

Pathways for CO₂ formation and conversion during Fischer–Tropsch synthesis on iron-based catalysts

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CO₂ reaction and formation pathways during Fischer–Tropsch synthesis (FTS) on a co-precipitated Fe–Zn catalyst promoted with Cu and K were studied using a kinetic analysis of reversible reactions and with the addition of ¹³C-labeled and unlabeled CO₂ to synthesis gas. Primary pathways for the removal of adsorbed oxygen formed in CO dissociation steps include reactions with adsorbed hydrogen to form H₂O and with adsorbed CO to form CO₂. The H₂O selectivity for these pathways is much higher than that predicted from WGS reaction equilibrium; therefore readsorption of H₂O followed by its subsequent reaction with CO-derived intermediates leads to the net formation of CO₂ with increasing reactor residence time. The forward rate of CO₂ formation increases with increasing residence time as H₂O concentration increases, but the net CO₂ formation rate decreases because of the gradual approach to WGS reaction equilibrium. CO₂ addition to synthesis gas does not influence CO₂ forward rates, but increases the rate of their reverse steps in the manner predicted by kinetic analyses of reversible reactions using non-equilibrium thermodynamic treatments. Thus the addition of CO₂ could lead to the minimization of CO₂ formation during FTS and to the preferential removal of oxygen as H₂O. This, in turn, leads to lower average H₂/CO ratios throughout the catalyst bed and to higher olefin content and C₅₊ selectivity among reaction products. The addition of ¹³CO₂ to H₂/¹²CO reactants did not lead to significant isotopic enrichment in hydrocarbon products, indicating that CO₂ is much less reactive than CO in chain initiation and growth. We find no evidence of competitive reactions of CO₂ to form hydrocarbons during reactions of H₂/CO/CO₂ mixtures, except *via* gas phase and adsorbed CO intermediates, which become kinetically indistinguishable from CO₂ as the chemical interconversion of CO and CO₂ becomes rapid at WGS reaction equilibrium.

KEY WORDS: CO₂ formation; Fischer–Tropsch synthesis; iron-based catalysts.

1. Introduction

The Fischer–Tropsch synthesis (FTS) converts synthesis gas mixtures derived from coal or natural gas into useful fuels and petrochemicals [1–5]. Fe-based materials catalyze this reaction without loss of selectivity or catalyst damage over a wider range of reaction conditions than Co-based catalysts. Fe catalysts also give higher selectivity to olefins and alcohols than Co catalysts. Structural and chemical promoters (*e.g.* SiO₂, ZnO, CuO, K₂CO₃) are typically present in Fe-based catalysts and these promoters influence their surface areas, the extent to which oxide precursors convert to Fe carbides, and the rate of undesired side reactions. Our previous studies have probed the role of these promoters on the structure and function of catalysts prepared from Fe–Zn oxide precursors [6–8]. Zn is present as ZnFe₂O₄ and inhibits sintering of Fe oxides during thermal treatments [7]. CuO and K₂CO₃ increase reduction and carburization rates during the activation of the oxide precursors in synthesis gas and lead to higher active surface areas and to a larger number of active sites [6–8]. Potassium also titrates residual acid and hydrogenation sites and increases olefin content and product molecular weight [4,7,9,10].

The removal of chemisorbed oxygen atoms (O*) formed in the CO dissociation steps required for monomer formation during FTS can occur *via* reactions of O* with co-adsorbed hydrogen (H*) or carbon monoxide (CO*). These reactions lead to the formation of H₂O and CO₂, respectively, as the oxygen carrier. In this manner, H₂O and CO₂ both form as primary FTS products. CO₂ and H₂O can also form *via* secondary reactions, but thermodynamic constraints lead to the net formation of CO₂ and the net depletion of H₂O at typical FTS reaction conditions. This occurs with the overall stoichiometry of the water–gas shift (WGS) reactions on Fe-based FTS catalysts [5,11,12]. Fe, Zn and Cu oxides can also provide active sites for these CO₂-forming reactions [11–13], which are useful for coal-derived synthesis gas streams (H₂/CO ≈ 0.7), because oxygen rejection by excess CO reactants allows more efficient use of these CO-rich streams. For synthesis gas streams derived from natural gas, CO₂ formation leads to high H₂/CO ratios along the reactor bed and to lower olefin and C₅₊ selectivities. The control of oxygen removal *via* both primary removal and secondary oxygen removal pathways remains a critical issue in the design and use of Fe-based catalysts for FTS reactions.

The mechanism of CO₂ formation and the role of CO₂ in chain growth remain controversial. Some studies propose that FTS and WGS reactions proceed on different

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sites [13–15] with carbide sites involved in FTS and Fe₃O₄ as the active phase for WGS reactions involving surface formate (HCOO*) intermediates [16]. The rapid dynamic interconversion between FeC_x and Fe₃O₄ during FTS [8] makes the site assignments for these two reactions difficult to support with definitive experimental evidence. Most studies, however, do not consider primary CO₂ formation routes at all during FTS. The non-zero CO₂ selectivity observed at low CO conversions and low H₂O concentrations, and the expected presence of O* and CO* during FTS, show that CO₂ can also form as a primary product. Yet another CO₂ formation route involves the synthesis and decomposition of organic acids [17–19]. CO₂ can form *via* decarboxylation of organic acids formed from FTS alcohol products. The addition of ¹⁴CH₃OH [17] or 1-pentanol [1-¹⁴C] [18] to H₂/¹²CO led to higher ¹⁴C contents in CO₂ than in CO, suggesting an intermediate role of alcohols in CO₂ formation. The absence of ¹⁴C in C₁–C₄ products during the addition of 1-pentanol [1-¹⁴C] suggests that CO₂ is not formed *via* direct alcohol decomposition, but rather *via* oxidation of alcohol to carboxylic acids followed by subsequent decarboxylation to form CO₂ and an olefin [18].

Another important aspect of CO₂ chemistry during FTS is its potential role in monomer formation and chain initiation. The addition of ¹⁴CO₂ (1.4 mol%) to H₂/¹²CO (1:1) did not lead to detectable ¹⁴C contents on fused Fe catalysts (501 K, 0.1 MPa, H₂/CO = 1) [19]. More recent studies by Xu *et al.* [20,21], however, detected almost identical radioactivity per mole in CO₂ and in hydrocarbons on an Fe–Si–K catalyst (543 K, 0.8 MPa, H₂/CO = 0.7), suggesting that each hydrocarbon molecule contained one ¹⁴C from ¹⁴CO₂. These latter results are surprising in view of the isotopic and chemical equilibration detected between CO and CO₂ in the effluent stream, which would render the chemical source of the carbon atoms indeterminate.

Here, we describe the role of CuO and K₂CO₃ promoters on primary and secondary CO₂ formation pathways during FTS and probe the relative rates of primary oxygen removal *via* reaction with adsorbed hydrogen (to form H₂O) or with adsorbed CO (to form CO₂). ¹³CO₂ addition studies at conditions far from water–gas shift equilibrium are used to show that CO₂ is essentially inert in chain growth or initiation reactions and that its chemical conversion to hydrocarbons occurs *via* surface or gas phase CO intermediates. Finally, a reversible reaction kinetic analysis approach is developed in order to describe the effects of CO₂ recycle on CO₂ selectivity. As suggested previously [9], the presence of CO₂ inhibits the net rate of WGS during FTS on Fe-based catalysts. The addition or recycle of CO₂ decreases the net rate of CO₂ formation and increases the fraction of the oxygen atoms in CO removed as H₂O, an important practical issue in the use of Fe-based catalysts for H₂/CO mixtures derived from natural gas.

2. Experimental methods

All catalysts were prepared by co-precipitation from a solution containing Zn and Fe nitrates at a constant pH of 7.0 to form Fe–Zn oxides, which were then impregnated to incipient wetness with aqueous solutions of copper nitrate and potassium carbonate [6,7]. These catalysts are denoted as FeZn_{0.1}, FeZn_{0.1}Cu_{0.01}, FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02} and FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}Cu_{0.01}; the subscripts give the atomic ratios for each promoter relative to Fe. ¹³CO₂ addition experiments were carried out on a high surface area FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.04}Cu_{0.02} catalyst synthesized using previously reported procedures [7], which lead to very high catalytic activity by exploiting the use of surface-active alcohol additives in order to prevent loss of surface area during drying of Fe–Zn oxide precursors.

Fischer–Tropsch synthesis rates and selectivities were measured in a single-pass packed-bed reactor with plug-flow hydrodynamics (1.125 cm diameter, SS-304); this reactor was held within a resistively heated three-zone furnace (ATS 302C Series 3210). Catalyst samples (0.4 g, 100–180 μm) were diluted with ground quartz (~11 g, 100–180 μm) in order to prevent reactor temperature gradients caused by the exothermic FTS reactions. Axial temperatures were measured using a movable thermocouple; they were within ±0.5 K of the average temperature along the entire bed length. Synthesis gas (H₂/CO/N₂62/31/7, Praxair, N₂ internal standard) was purified using carbonyl (Sorb-Tech RL-13, activated carbon) and water (Matheson 452 A, 4 Å sieve) removal traps. An equimolar ¹²CO₂/Ar mixture (Linde, Air Products Co.) was used in ¹²CO₂ addition experiments carried out to simulate recycle conditions. The pressure of ¹²CO₂ was varied while maintaining a constant synthesis gas pressure. The system pressure was controlled using a dome-loaded regulator (Mity Mite Model S-91xw). All transfer lines after the reactor were kept at 433–453 K in order to prevent condensation of C₁–C₁₅ products. ¹³CO₂ addition experiments were carried out in order to probe the role of CO₂ in chain initiation and growth by adding 0.1 MPa ¹³CO₂ (Cambridge Isotope Laboratories Inc., 99% isotopic purity) at 508 K, 0.8 MPa synthesis gas pressure, and an H₂/CO ratio of 2.0.

Reactant and effluent streams were analyzed using on-line gas chromatography (Hewlett-Packard, Model 5890 Series II). C₁–C₁₅ hydrocarbon concentrations were measured by direct sampling of the effluent stream using a flame ionization detector and a methyl silicone capillary column (Hewlett-Packard HP-1, 50 m × 0.32 mm × 1.05 μm). Fixed gases and CH₄ were analyzed using a thermal conductivity detector and a Porapak Q packed column (15.2 cm × 0.318 cm). The ¹³C content in the products of ¹³CO₂/¹²CO/H₂ mixtures was measured using a mass selective detector (Hewlett-Packard, Model 5890; Series II/5791A) and separating the products with an HP-1 capillary column (cross-linked methyl silicone,

50 m × 0.32 mm × 1.05 μm). The ¹³C contents in reactants and products were measured from mass ion intensities using deconvolution techniques that account for natural abundance and mass fragmentation patterns [22].

Promoted Fe–Zn oxide precursors were activated within the FTS reactor using synthesis gas (0.1 MPa) by increasing the temperature from 293 K to 543 K at a rate of 0.017 K/s. After synthesis gas reactions at 543 K for 0.5 h, the reactor temperature and pressure were set to the desired conditions and sampling of the effluent continued until product concentrations reached steady-state.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Role of CuO and K₂CO₃ promoters on CO₂ formation pathways

CO₂ selectivities on FeZn_{0.1}, FeZn_{0.1}Cu_{0.01}, FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02} and FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}Cu_{0.01} are shown as a function of CO conversion for stoichiometric synthesis gas (H₂/CO = 2) at 508 K and 2.14 MPa in figure 1(a) and at 543 K and 0.5 MPa in figure 1(b). These data were obtained by changing the CO space velocity at constant temperature and H₂ and CO partial pressures. CO₂ selectivities increased with decreasing space velocity (and increasing reactor residence time and CO conversion) on all catalysts. This increase in CO₂ selectivity reflects the formation of CO₂ by reactions of water with CO-derived intermediates in secondary reactions with the stoichiometry of the water–gas shift reaction. In these reactions, H₂O formed in primary oxygen removal steps readsorbs on sites where it can dissociate and its extent of readsorption and reaction increases, as the concentration of water increases with increasing CO conversion and decreasing space velocity. The dependence of CO₂ selectivity on reactor residence time

weakens at higher CO conversion levels, as CO₂-forming reactions approach equilibrium on all catalysts.

CO₂ selectivities are higher on promoted Fe catalysts than on unpromoted samples at all CO conversion levels. The slope of these CO₂ selectivity curves at different points (figure 1) (or more rigorously the slopes of the CO₂ formation rates shown later) gives a measure of the rate of secondary CO₂-forming reactions. These slopes are very similar for FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02} and FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}Cu_{0.01} catalysts at 508 K (figure 1(a)). Similarly, FeZn_{0.1} and FeZn_{0.1}Cu_{0.01} catalysts also show nearly identical slopes, indicating that the addition of Cu to FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02} or FeZn_{0.1} does not increase the rate of WGS reactions. Figures 2(a) and 2(b) show the oxygen selectivities to H₂O on all four catalysts at the two reaction conditions of this study. This oxygen selectivity is defined as the percentage of the oxygen in the converted CO that appears as a given product, in the case of figure 2 as H₂O. The oxygen selectivity to H₂O decreases with increasing CO conversion as water readsorbs and finds additional opportunities to react and approach equilibrium, which favors CO₂ as the oxygen removal carrier at these reaction conditions. These H₂O selectivities extrapolate to high values as CO conversion decreases, consistent with a high primary selectivity for oxygen removal as water. The readsorption of water, and its subsequent probability of reaction with CO-derived intermediates to form CO₂, leads to a decrease in the H₂O selectivity with increasing CO conversion (figure 2).

The CO₂ selectivities extrapolated to low CO conversion levels are non-zero, consistent with these primary pathways for oxygen removal as both CO₂ and H₂O. Cu increases this primary selectivity to CO₂ and thus the propensity for O* removal as CO₂ on Fe–Zn catalysts. In contrast, K increases the rate of the secondary WGS reaction without influencing primary CO₂ selectivities (figures 1 and 2). It appears that K promotion does not influence the relative abundance of CO* and H* species available for oxygen removal, even though

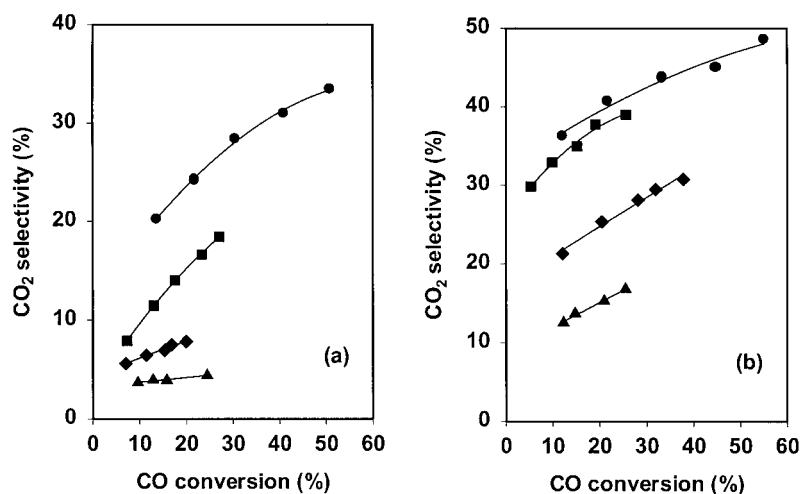


Figure 1. CO₂ selectivity as a function of CO conversion on the different Fe catalysts at (a) 508 K, 2.14 MPa, H₂/CO = 2, and (b) 543 K, 0.5 MPa, H₂/CO = 2. (▲): FeZn_{0.1}, (◆): FeZn_{0.1}Cu_{0.01}, (■): FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}, and (●): FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}Cu_{0.01}.

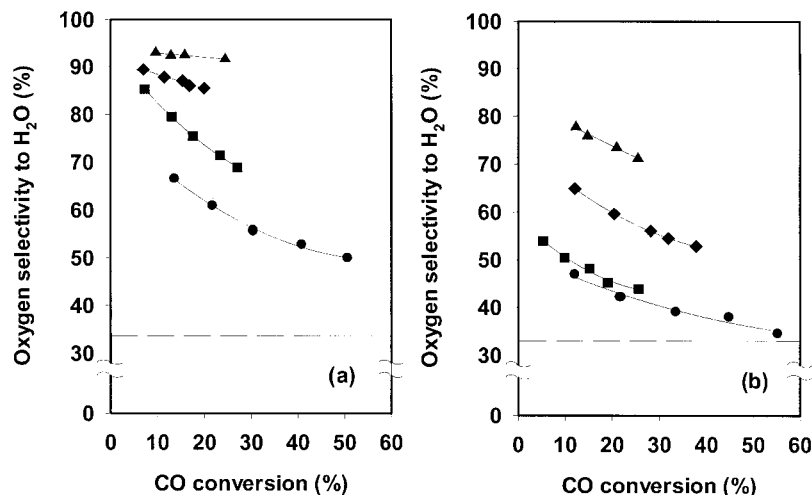


Figure 2. Oxygen selectivity to H₂O as a function of CO conversion on the different Fe catalysts at (a) 508 K, 2.14 MPa, H₂/CO = 2, and (b) 543 K, 0.5 MPa, H₂/CO = 2. (▲): FeZn_{0.1}, (◆): FeZn_{0.1}Cu_{0.01}, (■): FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}, and (●): FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}Cu_{0.01}. Dashed line: oxygen selectivity to H₂O at WGS equilibrium.

previous studies have suggested that the effects of K on hydrocarbon selectivity and FTS rates reflect an increase in the binding energy of adsorbed CO relative to that of hydrogen [4,9]. The higher CO₂ selectivity on Cu-containing catalysts suggests that Cu increases the availability of CO* for O* removal in primary pathways, but that Cu does not increase the rate of secondary CO₂-forming reactions (see slopes in figure 1), even though previous reports have attributed higher CO₂ selectivities on Cu-promoted samples to Cu-catalyzed WGS reactions [23]. The primary CO₂ selectivity is lower at 508 K and 2.14 MPa (figure 1(a)) than at 543 K and 0.5 MPa (figure 1(b)) on all catalysts, suggesting that O* removal as H₂O has a lower activation energy than parallel pathways leading to CO₂.

The slope of the CO₂ selectivity data in figure 1 may also include other secondary routes for the formation of CO₂, such as the conversion of alcohol primary products to acids and their subsequent decarboxylation [18,20]. These pathways are unlikely to contribute appreciably to CO₂ at the conditions of our experiments (508–543 K, 0.5–2.14 MPa, and H₂/CO = 2), because alcohol selectivities, and their observed changes with space velocity, are much smaller than the changes in CO₂ selectivity shown in figure 1 and than the changes in alcohol selectivities reported previously at lower H₂/CO ratios (0.7) [18,20]. Water–gas shift reactions, possibly on sites that also catalyze CO dissociation and chain growth as part of FTS catalytic sequences, appear to provide the predominant secondary route for CO₂ formation at the conditions of our experiments.

3.2. Effects of CO₂ addition to synthesis gas on Fe-based catalysts

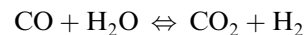
Water–gas shift reactions approach equilibrium with increasing residence time and temperature during FTS

(figure 1). This approach to equilibrium and its kinetic consequences can be rigorously described by a parameter η , given by the concentration ratio in equation (1) divided by the equilibrium constant at the reaction temperature:

$$\eta = \frac{1}{K_{\text{WGS}}} \left(\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2} P_{\text{H}_2}}{P_{\text{CO}} P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}} \right). \quad (1)$$

In equation (1), P_j is the partial pressure of species j and K_{WGS} is the WGS equilibrium constant. The value of η ranges from 0 to 1 as chemical reactions approach equilibrium. Figures 3(a) and 3(b) show this value for the two experimental conditions used to obtain the data in figures 1(a) and 1(b). These values suggest that reverse WGS reaction rates are significant. Therefore, the addition of CO₂ to synthesis gas feeds can lead to lower net rates of CO₂ formation and of O* removal as CO₂ during FTS.

The kinetic consequences of this approach to equilibrium and of the addition of CO₂ can be described by considering how forward rates $r_{f,i}$ and reverse rates $r_{r,i}$ of each elementary step i in the WGS reaction



depend on the affinity of that step (A_i), as given by the De Donder equation [24] of non-equilibrium thermodynamic treatments of chemical kinetics:

$$\frac{r_{f,i}}{r_{r,i}} = \exp \left(\frac{A_i}{RT} \right). \quad (2)$$

The affinity is the negative of the Gibbs free energy of step i :

$$A_i = -\Delta G_i \quad (3)$$

and it is related to standard affinity for that step A_i° by

$$A_i = A_i^\circ + RT \ln \left(\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2} P_{\text{H}_2}}{P_{\text{CO}} P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}} \right). \quad (4)$$

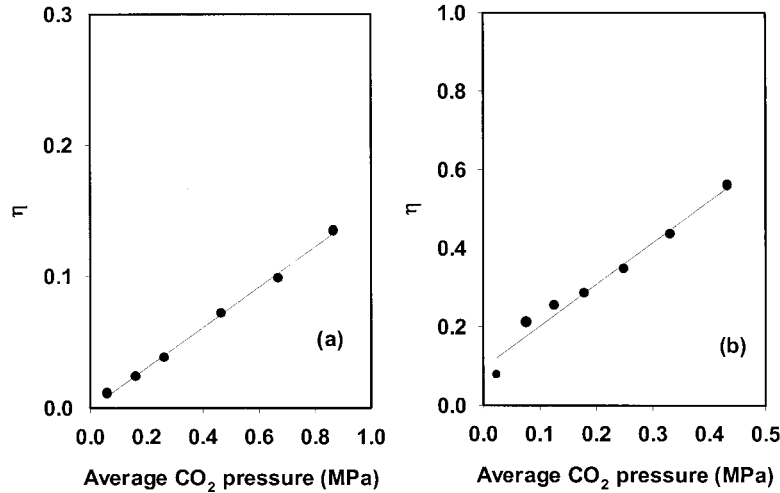


Figure 3. The approach to equilibrium parameter (η) for water–gas shift reaction as a function of the amount of CO₂ added on the FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}Cu_{0.01} catalyst; (a) 508 K, 2.14 MPa, H₂/CO = 2, and (b) 543 K, 0.5 MPa, H₂/CO = 2.

The net rate of the overall reaction is then given by

$$r = r_f - r_b = r_f \left(1 - \exp \left(\frac{-A}{\sigma RT} \right) \right) \quad (5)$$

in which σ is the average stoichiometric number for the catalytic sequence. This number is unity for overall reactions, such as WGS, in which every elementary steps occurs only once in the complete catalytic sequence [25]. Equation (5) then becomes

$$r = r_f - r_r = r_f \left(1 - \exp \left(\frac{-A}{RT} \right) \right). \quad (6)$$

The affinity of the overall reaction (A) depends on the standard reaction affinity A° and on the partial pressures of reactants and products:

$$A = A^\circ + RT \ln \left(\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2} P_{\text{H}_2}}{P_{\text{CO}} P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}} \right). \quad (7)$$

The standard affinity A° equals the negative of the standard Gibbs free energies for the reaction and it is related

to the equilibrium constant:

$$A^\circ = -\Delta G^\circ = RT \ln K_{\text{WGS}}. \quad (8)$$

Combining equations (5) and (6), we obtain

$$A = RT \ln \frac{1}{K_{\text{WGS}}} \left(\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2} P_{\text{H}_2}}{P_{\text{CO}} P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}} \right) \quad (9)$$

and then from equations (1), (6) and (9) we obtain an expression for the net rate of a chemical reaction as it approaches equilibrium in terms of the parameter η that measures the extent of this approach to equilibrium:

$$r = r_f \left(1 - \frac{1}{K_{\text{WGS}}} \left(\frac{P_{\text{CO}_2} P_{\text{H}_2}}{P_{\text{CO}} P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}} \right) \right) = r_f (1 - \eta). \quad (10)$$

The forward WGS rate can then be calculated from the measured net rate of CO₂ formation divided by $(1 - \eta)$, where the latter is evaluated at the average partial pressures for each reactant and product in the reactor. The forward rate estimated in this manner is shown in figures 4(a) and 4(b) as a function of CO

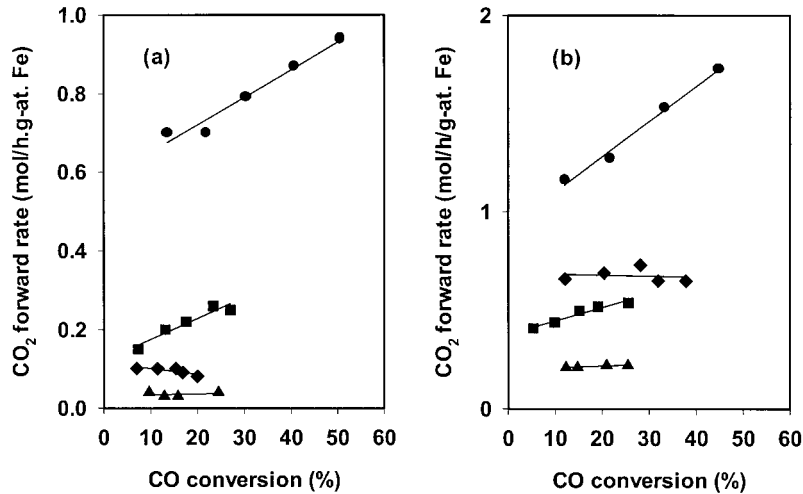


Figure 4. CO₂ forward rate as a function of CO conversion on the different Fe catalysts at (a) 508 K, 2.14 MPa, H₂/CO = 2, and (b) 543 K, 0.5 MPa, H₂/CO = 2. (▲): FeZn_{0.1}, (◆): FeZn_{0.1}Cu_{0.01}, (■): FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}, and (●): FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}Cu_{0.01}.

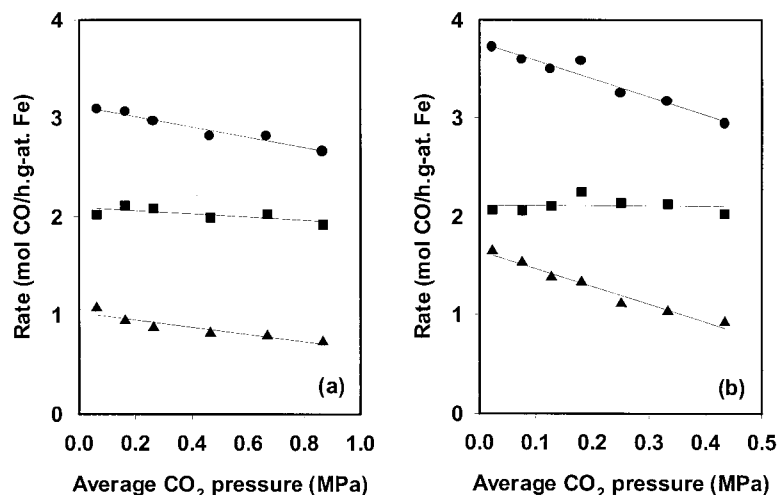


Figure 5. CO conversion rate (●), hydrocarbon formation rate (■) and CO₂ formation rate (▲), as a function of the average CO₂ pressure on the FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}Cu_{0.01} catalyst at (a) 508 K, 2.14 MPa, H₂/CO = 2, and (b) 543 K, 0.5 MPa, H₂/CO = 2.

conversion along with the net CO₂ formation rate for the two reaction conditions used in this study. For the catalysts promoted with K, the CO₂ forward rate increases with increasing conversion, indicating that K increases the rate of the secondary CO₂-forming reactions involving a water co-reactant, which increases in concentration with increasing CO conversion. Cu promotes the removal of O* by CO* rather than H*, but the nearly constant forward CO₂ rate with increasing CO conversion suggests that it does not introduce active sites for secondary water–gas shift reactions. Next, we examine the effects of addition of CO₂ to synthesis gas using this formalism for estimating the effects of CO₂ on the net rate and on the rate of the forward CO₂ formation reactions.

The effects of CO₂ addition on FTS rates and selectivities were examined on FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}Cu_{0.01} at the two reaction conditions used for the space velocity data in figure 1 (508 K, 2.14 MPa H₂/CO and 543 K, 0.5 MPa H₂/CO). CO conversion rates and hydrocarbon and net CO₂ formation rates are shown as a function of the average CO₂ pressure in the reactor (the average of the inlet and outlet CO₂ pressures in the reactor) in figures 5(a) and 5(b). The CO conversion rates and the net CO₂ formation rates decreased with increasing CO₂ pressure, but hydrocarbon formation rates were not affected. This shows that the presence of CO₂ in the synthesis gas feed decreases the net rate of CO₂ formation without any influence on the rate of formation of hydrocarbon chains. The effect of CO₂ on the net rate of CO₂ formation is stronger at higher temperatures, apparently because of the faster forward WGS rates and the less favorable equilibrium as temperature increases. The observed decrease in the net rate of CO₂ formation may reflect the inhibition of the forward rate of CO₂-forming reactions or merely an increase in the reverse rate of these reactions as they approach equilibrium. The relative importance of these two effects can be

discerned by applying the formalism derived above to these kinetic data.

Figure 6 shows that forward CO₂ formation rates [$r_f = r/(1 - \eta)$] at 543 K are nearly unchanged as the average CO₂ pressure (and hence η) increases. Thus, the presence of CO₂ merely increases the rate of conversion of CO₂ to CO *via* reverse WGS reactions in the exact manner predicted by equation (10). The net rate of CO₂ formation decreases without detectable changes in the rate of the forward reaction and without the appearance of pathways that use CO₂ directly to form hydrocarbons.

Net CO₂ formation rates in figure 6 extrapolate to zero net rates at CO₂ pressures of ~0.85 MPa (CO₂/CO = 5.5). At this CO₂ pressure, *all* of the O* species formed *via* CO dissociation would be removed as H₂O during FTS at 543 K. The required CO₂/CO ratio predicted from equation (10) and the equilibrium constant for WGS at 543 K ($K = 63.6$) is 5.2, in close agreement

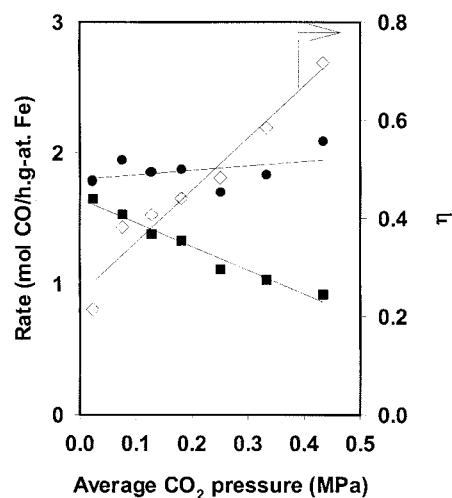


Figure 6. Forward WGS rates (●), net WGS CO₂ formation rates (■), and the approach to equilibrium parameter, η (◇), as a function of CO₂ pressure on the FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}Cu_{0.01} catalyst at 543 K, 0.5 MPa, H₂/CO = 2.

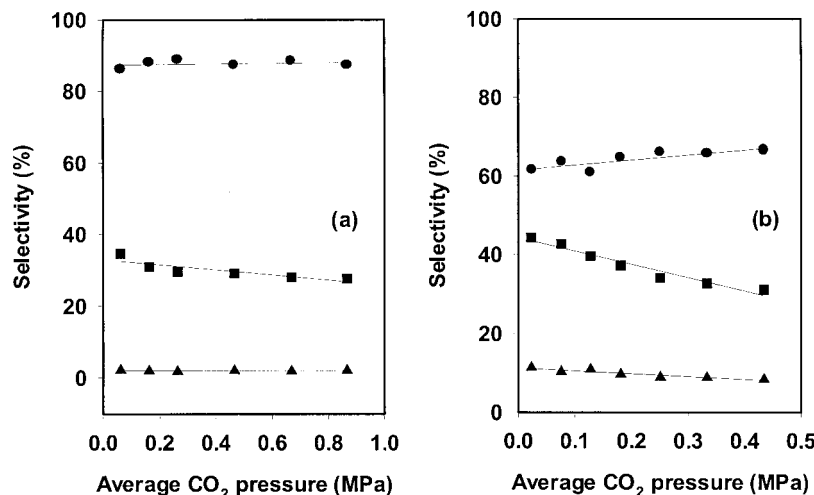


Figure 7. Product selectivities as a function of the average CO₂ pressure on the FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}Cu_{0.01} catalyst at (a) 508 K, 2.14 MPa, H₂/CO = 2, (b) 543 K, 0.5 MPa, H₂/CO = 2; (●): C₅₊, (■): CO₂ and (▲): CH₄.

with the value of 5.5 obtained from the experimental data shown in figure 6. At 508 K, the effects of CO₂ addition on the net rate of CO₂ formation were much smaller owing to the fact that the WGS reaction was significantly away from equilibrium (figure 2(a)). The use of K_{WGS} values for this temperature and equation (10) leads to a predicted value of ~ 2.7 MPa (CO₂/CO = 4.4).

Net CO₂ selectivities and CH₄ and C₅₊ selectivities (on a CO₂-free basis) are shown as a function of the average CO₂ pressure in figures 7(a) and 7(b) for the two reaction conditions used in these experiments. At 543 K, CO₂ leads to a slight increase in C₅₊ selectivity and to a concomitant decrease in CH₄ selectivity (figure 7(b)); these effects are not detectable at lower temperatures (figure 7(a)). These selectivity effects appear to reflect small changes in the H₂/CO usage ratio as the O* is increasingly removed as water (using H₂) instead of CO₂ (using CO) as the CO₂ concentration

increases. They lead to slightly lower average H₂/CO ratios throughout the catalyst bed (figures 8(a) and 8(b)), especially at higher temperatures, for which oxygen removal selectivities depend on the presence and concentration of CO₂ in the synthesis gas. H₂ and CO chemisorption are generally assumed to be quasi-equilibrated during FTS [26]; therefore, these changes in the H₂/CO ratio lead to a concomitant increase in the surface coverages of CO* relative to H* and to an increase in the probability of chain growth and in the average molecular weight of the products formed. These changes become detectable only at higher temperatures, for which significant reverse rates lead to appreciable changes in the synthesis gas composition. The α -olefin/*n*-paraffin ratios on FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}Cu_{0.01} also increase with increasing CO₂ pressure (figures 8(a) and 8(b)) for chains of all sizes at 543 K, while the effects were very small at 508 K. These changes are also

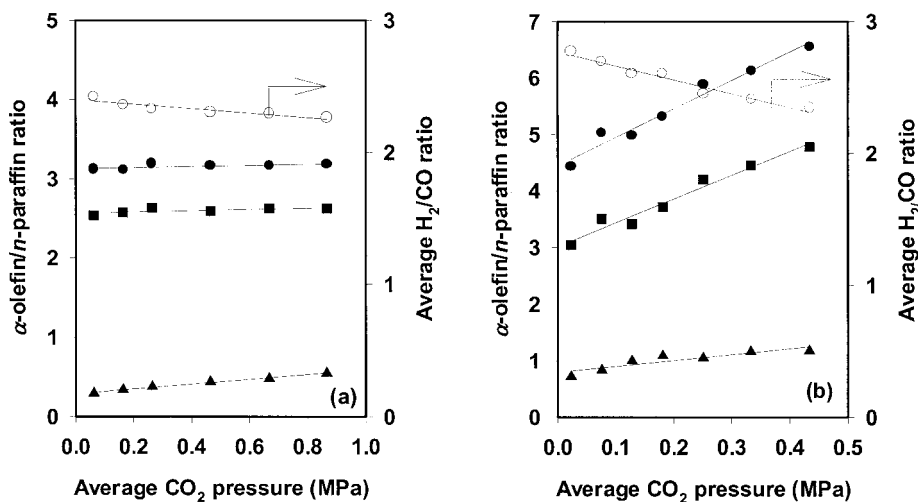


Figure 8. α -Olefin/*n*-paraffin ratio for different hydrocarbon chain sizes as a function of the average CO₂ pressure on the FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.02}Cu_{0.01} catalyst at (a) 508 K, 2.14 MPa, and (b) 543 K, 0.5 MPa, H₂/CO = 2; (●): C₃H₆/C₃H₈, (■): I-C₅H₁₀/*n*-C₅H₁₂, (▲): I-C₁₁H₂₂/*n*-C₁₁H₂₄, and (○): average H₂/CO ratio in the reactor.

consistent with the lower H₂/CO ratios and the lower expected surface H* concentrations prevalent when CO₂ is added to the synthesis gas stream.

These results show that the extent to which O* is removed as CO₂ during FTS can be controlled by the addition or recycle of CO₂ and that the required CO₂ concentrations can be accurately estimated using a rigorous kinetic treatment of reversible reactions as such reactions approach equilibrium. At temperatures and reaction conditions for which WGS reactions are far away from equilibrium, the complete inhibition of CO₂ formation requires large CO₂/CO ratios. However, at higher temperatures, which lead to higher forward WGS rates and to less favorable WGS thermodynamics, the CO₂/CO ratios required to eliminate CO₂ formation become small enough for potential use of CO₂ recycle when H₂/CO mixtures derived from natural gas are used on Fe-based FTS catalysts.

3.3. The role of CO₂ in the initiation and growth of hydrocarbon chains

As WGS reactions approach equilibrium during FTS, CO and CO₂ become kinetically indistinguishable, because their interconversion is much faster than the chain initiation and growth steps required for hydrocarbon formation. Then, a significant fraction of the C-atoms in CO₂ can contribute towards the formation of hydrocarbons, but *via* the formation of CO intermediates in reverse WGS reactions. A direct role of CO₂ in chain initiation and propagation was proposed by Xu *et al.* [18,21], but it is unclear how such conclusions could be reached from isotopic experiments influenced by significant chemical (and isotopic) interconversion of CO and CO₂ *via* WGS reactions.

Table 1

Conditions for ¹³CO₂ addition experiments performed on the FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.04}Cu_{0.02} catalyst, reaction parameters and ¹³C content in different components

Temperature (K)	508
Synthesis gas pressure (MPa) (H ₂ /CO = 2)	0.8
¹³ CO ₂ pressure (MPa)	0.1
CO conversion (%)	21.1
CO ₂ selectivity (%)	35.9
η^a	0.025
Selectivity (CO ₂ -free, %) CH ₄	3.5
Selectivity (CO ₂ -free, %) C ₅₊	81.8

^a As defined in equation (1).

Here, we report the results of experiments in which 0.1 MPa ¹³CO₂ was added to synthesis gas ($P_{\text{CO}} = 0.25$ MPa, $P_{\text{H}_2} = 0.50$ MPa and $P_{\text{N}_2} = 0.05$ MPa) at conditions far removed from the WGS equilibrium ($\eta = 0.025$). The CO conversion and product selectivities are listed in table 1. The ¹³C contents in hydrocarbon chains of a given size were measured in order to probe the relative contributions of ¹³CO₂ and ¹²CO to chain initiation and chain growth. These results were not corrupted by any isotopic or chemical equilibration between the CO and CO₂ components in the reactant stream. As shown in figure 9, the ¹²CO reactant exiting the reactor retains the ¹²C isotopic purity, while the initially pure ¹³CO₂ reactants retain ¹³C fractions greater than 0.5.

The ¹³C contents in CO₂, CO, hydrocarbons and oxygenates (aldehydes + alcohols) are shown in figure 9. No ¹³C was detected in CO, suggesting that dilution of the CO reactant by CO molecules formed from CO₂ *via* reverse WGS reactions was negligible at these reaction conditions, consistent with the low value of η

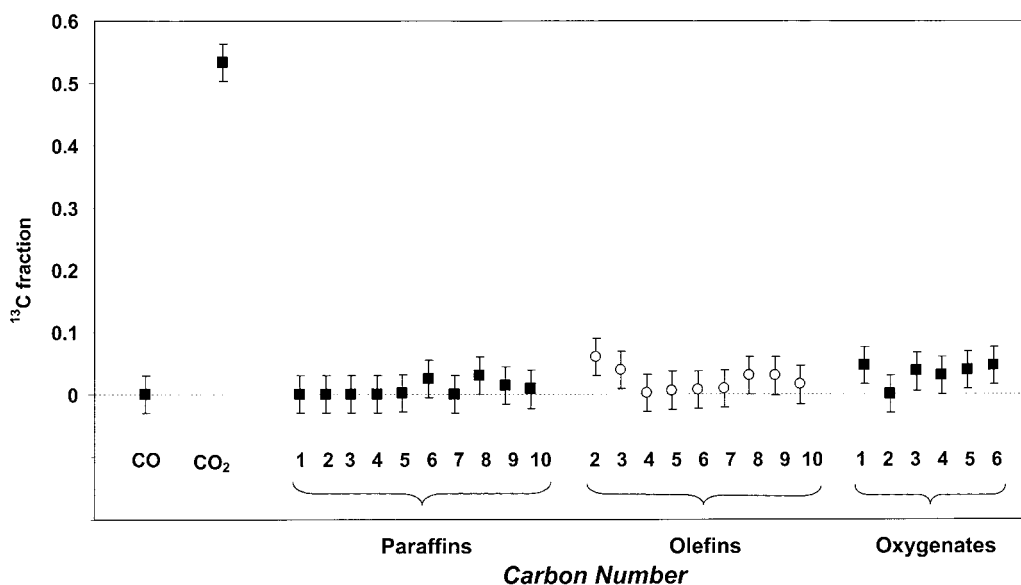


Figure 9. ¹³C fraction in CO, CO₂, paraffins, olefins and oxygenates during ¹³CO₂ addition runs on the FeZn_{0.1}K_{0.04}Cu_{0.02} catalyst at 508 K, 0.8 MPa, H₂/CO = 2, 0.1 MPa ¹³CO₂.

(=0.025). The fraction of ¹³C in CO₂ was 0.533, because CO₂ formed during O* removal using CO or *via* WGS reactions dilutes the isotopically pure ¹³CO₂ reactants. The ¹³C fraction in all C₁–C₁₀ paraffins, C₂–C₁₀ olefins, and C₁–C₈ oxygenates are much lower than in CO₂, and in most cases, well below the detection limit (~0.02–0.03) of our analytical methods. Clearly, no preferential incorporation of CO₂ is detected in any of the hydrocarbon products; exclusive chain initiation by CO₂, as proposed earlier [18,21], would have led to significant isotopic enrichment of the smaller products and to a decrease in the ¹³C content with increasing chain size, neither of which was experimentally observed in our study (figure 9). Also, the reactivity of CO₂ in chain initiation and growth would have to be at least five times lower than that of CO, because the average ¹³C fraction in the combined CO/CO₂ pool is about 0.25, while that in the pool of hydrocarbon formed is less than 0.05, and for most of the hydrocarbons below the detection limit. Thus, the participation of CO₂ is no greater than that of CO in either the formation of monomers or the initiation of chains, and probably much smaller. CO₂ is also not involved in alcohol formation, because the ¹³C content in alcohols was also very low and similar to that found in hydrocarbons.

4. Conclusions

An investigation of the CO₂ formation and reaction pathways during Fischer–Tropsch synthesis (FTS) has been carried out on a co-precipitated Fe–Zn catalyst promoted with Cu and K. The removal of adsorbed oxygen formed during CO dissociation steps can occur by primary and secondary pathways. Primary pathways for oxygen removal include reactions with adsorbed hydrogen to form H₂O and with adsorbed CO to form CO₂. The relative probability of oxygen removal either as H₂O or CO₂ is determined by the reaction temperature and the presence of promoters (Cu and K). H₂O formed by primary pathways can undergo readsorption followed by its subsequent reaction with CO-derived intermediates leading to the formation of CO₂. The forward rate of CO₂ formation increases with an increase in residence time, while the net CO₂ formation rate decreases due to the approach towards WGS reaction equilibrium. CO₂ addition during FTS does not influence CO₂ forward rates, but increases the rate of their reverse steps leading to the attainment of WGS equilibrium; and hence it can result in the minimization of CO₂ formation during FTS and the preferential removal of oxygen as H₂O. CO₂ addition also results in lower H₂/CO ratios in the reactor, which in turn resulted in higher C₅+ selectivities and olefin content. From our experimental data and the predictions from our thermodynamic treatment, it was found that at 543 K, the addition of 0.85 MPa CO₂ to synthesis gas (H₂/CO = 2, 0.50 MPa)

could eliminate CO₂ formation during FTS and lead to the complete removal of dissociated oxygen formed during FTS as H₂O. These studies also suggest that the recycle of CO₂ formed during FTS can be used as a tool to improve the carbon efficiency on Fe catalysts, which in turn adds to their advantage of being cheaper and more flexible than Co catalysts. Finally, the addition of ¹³CO₂ to H₂/¹²CO reactants showed that the hydrocarbon products had a negligible ¹³C content, indicating that CO₂ is much less reactive than CO towards chain initiation and growth. Our studies also show that except at WGS reaction equilibrium, where CO and CO₂ become kinetically indistinguishable from each other, CO₂ does not appear to compete with CO towards chain initiation and growth reactions.

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