

# Select the Right NO<sub>x</sub> Control Technology

*Consider the degree of emission reduction needed, the type of fuel, combustion device design, and operational factors.*

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**M**ost major industrialized urban areas in the U.S. are unable to meet the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) for ozone. Atmospheric studies have shown that ozone formation is the result of a complex set of chemical reactions involving volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>). These studies indicate that many urban areas with VOC/NO<sub>x</sub> ratios greater than 15:1 can reduce ambient ozone levels only by reducing NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. Many states, therefore, are implementing NO<sub>x</sub> control regulations for combustion devices in order to achieve compliance with the NAAQS ozone standard.

This article discusses the characterization of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from industrial combustion devices. It then provides guidance on how to evaluate the applicable NO<sub>x</sub> control technologies and select an appropriate control method.

## Characterizing emissions

Most industrial combustion devices have not been tested to establish their baseline NO<sub>x</sub> emission levels. Rather, the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from these units have been simply estimated using various factors. In light of recent regulations, however, it is mandatory that the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from affected units now be known with certainty. This will establish each unit's present compliance status and allow definition of the applicable control technologies for those units that will require modification to achieve compliance.

Many of the emissions inventories

supplied by industry were derived from the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's "AP-42 Emission Factors" document (1). NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from combustion devices are quite variable and depend on a number of design, operational, and fuel conditions. Thus, the AP-42 factors, which were derived from the results of a number of test programs sponsored by the EPA during the 1970s, may be inaccurate when applied to a particular combustion device.

It is, therefore, important to test each combustion device to verify its NO<sub>x</sub> emissions characteristics. The testing process should be streamlined to provide timely and necessary information for making decisions regarding the applicability of NO<sub>x</sub> control technologies.

The basic approach is to select one device from a class of units (that is, of same design and size) for characterization testing (NO<sub>x</sub>, CO, and O<sub>2</sub>). Testing is conducted at three load points that represent the normal operating range of the unit, with excess oxygen variation testing conducted at each load point. Figure 1 illustrates the typical characterization test results. The remaining units in the class are tested at only one load point, at or near full load.

The operational data obtained during testing, in conjunction with the NO<sub>x</sub> and CO data, are used to define the compliance status of each unit, as well as the applicable NO<sub>x</sub> control technologies for those devices that must be modified. In most instances, this approach will allow multiple units to be tested in one day and



provide the necessary operational data the engineer needs to properly evaluate the potential NO<sub>x</sub> control technologies. Table 1 lists the operational data that should be obtained during the characterization testing.

### Fundamental concepts

Reasonably available control technology (RACT) standards for NO<sub>x</sub> emissions are defined in terms of an emission limit, such as 0.2 lb NO<sub>x</sub>/MMBtu, rather than mandating specific NO<sub>x</sub> control technologies. Depending on the fuel fired and the design of the combustion device, a myriad of control technologies may be viable options. Before selecting RACT for a particular combustion device, it is necessary to understand how NO<sub>x</sub> emissions are formed so that the appropriate control strategy may be formulated.

NO<sub>x</sub> emissions formed during the combustion process are a function of the fuel composition, the operating mode, and the basic design of the boiler and combustion equipment. Each of these parameters can play a significant role in the final level of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions.

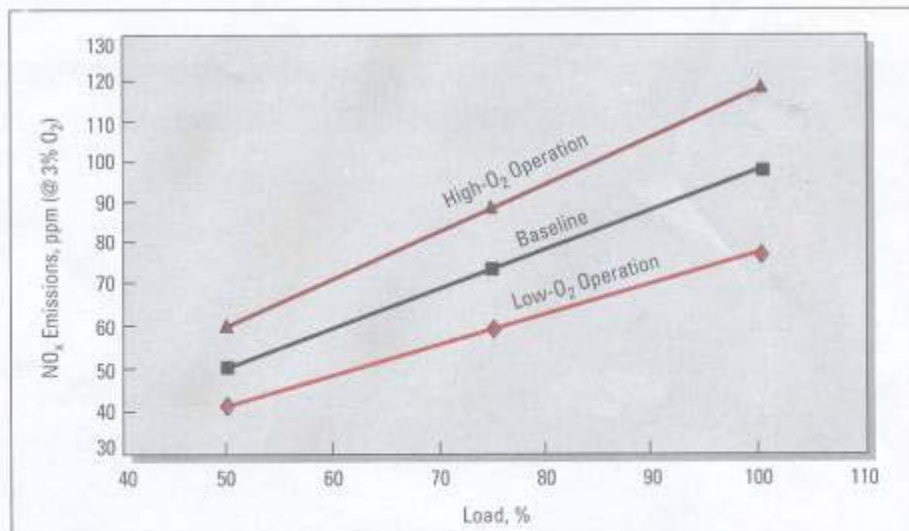
NO<sub>x</sub> formation is attributed to three distinct mechanisms:

- thermal NO<sub>x</sub> formation;
- prompt (*i.e.*, rapidly forming) NO formation; and
- fuel NO<sub>x</sub> formation.

Each of these mechanisms is driven by three basic parameters — temperature of combustion, time above threshold temperatures in an oxidizing or reducing atmosphere, and turbulence during initial combustion.

**Thermal NO<sub>x</sub>** formation in gas-, oil-, and coal-fired devices results from thermal fixation of atmospheric nitrogen in the combustion air. Early investigations of NO<sub>x</sub> formation were based upon kinetic analyses for gaseous fuel combustion (2). These analyses by Zeldovich yielded an Arrhenius-type equation showing the relative importance of time, temperature, and oxygen and nitrogen concentrations on NO<sub>x</sub> formation in a pre-mixed flame (that is, the reactants are thoroughly mixed before combustion).

While thermal NO<sub>x</sub> formation in combustion devices cannot actually be deter-



■ Figure 1. Characterization testing gathers NO<sub>x</sub> emission data as a function of oxygen level and operating load.

**Table 1. Collect the following operational and emissions data for each device during characterization testing.**

Flow Rates	Pressures, psig	Emissions
Fuel, MMBtu	Steam	Plant Oxygen, %
Steam, klb/h	Drum	Test Equipment
Feed Water, klb/h	Natural Gas Supply	Oxygen, %
Natural Gas, kscfh	Burner	Carbon Monoxide, ppm
Draft, in. H <sub>2</sub> O	Temperatures, °F	NO <sub>x</sub> , ppm
Forced-draft Fan	Feed Water/Economizer Exit	NO <sub>x</sub> Corrected to 3% O <sub>2</sub> , ppm
Windbox	Steam	lb/h
Furnace	Ambient, Wet Bulb	lb/MM Btu
Flame	Ambient, Dry Bulb	
Width, ft	Air Preheater	
Length, ft	Air In	
Furnace Vibration, mils	Air Out (combustion)	
Ultimate Fuel Analysis (specifics depend on type of fuel)	Gas In	
	Gas Out	
	Stack	
	Firebox	

mined using the Zeldovich relationship, it does illustrate the importance of the major factors that influence thermal NO<sub>x</sub> formation, and that NO<sub>x</sub> formation increases exponentially with combustion temperatures above 2,800°F.

Experimentally measured NO<sub>x</sub> formation rates near the flame zone are higher than those predicted by the Zeldovich relationship. This rapidly forming NO is referred to as **prompt NO**. The discrepancy between the predicted and measured thermal NO<sub>x</sub> values is attributed to the simplifying assumptions used in the derivation of the Zeldovich equation,

**Table 2. Use this chart to screen potential NO<sub>x</sub> control technologies.**

Technique	Description	Advantages	Disadvantages	Impacts To Consider	Applicability	NO <sub>x</sub> Reduction
Low Excess Air (LEA)	Reduces oxygen availability	Easy operational modification	Low NO <sub>x</sub> reduction potential	High carbon monoxide emissions; Flame length; Flame stability	All fuels	1–15%
Off-Stoichiometric Combustion (OS) a. Burners-out-of-service (BOOS) b. Overfire Air (OFA) c. Air Lances	Staged combustion, creating fuel-rich and fuel-lean zones	Low operating cost; No capital equipment required for BOOS	a. Typically requires higher air flow to control carbon monoxide b. Relatively high capital cost c. Moderate capital cost	Flame length; Forced-draft fan capacity; Burner header pressure	All fuels; Multiple-burner devices	30–60%
Low-NO <sub>x</sub> Burners (LNB)	Provides internal staged combustion, thus reducing peak flame temperatures and oxygen availability	Low operating cost; Compatible with FGR as a combination technology to maximize NO <sub>x</sub> reduction	Moderately high capital cost; Applicability depends on combustion device and fuels, design characteristics, waste streams, etc.	Forced-draft fan capacity; Flame length; Design compatibility; Turndown flame stability	All fuels	30–50%
Flue Gas Recirculation (FGR)	Up to 20–30% of the flue gas is recirculated and mixed with the combustion air, thus decreasing peak flame temperatures	High NO <sub>x</sub> reduction potential for natural gas and low-nitrogen fuels	Moderately high capital cost; Moderately high operating cost; Affects heat transfer and system pressures	Forced-draft fan capacity; Furnace pressure; Burner pressure drop; Turndown flame stability	Gas fuels and low-nitrogen fuels	40–80%
Water/Steam Injection (WSI)	Injection of steam or water at the burner, which decreases flame temperature	Moderate capital cost; NO <sub>x</sub> reductions similar to FGR	Efficiency penalty due to additional water vapor loss and fan power requirements for increased mass flow	Flame stability; Efficiency penalty	Gas fuels and low-nitrogen fuels	40–70%
Reduced Air Preheat (RAPH)	Air preheater modification to reduce preheat, thereby reducing flame temperature	High NO <sub>x</sub> reduction potential	Significant efficiency loss (1% per 40°F)	Forced-draft fan capacity; Efficiency penalty	Gas fuels and low-nitrogen fuels	25–65%
Selective Catalytic Reduction (SCR)	Catalyst located in flue gas stream (usually upstream of air heater) promotes reaction of ammonia with NO <sub>x</sub>	High NO <sub>x</sub> removal	Very high capital cost; High operating cost; Extensive ductwork to and from reactor required; Large volume reactor must be sited; Increased pressure drop may require induced-draft fan or larger forced-draft fan; Reduced efficiency; Ammonia sulfate removal equipment for air heater required; Water treatment of air heater wash required	Space requirements; Ammonia slip; Hazardous-waste disposal	Gas fuels and low-sulfur liquid and solid fuels	70–90%
Selective Noncatalytic Reduction (SNCR) — Urea Injection	Injection of urea into furnace to react with NO <sub>x</sub> to form nitrogen and water	Low capital cost; Relatively simple system; Moderate NO <sub>x</sub> removal; Nontoxic chemical; Typically low energy injection sufficient	Temperature-dependent; Design must consider boiler operating conditions and design; NO <sub>x</sub> reduction may decrease at lower loads	Furnace geometry and residence time; Temperature profile	All fuels	25–50%
Selective Noncatalytic Reduction (SNCR) — Ammonia Injection (Thermal DeNO <sub>x</sub> )	Injection of ammonia into furnace to react with NO <sub>x</sub> to form nitrogen and water	Low operating cost; Moderate NO <sub>x</sub> removal	Moderately high capital cost; Ammonia handling, storage, vaporization, and injection systems	Furnace geometry and residence time; Temperature profile	All fuels	25–50%

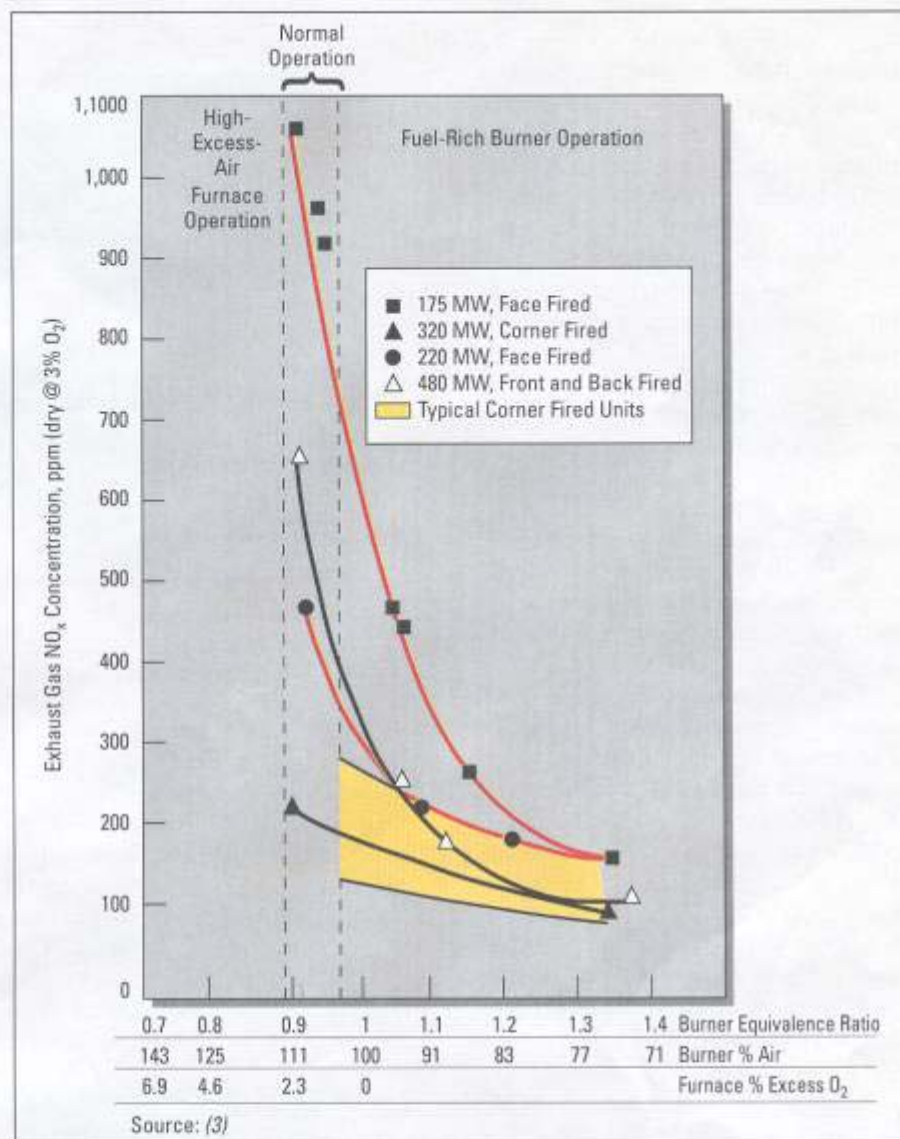


such as the equilibrium assumption that  $O = \frac{1}{2}O_2$ . Near the hydrocarbon-air flame zone, the concentration of the formed radicals, such as O and OH, can exceed the equilibrium values, which enhances the rate of  $NO_x$  formation. However, the importance of prompt NO in  $NO_x$  emissions is negligible in comparison to thermal and fuel  $NO_x$ .

When nitrogen is introduced with the fuel, completely different characteristics are observed. The  $NO_x$  formed from the reaction of the fuel nitrogen with oxygen is termed **fuel  $NO_x$** . The most common form of fuel nitrogen is organically bound nitrogen present in liquid or solid fuels where individual nitrogen atoms are bonded to carbon or other atoms. These bonds break more easily than the diatomic  $N_2$  bonds so that fuel  $NO_x$  formation rates can be much higher than those of thermal  $NO_x$ . In addition, any nitrogen compounds (e.g., ammonia) introduced into the furnace react in much the same way.

Fuel  $NO_x$  is much more sensitive to stoichiometry than to thermal conditions. For this reason, traditional thermal treatments, such as flue gas recirculation and water injection, do not effectively reduce  $NO_x$  emissions from liquid and solid fuel combustion.

$NO_x$  emissions can be controlled either during the combustion process or after combustion is complete. Combustion control technologies rely on air or fuel staging techniques to take advantage of the kinetics of  $NO_x$  formation or introducing inerts that inhibit the formation of  $NO_x$  during combustion, or both. Post-combustion control technologies rely on introducing reactants in specified temperature regimes that destroy  $NO_x$  either with or without the use of catalyst to promote the destruction. Table 2 summarizes the commercially available  $NO_x$  control technologies, as well as their relative efficiencies, advantages and disadvantages, applicability, and impacts.



■ Figure 2. Burners-out-of-service can be an effective combustion staging technique.

### Combustion control

The simplest of the combustion control technologies is **low-excess-air operation** — that is, reducing the excess air level to the point of some constraint, such as carbon monoxide formation, flame length, flame stability, and so on. Unfortunately, low-excess-air operation has proven to yield only moderate  $NO_x$  reductions, if any.

Three technologies that have demonstrated their effectiveness in controlling  $NO_x$  emissions are off-stoichiometric combustion, low- $NO_x$  burners, and combustion temperature reduction. The first two are applicable to all fuels, while the third is applica-

ble only to natural gas and low-nitrogen-content fuel oils.

**Off-stoichiometric, or staged, combustion** is achieved by modifying the primary combustion zone stoichiometry — that is, the air/fuel ratio. This may be accomplished operationally or by equipment modifications.

An operational technique known as **burners-out-of-service (BOOS)** involves terminating the fuel flow to selected burners while leaving the air registers open. The remaining burners operate fuel-rich, thereby limiting oxygen availability, lowering peak flame temperatures, and reducing  $NO_x$  formation. The unreacted prod-



ucts combine with the air from the terminated-fuel burners to complete burnout before exiting the furnace. Figure 2 illustrates the effectiveness of this technique applied to electric utility boilers.

Staged combustion can also be achieved by installing air-only ports, referred to as overfire air (OFA) ports, above the burner zone, redirecting a portion of the air from the burners to the OFA ports. A variation of this concept, lance air, consists of installing air tubes around the periphery of each burner to supply staged air.

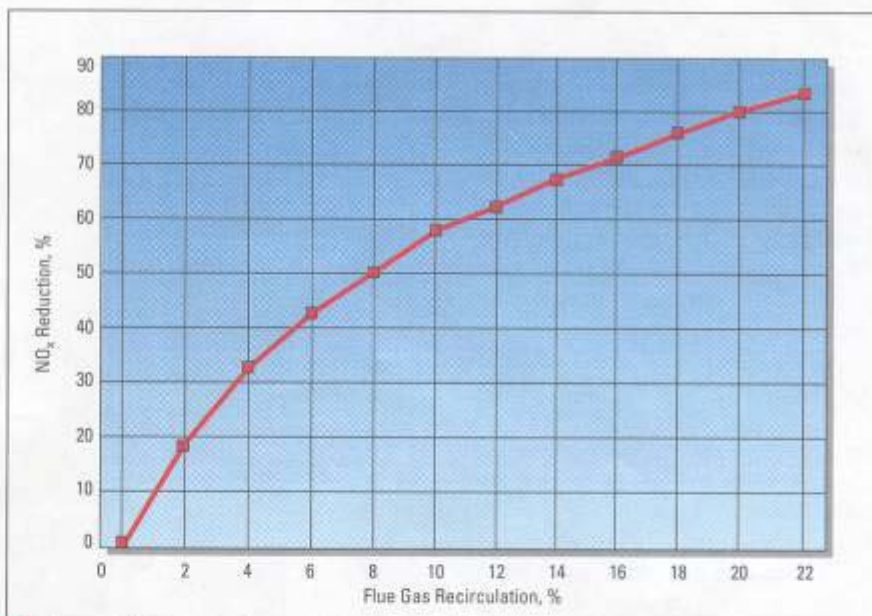
BOOS, overfire air, and lance air achieve similar results. These techniques are generally applicable only to larger, multiple-burner, combustion devices.

**Low-NO<sub>x</sub> burners** are designed to achieve the staging effect internally. The air and fuel flow fields are partitioned and controlled to achieve the desired air/fuel ratio, which reduces NO<sub>x</sub> formation and results in complete burnout within the furnace. Low-NO<sub>x</sub> burners are applicable to practically all combustion devices with circular burner designs. [Low-NO<sub>x</sub> burners are covered in more detail in the article by Garg, pp. 46-49. — Editor]

Combustion temperature reduction is effective at reducing thermal NO<sub>x</sub>, but not fuel NO<sub>x</sub>. One way to reduce the combustion temperature is to introduce a diluent. **Flue gas recirculation (FGR)** is one such technique.

FGR recirculates a portion of the flue gas leaving the combustion process back into the windbox. The recirculated flue gas, usually on the order of 10-20% of the combustion air, provides sufficient dilution to decrease NO<sub>x</sub> emission. Figure 3 correlates the degree of emission reduction with the amount of flue gas recirculated.

On gas-fired units, emissions are reduced well beyond the levels normally achievable with staged combustion control. In fact, FGR is prob-



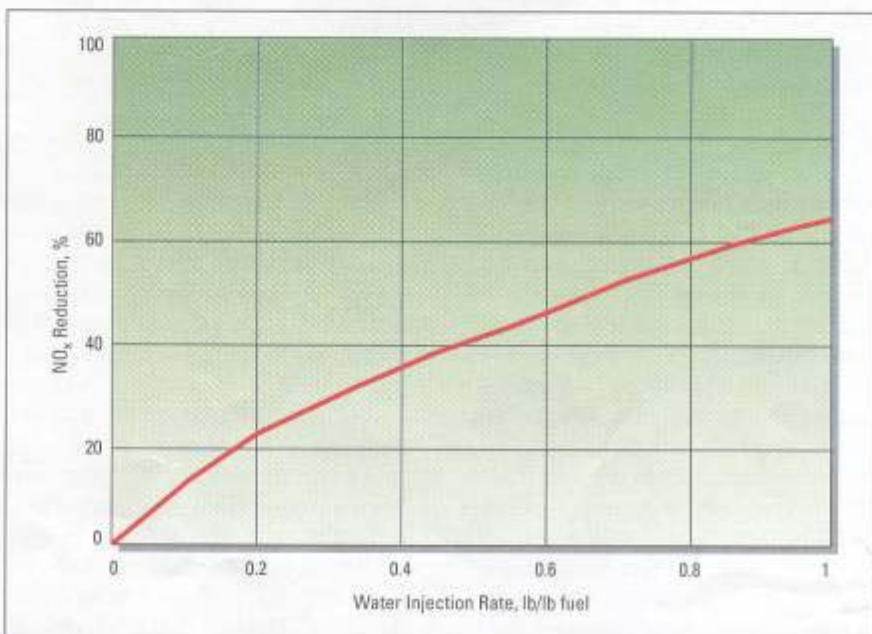
■ Figure 3. NO<sub>x</sub> reduction is a function of the amount of flue gas recirculated.

ably the most effective and least troublesome system for NO<sub>x</sub> reduction for gas-fired combustors.

An advantage of FGR is that it can be used with most other combustion control methods. Many industrial low-NO<sub>x</sub> burner systems on the market today incorporate induced FGR. In these designs, a duct is installed between the stack and forced-draft

inlet (suction). Flue gas products are recirculated through the forced-draft fan, thus eliminating the need for a separate fan.

**Water injection** is another method that works on the principle of combustion dilution, very similar to FGR. In addition to dilution, it reduces the combustion air temperature by absorbing the latent heat of vaporiza-



■ Figure 4. Water injection can reduce NO<sub>x</sub> emissions.



tion of the water before the combustion air reaches the primary combustion zone.

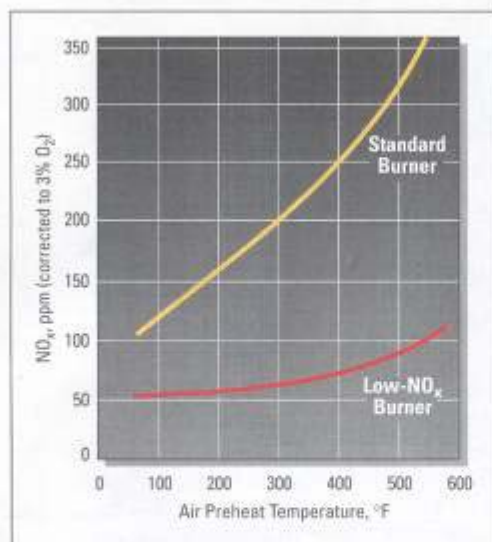
Few full-scale retrofit or test trials of water injection have been performed. What little data exist suggest that the  $\text{NO}_x$  reductions follow the relationship shown in Figure 4.

Until recently, water injection has not been used as a primary  $\text{NO}_x$  control method on any combustion devices other than gas turbines because of the efficiency penalty resulting from the absorption of usable energy to evaporate the water. In some cases, water injection represents a viable option to consider when moderate  $\text{NO}_x$  reductions are required to achieve compliance.

**Reduction of the air preheat temperature** is another viable technique for cutting  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions, as shown in Figure 5. This lowers peak flame temperatures, thereby reducing  $\text{NO}_x$  formation. The efficiency penalty, however, may be substantial. A rule of thumb is a 1% efficiency loss for each 40°F reduction in preheat. In some cases this may be offset by adding or enlarging the existing economizer.

### Post-combustion control

There are two technologies for controlling  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions after formation in the combustion process — selective catalytic reduction (SCR) and selective noncatalytic reduction (SNCR). Both of these processes have seen very limited application in the U.S. for external combustion devices. In **selective catalytic reduction**, a gas mixture of ammonia with a carrier gas (typically compressed air) is injected upstream of a catalytic reactor operating at temperatures between 450°F and 750°F.  $\text{NO}_x$  control efficiencies are typically in the 70–90% percent range, depending on the type of catalyst, the amount of ammonia injected, the initial  $\text{NO}_x$  level, and the age of the catalyst.



■ Figure 5. Air preheat temperature affects boiler  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions.

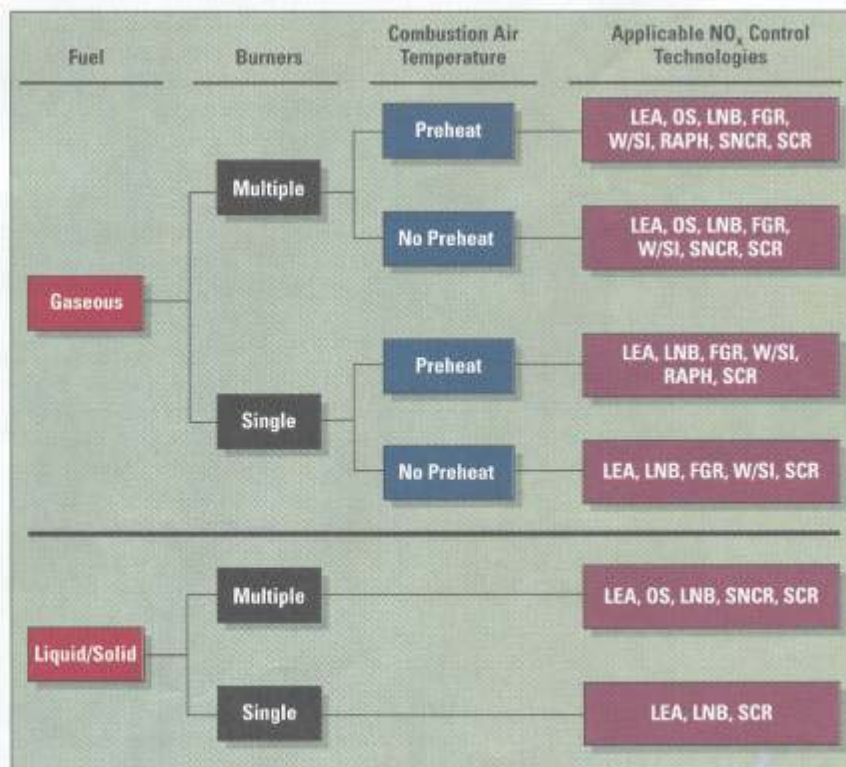
The retrofit of SCR on existing combustion devices can be complex and costly. Apart from the ammonia storage, preparation, and control monitoring requirements, significant modifications to the convective pass ducts may be necessary. [SCR is discussed

by Cho in the article following this one, pp. 39–45. — Editor]

In **selective noncatalytic reduction**, ammonia- or urea-based reagents are injected into the furnace exit region, where the flue gas is in the range of 1,700–2,000°F. The efficiency of this process depends on the temperature of the gas, the reagent mixing with the gas, the residence time within the temperature window, and the amount of reagent injected relative to the concentration of  $\text{NO}_x$  present. The optimum gas temperature for the reaction is about 1,750°F; deviations from this temperature result in a lower  $\text{NO}_x$  reduction efficiency. Application of SNCR, therefore, must be carefully assessed, as its effectiveness is very dependent on combustion device design and operation.

### Technology selection

As noted previously, selection of applicable  $\text{NO}_x$  control technologies depends on a number of fuel, design, and operational factors. Figure 6 sum-



■ Figure 6. Use these guidelines to identify potential  $\text{NO}_x$  control technologies.



marizes the choices for various scenarios. Figure 6 and Table 2 can be used to identify the potential control technologies for boilers and process heaters. After identifying the applicable control technologies, an economic evaluation must be conducted to rank the technologies according to their cost effectiveness. Management can then select the optimum NO<sub>x</sub> control technology for the specific unit.

It should be noted that the efficiencies of NO<sub>x</sub> control technologies are not additive, but rather multiplicative. Efficiencies for existing combustion devices have been demonstrated in terms of percent reduction from baseline emissions level. This must be taken into account when considering combinations of technology.

Consider, for example, the following hypothetical case. Assume a baseline NO<sub>x</sub> emissions level of 100 ppmv and control technology efficiencies as follows: low-excess-air operation (LEA), 10%; low-NO<sub>x</sub> burners (LNB), 40%; and flue gas recirculation (FGR), 60%. The three controls are installed in the progressive order of LEA-LNB-FGR. The stage-wise emission reductions are shown in Table 3.

It should also be noted that combining same-principle technologies (for example, two types of staged combustion) would not provide a fur-

**Table 3. NO<sub>x</sub> control efficiencies are multiplicative.**

Control Technology	Efficiency	Final NO <sub>x</sub> Level, ppm
Low-Excess-Air	10%	100(1-0.10) = 90
Low-NO <sub>x</sub> Burner	40%	90(1-0.40) = 54
Flue Gas Recirculation	60%	54(1-0.6) = 21.6

ther significant NO<sub>x</sub> reduction than either of the combination, since they operate on the same principle.

It must be emphasized that virtually all of the available control technologies have the potential for adversely affecting the performance and/or operation of the unit. The operational data obtained during the NO<sub>x</sub> characterization testing, therefore, must be carefully evaluated in light of such potential impacts before selecting applicable control technologies. Operational limitations such as flame envelope, furnace pressure, forced-draft fan capacity, and the like must be identified for each potential technology and their corresponding impacts quantified. (Reference (4), for example, discusses these items in detail.)

As anyone familiar with combustion processes knows, one technology does not fit all. Careful consideration must be used to select the appropriate, compatible control technology or technologies to ensure compliance at least cost with minimal impact on performance, operation, and capacity. **CEP**

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