion of SO$_2$ as a function of aerosol composition and temperature.

Without catalyst (empty reactor) the SO$_2$ conversion is very limited, especially below 550°C; this is in line with results reported by Jørgensen et al.$^{14}$ Introduction of vanadium aerosols in the fixed bed leads to a significant oxidation of SO$_2$ above 350°C. Catalyst particles doped with sodium exhibit an even higher reactivity, with the maximum conversion increasing with the sodium content. The SO$_2$ conversion peaks at 550°C; above this temperature the conversion is limited since the reaction approaches chemical equilibrium. The importance of sodium in the catalyst is in agreement with findings from sulfuric acid pro-
duction where catalysts with a mass ratio of V/Na = 0.75 are used.\textsuperscript{15}

The difference between thermal equilibrium and experimental data at higher temperatures may be attributed to experimental uncertainties. However, similar observations have been reported from sulfuric acid production, where SO\textsubscript{2} emissions from acid plants were slightly above equilibrium values.\textsuperscript{16} It has been reported that commercial sulfuric acid catalysts suffer a sudden loss in activity at 420-450\textdegree C that is attributed to the precipitation of crystalline compounds of vanadium (V\textsuperscript{III} and V\textsuperscript{IV}).\textsuperscript{15} This loss is a reversible process and the catalytic activity is regained upon heating the catalyst bed up to 500\textdegree C, showing a hysteresis behavior.

Figure 2 shows the influence of the SO\textsubscript{2} concentration. Below the temperature where the conversion peaks, a higher conversion is obtained with a lower concentration of SO\textsubscript{2}. Above the peak temperature, the conversion is the same for the two SO\textsubscript{2} levels. It is not possible from the present work to determine a reaction order in SO\textsubscript{2}, since the amount of data is limited and differences may be partly attributed to experimental uncertainties. Results from literature\textsuperscript{17} suggest that the reaction is first order in SO\textsubscript{2}.

**Kinetic model**

The experimental results (Figure 1) were used to establish the rate equation for the catalytic reaction. We assume the reaction to be first order in SO\textsubscript{2},\textsuperscript{17}

\[
-r_{\text{SO}_2} = k \cdot P_{\text{SO}_2} \cdot (1 - \beta)
\]

Here k is described by an Arrhenius expression with a pre-exponential factor A and an activation energy E\textsubscript{n}. The rate is assumed to be independent of the oxygen concentration. As mentioned, O\textsubscript{2} is in large excess and it has been reported to be zero order in similar
experiments at 400°C with vanadium catalysts. The (1-β) term accounts for the decrease in the rate as the reaction approaches equilibrium, with β related to the equilibrium constant $K_e$ and the concentration of the molecules, $\beta = \frac{P_{SO_3}}{K_e P_{SO_2} P_{O_2}}$. If the concentrations of SO$_2$ and SO$_3$ reach the equilibrium values, $\beta$ will be equal to 1 and the reaction rate will be zero.

Non-linear regression was made to determine the kinetic parameters $A$ and $E_a$ for each catalyst composition; the values obtained are listed in Table 2. A comparison between the experimental and calculated results for the particles with a V/Na ratio of 7.9 is shown in Figure 2. The measured activation energies are not directly comparable with values from literature because the present work constitutes the first study of the oxidation of SO$_2$ with flame-generated particles. Similar supported vanadium catalysts made by impregnation techniques have shown activation energies around 85 kJ mol$^{-1}$, approximately 25% higher compared to the values obtained in the present work. The difference is attributed to variations in morphology and catalyst support. Additionally, it can be seen in Figure 3 a comparison of the turn over frequency of our catalysts (V/Na = 4 and 100% vanadium) and different composition of commercial vanadium catalyst shown in the work of Boghosian et al.

The rate equation is used to evaluate the importance rate of vanadium-catalyzed SO$_3$ formation, compared to the rate of SO$_3$ formation by homogeneous oxidation, in a two-stroke Diesel engine. For the homogeneous oxidation rate, calculations were conducted with the detailed chemical kinetic model of Hindiyarti et al., using a 0D model described in the next section. The catalyzed reaction was introduced in the mechanism as a pseudo-first-order reaction,

$$SO_2 + O_2 \xrightarrow{k_f} SO_3 + \frac{1}{2}O_2 \quad (R1)$$

$$-r_{SO_2} = k'[SO_2]^1[O_2]^0 = 2.1 \times 10^{-3} \exp \left( \frac{-8050}{T} \right)[SO_2]$$
The rate constant $k'$ is based on the kinetic parameters for particles with V/Na ratio of 7.9 (see Table 2). This ratio corresponds to reported V/Na ratio in engines, as discussed above. To obtain the first-order rate constant, conditions representative of the cylinder were chosen, with the fuel consumption rate, exhaust flow, and fuel vanadium content (100 mg per kg fuel) drawn from literature. Details of the calculations can be seen in the supplementary material.

**Engine simulation**

The phenomenological 0D model of Cordtz et al. is adopted here to simulate a large two-stroke marine Diesel engine operating at a low power output at a speed of 80 revolutions per minute. A detailed gas phase reaction mechanism is applied and integrated with MATLAB and CANTERA to describe SO$_x$ formation in the burned gas.

Figure 4 shows a sketch of a two-stroke Diesel engine cylinder. The piston position determines the volume of the trapped gas that is coupled to the angular position of the crank shaft ($\theta$). The two-stroke cycle involves a compression stroke ($\theta < 0^\circ$) and an expansion stroke ($\theta \geq 0^\circ$). The position at $\theta = 0^\circ$ is termed the piston top dead center (TDC). Close to TDC fuel is injected into the hot compressed fresh gas that consists mostly of air but includes residual gases, i.e., combustion products from the prior cycle. As the fuel burns (diffusion controlled combustion), thermal work/power is transferred to the rotating crank shaft. Late in the expansion stroke, the exhaust valve opens (EVO) and the cylinder gas products are replaced by fresh scavenging air at 30°C. The air is provided via scavenging ports in the bottom of the cylinder (not shown in the figure) and flows upward through the cylinder. The exhaust valve closes shortly after the crank shaft has passed the bottom dead center at $\theta = 180^\circ$ where a new cycle begins.

In the 0D engine model, the burned fuel is separated in multiple, slightly lean and ho-
mogeneous gas zones. The computed mean temperature and the overall SO$_3$ concentration of the burned gas for a wide range of the pre-exponential factor of R1 are plotted in Figure 5. SO$_3$ is thermodynamically restricted at combustion temperatures but forms during the expansion stroke primarily through reactions of SO$_2$ with the radical pool. Reaction R1 is comparably slow and the catalytic effect is negligible unless the pre-exponential factor is increased by three orders of magnitude.

The fraction of residual gases (in the fresh gas) is around 3% m/m. If the air and the residual gas are computationally separated during the cycle, the temperature of the residual gas (that holds SO$_2$ of the prior cycle) peaks above 2000 K during combustion, as illustrated in Figure 6. The temperature trace is determined from the cylinder pressure and the isoentropic correlation,

$$\frac{T_{\theta+1}}{T_\theta} = \left( \frac{p_{\theta+1}}{p_\theta} \right)$$

Here, the mean cylinder gas temperature and species composition at EVO of the prior cycle are set as initial conditions. As indicated in Figure 6, SO$_3$ formation in the residual gas is thermodynamically restricted at the highest temperatures and the rate of R1 is too slow to contribute to SO$_3$ formation.

If the fresh charge air and the residual gas are fully mixed during the cycle, the mixture temperature peaks at $\sim$ 1000 K as shown in Figure 7. Below 1000 K, SO$_3$ is thermodynamically preferred over SO$_2$. Still, R1 is too slow to form considerable amounts of SO$_3$, unless the pre-exponential factor is increased by three orders of magnitude.

Conclusions

The present work is the first study on the importance of catalytic species in the formation of sulfur oxides in engines. The SO$_2$ oxidation catalyzed by vanadium aerosols was studied in a
fixed bed reactor at atmospheric pressure. The aerosols were formed in a flame pyrolyzer and represent particles formed from combustion of heavy fuel oil in a marine two-stroke Diesel engine. The rate of the catalyzed reaction was determined in a fixed bed as a function of catalyst composition (V/Na ratio), temperature, and SO$_2$ concentration. Experiments showed that both the temperature and the sodium content had a major impact on the oxidation rate. Kinetic parameters for the catalyzed reaction were determined using a proposed kinetic model. To simulate fuel oxidation and SO$_x$ formation inside a two-stroke marine Diesel engine a detailed gas phase reaction mechanism was combined with a step describing the catalyzed reaction and used with a phenomenological 0D model. Results indicate that the proposed catalytic vanadium reaction is slow compared to the gas phase reactions and it is unlikely that vanadium contributes significantly to SO$_3$ formation.

**Acknowledgement**

Authors from University of Zaragoza acknowledge the Aragón Goverment and European Social Fund (GPT group) and MINECO and FEDER (project CTQ2015-65226-R) for financial support. The authors from DTU would like to acknowledge financial support from the Danish Strategic Research Council.

**Supporting Information Available**

Estimation of vanadium catalyzed oxidation rate constant for engine conditions.

This material is available free of charge via the Internet at [http://pubs.acs.org/](http://pubs.acs.org/).

**References**


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(19) Goodwin, D. *Defining phases and interphases - Cantera 1.5*; 2003.


Table 1: Catalyst particle properties

<table>
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<th>V/Na&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>dp [nm]</th>
<th>SSA [m&lt;sup&gt;2&lt;/sup&gt;/g]</th>
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<td>155.1</td>
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<sup>a</sup>: on a mass basis.

Table 2: Kinetic parameters

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<th>Ea [kJ/mol]</th>
<th>A [mol/(s·g·bar)]</th>
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<td>V 100%</td>
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<sup>a</sup>: on a mass basis.
Figure 1: The effect of catalyst composition and temperature on the oxidation of SO$_2$ in the fixed-bed reactor. Results are shown for experiments with an empty reactor, with pure vanadium, and with particles with V/Na ratios in the range 4-15 (mass based). Flow rate: 157.4 mL min$^{-1}$ (25°C, 1 atm); 1376 ppm SO$_2$, 14% O$_2$, 2.6% H$_2$O, balanced with N$_2$. 
Figure 2: Conversion of SO₂ for two different initial concentrations of SO₂ and same catalyst (V/Na = 7.9). Comparison between experimental results and predictions with the kinetic model are also shown.
Figure 3: Turn over frequencies of different commercial catalysts (lines) and two of our catalysts (line+symbol). The mole ratio of alkali to vanadium is indicated.
Figure 4: Sketch of a two-stroke engine cylinder

Figure 5: Mean temperature and overall SO$_3$ concentration of the burned gas during combustion and expansion until the exhaust valve opens. The figure shows the effect of a factor 1000 change in the pre-exponential factor $A$ for the catalytic vanadium reaction (R1).
Figure 6: Cylinder gas pressure, residual gas temperature and catalytic SO$_3$ formation in the residual gas over the engine cycle. The figure shows the effect of a factor 1000 change in the pre-exponential factor $A$ for the catalytic vanadium reaction (R1).

Figure 7: Fresh gas temperature and catalytic SO$_3$ formation in the fresh gas over the engine cycle. The figure shows the effect of a factor 1000 change in the pre-exponential factor $A$ for the catalytic vanadium reaction (R1).