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Full Length Article

The chemical coupling between moist CO oxidation and gas-phase potassium sulfation

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ABSTRACT

In the present work, the chemical coupling between moist CO oxidation and transformation of gaseous potassium salts (KCl or KOH) in the presence and absence of SO₂ was investigated experimentally and through chemical kinetic modeling. The experiments were performed in a laminar flow quartz reactor at temperatures ranging from 873 to 1473 K. The experimental results showed that both KCl and KOH inhibited CO oxidation, but addition of SO₂ reduced the inhibiting effect by sulfating the potassium. The degree of sulfation of KCl and KOH by SO₂ was evaluated by EDX analysis of the aerosols collected downstream in a filter. Also, the consumption of SO₂ and, for KCl, the formation of HCl were indications of the level of sulfation. The results indicated that KCl was only sulfated to a small degree, consistent with the observation that addition of SO₂ had little effect on the inhibition of CO oxidation by KCl. Contrary to this, the captured KOH particles were fully sulfated according to the EDX results; however, most of the KOH was captured on the quartz reactor surface, forming potassium silicates.

The experimental results were interpreted in terms of a chemical kinetic model. Thermodynamic data for key potassium intermediates were re-evaluated by ab initio methods and the mechanism was updated according to recent results. The modeling predictions were in qualitative agreement with the experimental results for the effect of K/Cl/S on moist CO oxidation, but the degree of sulfation was strongly overpredicted for KCl. Analysis of the calculations indicates that sulfation pathways in the model involving KOSO₃ contribute to the overprediction, but both the thermodynamic properties and rate constants in the model involve significant uncertainties and more work is required to resolve the discrepancy.

1. Introduction

Waste-to-energy (WtE) plants and biomass-fired plants play an important role in the efforts to achieve a carbon-neutral society. It is important to achieve a high thermal efficiency and low emissions of harmful species from these units. The challenges, which include emission of pollutants (CO, NO_x, SO_x, dioxins) and particulate matter (PM), deposition (fouling and slagging), and corrosion of boiler surfaces, are in varying degree all linked to the inorganic elements in the fuel.

Biomass and waste fuels release inorganic elements (mainly K, Cl, and S) to the gas phase during thermal processes. The fraction of released inorganic content depends mostly on the type of fuel and the operational conditions [1]. Biomass may contain significant amounts of

K, Cl, and Si; agricultural residues more so than woody biomass [2–6]. In municipal solid waste, the Cl content varies strongly depending on the source [7–11]. Alkali species released during devolatilization and/or char oxidation in the form of KCl, KOH, and K₂SO₄ [12] can be found in the gas phase and in aerosols. Gaseous KOH, rather than KCl and K₂SO₄, is detected at high temperatures in combustion of biomass high in K content and low in Cl and S [13,14]. In wood combustion, the level of KOH in the flue gas is typically higher than that of KCl [15]. As the flue gas is cooled in the superheater section, the alkali salts condense forming aerosols and sticky deposits. In the deposits, they may react with metal oxides and destroy the super-heater tubes [16,17]. In particular presence of KCl is associated with increased deposit formation [18] and accelerated corrosion [19].

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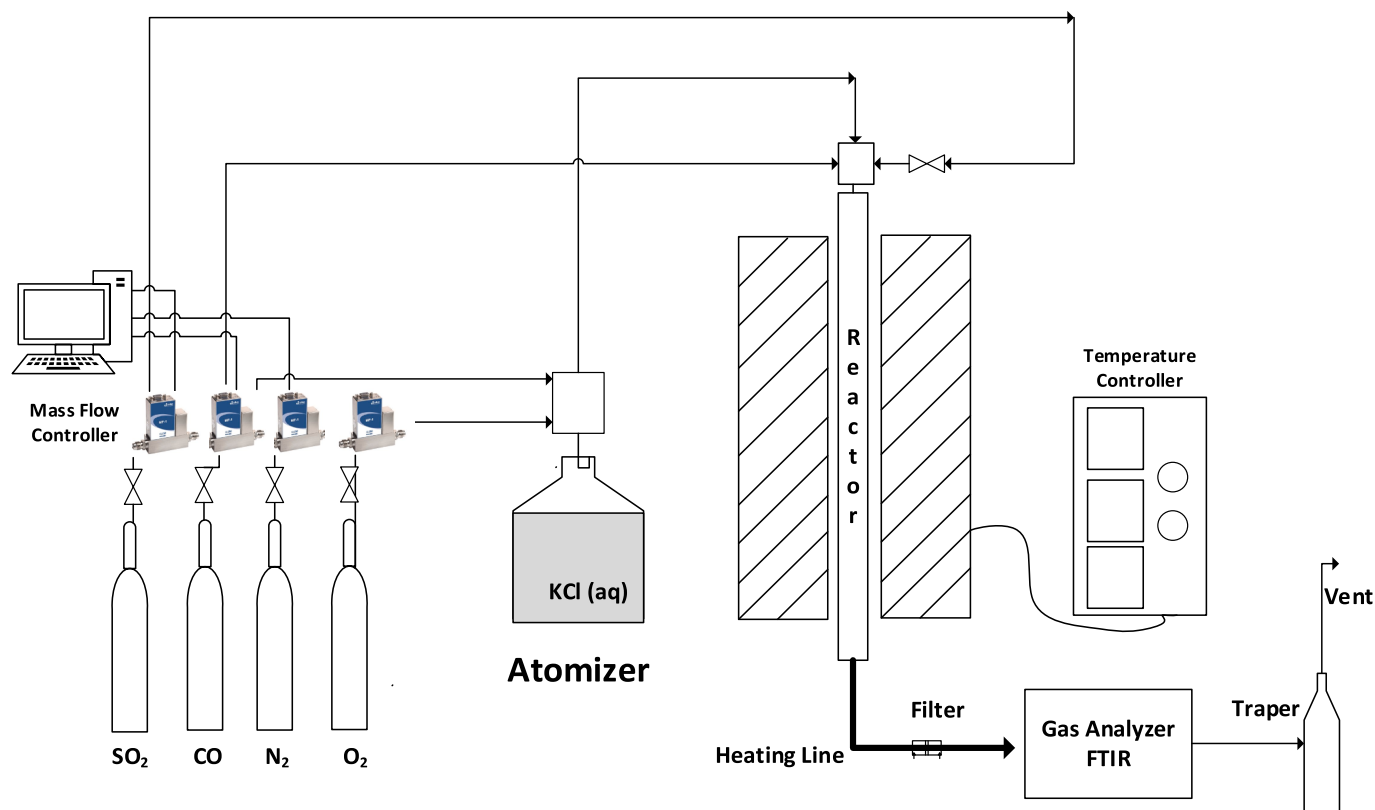


Fig. 1. Schematic of the flow reactor setup.

The emission of CO is strictly regulated, but often difficult to control in units burning waste and biomass due to the complexities of the fuel. The key reaction in CO oxidation is $\text{CO} + \text{OH} \rightleftharpoons \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}$ (R1), which is controlled predominantly by the free radical pool in the gas phase. It has been shown that the rate of CO oxidation depends both on the composition of the flue gas and the presence of inorganic elements [20–22], but details of the chemical coupling between CO oxidation and alkali, chlorine, and sulphur species remain in question. Alkali species may act to recombine OH, H, O, and HO_2 radicals through gas-phase reactions at high temperature and result in inhibition or promotion of CO oxidation [20,23]. Previous studies [24] have suggested that this interaction involves the reactions $\text{KCl} + \text{H} \rightleftharpoons \text{K} + \text{HCl}$ (R10b), $\text{K} + \text{OH} + \text{M} \rightleftharpoons \text{KOH} + \text{M}$ (R6), $\text{K} + \text{O}_2 + \text{M} \rightleftharpoons \text{KO}_2 + \text{M}$ (R7), $\text{KO}_2 + \text{OH} \rightleftharpoons \text{KOH} + \text{O}_2$ (R8), and $\text{K} + \text{CO} \rightleftharpoons \text{K} + \text{CO}_2$ (R9) (the reaction numbers refer to Table 2 below).

Sulfur species are typically present in solid fuel combustion, released from the fuel-bound sulfur during combustion and/or added as sulfur powder, SO_2 , or H_2SO_4 with the purpose of sulfating KCl [23,25–29]. Previous research has shown that SO_2 may inhibit or promote fuel oxidation, depending on conditions [20,21,30]. Tests in a 12-MW circulating fluidized bed (CFB) boiler has revealed that addition of elemental sulfur acts to reduce the inhibiting effect of potassium salts on CO oxidation during biomass combustion in a bed of olivine [25,27]. Berdugo Vilches et al. [28] carried out experiments in a post-flame environment in the temperature range 1100–1550 K and excess air ratios of 1.05–1.65 to investigate the influence of alkali and SO_2 . They found that the inhibiting effect of potassium on the CO and H_2 oxidation, caused by chain-terminating reactions such as $\text{K} + \text{OH} + \text{M} \rightleftharpoons \text{KOH} + \text{M}$ (R6) and $\text{KO}_2 + \text{OH} \rightleftharpoons \text{KOH} + \text{O}_2$ (R8), was reduced in the presence of sulfur due to sulfation of the potassium. However, Ekvall and Andersson [29], who carried out an experimental and modeling study of C_3H_8 flames in a 100 kW test unit, found that KCl promoted the CO conversion with SO_2 addition under oxy-fuel conditions, while it had little effect when combusting in air. In a similar setup, Allguren and Andersson [31] showed that KCl and SO_2 decreased the NO emission in both fuel-rich

and oxygen-rich cases; this was attributed to enhanced consumption of OH radicals. Ekvall et al. [32] observed that the sulfation degree of the KCl with SO_2 increased in oxy-fuel conditions compared to air combustion.

Weng and co-workers [33,34] proposed a detailed chemical kinetic model for gas-phase sulfation of both KCl and KOH in the presence of SO_2 and compared predictions with results from co-flow and counter-flow laminar flames, measuring K, KOH, and KCl. Berdugo Vilches et al. [28] revised this model to describe the synergetic effects of K, S, and Cl-species related chemistry on CO oxidation. However, details of the mechanism are still open to discussion.

The current work investigates the influence of gaseous potassium salts (KCl or KOH) with and without SO_2 on CO oxidation in a flow reactor under fuel-lean conditions. The experimental work was carried out in a flow reactor with well-controlled feeding and accurate measurements of gases in a wide temperature range (873–1473 K). The degree of KCl/KOH sulfation by SO_2 was analyzed with SEM-EDX. The gas-phase experiments were combined with simulations using an updated kinetic reaction mechanism. The modeling was used to establish a fundamental understanding of the chemical coupling between CO oxidation and the alkali, sulfur, and chloride chemistry. The detailed chemical kinetic mechanism relies on previous work by the researchers [28,35,36], but is updated in the present work based on ab initio calculations for key alkali intermediates.

2. Experimental setup and procedure

A flow reactor setup as shown in Fig. 1 was developed for studying gaseous reactions. The setup consisted of a gas dosing system, an electrically heated flow reactor, a filter, a gas-product analysis unit, a gas manometer, and a cooling trap. A total gas flow rate of 2 NL/min (298 K, 1 atm), with an inlet CO concentration of 0.1 %, was used in all experiments. All gases with high purity of 99.995 % or higher were supplied from gas cylinders through a particulate filter and a series of

Table 1

Thermodynamic properties calculated in the present work for selected potassium species. Units are kcal or cal, mol, K.

Species	$H_{f,298}$	S_{298}	$C_{p,300}$	$C_{p,400}$	$C_{p,500}$	$C_{p,600}$	$C_{p,800}$	$C_{p,1000}$	$C_{p,1500}$
KHSO ₃	-164.69	81.91	21.56	23.85	25.45	26.55	27.87	28.69	29.93
KOSO ₃	-172.10	82.19	22.30	24.93	26.77	28.02	29.45	30.20	31.08
KSO ₃ Cl	-189.73	86.25	23.30	25.37	26.92	28.07	29.47	30.17	31.01

Table 2Reactions most important for the chemical coupling between the moist CO oxidation and the alkali chemistry. The rate constants are in the form of $k \approx AT^n \exp(-E/(RT))$. Units are mol, s, cm, cal, and K.

No.	Reactions	A	n	E	Note/ Reference
1	$H + O_2 \rightleftharpoons O + OH$	1.0E14	0	15,286	[24]
2	$H + O_2(+M) \rightleftharpoons HO_2(+M)$	4.7E12	0.44	0	[24]
	Low pressure limit	6.4E20	-1.72	5.25E02	
3	$CO + OH \rightleftharpoons CO_2 + H$	8.7E05	1.73	-685	[24]
4	$SO_2 + O(+M) \rightleftharpoons SO_3(+M)$	3.7E11	0	1689	[45]
	Low pressure limit	2.9E27	-3.58	5206	
5	$SO_3 + H \rightleftharpoons SO_2 + OH$	8.4E09	1.22	3320	[45]
6	$K + OH + M \rightleftharpoons KOH + M$	4.7E21	-1.26	0	est Na + OH + M
7	$K + O_2 + M \rightleftharpoons KO_2 + M$	3.3E21	-1.55	19	[24]
8	$KO_2 + OH \rightleftharpoons KOH + O_2$	2.5E15	-0.163	0	[24]
9	$KO + CO \rightleftharpoons K + CO_2$	5.4E13	0	0	est NaO + CO
10	$K + HCl \rightleftharpoons KCl + H$	9.1E12	0	1180	[41]
		1.0E14	0	3635	
11	$KO_2 + HCl \rightleftharpoons KCl + HO_2$	1.4E14	0	0	est NaO ₂ + HCl
12	$KOH + HCl \rightleftharpoons KCl + H_2O$	1.7E14	0	0	est NaOH + HCl
13	$K + SO_2(+M) \rightleftharpoons KOSO(+M)$	3.7E14	0	0	[41]
	Low pressure limit	5.2E23	-1.5	0	
14	$K + SO_3(+M) \rightleftharpoons KOSO_2(+M)$	3.7E14	0	0	[41]
	Low pressure limit	4.7E34	-4.9	0	
15	$KO + SO_2(+M) \rightleftharpoons KOSO_2(+M)$	3.7E14	0	0	[41]
	Low pressure limit	5.2E23	-1.5	0	
16	$KO_2 + SO_2(+M) \rightleftharpoons KOSO_3(+M)$	1.0E14	0	0	[42]
	Low pressure limit	2.6E42	-7.6	0	
17	$KOH + SO_3(+M) \rightleftharpoons KHSO_4(+M)$	1.0E14	0	0	[41]
	Low pressure limit	2.6E42	-7.6	0	
18	$KOSO_2 + O \rightleftharpoons KO + SO_3$	1.3E13	0	0	[41]
19	$KOSO_2 + OH(+M) \rightleftharpoons KHSO_4(+M)$	2.0E13	0	0	[42]
	Low pressure limit	1.0E23	-1.5	0	
20	$KOSO_2 + KO \rightleftharpoons K_2SO_4$	1.0E14	0	0	[41]
21	$KOSO_3 + O \rightleftharpoons KOSO_2 + O_2$	1.0E14	0	0	[42]
22	$KOSO_3 + KOH \rightleftharpoons K_2SO_4 + OH$	1.0E14	0	0	[42]
23	$KHSO_4 + H \rightleftharpoons KOSO_2 + H_2O$	2.0E13	0	0	[42]
24	$KHSO_4 + OH \rightleftharpoons KOSO_3 + H_2O$	1.0E12	0	0	est HOSO ₂ + OH
25	$KHSO_4 + KOH \rightleftharpoons K_2SO_4 + H_2O$	1.0E14	0	0	[41]
26	$KCl + SO_3(+M) \rightleftharpoons KSO_3Cl(+M)$	1.0E14	0	0	[41]
	Low pressure limit	1.9E41	-7.8	0	
27	$KSO_3Cl + H_2O \rightleftharpoons KHSO_4 + HCl$	1.0E14	0	0	[41]
28	$KHSO_4 + KCl \rightleftharpoons K_2SO_4 + HCl$	3.0E13	0	0	Pw
29	$KSO_3Cl + K \rightleftharpoons KOSO_2 + KCl$	2.0E13	0	0	[42]
30	$KSO_3Cl + KOH \rightleftharpoons K_2SO_4 + HCl$	1.0E14	0	0	[41]

precise mass flow controllers (EL-FLOW® Thermal Mass Flow Controllers, model series: F-201CV, made by Bronkhorst High-Tech B.V.).

The dosing system for submicrometer-sized KCl/KOH droplets employed a constant output atomizer (Model 3076, TSI Inc. Particle Instruments, St. Paul, USA), which had been utilized in other studies [37–39]. The atomizer generated aerosols with a mean particle size in a range of 0.02–0.3 μm [40]. The total volume of solution in the plastic-coated glass bottle was 1000 mL. The solution was prepared by using KCl or KOH powder (≥99.9 %, Sigma-Aldrich Corp.) and deionized water. The carrier gas passed through an orifice of the atomizer body. The gas and the generated droplets were introduced into the reactor through a tube. The inner diameter of the tube was 12 mm with the same size as the atomizer outlet, and the tube was designed to minimize the impact of condensation. To verify a stable and continued flow of droplets from the atomizer, the water vapor concentration was measured by an FTIR (MKS MultiGas™ 2030) at an operating temperature of 453 K. The results, shown as [Supplementary Data](#), confirm that the feeding of aerosols was stable.

The gaseous reactant and aerosol flows were mixed in a vessel above the main reactor. The main reactor was made of quartz with an inner diameter of 6 mm and a height of 900 mm. The reactor tube was placed in a temperature-controlled electrically heated oven. The axial temperature profile in the reactor in a nitrogen atmosphere was measured by insertion of a type K thermocouple from the top. As can be seen from the measured temperature profile in [Supplementary Data](#), the length of the isothermal section was approximately 400 mm. The uncertainty in the isothermal temperature, ±10 K, includes the measurement accuracy (±2 K) and the deviation from the mean value. A quartz filter was installed downstream of the main reactor to collect fine particles. The product gas line and a filter were maintained at 453 K by a heating element cable to avoid the condensation of water and sulfur-containing compounds. Experiments were performed at a temperature range of 873–1473 K and at atmospheric pressure.

The concentrations of CO, CO₂, SO₂, H₂O, and HCl in the gaseous product stream were continuously monitored by a Fourier Transform Infrared spectrometer (FTIR) (Multigas 2030 FTIR, MKS instruments) at 453 K. The uncertainty in the gas analyzer measurements was below 10 %. The elemental composition and the morphology of the collected particles were characterized using scanning electron microscopy coupled with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (SEM-EDX) (Prisma E-SEM, Thermo Fisher Scientific). To reduce the uncertainty, the EDX measurements were performed at five areas in each sample, based on a similar color area of images and repeatable measurements. For imaging and EDX analysis, an accelerating voltage of 20 kV was employed.

3. Detailed chemical kinetic model

The reaction mechanism and thermodynamic data were based on previous work on alkali chemistry by Glarborg and Marshal [41], Hindiyarti et al. [42], Li et al. [43], Weng et al. [35], Berdugo Vilchez et al. [28], and Chanpirak et al. [24], together with subsets for chlorine [44], sulfur [45], and moist CO oxidation [24]. Table 1 shows thermodynamic properties for species revised in the present work, while Table 2 lists reactions important for the chemical coupling between the moist CO oxidation and the alkali chemistry.

Glarborg and Marshall [41] proposed a detailed reaction mechanism for the formation of K₂SO₄ in the gas phase, claiming the oxidation of SO₂ to SO₃ to be the rate-limiting step. This reaction mechanism, which

Table 3Experimental conditions for the CO oxidation with/without KOH/KCl and SO₂.

Set	Inlet gases				Additive (aerosol)		
	CO (ppm)	O ₂ (vol %)	SO ₂ (ppm)	NO (ppm)	H ₂ O (vol%)	KCl (ppm)	KOH (ppm)
1	–	5.0	750	–	3.2	–	–
2	1000	5.0	–	–	3.2	–	–
3	1000	5.0	750	–	3.2	–	–
4	1000	5.0	–	–	3.2	212	–
5	1000	5.0	–	–	3.2	–	212
6	1000	5.0	750	–	3.2	212	–
7	1000	5.0	750	–	3.2	–	212
8	1000	5.0	300	–	3.2	–	212
9	1000	0.75	–	–	3.2	–	–
10	1000	0.75	750	–	3.2	–	–
11	1000	0.75	–	–	3.2	212	–
12	1000	0.75	–	–	3.2	–	212
13	1000	0.75	750	–	3.2	212	–
14	1000	0.75	750	–	3.2	–	212
15	1000	0.75	0	200	3.2	–	212
16	1000	0.75	750	200	3.2	–	212

was shown to be consistent with the entrained flow reactor results of Iisa et al. [46] on sulfation of KCl, involved the following reaction sequence: $\text{KCl} + \text{SO}_3 (+\text{M}) \rightleftharpoons \text{KSO}_3\text{Cl} (+\text{M})$ (R26), $\text{KOH} + \text{SO}_3 (+\text{M}) \rightleftharpoons \text{KHSO}_4 (+\text{M})$ (R17), $\text{KSO}_3\text{Cl} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons \text{KHSO}_4 + \text{HCl}$ (R27), $\text{KHSO}_4 + \text{KCl} \rightleftharpoons \text{K}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{HCl}$ (R28), $\text{KHSO}_4 + \text{KOH} \rightleftharpoons \text{K}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ (R25). Glarborg and Marshall emphasized the importance of alkali hydrogen sulfates as gas-phase precursors of A₂SO₄, and estimated the thermodynamic properties of KHSO₄ and selected chlorinated intermediates from ab initio computations. Hindiyarti et al. [42] proposed a number of additional pathways to sulfation of KCl and KOH, involving KHSO₃ and KOSO₃, to improve the prediction of sulfation at lower temperature. More recently, additional modifications were made to the potassium subset [28,35,43]. The reaction mechanism represents homogeneous nucleation of gaseous K₂SO₄ as an irreversible first-order reaction of $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4 \rightarrow \text{K}_2\text{SO}_4(\text{c})$ with a rate constant of $1\text{E-}61 \exp(300000/T) \text{ s}^{-1}$, estimated based on aerosol theory [43].

In the present work, thermodynamic properties were updated for KHSO₃, KOSO₃ and KSO₃Cl using the methods described in ref. [41], with G3 theory replaced by G4 [47]. The revised thermodynamic properties are listed in Table 1. The updated values for the heat of formation of KOSO₃ is more than 5 kcal/mol lower than that calculated by Hindiyarti et al. [42], while for KHSO₃ and KSO₃Cl the present

calculations agree within 1.5 kcal/mol with previous estimates [41,42].

In the reaction mechanism, a check was made to ensure that rate constants for reactions involving potassium species with updated thermodynamic properties were below the collision frequency in both the forward and reverse direction. This has implications for the reaction $\text{KHSO}_4 + \text{KCl} \rightleftharpoons \text{K}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{HCl}$ (R28) where the rate constant was lowered by a factor of 3 in the present work.

4. Results and discussion

Flow reactor experiments on the CO/O₂/H₂O system strongly diluted in N₂ in the absence and presence of gaseous KCl/KOH and/or SO₂ were performed under fuel-lean conditions (1000 ppm CO and 0.75 % or 5 % O₂) and at atmospheric pressure. Table 3 lists the experimental conditions. The experimental data at each condition were obtained as the steady-state value.

The kinetic modeling in the present work was conducted in ANSYS Chemkin Pro using the plug flow reactor configuration for an isothermal reactor. At the inlet of the reactor, the water in the aerosol was assumed to evaporate instantaneously and the potassium to be distributed between condensed and gas-phase according to chemical equilibrium at the temperature of the isothermal zone. The calculated fraction of the K-salt in the gas phase is shown as Supplementary Data.

According to the experimental data obtained in the current work, discussed below, and consistent with results from literature, gaseous KOH reacts rapidly with the quartz surface of the flow reactor to form potassium silicates. This reaction is included in the model as a pseudo-first-order reaction for loss of KOH. Assuming it to be diffusion-limited, we estimate a rate constant of $10^{-4} \text{ T}^{1.75} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Also gaseous KCl reacts with the quartz reactor walls [28], but this step is slower and was not accounted for in the modeling.

4.1. Effect of KCl and SO₂ on moist CO oxidation

4.1.1. CO oxidation at reference conditions

Reference experiments on CO oxidation in the absence of both potassium and SO₂ were carried out with 0.75 % O₂ and 5 % O₂. The results are shown in Fig. 2. The CO oxidation can be characterized by the temperature T_i for initiation of reaction and the temperature T₅₀ for 50 % conversion. For 0.75 % O₂, T_i = 1020 K and T₅₀ = 1050 K, while at 5 % O₂, the corresponding values are T_i ≥ 1025 K and T₅₀ = 1075 K. The results show that under the present conditions CO conversion is inhibited with increasing O₂ concentration.

The modeling predictions, shown as solid lines in Fig. 2, are in

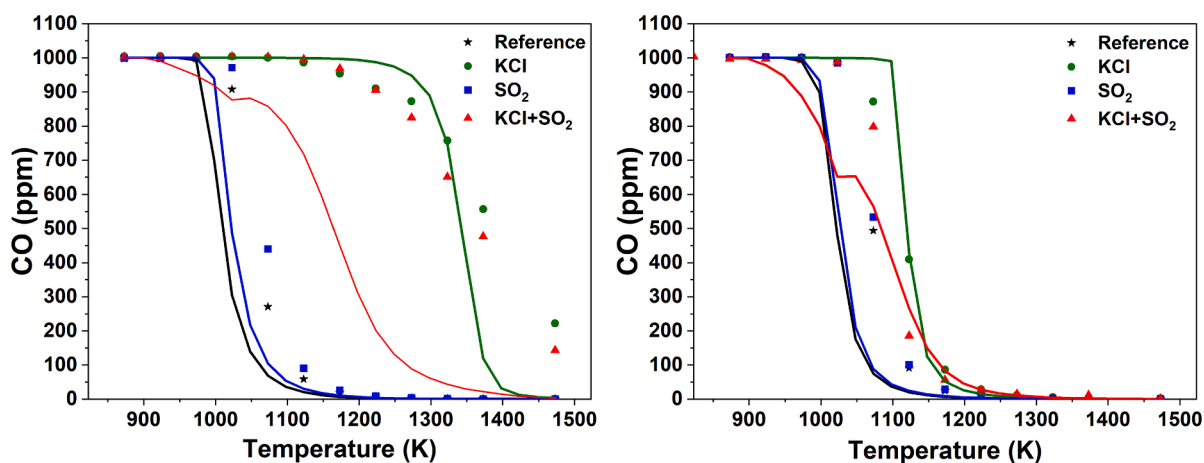


Fig. 2. The concentration of CO in the product gas as a function of temperature in a system containing CO-O₂-H₂O with/without the KCl/SO₂ presence. Comparison between experimental data (symbols) and modeling predictions (lines) for CO. The reference condition includes only CO, O₂, and H₂O as reactants. Inlet condition: 1000 ppm CO, 0.75 % O₂ (left), 5 % O₂ (right), 3.2 % H₂O, 750 ppm SO₂, 212 ppm KCl, and N₂ balance. The residence time is $92/T(\text{K})$ in the isothermal area at 823–1473 K.

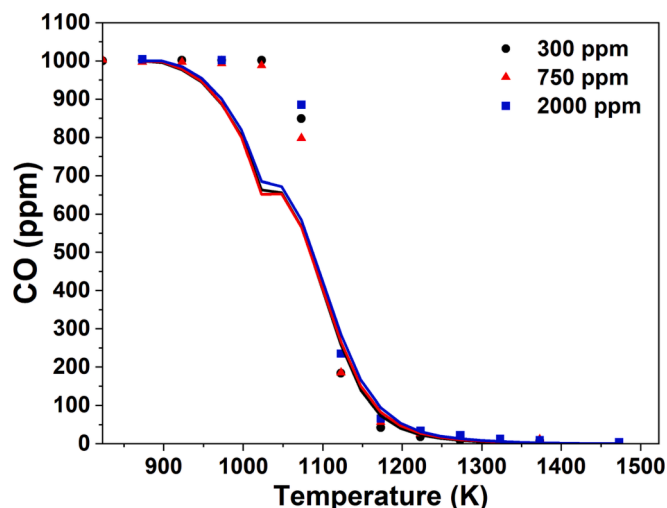


Fig. 3. Comparison of measured and predicted data for CO in the CO/KCl/SO₂/O₂/H₂O system. Inlet conditions: 1000 ppm CO, 212 ppm KCl, 300, 750, or 2000 ppm SO₂, 5 % O₂, 3.2 % H₂O; N₂ balance. The residence time is 92/T(K) in the isothermal area at 823–1473 K. Symbols denote experimental data; solid lines denote modeling prediction results.

satisfactory agreement with the experimental results, even if the model slightly under-predicts the onset temperature for CO oxidation. The effect of O₂ is captured well by the model. A sensitivity analysis for CO₂ formation is presented in the [Supplementary Data](#). It shows that the H + O₂ + M ⇌ HO₂ + M reaction (R2) is a rate-limiting step for both oxygen levels, explaining why an increase in O₂ acts to slow down CO oxidation. Formation of HO₂, which is a comparatively unreactive radical, has an inhibiting impact on the CO conversion; in particular due to the competition with the chain-branching step H + O₂ ⇌ O + OH (R1).

4.1.2. Effect of SO₂ on CO oxidation

As seen in Fig. 2, the addition of SO₂ (without any potassium) results in a slight suppression of the CO oxidation compared with the reference condition. For 0.75 % O₂, the addition of SO₂ increases the initiation temperature of CO conversion (T_i) and T₅₀ by around 20 K. For 5 % O₂, the effect of SO₂ is within the experimental uncertainty. The results are in good agreement with observations reported in the literature [21,30,48]. Similar to the reference conditions, the model under-predicts the onset of reaction for CO for both oxygen levels, but the small effect of SO₂ is captured well.

4.1.3. Effect of KCl on CO oxidation

As reported by Chanpirak et al. [24], KCl inhibits strongly the CO oxidation in a flow reactor at atmospheric pressure and 773–1373 K. This is confirmed by the results illustrated in Fig. 2. At 0.75 % O₂, addition of 212 ppm KCl shifts the T_i and T₅₀ for CO consumption upward by around 150 K and 300 K, respectively, compared to the reference case. The model captures the experimental results fairly well, even though there is an under-prediction of CO above 1373 K.

At 5 % O₂, addition of 212 ppm KCl yields a value of T_i of approximately 1023 K; similar to the reference condition. The inhibition effect of KCl occurs in the temperature range of 1023–1223 K. The experimental and predicted results for the CO-KCl system are in reasonable agreement.

4.1.4. Effect of SO₂ on CO oxidation in the presence of KCl

The effect of adding SO₂ on CO conversion in an atmosphere with KCl is illustrated in Fig. 2. The inhibition of CO oxidation caused by KCl is slightly reduced by the addition of SO₂. The initiation temperature T_i in the CO/KCl system is similar at 1173 K with and without SO₂ addition at 0.75 % O₂ (Fig. 2 (a)), while 50 % conversion of CO was obtained at a slightly lower temperature in the presence of SO₂; still, the T₅₀ of 1350–1375 K represents a shift of about 350 K compared to the reference condition. Also at 5 % O₂ (Fig. 2 (b)), the SO₂ addition slightly promotes the CO conversion rate in the presence of KCl, most pronounced in the 1023–1223 K range.

The model significantly overestimates the effect of SO₂ on the CO/KCl system for both oxygen levels, predicting a much larger promotion of oxidation for the CO/KCl system in the presence of SO₂ than observed experimentally. The difference between experiment and modeling is most pronounced at 0.75 % O₂, where there is a shift in the profile for CO of about 200 K. As discussed by Berdugo Vilches et al. [28], the inhibiting effect of potassium salts on CO oxidation is reduced in the presence of sulfur oxides due to the gas-phase sulfation of the potassium. The sulfation yields K₂SO₄, which contrary to KCl and KOH is believed not to be active in promoting radical recombination. The discrepancy in the modeling predictions is mainly attributed to over-prediction by the model of the degree of sulfation, as discussed further below.

Fig. 3 shows the effect of different SO₂ concentrations (300, 750, and 2000 ppm) on CO oxidation with 5 % O₂ and in the presence of KCl. Similar concentration profiles of CO are obtained for the three conditions; the differences are within experimental uncertainty. The independence of the moist CO oxidation with respect to the SO₂ concentration is also captured by the model. However, the predictions overestimate the oxidation rate below 1100 K.

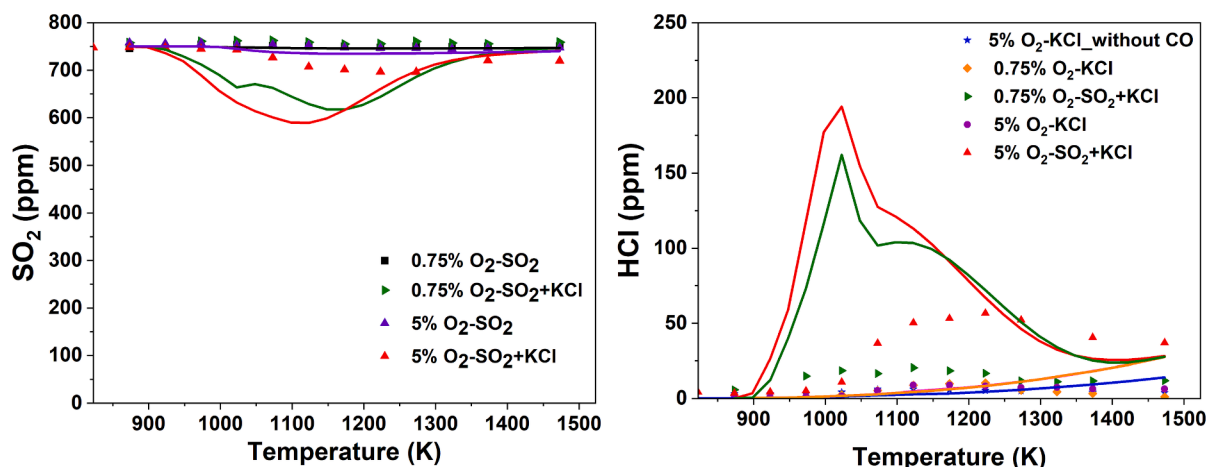


Fig. 4. Comparison of measured and predicted data for SO₂ (left) and HCl formation (right) in the product gas in the CO/KCl/SO₂/O₂/H₂O system. Inlet conditions: 0 or 1000 ppm CO, 0 or 212 ppm KCl, 750 ppm SO₂, 0.75 % or 5 % O₂, 3.2 % H₂O; N₂ balance. The residence time is 92/T(K) in the isothermal area at 823–1473 K. Symbols denote experimental data; solid lines denote modeling prediction results.

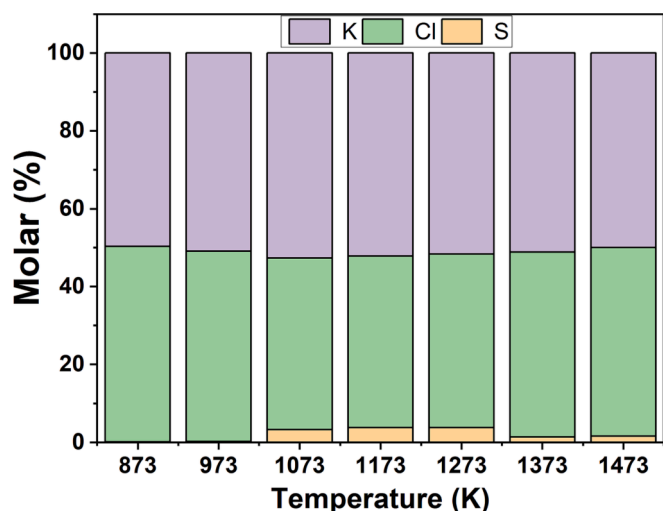


Fig. 5. SEM-EDX analysis of the collected samples for the KCl/SO₂/CO/O₂/H₂O system. Data for oxygen and carbon are excluded. Inlet condition: 1000 ppm CO, 212 ppm KCl, 750 ppm SO₂, 5 % O₂, 3.2 % H₂O; N₂ balance (corresponding to Fig. 2).

4.1.5. Sulfation of KCl by SO₂

The overall reaction for sulfation of KCl can be written as $2\text{KCl} + \text{SO}_2 + \frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{K}_2\text{SO}_4 + 2\text{HCl}$. The sulfation thus consumes SO₂ while it yields gaseous HCl, along with potassium sulfate aerosols that can be captured downstream in the filter. Both the SO₂ and HCl concentrations in the product gas and the content of S in the filter sample are measures of the degree of sulfation.

Fig. 4 compares experimental and numerical concentrations for outlet SO₂ and HCl for the investigated conditions. As indicated in Fig. 4 (upper), the SO₂ profile in the CO-SO₂-H₂O system is insensitive to temperature and oxygen concentration. In the presence of KCl, some SO₂ is consumed at the high oxygen concentration in the 1050–1350 K range; up to a maximum of 50 ppm at approximately 1000 K. For 0.75 % O₂ the SO₂ concentration remains unchanged. In the simulation, the SO₂ consumption in the presence of KCl is over-predicted under the investigated conditions, while the model predicts correctly that the SO₂ outlet is unchanged over the entire temperature in the SO₂/O₂/H₂O experiment.

Fig. 4 (lower) compares experimental and calculated data for HCl in

the product gas. Hydrogen chloride is observed even in the absence of SO₂. For the KCl/H₂O/O₂ and CO/KCl/H₂O/O₂ systems, the HCl profiles are similar; CO has no effect on HCl formation. As proposed by Chanpirak et al. [24], the formation of HCl with no SO₂ addition can be explained by the heterogeneous KCl + SiO₂ reaction at the quartz reactor surface, forming potassium silicates.

In the presence of SO₂, the HCl yield is clearly enhanced; the difference can be attributed to KCl sulfation. The HCl formation is increased at higher O₂ levels; the maximum concentration of HCl is about 20 ppm at 0.75 % O₂ and 60 ppm at 5 % O₂. Results for varying SO₂ levels (corresponding to the conditions in Fig. 3) show the hydrogen chloride concentration to increase with the SO₂ level, supporting the role of sulfation in HCl formation (see Supplementary Data).

The simulation results significantly over-predicts the HCl formation at all the SO₂ levels (Fig. 4 and Supplementary Data). Also, the predicted peak of HCl is shifted to lower temperatures compared to experimental data. As discussed, the formation of HCl may be attributed to gas-phase reactions, i.e., $\text{KCl} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons \text{KOH} + \text{HCl}$ (R12b) or sulfation ($2\text{KCl} + \text{SO}_2 + \frac{1}{2}\text{O}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons \text{K}_2\text{SO}_4 + 2\text{HCl}$), or to the heterogeneous reaction of KCl with SiO₂ at the quartz reactor surface. According to the model, the conversion of KCl to KOH is very limited, and the discrepancy is primarily caused by over-prediction of the KCl sulfation.

SEM-EDX analyses were used to identify the chemical composition of the samples collected on the filter in the downstream line of the KCl-CO-SO₂ experiments. The results for 5 % O₂ for different temperatures are presented in Fig. 5, shown as the molar percentage of the major inorganic elements, i.e., K, Cl, and S. The elemental composition of the samples for 0.75 % O₂ is shown as Supplementary Data.

For both oxygen levels, the results reveal that the isothermal zone temperature affects the element composition in the particles captured downstream. The fine particles consist of K, S, and Cl in fractions consistent with a mixture of KCl and K₂SO₄. Sulfur is mainly detected in the samples obtained for reactor temperatures in the range 1073–1273 K. Here, the S content is around 4–5 %, showing that the fine particles are composed mainly of KCl with some K₂SO₄. The results indicate that the gaseous KCl is partly sulfated by reaction with SO₂ to form a K₂SO₄ aerosol. Sulfation of condensed KCl by a gas–solid reaction with SO₂ is very slow at low temperature [49] and reaction in the filter can be disregarded. Below 1000 K and above 1350 K, no or little sulfur is detected in the samples; the particles consist largely of KCl.

Fig. 6 compares the measured and predicted molar ratio of S/(Cl + S) in the filter deposits, as a measure of the degree of gas-phase sulfation in the reactor. For both levels of oxygen, the measured degree of sulfation

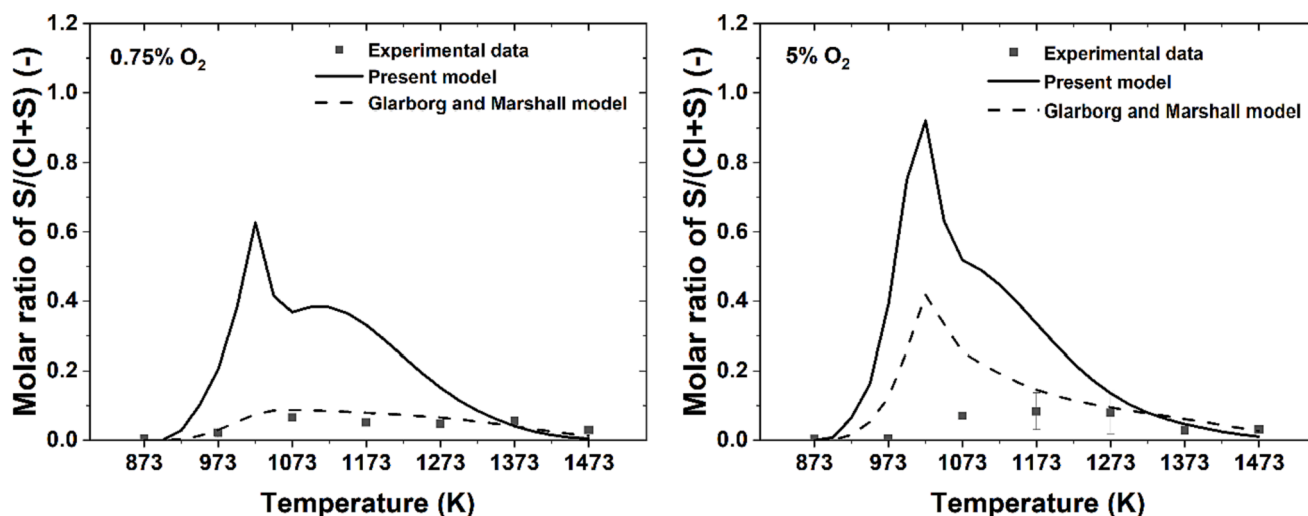


Fig. 6. Comparison of experimental and predicted molar ratios of S/(Cl + S) of the collected particle samples in the CO/KCl/SO₂/O₂/H₂O system with 0.75 % O₂ (left) and 5 % O₂ (right). Inlet condition: 1000 ppm CO, 212 ppm KCl, 750 ppm SO₂, 0.75 % or 5 % O₂, 3.2 % H₂O; N₂ balance (as in Fig. 2). Symbols denote experimental data; lines denote modeling predictions with the present model (solid) and the model of Glarborg and Marshall [41] (dashed).

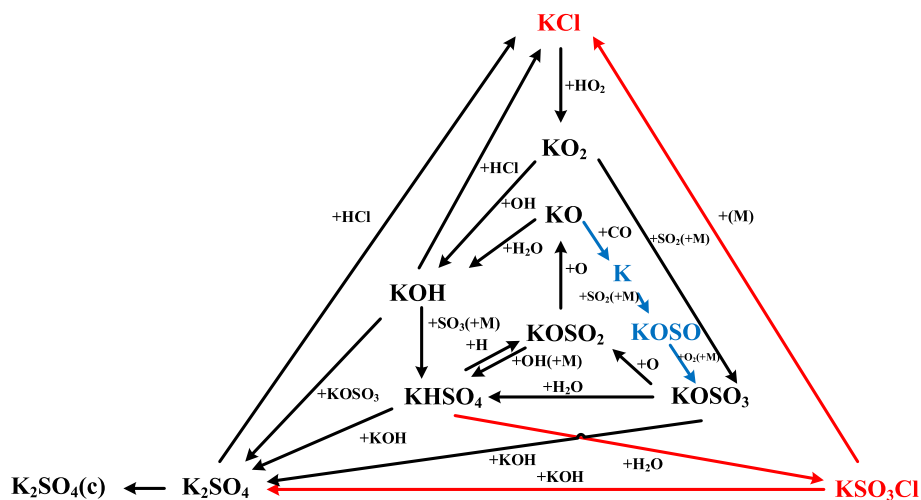


Fig. 7. Simplified reaction path diagram for transformation of KCl and KOH in moist CO oxidation (5% O₂) in the presence of SO₂. Black arrows denote pathways common for KCl and KOH, while the red and blue arrows denote paths specific for KCl and KOH, respectively. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

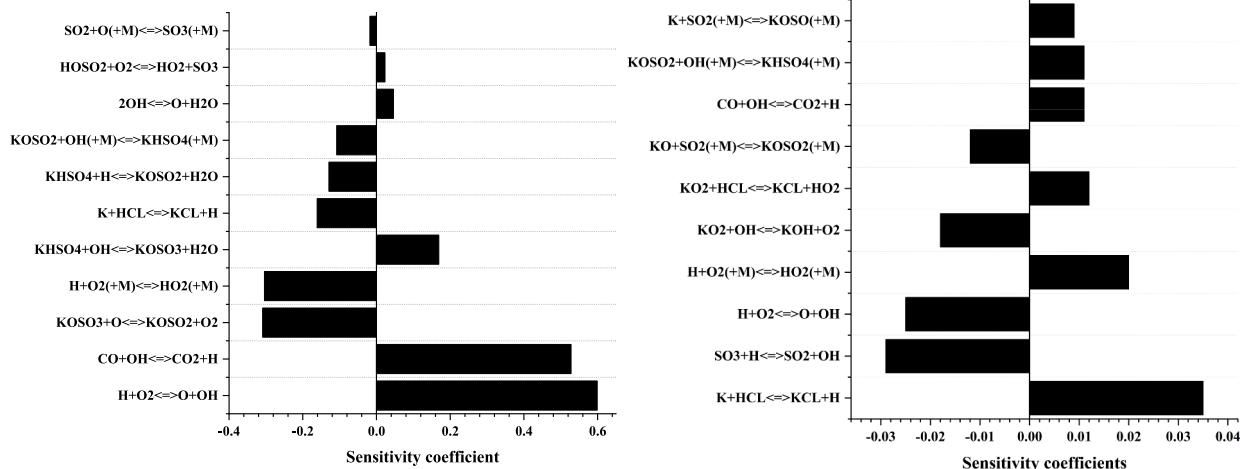


Fig. 8. A-factor sensitivity coefficients for prediction of CO₂ formation (left) at 50 % conversion (1080 K) and K₂SO₄ (right) (1173 K) for conditions corresponding to Fig. 2 (upper).

of KCl by SO₂ is quite low. However, a higher level of O₂ is seen to accelerate slightly the conversion of KCl into K₂SO₄ aerosols.

The results of Fig. 6 clearly confirms that the present model over-predicts the degree of sulfation in the CO/KCl/SO₂/O₂ system, in line with the discrepancies found for SO₂ and HCl in Fig. 4. The figure also shows predictions with the model of Glarborg and Marshall [41], which are in better agreement with experiment. To understand the possible reasons for the short-comings of the present model and the improved prediction of the Glarborg and Marshall mechanism, reaction path and sensitivity analyses for the predicted K₂SO₄ formation were conducted and they are discussed below.

4.1.6. Reaction path and sensitivity analyses

Fig. 7 shows the potassium species transformation according to the model for moist CO oxidation at 5 % O₂ in the presence of SO₂. The main path for sulfation of gaseous KCl involves the following sequence,



The K₂SO₄ aerosol is then formed by homogeneous nucleation, represented in the model as an irreversible pseudo first-order reaction, K₂SO₄ → K₂SO₄(c).

Sensitivity analyses for the predicted concentrations of CO₂ and K₂SO₄ are shown in Fig. 8. The analysis indicates that the consumption and generation of free radicals in the system control the oxidation of CO (left figure). It is promoted by reactions that replenish the free radical pool, i.e., CO + OH ⇌ CO₂ + H (R1), H + O₂ ⇌ O + OH (R2), and 2OH ⇌ O + H₂O, and suppressed by the competing reaction H + O₂ (+M) ⇌ HO₂ (+M) (R3). Considering K-species reactions, KOSO₃ + O ⇌ KOSO₂ + O₂ (R21), KHSO₄ + OH ⇌ KOSO₃ + H₂O (R24), KHSO₄ + H ⇌ KOSO₂ + H₂O (R23), and KOSO₂ + OH + M ⇌ KHSO₄ + M (R19) all serve to suppress CO oxidation as a result of consuming OH, H and O radicals, while KCl + H ⇌ K + HCl (R10b) promotes CO conversion. The chain-terminating step SO₂ + O (+M) ⇌ SO₃ (+M) (R4) also inhibits the oxidation of CO.

The sensitivity coefficients for K₂SO₄ are fairly small, indicating that the rate constants in the model has only a limited impact on the predicted degree of sulfation. The reactions CO + OH ⇌ CO₂ + H (R1) and

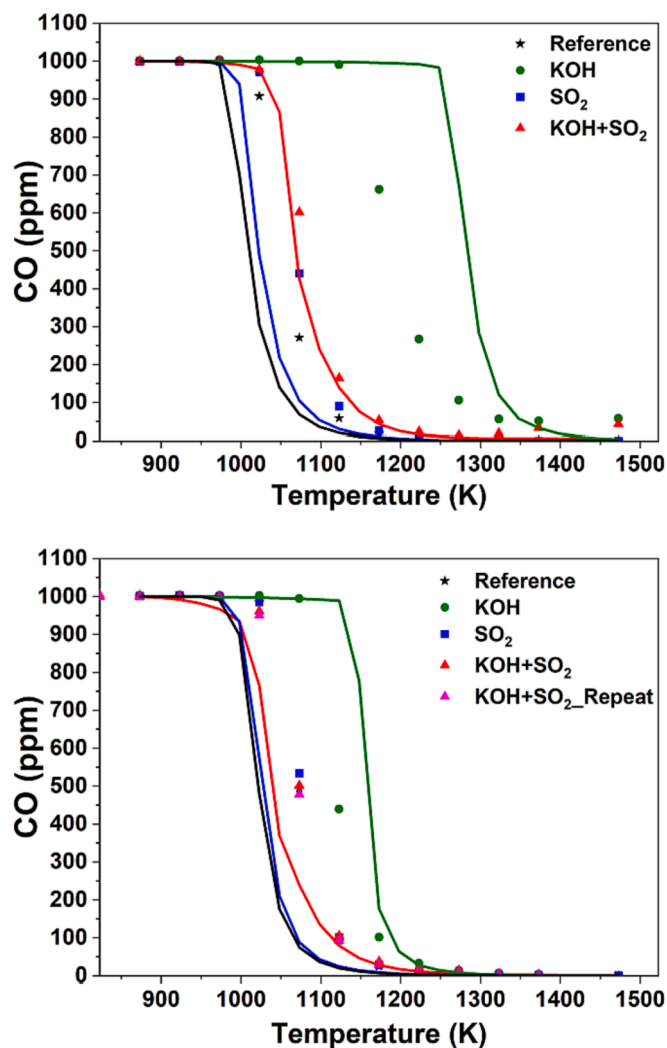


Fig. 9. The concentration of CO in the product gas as a function of temperature in a system containing CO-O₂-H₂O with/without KOH and/or SO₂. Comparison between experimental data (symbols) and modeling predictions (lines) for CO. The reference condition: CO-O₂-H₂O without the presence of KOH or SO₂. Inlet condition: 1000 ppm CO, 212 ppm KOH, 750 ppm SO₂, 0.75 % O₂ (a), 5 % O₂ (b), 3.2 % H₂O; N₂ balance. The residence time is 92/T(K) in the isothermal area at 823–1473 K.

SO₂ + OH \rightleftharpoons SO₃ + H (R5b) have positive sensitivity coefficients, confirming that oxidation of SO₂ to SO₃ formation is a significant step promoting sulfation of KCl. In the absence of CO, the degree of sulfation is significantly reduced, showing the importance of radicals in the sulfation of KCl. The composition of the O/H radical pool is important, with H + O₂ (+M) \rightleftharpoons HO₂ (+M) (R3) promoting sulfation, while H + O₂ \rightleftharpoons O + OH (R2) is inhibiting. Other reactions with a positive sensitivity include, KCl + HO₂ \rightleftharpoons KO₂ + HCl (R11b), KOSO₂ + OH (+M) \rightleftharpoons KHSO₄ (+M) (R49), and K + SO₂ (+M) \rightleftharpoons KOSO (+M) (R13). The reactions KCl + H \rightleftharpoons K + HCl (R10b), KO + SO₂ (+M) \rightleftharpoons KOSO₂ (+M) (R5), and KO₂ + OH \rightleftharpoons KOH + O₂ (R8) inhibit sulfation.

It is important to evaluate why the present model strongly overpredicts the degree of sulfation. Reactions in the moist CO/O₂/SO₂ subset of the mechanism are well established and the short-comings of the model are attributed to the potassium scheme. Fig. 6 compares modeling predictions for the present mechanism with calculations using the older model of Glarborg and Marshall [41]. For this comparison, the thermodynamic properties in the Glarborg and Marshall model were updated to the present values, along with the rate constant for the homogeneous nucleation of K₂SO₄. The major difference between the two

models is that the present mechanism includes the additional sulfation pathways involving KHSO₃ and KOSO₃ proposed by Hindiyarti et al. [42]. The finding that the Glarborg and Marshall model provides a much better agreement with experiment indicates that sulfation through these additional pathways is strongly overpredicted. However, both the thermodynamic properties and rate constants involve significant uncertainties and more work is required to resolve the discrepancy.

4.2. Effect of KOH and SO₂ on CO oxidation

While the transformation of KCl with and without addition of SO₂ has been investigated in previous work, data for KOH are scarce. In the following, results are presented for the effect of KOH on CO oxidation and for its interaction with SO₂. However, since gaseous KOH reacts more rapidly than KCl with the quartz surface of the flow reactor to form potassium silicates, the experimental results must be interpreted with caution.

4.2.1. Effect of KOH on CO oxidation

Fig. 9 compares results for CO oxidation with and without addition of KOH as a function of temperature. Compared to the reference case, the values of T_i and T₅₀ at 0.75 % O₂ for 212 ppm KOH are shifted upward by around 100 K and 150 K, respectively. The inhibition of CO oxidation by KOH under these conditions is actually smaller than that of KCl; we attribute this to the comparatively larger loss of KOH at the reactor wall. For 5 % O₂, presence of KOH shifts the initiation temperature upward by around 50 K in comparison with the reference condition, with the inhibition pronounced at temperatures of 1023–1223 K.

The inhibition of CO oxidation in the presence of KOH is overpredicted for both oxygen levels, most pronounced at 5 % O₂. The discrepancy can be attributed to uncertainties in the experimental conditions, mainly loss of KOH on the reactor surface, or to short-comings of the chemical kinetic model. As discussed below, there are indications that the surface loss of KOH is strongly underpredicted.

4.2.2. Effect of SO₂ on CO oxidation in the presence of KOH

The influence of SO₂ addition on the gas-phase CO/KOH system is illustrated in Fig. 9. Due to the complexity of the experiments with KOH addition, repetitions were conducted for experiments with CO oxidation in the presence of both KOH and SO₂. The results of the repeated experiments were in good agreement with the initial data in the same condition. At 0.75 % O₂ (Fig. 9 (a)), the presence of SO₂ strongly promotes reaction in the CO/KOH system, lowering the initiation temperature from 1150 K to 1050 K. At 5 % O₂ (Fig. 9 (b)), the effect of SO₂ is less pronounced, shifting the conversion temperature for CO about 50 K to lower values. Compared to the results for KCl addition, the impact of SO₂ is more pronounced for KOH, implying that KOH is more readily sulfated.

The experimental results for the CO/KOH/SO₂ system are predicted comparatively well by the model. In agreement with experiment, the model predicts that presence of SO₂ largely cancels the inhibiting effect of KOH on CO oxidation.

4.2.3. Effect of both NO and SO₂ on CO oxidation in the presence of KOH

The influence of NO on the CO/KOH system in the presence and absence of SO₂ is demonstrated in Fig. 10. Comparison of the results with those of Fig. 9 shows that addition of NO has only a small impact on the CO/KOH system. However, in the presence of SO₂, NO significantly promotes CO oxidation. The onset of oxidation in the CO-KOH-NO-SO₂ system is shifted approximately 100 K to lower temperature compared to experimental results obtained without SO₂. The concentration of NO is largely constant, with only a small fraction converted to NO₂. The promoting effect of NO on reaction in the CO/SO₂ system has also been reported in the absence of alkali species [30]. The simulations are in satisfactory agreement with the experimental results, both with and without SO₂.

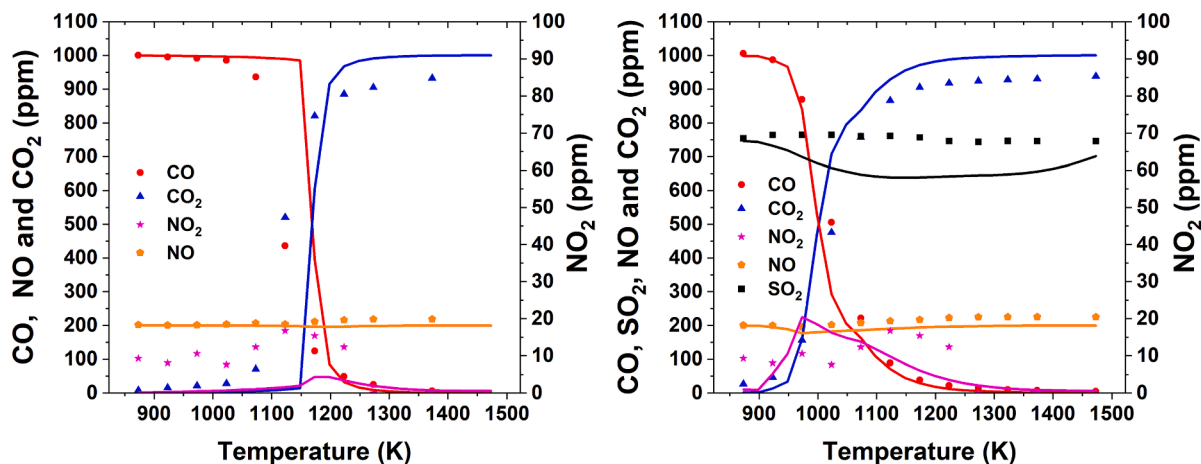


Fig. 10. Comparison of measured and predicted data for outlet gases in the CO/KOH/NO/SO₂/O₂/H₂O system. Inlet condition: 1000 ppm CO, 200 ppm NO, 212 ppm KOH, without SO₂ (left) and with 750 ppm SO₂ (right), 5 % O₂, 3.2 % H₂O; N₂ balance. The residence time is 92/T(K) in the isothermal area at 823–1473 K. Symbols denote experimental data; solid lines denote modeling prediction results.

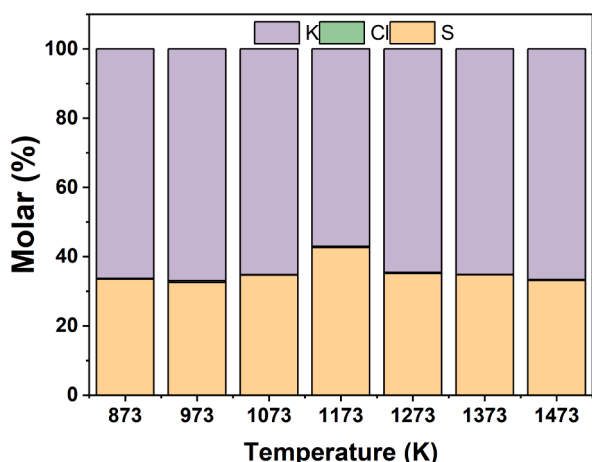


Fig. 11. SEM-EDX data of collected samples in the CO/KOH/SO₂/O₂/H₂O system. Inlet condition: 1000 ppm CO, 212 ppm KOH, 750 ppm SO₂, 5 % O₂, 3.2 % H₂O; N₂ balance (see Fig. 9).

4.2.4. Sulfation of KOH by SO₂

Fig. 11 shows the chemical composition from SEM-EDX analysis of the particles collected in the downstream filter for the CO-KOH-SO₂ system at different temperatures. The composition of the fine particles is composed of K and S in molar proportions consistent with K₂SO₄. The results show that KOH has undergone sulfation in the presence of SO₂ in the entire temperature range. Comparison with the data for KCl shows that the transformation of KOH to the less corrosive K₂SO₄ proceeds more easily than that of KCl in the presence of SO₂ in the CO-O₂-H₂O system. This finding is in good agreement with the results obtained by Mortensen et al. [15] and Weng et al. [35]. The modeling predictions indicate that the KOH is almost fully sulfated in the whole temperature covered, consistent with the experimental results.

Fig. 12 compares the measured and predicted concentrations of SO₂ in the CO-KOH-SO₂ system. Surprisingly, only a small consumption of SO₂ is observed, mostly limited to a temperature window about 1200–1350 K for both oxygen levels. Together with the finding that the filter K was fully sulfated, this is an indication that the KOH is largely captured on the reactor walls as potassium silicates, rather than reacting in the gas-phase. This is consistent with the observation that more SO₂ is consumed by reaction with KCl compared to KOH, even though KOH is more easily sulfated. The loss of KOH is underpredicted significantly by

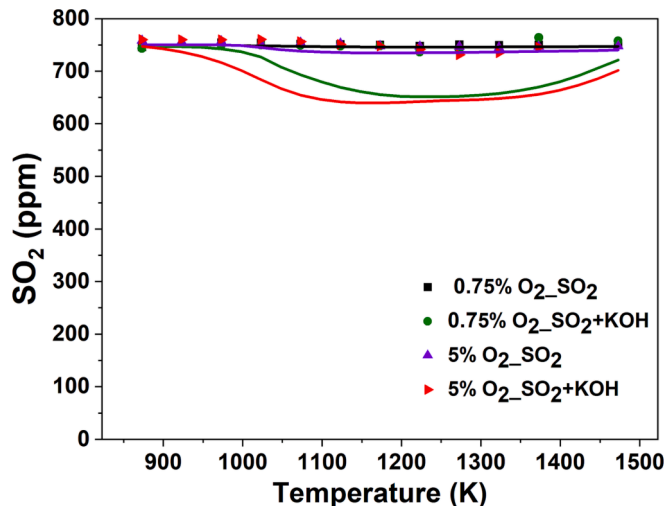
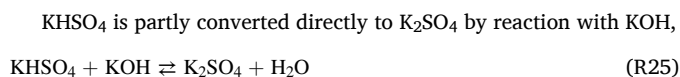


Fig. 12. Comparison of measured and predicted data for SO₂ profiles in the CO/KOH/SO₂/O₂/H₂O system. Inlet condition: 1000 ppm CO, 0 or 212 ppm KOH, 750 ppm SO₂, 0.75 % or 5 % O₂, 3.2 % H₂O; N₂ balance. The residence time is 92/T(K) in the isothermal area at 823–1473 K. Symbols denote experimental data; solid lines denote modeling prediction results.

the model, even though it is assumed to be controlled by diffusion to the reactor surface. However, loss of KOH prior to the isothermal zone in the reactor is unaccounted for.

4.2.5. Reaction flow and sensitivity analyses

Fig. 7 above shows the reaction paths for transformation of KOH in CO oxidation at 5 % O₂ at the temperature for 50 % conversion. The reaction paths in black are important for both KOH and KCl, while those in blue are specific for KOH. The main pathways are similar for the two potassium salts, taking place mainly through the intermediates KOSO₃ and KHSO₄. As the SO₃ builds up from the oxidation of SO₂, KOH is converted mainly to KHSO₄ by reaction with SO₃,



Other pathways involve KOSO₂ and KOSO₃, similar to predictions for KCl.

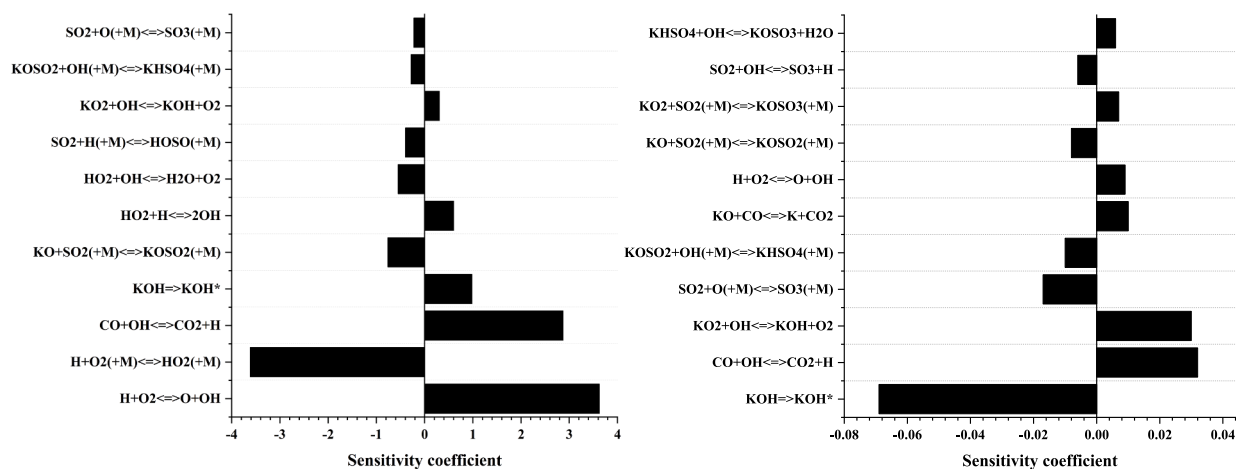


Fig. 13. A-factor sensitivity coefficients for prediction of CO₂ (left) at the 50 % conversion temperature (1035 K) and K₂SO₄ (1173 K) (right) for conditions corresponding to Fig. 10 (right).

Fig. 13 shows the sensitivity coefficients for the predicted CO₂ at 1035 K (left) and K₂SO₄ at 1173 K (right). For the CO₂ formation, the reaction $\text{H} + \text{O}_2 (+\text{M}) \rightleftharpoons \text{HO}_2 (+\text{M})$ (R16) shows up with a large negative sensitivity coefficient; the reaction is the most important for the inhibition of CO oxidation. The reactions $\text{CO} + \text{OH} \rightleftharpoons \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}$ (R3) and $\text{H} + \text{O}_2 \rightleftharpoons \text{O} + \text{OH}$ (R1) that generate free radicals in the reaction system promote CO oxidation and exhibit large positive sensitivity coefficients. Considering the K-containing intermediates, the analysis shows an inhibiting effect of $\text{KO}_2 + \text{SO}_2 + \text{M} \rightleftharpoons \text{KOSO}_3 + \text{M}$ (R16), $\text{KOSO}_2 + \text{OH} (+\text{M}) \rightleftharpoons \text{KHSO}_4 (+\text{M})$ (R19), and $\text{KHSO}_4 + \text{OH} \rightleftharpoons \text{KOSO}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ (R24) that all consume free radicals (OH/H). On the other hand, the chain-branching reaction $\text{KOH} + \text{O}_2 \rightleftharpoons \text{KO}_2 + \text{OH}$ (R8b) serves to promote CO conversion.

Fig. 13 (right) shows the sensitivity coefficients for the predicted of K₂SO₄ at 1173 K at the location of the maximum predicted sulfation rate. Contrary to the case for KCl, the reactions $\text{CO} + \text{OH} \rightleftharpoons \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}$ (R3) and $\text{H} + \text{O}_2 \rightleftharpoons \text{O} + \text{OH}$ (R1) here exhibit positive sensitivity coefficients; the HO₂ radical does not play an important role in sulfation of KOH. The reactions $\text{KO}_2 + \text{SO}_2 (+\text{M}) \rightleftharpoons \text{KOSO}_3 (+\text{M})$ (R16) and $\text{KHSO}_4 + \text{OH} \rightleftharpoons \text{KOSO}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ (R24) promote KOH sulfation, while $\text{KOSO}_2 + \text{OH} (+\text{M}) \rightleftharpoons \text{KHSO}_4 (+\text{M})$ (R19), $\text{KO}_2 + \text{OH} \rightleftharpoons \text{KOH} + \text{O}_2$ (R8) inhibit K₂SO₄ formation. The reactions $\text{SO}_2 + \text{OH} \rightleftharpoons \text{SO}_3 + \text{H}$ (R5b) and $\text{SO}_2 + \text{O} (+\text{M}) \rightleftharpoons \text{SO}_3 (+\text{M})$ (R4) exhibit negative sensitivity coefficients even though they act to oxidize SO₂ to SO₃.

5. Conclusions

In the present work, the chemical coupling between moist CO oxidation and transformation of gaseous potassium salts (KCl or KOH) in the presence and absence of SO₂ was investigated under fuel-lean conditions at temperatures of 873–1473 K. Experiments were conducted in a flow reactor, with KCl or KOH aerosols generated by an atomizer. The following conclusions can be made:

- Both KCl and KOH act to inhibit CO oxidation through chain-terminating reactions involving potassium. In the presence of SO₂, the potassium salts are partly sulfated; this reduces the inhibiting effect of K-species since K₂SO₄ does not participate in radical removal. Presence of NO further promotes reaction.
- KCl was only sulfated to a small degree, while KOH reacting in the gas phase was fully sulfated. The interpretation of the experiments was made difficult by depletion of particularly KOH at the quartz reactor walls.
- A chemical kinetic model has been established, with updated thermochemistry. It provides a satisfactory prediction of the CO

conversion in the presence of K-S-Cl species, but strongly over-predicts sulfation of KCl. Analysis of the calculations indicates that sulfation pathways in the model involving KOSO₃ contribute to the overprediction, but both the thermodynamic properties and rate constants in the model involve significant uncertainties and more work is required to resolve the discrepancy.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Arphaphon Chanpirak: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing – original draft. **Hamid Hashemi:** . **Flemming J. Frandsen:** . **Hao Wu:** Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **Peter Glarborg:** Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **Paul Marshall:** Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2022.127127>.

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