

# Plasma Catalytic Bubbles for Nitrogen Fixation: A Route to Green Chemistry

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**Abstract:** Current industrial nitrogen fixation technology requires a large amount of fossil fuels, which is unsustainable and causes negative environmental impacts. Fixing nitrogen into  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  by electricity-driven non-thermal plasma catalysis is a promising solution, yet the underlying mechanisms remain unclear. In this study, we produce  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  from an air DBD plasma discharge in a water-electrode bubble reactor at ambient conditions, which their production can be further promoted by an optimized catalyst ( $\text{TiO}_2@\text{GO}$ , 5%GO), reaching 93%  $\text{NO}_3^-$  selectivity. Further analysis confirms the importance of a saturated catalyst surface with  $\text{NO}_x(\text{ad})$  for the predominant  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  production that enables efficient  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (aq) production as a final product in water. This study provides new insights for plasma-based power-to-chemical nitrogen fixation in clean energy.

**Keywords:** Plasma Chemistry, Green Chemistry, Nitrogen Fixation.

## 1. Introduction

Nitrogen is essential for life and can be found in all living organisms. Though abundant nitrogen molecules exist in the atmosphere, it is inaccessible for most organisms due to the highly stable nitrogen triple bond. Nitrogen fixation, a major nitrogen cycle process, makes it possible for inert  $\text{N}_2$  gas to combine with other elements to produce more functional and valuable compounds such as ammonia, nitrates, or nitrites [1]. There are three main nitrogen fixation types, namely natural, biological, and artificial [2-4]. In nature, nitrogen and oxygen gases in the air can react to form  $\text{NO}_x$  products ( $\text{NO}$  and  $\text{NO}_2$ ) during lightning [5]. Biologically, microorganisms in plants or soil convert atmospheric nitrogen to ammonia by nitrogenases, the primary source of accessible nitrogen and the only known enzymes to catalyze the reaction, respectively [6]. However, to support the drastically increasing global population, natural and biological nitrogen fixations are relatively slow; thus, artificial/industrial-level nitrogen fixation is vital for modern agriculture [7]. Therefore, Haber-Bosch (H-B) process was developed to synthesize ammonia from pure  $\text{N}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2$ . The process requires harsh operating conditions of high temperatures ( $>400$  °C) and pressures ( $>200$  atm) to drive the reaction and thus is highly energy-intensive [7]. Furthermore, about 1-2% total energy consumption worldwide and 2% of the total natural gas are consumed by this process, which is responsible for 300 million metric tons of  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions annually [8, 9]. As a mature technology, the H-B process has been optimized for over a century and has nearly reached its theoretical limits of energy efficiency [10]. Due to its high level of  $\text{CO}_2$  emissions, a green alternative process for nitrogen fixation is needed. Ideally, the new processes would operate at a small-to-medium scale, thus making decentralized production possible in an on-demand manner, powered by renewable energy sources such as solar and wind.

Recently, non-thermal plasma (NTP) technologies, which are compatible with renewable electricity, have been developed for emerging energy applications [11-13]. For

nitrogen fixation applications, plasma discharges can be typically used to convert nitrogen and hydrogen to ammonia [14-16], nitrogen and water to ammonia and  $\text{NO}_x$  [9, 17] and air to  $\text{NO}_x$  [18, 19]. NTP nitrogen fixation has the potential to achieve better energy efficiencies than the H-B process, while being less dependent on fossil fuels, and is a highly promising emerging technology. The advantages of  $\text{NO}_x$  conversion to ammonia over plasma-assisted ammonia ( $\text{NH}_3$ ) production are the elimination of hydrogen feedstock and better amenability for decentralization. The NTP-assisted  $\text{NO}_x$  has been used for electrocatalytic ammonia synthesis [20-22] with a much higher production rate compared to direct electrochemical nitrogen reduction reactions and much lower energy consumption in comparison to direct plasma-driven ammonia production. Early reports suggested an attractive potential strategy to produce liquid fertilizers directly (i.e.,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ) instead of consuming NTP-produced  $\text{NO}_x$  for ammonia synthesis as the primary precursor [20]. To achieve this, it is important to produce high-valence  $\text{NO}_x$ , such as  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  in the gas phase because high-valence  $\text{NO}_x$  is easily dissolved in water by the absorption process to yield nitrate [23].

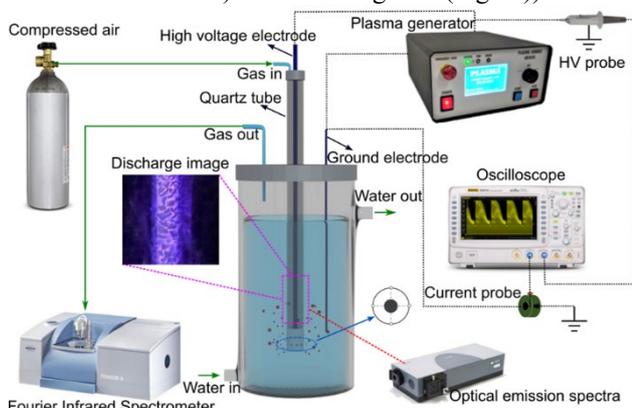
However, the reactions in NTPs are challenging to control, with the selectivity rarely optimized toward the desired products. To this end, research on plasma-catalytic reactions involving NTPs combined with heterogeneous catalysts (commonly referred to as "plasma catalysis") has recently attracted strong interest [24]. The synergistic combination of plasmas and catalysts leads to significant improvements in process performance and product selectivity for many plasma-activated reactions, including ammonia synthesis,  $\text{NO}_x$  synthesis,  $\text{CH}_4$  activation,  $\text{CO}_2$  hydrogenation and the water-gas shift reaction. Substantial evidence suggests that plasma-catalyst interactions can influence plasma discharges by enhancing the electric field, changing the discharge type, and/or facilitating micro-discharge formation in catalyst pores. In general, most of the plasma-assisted catalysis for  $\text{N}_2$  fixation has been limited on gas phase reactions ( $\text{NO}_x$  gas), which is

less sustainable and valuable compared to liquid phase reactions. In many studies on  $\text{NO}_x$  production, the solvation process of  $\text{NO}_x$  to liquid and the importance of the valence state of  $\text{NO}_x$  (e.g.,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$ ) for water absorption process has not been taken into account. Moreover, the underlying mechanisms of the plasma catalyst interactions remain unclear, which results in a lack of theoretical guidance for further breakthroughs in both  $\text{NO}_x$  production rates and reduced energy consumption. To this end, increasing our understanding of the underlying plasma catalytic mechanisms for plasma-driven  $\text{NO}_x$  synthesis from the air and its fixation as  $\text{NO}_2^-$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is critical for the sustainable artificial nitrogen fixation.

With the rapidly emerging field of plasma catalysis, especially with progress in nitrogen fixation, a better understanding of the underlying plasma chemical processes in the gas phase and on the catalyst surface is vital. In this work, a dielectric barrier discharge (DBD) enabled process was developed in a water-electrode bubble reactor (Fig. 1). A  $\text{TiO}_2$ -based catalyst was introduced to enhance the selectivity and production rate in the plasma-assisted nitrogen fixation. To reveal the underlying reaction mechanisms for plasma-catalytic  $\text{NO}_x$  synthesis under ambient conditions, systematic evaluations of plasma discharges and catalysts, electrical and optical plasma diagnostics and catalyst characterizations were carried out. Moreover, plasma chemical modelling was developed to study the critical intermediate species and chemical pathways for nitrogen fixation by including surface reactions related to surface adsorbed  $\text{NO}_{x(\text{ad})}$  species in the given plasma system. Finally, a reaction pathway for the plasma-catalytic  $\text{NO}_x$  synthesis process is proposed based on the experimental and modelling results.

## 2. Results and Discussion

Fig. 2 shows the  $\text{N}_2$  fixation (fixed as  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$ ) performances under different process conditions and catalyst integration. Here, the air was introduced into the reactor (quartz tube) from the top, flowing through the gap between the high-voltage electrode and the quartz tube wall (plasma discharge region), and eventually discharged with the activated gas diffusing via the micro-holes into the water (Fig. 1). First, the effect of air-flow rates (0.01, 0.05, 0.1 and 0.2 L/min) was investigated (Fig. 2)) without



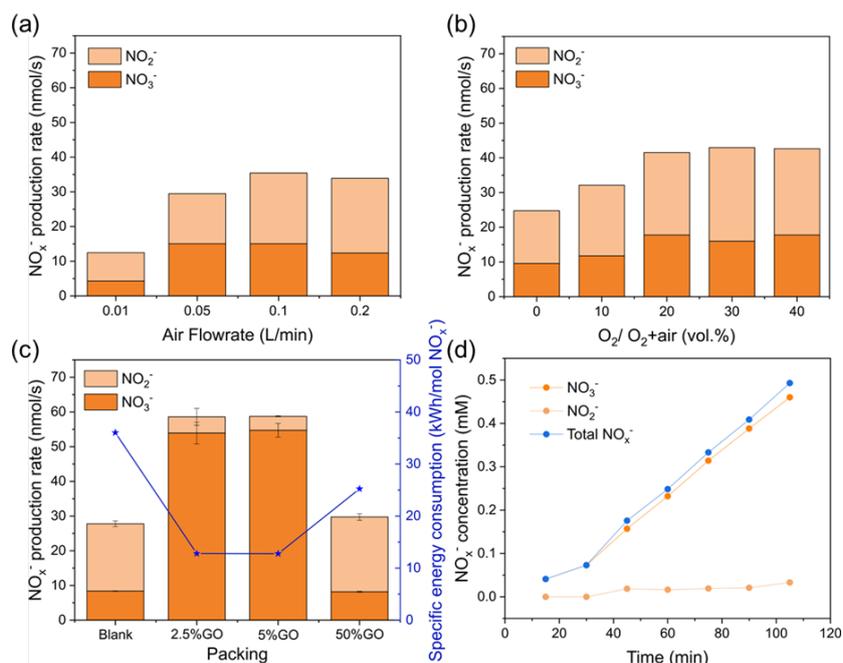
**Fig. 1.** Schematic diagram of the experimental setup

introducing the catalyst. A low air-flow rate provides sufficient residence time for the reactant reactions in the discharge area. Results showed the highest  $\text{NO}_x^-$  production rate was obtained at 0.1 L/min air-flow, while the selectivity towards  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (~40%) did not change noticeably. Therefore, the gas flow rate of 0.1 L/min was selected for the further study. Additionally, the plasma discharge scheme shifts from a glow to a spark when the gas velocity increases (e.g., 1 L/min).

As fixing atmospheric nitrogen ( $\text{N}_2$ ) to  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  is an oxidation process, we studied the effect of  $\text{O}_2$  addition on the conversion performance. A varied amount of  $\text{O}_2$  gas was mixed with air fed to the reactor at a constant flow rate of 0.1 L/min. The results (Fig. 2b) show that the addition of oxygen enhanced the  $\text{NO}_x^-$  production rate from ~25 nmol/s to 42 nmol/s until it levelled out at oxygen to a total flow rate ratio of 20% (a total of 36% of  $\text{O}_2$  in the mixture). Here, adding  $\text{O}_2$  content did not further improve the nitrate production rate and product selectivity. Overall, considering the cost of ambient air and the limited effect of  $\text{O}_2$  addition, only air was used as the feed gas.

With a fixed air-flow rate of 0.1 L/min, the  $\text{N}_2$  fixation performance was studied when the  $\text{TiO}_2@\text{GO}$  catalyst (three different ratios of  $\text{TiO}_2$  and GO) was added to the plasma reactor. Conventionally, catalysts are used in their powder form for directly packed in the reactor. However, when the reactor was packed with powdered catalyst, the non-uniform diffusion of the gas in the voids increased the gas velocity in some areas while the pressure dropped at the bottom of the reactor. In our experiment, powder catalysts mainly resulted in high pressures inside the reactor. Also, fine catalyst powder that is deposited in the bottom of the reactor leaked into the liquid, leading to blockage of the micro-holes, which disrupts the gas bubbles discharge. To ensure controlled space for the plasma discharge and minimize the column pressure drop, structured catalysts are developed here using Graphene oxide (GO) as a binder and self-layering template. GO is a more processable form of graphene that is widely used as an additive in composites and additive manufacturing.

In the control group (no catalyst added), nitrogen was fixed at ~28 nmol/s with 30% selectivity towards  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . After packing by  $\text{TiO}_2@\text{GO}$  with the ratio of 2.5 wt% and 5 wt% GO, the  $\text{NO}_x^-$  production rate increased from 28 nmol/s to 59 nmol/s with an increase of 93% selectivity towards  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . Further increases in the GO content (i.e.,  $\text{TiO}_2@50$  wt %GO) did not show a positive synergistic effect on the  $\text{NO}_x^-$  synthesis in our air-NTP system. However, using a high concentration of GO (50%) as the  $\text{TiO}_2$  catalyst binder ( $\text{TiO}_2@50\% \text{GO}$ ) has nearly the same performance for  $\text{NO}_x^-$  synthesis as using NTP without any catalysts. This is because that when the amount of GO is very high, the GO layer will be too thick to be removed by the air plasma (See Fig. 4f and Fig. 14d), and therefore, the active sites of  $\text{TiO}_2$  will not be exposed to the plasma discharge. The result indicates that GO alone has negligible catalytic property for  $\text{NO}_x^-$  synthesis and under our designed experimental conditions, the effect of material packing was controlled in



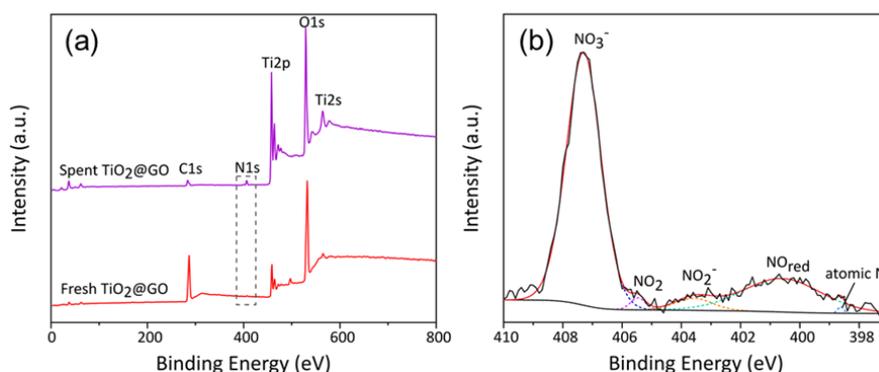
**Fig. 2.**  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  production rates based on 15min sampling time (a) with various feed air gas flow rates; (b) with additional  $\text{O}_2$  gas input while the total feed gas flow rate was kept at 0.1 L/min; (c) packed with as-prepared catalyst  $\text{TiO}_2$  with different ratios of GO; (d) the time-dependent concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NO}_2^-$  during 105 min of the plasma discharge.

order to affect the plasma discharge significantly. It should be noted that the  $\text{NO}_x^-$  synthesis rate is still limited due to the low air-flow rate and low power input. By further adjusting the air-flow rates (e.g., 1 L/min) and other discharge conditions, it may be possible to increase the  $\text{NO}_x^-$  production rate. However, in this work, we mainly focus on investigating the role of the catalyst  $\text{TiO}_2@GO$  in the plasma catalytic reactions, where the high fixation selectivity towards nitrate is achieved.

Furthermore, we undertook a batch experiment with a successive sampling of nitrate and nitrite to evaluate the stability of the catalytic performance of  $\text{TiO}_2@GO$  as a function of time (Fig. 2d). The result shows a relatively slower  $\text{NO}_x^-$  production rate (21 nmol/s) in the first 30 minutes, followed by a higher and more stable  $\text{NO}_x^-$  production rate (57 nmol/s). The result suggests that an

initial activation time is required for establishing a strong interaction between the catalyst and plasma.

To better understand the gas phase trends and the interaction between the plasma and packing materials, the catalyst  $\text{TiO}_2@GO$  was studied after the plasma exposure. SEM and XPS techniques were used to characterize the bulk and surface properties, respectively. The SEM image of the spent catalyst demonstrates that the thin GO layer on the catalyst surface was gently removed by the interaction with air plasmas, while the structure of the catalyst was maintained. When the GO concentration is too high (e.g., 50%), it is difficult to remove the thick GO layer from the  $\text{TiO}_2$  surface. Most of the surface was still covered by the GO after 1 h of plasma discharge. The surface GO transforms to  $\text{CO}_2$  and is expelled with the air flow, leading



**Fig. 3.** (a) Full survey of XPS spectra for fresh and spent  $\text{TiO}_2@GO$ ; (b) Newly formed N1s spectrum for spent  $\text{TiO}_2@GO$

to better performance once the TiO<sub>2</sub> is exposed to the plasma.

A full survey of the XPS spectra and N1s spectrum (Fig. 3) of the spent TiO<sub>2</sub>@GO show the newly formed surface-bound nitrogen-containing species, indicating the presence of the NO<sub>x</sub>, generated by plasma and surface reactions, adsorbed on the catalyst surface. Result shows the changes in the atomic fractions of the four main elements (C, Ti, O, N) between the fresh and spent catalyst. The atomic fraction of C was reduced from 49.75% to 10.21% while that of Ti increased from 5.81% to 25.65%, indicating that most of the GO layer is removed and more TiO<sub>2</sub> is exposed. The newly appearing element N supports the theory that NO<sub>x</sub> species are involved in the surface reaction.

The adsorption of NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, and N<sub>2</sub>O on metal oxides, including TiO<sub>2</sub>, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, have been well investigated. The main reported adsorbed species at room temperature are NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (407.0 to 407.6 eV), physisorbed NO<sub>2</sub> (405.4 to 406.0 eV), NO<sub>2,chem.</sub> or NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (403.5 to 404.0 eV), NO (400.5 to 403 eV), and atomic N (396.8 to 400 eV). The main product of NO<sub>2</sub> from adsorption is the nitrate anion, formed through a disproportionation process as considered in the model:



Air plasma produced NO<sub>x</sub> and its adsorption on the catalyst yields five different types of surface-bound species at 407.3, 405.5, 403.6, 400.6 and 398.6 eV (Fig. 3b), which are attributed to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (407.3 eV), to weakly adsorbed NO<sub>2</sub> (405.5 eV), tentatively to NO<sub>2,chem./NO2</sub><sup>-</sup> (noted NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> in this paper) (403.6 eV), to NO<sub>red</sub> (400.6 eV) and a small fraction to atomic N (398.6 eV). The variety of nitrogenated species formed on the catalyst surface can be attributed to the initial adsorption of NO<sub>x</sub> to the surface and the intermediates as well as the products from the surface reactions. The peak at 400.6 eV is located between the previous reported binding energies for NO and N, and the larger full width at half maximum (fwhm, 3.1 eV) in this case indicated the possible presence of several reduced nitrogenated species, such as NO<sup>+</sup>, NO<sup>-</sup>, and N<sup>+</sup>, or different adsorption modes of NO.

### 3. Conclusion

Sustainable plasma catalysis for nitrogen fixation (fixed as NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>) using an optimized catalyst (TiO<sub>2</sub>@GO, 5%GO) has been achieved at ambient pressure and room temperature with a water-electrode DBD reactor. Compared to plasma synthesis of NO<sub>x</sub><sup>-</sup> without a catalyst, plasma catalysis significantly enhanced the NO<sub>x</sub><sup>-</sup> production rate from 28nmol/s to 59 nmol/s, an over 100% improvement in the production rate, and its selectivity towards NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> from 35% to 93%. It is suggested that the observed performance is due to the physico-chemical synergetic effects caused by the TiO<sub>2</sub>@GO catalyst, with a plasma kinetic model providing support for enhanced NO<sub>x</sub> production by the introduced surface reactions. N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> was predicted to be the predominant species for the low-temperature DBD plasma conditions and was found to be

closely correlated to nitrate production in the aqueous medium.

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