CHANGES IN TEXTURAL PROPERTIES OF LIMESTONE AND DOLOMITE DURING CALCINATION

F. RUBIERA, A.B. FUERTES, J.J. PIS, V. ARTOS and G. MARBAN

Institute National de1 Curb& (C.S.I. C.), Apdo. 73, 33080 Oviedo (Spain) **(Received 13 July 1990)**

ABSTRACT

The effect of the conversion degree, calcination conditions (temperature and CO₂ con**centration) and retention time at high temperature on textural evolution in limestone and dolomite has been studied. A lower porous development was observed during calcination than was theoretically expected. An increase in CO, concentration during limestone calcination results in considerably wider pores provided that the specific surface area decreases; The formation of wider pores is not related to a further increase in conversion of CaO to CaSO,.**

INTRODUCTION

The combustion of coal in fluidised bed reactors provides a suitable means of reducing sulphur dioxide emissions. This reduction can be achieved by adding limestone $(CaCO₃)$ or dolomite $(CaCO₃ \cdot MgCO₃)$ particles. Under operating conditions in the reactor these carbonates are rapidly transformed into their oxides. Later on, the CaO thus obtained reacts with sulphur dioxide according to the equation

$$
CaO + SO2 + 1/2O2 \rightarrow CaSO4
$$
 (1)

As $MgSO₄$ is unstable above 1073 K, MgO is inactive towards sulphation under these conditions [l].

Limestone and dolomite particles usually show very low porosity. Some porosity is generated during calcination due to the marked difference between the molar volume of CaCO₃ (36.9 cm³ mol⁻¹) and CaO (16.9 cm³ mol⁻¹). The CaO thus formed has a porosity of \sim 54% and a pore volume of ~ 0.36 cm³ g⁻¹ [2]. Because the molar volume of CaSO₄ (52.2 cm³ mol⁻¹) is bigger than that of calcium carbonate, during sulphation the CaO pores will be full before complete conversion has been reached. Thus the maximum possible conversion is, in theory, 57% and the (Ca/S) molar ratio required to achieve total desulphuration is 1.75. However when using 1 mm limestone particles, a higher (Ca/S) molar ratio is needed in order to reach 90% desulphuration.

Hartman and Tmka [3] consider that the reaction rate of sulphation is governed by three individual processes: diffusion of SO, through the pores, diffusion of SO_2 through the $CaSO_4$ layer formed, and chemical reaction. The diffusion of SO_2 through the pores controls the overall reaction when a 1 mm particle size is used (the standard size used in atmospheric fluidized bed boilers). This leads to a sharp decrease in SO, concentration from the outer surface to the centre of the particle. In this case, the sulphation mainly occurs in the outermost zone and stops when no further occlusion of the outer pores is possible [4]. In this way, the maximum possible conversion reached during sulphation is considerably lower than the 57% mentioned and greatly depends on the porous evolution of CaO and the size of the particles. Consequently, any improvement in the access of $SO₂$ through the particle will result in a higher degree of SO, capture.

Smaller limestone particle sizes could provide higher degrees of conversion, so that diffusion through the pores is not important for a particle size below 100 μ m [5]. In this case the whole process is controlled by the diffusion of SO, through the $CaSO₄$ layer, as Borgwardt and Bruce have proved [6]. However, a decrease in the particle size increases elutriation loss in a fluidised bed combustor, making it advisable to use particles above 500 μ m. In consequence, a good way of improving the applicability of sorbent particles bigger than 500 μ m would be by the control of textural development during calcination.

In fact, whereas the specific pore volume is little affected by the normal FBC calcination conditions, the pore size is closely related to $CO₂$ concentration, retention time and the temperature of calcination [7,8]. Wide pores obviously allow a better diffusion of SO, through the particle.

The scope of this work is to evaluate the effect of different factors (calcination degree, retention time, CO, concentration, temperature) on the textural evolution of limestone and dolomite particles during calcination. The influence of pore development on sulphation is also discussed.

EXPERIMENTAL

Experiments were carried out in a quartz reactor, with an inner diameter of 20 mm, placed vertically in a tubular furnace. A thermocouple in contact with the bed was used to control the temperature. A 2 g sample was used for the calcination. The sample was fed quickly into the reactor. The conversion of CaCO, to CaO was calculated as

$$
X = (m_o - m)/(m_o - m_\infty) \tag{2}
$$

where m_o is the weight of the resulting sample from the process at the operation temperature in a $CO₂$ atmosphere and $m₂$ is the weight of the resulting sample from total calcination.

TABLE 1 Chemical analysis of the samples

	CaCO ₃ MgCO ₃ SiO ₂ Al ₂ O ₃ TiO ₂ Fe ₂ O ₃ Na ₂ O K ₂ O				
Limestone 95.84 1.04 1.75 0.08 0.16 0.04 0.05 0.04					
Dolomite 53.71	40.02	$0.20\ 0.14$	0.08 0.45	0.02	0.02

A 1 g sample was used in the sulphation experiments. The samples were fed suddenly into the preheated reactor at the operation temperature. In these experiments, a gas flow of 3 l min^{-1} (STP) during calcination and 5 l min⁻¹ (STP) during sulphation were used. The gas composition (%vol.) was: 5% O_2 , 12% CO_2 , 0.3% SO_2 ; the balance was N₂. The time of exposure was 1 hour.

All experiments were carried out using a particle size ranging from 0.71 to 1 mm. The chemical analysis of the materials is given in Table 1.

The raw and calcined samples were characterized texturally (pore volume, porosity, specific surface area and pore size distribution) by mercury porosimetry. The specific surface was determined using the Roostare and Prenzlow method [9] for powders with areas below 100 m² g⁻¹. A Carlo Erba mercury porosimeter (Macropore Unit 120 and Porosimeter 2000) was used.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The evolution of pore volume during calcination may be described by the equation

$$
V_{\rm p} = \frac{V_{\rm po} + 0.454(1 - P)X}{1 - (1 - P)X}
$$
\n(3)

where $P = m_{\infty}/m_o$ (0.564 for limestone and 0.674 for dolomite), X is the fraction of calcined CaCO₃ and V_{po} the pore volume of the initial sample $(cm³ g⁻¹).$

The pore volume obviously depends on the porosity of the initial material and the pores generated during thermal treatment in the CO, atmosphere. These pores are not related to the decomposition of calcium carbonate but contribute to the intake of $CaSO₄$. As a general rule, every kind of limestone rock has very low porosity, the initial pore volume of limestone used in this experiment being $0.014 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$. Untreated dolomite also has low porosity (the initial pore volume of dolomite is $0.015 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$). However, dolomite is semi-calcined at 800 °C and $P_{CO_2} = 1$ atm because the dissociation temperature of MgCO₃ is about 400 °C in these conditions. The pore volume of the semi-calcined dolomite is 0.120 cm³ g^{-1} .

Fig. 1. Variation of pore volume during calcination of limestone (open symbols) and dolomite (closed symbols). Continuous lines correspond to eqn. (3).

Figure 1 shows the variation in the pore volume of limestone and dolomite with the conversion degree. The continuous lines represent the change in the pore volume predicted by eqn. (3). This equation predicts values a little higher than those obtained experimentally. This is probably due to shrinkage during calcination [10]. Appreciable differences between the evolution of pore volume and the degree of conversion under different calcination conditions (temperature and CO, concentration) were not observed.

Figure 1 shows greater pore development in dolomite compared with limestone. Thus fully calcined dolomite has a pore volume of 0.360 cm³ g⁻¹ whereas the pore volume in calcined limestone is 0.300 cm³ g⁻¹.

The pore volume developed during calcination determines the maximum conversion attainable during sulphation. This conversion may be evaluated by the equation

$$
X_{\rm m} = 125 \frac{P}{1 - P} V_{\rm po}
$$
 (4)

where V_{po} is the pore volume of the wholly calcined sample. Equation (4) predicts a maximum achievable conversion of 49% during sulphation for limestone and 93% for dolomite. Thus dolomite appears to be much more efficient than limestone but the lower percentage of $CaCO₃$ in dolomite must be considered. In fact 213 g of limestone is necessary to retain 1 mol of SO,, compared with 200 g of dolomite. Under these circumstances, the difference is not appreciable.

Other textural properties of limestone and dolomite under different conditions of calcination are given in Table 2. The samples treated with CO, concentrations below 100% were completely calcined. Table 2 shows that

Sample	T	CO ₂	Porosity	Specific surface	Pore radius (\AA)	
	(K)	(%)	(%)	area $(m^2 g^{-1})$		
Limestone	Raw		3	0.2		
	1073	0	44	30	147	
	1073	10	49	3	2451	
	1123	0	45	25	163	
	1123	10	44	7	865	
	1173	$\bf{0}$	47	22	204	
	1173	10	46	9	460	
Dolomite	Raw		4	0.2		
	1073	100	25	10	147	
	1073	0	55	24	264	
	1073	10	46	19	306	
	1123	100	22	7	263	
	1123	$\bf{0}$	55	22	334	
	1123	10	51	17	268	

Textural properties of limestone and dolomite samples under different conditions

TABLE 2

both the surface area and the pore radius of limestone are considerably affected by changes in the calcination conditions. The effect of CO, on limestone is remarkable. Thus, samples calcined in N_2 at 1123 K have a surface area of 25 cm² g⁻¹ whereas those calcined in 10% CO₂ have an area of 7 m² g⁻¹. The pore radius is affected in the same way, being 865 \AA in 10% $CO₂$ and 163 Å in N₂. This difference decreases as the temperature increases. Thus, whilst the pore radius increases from 147 \AA in N₂ to 2451 \AA in 10% CO, at 1073 K, this variation is only from 204 to 460 A at 1173 K. However, in the case of dolomite no significant change in textural development under the different calcination conditions was observed.

The increase both in temperature and in CO, concentration enhances the sintering of CaO [11,12] which results in a decrease in the specific surface area and an increase in the pore radius. On the other hand, the surface area of the CaO particles resulting from calcination in N_2 is considerably lower than that found by Borgwardt [13] for CaO particles originating from 2 μ m limestone particles (104 m^2 g⁻¹). The reason for this difference is due to the CaO sintering during calcination. The $CO₂$ produced at the $CaCO₃-CaO$ interface diffuses to the outer layer of the particle. While the gas is diffusing the CO, accelerates the sintering of the CaO formed. In consequence, at the end of calcination the specific surface area of CaO particles is lower than that of the nascent CaO.

The pore volume generated during calcination limits sulphation, but in practice maximum conversion is reached when pore plugging occurs (diffusion control). This obviously depends on the pore size. Several authors [14-161 have noticed the strong relation between the pore radius and

Fig. 2. Variation of pore radius with retention time (after overall calcination).

sulphation capability. The pore size generated during calcination is influenced by a number of parameters as has already been shown. In particular, CO, concentration during the calcination and the retention time of the calcined sample at high temperature is of great importance.

Figure 2 shows the evolution of the pore radius in relation to the retention time (after calcination) for limestone and dolomite at 1123 K and 10% CO₂. The difference between the behaviours of dolomite and limestone is remarkable. Thus, the dolomite pore radius does not change with retention time and remains at $\sim 200 \text{ Å}$. However, in the case of limestone there is a rapid initial increase from 865 to 1840 \AA for the first hour. This increase slows down and after 14 hours the pore radius is 2300 Å . In connection with this, the surface area diminishes from 7 m^2 g⁻¹ for the initial time to about 2 m^2 g⁻¹ for a retention time of 14 h. Once the limestone calcination has finished, the sintering of the CaO goes on [12,13,17]. This enables the textural properties of calcined particles to evolve under certain conditions, namely, high temperature, and the presence of $CO₂$ and $H₂O$. As these conditions arise during fluidised bed combustion, it can be assumed that sulphation and sintering occur simultaneously in the reactor. This means that the pore radius will continue increasing, impeding fast pore closure, and the degree of sulphation will also increase.

The effect of the concentration of CO, used during calcination on the evolution of the pore radius and the specific surface area is shown in Figs. 3 and 4. The behaviour of the dolomite is similar to that seen in Fig. 2. The pore radius hardly changes, ranging from 200 to 250 A. Ulerich et al. [7] also found that the pore size distribution for dolomite was little affected by the calcination conditions. However, in the case of limestone, the pore radius increases from 150 Å for samples calcined at 1123 K in N₂ to 6700 Å for

Fig. 3. Pore radius evolution for samples calcined at several CO₂ concentrations.

samples calcined in 30% $CO₂$. At 1173 K, the pore radius increases from 200 $\rm \AA$ (N₂) to 9200 $\rm \AA$ (70% CO₂).

Figure 3 shows, again, that higher operating temperatures during calcination reduce the pore radius. The specific surface area of the calcined samples strongly decreases when the $CO₂$ concentration is increased. At 1123 K, the specific surface falls from 25 m² g⁻¹ in N₂ to 3 m² g⁻¹ for calcination in 30% CO₂. At 1173 K, this decrease ranges from 22 m² g⁻¹ in N₂ to about 1 m² g^{-1} in 70% CO₂. The CO₂ clearly enhances the sintering of CaO powders. The mechanism of this process is not well understood, although Borgwardt et al. [17] and Beruto et al. [ll] suggest a catalytic effect from the CO,.

Fig. 4. Variation of specific surface area with CO₂ concentration.

Fig. 5. Changes in pore size distribution for samples of limestone calcined under different CO₂ concentrations.

Changes in pore size distribution as a consequence of this effect are shown in Fig. 5. It should be noted that the total pore volume stays at 0.300-0.330 cm^3 g⁻¹. However, the volume whose pore radius is above 1500 Å changes from 22% total volume for calcination in N_2 , to 77% for calcination in 30% CO, and 100% in 70% CO,. On the other hand, a decrease in the pore volume due to shrinkage under several $CO₂$ concentrations was not observed.

The textural properties which develop under different calcination conditions determine the sulphation of calcined particles. Thus, it has been proved that calcination under certain conditions (high CO, concentrations and retention times) produces a notable increase in pore radius. This should

Fig. 6. Dependence of the sulphation conversion of calcium oxide on CO₂ concentration **during calcination.**

obviously enhance the diffusion of SO, into the particle and in consequence enhance sulphation. However, the results shown in Fig. 6 are not in agreement with this hypothesis. Figure 6 gives the conversion from CaO to $CaSO_a$ for several $CO₂$ concentrations in the calcined limestone samples whose textural characteristics are correlative with those shown in Figs. 3-5. A slight increase in conversion was noted when the concentration of CO, changes from 0 to $10-15\%$ at 1123 K and up to $20-25\%$ at 1173 K. At 1173 K, the maximum in sulphation appears at $20-25\%$ CO₂. Both maximum points belong to calcined samples with pore radius ranging between 1000 and 2000 A. This behaviour can be understood if one takes into account the fact that although an increase in the pore radius enhances the diffusion of SO, into the particle and retards pore closure, the decrease in the specific surface area reduces reactivity. These opposing effects lead to a maximum conversion which is correlative with the pore radius ranging between 1000 and 2000 A.

CONCLUSIONS

Changes in limestone and dolomite pore volume during calcination are lower than expected due to shrinkage. Calcination conditions have a strong effect on the textural evolution of limestone but not of dolomite. In the case of limestone the pore radius is notably increased by the presence of CO, during the calcination, with values as high as 9200 \AA in 70% CO₂ at 1173 K. Once the calcination was completed, the textural characteristics of the calcined particles of limestone continue evolving due to sintering. A big increase in the pore radius of calcined limestone during the first hour of sintering was observed.

The increase in the pore radius during calcination does not lead to an increase in the degree of sulphation. This reaches maximum values for the calcined samples with pore radius ranging from 1000 to 2000 A.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors thank the Comision Interministerial de Ciencia y Tecnologia (CICYT) (Proj. no. PB87-0368) for financing this work.

REFERENCES

- **1 W.T. Reid, Trans. ASME, Ser. A, 92 (1970) 11.**
- **2 M. Hartman and R.W. Coughlin, Ind. Eng. Chem. Proc. Res. Dev., 13 (1974) 248.**
- **3 M. Hartman and 0. Tmka, Chem. Eng. Sci., 35 (1980) 1189.**
- **4 M. Hartman and R.W. CoughIin, AIChE J., 22 (1980) 490.**
- 5 R.H. Borgwardt and R.D. Harvey, Environ. Sci. Technol., 4 (1972) 350.
- 6 R.H. Borgwardt and K.R. Bruce, AIChE J., 32 (1986) 239.
- 7 N.H. Ulerich, E.P. O'Neill and D.L. Keaims, The Influence of Limestone Calcination on the Utilization on the Sulfur Sorbent in Atmospheric Pressure Fluid-Bed-Combustors, EPRI-FP-426, Final Report, 1977.
- 8 H.T. Kim, J.M. Stencel and J.R. Byrd, Proc. 9th Int. Conf. Fluidized Bed Combustion, Boston 1987, p. 449.
- 9 H.M. Roostare and C.F. Prenzlow, J. Phys. Chem., 71 (1967) 2733.
- 10 R.S. Boynton, Chemistry and Technology of Lime and Limestone, Wiley, New York, 1980.
- 11 D. Beruto, L. Barco and A.W. Searcy, J. Am. Ceram. Soc., 67 (1984) 512.
- 12 R.H. Borgwardt, Ind. Eng. Chem. Res. 28 (1989) 493.
- 13 R.H. Borgwardt, Chem. Eng. Sci., 44 (1989) 53.
- 14 N.H. Ulerich, E.P. O'Neill and D.L. Keaims, Thermochim. Acta, 26 (1978) 269.
- 15 M.F. Couturier, H.A. Becker and R.K. Code, Proc. 9th Int. Conf. Fluidized Bed Combustion, Boston, 1987, p. 487.
- 16 P. Ciambelli, D. Lucarelli and R. Valentino, Fuel, 64 (1985) 816.
- 17 R.H. Borgwardt, N.F. Roache and K.R. Bruce, Ind. Eng. Chem. Fundam., 25 (1986) 165.