# NOx Emission Reduction by Furnace Cleanliness and Combustion Management

H. Randy Carter Wayne K. Larson

**Diamond Power Specialty Company** 

## **Abstract**

This paper highlights two overlooked strategies for NO, control in fossil fuel fired systems. The first, furnace cleanliness management, is designed to control furnace gas temperatures to minimum acceptable levels by enhancing furnace heat absorption, thereby reducing NO. Reductions of 20 to 30% are possible with this control strategy. The second, combustion management, strives to minimize NO, emissions by optimizing combustion characteristics in each burner. Laboratory test results show that on-line combustion measurements identify proper and improper burner vane settings. NO, emission levels varied as much as a factor of two as burner vane settings were changed.

## **Background**

The Clean Air Act Amendments of 1990, Titles I and IV, mandate NO, reduction from stationary sources. The impact on utilities is that by the year 2000, more than 200,000 MW must be retro-fitted with low-NO, systems. Title IV (acid rain) requires the use of low NO, combustion technology and Title I (ozone non attainment) requires RACT (reasonable, available control technology) to reduce NO, (1)

#### Introduction

NO, formation from any combustion process using air has two major components, thermal NO, and fuel NO. The relative contribution of each depends primarily on the nitrogen content of the fuel and the temperature of the combustion process. NO, is produced at high temperatures by oxidation of the nitrogen from the combustion air (thermal NO,) and oxidation of the nitrogen from the fuel (fuel NO,). Thermal NO, is formed by gas-phase chain reactions between O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>. Conversion of fuel bound N depends on the stoichiometry, residence time, and temperature within the flame. NO, is reduced by depressing combustion zone temperatures and by delaying the admission of sufficient oxygen to complete combustion.

NO, control methods include: Combustion Modification and Downstream Processes. Examples of each approach are listed below:(2)

## Combustion Modification

- Low NO, burners
- Over fired air
- Flue gas recirculation
- Low excess air

## Downstream Processes

- Selective catalytic reduction
- Selective non-catalytic reduction

Furnace cleanliness management and combustion management, while not routinely considered as such, are NO, control strategies. The remaining sections of the paper discuss NO, formation and control mechanisms and describe the cleanliness and combustion management strategies for NO, control.

## NO. Formation Mechanisms

Thermal NO.

NO, collectively refers to nitric oxide (NO), nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O). NO is the only nitrogen oxygen compound that can form, be stable, and exist in significant quantities in the high temperature portions of a utility boiler system (3).

Thermal NO, is NO derived from heating of air. If one looks at the three equations of the Zel'dovich mechanism, some understanding of thermal NO, can be obtained.

The first equation:

$$O_{2} + M < > O + O + M$$

shows that diatomic oxygen in the presence of a reaction medium M breaks down to or is combined from oxygen radicals. The forward reaction rate is proportional to temperature and on the order of 10 ft<sup>3</sup>/lb-mol-hr at 2300°F, 100 ft<sup>3</sup>/lb-mol-hr at 2500°F, and 1000 ft<sup>3</sup>/lb-mol-hr at 2700°F. The reverse reaction rate is constant on the order of 10<sup>14</sup> ft<sup>3</sup>/lb-mol-hr regardless of temperature.(4)

If we use these forward and reverse reaction rate constants in the following equation for a reversible reaction:

$$A + B < -> C + D$$
 with forward rate k1 and reverse rate k2

at equilibrium: 
$$k1[A][B] = k2[C][D]$$

Then, for this reaction proportionally few oxygen radicals exist relative to concentration of diatomic oxygen even at high temperatures. Also, since k1 increases with temperature and k2 does not, as temperature increases for a constant concentration of diatomic oxygen the radical concentration will increase.

The next equation:

$$N_1 + O \iff NO + N$$

shows that diatomic nitrogen in the presence of oxygen radicals will combine with some of those radicals to form NO and radical N.

The forward reaction rate constant for this equation is also proportional to temperature but on the order of 10<sup>6</sup> ft<sup>3</sup>/lb-mol-hr at 2600°F and 10<sup>7</sup> ft<sup>3</sup>/lb-mol-hr at 2900°F. The reverse reaction rate is constant with temperature and on the order of 10<sup>15</sup> ft<sup>3</sup>/lb-mol-hr.(4)

Although the reverse reaction rate constant is much higher than the forward rate constant, the high concentration of diatomic nitrogen relative to NO and N will force the reaction forward as long as sufficient oxygen radicals are present. At temperatures of 2700-2800 the first equation produces a sufficient oxygen radical concentration to drive this second reaction forward.(4)

From these constants one can see that the NO formation rate is also faster than the oxygen radical formation rate of the first equation. This means that the formation rate of NO is limited by the rate of formation of oxygen radicals which is proportional to temperature.

The third equation:

$$O_2 + N \iff NO + O$$

shows that if nitrogen radicals are present with diatomic oxygen, NO can be formed. The forward reaction rate is slightly temperature dependent and is on the order of  $10^{14}$  ft<sup>3</sup>/lb-mol-hr at 2600°F. The reverse reaction rate is more temperature dependent but on the order of only  $10^9$  ft<sup>3</sup>/lb-mol-hr at 2600°F and  $10^{10}$  ft<sup>3</sup>/lb-mol-hr at 3000°F (4). Both the forward reaction rate constant being higher than the reverse rate constant and the relatively high diatomic oxygen concentration drive this reaction forward where N radicals exist.

Finally, comparing the second and third equations, the reverse reaction rate of the second equation is on the order of 10<sup>15</sup> ft<sup>3</sup>/lb-mol-hr compared to the forward reaction rate of the last equation at 10<sup>14</sup> ft<sup>3</sup>/lb-mol-hr. This would alone suggest that a nitrogen radical would preferentially combine with NO to form diatomic nitrogen and oxygen radicals over combining with diatomic oxygen to form NO. However, the difference in reaction rates constants is only on the order of 10 while the ratio of diatomic oxygen concentration to the concentration of NO will normally greatly exceed this factor. Therefore, NO is formed by both the second and third equations in the heating of air.

Fuel NO.

The other major mechanism for the formation of NO, is derived from the nitrogen in the fuel. Although oils and coals typically contain only 0.5 to 2% of nitrogen by weight (5), it is generally believed that fuel NO, contributes between 50 and 80% of the total NO, generated in unstaged firing applications.

The formation of fuel NO can be further divided into two paths dependent on the location of the nitrogen undergoing reaction: volatile nitrogen which is released with the volatile matter of the coal, and char nitrogen which remains with the char after devolatilization is complete. Figure 1 shows the relative percentages of thermal, volatile based fuel, and

char based fuel NO<sub>x</sub> generated versus heat rate (5) and versus stoichiometry ratio for unstaged combustion (4). Low NO<sub>x</sub> burners and staged combustion reduce NO<sub>x</sub> emissions by reducing the percentage of volatile nitrogen and thermal NO<sub>x</sub>.

The nitrogen in fuels is usually bound in the form of attached ammonia (NH,) or pyridine (C,H,N). Once the fuel is heated it breaks down into nitrogen bound intermediates:

These intermediates are released in the volatile mass leaving behind char. Then in the presence of oxygen these intermediates react forming NO as a product:

In the absence of sufficient oxygen these intermediates may however react with any NO present to form diatomic nitrogen:

Experimental work of Takagi, et al. indicated that the conversion of HCN and NH, was dependent on the local temperature and oxygen radical concentrations (4). The primary factor affecting fuel nitrogen conversion is the oxygen concentration. The formation rate constants are not as temperature dependent as the formation and reaction of oxygen radicals of the Zel'dovich mechanism for thermal NO<sub>i</sub>.

The char which remains after the volatile matter is released is high in carbon, low in oxygen and hydrogen, and contains some nitrogen, sulfur, and other minerals. Carbon and nitrogen oxidization of these char particles is heterogeneous as oxygen comes into contact with the hot particle surfaces:

$$O_3 + N \rightarrow NO + O$$

The conversion efficiency of char nitrogen is generally less than 20%, which is lower than for volatile nitrogen. This may relate to the known capability of carbon to reduce NO (5):

$$NO + C_{\cdot} -> CO + N_{\cdot}$$

## NO, Reduction Principles

Char nitrogen forms a constant baseline NO dependent on coal characteristics which is unavoidable under practical combustion. This is because the reaction of char particles with oxygen is much slower than the oxidization of volatile matter. This makes it impossible to keep char particle combustion in an oxygen lean condition to preclude NO formation.

The remaining sixty to eighty percent of the fuel NO produced during unstaged combustion has been attributed to nitrogen released with volatile matter.

The total nitrogen volatilized in the heating of coal was found to be more sensitive to temperature than the total mass evolved during pyrolysis (6). Thus, at higher temperatures an increase in the amount of nitrogen is evolved with the volatile matter during coal devolatilization. Since the conversion efficiency of fuel nitrogen to NO is higher for volatilized nitrogen than it is for char bound nitrogen, the less volatilized nitrogen the lower the fuel N to NO, conversion efficiency.

Principle 1: Lower temperatures at the point of coal devolatilization reduce volatilized nitrogen and lower the overall fuel N to NO, conversion efficiency.

The second principle arises from the fact that in the absence of oxygen the nitrogen bound intermediates react with any NO present to form diatomic nitrogen. This is the principle upon which the technique of staging combustion rests.

Principle 2: If coal devolatilization occurs in an oxygen lean environment then HCN and NH, form N<sub>2</sub> rather than NO and react with NO to reduce it to N<sub>2</sub>.

The third principle uses the requirement that for the second equation of the Zel'dovich mechanism to be driven forward requires an oxygen radical concentration corresponding to a temperature greater that 2700°F.

Principle 3: If the oxygen lean condition can be extended as long as temperatures are above 2700°F then insufficient oxygen radical concentration will be formed to drive the Zel'dovich mechanism's NO formation equation forward.

The fourth principle is based on the temperature dependence of the rate constant of oxygen radical formation, and the concept that for moving particles residence time is related to flame volume. As the time available for reaction at high temperature increases, the NO concentration can be expected to increase.(7)

Principle 4: In oxygen rich conditions reducing temperatures in as minimum a volume or time as possible to 2700°F will minimize total thermal NO, produced.

In oil and coal burning plants, the major contributor of NO, is fuel NO. The most significant parameter in fuel NO, formation mechanisms is oxygen concentration at the location where the nitrogen bound intermediate constituents are reacting. The location can be assumed to be near the location of coal devolatilization as temperatures high enough for devolatilization provide sufficient activation energy for the reactions. If oxygen concentration can be reduced for the majority of the reactions while maintaining temperature to cause devolatilization, the resulting nitrogen product will be diatomic nitrogen rather than NO. Since a given coal particle will principally absorb heat by radiation, the production of a highly radiant, yet small volume, flame surface between the fuel source and the air source will create a desirable condition. This concept may be implemented on wall fired unit burners by the creation of a shell of flame around the fuel. The same concept may be implemented on tangential fired unit burners by the formation of a diffusion flame front with low stoichiometry ratio. Then additional air is introduced after the nitrogen intermediates have reacted. Laboratory tests have indicated that the optimum burner stoichiometric ratio is 0.8.(8)

The second highest producer is thermal NO<sub>2</sub>. The most significant factor in the thermal NO<sub>2</sub> formation mechanism is temperature. The highest temperature is produced in a flame of stoichiometry ratio near one. Combustion staging can reduce peak temperatures. Controlled admission of air in a reactor which absorbs heat (boiler) allows the temperature to be controlled as combustion is completed. Thus, a low thermal NO<sub>2</sub> producing flame would ideally consist of a flame of low peak temperature volume product, a rapid decrease in temperature below 2700, and a larger volume at or near 2700°F to maintain total heat release rate. Practically, this is implemented by rapidly reducing temperatures after the initial reducing zone by flow dynamics. This concept is the basis for recirculation zones (drawing cooler exhaust back into flame) as well as the distribution control of air in staged combustion.

#### **Furnace Cleanliness Management**

The concept of NO, control by furnace cleanliness management is based on controlling gas side temperatures to minimum acceptable values by enhancing furnace heat absorption. In many coal and oil-fired boilers, this can be accomplished by prudent

selection, location and effective operation of furnace cleaning devices. As previously described, thermal NO, is a major contributor to overall NO, emission levels. The most significant factor in the formation of thermal NO, is temperature. Furnace cleanliness management primarily reduces thermal NO, by reducing furnace gas side temperatures.

Heat transfer to the tube side fluid in the furnace of utility boilers is predominately radiation (~90% of total heat transfer). As furnace heat transfer surface becomes dirty, flame temperatures must increase to maintain constant load conditions.

$$R = \varepsilon \tau (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

Where:

R = Net rate of radiation energy transfer

 $\varepsilon$  = Effective Emissivity

 $\tau$  = Constant

 $T_1$  = Flame Temperature

 $T_2$  = Furnace Wall Temperature

The above equation can be used to estimate the effect of changing cleanliness conditions on gas side temperatures. For a constant heat transfer rate and the assumptions noted below, the change in flame temperature with variations in furnace cleanliness can be estimated.

# Assumptions:

 $T_{1c} = 3000$ °F (flame temperature with clean furnace wall)

 $\varepsilon_{\rm s} = 0.7$  (effective emissivity with clean furnace wall)

 $T_{\star} = 750^{\circ}F$  (wall temperature with clean furnace wall)

 $T_{24} \sim 750^{\circ}F$  (wall temperature with dirty furnace wall)

 $\varepsilon_{\downarrow} = 0.4$  (effective emissivity with dirty furnace wall)

 $T_{14}$  = (flame temperature with dirty furnace wall)

Radiation heat transfer is related to temperatures to the fourth power, therefore, for an order of magnitude estimate, T<sub>2</sub> can be eliminated since the value when raised to the fourth power is small compared to T<sub>1</sub> to the fourth power. Therefore, the equation for estimating the change in flame temperature can be simplified to

$$T_{ld} = \left(\frac{\varepsilon_c}{\varepsilon_d}\right)^{\kappa} T_{lc}$$

 $T_{\text{\tiny 14}}$  based on the above equation is ~3500°F or a 500°F increase compared to the temperature required with a clean furnace. In practice, the total change in furnace

temperature would not be seen since convection pass heat transfer surfaces would provide part of the added heat transfer requirement.

Field test results have shown effective wall emittance variations from 0.2 to 0.8 are possible (9) in coal fired units. Figure 2 illustrates the magnitude of furnace exit gas temperature (FEGT) change that can occur in a 500 MW boiler at full load conditions as furnace wall emittance varies. FEGT in this paper refers to the gas side temperature at roughly the nose of the furnace and upstream of any furnace platen or pendent surface. A 500°F increase in FEGT can result with a change in the furnace emittance of 0.4 to 0.7.

Thermal NO, which occurs only at high flame temperatures, is formed by the reaction of oxygen and nitrogen found in the air. Generation of thermal NO, is exponentially dependent on temperature.(10) The NO<sub>x</sub> emission at 2700°F is over 40 times greater than at 2200°F.

Several studies (11,12) have shown that FEGT can be controlled by a proper complement and operation of furnace cleaning equipment. Therefore, fossil fuel fired boilers with a significant thermal NO, component and the need for furnace heat transfer surface cleaning can realize significant reductions in NO, emissions by furnace cleaning management.

Figure 3 illustrates the measured variation in NO, emission with changes in FEGT. These results were obtained on a large (>500MW) wall fired unit burning bituminous coal. The variation in NO, resulted primarily from changes in the operating frequency of furnace wall cleaning devices. Unit load varied from 85-100%. A NO, reduction of up to 30% was measured corresponding to a FEGT change of 100°F.

FEGT can be controlled to minimum acceptable levels by enhancing furnace heat absorption, thereby reducing NO. An integrated system of an on-line FEGT sensor, furnace cleaning devices and controls can effectively manage the cleaning process to realize NO, reductions of more than 30%. Figure 4 illustrates a comprehensive system to improve furnace heat transfer, reduce FEGT, and thereby reduce NO, emissions. The system includes: Diamond Power's waterlances and/or steam cleaning devices, BOS™ sootblower control system, and Gastemp™. The integrated system permits condition-based sootblower control to maintain the desired FEGT and thereby the achievable NO, reduction.

#### **Combustion Management**

Combustion management involves dividing the furnace into individual burners or logical combustion segments and verifying operation of each segment in accordance with a NO, reduction strategy. The strategy may be derived from the design concept of Low NO, burners or formulated for other burners based on general NO, reduction principles.

Locations of high NO, generation are identified and corrected as each segments forward (NO, formation) reaction rates are minimized and reverse (NO, destruction or blocking) reaction rates are maximized. Stepwise implementation of combustion management tools and techniques on the logical combustion segments then results in a reduction of the total NO, generated in the furnace.

## **Test Case Implementation**

A single low NO, burner shown in Figure 5 was tested in a laboratory facility. The facility was instrumented to record exit gas concentrations including NO,, CO, O, and CO, generated from the burner. The facility was also outfitted with a two color pyrometer camera (Flameview, Diamond Power Specialty Co.) specialized for imaging and thermally mapping utility furnace combustion zones.

This area pyrometer system displayed 15,360 point resolution images of the temperature distribution of the burner flame for each test condition. A data acquisition system also recorded plant settings and monitoring equipment values at each test condition. This arrangement allowed isolated definition and complete instrumentation and recording of what is termed a combustion segment in the combustion management overview.

The burner design splits the secondary air into inner and outer zones around the primary air/coal stream. Both the inner and outer secondary air paths have independently adjustable spin vanes acting from a zero angle (closed) to a 90 degree angle (fully open, no spin).

The controlled parameters for the testing were maintenance of a constant power level and a constant excess oxygen percentage at the stack. Vane settings were changed through a series of graduations. Plant operation and emissions data was taken once the system had stabilized at each new condition of vane settings.

#### **Test Case Results**

The conditions of the following presentation are representative samples selected from a larger body of data to present a variety of burner vane settings in a reasonable size paper. For the results presented below, the larger the vane position number the greater the vane opening angle. The same position number for the inner and outer vanes would correspond to equal angular settings.

The temperature contours from the Flameview™ camera (Figure 6), placed above the flame for an inner vane position of 2 and an outer vane position of 4, show the characteristics of good staged combustion. A small volume hot zone exists at the region

of coal devolatilization where a fuel rich condition can be expected. Notice that this hot zone peaks at only 2950°F and the 2900°F volume is small. This is followed by a rapid cooldown downstream. Recirculation is evident by the folding inward of the contours as the air swirls back into the rear of the flame.

Figure 7 presents data for an inner vane setting of 2, same as the previous figure and an outer setting of 3 (reduced angle). The temperature contours from the Flameview camera are quite similar to the first case in that temperature ranges and volumes are about the same. The principle difference between the two is the strength of the recirculation evident by the contours. Comparing the 2800°F and the 2750°F contours between the two temperature plots one can see that for the 3 outer vane position a slight rounded folding of the contours occurs compared to the deep folding of the position 4 setting. Also, the general shape of all the contours is more circular. However, the temperature gradient is still steep and the NO, value has increased to 1.04 (Test Case 2/Test Case 1 NO<sub>x</sub>). The O<sub>2</sub> at the stack was decreased for this case indicating that the flattening of the vane setting was not yet fully compensated for by the operator adjusting the fan current before the data was recorded. The data provided here was taken as the mean off of a strip chart for the test condition over a period after the system had stabilized at the new settings.

Figure 8 presents results for an inner and outer vane position of 4. Opening of the inner vane proportions more air into the core of the flame. This increases oxygen concentration in the region of the nitrogen based intermediate reactions resulting in NO versus N<sub>2</sub> formation. Coincident angles with relatively mild spin decreases turbulence and results in a longer tubular versus wedge shaped flame. While the peak temperature is the same as in Figure 6 at 2950°F, the 2900°F volume is larger, and the 2850 and 2800 regions are much larger. These high temperatures are extended to an area of the flame where oxygen concentrations are high resulting in thermal NO<sub>x</sub> generation. Between the increased volatile fuel NO<sub>x</sub> and thermal NO<sub>x</sub> formations the measured NO<sub>x</sub> has increased to 1.81 (Test Case 3/Test Case 1 NO<sub>x</sub>) while other exit gas conditions are nearly the same. An additional case with the inner vane opened further proportioned more flow to the flame core. This produced the highest NO<sub>x</sub> level of 2.10 (Test Case 4/Test Case 1 NO<sub>x</sub>).

## **Summary**

Thermal and fuel NO, formation mechanisms were presented. Four principles for NO, reduction based on minimizing the forward reaction rates and maximizing the reverse reaction rates were identified.

Two alternative approaches, furnace cleanliness management and combustion management, for NO, control were presented. Furnace cleanliness management is a control strategy to achieve minimum acceptable gas side temperatures by enhancing furnace heat absorption. Appropriate selection, placement and operation of furnace heat transfer surface cleaning devices can reduce gas side temperatures in many utility boilers and thereby reduce NO, emissions up to 30%.

A single laboratory burner had vane settings altered while exit gas parameters were monitored to determine the optimal settings for NO, reduction. A two color pyrometer camera provided temperature distributions for visualization of this component of NO, formation kinetics. The results indicated that application of the NO, reduction principles accomplished a variation of NO, from the worst test condition value to the low NO, case of 2.1.

This test case illustrates that the application of combustion management tools and techniques can be used to identify and correct locations of high NO, generation. The periodic verification that each furnace combustion segment operates in accordance with a NO, reduction strategy, whether this strategy is design based for low NO, burners or general principle based for other burners, is an effective means of reducing total NO, generation within the furnace.

#### References

Piepho, Jane, Cioffi, Paul, LaRue, Albert and Wanders, Peter, "Seven Different Low-NO, Strategies Move from Demonstration to Commercial Status", <u>Power-Gen '92</u>, November, 1992.

Makansi, Jason, "Reducing NO, Emissions- Special Report", <u>Power</u>, September, 1988. Committee on Atmospheric Pollution of the Environmental Engineering Division of the American Society of Civil Engineers. "NO, Emissions from Stationary Sources", Journal of the Environmental Engineering Division, Proceedings of the American Society Of Civil Engineers, Vol. 100, No. EE3, June, 1974, p. 645.

Bozzuto, Carl R. "NO, Formation Basics" presented at the 5th Annual NO, Control Conference for the Council of Industrial Boiler Owners, Feb, 1992, p. 5.

Clarke, Andrew G. and Williams, Alan. "The Formation and Control of NO, Emissions", Chemistry and Industry Magazine, Dec, 1991. p. 918.

Blair, D. W., Wendt, J.O.L., and Bartok, W. "Evolution of Nitrogen and Other Species During Controlled Pyrolysis of Coal." Proceedings of the 16<sup>th</sup> Annual Combustion Symposium, The Combustion Institute. 1977.

Committee on Atmospheric Pollution of the Environmental Engineering Division of the American Society of Civil Engineers. p. 647.

Bauer, F.W., DuBrul, R.S., and Weiss, M.D. "Approach to Utility Boiler Acid Rain Compliance Modifications", a report by the Stone & Webster Engineering Corporation, 3 Executive Campus, PO Box 5200, Cherry Hill, NJ 08034, undated, p. 4.

Carter, H. Randy, Koksal, Cevdet G., and Garrabrant, Michael A., "Furnace Cleaning In Utility Boilers Burning Powder River Basin Coals", International Joint Power Conference, October, 1992.

Colannino, Joseph, "Low Cost Techniques, Reduce Boiler NO,", Chemical Engineering, February 1993.

Carter, H. Randy, et al., "An optical Monitor for Furnace and Boiler Temperature Measurement and Control", EPRI Workshop on Optical Sensing in Utility Applications, August, 1992.

Burrell, Brian E., Water Cleaning Evaluation, TVA Paradise, Unit 3, 1991 Western Fuels Conference, Ft. Collins, Colorado, August, 1991.

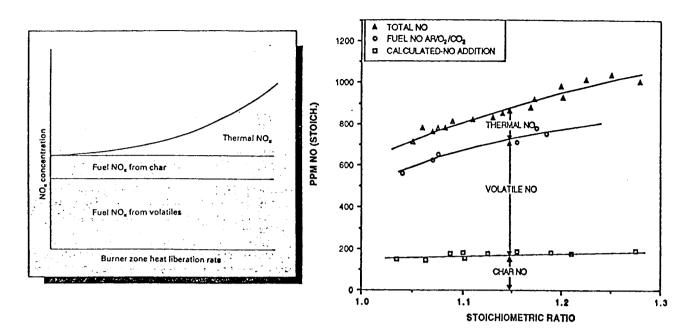


Figure 1
Contributions to NO<sub>X</sub> from Coal Combustion

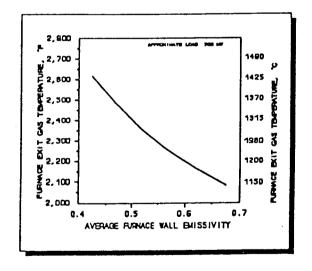


Figure 2
Effect of Furnace Emissivity with Constant Power

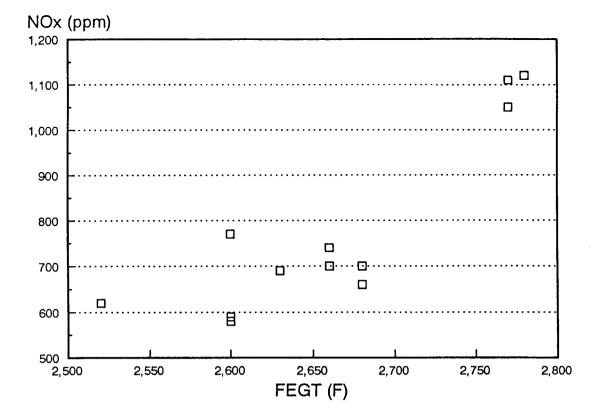


Figure 3
Comparison of NO<sub>x</sub> and Furnace Exit Gas Temperature

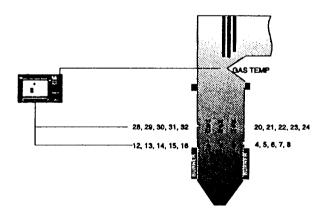


Figure 4
Integrated Cleaning Management System

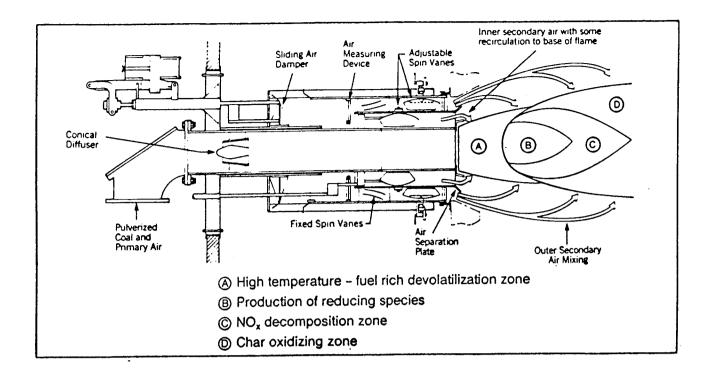


Figure 5
Test Burner Used for Laboratory Testing

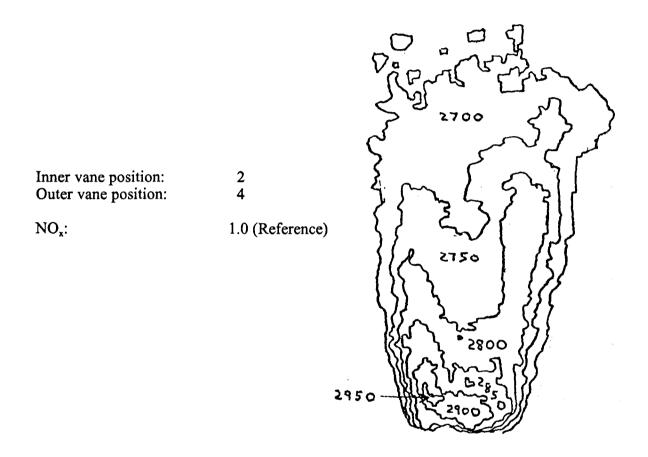


Figure 6 Burner Test Case 1

Inner vane position:
Outer vane position:

2

NO<sub>x</sub>:

1.04 (Test Case 2/Test Case 1)

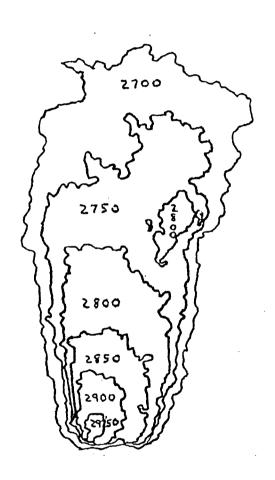


Figure 7
Burner Test Case 2

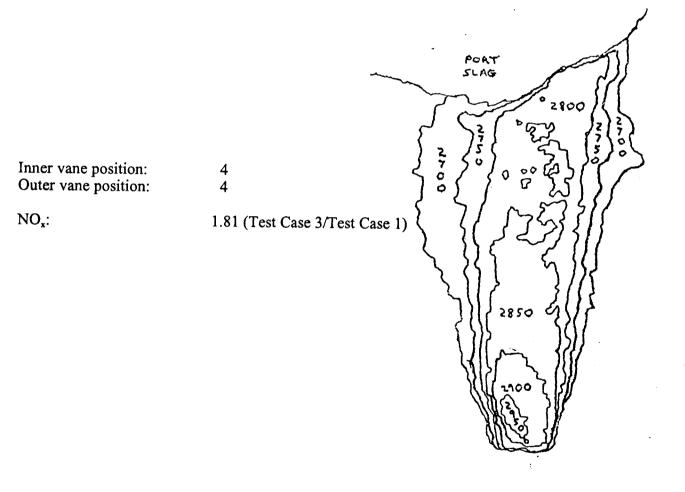


Figure 8
Burner Test Case 3