

Global Kinetic Modeling of NH₃-SCR with Two Sites of NH₃ Storage on Cu-SSZ-13

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Abstract

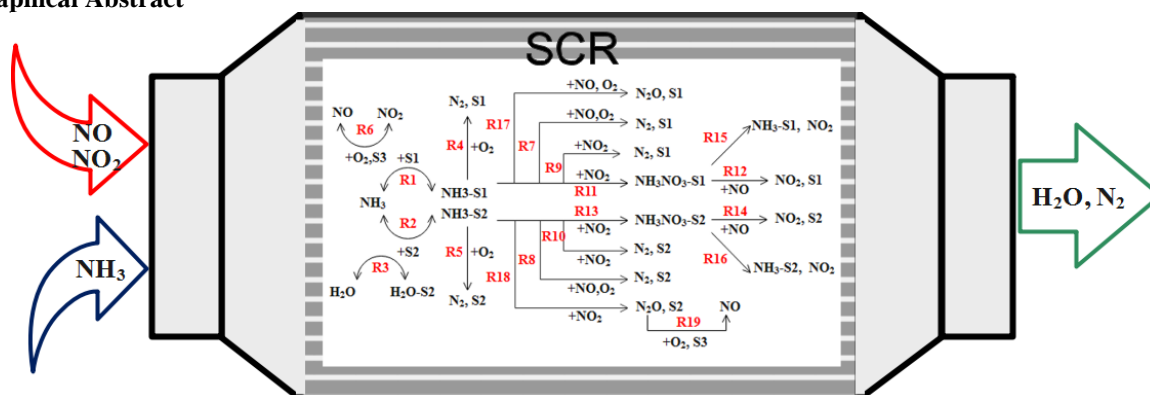
A comprehensive selective catalytic reduction (SCR) model is developed to detail the global kinetic reactions in the catalyst which is involved in two type of sites for high- and low-temperature NH₃ adsorption/desorption, as well as a low temperature H₂O storage. The model accounts for the formation of ammonium nitrate in fast SCR and the decomposition formation of ammonium nitrate in the absence of NO, and addresses N₂O relative to NO and NO₂ reactions with NH₃. The model has been validated against commercial Cu-SSZ-13 measurements of NH₃ inventory, NH₃ oxidation, NO oxidation, standard SCR, fast SCR and NO₂ SCR at both comprehensive steady-state and transient conditions. In addition, the application of the SCR model for emissions control over a transient drive cycle at cold start was demonstrated based on diesel oxidation catalyst (DOC) and SCR aftertreatment system for a passenger car. The results show that the SCR model can provide the detailed emissions estimations for steady-state and transient conditions, can assist with understanding the impact of the SCR reaction mechanism, and can assist with the design and optimization of SCR catalysts to develop innovative technologies for co-optimization of engine fuel economy and emissions control technologies.

Key Words: SCR Kinetic Modeling, Two-site NH₃ storage, Ammonium Nitrate, Transient, Drive cycle Emissions

Highlights:

- Global kinetic SCR model for NH₃ inventory, NH₃ oxidation, NO oxidation, SCR and N₂O formation
- NH₃ inventory mechanism with two-sites of NH₃ storage and one site of H₂O storage
- Ammonium nitrate formation included in fast SCR and its decomposition in the absence of NO
- SCR model numerical application for steady-state and transient drive cycle emissions control

Graphical Abstract



1. Introduction

Advanced lean combustion engines enable significantly higher thermal efficiency than stoichiometric combustion engines, but also bring a substantial challenge for NO_x emissions control. Two prominent lean NO_x emissions control technologies are lean NO_x traps (LNTs) and selective catalytic reduction (SCR). Considering the durability, reliability and cost-effectiveness [1], the SCR technology is generally considered more attractive for removing NO_x from lean exhausts in automobile applications.

SCR catalysts have evolved since their introduction into automobile applications about 16 years ago [2]. The first-generation of SCR catalysts use vanadia (vanadium(V) oxide, V₂O₅) supported on titania (titanium dioxide, TiO₂), which were widely used in aftertreatment systems for stationary power systems [2-4]. Compared to vanadia-based catalysts, zeolite-based SCR catalysts exhibit significantly higher NO_x conversion efficiency over a wider range of temperatures. Zeolite-based SCR catalysts, particularly copper- and iron-exchanged zeolites (Cu-zeolites [5-7] and Fe-zeolites [8-10], respectively), have been identified as a primary pathway for the refinement and enhancement of SCR technologies for lean NO_x emission control in vehicle applications. Cu-zeolites achieve improved low-temperature performance with larger ammonia storage and higher NO_x reduction efficiency, while Fe-zeolites typically function better at high temperature [11]. The zeolites used in SCR catalysts are evolved from large-pore 12-membered ring type zeolites (e.g., beta or BEA) and medium-pore 10-membered ring type zeolites (e.g. ZSM-5 or MFI) to the contemporary small-pore eight-membered ring type zeolites (e.g., chabazite or CHA). The chabazite structures demonstrate promising properties due to their high thermal stability even when exposed to extreme aging conditions [12], but also show decent hydrocarbon resistance due to the small size of the openings in the 0.38 nm-diameter structure (i.e., most hydrocarbons cannot access the CHA pores, minimizing the effect of hydrocarbon poisoning [12-13]). At present, two CHA-type zeolite-based SCR catalysts, including Cu-SSZ-13 and Cu-SAPO-34, are commercialized as lean NO_x after-treatment catalysts [14]. Compared to Cu-SSZ-13, Cu-SAPO-34 shows improved NO_x conversion and N₂O selectivity, but its low-temperature performance is degraded in the presence of water [15-16]. Thus, the relatively simple structure of Cu-SSZ-13 is becoming more attractive in vehicle applications, and it is widely used to understand in-depth SCR chemistry and reaction mechanisms.

A great number of kinetic models have been developed for various SCR catalysts [8-10, 17-33], including vanadium-based SCR [17-19], Fe-zeolites [8-10, 20-21], HZSM-5 [22-23], Cu-BEA [14, 29], Cu-ZSM-5 [24-25], Cu-CHA [21, 26-28, 30] and many others [31-33]. Most of these kinetic models account for the basic features of NH₃ adsorption/desorption, NH₃ oxidation, NO oxidation and three basic selective catalytic reductions (i.e. NO-SCR, Fast-SCR and NO₂-SCR). For example, Supriyanto et al. [14], Olsson et al. [24], Gao et al. [25], Song et al. [27] and Shibata et al. [34], adopted the simple global kinetic mechanism of NH₃ adsorption/desorption with a single storage site for modeling the SCR catalyst. These kinetic models do not address intermediate species that form within SCR NH₃-NO-NO₂/O₂ reacting system. In fact, the reactions for the reduction of NO only, NO+NO₂ and NO₂ can be divided into several steps involved in intermediate species, like nitrite and nitrate. Sjövall et al. [20] and Daya et al. [2] introduced ammonium nitrate formation from NO₂ and NH₃ in their models and added ammonium nitrate decomposition to NO₂ or N₂O. Singh and Bhatia [35] also presented a simple kinetic model including nitrate, but the mechanism of nitrate in fast SCR was ignored. The experiments of Ciardelli et al. [36] and Nova et al. [37] indicate that SCR NH₃-NO-NO₂/O₂ reactions are involved in (1) NO₂ is converted to nitrous and nitric acid via NO₂ disproportion, dimerization and reaction with water; (2) nitrous acid in the presence of NH₃ forms unstable ammonium nitrite which readily decomposes to N₂ and water; (3) nitric acid reacts with NH₃ to form more stable ammonium nitrate; and (4) in the absence of a reducing agent, ammonium nitrate may behave as a terminal product or may be thermally decomposed to NO₂ (or maybe N₂O) at higher temperature. Similar observations were also reported by others [38, 39]. Including these reaction mechanisms in the kinetic models is necessary to properly predict the experimental observations. However, the current SCR models are unable to provide comprehensive kinetic models to account for the experimental observations noted above. In particular, the current SCR models remain inadequate to account for the observation that NO₂ is responsible for the formation of NH₄NO₃, and NH₄NO₃ no longer behaves as a terminal product and actively reacts with NO to form N₂ in the presence of NO [37]. Furthermore, the experimental results show that the reaction rate between NH₄NO₃ and NO is essentially equal to that of the fast SCR reaction. It remains unclear how to treat rapidly-formed intermediate products (i.e. HNO₂, HNO₃, and ammonium nitrite) in the SCR kinetic modeling. Another important reaction which should be considered in SCR kinetic models is N₂O formation, which should have multiple pathways to generate N₂O from NO and NO₂ reactions with NH₃. However, the current kinetic mechanisms available do not address these critical issues clearly.

Moreover, most SCR kinetic models in the public domain are based on a single type of storage site for NH₃ adsorption/desorption. However, the latest small-pore zeolites are known to function with multiple types of storage sites [2, 20, 26-27, 40]. For the example of Cu-SSZ-13, depending on the method of synthesis, the storage and reactivity sites are typically Cu active sites and Brønsted acid sites located within the zeolite structure [41]. Experimental observations show ammonia desorption at both high and low temperature [20, 40]. NH₃ storage at low temperatures (i.e. < 200 °C) is typically captured by a physisorbed site and additional low-temperature adsorption on copper sites and Brønsted acid sites [42]. Due to the complexity of storage site identification, multiple types of storage sites were investigated recently [2, 26, 43], but existing models do not comprehensively address multiple storage sites together with intermediate species occurring in SCR NH₃-NO-NO₂/O₂ reacting systems. In addition, for vehicle applications, SCR takes place in the presence of

complex exhaust flows that include significant water content, which may affect NH₃ adsorption in zeolite-based SCR. However, there are still very few kinetic models that enable H₂O adsorption and desorption in real mobile emissions control [44, 45].

Therefore, in this paper, a comprehensive model is developed to account for the global kinetic reactions between NH₃ and NO_x interacting with the SCR catalyst, including two types of sites for NH₃ storage, as well as a H₂O storage. The model considers SCR reactions at both sites. Moreover, the model includes the formation and decomposition of ammonium nitrate, and addresses N₂O relative to NO and NO₂ reactions with NH₃. The model has been compared with comprehensive experimental data measured at the Oak Ridge National Laboratory (ORNL) based on a series of SCR reactor experimental protocols. The SCR model application for emissions control over a transient drive cycle is also explored and demonstrated. The following sections describe the SCR modeling approach and compare simulation results with experimental data.

2. NH₃ SCR Modeling Approach

2.1. SCR flow modeling

The SCR flow model was developed along the same lines as our after-treatment models published previously [46-47]. The SCR device is considered in the model as parallel one-dimensional channels of a catalytic monolith, through which exhaust gas flows in a fully developed laminar flow. All species reactions are assumed to occur in the solid phase interface on the SCR washcoat. To account for the effect of temperature changes on catalyst activity, a transient energy balance, as well as a species mass balance, is included. Temperatures and concentrations are assumed to vary only in the axial direction.

The governing equation for the gas-phase energy is given as

$$\rho_g c_{pg} \varepsilon \left(\frac{\partial T_g}{\partial t} + u_g \frac{\partial T_g}{\partial z} \right) = h_g G_m (T_s - T_g) \quad (1)$$

The governing equation for gas-phase species transport is expressed as

$$\frac{\partial x_{g_i}}{\partial t} + u_g \frac{\partial x_{g_i}}{\partial z} = \frac{h_m G_m}{\varepsilon} (x_{s_i} - x_{g_i}) \quad (2)$$

The governing equation for the solid-phase energy can be described as

$$\rho_s c_{ps} (1 - \varepsilon) \frac{\partial T_s}{\partial t} = k_s (1 - \varepsilon) \frac{\partial^2 T_s}{\partial z^2} + h_g G_m (T_g - T_s) + h_a G_a (T_a - T_s) + \sum_{k=1}^n R^k \cdot \Delta H^k \quad (3)$$

The catalytic surface species equation is described as

$$\frac{\partial x_{s_i}}{\partial t} = \frac{h_m G_m}{\varepsilon (1 - \varepsilon)} (x_{g_i} - x_{s_i}) + \frac{1}{\rho_m \varepsilon (1 - \varepsilon)} \sum_k \alpha_i^k R^k \quad (4)$$

The exhaust flow is considered as a fully developed laminar flow; heat and mass transfer coefficients in the equations (1-4) are determined by correlations for the average Nusselt Number and Sherwood Number [46], as follows:

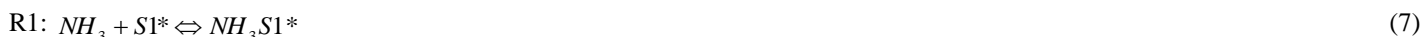
$$Nu = 3.657 \left(1 + 0.095 \cdot Re \cdot Pr \cdot \left(\frac{D_h}{z} \right)^{0.45} \right) \quad (5)$$

$$Sh = 4.364 \left(1 + 0.095 \cdot Re \cdot Sc \cdot \left(\frac{D_h}{z} \right)^{0.45} \right) \quad (6)$$

2.2. SCR reaction mechanism

The SCR model focuses on estimating the global reaction rate between the ammonia and nitrogen oxides reaching the SCR catalyst. The key steps include NH₃ adsorption and desorption on the catalyst and multiple reactions between the adsorbed NH₃ and NO and NO₂. The SCR material investigated is Cu-SSZ-13, a commercial SCR formulation. Existing literature indicates that a single site model

does not accurately describe the experimental behavior of the catalytic reaction [2, 26, 40]. In fact, it has been suggested that NH₃ storage, oxidation and SCR reactions occur on multiple types of copper species for Cu-SSZ-13. Therefore, two site types were used in the present model. The S1 sites, which are used to characterize high-temperature NH₃ storage, are mainly at Cu sites and Bronsted acid sites; while the S2 sites, which account for low-temperature loosely bound NH₃ storage activities, are physisorbed sites, as well as some copper sites and Brønsted acid sites for additional low temperature adsorption. Moreover, for NH₃ adsorption under low temperature conditions, the impact of H₂O competitive adsorption on NH₃ storage at S2 sites is included based on the experiments and kinetic mechanism reported in [45]. The H₂O competitive adsorption on NH₃ storage is a common characteristic of real SCR applications, but this has been commonly ignored in most current SCR models. NH₃ adsorption/desorption and H₂O adsorption/desorption are addressed in Eqs. 7-9:



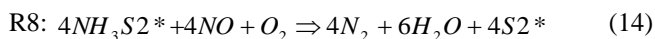
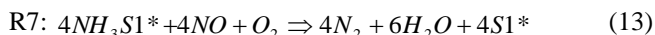
To account for NH₃ oxidation by oxygen, two global reactions on both site S1 and site S2 are considered:



The NO oxidation is assumed to only occur at the copper site which is a 3rd site, S3 and is different from the NH₃ storage sites. This assumption is also recommended by Daya et al. [2].



Three SCR reactions take place at both NH₃ storage sites S1 and S2. The standard NH₃ SCR reactions are given by:

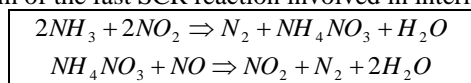


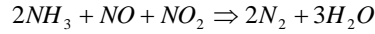
The NO₂ SCR reactions are given by:



Although the fast SCR reaction has been recognized since the 1980s, the complete details are still not fully understood. Several experimental observations [26, 36, 37] indicate that the reduction of NO and NO₂ by NH₃ involves the formation of HNO₂ and HNO₃, both of which react independently with NH₃, generating unstable NH₄NO₂ and more stable NH₄NO₃, respectively. NH₄NO₂ decomposes rapidly to N₂ and H₂O. NH₄NO₃ reacts with NO to form N₂ and NO₂, and the reaction rate is essentially equal to that of the fast SCR reaction [37]. Therefore, for the SCR reaction, HNO₂, HNO₃ and NH₄NO₂ are unstable intermediate products from the conversion of NH₃-NO-NO₂ to N₂ and H₂O; whereas the formation of NH₄NO₃ is more stable. Compared to NH₄NO₃ formation and other reactions in SCR catalyst, the residual time of HNO₂, HNO₃ and NH₄NO₂ is extremely short. Therefore, these unstable intermediate products are not considered in the model to avoid extra small time step required in the modeling. Instead, to understand the in-depth chemistry of fast SCR reactions and to determine the optimal equimolar NO to NO₂ feed rate, as well as the impact of NH₄NO₃, a sequential scheme is adopted [26, 37], whereby the fast SCR reaction results from the intermediate formation of NH₄NO₃ and its subsequent reduction by NO (see Table 1):

Table 1. Chemistry mechanism of the fast SCR reaction involved in intermediate formation of NH₄NO₃.

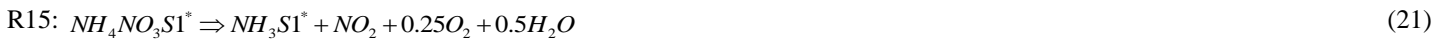




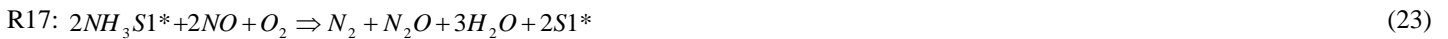
Therefore, the fast SCR reactions (see Table 1) at NH₃ storage sites S1 and S2 are shown in Eqs. 17-20 via the simplification of not considering unstable intermediate products. The mechanism accounts very well for the observations that NO₂ is responsible for the formation of NH₄NO₃, and NH₄NO₃ is eventually converted to N₂ in the presence of NO [37].



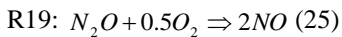
Considering the experimental observation that in the absence of NO, NH₄NO₃ either behaves as a terminal product at lower temperature, or decompose to NO₂ at high temperature [20, 26, 36], two global reactions were added to describe ammonium nitrate decomposition, again employing the simplification of not considering unstable intermediate products.



Another important reaction in SCR kinetic models is N₂O formation. NH₄NO₃ may decompose to N₂O and H₂O [2], but the main part of N₂O formation is contributed from the NH₃ reaction with NO₂ or NO [20]. Thus, two reactions for N₂O formation and dissociation are considered below. The reactions address multiple pathways to generate N₂O related to NO and NO₂ reactions with NH₃.



In addition, N₂O oxidation is also considered in the current SCR kinetic model.



Thus, the above model describes a comprehensive kinetic mechanism related to stable intermediate products. All the reaction rates for (R1)-(R19) are described using the Arrhenius equation $k = A \exp^{-E_a/RT}$ (as listed in Table 2). In Table 2, the parameters of the reaction rates related to NH₃ adsorption and desorption and H₂O adsorption and desorption are adopted from the literature [45]. These were fitted with experimental measurements of a commercial Cu-SSZ-13 SCR catalyst according to the CLEERS transient SCR characterization protocol [45]. These data were used to develop and validate the presented model.

Table 2. The constants of reaction rate employed in the SCR model.

Description	Reaction	Pre-exp factor, A (mol/mol-site-s)	Activation energy, E _A (J/mol)
NH ₃ adsorption on S1	$R_{1,f} = A_{1,f} \cdot x_{NH_3} \cdot (1 - \theta_{NH_3-S1^*} - \theta_{NH_4NO_3-S1^*}) \cdot \Psi_{S1^*}$	30.25	-
NH ₃ desorption on S1	$R_{1,b} = A_{1,b} \cdot \exp(-E_{1,b}/RT) \cdot \theta_{NH_3-S1^*} \cdot \Psi_{S1^*}$	30.25/1.8E-3*	75E3*
NH ₃ adsorption on S2	$R_{2,f} = A_{2,f} \cdot x_{NH_3} \cdot (1 - \theta_{NH_3-S2^*} - \theta_{NH_4NO_3-S2^*} - \theta_{H_2O-S2^*}) \cdot \Psi_{S2^*}$	1.853e3	-
NH ₃ desorption on S2	$R_{2,b} = A_{2,b} \cdot \exp(-E_{2,b}/RT) \cdot \theta_{NH_3-S2^*} \cdot \Psi_{S2^*}$	1.853e3/3.0E-5*	79E3*
H ₂ O adsorption on S2	$R_{3,f} = A_{3,f} \cdot x_{H_2O}^{1.7} \cdot (1 - \theta_{NH_3-S2^*} - \theta_{NH_4NO_3-S2^*} - \theta_{H_2O-S2^*}) \cdot \Psi_{S2^*}$	10.083	-
H ₂ O desorption on S2	$R_{3,b} = A_{3,b} \cdot \exp(-E_{3,b}/RT) \cdot \theta_{H_2O-S2^*} \cdot \Psi_{S2^*}$	10.083/9.4E-4	42E3*
NH ₃ oxidation on S1	$R_4 = A_4 \cdot \exp(-E_4/RT) \cdot x_{O_2}^{0.5} \cdot \theta_{NH_3-S1^*} \cdot \Psi_{S1^*}$	8.61E3	75.7E3

NH ₃ oxidation on S2	$R_5 = A_5 \cdot \exp(-E_5/RT) \cdot x_{O_2}^{0.5} \cdot \theta_{NH_3S2^*} \cdot \Psi_{S2^*}$	3.58E13	189E3
NO oxidation	$R_{6,f} = A_6 \cdot \exp(-E_6/RT) \cdot x_{NO} \cdot x_{O_2}^{0.5} \cdot \Psi_{S3^*}$	80E3	53E3
NO ₂ decomposition	$R_{6,b} = A_6 \cdot \exp(-E_6/RT) \cdot x_{NO_2} \cdot \Psi_{S3^*} / K_{eq,NO-O_2}$	$K_{eq} = e^{-\Delta G/RT}$; ΔH : -58 kJ/mol; ΔS : -76.1 J/mol-K $\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$;	
Standard SCR on S1	$R_7 = A_7 \cdot \exp(-E_7/RT) \cdot x_{NO} \cdot \theta_{NH_3-S1^*} \cdot \Psi_{S1^*}$	6.3502E11	112.35E3
Standard SCR on S2	$R_8 = A_8 \cdot \exp(-E_8/RT) \cdot x_{NO} \cdot \theta_{NH_3-S2^*} \cdot \Psi_{S2^*}$	5.2164E9	78.545E3
NO ₂ SCR on S1	$R_9 = A_9 \cdot \exp(-E_9/RT) \cdot x_{NO_2} \cdot \theta_{NH_3-S1^*} \cdot \Psi_{S1^*}$	7.7E14	144.6E3
NO ₂ SCR on S2	$R_{10} = A_{10} \cdot \exp(-E_{10}/RT) \cdot x_{NO_2} \cdot \theta_{NH_3-S2^*} \cdot \Psi_{S2^*}$	6.6E13	130.14E3
NH ₄ NO ₃ formation on S1	$R_{11} = A_{11} \cdot \exp(-E_{11}/RT) \cdot x_{NO_2} \cdot \theta_{NH_3-S1^*} \cdot \Psi_{S1^*}$	9.5E12	102.12E3
NH ₄ NO ₃ reaction with NO on S1	$R_{12} = A_{12} \cdot \exp(-E_{12}/RT) \cdot x_{NO} \cdot \theta_{NH_4NO_3-S1^*} \cdot \Psi_{S1^*}$	2.5333E13	68.08E3
NH ₄ NO ₃ formation on S2	$R_{13} = A_{13} \cdot \exp(-E_{13}/RT) \cdot x_{NO_2} \cdot \theta_{NH_3-S2^*} \cdot \Psi_{S2^*}$	9.5E12	102.12E3
NH ₄ NO ₃ reaction with NO on S2	$R_{14} = A_{14} \cdot \exp(-E_{14}/RT) \cdot x_{NO} \cdot \theta_{NH_4NO_3-S2^*} \cdot \Psi_{S2^*}$	2.5333E13	68.08E3
NH ₄ NO ₃ decompose on S1	$R_{15} = A_{15} \cdot \exp(-E_{15}/RT) \cdot \theta_{NH_4NO_3-S1^*} \cdot \Psi_{S1^*}$	3.04E13	96.61E3
NH ₄ NO ₃ decompose on S2	$R_{16} = A_{16} \cdot \exp(-E_{16}/RT) \cdot \theta_{NH_4NO_3-S2^*} \cdot \Psi_{S2^*}$	3.04E13	96.61E3
N ₂ O formation with NO on S1	$R_{17} = A_{17} \cdot \exp(-E_{17}/RT) \cdot x_{NO} \cdot x_{O_2} \cdot \theta_{NH_3-S1^*} \cdot \Psi_{S1^*}$	3.44e12	110.0E3
N ₂ O formation with NO ₂ on S2	$R_{18} = A_{18} \cdot \exp(-E_{18}/RT) \cdot x_{NO_2} \cdot \theta_{NH_3-S2^*} \cdot \Psi_{S2^*}$	9.72E13	129.9E3
N ₂ O oxidation	$R_{19} = A_{19} \cdot \exp(-E_{19}/RT) \cdot x_{N_2O} \cdot x_{O_2} \cdot \Psi_{S3^*}$	8.64E9	107.9E3

* The marked parameters are adapted from reference [45]; $\Psi_{S1} = 50 \text{ mol/m}^3$; $\Psi_{S2} = 50 \text{ mol/m}^3$; $\Psi_{S3} = 50 \text{ mol/m}^3$. Ψ_{S1} and Ψ_{S2} represent the NH₃ storage sites; Ψ_{S3} represents the sites of NO oxidation and N₂O oxidation.

In addition, to properly account for the R11 and R12 reactions at NH₃ storage site S1, and R13 and R14 reactions at NH₃ storage site S2 in the stoichiometry of the fast SCR reaction, the model also considers the limitation of an equimolar NO/NO₂ reaction rate determined from the minimum mass flow between the NO and NO₂ gas species. Ψ_{S3} represents the density of sites for NO oxidation and N₂O oxidation. The SCR monolith geometry and material properties are assumed constant. The flow through the monolith channels is assumed to be laminar, hence the Nusselt number corresponding to laminar channel flow is used to compute the heat transfer rates. Table 3 lists the primary parameter values used in the model.

Table 3. The geometry, material properties, and catalyst loading parameters used in the NH₃-SCR model.

Parameters (unit)	Value
Void fraction ϵ (-)	0.8
Washcoat porosity ϵ' (-)	0.1
Channel density of the monolith (1/m ²)	620,000
Substrate density ρ_s (kg/m ³)	2500
Substrate conductivity k_s (w/m-K)	1.25
Substrate specific heat c_{ps} (J/kg-K)	840
Exhaust specific heat c_{pe} (J/kg-K)	1089
NH ₃ storage capacity @S1 (mol/m ³) (i.e. Ψ_{S1})	50
NH ₃ storage capacity @S2 (mol/m ³) (i.e. Ψ_{S2})	50
NO or N ₂ O oxidation activate site S3 (mol/m ³) (i.e. Ψ_{S3})	50

3. Experimental data

The tested Cu-SSZ-13 SCR catalyst is a commercial product used in diesel pickup trucks that was obtained from General Motors. The studied sample is a 2.0 cm diameter and 5.0 cm long core sample which was cut from a full-sized catalyst monolith with a molar Si/Al ratio of 15 and a molar Cu/Al ratio of 0.42. Prior to performing experiments, the core sample was degreened in a laboratory furnace at 800°C for 2 hours under a flow of 10% O₂, 10% H₂O and 80% N₂. All of the experiments were conducted in an automated flow reactor at ORNL. The flow reactor uses synthetic exhaust gas mixtures to explore specific reaction functions and properties of catalytic materials. The catalyst core sample was loaded in a 2.5 cm diameter quartz tube with custom stainless steel end caps and placed in a tube furnace to control the catalyst temperature. Type K thermocouples were placed at the midpoint inside the core sample and 5 mm upstream and 5mm downstream to monitor and control the catalyst temperature. Gas concentrations upstream and downstream of the catalyst sample were measured with a MKS Multigas 2030HS Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) spectrometer.

A series of SCR reactor experimental procedures developed by ORNL [45] were used to explore the catalyst functions and measure exhaust properties used in the model (see Table S-1 in the supplementary document for the detailed protocol steps). For NH₃ oxidation, NO oxidation, and standard and fast SCR reactions testing at 175°C-550°C, the experimental procedures include 10 steps at each given temperature, including (1) a pretreatment/cooling process; (2) NH₃ adsorption; (3) NH₃ oxidation; (4) NH₃ inventory and NO oxidation; (5) NO SCR with NH₃/NO=1.0; (6) NO SCR with NH₃ inventory; (7) start NO₂; (8) NO+NO₂ SCR with NH₃/NO_x=1.0 and NO/NO_x=0.5; (9) NO+NO₂ SCR with NH₃ inventory; and (10) a cleaning process. In the protocol steps, the pretreatment/cooling process takes 30minute to achieve a steady state at each given temperature, and the cleaning process is used to fully clean NH₃ inventory in the catalyst sample in order to ensure catalyst quality for testing at the next temperature condition. The space velocity (volumetric flow rate divided by the catalyst volume) of all tested cases is 60,000/hour.

To investigate the effects of NH₃ concentration and temperature on NH₃ storage capacity and stability of the catalyst, eight temperature programmed desorption (TPD) experiments were conducted. At each tested adsorption temperature, the experiment begins with 2-minutes of non-NH₃ flow, followed by an NH₃ adsorption step at 1000ppm; after the catalyst is saturated with NH₃, the NH₃ adsorption step is decreased in a stepwise manner to a NH₃ concentration of 800ppm, 600ppm, 400ppm, 200ppm, 100ppm, 50ppm, 25ppm, 12ppm and 0ppm; then the catalyst temperature is continuously increased to 800K at a rate of 5°C/min. All the inlet gas in the TPD experiments includes 5% CO₂ and 5% H₂O with a space velocity of 30,000/hour. To avoid significant NH₃ oxidation, the O₂ concentration is limited to 0.2% in these tests. Similar TPD experiments were used to investigate the effects of H₂O concentration and temperature on NH₃ storage capacity and stability, by repeating the measurements with the feed gas H₂O concentration decreasing from 10% 8.5%, 6.5%, 4.5%, 2.5% stepwise, with a 390ppm NH₃ inlet concentration and a space velocity of 30,000/hour.

4. Results

4.1. NH₃ and H₂O adsorption/desorption

Eight ammonia TPD experiments were used in validating the parameters over the range of adsorption temperature of 175°C -350°C. In each case, the experiment begins with 2-minutes of non-NH₃ flow, followed by an NH₃ adsorption step at 1000ppm; after the catalyst is saturated with NH₃, the NH₃ concentration is decreased stepwise; then the catalyst temperature is continuously increased to 800K at a rate of 5°C/min. All the inlet gas includes 5% CO₂, 5% H₂O and 0.2% O₂ with a space velocity of 30,000/hour. The results between the experiments and simulations at 175, 225, 275, 300 and 325°C are shown in Figure 1, and the results at 200, 250 and 350°C are provided in the supplementary document.

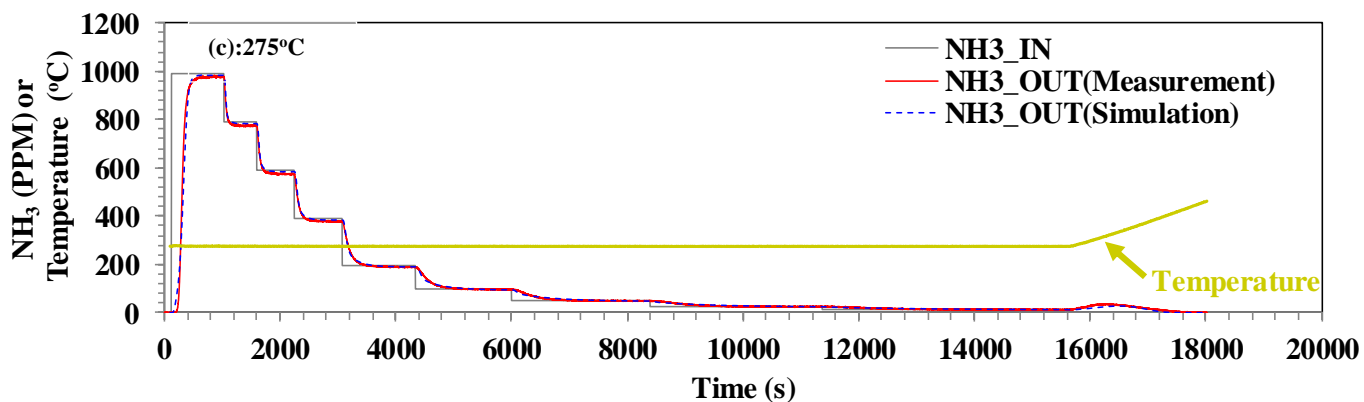
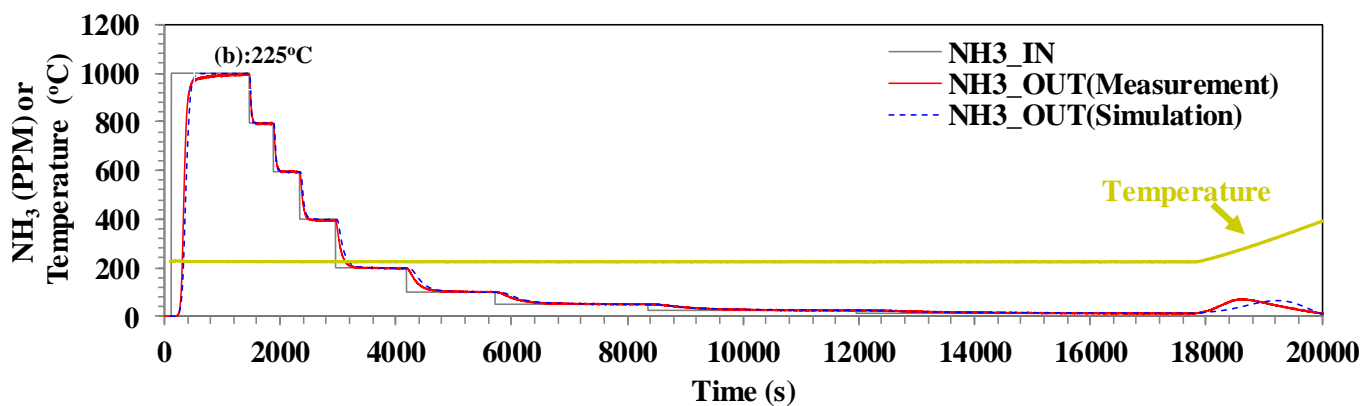
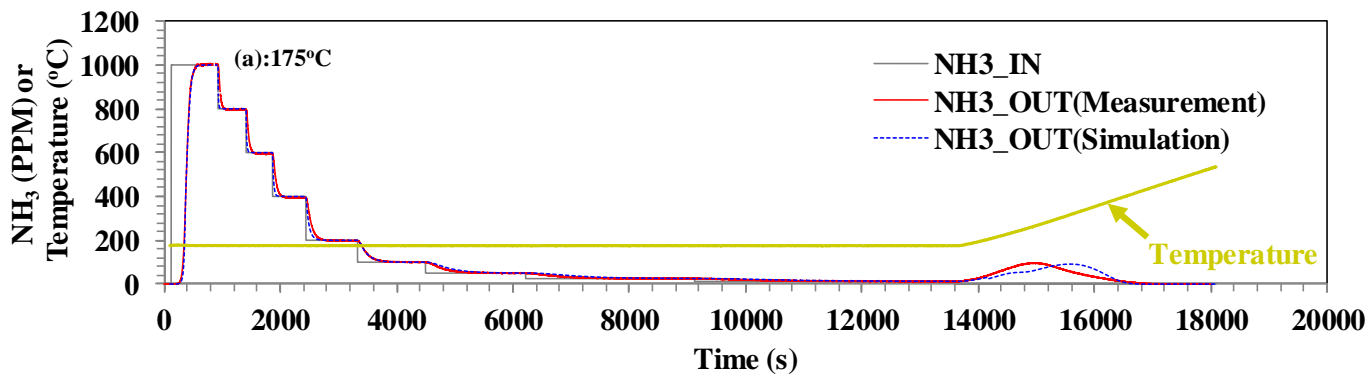
The observations show that the modeled ammonia storage and desorption matched very well to the measured NH₃ concentration. At the 1000ppm NH₃ inlet concentration, the outlet NH₃ concentration is initially zero, then increases and approaches 1000ppm for the cases with less than 300°C adsorption temperature; for the cases with 300°C adsorption temperature or above, the outlet NH₃ concentration is slightly less than 1000ppm. The main reason is that 0.2% O₂ leads to limited NH₃ oxidation at 300°C and beyond. When the inlet NH₃ concentration is reduced to 800ppm or lower in each step, a desorption of loosely bound ammonia is observed: the outlet NH₃ concentration remains higher than the inlet concentration for an extended period of time. This phenomenon becomes more significant at lower inlet NH₃ concentrations for the cases with adsorption temperature less than 300°C (see 400ppm or less inlet NH₃ concentration in Figure 1(a)-1(c)). During the NH₃ desorption phase near the end of each test, a NH₃ desorption peak is observed when the temperature is increased to 280-330°C. Another observation is that for temperatures of 300°C and higher only a very weak peak for NH₃ desorption is present (see Figure 1(d)-1(e)). The NH₃ storage capacity is reduced at higher temperature, and the loosely bound ammonia stored in low-temperature NH₃ storage sites (S₂) are not effective at the higher temperature due to the higher energy of the NH₃ molecules. Thus,

the results indicate that the ammonia inventory in the SCR is bound differently at low and high temperature conditions, which supports the assumption of a two-site NH₃ storage mechanism with distinct low- and high-temperature storage characteristics.

In Figure 1(a) for 175°C, the simulated peak of desorption during TPD process has a slight shift to a higher transient temperature compared with the measurement. In the model, two fixed ammonia storage sites are considered for low and high temperature conditions. However, recent studies show that mobilized Cu ions can travel through zeolite and form transient ion pairs [47]. The dynamic and reversible formation of multinuclear sites from mobilized Cu ions can play a critical role in ammonia storage/desorption. Ignoring the reversible sites will limit the prediction accuracy across all temperature range. Thus, in future works, three or more ammonia storage sites should be considered to account for better SCR storage sites and actual ammonia storage.

Figure 2 shows the results of the simulated NH₃ storage site coverage during NH₃ adsorption and desorption TPD experiments at 175°C and 325°C using the model. Apparently, the coverage of the S1 high-temperature NH₃ storage sites remains fairly close to 1.0 without any significant impact from the inlet NH₃ variation during the 175°C case, except that the S1 coverage is reduced as the temperature increases continuously to 280°C after the NH₃ adsorption phase; on the other hand, the coverage of S2, representing the loosely bound, low-temperature NH₃ storage sites, varies substantially with different inlet NH₃ concentrations. Compared to the case of 175°C, the coverage of S1 at 325°C adsorption temperature becomes lower, and the adsorption coverage of S2 approaches zero except for inlet NH₃ concentrations more than 400ppm. This indicates that the SCR NH₃ storage capacity significantly depends on temperature and inlet NH₃ concentration, which was previously reported by Pihl et al. [45]. Consequently, the measured and simulated NH₃ storage capacity was compared as a function of adsorption temperature and inlet concentration. The results are shown in Figure 3(a). The data of the measured NH₃ storage capacity are derived from the eight ammonia TPD experiments shown in Figure 1. The data show that the SCR NH₃ storage capacity varies in equilibrium with both temperature and NH₃ concentration. The model based on the two-site storage mechanism does reflect this phenomenon and captures the SCR performance and mechanism very well.

The impact of water concentration on NH₃ storage capacity was also explored. The results plotted in Figure 3(b) detail NH₃ adsorption competing with H₂O as a function of temperature. The data of measured NH₃ storage capacity are derived from the eight H₂O TPD experiments, covering the range of adsorption temperature of 175-350°C. For these tests, the inlet gas included 390ppm NH₃ concentration, and the space velocity was 30,000/hour. The total composition is balanced by N₂ to achieve 100%. In each case, the experiment began with a flow of 2.5% H₂O for 1000s, and was then followed by a H₂O concentration step at 10%; after the catalyst is saturated with NH₃ at each operating condition, the NH₃ adsorption step is modified, in incremental steps, to evaluate H₂O concentration conditions of 10%, 9%, 7%, 5% and 3%. The results show that there is only about a 5% reduction in NH₃ storage capacity for the 11% H₂O case relative to the 3% H₂O case at 175°C, but at 325 °C, there is nearly no impact of H₂O concentration on the NH₃ storage capacity. Some examples showing the transient NH₃ data are plotted in Figure 4. Figure 4(a) clearly shows that at 1320s the NH₃ outlet concentration is increased dramatically when 3% H₂O is switched to 11% H₂O, meaning that significant adsorbed NH₃ is replaced by H₂O on the storage sites. Figure 4(a) also shows that the NH₃ outlet concentration drops slightly when the H₂O concentration is decreased to 9% or lower H₂O steps. This indicates some adsorbed H₂O is replaced by NH₃ on the storage sites. However, Figures 4(c) and (4d) show that the phenomenon becomes very weak at 250°C and even vanishes at 325°C. It shows that H₂O adsorption occurs only at the low-temperature storage sites, which is consistent with the model assumption that H₂O adsorption occurs at the low-temperature S2 storage sites. This can also be confirmed in Figure 2, as well as Figures 4(b), 4(d) and 4(e). Figures 4(b), 4(d) and 4(f) display the simulated storage coverage for NH₃ and H₂O during NH₃ adsorption competing with H₂O, for the cases shown in Figures 4(a), 4(c) and 4(e), respectively. Therefore, the H₂O competition with NH₃ during the adsorption process on Cu-SSZ-13 occurs mainly at low temperature, e.g. 175°C or less. In real diesel exhaust flows, H₂O adsorption may lead to weak SCR reaction efficiency, particularly during a cold-start.



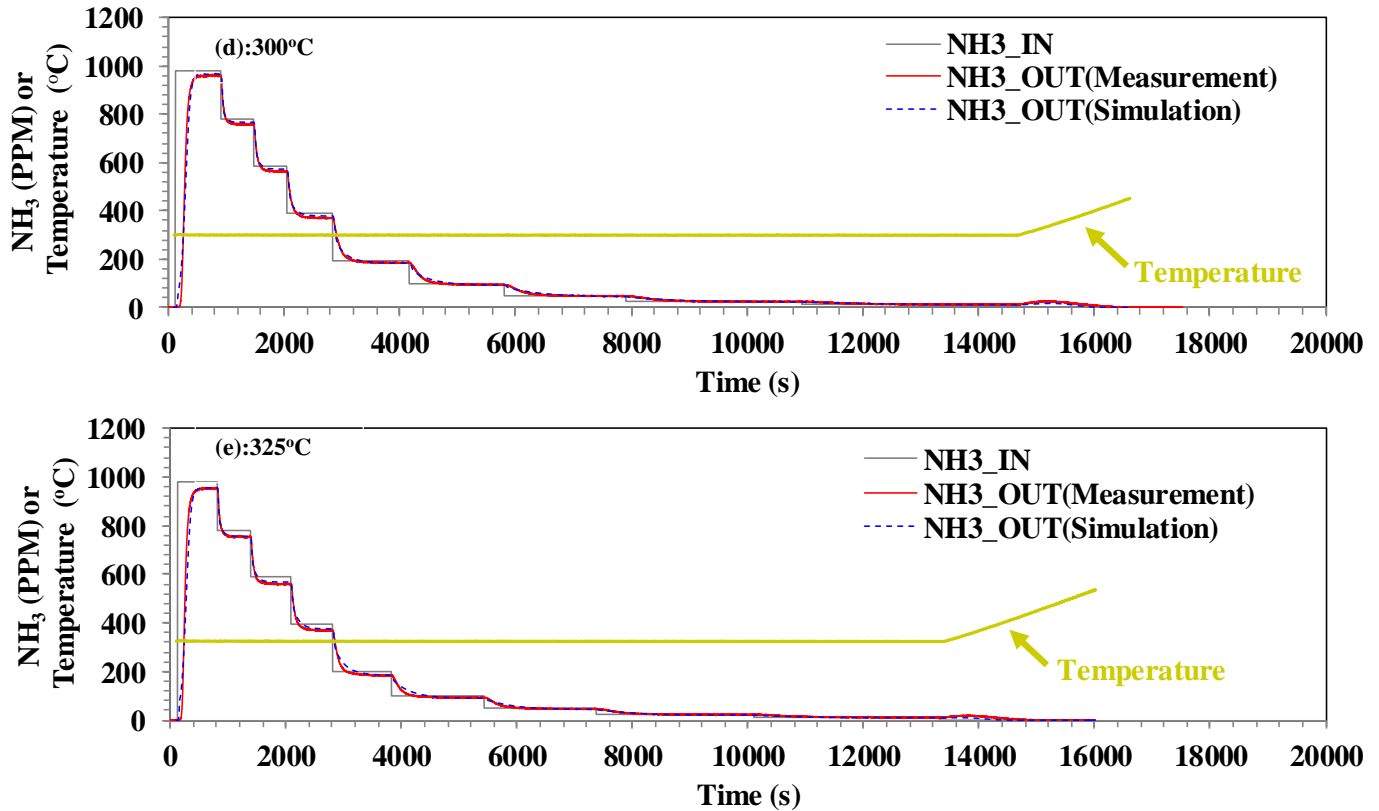


Figure 1: Measured and simulated NH₃ concentration during NH₃ adsorption and desorption TPD experiments; the NH₃ supply concentration was incrementally decreased with steps at 1000ppm 800ppm, 600ppm, 400ppm, 200ppm, 100ppm, 50ppm, 25ppm, 12ppm and 0ppm; after the 0 ppm step, the catalyst temperature was continuously increased to 800K at a rate of 5°C/min; the simulated emission gas supply to the catalyst also includes 5% CO₂, 5% H₂O and 0.2% O₂; the space velocity is 30,000/hour. The NH₃ adsorption temperatures at 175, 225, 275, 300 and 325°C for the plots shown in (a)-(e), respectively.

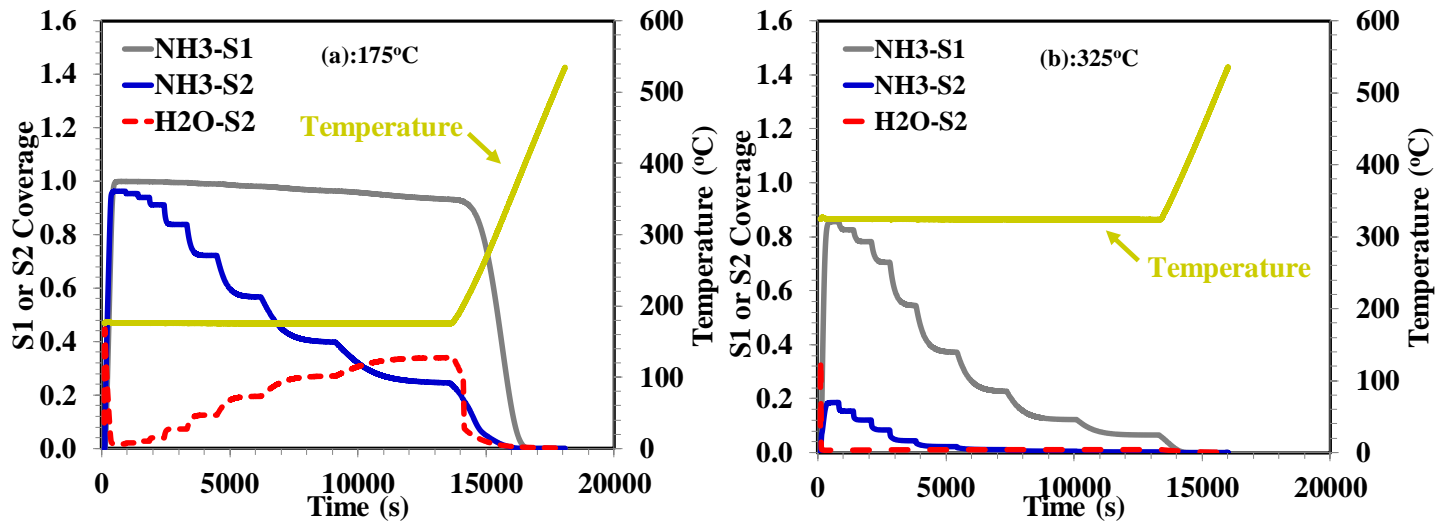


Figure 2: Examples of simulated NH₃ storage site coverage during NH₃ adsorption and desorption TPD experiments; the NH₃ adsorption temperatures are (a) 175°C and (b) 325°C.

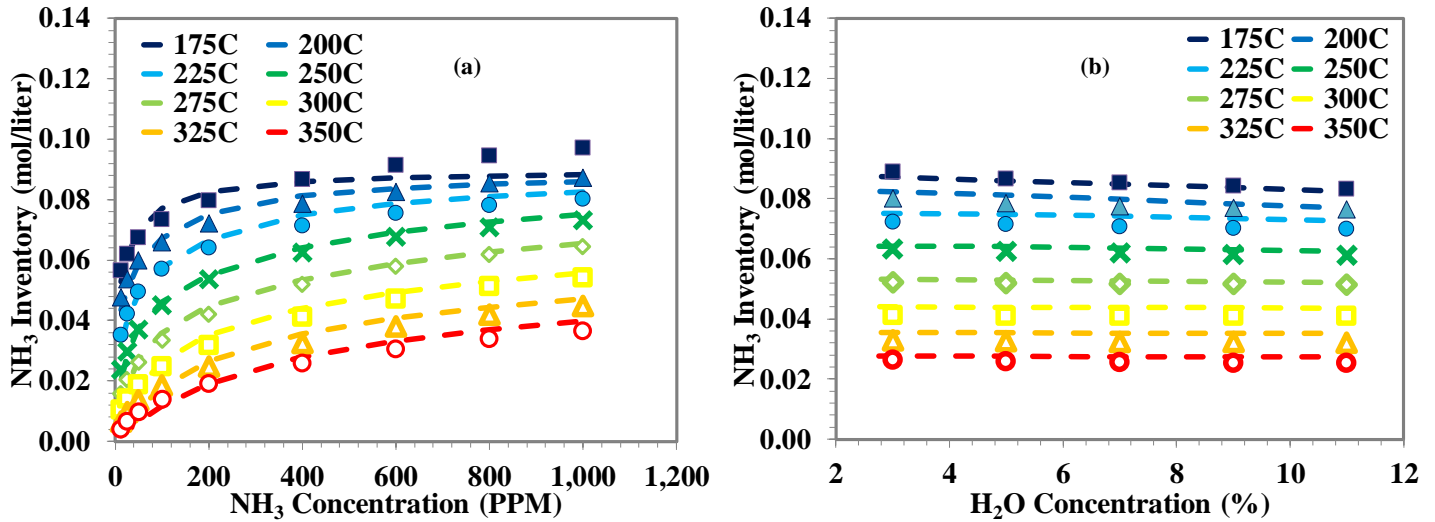
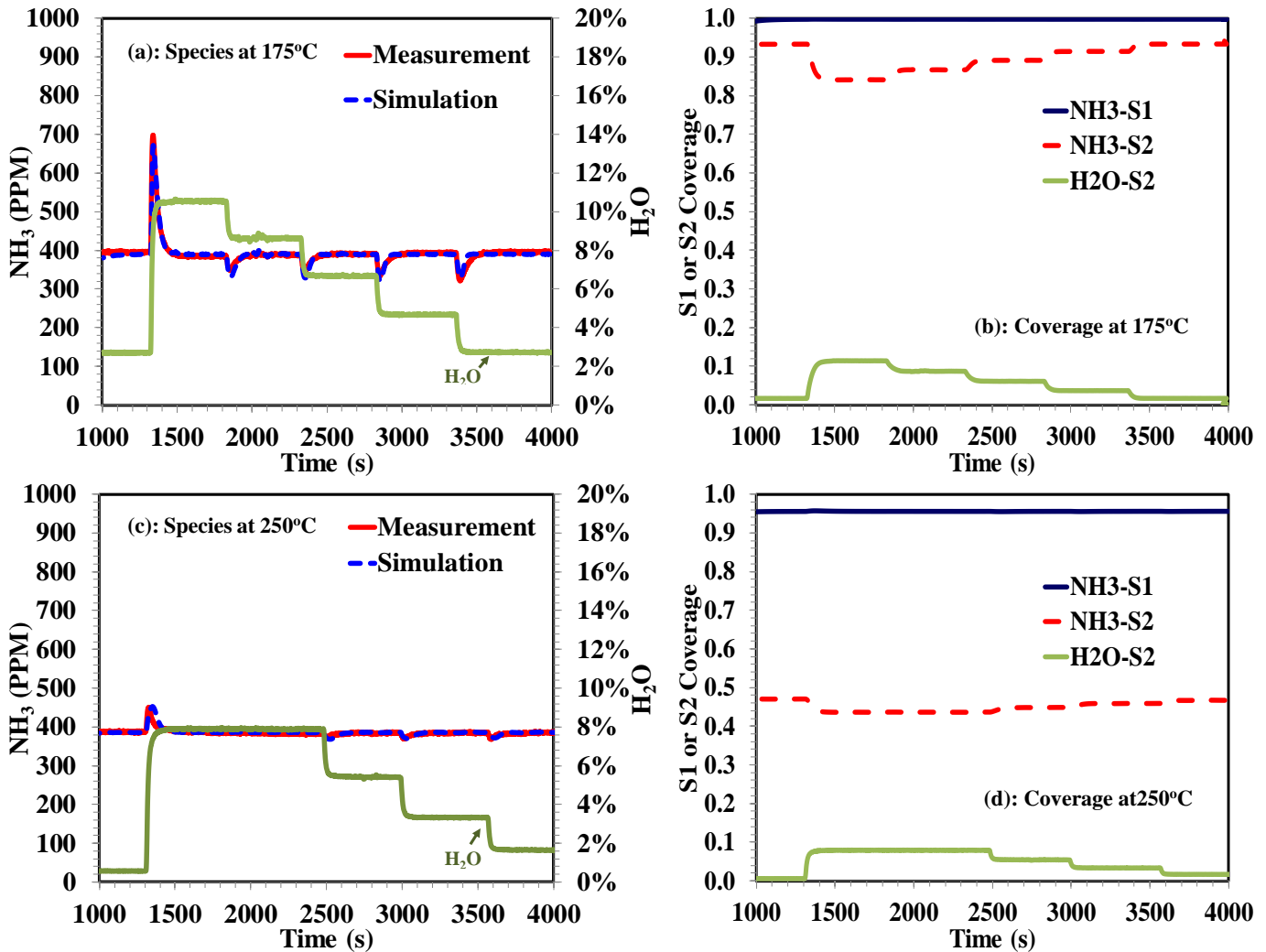


Figure 3: Comparison of measured and simulated NH₃ storage capacity as functions of (a) NH₃ inlet concentration and adsorption temperature, and of (b) H₂O concentration and adsorption temperature, to characterize the impact of water concentration and temperature on NH₃ storage.



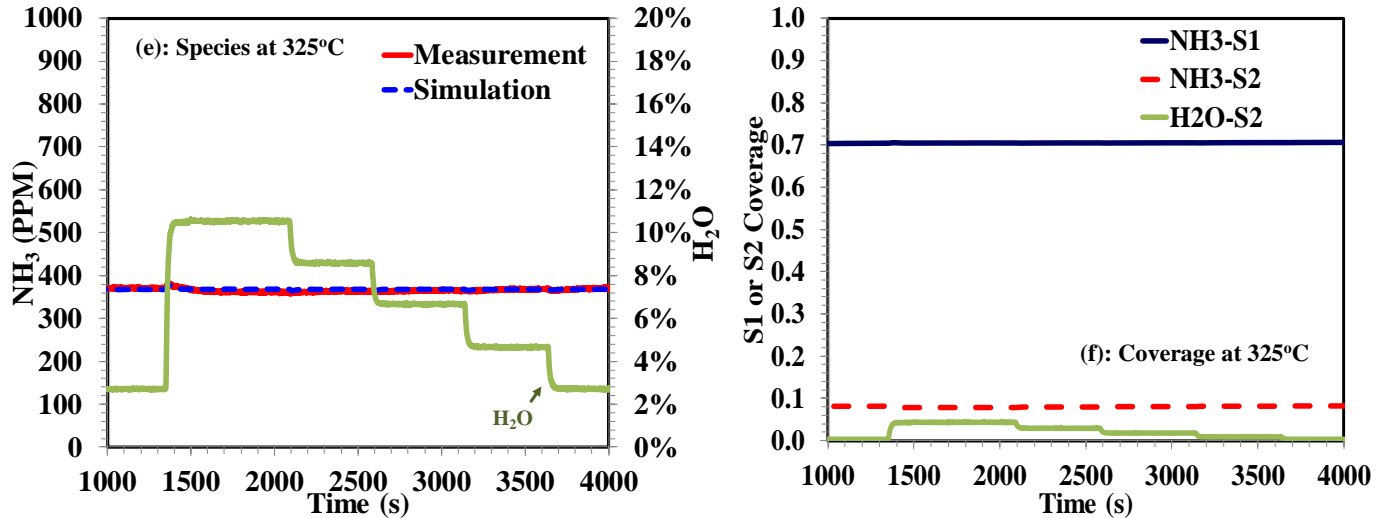


Figure 4: Measured and simulated NH₃ outlet concentration, as well as simulated storage coverages, during NH₃ adsorption completing with H₂O. The feed contains the decreased H₂O concentration of 11% 9%, 7%, 5%, 3% stepwise with 390 ppm NH₃ inlet concentration and a space velocity of 30,000/hour. The temperatures are 175, 250, and 325°C, respectively.

4.2. NH₃ oxidation and NO oxidation

Figure 5(a) and 5(b) compare the simulation with experimental results for NH₃ oxidation and NO oxidation, over a range of 250°C - 550°C and at the space velocity of 60,000/hour. In the NH₃ oxidation experiments shown in Figure 5(a), the catalyst was exposed to 300 ppm NH₃, 10% O₂, 5% H₂O, 5% CO₂ and a balance of N₂. Both the model and experiments show no ammonia oxidation taking place below 250°C. However, at 300°C and beyond, the ammonia oxidation increases significantly with the rise in temperature, as the proposed model predicts the measurement very well. This result of NH₃ oxidation can explain why the outlet NH₃ concentration in the case of 300°C adsorption temperature and higher is slightly less than the inlet NH₃ concentration, as shown in Figure 1. The adsorption cases contain 0.2% O₂ which could lead to limited NH₃ oxidation.

For the NO oxidation curve shown in Figure 5(b), the catalyst was exposed to 300 ppm NO, 10% O₂, 5% H₂O, 5% CO₂ and a balance of N₂. The current NO oxidation model predicts the basic features of the experimental NO oxidation very well. For example, at lower temperature, the NO oxidation conversion is kinetically limited and NO₂ production increases as the temperature increases. Thus, the NO₂ production reaches its peak around 450°C-500°C and then decreases due to thermodynamic constraints. In general, the model predicts the general trend of NH₃ and NO oxidations reasonably well.

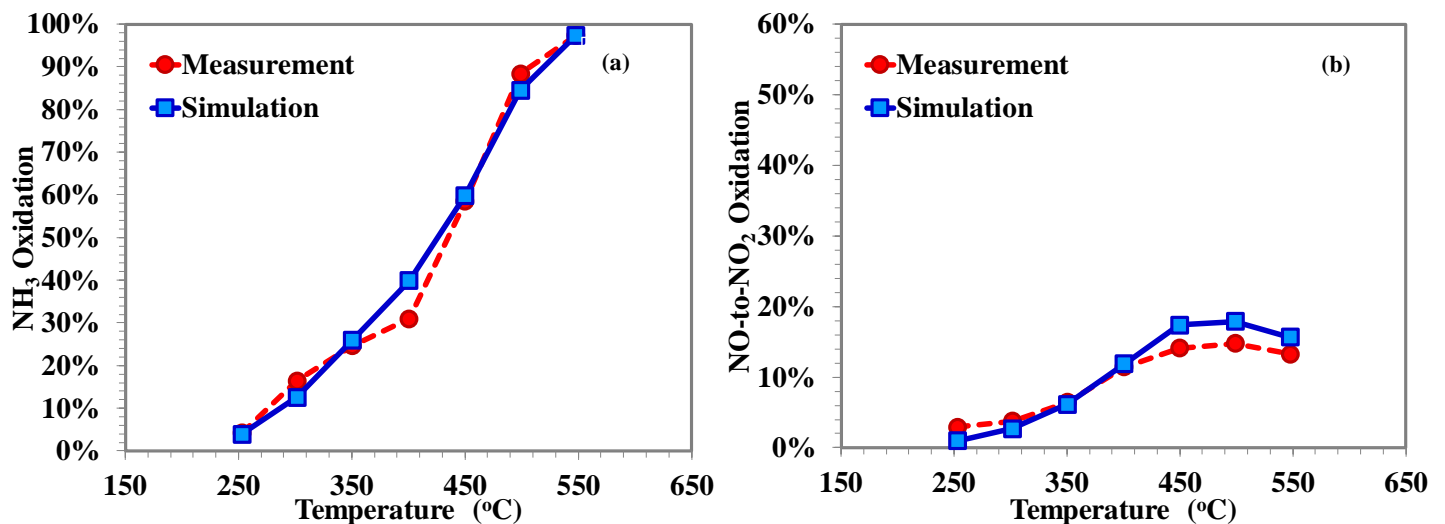


Figure 5: Simulated and experimental results for (a) NH₃ oxidation and (b) NO oxidation over the temperature range 250°C-550°C, at the space velocity of 60,000/hour.

4.3. NH₃ SCR

The experimental data measured from the ORNL SCR reactor experiment protocols were used for the SCR model development. For the standard SCR reactions, the catalyst was exposed to 300ppm NO, 300ppm NH₃, 5% CO₂, 5% H₂O and 10% O₂ over a temperature range of 150°C to 550°C with 25°C temperature increments. The space velocity was 60,000/hour. The comparison between the experimental data and predictions for the NO-SCR reaction is shown in Figure 6. The NO_x reduction efficiency is fairly low at 150°C, but increases dramatically between 150°C-200°C, enabling 90% or greater NO_x reduction between 225°C-400°C; it then decreases with a further rise in temperature (see Figure 6(a)). The details for the outlet NO and NO₂ are shown in Figure 6(c) and 6(d), respectively. Figure 6(c) further shows more than 200ppm NO concentration at the outlet at 150°C, a reduction to near 20ppm at 250°C-400°C, and an increasing outlet NO concentration for 450°C -550°. A higher NO slip at 450°C-550°C is mainly due to significant NH₃ oxidation at that temperature (see Figure 5(a)), which leads to insufficient NH₃ available in the NO-SCR reaction. The predictions by the model capture the phenomenon reasonably well. Also the simulation error of NO is substantially less than the 15ppm error except below 200°C. SCR reactions at low temperature are actually considerably different from those at high temperature, as SCR performance is degraded dramatically with even small temperature decline once below 200°C. Although the current model does not fully resolve this, the results and general trends are still predicted with reasonable accuracy. Figure 6(d) shows limited NO₂ outlet concentration generated at 400°C or higher because of NO oxidation producing NO₂ (see Figure 5(b)). The simulation error of NO₂ is less than the 5ppm. Figure 6(e) compares the measured and predicted N₂O with no more than 10ppm error. The N₂O formation mechanism is fairly complicated, and extra-low N₂O levels are even more difficult in the modeling. Figure 6(b) and Figure 6(f) show comparisons of NH₃ reduction and outlet concentration, indicating a respectable accuracy of prediction. Similar to NO, the simulation error of NH₃ is substantially less than the 15ppm error except below 200°C

In the fast SCR reactions, the catalyst was exposed to 150ppm NO, 150ppm NO₂, 300ppm NH₃, 5% CO₂, 5% H₂O and 10% O₂ over the temperature range from 150°C to 550°C, using 25°C temperature steps for all measurements. The space velocity remained at 60,000/hour. The results from the experiment and model predictions are compared in Figure 7. As expected, the NO_x reduction in the fast-SCR reaction is higher than the standard SCR, particularly for the range of 150°C-200°C. Figure 7(c) and Figure 7(d) show a combined concentration of 200ppm for NO and NO₂ at the outlet at 150°C, and this decreases down to around 10-20ppm at 200°C-400°C, and then increases over temperatures from 450°C-550°C. The main reason why fast SCR achieves the optimal performance at 200°C-400°C is because this temperature range enables sufficient ammonia available for the SCR to react with the optimal equimolar NO to NO₂ rate, thus avoiding the degradation of SCR performance at lower temperature and avoiding the unbalance amount of NO, NO₂ and NH₃ reactants at higher temperature. The data actually shows a higher NO outlet concentration occurs at 450°C-550°C during the fast SCR reaction. This is caused by two mechanisms: (1) a thermodynamic constraint leads to NO₂ conversion to NO at 450°C; (2) significant NH₃ oxidation at that temperature, leading to insufficient NH₃ availability in the SCR reactions. Figure 7(e) displays the measured and predicted N₂O which, similar to the standard SCR reaction, also is not predicted as well as the NO and NO₂. However, the prediction level still reflects a reasonable level. Figure 7(b) and Figure 7(f) are the comparison of NH₃ reduction and outlet concentration, which is fairly good. Consequently, the model involved in R11-R14 reaction mechanisms is reasonably good at predicting the fast SCR performance. In Figure 7, the simulation errors of NO, NO₂ and NH₃ are substantially less than 15ppm except below 200°C while the difference between the measured and predicted N₂O is less than 10ppm.

Figure 8 compares the measured and predicted SCR performance for the NO₂-SCR experiments as a function of temperature. In the slow SCR reactions, the catalyst was exposed to 225ppm NO₂, 300ppm NH₃, 5% CO₂, 5% H₂O and 10% O₂ while increasing the temperature from 225°C to 550°C in increments of 25°C. The NO₂-SCR reaction does not occur once below 200°C. The results from the experiment and model predictions are plotted in Figure 8. In Figure 8(a), the NO_x reduction in the slow-SCR reaction is substantially less than the standard SCR and fast SCR reactions (see Figure 6(a) and 7(a), respectively) for temperature less than 300°C. Although the model slightly over-estimates the NO_x reduction in the range 450°C-550°C, the model does reasonably well overall in predicting the NO₂ SCR performance, as well as NO/NO₂/NH₃ concentration. In this case, the measured and predicted N₂O concentration matches reasonably well.

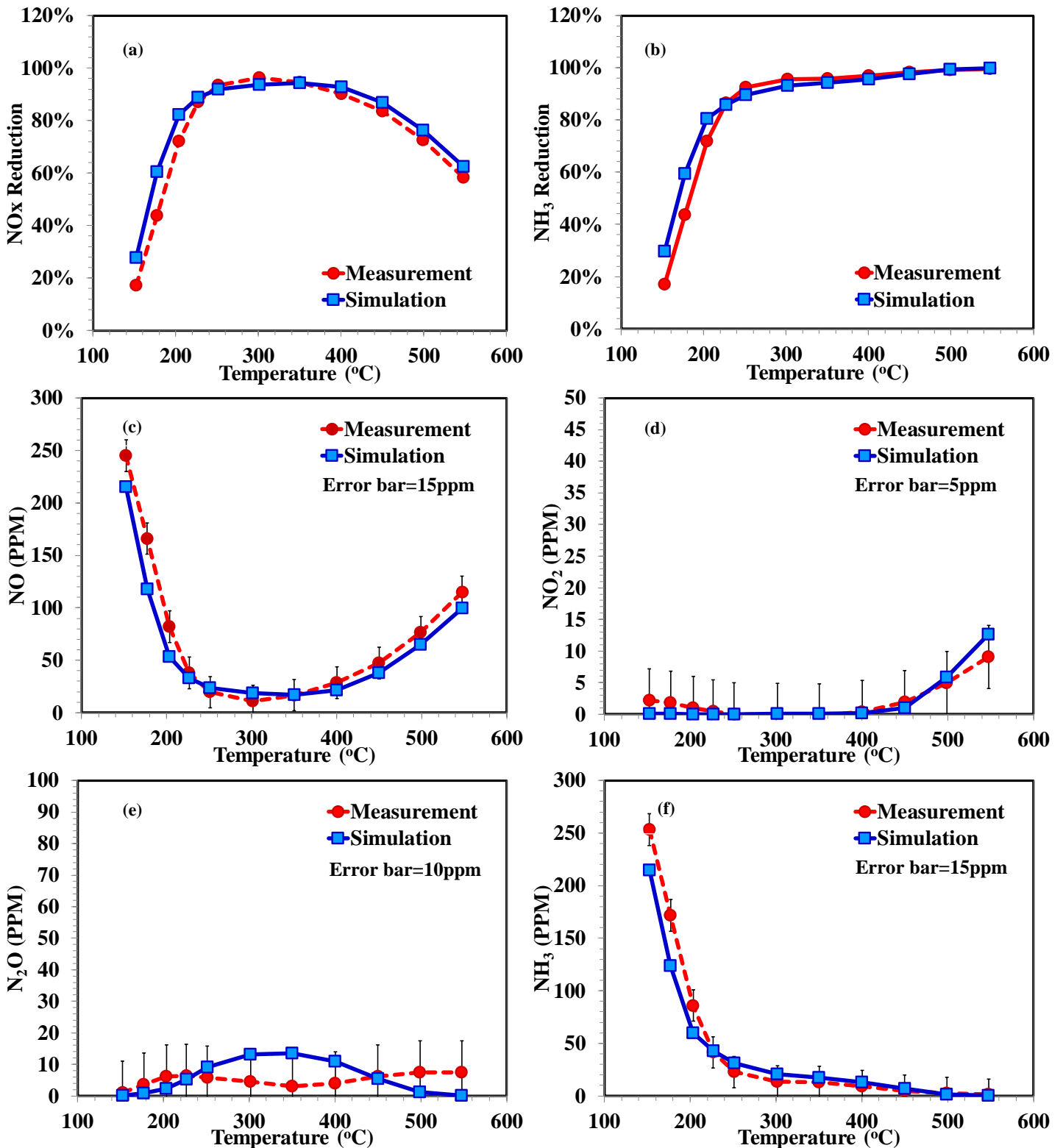


Figure 6: Measured and predicted SCR performance and NO/NO₂/N₂O/NH₃ outlet concentrations for the NO-SCR (standard SCR) reaction as a function of temperature, at a space velocity of 60,000/hour. The error bars for figures (c), (d), (e) and (f) are 15ppm, 5ppm, 10ppm and 15ppm, respectively.

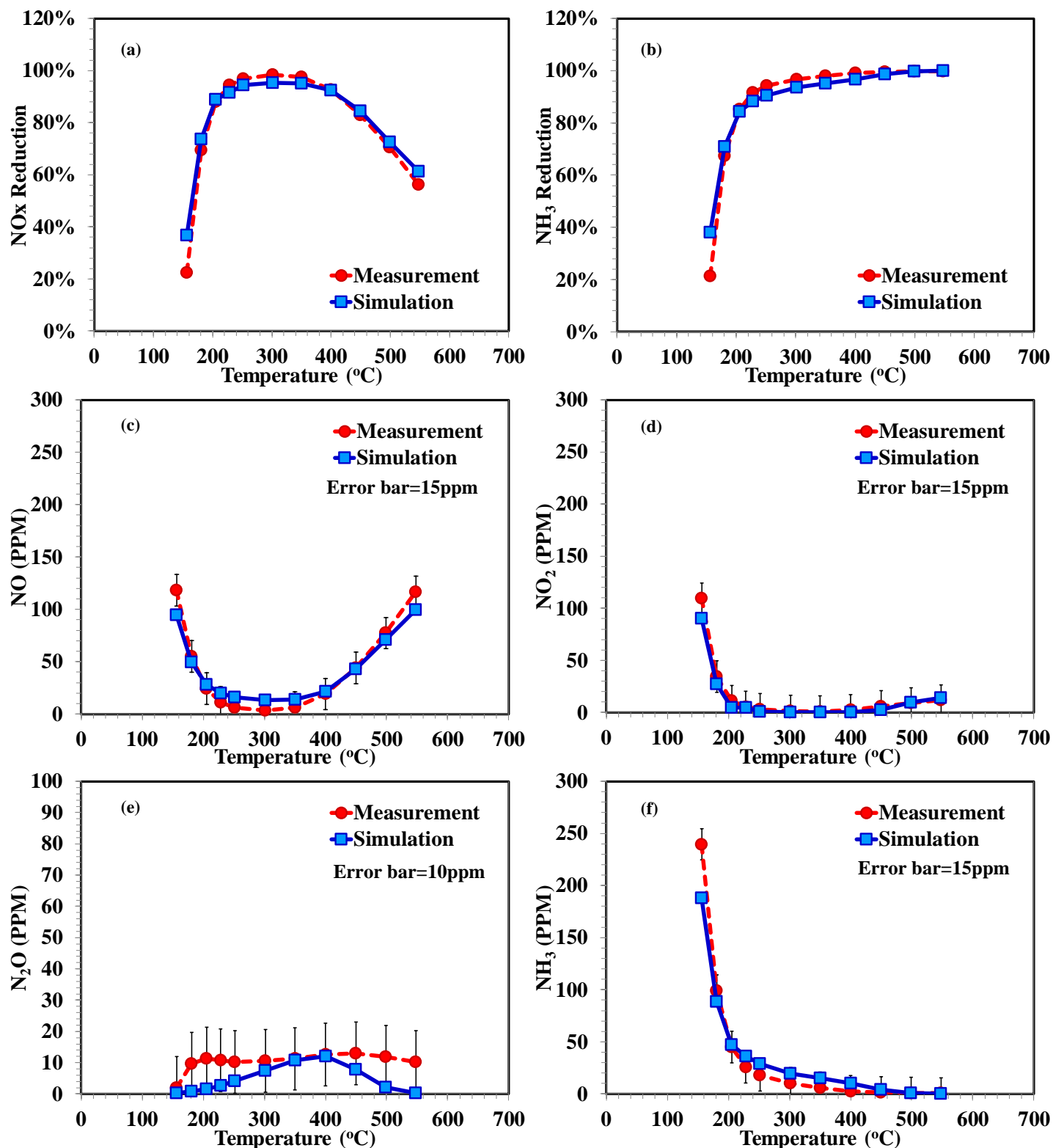


Figure 7: Measured and predicted SCR performance and NO/NO₂/N₂O/NH₃ outlet concentrations for the fast SCR reaction as a function of temperature, at a space velocity of 60,000/hour. The error bars at figures (c), (d), (e) and (f) are 15ppm, 15ppm, 10ppm and 15ppm, respectively.

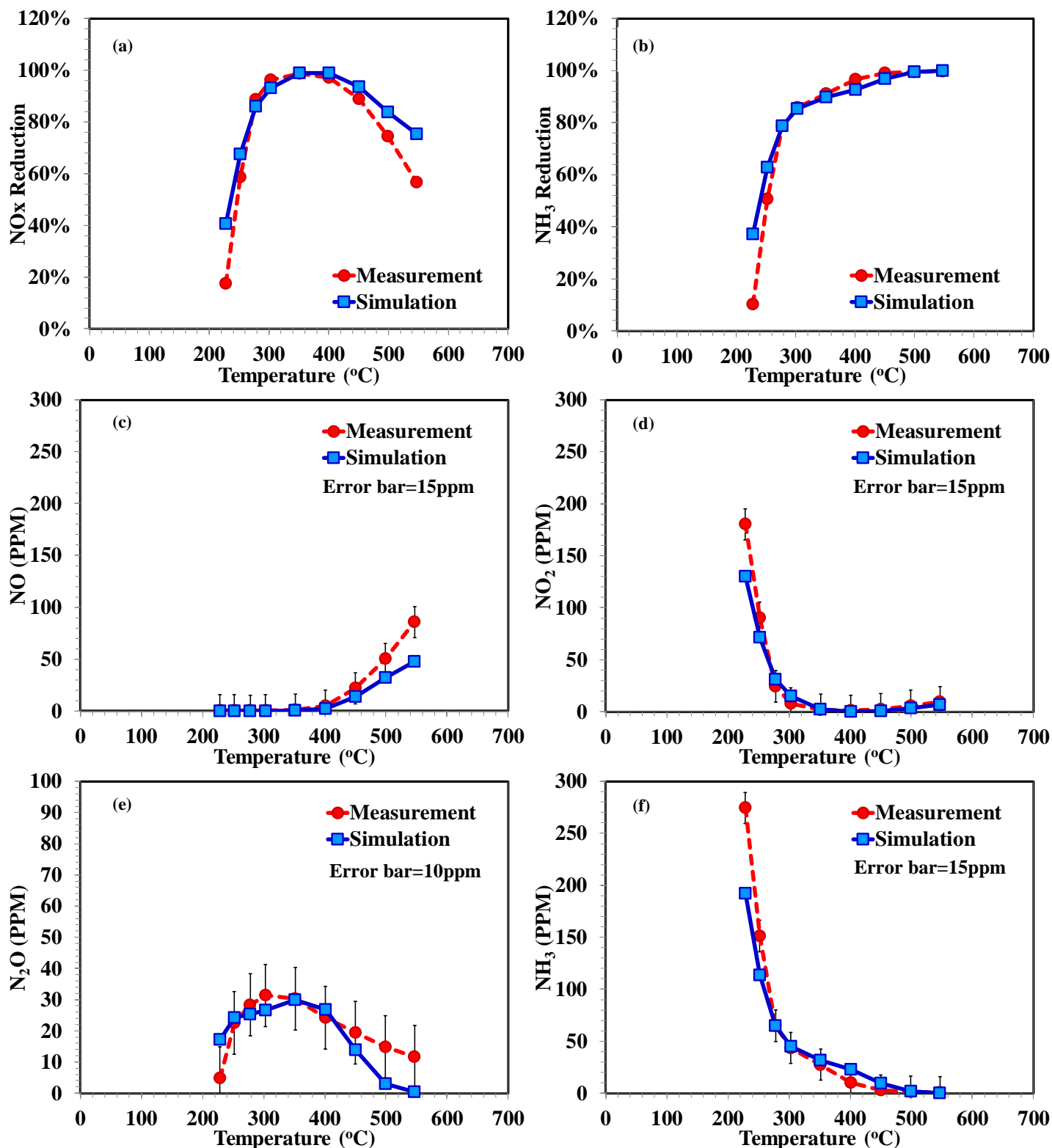


Figure 8: Measured and predicted SCR performance and NO/NO₂/N₂O/NH₃ outlet concentrations for the NO₂-SCR (slow SCR) reaction as a function of temperature, at a space velocity of 60,000/hour. The error bars for figures (c), (d), (e) and (f) are 15ppm, 15ppm, 10ppm and 15ppm, respectively.

4.4. SCR transient validation

The kinetic model developed was further validated with four additional transient experiments, which were not included in the model development and parameter fitting. The results cover 250°C -400 °C. Figure 9 shows the case tested at 250°C, and the other cases are attached in the supplementary document. Figure 9(a) details each step of NO/NO₂/N₂O/NH₃ inlet concentrations for a space velocity of 60,000/hour. Figure 9(b)-9(e) shows the resulting outlet concentrations for N₂O/NO₂/NO/NH₃. For the initial NH₃ adsorption step, only 300ppm NH₃ and 0.2% O₂ are added to the feed. The NH₃ is completely adsorbed at the beginning, but then the outlet NH₃ concentration gradually increases and finally reaches a steady-state level after about 800 seconds. The NH₃ oxidation step at 250°C does show a small change to the outlet concentrations due to NH₃ oxidation.

At the NH₃ inventory and NO oxidation step, Figure 9(b) shows a spike of overestimated N₂O at the beginning of NH₃ inventory while Figure 9(c) shows very limited NO₂ concentration due to NO oxidation. At the NO-SCR step, NO gradually decreases and approaches a steady-state level of ~20ppm. The model predicts very well the general trend of NH₃, NO and NO₂ —and even N₂O— concentrations as a result of implementing the two-site storage mechanism.

At the NO-SCR with NH₃ inventory step, the NO concentration is increased gradually and then maintains a value slightly less than 300ppm, while limited NO₂ is generated and N₂O disappears in absence of NH₃. The result of N₂O disappearance, together with a spike of N₂O at early NH₃ inventory, indicates that the formation of N₂O is related to the reaction of NH₃ and enriched NO, as is predicted accurately by the R17 mechanism of the model.

For the NO+NO₂ SCR step, without the supply of NH₃, the NO and NO₂ concentrations remain at 150ppm). Once NH₃ appears, both NO and NO₂ outlet concentrations gradually decrease and then reach a steady-state condition. Both the measurement and prediction show a small level of N₂O generated, although this is slightly underestimated by the model. At the NO+NO₂ SCR with NH₃ inventory step, the model reasonably predicts the NH₃ inventory consumption, outlet NO, NO₂ and N₂O concentration variation. The phenomena is predicted very well by the model reflecting the underlying mechanism.

The other three cases tested at 300°C, 350°C and 400°C, respectively, are shown in the supplementary document. These higher temperature cases have results very similar to those shown in Figure 9 shown for 250°C. The results confirm again that the model provides quite reasonable predictions of NH₃ consumption and outlet NO, NO₂ and N₂O concentration variations for the NO SCR, NO SCR with NH₃ inventory, start NO₂, NO+NO₂ SCR, and NO+NO₂ SCR with NH₃ inventory steps.

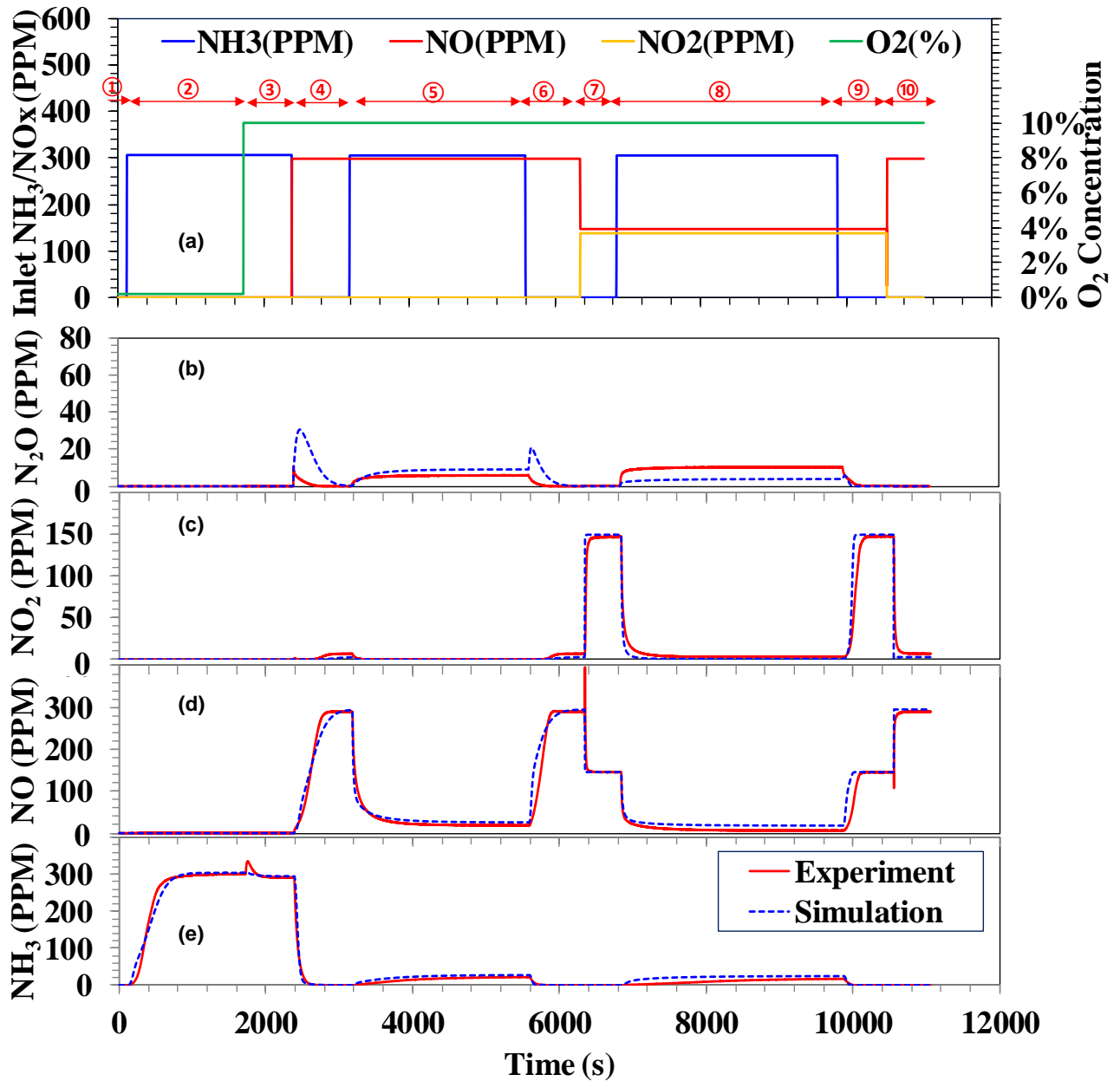


Figure 9: Measured and predicted transient SCR performance and NO/NO₂/N₂O/NH₃ concentrations at 250°C, for a space velocity of 60,000/hour. (1) Pretreat process; (2) NH₃ adsorption; (3) NH₃ oxidation; (4) NH₃ inventory and NO oxidation; (5) NO SCR with NH₃/NO=1.0; (6) NO SCR with NH₃ inventory; (7) start NO₂; (8) NO+NO₂ SCR with NH₃/NO_x=1.0 and NO/NO_x=0.5; (9) NO+NO₂ SCR with NH₃ inventory; (10) Cleaning process. (a) shows the inlet concentrations, while (b)-(e) show outlet concentrations for N₂O, NO₂, NO, and NH₃, respectively.

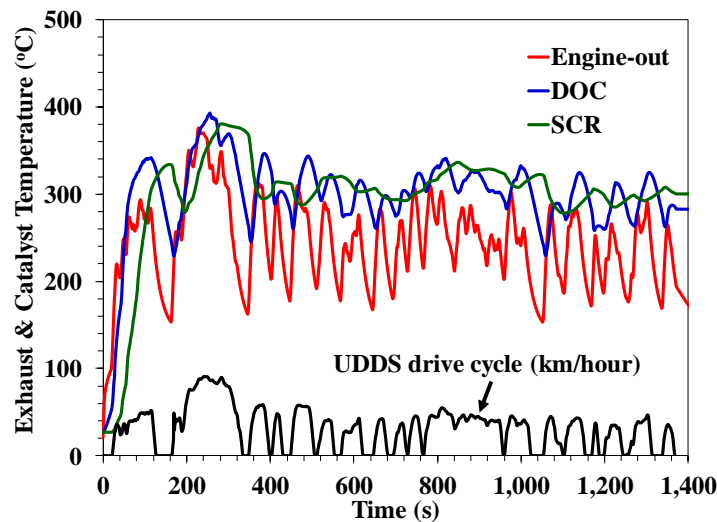
4.5. SCR model application in a light-duty vehicle driving cycle

The application of SCR models in vehicle simulations is valuable for aftertreatment design, development and optimization. Thus the developed SCR was integrated with an ORNL in-house DOC (diesel oxidation catalyst) model [25] via Matlab/Simulink, and the DOC/SCR model was further integrated with a conventional compact vehicle model developed using Autonomie [49], together with an ORNL transient engine model for lean exhaust emissions control. Autonomie is a powertrain and vehicle systems simulation platform. The transient engine model can estimate transient engine exhaust properties and fuel economy based on corrections to steady-state maps

[50, 51]. The conventional vehicle model is based on a 1701-kg, conventional, 2012 Ford Fusion powered by a 3.0-L, stoichiometric, gasoline engine and a 6-speed automatic transmission. The vehicle model has been validated over city and highway drive cycles, with prediction errors of +1.2%, +5.4% and -1.6% over the Urban Dynamometer Driving Schedule (UDDS), Highway Fuel Economy Test (HWFET) and Supplemental Federal Test Procedure (US06) cycles, respectively [52]. To investigate the impacts of DOC/SCR on lean exhaust emissions control, the stoichiometric gasoline engine in the simulated vehicle was replaced by a GM 1.9-L diesel engine. ORNL employed relevant engine maps for the diesel engine [52]; the DOC/SCR model consisting of a 1.2-L DOC and a following 2.6-L SCR catalyst was also implemented with the engine model for the modified vehicle model. In the drive cycle simulation, the SCR model does not account for vaporization and thermolytic conversion of the urea to ammonia. Instead, a simple urea injection strategy is assumed such that the instantaneous urea flow rate was adjusted to produce the optimal stoichiometric ratio of NH₃ to NO at the SCR catalyst inlet when the inlet temperature was above 150°C. For lower temperatures, urea injection was stopped.

Figure 10 shows the simulated DOC/SCR performance over a cold-start UDDS cycle beginning at 20°C. Figure 10(a) shows the simulated temperature of the engine exhaust, DOC and SCR catalysts. The DOC and SCR temperatures correspond to the average solid temperature of the catalysts. As shown, the SCR catalyst temperature rise lags the engine-out exhaust and DOC catalyst temperature rise due to the device's thermal inertia. Thus it is clear that in addition to shifting SCR chemistry, the DOC can downgrade SCR performance by slowing the catalyst warm-up during a cold start. Figure 10(b) displays CO and HC cumulative emissions, as well as transient CO and HC oxidation during the first 150s. It is observed that nearly 100% of the CO and HC tailpipe emissions are contributed during the first 50s, i.e. the cold start. As shown in Figure 10(a), the DOC catalyst temperature is less than 200°C during the first 50s. The predicted CO and HC tailpipe emissions are summarized in Table 4, and both the CO and HC oxidation reduction is around 89%. The results for NO_x emissions are plotted in Figure 10(c), showing a longer “light off” compared to CO and HC oxidation. The predicted NO_x tailpipe emission is 0.0319g/km, and the SCR reduction efficiency is ~87%. By integrating with other catalyst models, the SCR model can provide unique insights for aftertreatment design and optimization.

The SCR model was further used to explore the degrading impact of H₂O adsorption on the SCR performance. In the case, the H₂O adsorption competing with NH₃ is deactivated in the model. The result shows that the predicted NO_x tailpipe emission is 0.0243g/km, and the SCR reduction efficiency is ~90%. The degrading potential of H₂O adsorption on SCR performance is ~24% on tailpipe NO_x emissions reduction. Figure 10(d) compares the estimated impact of H₂O adsorption on cold-start NO_x emissions during the first 100s of the UDDS beginning at 20°C, and shows that H₂O adsorption leads to a worse SCR reaction efficiency during a cold-start. Thus, developing SCR technologies with anti-H₂O adsorption is considerably important to improve future SCR performance.



(a) Simulated temperature of engine exhaust, DOC and SCR catalysts

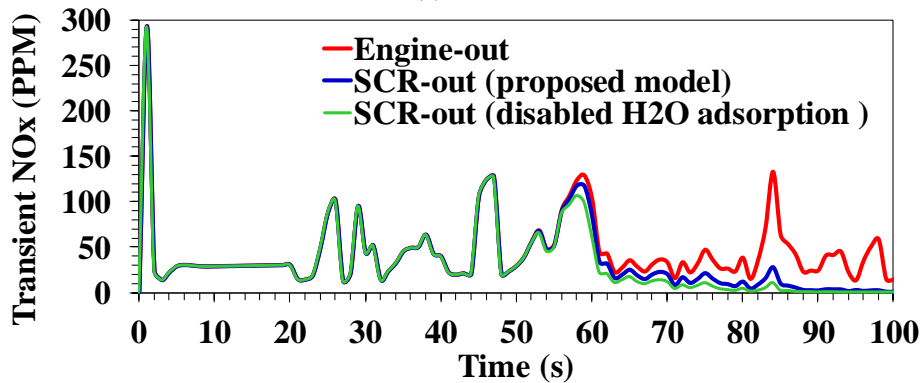
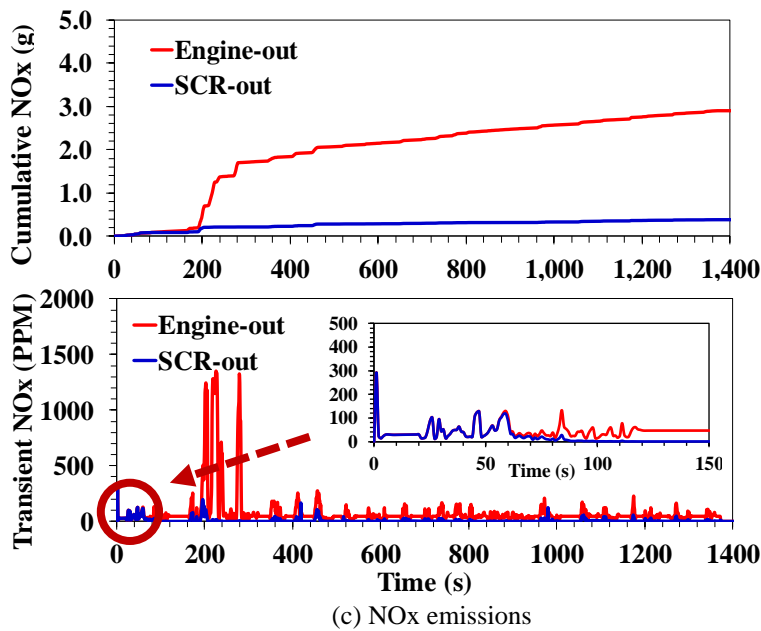
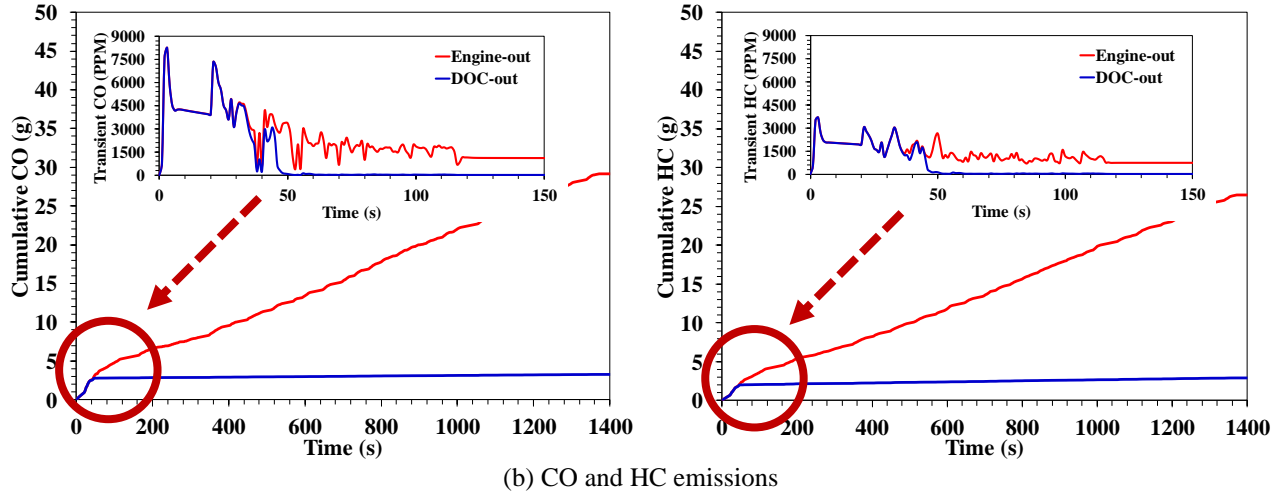


Figure 10: Simulated performance of engine exhaust, DOC and SCR catalysts over a cold-start UDDS drive cycle beginning at 20°C; the simulated vehicle is a 1701-kg conventional vehicle powered by a GM 1.9-L diesel engine and a 6-speed automatic transmission.

Table 4. Summary of DOC/SCR emissions control

Emissions	CO	HC	NOx
Engine-out (g)	29.122	26.449	2.902

DOC/SCR-out (g)	3.280	2.940	0.382
DOC/SCR-out (g/km)	0.274	0.245	0.032
Reduction Efficiency	88.7%	88.9%	86.8%

5. Conclusion

A comprehensive two-site NH₃ storage SCR model is introduced to detail global kinetic reactions between the NH₃ and NO_x reaching the SCR catalyst. The considered NH₃ inventory model includes two type of sites for NH₃ storage, as well as a H₂O storage mechanism at low temperature. SCR reactions are modeled at both sites, which have different high- and low-temperature characteristics for NH₃ adsorption/desorption. Moreover, the model includes the formation and decomposition of ammonium nitrate, and addresses N₂O relative to NO and NO₂ reactions with NH₃, as are observed from experiments. An in-depth understanding of such fundamental kinetic mechanisms is substantially important to evaluate SCR performance and exploit SCR catalyst materials. The model has been evaluated for commercial Cu-SSZ-13 measurements of NH₃ inventory, NH₃ oxidation, NO oxidation, standard SCR, fast SCR and NO₂ SCR. It provides reasonable steady-state prediction of NH₃ SCR performance and functions, and also predicts the transient SCR NH₃-NO-NO₂/O₂ reacting system with reasonable accuracy.

The proposed NH₃ inventory model based on two-sites of NH₃ storage captures the NH₃ storage behavior of a commercial Cu-SSZ-13 catalyst formulation very well over a wide range of adsorption temperatures. The simulated NH₃ site coverage at the two site types and their storage competing with H₂O provide an improved understanding of storage mechanisms as was observed in experimental data. For example, although the impact of competition between H₂O and NH₃ adsorption at the storage sites is very limited at steady-state high temperatures, the transient simulation shows that H₂O adsorption lead to a worse SCR reaction efficiency during a cold-start driving cycle. Developing SCR technologies with anti-H₂O adsorption is important to further improve SCR performance. Thus, the model can provide unique insights for the development of optimal SCR catalyst design and optimization.

The developed SCR model has been integrated with an ORNL in-house DOC model using Matlab/Simulink. The integrated model is capable of implementation into Autonomie and other commercial simulation software, and can be used to explore the impact of a DOC/SCR aftertreatment train system and model-based control strategies for optimal NH₃ dosing on lean exhaust emissions control. The SCR model can provide detailed emissions reduction estimation for transient drive cycles, understanding impact of cold starts, and can be integrated with other catalyst models for complex aftertreatment trains to explore innovative technologies for co-optimization of engine fuel economy and emissions control technologies.

Finally, all the experimental data and the code for the proposed model are attached in the supplementary documents, which can be used by potential readers.

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Nomenclature

A	Pre-exp factor, mole/mole-site-s
$c_{p,g}$	Specific heat of exhaust gas, J/kg-K
$c_{p,s}$	Specific heat of solid wall, J/kg-K
D_h	Characteristic diameter of SCR monolith channel, m
E_A	Activation energy, J/mol
G_a	External heat transfer surface per volume, 1/m
G_m	Surface area per volume of the monolith, 1/m

h_a	Convection heat transfer coefficient between ambient and catalyst exterior surface, W/m ² -K
h_g	Laminar-flow heat transfer coefficient, W/m ² -K
h_m	Laminar-flow mass transfer coefficient, m/s
k_s	Thermal conductivity of solid wall, W/m-K
K_{eq}	Equilibrium constant, -
\dot{m}_g	Exhaust gas mass flow rate, kg/s
Nu	Nusselt number, -
P	Pressure, Pa
Pr	Prandtl number, -
R	Gas constant, 8.314 J/mol-K
R^k	k-step chemical reaction rate, mol/m ³ -s
Re	Reynolds number, dimensionless
S	Frontal surface area in the converter, m ²
Sc	Schmidt number, -
Sh	Sherwood Number, -
T_a	Ambient temperature, K
T_g	Exhaust gas temperature, K
T_s	Solid-wall temperature, K
t	Time, s
u_g	Exhaust gas velocity, m/s
ΔG	Gibbs free energy change at k-step reaction, J/mol
ΔH	Enthalpy change or reaction heat, J/mol
ΔS	Entropy change at the k-step reaction, J/mol-K
$x_{s,i}$	Mole fraction of i th species in solid phase, -
$x_{g,i}$	Mole fraction of i th species in gas phase, -
z	Flow moving direction, m

Greek symbols

ρ_g	Mass density of exhaust gas, kg/m ³
ρ_m	Mole density of exhaust gas, kg/m ³
ρ_s	Mass density of solid wall in the catalyst, kg/m ³
α_i^k	Stoichiometric coefficient of species i in k -step chemical reaction, -
ε	Hole space fraction of the monolith, -
ε'	Effective porosity of the channel wall surface, -

Superscripts

k	k-step reaction
---	-----------------

Subscripts

a	Ambient
eq	Equilibrium
g	Exhaust gas
i	i th species
s	Solid substrate

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