Review of arsenic behavior during coal combustion: volatilization, transformation, emission and removal technologies

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Abstract: Growing public awareness of the environmental impact of coal combustion has raised serious concerns about the various hazardous trace elements produced by coal firing. Arsenic deserves special attention due to its toxicity, volatility, bioaccumulation in the environment, and potential carcinogenic properties. As the main anthropogenic source of arsenic is coal combustion, its behavior in power plants is of concern. Unlike mercury, arsenic behavior in coal combustion has not been subjected to systematic, in-depth research. Different researchers have reached opposing conclusions about the behavior of arsenic in combustion systems and as yet there is relatively little research on arsenic-removal technologies.

In this paper, the volatilization, transformation, and emission behavior of arsenic and its removal technologies are discussed in depth. Factors affecting the volatilization characteristics of arsenic are summarized, including temperature, pressure, mode of occurrence of arsenic, coal rank, mineral matter, and the sulfur and chlorine content of the fuel. The behavior of arsenic during oxy-fuel combustion and the effect of combustion atmosphere (O2, CO2, SO2 and H2O(g)) are also reviewed in detail.

In order to better understand the pathway of arsenic in a power plant environment, a particular focus in this work is the transformation mechanism of ultra-fine ash particles and the partitioning behavior of arsenic. Finally, the effects of air pollution control devices (APCDs) on arsenic emissions are examined, along with the
effectiveness of flue gas arsenic removal technologies with different kinds of adsorbents, including calcium-based adsorbents, metal oxides, activated carbon, and fly ash.

**Keywords**: arsenic; coal combustion; volatilization; transformation; emission; removal

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1 Introduction

Although renewable and nuclear energy sources are becoming increasingly important for our future energy demand, coal combustion is still the dominant source for power generation in the energy mix in the foreseeable future. With increasing public awareness of the environmental impact of coal combustion, serious concerns have been raised regarding the emissions of various hazardous trace elements from power plants, such as mercury, arsenic, lead, and cadmium [1]. Among the most harmful elements, arsenic is receiving increasing attention due to its toxicity, volatility, bioaccumulation in the environment (enriched in biomass such as in hyperaccumulator plants [2-4]), and potential carcinogenic properties. Arsenic can affect the gastrointestinal tract, circulatory system, liver, kidneys, and skin [5]. Nearly all types of arsenic compounds are toxic, with As$^{3+}$ being 50 times more toxic than As$^{5+}$. Inorganic arsenic exposure in humans is also strongly associated with lung cancer, while ingestion of inorganic arsenic can cause skin cancer [6]. Incidents on adverse health risks resulting from arsenic contamination in the environment have been reported in many countries. It has been reported that more than 3000 cases of arseniasis in villages in Guizhou (a typical area of arsenic contamination in China, which can also be found in other parts of the world) were caused by the use of locally mined high arsenic coal. In addition, arsenic is the main cause of denitrification catalyst poisoning in selective catalytic reduction (SCR) systems [7-9].

In 2011, the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) [10] announced the first formal nationwide regulatory standard to "limit toxic gas emissions of power plants", including an emission limitation for arsenic.
Subsequently, in 2016, the EPA [11] published the latest national emission standards for hazardous air pollutants from coal- and oil-fired electric utility steam generating units. The emission limits for arsenic in various sources are listed in Table 1 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arsenic emission source</th>
<th>Emission limits for existing electric utility steam generating units (EGUs)</th>
<th>Emission limits for new or reconstructed electric utility steam generating units (EGUs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coal-fired unit not low rank virgin coal</td>
<td>9.08 μg/kWh</td>
<td>1.362 μg/kWh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coal-fired unit low rank virgin coal</td>
<td>9.08 μg/kWh</td>
<td>1.362 μg/kWh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IGCC unit</td>
<td>9.08 μg/kWh</td>
<td>9.08 μg/kWh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquid oil-fired unit—continental (excluding limited-use liquid oil-fired subcategory units)</td>
<td>13.62 μg/kWh</td>
<td>1.362 μg/kWh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquid oil-fired unit—non-continental (excluding limited-use liquid oil-fired sub-category units)</td>
<td>36.32 μg/kWh</td>
<td>27.24 μg/kWh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solid oil-derived fuel-fired unit</td>
<td>2.27 μg/kWh</td>
<td>1.362 μg/kWh</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These strict emission limits underscore the need to study the volatility and transformation behavior of arsenic during coal combustion.

2 Arsenic in coal

2.1 Concentration of arsenic in coals around the world

The concentrations of arsenic in coals around the world are shown in Table 2. Due to the differences in post-depositional processes and coalification processes [12-17], large variations in arsenic content occur.

<p>| Arsenic concentration in the world | Table 2 | 4 |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country, coal</th>
<th>Number of samples</th>
<th>Content of As in coal, μg/g</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia, in Prievidza district</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>up to 1540</td>
<td>Keegan et al. [18]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine, the Donets Basin</td>
<td>32.7 average</td>
<td>Kizilshtein and Kolodhkov [19]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand, Mae Moh Mine</td>
<td>3.07-515</td>
<td>Wongyai et al. [20]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey, the Gokler coal field</td>
<td>170-3854</td>
<td>Karayigit et al. [21]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA, the Danville Coal Member in Indiana</td>
<td>0.5-43</td>
<td>Mastalerz and Drobniak [22]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA, the Springfield Coal Member in Indiana</td>
<td>1-50</td>
<td>Mastalerz and Drobniak [22]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA, from the Middle Pennsylvanian Breathitt Group Fire Clay coal bed</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1-418</td>
<td>Ruppert et al. [23]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria, Dobrudza coal basin</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2-50</td>
<td>Eskenazy [24]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada, the Elk Valley coal field</td>
<td>8-108</td>
<td>Goodarzi et al. [25]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan, two sites of Thar coalfield</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>18-22.2</td>
<td>Ali et al. [26]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece, lignite samples from Domeniko coal deposit (Upper Miocene) in Elassona basin</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>11-40</td>
<td>Pentari et al. [27]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India, Makum coalfield</td>
<td>0.04-0.24</td>
<td>Mukherjee and Srivastava [28]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China, Permian-Carboniferous and Jurassic coals</td>
<td>0.1-94</td>
<td>Luo [29]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China, coals from each province</td>
<td>1018</td>
<td>4.7 average</td>
<td>Luo [29]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China, southwest Guizhou Province</td>
<td>30-534</td>
<td>Luo [29]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China, southwestern area</td>
<td>up to 35000</td>
<td>Ding et al. [30]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Although for most coals the average concentration of arsenic is 0.5-80 μg/g [15], some, for example those in southwestern China, have an extremely high concentration. The flue gas generated by high arsenic coals may
cause serious poisoning and deactivation of the SCR catalysts. Moreover, dispersion of arsenic-enriched fly ash can also contaminate soil and groundwater with resultant local arsenic poisoning.

2.2 Speciation of arsenic

Arsenic in coal occurs in three dominant forms: pyrite, organic, and arsenate [31-33]. Chen et al. [34] analyzed 147 Chinese coal samples from different coal-forming ages and ranks, and found that inorganic arsenic mainly occurred with sulfur in pyrite, especially as a substitute for sulfur in pyrite-type compounds [35-38]. Using chemical analyses from an electron probe micro-analyzer (EPMA), Savage et al. [39] suggested most arsenic was present in solid solution in pyrite, rather than in micro-inclusions of separate arsenic phases. Filby et al. [40] found that arsenic was always associated with inorganic elements. However, Goodarzi [41-43] suggested that for some Canadian coals arsenic had an organic association, while a strong organic association for arsenic was also suggested for a Texas lignite [44]. Factor analysis of 350 shale samples from the Illinois coal basin revealed association of arsenic with pyrite and organic matter [45].

Guo et al. [46] chose three Chinese coals to study the thermal stabilities of arsenic. Yunnan(YN) coal contained much more arsenic and sulfur than Datong (DT) and Yima (YM) coals. X-ray diffraction (XRD) results showed that the main mineral components in DT and YM coals were quartz and silicates, and in YN coal were pyrite and arsenopyrite. This was demonstrated by using scanning electron microscopy-energy dispersive X-ray (SEM-EDX) (Figure 1(a)) and Time-of-Flight Secondary Ion Mass Spectrometry(ToF-SIMS) techniques (Figure 1(b)). Note that the tested char sample was obtained after four extraction steps, in which the speciation of ion exchangeable, arsenic bound to carbonates, arsenic bound to Fe–Mn oxides and organic-bound had been removed. The arsenic remaining in the residual product included arsenic associated with detrital silicate, aluminosilicate minerals, resistant sulfur compounds, and refractory organic materials[46].
The valence state of arsenic in coal was also studied to determine its possible speciation. Zhao et al. [47] found that arsenic occurred as arsenate and arsenite, rather than in the form of sulfide or other arsenic-containing minerals. In addition, X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) spectrum of arsenic in a Wyodak coal sample showed that the arsenic in the coal consisted of about 50% As$^{3+}$ (assumed to be carboxyl bound) and 50% arsenate [48]. With XANES spectroscopy, Shah et al. [49] found 65% As$^{5+}$, 25% As$^{3+}$ and 10% arsenic/pyrite in a representative bituminous coal from a power station in New South Wales, Australia. For a bituminous coal in a Canadian power plant, arsenic in raw coal was reported to be dominated by arsenate (54%), arsenical pyrite (FeAsS) (24%) and an arsenite (As$^{3+}$-O) species (12%) [50].

Regardless of the variation of arsenic content and occurrence forms in different coals, it is generally accepted that pyrite-associated arsenic represents the major occurrence of arsenic in coal. The ratio of arsenic speciation in decreasing order is pyritic>arsenate>organic, and in terms of the valence state: As$^{5+}$> As$^{3+}$. 

Figure 1: SEM-EDX results and TOF-SIMS spectrum of YN char after extraction procedure[46]
3 Factors affecting arsenic volatilization during coal combustion

The volatilization behavior of arsenic is closely linked to the devolatilization and char combustion processes, which are highly affected by the composition of a coal (as expressed in terms of ultimate/proximate analysis, minerals, and S and Cl content), the arsenic content in coal and the mode in which it occurs, and the surrounding environment (temperature, atmosphere, pressure) [51-56].

3.1 Temperature

Clarke [57] noted that temperature was the main factor affecting arsenic volatilization in coal. The current consensus is that the volatilization proportion of arsenic increases with temperature [46, 52, 55-60]. Senior et al. [56] reported that in bench-scale combustion experiments using bituminous and subbituminous pulverized coals, 40% to 80% of the initial arsenic content was vaporized at 1150ºC. Based on the concentrations of arsenic in the coal and bottom ash, Senior et al. [61] calculated the volatility of arsenic from eight pulverized coal power plants and found the degree of vaporization varied from 55% to 98% in the combustion zone (1400-1500ºC). In a study by Liu et al [62], seven coals with different ranks were burned in a high-temperature tube furnace and 54% to 99% of the initial arsenic in the coals was found to completely vaporize during the combustion process (1500ºC). However, Zeng [63] found that, only 36% on average of the initial arsenic in 23 coals vaporized in a laboratory-scale combustion system at 1480ºC with 20% O₂ [63].

The temperature staged volatilization characteristics of arsenic as reported in the literature [46, 52, 59, 62, 64], are given in Table 3.

| Table 3: Staged volatility behavior of arsenic with temperature |
### Table 3: Volatilization Characteristics of Arsenic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temperature range/°C</th>
<th>Experimental condition</th>
<th>Coal samples</th>
<th>Staged volatility behavior</th>
<th>Authors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>300-1000 pyrolysis</td>
<td>Three Chinese coals</td>
<td></td>
<td>500-700°C, fastest at &gt;700°C, little effect</td>
<td>Guo et al. [46]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$V_{ad} = 26.91% - 36.78%$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>350-900 pyrolysis</td>
<td>One lignite coal (Yima coal)</td>
<td>$V_{ad} = 40.19%$</td>
<td>350-500°C, fast &gt;500°C, low</td>
<td>Lu et al. [59]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600-1000 combustion</td>
<td>High-arsenic coals</td>
<td></td>
<td>700-900°C, fastest</td>
<td>Dai and Li [52]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$V_{ad} = 6% - 30%$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300-1200 pyrolysis</td>
<td>Haizi (HZ) mine in southwest Guizhou</td>
<td>13 coals average arsenic content: 814 μg/g $V_{ad} = 5.49% - 16.7%$</td>
<td>&lt;450°C, fast 900-1000°C, fast</td>
<td>Wei et al. [64]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600-1500 combustion</td>
<td>2 anthracites, 3 bituminous coals, and 2 lignite</td>
<td></td>
<td>800-900°C one mass loss rate peak; &gt;1000°C another mass loss rate peak, details see Figure 2</td>
<td>Liu et al. [62]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$V_{ad}$: the content of volatile on air dried basis  
$V_{daf}$: the content of volatile on dry ash free basis

Table 3 shows that the volatilization characteristics of arsenic are markedly different at different temperature ranges. To better describe the staged volatility behavior, the volatilization rate of arsenic was calculated over the range 25-1500°C (where 25°C stands for the ambient condition when no arsenic is volatilized) in the work of Liu et al. [62] (see Figure 2). For all the coals in Figure 2, two mass loss peaks of arsenic loss and three temperature zones were observed to be important: <600°C, 600-1000°C, and >1000°C.
No consistent conclusions have been reached on the staged temperature zones (Table 3), which may be due to differences in coal type, experimental parameters and other factors. Further research is needed to determine how specific arsenic compounds behave at different temperature ranges, as well as the possible factors affecting this behavior.

Shen et al. [65] tested the temporal volatilization rate of arsenic in a fluidized bed with an on-line analysis system of trace elements in flue gas. The system allowed continuous monitoring of the vaporized arsenic based on inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES). The experimental scheme is shown in Figure 3.

Figure 2: Arsenic mass loss rate of different coals at 25—1500°C [62]

Figure 3: Fluidized bed combustor with online analysis system of arsenic in flue gas[65]
The release rate of arsenic over time is shown in Figure 4. Results showed that temperature had a significant positive effect and that as temperature increased from 600 to 850°C, the release rate of arsenic became more rapid with a resulting higher releasing peak. At the same time, the peak time was shortened due to more intense combustion taking place. A similar phenomenon was observed by Liu et al. [66], who also studied the temporal volatilization of arsenic by changing the residence time of the raw coal.

![Figure 4: Release rate of arsenic from coal combustion][65]

Similarly, Wang and Tomita [55] suggested that arsenic was significantly volatilized during combustion at a rapid-heating rate of 500°C/min, whereas only minimal quantities were emitted during combustion with a slow-heating rate of 5-10°C/min, indicating that heating rate also affects arsenic volatilization. Moreover, to date the majority of combustion experiments have been conducted at temperatures below 1100°C due to the temperature limitations imposed by conventional tube furnaces. By contrast, the combustion temperature in a pulverized-coal boiler is generally above 1400°C and the heating rate can be as high as 500°C/s. This clearly indicates that further study on the effects of heating rate are required to evaluate volatilization characteristics at high temperatures and provide reference data for power plants.

### 3.2 Mode of occurrence of arsenic in coal

While it is clear from the above that the proportions of arsenic volatilized in coals can vary considerably in
the combustion zone (1400-1500°C), it is reasonable to assume that this is related to the chemical speciation of the arsenic and its mode of occurrence in the coal.

In the study by Guo et al. [46], the arsenic in coals and the coal-derived pyrolysis chars were classified into five forms: ion exchangeable, carbonates-bound, Fe-Mn oxide-bound, organic matter-bound, and arsenic remaining in residue. Compared to raw coal, the decreased arsenic found in the forms bound to organic matter and bound to Fe-Mn oxides in the chars produced at 1000°C suggested that arsenic in these forms was unstable during pyrolysis. Moreover, some of the arsenic remaining in the char residue could be expected to vaporize during pyrolysis at 1000°C. Bool and Helble [58] reported that pyritic arsenic vaporized along with the decomposition of pyrite to pyrrhotite, and the organically-bound arsenic vaporized along with coal devolatilization. Arsenic in beneficiated Pittsburgh No. 8 coal existed partly combined with pyrite and partly in other chemical forms that were soluble in dilute HCl (including ion-exchanged arsenic)[58]. According to Liu et al. [67], arsenic in coal was divided into exchangeable, organic, sulfide and residual. With the sequential chemical extraction method [67], the modes of occurrence of arsenic in coals and ash were determined [60] and used to explain the staged volatility behavior of arsenic. Taking Kaiyuan (KY) coal (lignite, Yunnan province, China) as an example, the speciation ratios of arsenic in raw coal and ash are shown in Figure 5.

![Figure 5: Speciation ratio of arsenic in raw coal and ash [60]](image-url)
Using the speciation transformation results of arsenic at different temperatures in Figure 5, Liu et al. [62] concluded that arsenic that vaporized at lower than 600°C was mainly organically bound, while arsenic vaporized at 800-900°C was mainly due to the decomposition or oxidation of arsenic in sulfide forms. However, due to the lack of proven and reliable technology to study arsenic adsorption and the lack of temperature programming desorption similar to that available for mercury speciation determination, the specific arsenic compounds corresponding to different temperature zones have not been finally determined.

It is generally accepted that exchangeable and organic-bound arsenic are easily vaporized during the devolatilization of coal, and arsenic bound to Fe-Mn oxides and pyrite is unstable and tends to vaporize at temperatures lower than 1000°C, while arsenates are very stable and usually decompose at relatively high temperatures. In this case, it can be expected that coals with a large proportion of unstable arsenic compounds will have higher volatilization ratios at a specific temperature, while arsenic in coals with a large number of stable arsenates is difficult to vaporize at low temperatures.

3.3 Coal rank

The effect of coal rank on the volatilization of arsenic is complex. The sequential extraction results of Liu et al. [62] indicated that coals with lower rank tended to have a higher proportion of arsenic species that more easily vaporized, which resulted in the higher arsenic volatilization ratio of lignite coals than anthracite under the same temperature conditions [62]. However, according to Senior et al. [61] who summarized the testing results of several full-scale plants equipped with different boiler types and coals, no obvious relationship was found between arsenic volatility and coal rank. For example, the vaporized fraction of arsenic was 55.2% when burning lignite while 74.3% when burning subbituminous coal based on the same tangential boiler type [61]. Liu et al. [68] studied the pyrolysis process of coal during underground coal gasification. In their work, the arsenic content
from coal to char, and coal to ash were both tested. Results discussed the two processes. For the first process (coal to char), it was found that from coal to char, arsenic volatility was highest for lignite, with bituminous coal next, and anthracite being the least volatile (Figure 6). The main reason appeared to be that lignite had the highest content of volatiles, which promoted rapid coal combustion and oxygen diffusion into the char pores, thus improving the reaction rates and trace element volatilization. For the second process (coal to ash), they suggested that over the entire volatility range from coal to char to ash, coal rank had little effect on final arsenic volatilization. As can be seen in Figure 6, the volatilization ratio of arsenic was approximately 60% for both anthracite and bituminous coal, while a smaller volatilization ratio was obtained in lignite. In the study of Liu et al. [62], instead of dividing according to coal rank, coals were divided into two groups: arsenic>4μg/g and arsenic<4μg/g. Results showed that at a given temperature the group with the higher arsenic concentration tended to have larger arsenic volatility levels.

![Figure 6: Comparison of volatility of arsenic during underground coal gasification of different rank of coals (a: transformation of coal to char, b: transformation of char to ash) [68]](image)

**3.4 Mineral matter**

Many researchers have investigated the effects of different metallic elements (Ca, Fe, Mg, Al, Na, K and others) on arsenic volatilization and tried to develop correlations between arsenic and these elements. It is widely accepted that Ca inhibits the volatilization of arsenic [54, 58, 69-71]. Jadhav and Fan [71] studied the adsorption of arsenic in the gas phase by CaO, and determined using XRD that $Ca_3(AsO_4)_2$ and $Ca_3As_2O_7$ were formed.
However, the existence of the two compounds needs to be confirmed in future experiments. Lu et al. [59] compared the arsenic behavior in YimaD (a demineralized sample of Yima) coal with and without CaO addition. The effects of CaO on arsenic volatility are shown in Table 4.

**Table 4: Effect of added CaO on the volatility of arsenic during pyrolysis of YimaD coal [59]**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Temp./°C</th>
<th>Without CaO</th>
<th>With CaO</th>
<th>Restraining efficiency, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Content, μg g⁻¹</td>
<td>Volatility, %</td>
<td>Content, μg g⁻¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>69.3</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>69.4</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>900</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>72.8</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It appears that the capture efficiency of CaO depended on the pyrolysis temperature and increased from 3.8% at 600°C to 23.4% at 800°C. This indicated that higher temperatures promoted the retention of arsenic by CaO, which was presumably caused by the formation of As–Ca compounds such as calcium arsenate. Thermodynamic analysis by Wang and Tomita [55] showed that stable Ca₃(AsO₄)²⁻ was generated at relatively low temperatures and only decomposed above 1450°C. Experimental results obtained by Lundholm et al. [72] showed that, while the arsenic volatilization decreased when calcium was present, it was lower than that predicted by thermodynamic equilibrium calculations, which indicated transport and/or chemical reaction rate limitations.

As discussed in Section 2.2, the main chemical speciation of arsenic in coal is pyrite, suggesting that the behavior of arsenic has a close connection with iron. Some researchers have studied the capture of arsenic by mineral iron [32, 55, 58, 73, 74]. An equilibrium thermodynamic model suggested by Bool and Helble [58]
showed that the condensed arsenic species in acid (high-Si) fly ash from bituminous Pittsburgh No. 8 coal consisted mainly of Fe$_3$(AsO$_4$)$_2$, while in alkali (high-Ca) fly ash from subbituminous Black Thunder coal it appeared as Ca$_3$(AsO$_4$)$_2$. However, Yudovich and Ketris [32] suggested that iron-arsenate did not occur due to kinetic limitations, because iron was likely to be absorbed into a silicate glass. A thermodynamic analysis by Wang and Tomita [55] showed FeAsO$_4$ was generated and only decomposed above 1000°C. In the work of Diaz-Somoano et al. [73], the equilibrium composition considering arsenic-iron interactions showed that stable FeAsO$_4$ existed at 400-800°C. Seames and Wendt [74] studied the concentration of arsenic and iron in fly ash collected from the electrostatic precipitator (ESP) outlet in a coal-fired power plant. A strong positive relationship was found between arsenic and iron. In addition, Zhang et al. [75] conducted As$_2$O$_3$(g) adsorption experiments with different metal oxides. The results showed that the arsenic adsorption efficiency of Fe$_2$O$_3$ was around 57% and was significantly higher than for other metal oxides, also revealing that Fe$_2$O$_3$ and As$_2$O$_3$ reacted to form stable arsenates.

A correlation between arsenic and other minerals has also been reported [73, 76]. Thermodynamic results from Diaz-Somoano et al. [73] showed the formation of aluminum arsenate was possible even at high temperatures (>1400°C) and sodium and potassium arsenates were stable below 900°C. Magnesium arsenate was also stable from 600°C to 1100°C. An increase in arsenic volatility was only observed when silicon was considered in the equilibrium calculations. Contreras et al. [76] also reported that the presence of silicon had a positive effect on arsenic volatility.

### 3.5 Sulfur and chlorine

The content and mode of occurrence of sulfur in coal might be expected to impact arsenic volatilization. Lu et al. [59] studied arsenic volatility along with SO$_2$ release experiments; the results indicated that although
arsenic levels were often associated with sulfur content, especially inorganic sulfur in coal, it was difficult to correlate the volatilization behaviors of arsenic and sulfur. Some researchers have found that the volatilization proportion of arsenic was reduced in coals with higher sulfur content [77-79]. However, this conclusion is not confirmed by the necessary experimental studies. Contreras et al. [76] found the volatilization proportion of arsenic might be higher for coal with high calcium content, because sulfur was more likely to react with calcium in ash, thus reducing arsenic capture. In addition, sulfur and arsenic in coal may have competed with the active sites of CaO. However the opposite conclusions were drawn about the reaction order of CaO+As$_2$O$_3$(g) and CaO+SO$_2$(g)[69, 71, 80, 81]. Moreover, some researchers mentioned that Cl or Br could also react with calcium, which could change the final effect of sulfur on arsenic[82]. To determine the effect of sulfur on arsenic volatilization, the online release curves of SO$_2$ were compared to the simultaneous release curve of arsenic (obtained indirectly through changing the residence time of raw coal in the tube furnace) during coal combustion in the work of Liu et al. [66]. The simultaneous volatilization characteristics of arsenic and sulfur were observed at both 900°C and 1300°C as seen in Figure 7, demonstrating that arsenic volatilization had a strong correlation with sulfur. Also, these authors found that coals with higher sulfur content tended to have a larger proportion of sulfide-bound arsenic, which provided support for the positive effect of sulfur on arsenic volatilization. More quantitative conclusions can be expected with the further development of online arsenic testing technology in the future.
Figure 7: Simultaneous volatilization of arsenic and \( \text{SO}_2 \) during isothermal coal combustion [66]
(a) GZA coal at 900°C; (b) GZA coal at 1300°C; (c) GZB coal at 900°C; (d) GZB coal at 1300°C; (e) KY coal at 900°C; (f) KY coal at 1300°C

Although the mechanism of decomposition of pyrite during coal combustion at different temperatures has been reported many times [83-87], the mechanism by which arsenopyrite decomposes has received relatively little attention [39, 88-90]. While possible chemical reactions regarding arsenopyrite decomposition have been simulated using thermodynamic simulation software [55], the specific reaction temperatures and reaction kinetic constant \( k \) value have not been reported.

In the case of the large Zhundong coal field, which has recently opened in Xinjiang province in China, the high chloride content of its coal has raised wide concern [91-97]. While chlorine can cause pipeline corrosion, a greater concern is that it may also combine with arsenic and generate highly volatile \( \text{AsCl}_3 \) gas. Its volatilization, and thus the study of the effect of chlorine on arsenic volatilization are of significant importance to this major project. Using thermodynamic analysis, Contreras et al. [76] found that for high-chlorine concentrations \( \text{AsCl}_3(\text{g}) \) became the dominant arsenic species at 800°C, while for low-chlorine-content fuels, \( \text{AsO}_2(\text{g}) \) was the dominant
species, as shown in Figure 8. However, this study was limited to a simulation of the impact of chlorine on arsenic release and confirmatory experiments have not yet been reported.

Figure 8: Chlorine effect on equilibrium distributions of major arsenic species at 800°C [76]

3.6 Pressure

Pressure affects the flue gas equilibrium composition and may result in major changes in the proportions of equilibrium species. In the work of Liu et al. [68], high pressure was shown to lead to the formation and enhancement of the reduced species and increased condensation temperature of the volatile elements. The results of Contreras et al. [76] showed that at 800°C, the proportion of the gaseous arsenic species increased as pressure increased, with a decrease in AsO₂(g) concentration and an increase in As₂O₁₀(g), as shown in Figure 9.

Figure 9: Equilibrium compositions for arsenic under different pressures at 800°C [76]

The effect of pressure on arsenic components during underground coal gasification was modelled by Liu et al. [68]. Results showed that when pressure increased from 0.12 MPa to 3 MPa, the percentage of AsH₃(g)
increased markedly and it became the dominant species below 1250°C, while AsH(g) was the main gas species above 1250°C, indicating that the effect of the reducing atmosphere was enhanced at higher pressures. Moreover, the percentage of AsS(g) decreased sharply with increasing pressure, which indicated that sulfide species were not favoured at high pressures. The calculation results at 0.12 MPa and 3 MPa are shown in Figure 10.

![Figure 10: Equilibrium compositions of arsenic under oxygen-steam gasification](image)

(a) 0.12MPa and (b) 3MPa [68]

Overall, research on the effect of pressure on arsenic volatilization is still limited to thermodynamic simulation; and no related experiments have been reported.

### 3.7 Oxy-fuel combustion

Oxy-fuel combustion is a process that uses oxygen mixed with recycled flue gas for coal combustion to deliver a CO₂-rich flue gas for direct sequestration and/or storage [98, 99]. CO₂ is more easily captured under oxy-fuel conditions than in conventional air combustion and other air pollutants such as SO₂ and NOₓ are reduced [100-106]. As a consequence, this technology offers near near-zero emission of air pollutants, allowing it to meet stringent emission regulations. The high CO₂ partial pressure in an oxy-fuel boiler has been hypothesized to promote higher CO levels than would be observed in conventional air-fired boilers [107, 108]; if so, this could lead to a more intensive reducing atmosphere at the surface of carbon particles, causing oxides to be reduced to unstable sub-oxides. Changes in gas composition during oxy-fuel combustion involve modification
of the operating conditions of the particle- and gas-cleaning devices compared to those in conventional air-fired pulverized coal power plants. Consequently, the physical, mineral, chemical, and leaching properties of residues (slag/bottom ash, fly ash, and flue gas desulfurization (FGD) gypsum) as well as the fate of trace elements in oxy combustion may be different from those observed in conventional air-fired power plants [109, 110]. In support of this hypothesis, Wang et al. [111] reported oxy combustion increased the concentration of trace elements measured in particulate matter (PM).

Due to the large difference between oxy and air combustion atmospheres, arsenic volatilization characteristics observed for conventional air combustion may not apply to oxy combustion. In fact, arsenic volatility during oxy combustion is strongly affected by the elevated concentrations of various gases in the boiler atmosphere, such as O\(_2\), CO\(_2\), SO\(_2\) and H\(_2\)O(g).

3.7.1 O\(_2\)

Wang et al. [111] conducted an oxy combustion test at 1500ºC in a high-temperature drop-tube furnace and sampled at 135ºC to analyze the characteristics of trace elements in the particulates. This work showed that higher O\(_2\) concentrations under oxy combustion induced lower trace element concentration in the form of fine PM. However, the work of Low and Zhang [112] showed that increased oxygen partial pressure favored the vaporization of arsenic, due to the increased particle temperature under elevated oxygen content. O\(_2\)/CO\(_2\) combustion experiments conducted by Liu et al. [113] with a tube furnace showed that the effect of O\(_2\) changed with temperature. At <900ºC, higher O\(_2\) partial pressures led to more intense coal combustion and a larger volatile proportion of arsenic, irrespective of CO\(_2\) content, while at >900ºC, the effect of O\(_2\) was smaller. It appeared that higher O\(_2\) partial pressure promoted arsenic vaporization and further reduced its concentration in particles.
3.7.2 CO₂

In the case of reducing conditions associated with the high concentration of CO₂ in oxy-fuel combustion, some studies have calculated the arsenic compounds produced under different excess air ratios via thermodynamic equilibrium analysis [68, 113-115]. Chatain et al. [114] found that under reducing conditions the volatilization of arsenic at 800°C decreased due to the decrease in volatile oxides concentration. Yan et al. [115] simulated the migration of trace elements over a temperature range of 127-1527°C with various excess air ratios from 0.6 to 1.2. They found that arsenic was easier to vaporize under a reducing atmosphere since trace elements were more likely to generate unstable compounds such as volatile sub-oxides and sulfides. Liu et al. [68] reported that the form of gaseous arsenic was mainly AsO(g) in oxidizing atmosphere at relatively high temperatures, but in reducing atmosphere As(g) became the primary species above 1450°C. Liu et al. [113] conducted thermodynamic analysis to study the equilibrium components of calcium arsenate (Ca₃(AsO₄)₂) and ferric arsenate (FeAsO₄) with O₂/C molar ratio of 1.2 (oxidizing atmosphere) or 0.8 (reducing atmosphere), as shown in Figure 11.

![Graphs showing Arsenic Speciation](image_url)
Figure 11: Equilibrium composition of arsenates in oxidizing and reducing atmospheres [113]

Figure 11 indicates that arsenic compounds with high oxidation states were reduced to compounds with lower oxidation states in a reducing atmosphere, as expected. For example, FeAsO$_4$ was reduced to FeAs and FeAs$_2$. However, the arsenic compounds with lower oxidation states had poor thermal stability, and readily decomposed into secondary oxides or elemental arsenic under high-temperature conditions [55], leading to the rapid volatilization of arsenic.

Some researchers have also studied the effects of oxy-fuel combustion on arsenic experimentally. Using a typical Chinese bituminous coal, the experiments of Wang et al. [111] indicated that oxy combustion with higher CO$_2$ content increased arsenic concentrations in PM as compared to air combustion, as seen in Figure 12.

Figure 12: Arsenic concentration in various PM fractions under air combustion and oxy-fuel combustion with different oxygen concentrations. (oxy$_L$: 21% O$_2$/79% CO$_2$  oxy$_H$: 29% O$_2$/71% CO$_2$) [111]
Low and Zhang [112] did pyrolysis experiments in N\textsubscript{2} and CO\textsubscript{2} atmospheres in a lab-scale drop-tube furnace at 1500\textdegree{}C to study the effect of CO\textsubscript{2} on arsenic behavior. The results are shown in Figure 13. The substitution of N\textsubscript{2} by CO\textsubscript{2} for oxy-fuel combustion caused little change to the emission and speciation of arsenic at the initial step of coal combustion and pyrolysis.

![Figure 13: Evolution of As speciation upon pyrolysis of (a) DBC (bituminous coal from Datong, China), (b) Brazilian lignite and (c) As-doped VBC (brown coal from Victoria, Australia) in pure N\textsubscript{2} or CO\textsubscript{2}[112]](image)

Roy et al. [116] simulated the equilibrium composition of arsenic compounds of three lignites under oxy combustion atmosphere using FactSage software. The results showed that at low temperature the distribution of toxic arsenic species in oxy-fuel combustion was almost the same as in air combustion. Contreras et al. [117] simulated the arsenic evaporation characteristics for different CO\textsubscript{2} concentrations under oxy combustion atmosphere using HSC Chemistry software [118] and also found arsenic vaporization did not increase under oxy-firing.

Zhuang and Pavlish [119] studied the behavior of hazardous air pollutants in a 200-kW oxygen-fired coal combustion power plant with different flue gas recycling (FGR) systems, as shown in Figure 14.
In contrast to Wang et al. [111], who found that higher CO$_2$ content increased arsenic concentrations in PM with diameter in the micrometer range, Zhuang and Pavlish [119] reported that compared with air firing, arsenic showed lower concentrations on fly ash during 21% O$_2$/79% CO$_2$ combustion with the recycled flue gas coming from the ESP outlet or the wet scrubber outlet (Figure 15), which indicated that oxy combustion increased the arsenic volatilization.

Currently, it is difficult to determine whether CO$_2$ has a positive or negative role in arsenic volatilization under oxy-fuel combustion and it is clear that further study is needed.

3.7.3 SO$_2$ and H$_2$O(g)
Wang et al. [111] reported the effects of SO$_2$ and H$_2$O on trace element distribution under oxy combustion atmosphere at 1500ºC. The results are shown in Figure 16. SO$_2$ reduced the total amount and concentration of trace elements in PM under oxy combustion, while H$_2$O(g) enhanced both the mass of the PM, and the trace element mass in the PM. The results indicated that SO$_2$ promoted the volatilization of arsenic during oxy-fuel combustion, while H$_2$O(g) reduced it.

![Figure 16: Concentration distribution of arsenic in PM fractions under oxy-fuel combustion with different SO$_2$ and H$_2$O(g) concentrations. OXY$_H$ + SO$_2$(500) is 29% O$_2$/71% CO$_2$ with 500 ppm SO$_2$; OXY$_H$ + SO$_2$(1500) is 29% O$_2$/71% CO$_2$ with 1500 ppm SO$_2$; OXY$_H$ + H$_2$O(10) is 29% O$_2$/10% H$_2$O/61%CO$_2$; OXY$_H$ + H$_2$O(30) is 29% O$_2$/30% H$_2$O/41% CO$_2$ [111]

However, given that only limited information is available on the effect of SO$_2$ and H$_2$O(g) on arsenic volatilization during oxy-fuel combustion, more research is needed on this subject.

The coal particles burned in circulating fluidized bed (CFB) boilers are larger than those in pulverized coal boilers and it is known that particle size is an important factor during coal combustion since it affects the ignition, burnout of coals and PM formation, as well as the volatilization of arsenic. Unfortunately, the effect of particle size on arsenic volatilization is still largely unstudied.

4 Transformation of arsenic during post-combustion

Volatile arsenic compounds in the flue gas gradually condense as the temperature decreases. Some volatile arsenic components may condense on the surface of fly ash, react with substances in fly ash, or be absorbed by
fly ash and captured by the ESP. Only a small amount of arsenic passes through the FGD system and is finally emitted to the atmosphere. Once combustion gases are carried downstream from the combustion zone of a coal-fired boiler, the key factors affecting the final trace constituent transformation/partitioning behavior are the conversion of vaporized components into various solid forms and their collection along with the fly ash. Gaseous arsenic will experience adsorption, condensation, and chemical transformation as the flue gas cools [15, 120].

4.1 Distribution of arsenic in power plants

![A typical pulverized coal combustion system and related equipment](image)

Figure 17 shows a typical pulverized coal combustion system and related equipment. A summary of the data on the distribution of arsenic in raw coal, ash, and flue gas from such a system is presented in Table 5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Power Plants</th>
<th>Coal</th>
<th>Raw coal, μg/g</th>
<th>Bottom ash, μg/g</th>
<th>ESP/FF fly ash, μg/g</th>
<th>Flue gas, μg/m³</th>
<th>Balance</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Brazilian power plant</td>
<td>A high ash feed coal (A_d: 49.7%, Var: 23.1%)</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>Pires and Querol [121]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Presidente Me’dici Power Plant or UTPM-446 MW)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shizuishan Power Plant</td>
<td>V_daf 30.62; A_d 39.32%</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>Song et al. [122]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Two Finnish coal-fired power plants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Plant</th>
<th>Var: 29.4%</th>
<th>Ash</th>
<th>Vol</th>
<th>N.S.</th>
<th>125%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plant SB</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>&lt;10</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>----</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plant HB</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>113%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Aunela-Tapola et al. [123]

### Two 660 MW boilers with a low-temperature economizer (LTE)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A mixed coal: Var: 31.02%</th>
<th>S: 2.38%</th>
<th>0.304</th>
<th>9.093</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Wang et al. [124]

### An underfed stoker unit with approximately 50 kW capacity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Var: 9.26%</th>
<th>1.6</th>
<th>7.9</th>
<th>31</th>
<th>Nd</th>
<th>27%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Var: 36.44%</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>Nd</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Li et al. [125]

### 1100-1250ºC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Var: 37.18%</th>
<th>1.4</th>
<th>2.4</th>
<th>18</th>
<th>Nd</th>
<th>22%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clemens et al. [126]

### CFB, 50 kW

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Waikato coal</th>
<th>Ad: 3.5%</th>
<th>0.86</th>
<th>5.9</th>
<th>9.5</th>
<th>33</th>
<th>----</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clemens et al. [126]

### 1400 MW coal-fired power

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ad: 27.3%</th>
<th>79.1%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ad: 22.3%</td>
<td>64.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ad: 22.8%</td>
<td>60.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Otero-Rey et al. [127]

### 220 MW installed capacity and equipped with tangential burners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ad: 34.67%</th>
<th>83.47%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ad: 32.51%</td>
<td>84.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ad: 36.25%</td>
<td>83.26%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reddy et al. [128]

### Three 440t/h CFB with ESP/FF and WFGD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Petroleum coke and coal blends</th>
<th>Var: 22.40%, Aar: 16.8%</th>
<th>3.79</th>
<th>21.80</th>
<th>23.30</th>
<th>0.97</th>
<th>114.2%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Var: 18.07%, Aar: 11.41%</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>36.60</td>
<td>13.64</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>80.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Var: 18.07%, Aar: 11.41%</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>29.00</td>
<td>17.25</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>86.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Duan et al. [129]

### Notes

Ad: ash content in coal on dry basis; Var: volatile content in coal on as received basis; V<sub>daf</sub>: volatile content in coal on dry ash free basis; Nd: not found; ----: not measured.

Many researchers have calculated the mass balance ratio of arsenic by measuring the arsenic concentration...
in solid products, without considering the gas phase. In the work of Aunela-Tapola et al. [123], two Finnish
coal-fired power plants (SB and HB) were experimentally investigated with regard to the distribution of arsenic.
The mass balances of arsenic in two bituminous coals in SB and HB, were 125% and 113%, respectively. Only
22% to 36% arsenic recovery was obtained by Li et al. [125] when testing three lignites. For a mixed coal in two
660 MW boilers with a low-temperature economizer (LTE), the mass balance of arsenic was only 57.3% [124].
The relatively low mass balance of arsenic was mainly due to arsenic in the flue gas and ultrafine particles (<0.2
μm) not being accounted for. Unlike laboratory experiments, the sampling process in an industrial system can
experience significant deviation; hence, these mass balance values must be considered acceptable. Moreover,
mass imbalances may arise because arsenic can condense or be absorbed on interior surfaces of equipment such
as heating surfaces [130].

Only a few researchers have studied the mass balances of arsenic considering both solid and gaseous
arsenic. Clemens et al. [126] studied Waikato coal under fluidized bed combustion (50-kW capacity). Although
this study took the gaseous arsenic into account, it did not give the specific mass balance figures. The arsenic
concentration in flue gas was 18.4 μg/m³ in the work of Otero-Rey et al. [127], where 60.2% to 79.1% of arsenic
mass balance was obtained. Reddy et al. [128] researched the emission characteristics of arsenic at a 220-MW
power plant equipped with tangential burners burning three types of coal with arsenic content of 41.9±2.4 μg/g.
The mass balance of arsenic in the three coals was in the range of 83.26% to 84.20%. However, the arsenic
balance considering all phases was lower than 100%; one possible reason is that the sampling of arsenic in flue
gas was not done using online sampling techniques. Here, the sampling method was liquid sampling, using
absorption bottles. During flue gas sampling, the flue gas was cooled continuously as it passed from the flue into
the absorption bottle, which may have caused some of the arsenic in the flue gas to condense on the pipes.
However, the metal inner wall of the sampling gun could not be acid washed, which likely resulted in the loss of arsenic in the gas phase. In general, such problems ensure that the mass balance results of arsenic considering the gas phase are typically much less than 100% [127, 128].

4.2 Enrichment of arsenic on fine particles

Trace elements can be categorized into three main groups with regard to their partitioning during coal combustion [13, 57, 131-137]. Elements such as As, Cd, Pb, Sb, and Se are in group II and are found concentrated more on the fine-grained fly ash particles [31]. Thus, most of the generated arsenic vapor is captured by fly ash and tends to accumulate on the surface of the smaller particles of the fly ash, which here refers to those particles whose aerodynamic diameter is less than 10 μm [138-144].

Querol et al. [145] tested the content and distribution of 23 trace elements in the fuel (organic and/or inorganic affinities) and in the combustion wastes (partition and volatility) during combustion in a large power station. Results showed that arsenic exhibited segregation in the fly ash (fly ash/slag concentration ratio > 1.5). Likewise, Liu et al. [146] found that while the arsenic concentration in the feed coal of a coal-fired power plant in the Yanzhou area of Shandong was only 2.3 μg/g, arsenic concentration was three times higher in the fly ash (7.0 μg/g). Zhao et al. [53] reported a bimodal distribution of arsenic associated with particulates during the combustion of high-arsenic coals from the Guizhou province of China. When the temperature increased from 1100°C to 1400°C, an emission of arsenic in PM with diameter less than 1μm (PM1) increased from 0.07 mg/Nm$^3$ to 0.25 mg/Nm$^3$. Based on the enrichment factor proposed by Ratafia-Brown [147], Tang et al. [148] tested the enrichment factors of arsenic in fly ash collected from four hoppers in one of the utility boilers from the Luohe Power Plant (LH#1), in Anhui Province, China (as shown in Figure 18). From electric field 1 to electric field 4, the enrichment factors of arsenic increased sharply from 0.6 to 4.4, indicating that arsenic tended
to be enriched in smaller particle sizes.

Figure 18: Variation of enrichment factors in fly ash collected from four hoppers at the LH#1 boiler [148]

Studies of arsenic partitioning conducted over the past 40 years have been focused on the enrichment of arsenic in the submicron fly ash particulate. The findings of these studies are reported in Table 6.

Table 6: Arsenic enrichment in submicron fly ash particulate grouped by coal type and the size of the facility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coal type/source</th>
<th>Boiler size</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Field studies</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B Ill./Ky.</td>
<td>290 MWe</td>
<td>[c] FA BA</td>
<td>Klein et al. [149]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B U</td>
<td>350 MWe</td>
<td>[c] f(dp), ESP-O</td>
<td>Gladney et al. [150]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B Poland</td>
<td>17.2 kg/s</td>
<td>[c] FA BA</td>
<td>Kauppinen and Pakkan [151]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B US, Austral.</td>
<td>115-645 MWe</td>
<td>RE FA BA</td>
<td>Meij et al. [120]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S Spain</td>
<td>1050 MWe</td>
<td>[c] f(dp), ESP ash</td>
<td>Querol et al. [13]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B UK</td>
<td>2000 MWe</td>
<td>[c] FA BA</td>
<td>Martinez [152]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B Illinois</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>RE FA BA</td>
<td>Demir et al. [153]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B Poland</td>
<td>160, 113 MWe</td>
<td>RE FA BA</td>
<td>Aunela-Tapola et al. [123]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B Netherlands</td>
<td>600 MWe</td>
<td>[c] FA BA</td>
<td>Sandelin and Backman [154]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Power (MWe)</td>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Authors/References</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>B Finland</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>[c] FA BA</td>
<td>Sandelin and Backman [49]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U Slovakia</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>[c] FA BA</td>
<td>Keegan et al. [18]</td>
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<td>B India</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>[c] FA, BA</td>
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<td>U China</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>[c] FA BA RE</td>
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<td>B U</td>
<td>795</td>
<td>[c] FA BA ESP-I</td>
<td>Cheng et al. [156]</td>
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<td>Pandey et al. [157]</td>
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<td>U</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>[c] FA BA RE ESP</td>
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<td>[c] FA BA</td>
<td>Quispe et al. [159]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U Balingian</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>[c] FA BA</td>
<td>Sia and Abdullah [160]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U China</td>
<td>300, 600</td>
<td>[c] FA BA RE</td>
<td>Tang et al. [70]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U China</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>[c] f(dp)</td>
<td>Jin et al. [142]</td>
</tr>
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<td>U China</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>[c] FA BA RE</td>
<td>Tang et al. [148]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U China</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>[c] FA</td>
<td>Hu et al. [161]</td>
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</table>

**Laboratory- and pilot-scale studies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Power (kW)</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Authors/References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>L North Dakota</td>
<td>Lab 17 kW</td>
<td>RE f(dp)</td>
<td>Linak and Peterson [162]</td>
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<tr>
<td>U</td>
<td>90 kW oxy combustion pilot plant</td>
<td>[c] FA BA</td>
<td>Font et al. [163]</td>
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<td>A, B China</td>
<td>2.5 MW CFB combustor</td>
<td>[c] f(dp) FA BA</td>
<td>Lunbo et al. [164]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Bench-scale (drop-tube) studies**
4.2.1 Factors affecting arsenic enrichment

**Effect of temperature.** Quann et al.[170] studied the size distribution of fly ash at 1780°C and 2180°C. The amount of submicron aerosol increased markedly from 4% of total fly ash at 1780°C to 20% at 2180°C, showing that increasing temperature enhanced the formation of submicron aerosol particles. Results supported the hypothesis that the enrichment of the smaller ash particles in more volatile species such as arsenic was due to a process of vaporization and re-condensation of mineral constituents. Senior et al. [171] showed flame temperature had a dramatic impact on the amount of certain trace elements such as arsenic and selenium in the submicron ash, indicating that these elements vaporized during the combustion process. However, the amount of vaporization was not sensitive to the coal grind. In the work of Seames and Wendt [74], size-segregated ash-laden aerosol samples were isokinetically collected to study the correlations between arsenic and major elements (as functions of particle size); results showed increasing combustion temperature increased the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>O₂ Concentration (%)</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B, S, L US</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>RE f(dp)</td>
<td>Quann [165]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B Illinois (b)</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
<td>[c] f(dp)</td>
<td>Helble [166]</td>
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<tr>
<td>B, S Pitt., Wyo.</td>
<td>SR 1.2</td>
<td>[c] f(dp)</td>
<td>Bool and Helble [58]</td>
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<tr>
<td>L Montana</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>[c] f(dp)</td>
<td>Neville and Sarofim [167]</td>
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<tr>
<td>B USA</td>
<td>SR=1.2/0.9</td>
<td>[c] f(dp), FA</td>
<td>Senior et al. [56]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A, B China</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>[c] f(dp), FA</td>
<td>Zhao et al. [53]</td>
</tr>
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<td>A, B China</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>[c] f(dp), FA</td>
<td>Zhao et al. [53]</td>
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<tr>
<td>B Australia</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>[c] FA</td>
<td>Jiao et al. [168]</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

B, bituminous; S, subbituminous; L, lignite; Br, brown coal; BA, bottom ash; FA, fly ash; ESP-I, ESP inlet; ESP-O, ESP outlet; U, unspecified. [c] FA BA means in the literature the concentrations of fly ash and bottom ash were tested. [c] f(dp) means concentration measured as function of particle size. RE, relative enrichment factor as defined by Meij et al. [120]. Table represents expansion of studies summarized by Helble [169].
availability of active sites and the partitioning of arsenic and selenium onto fly ash particles.

Effect of minerals. Senior et al. [172] concluded that the composition differences among size-segregated coal samples of different density were mainly due to the density differences between minerals, especially pyrite, and the organic portion of the coal. The high-density fractions were enriched in pyrite or substances associated with pyrite. According to the experiment results of Senior et al.[172], arsenic and iron were concentrated in the high-density fraction of 45-63-mm particle size cut of Pittsburgh coal. In addition, it has been reported that the calcium present in fly ash may interact with arsenic vapor, resulting in the enrichment of arsenic [69]. Chemical associations between arsenic and calcium or iron were inferred by Seames and Wendt [74] through PM sampling with a Berner low-pressure impactor in a 17-kW downflow laboratory combustor. The correlation between arsenic and calcium/iron in ash particles is shown in Figure 19 [74], which indicates that both iron and calcium could provide sites for arsenic association.

![Figure 19: Typical differential distribution cross correlation result: arsenic in ash particles versus calcium and iron (Pittsburgh coal) [74]](image)

Competition of sulfur and arsenic. Seames and Wendt [74] tested the effects of sulfur on arsenic partitioning in a 17-kW vertical downflow combustor with 2 kg/h coal premixed with air (stoichiometric ratio, SR = 1.2). Doping SO₂ with the primary combustion air, the total arsenic concentration recovered on particles during
Kentucky coal combustion, <0.973, 0.973-1.96, 1.96-3.77, and 3.77-7.33 μm in size, pooled together, decreased from a total of 695 μg/m³ (no added SO₂) to 78 μg/m³ (with SO₂ addition). Figure 20 shows the transformation of arsenic compounds with sulfur in coal. Sulfur was thought to compete with these surface reactions of minerals and arsenic, which decreased arsenic partitioning onto fly ash surfaces.

![Figure 20: Regimes for arsenic speciation during pulverized coal combustion](image)

*Figure 20: Regimes for arsenic speciation during pulverized coal combustion [74]*

*Equipment (Low-temperature economizer (LTE)).* Wang et al. [124] measured PM and trace elements from a coal-fired power plant with ESP, equipped with a Low-temperature economizer (LTE). The enrichment factors of trace elements in PM₁.0₂ (diameter range 0.2-0.5µm) were markedly higher than those of PM₁.0₅ (diameter range 0.5-1.0µm), showing arsenic tended to be enriched in fine particles. Particularly, with the LTE operating, the enrichment factor of arsenic in PM₁.0₂ decreased sharply from 42 to 32, as shown in Figure 21. A possible reason is that with the LTE on, a lower flue gas temperature (100-108°C) was obtained than with the LTE non-operational (138-146°C), which significantly reduced the amount of PM at the outlet of the ESP. As a result, the concentration of arsenic in fine PM was reduced. In addition, the decreasing enrichment factor order of trace elements (As>Cd>Cr>Pb>Mn) indicated that trace elements with higher volatility had an increased enrichment in the fine particles [120, 173, 174].
Figure 21: The enrichment factors of trace elements in PM$_{0.5-1.0}$ and PM$_{0.2-0.5}$ [124], where LTE is Low-temperature economizer

Difference between bench- and pilot-scale results. The concentration of arsenic in submicron particles at the ESP inlet emphasized the difference between pilot-scale tests and laboratory results, as shown in Figure 22 [171]. According to Senior et al. [171], the amount of ash in the vaporization mode as well as the amounts of several refractory elements (Ca, Fe, and Co) in the laboratory combustor [56] were similar to the pilot-scale study [171]. Thus, they concluded that the flame conditions in the two systems were similar. In this case, the results of laboratory and pilot-scale tests were compared to study the transformation of arsenic. In the laboratory sample at 1150°C, 25% of arsenic was found in the submicron mode, while in the submicron sample from the pilot-scale combustion facility less than 5% of arsenic was found. The possible reason is that more chemical condensation took place in the pilot-scale test, which caused arsenic present in the gas to condense preferentially on larger ash particles, not on the submicron ash.
4.3 Speciation transformation of arsenic

Total concentrations of trace elements in raw coal and ash samples and their partitioning in coal-fired power stations have been extensively studied in the last few years, with diverse analytical methods [175]. Speciation of individual trace elements, however, requires more specific analytical measurement techniques, which are significantly different from those applicable to the determination of total elemental concentration [139, 176-182]. X-ray absorption fine structure (XAFS) spectroscopy has been widely used to determine the speciation of trace elements in solid phases [88, 183]. In recent years, XANES and extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) spectroscopy, which are more sensitive to the local structural environment of an element, have begun to be used in speciation studies of trace elements.

Arsenic XANES and arsenic EXAFS spectra by Zielinski et al. [139] indicated that most arsenic in the coal
was contained in a generation of arsenic-bearing pyrite (arsenian pyrite (FeS\textsubscript{2-As}), arsenopyrite (FeAsS), or As substitutes for S in pyrite (Fe(As\textsubscript{x}S\textsubscript{1-x})\textsubscript{2}), while most (95%) of the arsenic was present as As\textsuperscript{5+} in fly ash. The majority of arsenic in a highly alkaline (pH = 12.7) fly ash was present as As\textsuperscript{5+} in calcium arsenate (Ca\textsubscript{3}(AsO\textsubscript{4})\textsubscript{2}). While in a highly acidic (pH = 3.0) fly ash, arsenic was associated with some combination of iron oxide, oxyhydroxide, or sulfate. Shah et al. [49] tested the arsenic speciation in feed coal and combustion products. In coal 65% As\textsuperscript{5+}, 25% As\textsuperscript{3+} and 10% As/pyrite were found, while in the fly ash, 90% of arsenic was found as the less toxic As\textsuperscript{5+} and 10% as As\textsuperscript{3+}. The arsenic XANES spectra of coal and fly ash samples determined by these workers are shown in Figure 23. This finding is consistent with the previous studies that arsenic in fly ash was mainly present as As\textsuperscript{5+} with lower concentrations of As\textsuperscript{3+} [184-186]. This was partly caused by the interaction of As\textsubscript{2}O\textsubscript{3}(g) in the As\textsuperscript{3+} form with CaO in fly ash, which formed the stable As\textsuperscript{5+} compounds [76, 81, 187-189].

![Arsenic XANES spectra of coal and fly ash samples](image)

**Figure 23: Arsenic XANES spectra of coal and fly ash samples [49]**

In the work of Goodarzi et al. [50], a medium volatile bituminous coal with an ash content of 34 wt.% was combusted in a 150-MW Canadian power plant. The distribution of arsenic in feed coals, ash, and stack-emitted materials was determined with XANES spectroscopy. Results showed, first, that arsenic in the feed coal was
dominated by arsenate (54%), followed by arsenical pyrite (FeAsS) (24%) and an arsenite (As$^{3+}$ –O) species (12%) (Figure 24(a)). It is possible that the As$^{5+}$ and As$^{3+}$ species were derived by oxidation of the arsenical pyrite [180]. Second, the content of arsenic in bottom ash was quite low, while a majority of arsenic (>90%) in fly ash was present as As$^{5+}$ (as shown in Figure 24(b)). Third, more than 99% of total arsenic was captured by the particulate removal devices.

(a) milled coal  
(b) ash samples from power plant

Figure 24: Arsenic XANES spectrum of milled coal and ash samples from power plant. Zero-point of energy corresponds to 11,867 eV[50]

In the work of Luo et al. [141], both arsenic K-edge XANES and EXAFS spectra were collected for the speciation determination in five fly ash samples. A comparison of arsenic K-edge XANES spectra of the samples to spectra of oxidation-state standards demonstrated that arsenic was predominantly As$^{5+}$ in all samples. Furthermore, mansfieldite (AlAsO$_4$·2H$_2$O) [190], calcium arsenate [Ca$_3$(AsO$_4$)$_2$] [191], and calcium pyroarsenate (Ca$_2$As$_2$O$_7$) [192] were considered as the possible As$^{5+}$ speciation in fly ash.

An improved graphite furnace atomic absorption spectrometry(GFAAS) method, complemented by thermal
gravimetric analyzer/differential scanning calorimeter (TGA/DSC) experiments, was first used to study trace element partitioning from mineral exclusions by Raeva et al. [193]. However, this method had limitations for trace element and inorganic matrix speciation because samples had to be introduced into the furnace in a homogeneous form. Thus water-insoluble matrices, e.g. quartz and pyrite, could not be tested.

According to the studies noted above, most of the arsenic in ash was present as $\text{As}^{5+}$. With regard to the arsenic speciation in flue gas, Germani and Zoller [194] concluded that the arsenic was mainly present as $\text{As}_2\text{O}_6$ by measuring the $\text{As}_2\text{O}_6$ and $\text{As}^0$ in flue gas. Here, 0.7 to 52% of the total in-stack concentration of arsenic in the vapor phase was reported as $\text{As}_2\text{O}_3$ by Ratafia-Brown [147].

4.4 Transformation mechanism

4.4.1 Fly ash formation and particle size distribution

The transformation behavior of arsenic is closely related to fly ash formation, particle size distribution, and migration evolution of minerals. The fundamental formation mechanism of coal ash is shown in Figure 25 [195]. The process was divided into two parts: coal with included minerals; and coal with excluded minerals. Residual ash ranging from 1-100 $\mu$m was formed from excluded minerals or fusion of included minerals. Sub-micron ash ranging from 0.01-1 $\mu$m was formed by vaporization, followed by homogeneous condensation, heterogeneous condensation, coagulation and aggregation, or extensive fragmentation of minerals. The size distribution of fly ash particles was thought to be influenced by several factors, including combustion environment, coal properties, and residence time.
Effect of coal properties. It has been reported that higher rates of char fragmentation resulted in smaller fly ash particle size [196]. Tang et al. [197] reported that vitrinite particles (with higher H:C) produced highly porous char with severe fragmentation during combustion, which in turn, resulted in formation of fine ash. According to Buhre et al. [198], most of the evaporated water-soluble inorganic matter (mostly present in low rank coals or black liquor) and organically-associated inorganic matter contributed to the formation of PM1. In addition, experiments on the effects of alkalis[199-201] and sulfur [202, 203] in raw coals were conducted in drop-tube furnace to study the formation of PM1. Higher alkalis and sulfur content were expected to improve the
amount of PM1, especially particles under 0.6μm. Char produced by different types of coal may also have caused particle size distribution differences [204]. The experiments of Attalla et al. [195] showed that, compared to lignite, much more extensive fragmentation took place in bituminous coals, resulting in a narrower size distribution of particles. In addition, the particle size of coal char showed a greater influence on fragmentation in bituminous coals [195].

Effect of residence time. It is also possible that some larger mineral particles may be only partly melted due to the short residence time in the boiler, forming fly ash particles with non-spherical shapes. When the load is reduced, the temperature and flue gas flow rate in the boiler decrease accordingly. As a result, the residence time of particles is extended. It seems reasonable to expect that with longer particle residence time, more melting will occur in pulverized coal boilers. In that case, the vaporization proportion of fly ash aerosols would increase to some extent and enhance the concentration of fine particulate matter in the fly ash. In addition, the physical properties of mineral particles can be expected to affect the particle size distribution. Mineral particles with relatively high melting points could leave the pulverized coal boiler without entering the vapor phase. Moreover, non-volatile species may appear in the vapor phase due to association with organic material, and some volatile elements may be trapped within the liquid matrix material [196].

Effect of combustion environment. Combustion environment and flame temperature have already been shown to affect fine-ash formation. A reducing and high-temperature environment caused evaporation of inorganic matter, including both trace and major elements from the coal matrix [205]. Also, a CO₂-rich environment has been shown to reduce the fragmentation of carbonate minerals. As mentioned in Section 4.2, higher char particle temperatures during the combustion or gasification of coal may cause higher vaporization of inorganic matter and thus enhanced concentration of fine particles.
In general, it can be expected that with a higher rate of char fragmentation, longer residence time, and higher flame temperature, a larger proportion of fine particles will be generated, which will enhance the enrichment of arsenic in fly ash.

### 4.4.2 Arsenic partitioning pathway

Senior et al. [206] pointed out that the transformation of arsenic in coal to ash was actually the process of arsenic migrating into the different size fractions of ash, namely arsenic partitioning, based on the formation and deposition of fine particles.

Ratafia-Brown [147] identified five physical-chemical processes that controlled trace element partitioning and determined their final physical form, namely: heterogeneous condensation on the existing fly ash particles and heat exchange surfaces (Pathway 1); homogeneous condensation (nucleation) and coalescence as submicron aerosols if local supersaturating conditions exist (Pathway 2); physical/chemical adsorption on fly ash particles (Pathway 3); homogeneous and heterogeneous chemical reaction among trace elements, fly ash, and flue gas constituents (Pathway 4); remaining in the vapor phase for species with high vapor pressure at typical boiler exit temperature (Pathway 5).

All the pathways except Pathway 5 are volatility-dependent, supporting the hypothesis that the volatilization process provides the critical input for the transformation of arsenic.

### 4.5 Partitioning model

Thermodynamic equilibrium calculations, which consider coal as a homogenous material, have been widely used to predict the transformation of arsenic compounds in coal [72, 76, 207-210]. Although various factors have been considered, such as temperature, pressure, atmosphere, and other interactions, the calculation results are
thermodynamic ones; they do not account for the reaction kinetics and heterogeneous nature of coal [76]. In the early 1990’s, Linak and Wendt [211, 212] began to place emphasis on prediction of the size-segregated distribution of trace metals in power plants. It was found that the partitioning of trace elements on sized fly ash was controlled by fuel composition and combustion conditions. Subsequently, the nucleation, film condensation, and coagulation processes that govern the particle size distribution of multiple toxic metals in practical combustion environments were experimentally and theoretically explored by Davis et al. [213]. The size-fractionated fine particles were shown to be in good agreement with aerosol dynamics theory. Helble [169] developed a model of trace element emissions with the input data of fundamental laboratory results on trace element partitioning. The model indicated that with element incorporation and size-dependent partitioning and penetration, the predicted arsenic concentration in flue gas could be improved by more than 25%. Subsequently, Senior et al. [61] developed a one-dimensional model to predict the behavior of arsenic in the post-combustion region as a function of gas residence time. Heterogeneous condensation and surface reaction of arsenic on fly ash as well as the effect of SO$_2$ on arsenic partitioning were considered in the model. The model assumed that the particle size distribution of fly ash did not change with temperature and time. More recently, James et al. [214] developed a computational fluid dynamics model of arsenic partitioning. Previously developed mathematical approaches, combined with pyritic mineral transformation mechanisms, excluding fragmentation, and recently determined experimental speciation details, were employed to predict trace element partitioning and spatial evolution during combustion. However, they only considered the particle size distribution of fly ash, and not the interaction and impact of arsenic and other elements. In future, more effort is required to develop a model of arsenic partitioning in which the particle size distribution of fly ash with gas residence time, the heterogeneous/homogeneous condensation of arsenic, and the reactions between arsenic and other species could
all be included.

Zeng et al. [215] established the first quantitative physicochemical model for vaporization of arsenic during coal pyrolysis and combustion. The vaporization process for arsenic consists of three consecutive processes: transport of molecules or atoms through the bulk pyrite liquid (melt) to the melt/gas interface, vaporization of arsenic on the surface of melts, and transport of molecules/atoms through the pores of the char to the atmosphere. The controlling step is diffusion through the melt. Raeva et al. [216] presented a new method for the direct measurement of kinetic parameters under conditions that simulated the vaporization of inorganic material during coal combustion. This method was used to generate key physical property data which were necessary for modeling and assessment of the vaporization behavior of trace elements.

However, the model of arsenic volatilization is far from well-developed and trace elements may be in the form of organically associated material (incorporated into the organic structure of the coal), inclusions, or exclusions [217, 218]. The volatilization characteristics of arsenic in various forms are significantly different. For example, arsenic in the exclusion form is easily released into the atmosphere with the combustion of coal, while arsenic which is organically associated with coal is always going to be released by devolatilization, particle fragmentation, char combustion, and burnout. Because char simultaneously reacts with the oxygen in the surrounding environment, vaporization of arsenic that is organically associated with coal may occur mainly in a reducing atmosphere, as shown in Fig. 25 (represented by dotted line circles). That is to say, arsenic in different forms shows different volatilization characteristics along with the combustion of coal particles. However, the current models of arsenic volatilization do not separate organic-, inclusive-, and exclusive-related arsenic forms. These models typically assume a uniform dispersion of inclusive-related material within the char particle [219]. One reason for this is that it is not physically possible to utilize real coal particles to generate data for these three
forms separately. In addition, the model results for volatilization of arsenic under micro-environmental conditions cannot be confirmed in actual furnace combustion experiments. The arsenic volatilization model requires further improvement to establish the partitioning behavior of arsenic.

5 Emission of arsenic in coal-fired power plants

5.1 Collaborative control of arsenic by ESP and FGD equipment

The application of air pollution control devices (APCDs) in power plants can significantly affect the redistribution of arsenic in combustion by-products and alter the route by which the elements reach the environment [220]. A certain proportion of trace elements can be partitioned into the solid by-product (gypsum) and water stream (e.g. gypsum slurry) after passing through flue gas desulfurization systems [221]. Particulate-bound metals can be captured by particulate control facilities such as ESPs and fabric filters. Fly ash captured by ESP is used as a raw material for the synthesis of construction material such as cement and concrete because of its pozzolanic properties [222]. However, the fact that arsenic is largely enriched in fly ash should not be ignored. In addition, under more restrictive environmental regulations, most coal power stations are equipped with FGD systems, which could control acid gas emissions and also effectively control gaseous and particulate arsenic emissions [123]. FGD gypsum with arsenic can be used in wallboard manufacture, or for some applications as a lime substitute [223]. FGD gypsum is also employed as a landfill material in mine reclamation [224]. Some fly ash and FGD gypsum end up in landfill. Although FGD gypsum is regarded as environmentally friendly at present, it could become an issue with increasing landfill closures if further uses are not found for it [70]. Because of the wide use of fly ash and FGD gypsum, as well as the fact that they may be arsenic carriers, a better understanding is needed of the effects of APCDs on arsenic emissions.

5.1.1 Effect of ESP
The enrichment of arsenic on fine fly ash has been summarized in Section 4.2. However, researchers have reached varying conclusions on gaseous arsenic removal efficiency using ESP. For example, the study of Cheng et al. [156] on the partitioning of several trace elements in a full-scale coal combustion process in China showed that the removal efficiency of arsenic by an ESP unit was as high as 97%. But, according to Tang et al. [70], the average removal efficiency for arsenic was 83%, based on an investigation of two pulverized coal-fired power plants in China that burned bituminous coal. An ESP removes trace elements presented in the form of PM, but removal efficiencies depend on the efficiency of the ESP and the mineral content of the fly ash.

In recent years, a new dust control technology called electrostatic-fabric-integrated precipitator (EFIP) has become increasingly common. This technology combines the advantages of ESP and the bag filler, and is believed to be a low cost, promising, high efficiency for fine particle removal. Wang et al. [225] carried out a full-scale field investigation on trace element emission at a power plant equipped with EFIP. The study of field sampling results showed that the arsenic concentration contained in electrostatic precipitation ash was larger than that in the fabric filtration ash. Also, the arsenic contained in fabric filtration ash tended to release into the environment more easily.

5.1.2 Effect of FGD

Trace elements in the FGD system come mainly from limestone, flue gas, and PM, as well as the slurry water. Córdoba et al. [158] studied the abatement capacity of trace elements (including arsenic) in a large pulverized coal combustion power station equipped with a wet limestone flue gas desulfurization unit (WFGD), concluding that the control rate of arsenic (moderately volatile element) was more than 92% [158]. Similarly, Álvarez-Ayuso et al. [224, 226] conducted sampling experiments in a coal-fired power plant, which consisted of feed coal, boiler slag, fly ash, limestone, FGD gypsum, process water, and waste water. Data analysis showed
that arsenic entering the FGD system was mainly in the gaseous form, which was not consistent with the view of Córdoba et al [158]. A possible reason is that the arsenic content of the limestone feed was relatively high in the experiment of Córdoba et al., while arsenic content of the limestone was 1 mg/kg in the work of Álvarez-Ayuso et al. [224].

WFGD is considered to have high collection efficiency for gaseous arsenic. Córdoba et al. [158] considered that a large part of the arsenic (90%) was absorbed by the gypsum slurry, while the arsenic discharged from the WFGD system was in the form of PM (6.6%) and a small portion of arsenic-bearing species was emitted in gaseous form. Álvarez-Ayuso et al. [224] also concluded that WFGD systems had a high trapping ability for arsenic with 96% to 100% of the gaseous arsenic trapped by the WFGD system. Meij [120] found a trapping ability of 75%. Using on-site sampling data, Tang et al. [70] calculated a trapping ability of only 61% and suggested that there was no relationship between operating conditions and removal capacity of gaseous arsenic.

In FGD systems, trapped arsenic most likely combined to form calcium-arsenate. Tang et al. [70] further suggested the specific binding form was $\text{Ca}_3(\text{AsO}_4)_2$.

5.2 Total emission of arsenic in power plants

Based on arsenic content in feed coals, combustion products, and desulfurization products collected in field tests, researchers have predicted the overall arsenic emissions from power plants [70, 159]. Tang et al. [70] investigated the distribution of arsenic (including feed coal and its combustion products) in two 600-MW Chinese coal-fired power plants (the Luohe Power Plant and Pingwei Power Plant). Both were equipped with ESP and FGD systems and fed with pulverized bituminous coal from the Huainan coalfields. The bottom ash, fly ash, feed coal, limestone, FGD gypsum, and process water were collected simultaneously to calculate the total emission and stack emission proportion of arsenic. The results showed that the average removal efficiencies of
arsenic by the ESP and FGD units were 83% and 61%, respectively. The average stack emission ratio of arsenic was 6% and the total annual emissions of arsenic from the two plants were estimated at 0.46 t [70]. Quispe et al. [159] studied the changes in mobility of arsenic in coal during combustion at a power plant in Santa Catarina, Brazil. The power plant, equipped with ESP, generated 857 MW/h of electricity with a consumption of 200,000 tons of coal per month. Considering only the easily soluble fraction, they believed that coal ash could trap 1.7 t of arsenic annually. Furthermore, by taking the mobile metal fraction of the combustion ash into consideration, they estimated that the amount of arsenic which would affect the surrounding environment was 19 t per year [159].

The differing boiler capacity, feed coals, and pollution control devices among power stations could have led to large differences in the emission data of arsenic. An overall emission factor for arsenic into the atmosphere was proposed by Kang et al. [54], as shown in Table 7.

Table 7: The worldwide arsenic emission factor from coal-fired power plants in ten countries [54]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Emitted via fly ash</th>
<th>Emission factor for arsenic to the atmosphere</th>
<th>Nationwide emission</th>
<th>Reference</th>
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<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>Maximum 30%-40%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Vassilev and Vassileva [227]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>3.90%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Helble [169]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>1.20%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Otero-Rey et al. [127]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>2.16%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Guo et al. [155]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>0.56%</td>
<td>0.251 t</td>
<td>Ito et al. [228]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>51 mg/MWh</td>
<td></td>
<td>Kuprianov [229]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>0.85%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Goodarzi [50]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>1.60%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Reddy et al. [128]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ash disposal, like direct emissions of gaseous arsenic, can cause harm to the environment. When large amounts of fly ash were stored temporarily in stockpiles, or disposed of in ash landfills or lagoons [232], harmful elements in the fly ash migrated or leached into the surrounding soil and groundwater due to the effects of acid rain [233]. Bata et al. [234] reported that arsenic was more easily leachable than the other heavy metals in fly ash. However, Otero-Rey et al. [235] concluded that leachable arsenic was less than 20% of total arsenic in fly ash. Effective controls on toxic elements such as arsenic are therefore recommended before fly ash, gypsum, etc., are used as building materials.

5.2.1 Emission of arsenic in China

Tian et al.[236] studied the atmospheric emissions of arsenic in China from 2002 to 2010 by combining the detailed coal consumption data, element content in coal, and the specific emission factors which were classified by different boiler patterns and APCD configurations. The emission of arsenic from coal-fired power plants in China is shown in Figure 26.

![Figure 26: Emission of arsenic from coal-fired power plants in China, 2000-2010, data from [236]](image)

As seen in Figure 26, the atmospheric emissions of arsenic from coal combustion in China increased from
354.01 t in 2000 (based on 545.9 Mt coal used) to 615.70 t in 2006 (based on 1527 Mt coal used), and then decreased gradually to 335.45 t in 2010 (based on 1591.0 Mt coal use). This decline can be mainly attributed to the installation of APCD systems. With advanced high-efficiency-control-technology and specialized mercury-control technology, the total amount of arsenic emitted in China was expected to decline to 215.57 t in 2020 [236].

6 Arsenic removal technologies

Power plants face enormous challenges in respect of arsenic emission control [71]. The existing particulate control devices, such as ESP and fabric filters, are not very efficient in controlling emissions of arsenic attached to submicron PM, let alone the arsenic in the vapor phase. Several control options are discussed below.

6.1 Removal of arsenic by calcium-based sorbents

Because of their availability and low cost, calcium-based sorbents are widely used for SO$_2$ and CO$_2$ capture and many researchers have explored the adsorption properties of calcium-based sorbents, mainly CaO, Ca(OH)$_2$, 2CaO·SiO$_2$, and CaO·SiO$_2$ for gaseous arsenic retention [71, 80, 81, 237, 238]. Due to differences in the specific surface area of calcium-based materials, reported concentrations of gaseous arsenic and adsorption time vary considerably among different studies and specific values of adsorption experiments (adsorption efficiency, amount of arsenic captured, etc.) are difficult to compare. Therefore, only adsorption trends are considered here.

6.1.1 Effect of temperature

Temperature is an important parameter in evaluating arsenic adsorption properties of sorbents. Currently, the focus is on the medium- and high-temperature range (400-1000°C) under an oxidizing atmosphere. However, there is still no unanimous conclusion about the impact of temperature and the resulting adsorption product at
some researchers have suggested that for calcium-based adsorbents temperature has a positive effect on arsenic adsorption [69, 80, 237]. At 400-1000°C, Mahuli et al. [237] found that temperature could facilitate arsenic adsorption despite the surface sintering caused by the elevated temperature. Their research indicated that the adsorption efficiency of a low-surface-area sorbent in high temperatures could exceed that of a sorbent with high surface area functioning at relatively low temperatures. Researchers from Tsinghua University carried out experiments on arsenic adsorption over CaO at 400-1000°C [80]. Their conclusions were similar; however, the focus of their studies was on the initial reaction rate of CaO and As2O3. The experimental results of Sterling and Helbe [69] also indicated that increased temperature could promote arsenic adsorption over CaO. Chemical adsorption is believed to be the main process between gaseous arsenic and calcium-based adsorbent in the medium- to high-temperature interval. To verify the adsorption type, Mahuli et al. [237] placed the post-sorption samples under nitrogen atmosphere at 800°C and 1000°C for desorption. They found that arsenic content in the samples was almost the same before and after desorption. This effectively irreversible capture reaction indicated that chemical adsorption was dominant in the process. With respect to the adsorption product, the above researchers have suggested that the post-sorption sample of calcium-based adsorbent was Ca3(AsO4)2 (or Ca3As2O8).

Other researchers have suggested that increased temperature enhanced the arsenic adsorption ability of calcium-based adsorbent within a certain temperature range. However, adsorption capacity decreased if the temperature exceeded a certain critical value. Jadhav et al. [71] studied the adsorption properties of gaseous arsenic over CaO at 300-900°C. The results showed that as the temperature increased, the adsorption capacity increased between 300°C and 600°C and then decreased. Related research from Chen et al. [81] presented similar
results, and showed that temperature had positive effects on the arsenic adsorption capacity of CaO from 300-500°C, but negative effects from 500-1050°C. However, the findings of both groups present some problems in terms of distinguishing post-sorption samples. Jadhav et al.[71] have suggested that the reaction product of calcium oxide with arsenic was Ca$_3$As$_2$O$_8$ at 300-600°C and Ca$_2$As$_2$O$_7$ at 700-900°C. Ca$_2$As$_2$O$_7$ has thermal instability, which is the main reason that arsenic adsorption capacity decreased at higher temperatures. The reaction equations are as follows[71]:

Below 600°C:

\[
\text{As}_2\text{O}_3(s) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2} \text{As}_2\text{O}_6(g) \quad \text{(Eq.1)}
\]

\[
3\text{CaO}(s)+\frac{1}{2} \text{As}_2\text{O}_6(g)+\text{O}_2(g) \rightarrow \text{Ca}_3\text{As}_2\text{O}_8(s) \quad \text{(Eq.2)}
\]

Between 700°C and 900°C:

\[
\text{As}_2\text{O}_3(s) \leftrightarrow \frac{1}{2} \text{As}_2\text{O}_6(g) \quad \text{(Eq.3)}
\]

\[
2\text{CaO}(s)+\frac{1}{2} \text{As}_2\text{O}_6(g)+\text{O}_2(g) \rightarrow \text{Ca}_2\text{As}_2\text{O}_7(s) \quad \text{(Eq.4)}
\]

In the view of Chen et al. [81], the reaction product of CaO with arsenic was Ca$_3$(AsO$_4$)$_2$ at all temperatures and the main reason that the adsorption capacity of CaO on arsenic decreased from 500°C to 1050°C was because Ca$_3$(AsO$_4$)$_2$ generated under different temperatures had different crystal phases. Compared with the low-temperature range, the adsorption product Ca$_3$(AsO$_4$)$_2$ in the high-temperature range was less thermally stable, and the decomposition of Ca$_3$(AsO$_4$)$_2$ at 500-1050°C led to the reduced adsorption capacity of CaO. In the recent work of Zhang et al. [75], the conclusions of Chen et al. [81] were partially validated. Furthermore, through thermodynamic simulation, Zhang et al. [75] found that the adsorption process (described as Eq.2) was an exothermic reaction which could explain the temperature impact on arsenic.

The adsorption procedures for arsenic in a majority of these experiments were similar, where solid As$_2$O$_3$ was adopted as the arsenic source while the adsorption experiments were carried out in a secondary fixed bed
reactor. However, the experimental results were not identical. There are many reasons for this, the most important of which probably lies in the extremely low arsenic concentrations used in these experiments. In addition, online detection of gas-phase arsenic is not possible at present and experimental error easily occurs during off-line detection. What should be noted is that all researchers mentioned here believe chemical adsorption is the dominant process in the medium- to high-temperature interval in oxidizing condition, which is an important characteristic of arsenic adsorption over calcium-based sorbents.

6.1.2 Effect of SO₂

Some researchers have explored the effect of SO₂ on the arsenic adsorption process of calcium-based sorbents. However, there is no agreement on SO₂ impact to date. Li et al. [80] made an exhaustive study of simultaneous adsorption of SO₂ and As₂O₃ vapor and showed that SO₂ did not have a significant impact on arsenic adsorption. Two main factors could explain this. First, the reaction rate constant of CaO with gaseous arsenic is greater than that of the desulfurization reaction, which means SO₂ does not compete with As₂O₃ active sites on the surface of CaO at the initial stage of the reaction. Second, they demonstrated that calcium sulfate also has the ability to adsorb gaseous arsenic. Therefore, even if the CaO surface was completely sulfated, it would still show some gaseous arsenic adsorption capacity.

Chen et al. [81] recently investigated the effect of SO₂ on the arsenic adsorption process of calcium-based sorbent over a wide temperature range (300-1050°C). The results showed that SO₂ could partially inhibit the arsenic adsorption process at 300-800°C and at 800°C the adsorption suppression was the most pronounced. However, as temperature increased further, the inhibitory effect of SO₂ weakened. At 1050°C a promotional effect of SO₂ on arsenic adsorption was observed. They attributed that to SO₂ competing with gaseous As₂O₃ for adsorption sites and the sulfation product CaSO₄ occupying the active sites, weakening arsenic adsorption. The
sulfation product may be expected to further block surface pore structure of the sorbent resulting in surface area decrease, which would further restrict arsenic adsorption by CaO. As to the promotional effect of SO$_2$ in the high-temperature range, they agreed with Li et al. [80] that CaSO$_4$ also had arsenic adsorption capacity.

The common conclusion is that CaSO$_4$ arsenic adsorption capacity must be considered. However, there is no unified conclusion about the SO$_2$ impact and further studies are needed.

6.1.3 Kinetic studies

To better understand the arsenic adsorption process of calcium-based sorbents, researchers have carried out kinetic studies. In 1997, a kinetic equation describing the reaction between CaO and As$_2$O$_3$ was put forward by Mahuli et al. [237]. The reaction can be described as:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -k_x C_g^m A_{\text{CaO}}^n$$

(Eq.5)

where $x$ is the overall conversion ratio of CaO; $C_g$ is the concentration of the gaseous As$_2$O$_3$; $m$ is the reaction order with respect to the gaseous species; $n$ is the reaction order based on sorbent surface area; $A_{\text{CaO}}$ is the specific surface area of the sorbent; $k_x$ is the reaction rate constant; and $t$ is the reaction time. They assumed $n = 1$ and used the equation $A_{\text{CaO}} = S_0(1-x)$ to describe sorbent surface area. Thus, the above equation could be described as follows:

$$\ln \frac{1}{1-x} = k_x C_g^m S_0 t$$

(Eq.6)

By taking the natural logarithm of both sides of Eq.6 and obtaining the relationship between $\ln(-\ln(1-x))$ and $\ln C_g$, $m=1$ was calculated. In this case, the assumption of $n=1$ was verified. The apparent activation energy of the adsorption reaction was 43.9 kJ/mol. However, there were no specifics concerning frequency factor.

Other researchers have carried out kinetic studies of the reaction between CaO and As$_2$O$_3$ based on the research of Mahuli et al. [237] These results are summarized in Table 8.
Table 8: Comparison of specific rate constant for surface-reaction-controlled gas-solid reactions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gas-solid reaction</th>
<th>Frequency factor</th>
<th>Activation energy</th>
<th>Temperature</th>
<th>Over all reaction order</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CaO + As₂O₃</td>
<td></td>
<td>43.9 kJ/mol</td>
<td>600ºC</td>
<td>n=1</td>
<td>Mahuli et al. [237]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CaO + As₂O₃</td>
<td>1.4 mm/s</td>
<td>23 kJ/mol</td>
<td>600-1000ºC</td>
<td>n=1</td>
<td>Sterling and Helble [69]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2CaO·SiO₂ + As₂O₃</td>
<td>7.2 mm/s</td>
<td>28 kJ/mol</td>
<td>600-1000ºC</td>
<td>n=1</td>
<td>Li et al. [80]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CaO·SiO₂ + As₂O₃</td>
<td>5.5 mm/s</td>
<td>30 kJ/mol</td>
<td>600-1000ºC</td>
<td>n=1</td>
<td>Zhang et al. [75]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Jadhav et al. [71] proposed a novel shrinking core mechanism model to describe the reaction between CaO and As₂O₃. In this model, the specific surface area and pore size were 3.2 m²/g and near 0 cm³/g respectively, which were assumed to be low enough to ensure negligible mass transfer resistance. The conversion ratio of CaO can be expressed as follows,

\[
(3k C_g^n / \rho_m)(1/r_p)t = 1 - (1 - x)^{3/3}
\]  
(Eq.7)

where \(x\) is the overall conversion ratio of CaO; \(r_p\) is particle radius of CaO; \(\rho_m\) is the density of CaO; \(k\) is the reaction rate constant; \(C_g\) is the concentration of the gaseous arsenic; \(t\) is the reaction time; and \(n\) is the order of Eq.7. To eliminate the mass transfer resistance, a higher gas velocity (≈0.4 m/s) and smaller solid sorbent particles (<2 μm) were used in the adsorption experiments. Jadhav et al.[71] studied the effect of gaseous arsenic concentration as well as adsorption temperature on CaO conversion rates. By combining the Arrhenius equation with Eq.7, they obtained activation energy of 21.34 kJ/mol and the order of reaction with respect to arsenic concentration (\(n\)) was close to 1. They suggested that such low activation energy indicated the reaction had a slow temperature response. It is noteworthy that the reaction time was controlled in less than 10 min in these
experiments, which eliminated the effect of diffusion of ionic species (Ca\(^{2+}\) and O\(^{2-}\)) through the product layer. Thus, the activation energy they calculated was lower than that of Mahuli et al. [237].

Kinetic study of the adsorption reaction depends on experimental data and the kinetic model. Kinetic parameters could be significantly different because different kinetic equations were adopted and different experimental parameters were applied. However, the reaction order with respect to arsenic concentration is close to 1, which appears to be a common conclusion [69, 71, 75, 80, 237].

6.2 Removal of arsenic by metal oxide sorbents

In order to explore more efficient arsenic sorbents, Zhang et al. [75] studied gaseous arsenic adsorption on three metal oxides (Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\), CaO, and Al\(_2\)O\(_3\)). In Figure 27 experimental data at 600-900ºC show that Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\) had a greater adsorption capacity under the same experimental conditions.

![Figure 27: Amount of arsenic captured by various metal oxide adsorbents at different temperatures][75]

Adsorption capacity of sorbents increased in the following order: Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) < CaO < Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\) at 600-900ºC. Compared with CaO and Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\), Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) had a larger specific surface area. But adsorption capacity of Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) was the lowest. What is more, the thermal desorption experiment of post-sorption samples showed that little arsenic loss was observed in CaO and Fe\(_2\)O\(_3\). However, the arsenic content in the post-sorption sample of Al\(_2\)O\(_3\) was
only 2.21% of the original content. Zhang et al. [75] inferred from this that physical adsorption was the main process of arsenic adsorption on Al₂O₃. Their XRD results also confirmed this conclusion, showing As₂O₃ was detected on the Al₂O₃ surface. They calculated and compared kinetic parameters of CaO and Fe₂O₃ for arsenic adsorption, as shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Specific rate constant for surface reaction of sorbents CaO and Fe₂O₃ [69]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>reactant</th>
<th>reaction order</th>
<th>activation energy, kJ/mol</th>
<th>frequency factor, s⁻¹</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CaO</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>25.99</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe₂O₃</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>12.17</td>
<td>0.034</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly to the work of Jadhav et al. [71], Zhang et al. [75] suggested that the adsorption process was slow in response to temperature change by comparing the kinetic parameters of CaO and Fe₂O₃. They proposed that the frequency factor could describe active site quantities on the sorbent surface, in which adsorption would take place.

Subsequently, Zhang et al. [239] developed an iron-based sorbent Fe₂O₃/γ-Al₂O₃ for gas-phase arsenic capture, on the basis of their preliminary study. They identified the optimum operating temperature as being around 600°C, by carrying out adsorption experiments at 150-900°C. SO₂ was considered to have a promotional effect on arsenic adsorption, whereas, NO was believed to have little impact. They suggested that SO₂ would be oxidized by Fe³⁺ on the sorbent surface, generating SO₄²⁻ and HSO₄⁻, which could facilitate the oxidation of As³⁺ to As⁵⁺. And then, As⁵⁺ reacted with Fe₂O₃, which was the active ingredient of the sorbent, forming FeAsO₄.

The catalytic oxidation effect of iron-based sorbents may play a significant role in the adsorption process. However, an accurate description of the valence changes of the iron ions as well as the reaction mechanism for the lattice oxygen are lacking in the available literature.
In addition, Rupp et al.[240] proved that the Pd/γ-Al₂O₃ had the ability to remove AsH₃ from a simulated fuel gas under laboratory conditions. With a sorbent bed containing ten pounds of Pd/γ-Al₂O₃ held at 260°C, nearly 100% of selenium, arsenic and mercury within a dirty fuel gas slipstream were removed. The results indicated that arsine, phosphine and hydrogen selenide competed against each other for sorption sites. However, the performance of Pd/γ-Al₂O₃ on As₂O₃(g) removal is still unclear.

6.3 Removal of arsenic by fly ash sorbents

A significant proportion of the gaseous arsenic in flue gas migrates into fly ash due to a condensation or reaction process during coal combustion [241]. This means that fly ash could be used as sorbent material for trace element removal. To explore the adsorption capacity of fly ash on arsenic, López-Antón MA et al. [187] carried out a series of adsorption experiments in a fixed-bed reactor. Two fly ash samples were selected as sorbents. One sample was taken from a fluidized bed combustion plant burning a mixture of coal wastes and the other was taken from a pulverized coal power plant burning high-rank coals. Adsorption experiments at 120ºC showed that maximum retention capacity of fly ash for gaseous arsenic was 5.3 mg/g and the corresponding maximum adsorption efficiency was less than 20%. Díaz-Somoano et al. [73] estimated that calcium and iron in fly ash played a key role in arsenic adsorption by measuring the content of calcium, iron and arsenic.

Díaz-Somoano et al. [73] investigated gaseous arsenic adsorption by fly ash at 120ºC, a relatively low temperature. This was because high temperatures may cause re-carbonization of the unburned carbon in fly ash, resulting in changes to fly ash sorbents. In addition, while 120ºC was close to the temperature at the inlet of ESP, which was convenient for fly ash sorbent injection, gaseous arsenic was prone to condense on the tube wall at 120ºC, increasing the likelihood that such laboratory scale adsorption experiments would produce significant errors.
6.4 Removal of arsenic by carbon-based sorbents

As early as 1979, Wouterlood and Bowling [242] explored the possibility of using activated carbon in gaseous arsenic removal. They found that the selected activated carbons could adsorb 25% to 45% of arsenic at 200ºC when the concentration of arsenic was 14.64-20.24 mg/L. The breakthrough time was more than 10 h (10.75-17.5 h). Comparing the adsorption performance of four kinds of activated carbon, it was found that the adsorption of arsenic increased with the specific surface area of the sorbent, however not in a linear fashion. They also found that $\text{As}_2\text{O}_6$ could be efficiently desorbed by heating the adsorbent in a non-oxidizing gas. Even after many adsorption-desorption reaction cycles, the arsenic adsorption performance did not change appreciably (14 cycles).

Subsequently, López-Antón et al. [238] conducted arsenic adsorption experiments over activated carbon at 250ºC in an arsenic concentration of 0.4 μg/mL. They found the behavior of activated carbons in arsenic retention did not appear to be dependent on the porous texture of activated carbon, by comparing the adsorption performance of different pore structures of activated carbon. The metal elements in the activated carbon, such as calcium and iron, played a catalytic role in arsenic adsorption. Although sulfur in activated carbon will affect the adsorption of mercury, they suggested that the sulfur content in the activated carbon would not cause any impact on arsenic adsorption.

In summary, there are three main reasons for arsenic adsorption by activated carbon. First, the large specific surface area and abundant pore structure of activated carbon increases the possibility of physical adsorption of arsenic. Second, the metallic elements in activated carbon, such as calcium and iron, can play a catalytic role during arsenic adsorption. Third, modified commercial activated carbons may contain some haloid elements, which could facilitate arsenic adsorption. However, the raw materials and preparation processes for producing
activated carbon are vastly different, which often leads to different and even diametrically opposite conclusions [238, 242]. In general, the research on arsenic adsorption over activated carbon is still inconclusive.

6.5 Arsenic adsorption in oxy-fuel combustion flue gas

Due to the gas recirculation and the absence of nitrogen, the SO$_2$ concentration in the flue gas of oxy-fuel combustion is much higher than in air combustion. In addition, the H$_2$O vapor concentration in oxy combustion is particularly high. When the same kind of coal is burned, it is reported that the water vapor concentrations in air combustion and oxy-fuel combustion are 10% and 31%, respectively [243]. Wang et al. [244] explored the arsenic adsorption characteristic of iron-based sorbent in oxy-fuel combustion flue gas and proposed that the adsorption mechanism followed the Mars-Maessen mechanism[245]. In oxy-fuel combustion conditions, the high concentration of CO$_2$ had a significant adverse effect on arsenic adsorption. However, the presence of O$_2$ as well as H$_2$O(g) promoted arsenic removal in the CO$_2$-enriched atmosphere. The increased SO$_2$ concentration was proved to accelerate the adsorption process with generation of active species (HSO$_4^-$/SO$_4^{2-}$), while with the increase of SO$_2$ concentration in flue gas, the competition between SO$_2$ and arsenic on iron-based sorbents adsorption was strengthened.

7 Conclusions

Coal combustion is one of the main anthropogenic sources of arsenic pollution in the environment. Due to its high toxicity, volatility, and potentially carcinogenic properties this element is receiving increasing attention. This paper summarized the properties of arsenic in coal, the factors affecting arsenic volatilization during coal combustion, the transformation behavior, mechanism and model of arsenic in post-combustion processing, and the emission and removal technologies of arsenic in power plants.
Temperature has a positive effect on both the volatilization rate and the degree of volatilization, and temperature-staged volatilization characteristics of arsenic. Differences in the mode of occurrence of arsenic in coals could result in different volatilization proportions of arsenic even at the same temperature. It is generally accepted that exchangeable and organic-bound arsenic are easily vaporized at the devolatilization stage of coal, while arsenic bound to iron-manganese oxides and pyrite is unstable and tends to vaporize below 1000ºC. By contrast, arsenates are very stable and usually decompose at relatively high temperatures. This indicates that coals with a large proportion of unstable arsenic compounds will have a higher degree of volatilization. As far as coal rank is concerned, no obvious correlation between arsenic volatility and coal rank has been found. In addition, while they have rarely been reported, the effects of heating rate and particle size on arsenic volatilization should be taken into consideration. Calcium, iron, magnesium, sodium and potassium tend to react with arsenic to form stable arsenates, which inhibit the volatilization of arsenic, while aluminum and silicon may have a positive effect on the volatilization behavior of arsenic. However, the related reactions and substances were based on thermodynamic analysis without considering the chemical kinetics. Simultaneous release of sulfur and arsenic were found in isothermal coal combustion, demonstrating that arsenic was closely related to sulfur in coal. The role of chlorine was also examined. Simulation results show that higher chlorine content in coal may promote the generation of more volatile compounds like AsCl$_3$(g), which in turn increase the volatilization ratio of arsenic.

Oxy-fuel combustion is a promising and advanced technology for carbon capture. Few reports discussed the effect of CO$_2$ on arsenic volatilization during oxy-fuel combustion, and firm conclusions cannot be drawn. On one hand, higher CO$_2$ content helps to generate a reducing atmosphere in the char particle neighborhood, which could reduce arsenic oxides to more volatile sub-oxides and make the volatilization of arsenic easier. On the
other hand, higher CO₂ content inhibits mass and heat transfer, which may decrease the flame temperature and in turn have a negative effect on arsenic volatility. To date very few experiments have been carried out on the effect of SO₂ and H₂O(g) on arsenic volatility under oxy-fuel conditions.

When flue gas cools in the post combustion process, vaporized arsenic species gradually transform to solid-phase and redistribute in bottom ash, fly ash and flue gas. The mass balance of arsenic from most studies is less than 100%, mainly due to the condensation or absorption of arsenic on the interior surfaces of equipment in power plants. With the application of XANES and EXAFS spectroscopy, the speciation of arsenic in feed coal and combustion products was studied. The general view is that arsenic in fly ash is mainly present in the less toxic As⁵⁺ form, while the speciation of arsenic in flue gas needs to be further examined. In addition, it is widely reported that most arsenic is captured by fly ash, especially ultrafine ash particles. With higher rates of char fragmentation, longer residence times and higher flame temperatures, more fine particles are expected to be generated, which in turn may enhance the enrichment of arsenic in fly ash. The enrichment of arsenic on fine particles is also affected by the sulfur content and mineral composition in the coal, and the way the combustion system is operated. Based on the close relationship between arsenic and ash particle formation, several arsenic partitioning models considering the particle size distribution of fly ash have been developed.

The application of APCDs can significantly affect the redistribution of arsenic in combustion by-products and alter the route by which the elements reach the environment. ESPs remove trace elements present in the form of PM, but not gaseous trace elements. FGD is believed to have high collection efficiency for gaseous arsenic. However, the arsenic discharged from WFGD systems is mostly in the form of PM and a small portion of arsenic-bearing species is emitted in the gaseous form.

Researchers have explored the adsorption properties of calcium-based adsorbent, metal oxides, activated
carbon and fly ash for gaseous arsenic. Calcium-based sorbents have been widely investigated due to their low cost and ready availability. The adsorption processes of these sorbents are believed to be a combination of chemical and physical adsorption. The temperature effect on arsenic removal is complicated and there is no generally supported conclusion. Research suggests that CaSO$_4$ has significant arsenic adsorption capacity and kinetic studies show that the activation energy of the reaction between CaO and As$_2$O$_3$ lies between 20-30 kJ/mol. Most researchers have suggested that the overall reaction order is 1, while values of 0.86 and 1.1 were found in two studies.

8 Acknowledgements

This work has been financed by National Key R&D Program of China (2016YFB0600701). Special thanks also go to David Granatstein for numerous editorial and technical suggestions on the manuscript.

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