#### **RESEARCH ARTICLE**

# Chemical deactivation of $V_2O_5$ -WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> SCR catalyst by combined effect of potassium and chloride

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Abstract V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst was poisoned by impregnation with NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, KOH and KCl solution. respectively. The catalysts were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD), inductively coupled plasma (ICP), N<sub>2</sub> physisorption, Raman, UV-vis, NH<sub>3</sub> adsorption, temperature-programmed reduction of hydrogen (H2-TPR), temperature-programmed oxidation of ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>-TPO) and selective catalytic reduction of  $NO_x$  with ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR). The deactivation effects of poisoning agents follow the sequence of KCl > KOH  $\gg$  NH<sub>4</sub>Cl. The addition of ammonia chloride enlarges the pore size of the titania support, and promotes the formation of highly dispersed V = O vanadyl which improves the oxidation of ammonia and the high-temperature SCR activity. K<sup>+</sup> ions are suggested to interact with vanadium and tungsten species chemically, resulting in a poor redox property of catalyst. More importantly, potassium can reduce the Brønsted acidity of catalysts and decrease the stability of Brønsted acid sites significantly. The more severe deactivation of the KCl-treated catalyst can be mainly ascribed to the higher amount of potassium resided on catalyst.

**Keywords**  $V_2O_5$ -WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub>, potassium chloride, poisoning, reducibility, acid sites

## 1 Introduction

Nitrogen oxides  $(NO_x)$ , emitted from automobile exhaust and power plant flue gas, can cause acid rain, photochemical smog and diseases of human respiratory system. The selective catalytic reduction (SCR) with ammonia has

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been proved to be an effective method for NO<sub>x</sub> abatement [1]. Commercial V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR catalyst, usually containing 0.5 wt.%–3 wt.% V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, 8 wt.%–10 wt.% WO<sub>3</sub> and TiO<sub>2</sub> as carrier [2,3]. V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> is considered as the main active component providing acid sites to adsorb and activate NH<sub>3</sub>. WO<sub>3</sub> acts as an important promoter which favors the spreading of vanadia on the catalyst surface and stabilizes the anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> from phase transition to rutile. Furthermore, WO<sub>3</sub> increases the surface acidity of catalyst, and improves the poison resistance of catalyst to alkali metals [4].

Exhaust gases from stationary sources such as power plant always contain alkali oxides and salts which could strongly poison the catalyst. Among the alkali metals, potassium is the most serious poison for vanadium-based catalysts. Therefore, the deactivation effect of alkali metals especially potassium have been widely studied. Alkali can combine with dispersed vanadium species and neutralize the Brønsted acid sites, leading to the decrease of SCR activity [5-8]. The poisoning of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst by alkali hydroxides and nitrates has been studied by some researchers, but alkali metal compounds in the real exhaust gas from stationary sources are always in the form of more stable ones such as chloride and sulfate. A few of studies have been carried out to explore the poisoning mechanisms of KCl on V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst. Lisi et al. [9] observed a decrease of vanadium content of catalyst under an HCl-containing gas flow, and suggested the replacement of original acid site by the formation of new acid sites provided by HCl, which showed a lower activity. Jensen's group [10] reported that potassium salts in the form of chlorides and sulfates are strong poisons for SCR catalyst by neutralizing the active sites for NH<sub>3</sub> adsorption and SCR reaction. Their further studies showed that, in addition to the main cause of deactivation by chemical poisoning of active sites, physical blocking of the outer wall surface also contributes to the loss of activity of monolithic catalyst in practical applications [11,13]. Although the effects of potassium chloride on the surface acidity and SCR activity of catalysts have been studied, the attention paid to the changes of structural and redox properties of catalyst induced by potassium chloride is not enough.

In this work, the deactivation of the homemade  $V_2O_5$ -WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> SCR catalyst by potassium chloride was explored. The structural and textural properties of the catalysts were characterized by XRD, ICP, N<sub>2</sub> physisorption, Raman, UV-vis. FT-IR of NH<sub>3</sub> adsorption, H<sub>2</sub>-TPR and NH<sub>3</sub> oxidation measurements were carried out to evaluate the surface acidity and redox properties of the catalysts, respectively. The single and combined effects of potassium and chloride on the catalytic behavior of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst were clarified.

## 2 Experimental

#### 2.1 Preparation of the catalysts

The V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> (VWT) catalyst was prepared by a two-step impregnation method. Nano TiO<sub>2</sub> powders (Millennium DT-51) were mixed with ammonium paratungstate solution by magnetic stirring for 1 h. The obtained mixture was dried at 110°C overnight and calcined at 450°C for 4 h in air to obtain WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> powders. Then, a solution of ammonium metavanadate and oxalic acid was impregnated. The obtained paste was dried at 110°C overnight and calcined at 450°C for 4 h. The nominal weight ratio of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>:WO<sub>3</sub>:TiO<sub>2</sub> in the catalyst was 1:10:90.

The potassium poisoned samples were prepared by impregnating excess water solution of KOH or KCl onto the obtained  $V_2O_5$ -WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> powders with a nominal weight ratio 1 wt.% of K<sub>2</sub>O, denoted as VWT(KOH) and VWT(KCl), respectively. The impregnated powders were then dried overnight and calcined at 400°C for 2 h. For reference, a sample VWT(NH<sub>4</sub>Cl) with a theoretical weight ratio 1 wt.% of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl was prepared with the same process.

#### 2.2 Catalyst characterization

The powder X–ray diffraction (XRD) patterns were determined by a diffractometer (D8 ADVANCE, Bruker, Germany) employing Cu K $\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 0.15418$  nm) operating at 40 kV and 30 mA.

The inductively coupled plasma (ICP) analysis was carried out using an ICP emission spectrometer (Vista-MPX, Varian, America).

Textural properties were determined by nitrogen physisorption at -196°C using a JW-BK122F (Beijing JWGB, China) instrument. Prior to nitrogen physisorption measurement, the samples were degassed to 0.01 Pa at 220°C. The specific desorption pore volume was assessed by the Barrett–Joyner–Halenda (BJH) method.

The Raman spectra were obtained at ambient condition on a confocal micro–Raman apparatus (Aurora J300, IDSpec, China) using  $Ar^+$  laser with a CCD detector. Pure powder supported on a sheet glass was used without any pretreatment. The laser wavelength was 632.8 nm and the exposure time was 20 s.

The ultraviolet-visible (UV-vis) absorption spectroscopy was measured by using an UV-vis spectrophotometer (Hitachi U-3010) equipped with an integrating sphere. A  $BaSO_4$  pellet was used as a reference. The spectra were recorded at room temperature (RT) in the spectral range 200 nm–800 nm.

The *in-situ* infrared (IR) spectra of ammonia adsorption were recorded on a FT-IR spectrometer (Nicolet 6700, Thermo Fisher, America) equipped with a MCT detector. The catalyst was pretreated in 20%  $O_2/N_2$  flow (100 mL·min<sup>-1</sup>) at 450°C for 30 min, and then saturated with ammonia (1000 ppm NH<sub>3</sub>/N<sub>2</sub>, 100 mL·min<sup>-1</sup>) for 30 min. After purging with N<sub>2</sub> for 30 min at different temperatures (RT and 200°C), the spectra were collected by accumulating 32 scans at a resolution of 4 cm<sup>-1</sup>.

 $H_2$  temperature-programmed reduction (H<sub>2</sub>-TPR) was conducted on a chemical adsorption instrument (Auto-Chem II 2920, Micromeritics, America). Prior to the test, 50 mg of sample was purged in He (50 mL·min<sup>-1</sup>) at 450°C for 30 min, then cooled down to room temperature. The reactor temperature was raised to 900°C at a constant heating rate of 10°C min<sup>-1</sup> in 10% H<sub>2</sub>/Ar with a flow rate of 50 mL·min<sup>-1</sup>.

#### 2.3 Activity measurement

The NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR activity measurement was carried out in a fixed bed reactor with 200 mg catalyst (diluted to 1 mL with silica pellets). The reaction gas mixture consisted of 500 ppm NO, 500 ppm NH<sub>3</sub>, 5% O<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> in balance. Prior to the measurement, the catalysts were treated in 20% O<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> at 450°C for 30 min. The measurement was performed at fixed temperatures per 50°C from 150 to 450°C and kept for 20 min at each point. The gas hourly space velocity (GHSV) was 30000 h<sup>-1</sup>. The feed and product concentrations were measured by Nicolet 380 at 120°C. The NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR activity of catalysts was shown as NO<sub>x</sub> (NO, NO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O) conversions which were calculated as follows:

 $NO_x$  conversion (%)

=

$$=\frac{[NO]_{in} - [NO]_{out} - [NO_2]_{out} - 2[N_2O]_{out}}{[NO]_{in}} \times 100, \quad (1)$$

NH<sub>3</sub> oxidation experiments were performed by the similar conditions in SCR reaction in which NO in gas

mixture was excluded.  $NH_3$  conversion was defined by Eq. (2).

NH<sub>3</sub> conversion (%) = 
$$\frac{[NH_3]_{in} - [NH_3]_{out}}{[NH_3]_{in}} \times 100$$
, (2)

The first-order rate constant was calculated according to Eq. (3),

$$k = \frac{F_0}{[\mathrm{NO}]_{\mathrm{in}}W} \ln(1-X). \tag{3}$$

where *W* was the weight of the catalyst,  $F_0$  was the inlet molar flow rate of nitric oxide, [NO]<sub>in</sub> was the inlet molar concentration, and *X* was the conversion of nitric oxide [4]. The reaction was performed at fixed temperatures with 10 mg of catalyst (diluted with 90 mg of silica pellets) and the gas concentration was the same as above. The total flow rate was enhanced to 1 L·min<sup>-1</sup> to reach a high GHSV of 750000 h<sup>-1</sup>.

## 3 Results and discussion

#### 3.1 NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR activities

Figure 1 shows the de-NO<sub>x</sub> activities of the fresh and poisoned V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts. The fresh catalyst achieves above 80% NO<sub>x</sub> conversion in the temperature range 240°C–450°C and reaches nearly 100% conversion at 300°C–400°C. The poisoning effects of different agents follow the order of KCl > KOH  $\gg$  NH<sub>4</sub>Cl. The catalyst is severely deactivated by potassium chloride with only about 35% of the original NO<sub>x</sub> conversion values achieved at 300°C–400°C. A moderate deactivation of catalyst is attained by KOH with a maximal NO<sub>x</sub> conversion of about 65% at 300°C–350°C. Contrarily, the activity of the catalyst remains high after the impregnation of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, with only an abnormal data decreasing from 89% to 75% at 250°C. Thus, the chloride itself leads to almost no



Fig. 1 NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR activities of the catalysts

deactivation of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TO<sub>2</sub> catalyst, but the impregnation of potassium chloride results in a more severe deactivation of the catalyst than the KOH poisoning. Almost no NO<sub>2</sub> is observed in the downstream during the whole temperature region, and only less than 15 ppm of N<sub>2</sub>O is generated at high temperatures, indicating a high selectivity to N<sub>2</sub> (always > 95%) for all the catalysts.

To compare the level of deactivation quantitatively, the first-order rate constant was measured under higher space velocity and the results are shown in Fig. 2. A similar tendency of catalytic activity for different catalysts is observed. The fresh catalyst shows higher activity than the poisoned catalysts at low temperatures such as  $250^{\circ}$ C. The poisoning effect of potassium is significant for VWT (KOH) and especially VWT(KCl) catalysts. Again, slightly higher catalytic activities of the catalyst impregnated with NH<sub>4</sub>Cl are observed at  $300^{\circ}$ C and  $350^{\circ}$ C compared with the fresh sample.



Fig. 2 The first-order rate constants for NO reduction

#### 3.2 Solid properties

Figure 3 shows the XRD patterns of the catalysts. All the samples exhibit only the characteristic peaks of anatase titania. The absence of diffraction peaks of  $WO_3$  and  $V_2O_5$  indicates the formation of uniformly spread oxotungsten and amorphous state of vanadia. Meanwhile, no detectable formation of potassium salts or chlorides occurs.

Both potassium and chloride are easy to loss during the preparation process due to their high volatility. To detect the residual contents of potassium and chloride in the poisoned catalysts, the ICP measurement was performed and the results are listed in Table 1. The measured potassium contents are lower than the nominal metal content (0.83 wt.%), which cannot be ascribed to the volatility of potassium since no obvious variations were detected for VWT(KOH) and VWT(KCl) catalysts before and after the calcination. Such a phenomenon usually occurs when catalysts are prepared by excess solution



Fig. 3 XRD patterns of (1) VWT, (2) VWT(NH<sub>4</sub>Cl), (3) VWT(KOH) and (4) VWT(KCl) catalysts

impregnation [13]. It is also observed by Tikhomirov et al. who ascribed the lower fraction of potassium in the final catalyst to an incomplete impregnation process, as part of the potassium nitrate was forming separate crystallites instead of depositing on the metal oxide surface [14]. The residual contents of chloride are even much lower due to its extra high volatility. It is noted that the potassium content in VWT(KCI) is higher than that in VWT(KOH), which may be related to the more homogeneous distribution of potassium chloride.

Figure 4 shows the pore size distributions of the catalysts. All the catalysts yield a pore diameter distribution centered at 11.5 nm, which is mainly assigned to the pore structure of the titania support. The impregnation of  $NH_4Cl$  increases the pore volume to some extent due to the corrosion effect of chloride. Pore size distribution confirms that no significant pore blocking occurs upon potassium deposition. Consequently, a negligible effect of poisoning agents on the surface area of the samples is observed (Table 1). The changes of surface area and pore volume do not seem to explain the severe decrease in the activity of the K-poisoned catalysts.

## 3.3 Raman and UV-vis spectra

It is generally accepted that potassium exists in the form of vanadate on the poisoned SCR catalyst although few



Fig. 4 Pore size distributions of the catalysts

evidences have been presented [5]. Figure 5 shows the Raman spectra in the range 1100-800 cm<sup>-1</sup> under ambient conditions, which provide some evidences for the existence of potassium vanadate. A broad band at 986 cm<sup>-1</sup> is assigned to the symmetric V = O stretching mode of two dimensional surface vanadium species. The Raman band of tungsten oxide species is not observed because of their lower intensity compared to that of V = Ogroups. With the introduction of potassium, this band shifts slightly toward lower wavenumbers (980 cm<sup>-1</sup>), suggesting that potassium changes the surface vanadia species from decavanadate to metavanadate form due to its basic nature [8]. An intense band appears at 968 cm<sup>-1</sup> for the KOH- and especially KCl-poisoned catalysts. It is assigned to highly dispersed potassium vanadate, KVO<sub>3</sub>, which appears at 946 cm<sup>-1</sup> in the crystalline phase as reported [8]. Contrarily, the Raman band related to V = O groups shifts toward 990 cm<sup>-1</sup> for the ammonia chloride-treated sample, implying the inverse change of the structure of surface VO<sub>x</sub> species from metavanadate to decavanadate.

To further elucidate the chemical interactions between the poisoning agents and vanadia, the UV-vis spectra of the fresh and poisoned catalysts are shown in Fig. 6. The spectra are dominated by the edge relative to the  $O^{2-} \rightarrow$ Ti<sup>4+</sup> charge transfer of the anatase support at 380 nm [15]. A broad absorption edge in the range 450–550 nm is sensitive to the coordination structure of vanadia, and that

 Table 1
 Structural and textural properties of the catalysts

catalysts	ICP		$S = \frac{1}{2} (m^2 - 1)$	$V_{1}$
	K <sup>+</sup> /wt.%	Cl <sup>-</sup> /wt.%	$ S_{BET}/(m \cdot g)$	$V_{\rm P}/(\rm cm^{-}g^{-})$
VWT	_	_	76	0.289
VWT(NH <sub>4</sub> Cl)	_	0.003	78	0.302
VWT(KOH)	0.58	_	77	0.270
VWT(KCl)	0.66	0.014	77	0.274



**Fig. 5** Raman spectra of (1) VWT, (2) VWT(NH<sub>4</sub>Cl), (3) VWT (KOH) and (4) VWT(KCl) catalysts



**Fig. 6** UV-vis spectra of (1) VWT, (2) VWT(NH<sub>4</sub>Cl), (3) VWT (KOH) and (4) VWT(KCl) catalysts

the higher the absorption edge wavelength, the higher the coordination of polymeric vanadia species [7]. In this case, the absorption edge position increases from 490 nm to 500 nm when impregnation NH<sub>4</sub>Cl onto the catalyst, suggesting that the formation of vanadium chloride and the volatilization of Cl- ions result in the redispersion of vanadia and an increase of their polymerization degree, leading to a higher reducibility. In comparison, the absorption edge position decreases to 470 nm with the impregnation of KOH, implying that K<sup>+</sup> ions combine strongly with dispersed vanadia species. This trend is more obvious for the VWT(KCl) catalyst with the absorption edge position shift to lower wavelengths (460 nm), which may be related to the larger amount of potassium vanadate produced and is consistent with the Raman result.

## 3.4 NH<sub>3</sub> adsorption

It has been established that the surface acidity of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst plays an important role in the selective reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> by NH<sub>3</sub>. To investigate the influences of potassium and chloride on the acid sites of the catalysts, the IR spectra in the ranges of 1800–1200 cm<sup>-1</sup> obtained after NH<sub>3</sub> adsorption at room temperature and 200°C are shown in Fig. 7. The IR spectra of the fresh  $V_2O_5$ -WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst shows the presence of the ammonia species coordinated on Lewis acid sites (1602 cm<sup>-1</sup>,  $\delta_{as}$ NH<sub>3</sub>; 1238–1220 cm<sup>-1</sup>,  $\delta_s$ NH<sub>3</sub>), ammonium ions coordinated to Brønsted acid sites (1675 cm<sup>-1</sup>,  $\delta_s NH_4^+$ ; 1440 cm<sup>-1</sup>,  $\delta_{as}NH_{4}^{+}$ ) [16]. Clearly, ammonia adsorbed on Brønsted acid sites is more predominant than that adsorbed on Lewis acid sites. Activation of ammonia would occur on the surface Brønsted acid sites. On the other hand, the weak bands at 1560 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1346–1320 cm<sup>-1</sup> are assigned to NH<sub>2</sub> scissoring and NH<sub>2</sub> wagging of N<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> species, respectively. It means that dehydrogenation of NH<sub>3</sub> to NH<sub>2</sub> also occurs on the surface of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst even at room temperature. However, the amide species are not observed on the potassium-poisoned catalysts.

It can be seen that the ammonia chemisorption at room temperature is strongly suppressed on the potassiumpoisoned catalysts, and the adsorbed ammonia species are very unstable. As shown in Fig. 7(b), the bands associated with Lewis acid sites (1607 cm<sup>-1</sup>, 1324 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1238 cm<sup>-1</sup>) become much weaker on VWT(KOH) and VWT(KCl) catalysts at 200°C, and those related to Brønsted acid sites (1672 cm<sup>-1</sup> and 1420 cm<sup>-1</sup>) decrease even more sharply. The important first step for SCR reaction is chemisorption of NH<sub>3</sub> on the Brønsted acid site V-OH. Based on the Raman and UV-vis results, potassium can combine with surface vanadia, resulting in a substantial decrease in the ammonia adsorption. The band at 1420 cm<sup>-1</sup> on VWT(KCl) is weaker than that on VWT(KOH), implying that more Brønsted acid sites are neutralized. On the other hand, both the adsorption of ammonia and the stability of the adsorbed ammonia species appear to be little affected by impregnation of ammonia chloride.

## 3.5 Redox property

Figure 8 shows the H<sub>2</sub>-TPR profiles of the catalysts. The fresh V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst shows two reduction peaks at 478°C and 769°C, corresponding to the reduction of V<sup>5+</sup>  $\rightarrow$  V<sup>3+</sup> and W<sup>6+</sup>  $\rightarrow$  W<sup>0</sup> which are promoted by strong interaction with TiO<sub>2</sub> support, respectively [6,17]. The low-temperature reduction peak shifts to 380°C for the VWT(NH<sub>4</sub>Cl) catalyst which can be explained by the fact that vanadate species are easily reacting with ammonia chloride to form soluble vanadium chloride. Gazzoli *et al.* 



Fig. 7 FTIR spectra of (1) VWT, (2) VWT(NH<sub>4</sub>Cl), (3) VWT(KOH) and (4) VWT (KCl) catalysts arising from contact of NH<sub>3</sub> at (a) room temperature and (b)  $200^{\circ}$ C

[18] assigned the hydrogen consumption in the range  $303^{\circ}C-343^{\circ}C$  to small polymeric VO<sub>x</sub> anchored to the zirconia surface and in the range  $403^{\circ}C-453^{\circ}C$  to larger polymeric aggregates for V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>/ZrO<sub>2</sub> catalyst after leaching with an ammonia solution. Similarly, the shift of the reduction peak toward lower temperatures in our case can be also ascribed to the formation of polymeric VO<sub>x</sub> species anchored to the titania surface, which is more reducible. Contrarily, the reducibility of vanadia is weakened by the impregnation of potassium hydroxide with the low-temperature reduction peak shifting to  $497^{\circ}C$  for VWT (KOH), implying the formation of less active vanadate



Fig. 8  $H_2$ -TPR curves of (1) fresh, (2) VWT(NH<sub>4</sub>Cl), (3) VWT (KOH) and (4) VWT(KCl) catalysts

species such as KVO<sub>3</sub> [19]. The reducibility of tungsten oxide appears to be improved for both VWT(NH<sub>4</sub>Cl) and VWT(KOH) catalysts, which is probably due to the chemical transformation of WO<sub>3</sub> to more active WO<sub>4</sub><sup>2–</sup> species and further polytungstate [20]. A similar promotion effect of potassium addition on the onset temperature of the reduction of WO<sub>3</sub> has been reported for WO<sub>3</sub>/SiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst [21]. However, WO<sub>x</sub> species are suggested to contribute little to the low-temperature redox property of the catalyst since its reduction temperature is much higher than that of VO<sub>x</sub>.

The TPR curve of VWT(KCl) catalyst represents three reduction peaks. The first reduction peak at  $380^{\circ}$ C becomes much weaker and the second one shifts to  $506^{\circ}$ C. So there are at least two forms of vanadia, i.e., highly dispersed and aggregated species. In respect to NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, the relatively stable potassium chloride reduces the availability of free chloride ions which act as the promoter for the redispersion of vanadia during the impregnation procedure, and the formation of O = V-OHCl groups would be replaced by the alkali metal doped during the drying and calcination processes [17]. Thus, the first reduction peak decreases sharply in intensity. Meanwhile, the formation of more potassium vanadate causes the shift of the second reduction peak to higher temperature.

#### 3.6 NH<sub>3</sub> oxidation

Figure 9 shows the  $NH_3$ -TPO curves of the  $V_2O_5$ -WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts. The onset of ammonia catalytic oxidation



**Fig. 9** NH<sub>3</sub> oxidation curves of the catalysts

occurs at 250°C over the fresh catalyst, and the ammonia conversion reaches 94% at 450°C. The VWT(NH<sub>4</sub>Cl) catalyst exhibits a slightly higher activity for ammonia oxidation and the potassium-poisoned catalysts show worsened catalytic activities, which correlates well with their redox properties. Generally, the high activity of the catalyst for competitive ammonia oxidation at high temperatures will lead to a low NO<sub>x</sub> conversion due to the lack of the reductant. However, it does not conform to the V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalysts investigated here. It is suggested that a key step in the SCR reaction is the activation of the adsorbed ammonia species, i.e., ammonia protonation to ammonium ions on Brønsted acid sites, and hydrogen abstracting of ammonia coordinated on Lewis acid sites to a less important degree. It depends strongly on the acidic properties of the catalysts and is severely suppressed by the addition of potassium.

# 4 Conclusions

The deactivation effects of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl, KOH and KCl on the NH<sub>3</sub>-SCR activity of V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-WO<sub>3</sub>/TiO<sub>2</sub> catalyst were investigated. The changes of physical properties such as surface area and pore structure can be excluded responsible for the severe deactivation of the potassium-poisoned catalysts. The activation of the adsorbed ammonia species, which depends strongly on the acidic property of the catalysts, is suggested to be a key step in the SCR reaction. The impregnation with potassium chloride results in the formation of less active potassium vanadate instead of the redispersion of more active vanadia in the case of the treatment with ammonia chloride. More importantly, the chemical combination of potassium with vanadia and tungsten oxides decreases the amount and stability of ammonium ions coordinated on Brønsted acid sites. The deactivation of the catalyst depends strongly on the amount

of potassium, and the role of anionic species is much less important.

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