

Investigation on Degradation Path of SF₆ in Packed-bed Plasma: Effect of Plasma-generated Radicals

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Abstract—SF₆ degradation mechanism in non-thermal plasma (NTP) systems is not fully understood due to the formation of a complex physico-chemical reaction network, especially when reactive gases and packing materials are involved. In this work, we conduct a combined experimental and theoretical study to unravel the SF₆ degradation path in a γ -Al₂O₃ packed plasma in the presence of H₂O or O₂. Our experimental results show that both H₂O and O₂ have a synergetic effect with γ -Al₂O₃ packing on promoting SF₆ degradation, leading to higher stable gas yields than typical spark or corona discharges. H₂O or O₂ addition promotes SO₂ or SO₂F₂ selectivity, respectively. Density functional theory (DFT) calculations reveal that SO₂ generation corresponding with the highest activation barrier is the most critical step toward SF₆ degradation. Radicals like H and O generated from H₂O or O₂ discharge can significantly promote the degradation process via Eley-Rideal mechanism, affecting key reactions of stable product generation, advancing degradation efficiency. The results of this work could provide insights on further understanding SF₆ degradation mechanism especially in packed-bed plasma systems.

Index Terms—Degradation mechanism, packed-bed plasma, radicals, SF₆.

I. INTRODUCTION

SULFUR hexafluoride (SF₆) is widely used as an insulation gas in power industry. However, SF₆ is a greenhouse gas with a global warming potential of 23,500 times that of CO₂ [1]. Meanwhile, SF₆ has a long lifetime of 3200 years in the atmosphere [2]. Emission of SF₆ caused by faults and retirements of gas-insulation equipment accounts for more than 80% of total emissions, accompanied by an annual growth of 20% [3], [4]. Usage and emission of SF₆ in power industry pose increasing threats to the environment.

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In recent decades, various methods have been applied to treat SF₆ waste, such as thermal degradation, photocatalytic degradation, non-thermal plasma (NTP) treatment, and electrochemical degradation [5]. Among them, thermal degradation and NTP methods realized industrial applications. Thermal methods with 1100°C high-temperature conditions hold promise for large-scale degradation in power industry, but it suffers from low energy efficiency [6]. Since the early 20th century, NTP method has been applied to treat SF₆ waste at low concentrations (usually < 1%) and small volumes in semiconductor industry [7]. However, due to the significant difference in SF₆ waste between power industry and semiconductor industry in terms of concentrations, impurity composition, content, and scale, to date, no commercial applications of NTP degradation in power industry have been reported.

One of the main issues that hinder NTP treatment of high-concentration SF₆ waste in power industry is the regulation of SF₆ decomposition path and its product selectivity [8]. Due to complexity of discharge and reactions, degradation path of SF₆ is difficult to be controlled, leading to an inevitable formation of toxic and corrosive gaseous products such as SO₂F₂, SOF₂, SOF₄, SO₂, S₂F₁₀, SF₄, and HF. Most acidic gases can be adsorbed by alkaline powers or their solutions, while SO₂F₂ and SOF₄ are insoluble in water and react slowly with alkaline materials, which significantly hinder the recovery of tail gases [9]. In this regard, researchers found addition of reactive gases such as H₂, H₂O, NH₃ can react with SF₆, as well as its primary decompositions, thus regulating SF₆ degradation path and reducing yield of oxyfluoride (S-O-F) products [10], [11]. Similarly, packing solid materials like γ -Al₂O₃ can affect reactions and product properties by changing discharge parameters and providing gas-solid interface reactions [12]. However, the above studies focused mainly on the experimental level, and the detailed reaction mechanism of SF₆ degradation in plasma region is still unknown, especially for packed bed plasma systems.

So far, reaction analysis of SF₆ plasma degradation is usually referred to as the SF₆ decomposition mechanism in electrical equipment [13]. In gas-insulated equipment like gas-insulated switchgear (GIS) and gas-insulated line (GIL), insulation faults such as partial discharges, partial over-thermal fault, and electrodes breakdown cause decomposition of SF₆ to SF_x ($x < 6$) and F. Then SF₆ and SF_x can react with trace

amounts of O_2 and H_2O to generate products like SO_2F_2 , SOF_2 , SOF_4 , SO_2 , H_2S [14], [15]. Although decomposition reactions and products of SF_6 in power equipment is quite similar to SF_6 degradation in NTP treatment, there are still some clear differences. First, SF_6 decomposition reactions in power equipment mostly happen in gas phase, and the amount of SF_6 decomposition is very limited (much less than 1%). But in a NTP treatment, especially in a packed-bed plasma, gas-solid interface could be the most important reaction area which differs significantly from gas phase. Besides, effects of radicals are usually not considered in SF_6 decomposition studies, but are very important in plasma-induced reactions [16]. In a word, directly applying the SF_6 decomposition mechanism to NTP degradation is arbitrary, especially when reactive gases and packing materials are considered. The unknown degradation mechanism of SF_6 in the NTP treatment hinders the determination of degradation conditions to achieve high energy efficiency and desirable products, which needs comprehensive investigation.

To unravel the degradation mechanism of SF_6 to stable products in the NTP system, we take $\gamma-Al_2O_3$ packed-bed dielectric barrier discharge (PB-DBD) as a typical NTP approach with H_2O or O_2 additions. Our previous study has proved $\gamma-Al_2O_3$ packing in DBD plasma can promote degradation efficiency and regulate product selectivity [12]. In this work, combined effects of $\gamma-Al_2O_3$ packing and reactive gas addition (H_2O , O_2) on SF_6 degradation efficiency and product selectivity are experimentally investigated. Adsorption properties of main SF_6 decompositions, possible degradation paths, and the effect of plasma-generated radicals are studied via density functional theory (DFT). This study proves plasma radicals significantly improve surface reactions, and a detailed description on SF_6 degradation process is given for a better understanding of the decomposition mechanism in a PB-DBD system.

II. METHOD

A. Experimental Set-up

Details of the experimental setup can be referred to in our previous study [17], and the schematic diagram is shown in Fig. 1. $\gamma-Al_2O_3$ pellet with a 4 mm diameter is chosen as packing material in the DBD reactor. It's kept dry before packing and it undergoes a pre-discharge in Ar atmosphere before SF_6 degradation treatment. Since the high concentration of SF_6 significantly reduces discharge, the initial concentration of SF_6 is kept at 3% with 97% Ar as background gas. Flowrate is controlled at 150 mL/min. H_2O and O_2 are considered as reactive gases with concentration ranges of 0.25%–2.5% and 0.05%–4%, respectively. After degradation, three main stable products, i.e., SOF_2 , SO_2F_2 , and SO_2 are detected by a gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GCMS, Shimadzu QP2020-NX), which has a detection limit to be 1 ppm (part per million, volume fraction) level.

The degradation removal efficiency E_{DRE} is calculated by:

$$E_{DRE} = \frac{C_i - C_f}{C_i} \times 100\% \quad (1)$$

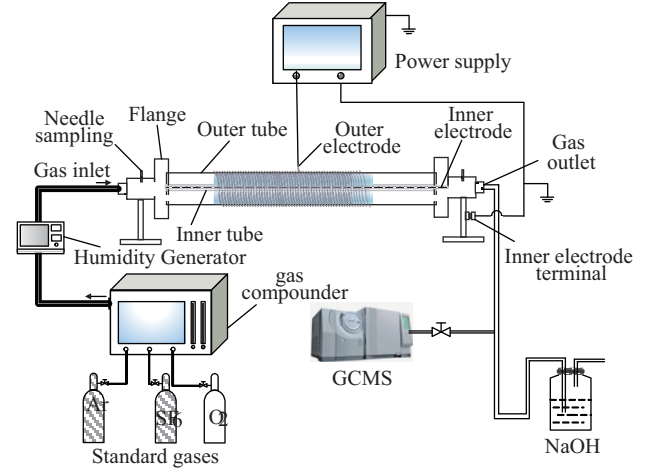


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of the experiment set-up.

where C_i and C_f mean initial and final concentrations of SF_6 , respectively.

In tail gas, SOF_2 , SO_2F_2 , and SO_2 are detected, and their selectivity S_x are calculated by:

$$S_x = \frac{C_x}{C_{sum}} \times 100\% \quad (2)$$

where C_x and C_{sum} are concentrations of product x and initial concentration of SF_6 (3%).

Formation rate F_x of three products in this paper are calculated by:

$$F_x = \frac{Y_x}{P_i} \quad (3)$$

where Y_x is yield coefficient of product x , with a unit of nmol/s; P_i is input power, with a unit of J/s; Unit of F_x is nmol/J.

B. Computational Details

Computational work is carried out in CP2K 7.0 package by the Quickstep module [18]. Gaussian and plane wave method (GWP) is applied with double- ζ valence plus polarization (m-DZVP) basis set [19]. The cutoff set for plane wave calculation is 600 Ry. Electron exchange and correlation terms in the Kohn-Sham equation are described by the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerhof functional [20]. Grimme's D3 method is used to treat dispersion correction [21]. We consider 6, 7, 3, 6, and 1 valence electrons for S, F, Al, O, and H elements as their upper shell electrons, respectively. Inner shell electrons are approximately treated by the Goedecker-Teter-Hutter pseudopotentials [22]. Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno scheme is used for geometry optimization [23]. Climbing-image nudged elastic band (CI-NEB) method is applied for transition state calculations [24]. k-point sampling is kept to Γ -point only.

A four-layer $\gamma-Al_2O_3$ (110) slab is built to represent $\gamma-Al_2O_3$ active surface [25], with an XYZ size of $16.1439 \times 16.7874 \times 40.0000 \text{ \AA}^3$, as shown in Fig. 2. More details about the slab modeling have been introduced in our previous study [17]. Al_{III} site over $\gamma-Al_2O_3$ (110) surface is selected as the active site for adsorption and reaction [26], as labelled in Fig. 2. During calculation, the bottom two layers of the

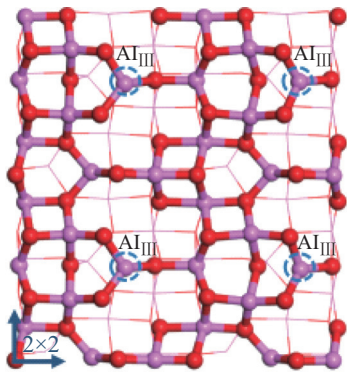


Fig. 2. Perfect 2×2 γ -Al₂O₃ (110) slab model and Al_{III} surface site. Red and pink balls are O and Al atoms, respectively.

γ -Al₂O₃ (110) slab are fixed. After geometry optimization, adsorption energy E_{ad} can be calculated by:

$$E_{ad} = E_{gas+slab} - E_{gas} - E_{slab} \quad (4)$$

where E_{gas} , E_{slab} and $E_{gas+slab}$ are energies of gas molecules, slab, and gas-adsorbed system, respectively.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Degradation Product Distributions in The γ -Al₂O₃ Packed DBD with H₂O or O₂ Additions

Distributions of degradation removal efficiency (E_{DRE}) and selectivity of three main products as a function of H₂O or O₂ concentrations are shown in Fig. 3. The upper and lower figures are the top views and the side views. Red, pink, yellow, cyan and white are O, Al, S, F and H atoms, respectively. Optimal concentrations of H₂O and O₂ for SF₆ degradation are found to be 0.5% and 0.1%, respectively. In Fig. 3(a), the highest yields of SO₂F₂, SOF₂, and SO₂ are 11636 ppm (0.25% H₂O), 1009 ppm (0.5% H₂O), and 7958 ppm (2.5% H₂O), respectively. Selectivity of SO₂F₂ decreases with H₂O concentration increasing, from 49.78% at 0.25% H₂O to 26.76% at 2.5% H₂O. On the contrary, SO₂ selectivity increases from 14.50% to 42.97%. SOF₂ selectivity increases from 1.81% at 0.25% H₂O to 4.06% at 0.5% H₂O, and then remains stable at around 4% with H₂O concentration increasing. In Fig. 3(b), the highest yields of SO₂F₂, SOF₂, and SO₂ are 9326 ppm (1% O₂), 176 ppm (1% O₂), and 6809 ppm (0.05% O₂), respectively. Increasing O₂ promotes SO₂F₂ selectivity from 31.23% at 0.05% O₂ to 53.08% at 4% O₂, while SO₂ selectivity is reduced from 33.27% to 10.95%. In the meantime, SOF₂ selectivity is kept below 1% at all O₂ concentrations. In general, the addition of H₂O significantly improves the generation of SO₂ and suppresses SO₂F₂, while O₂ addition leads to higher SO₂F₂ yields. These phenomena also show up in non-packed NTP systems and other packed-bed DBD systems [10], [27]–[29], which proves a regulation property of reactive gases on SF₆ degradation products. In this system, the sum of three stable products (SO₂F₂, SOF₂, and SO₂) accounts for 60%–75% of the total degradation of S products. The other products could be some primitive decompositions or relatively unstable products like SF₄, S₂F₁₀, SOF₄ and SO₂F, which has been investigated by the Fourier

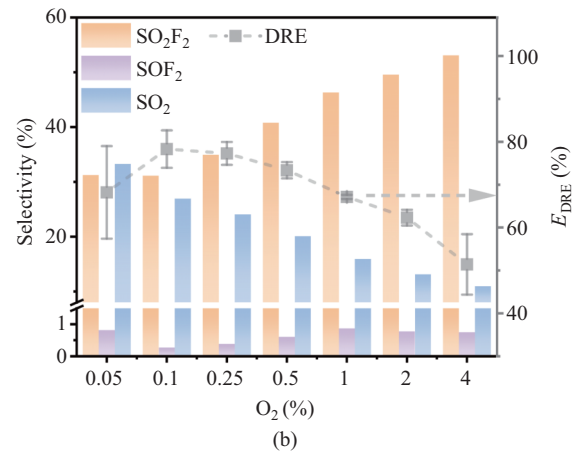
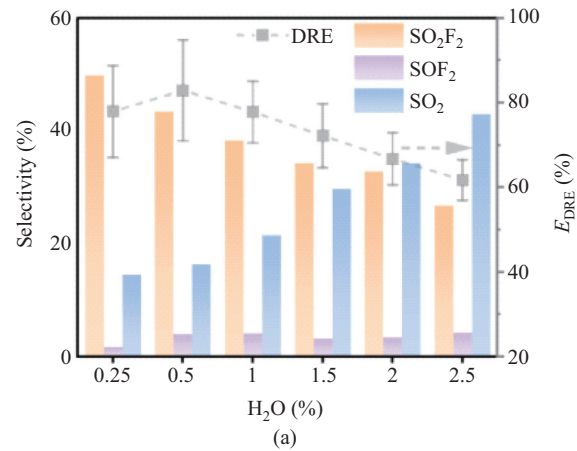


Fig. 3. The degradation removal efficiency E_{DRE} and the product selectivity upon H₂O or O₂ addition (3%SF₆-97%Ar, 80 W, 150 mL/min, 4 mm γ -Al₂O₃ packing). (a) H₂O (%). (b) O₂ (%).

transform infrared spectroscopy in previous studies [5], [11], [26].

Compared to SF₆/Ar degradation in γ -Al₂O₃ packed DBD [12], the total amount of three stable products (SO₂F₂, SOF₂, and SO₂) account for only about 40% in the SF₆/Ar system at 80 W, but increases to about 70% when proper concentrations of H₂O or O₂ are added (this study). This indicates that the addition of reactive gases has a synergetic effect on the packing material (γ -Al₂O₃), which jointly improves the sufficiency of SF₆ degradation. Besides, in a non-packed system with relatively sufficient degradation of SF₆, SOF₄ yields the highest tail gas, no matter H₂O or O₂ additions [30]. However, in the packing system, SO₂ and SO₂F₂ gradually show the highest selectivity in H₂O or O₂-rich systems, respectively (Fig. 3). This indicates SOF₄ is relatively unstable in the packing system and can undergo further decomposition to generate both SOF₂ and SO₂, affected by additions of different reactive gases. The underlying reactions are discussed in detail in Sections III-C and III-D.

To further evaluate the generation properties of three gas products in PB-DBD, we made a comparison of product yields in this work and in three typical gas-insulation faults, as shown in Table I [31]. In arc fault, SF₆ decomposes rapidly, and SOF₂ is the only stable product which shows a formation rate of 600 nmol/J in the Al electrode system and 50–150

TABLE I
YIELDS OF SF₆ BY-PRODUCTS FORMATION AT THREE TYPICAL GAS-INSULATION FAULTS AND IN THE PB-DBD SYSTEM

| Discharge type | Work condition | Discharge characters | Formation rate (nmol/J) |
|----------------------------|---|--|--|
| Arc | | 3–100 kA, 50–150 ms, 10 ⁵ –10 ⁷ J | SOF ₂ : 600 (Al electrode) 50–150 (Cu electrode) |
| Spark | Up to 99.9% SF ₆ 0.1%–1% Air 100–500 ppm H ₂ O 100–500 ppm CF ₄ | μs duration, 10 ⁻¹ –10 ² J/spark | SOF ₂ : 0.9–2.7 SOF ₄ : 0.13–0.31 SO ₂ F ₂ : 0.006–0.026 SO ₂ : 0.005 |
| Corona & partial discharge | 0.2–0.6 Mpa | 10–10 ⁵ pC 10 ⁻³ –10 ⁻² J/pulse 10 ² –10 ⁴ Hz | SOF ₂ : 1.3–5.2 SO ₂ F ₂ : 1.3–4.5 SOF ₄ : 5.8–8.6 |
| PB-DBD (This work) | 0.5% H ₂ O 0.25% O ₂ | 10 kHz, 20–50 mA, 40–60 W | SO ₂ F ₂ : 16.0–26.7 SOF ₂ : 1.1–2.5 SO ₂ : 8.7–25.6 SO ₂ F ₂ : 19.5–33.3 SOF ₂ : 0.17–0.55 SO ₂ : 6.9–20.9 |

nmol/J in the Cu electrode system [32], [33]. Intense discharge accompanied by high-temperature generation (up to 3000–12000°C) in the arc region accounts for SF₆ decomposition, and SOF₂ is generated from further reactions via SF₄ and SF₂ [31], [34]. By contrast, distributions of products are scattered, and yields are significantly lower in either spark fault or corona (partial discharge) fault, which is mainly attributed to their low energy density. Besides, even though the gas temperature in the spark (500–6000°C) is much higher than in the corona (200–1000°C) [35], the formation rate in the spark is much lower. It may be caused by high instantaneous current and short duration of spark. Thus, recombination of SF₆ happens immediately after discharge, and deep decomposition is reduced. In PB-DBD treatment of this work, formation rates of SO₂F₂ and SO₂ are larger in order of magnitude than in the corona fault. Electric field enhancement by packing materials and plasma-catalysis effects account for better performance in PB-DBD systems [36]. However, the formation rate in PB-DBD is still lower than in arc fault, especially for Al electrode system. There could be two main reasons. The first one is significantly lower energy density of PB-DBD system. The other is high temperature of arc system, which promotes rapid thermal-decomposition of SF₆ and increases rate of key reactions [37]. In general, we can achieve a relatively high yield of stable products via PB-DBD treatment at relatively energy-saving conditions, which shows a potential for portable or integrated industrial applications.

B. Adsorption Properties of SF₆ Decompositions Over The γ -Al₂O₃ (110) Surface

To determine possible elementary reactions of SF₆ degradation over gas-solid interface, we first calculated adsorption properties of SF₆ 16 main decompositions over γ -Al₂O₃ (110) surface. Adsorption configurations are shown in Fig. 4, adsorption energy E_{ad} and bonding properties are summarized in Table II. Before adsorption, each gas molecule has been optimized in gas phase and then is placed at Al_{III} site as initial configuration.

As shown in Table II, adsorption results for these decomposition products vary greatly, with some being stable and bonded at the active site, some undergoing only physical adsorption, and some being unstable and undergoing further

TABLE II
ADSORPTION RESULTS FOR MAIN DECOMPOSITION PRODUCTS

| Species | E_{ad} (eV) | Status |
|--------------------------------|---------------|--|
| SF ₅ | -2.15 | Bonded with the Al _{III} atom |
| S ₂ F ₁₀ | -0.71 | Decomposed to SF ₄ , SF ₅ and F* |
| SF ₅ OH | -0.98 | Bonded with the Al _{III} atom |
| SOF ₅ | -2.35 | Bonded with the Al _{III} atom |
| SOF ₄ | -0.74 | Bonded with the Al _{III} atom |
| SF ₄ | -0.31 | Physical adsorption |
| SF ₄ OH | -0.67 | Bonded with the Al _{III} atom |
| SF ₃ OH | -2.17 | Decomposed to SOF ₂ * and HF* |
| SO ₂ F ₂ | -0.74 | Bonded with two surface Al atoms |
| SOF ₃ | -2.90 | Decomposed to SOF ₂ * and F* |
| SOF ₂ | -0.93 | Bonded with the Al _{III} atom |
| SO ₂ F | -2.00 | Bonded with two surface Al atoms |
| SO ₂ | -1.50 | Bonded with surface Al and O atoms |
| SOF | -1.21 | Decomposed to SO* and F* |
| SO | -2.40 | Bonded with surface Al and O atoms |
| HF | -2.54 | Decomposed to H* and F* |

*means the molecule is in adsorption state and bonded with γ -Al₂O₃ surface atoms

decomposition. First, SF₅, SF₅OH, SOF₅, SOF₄, SF₄OH, and SOF₂ can bond with atom Al_{III}, with E_{ad} of -2.15 eV, -0.98 eV, -2.35 eV, -0.74 eV, -0.67 eV, and -0.93 eV, respectively, indicating these six molecules are relatively stable and undergo chemisorption processes at the active site. Second, SO₂F₂, SO₂F, SO₂ and SO can bond to surface O or other surface Al in addition to Al_{III} atoms with E_{ad} of -0.74 eV, -2.00 eV, -1.50 eV, and -2.40 eV, respectively, which also shows strong stability. Third, SF₄ molecules show physical adsorption above Al_{III} site without bonding and have an E_{ad} of -0.31 eV. Finally, the remaining molecules are unstable. After geometry optimization, S₂F₁₀ decomposes to SF₄, SF₅, and F* (* indicates particles are in the adsorbed state). SF₃OH decomposes into SOF₂* and HF*. SOF₃ decomposes into SOF₂* and F* atoms. SOF decomposes into SO* and F*. HF decomposes into H* and F*. The above results indicate the five molecules are likely to further decompose, forming new decomposition products on γ -Al₂O₃ surface.

C. Degradation Reactions of SF₆ Over The γ -Al₂O₃ (110) Surface

Referring to relevant study of SF₆ decomposition paths [13]–[15], [38], as well as experimental results in this work,

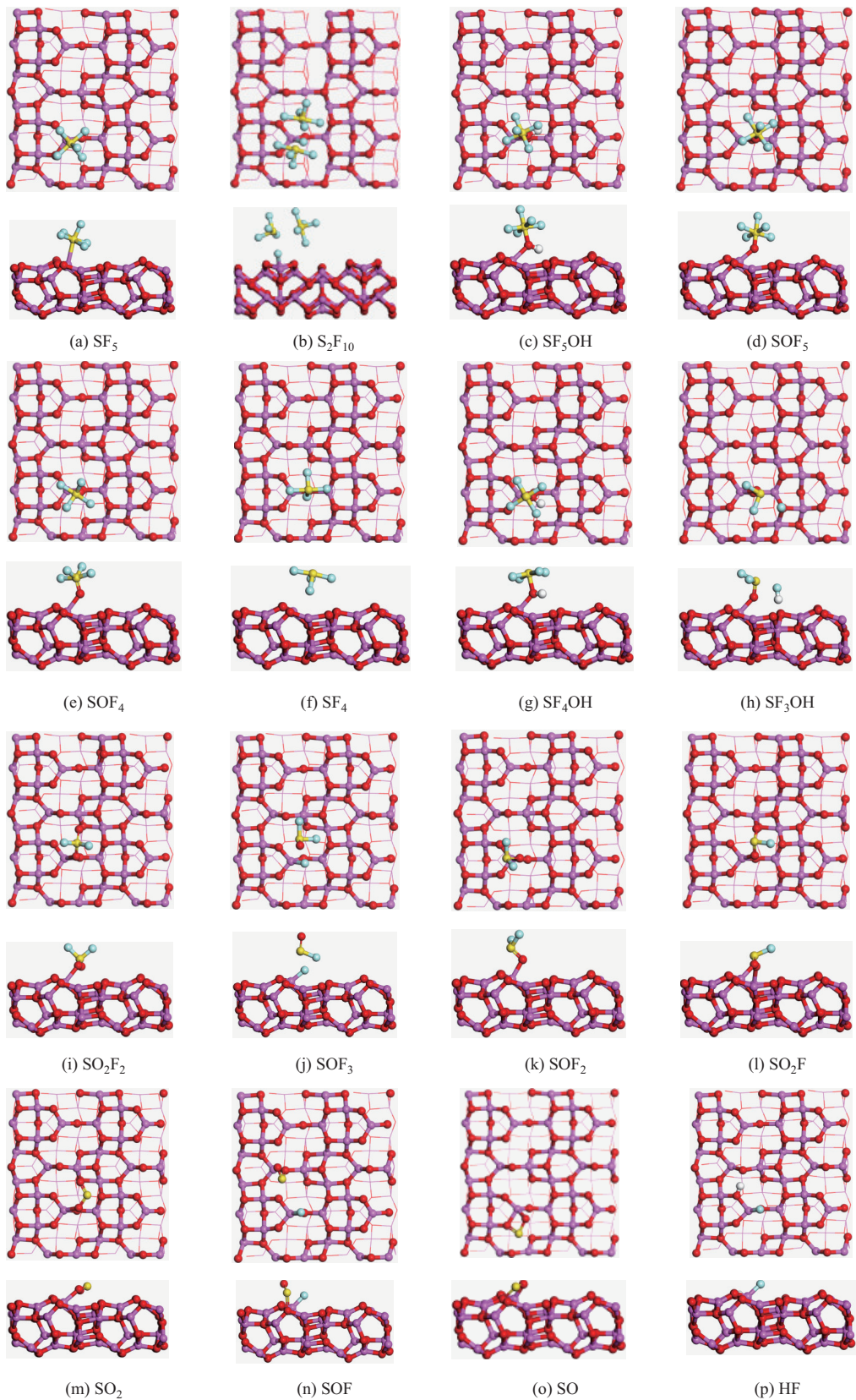


Fig. 4. Adsorption configurations of SF₆ decompositions at the Al_{III} site over the γ -Al₂O₃ (110) surface. The upper and lower figures are the top views and the side views. Red, pink, yellow, cyan and white are O, Al, S, F and H atoms, respectively.

potential decomposition path of SF₆ over γ -Al₂O₃ (110) surface is speculated and elementary reactions are calculated, as shown in Fig. 5. The number of equations and their corresponding activation barrier are labelled near the arrows. The ΔE mentioned in gas phase reaction (4) means the reaction heat. The '(g)' and the '*' after the molecular formula mean the gas state and the adsorption state, respectively. Yellow labelled are unstable products or intermediates, which themselves easily decompose over γ -Al₂O₃ surface. SO₂ is labelled as a desired product in green as it is a main product and can be easily handled by an alkaline solution. Activation barrier and reaction heat for elementary reactions are summarized in Table III. Yellow intermediates could also be predecessors of some key decomposition products. Therefore, in calculation of elementary reactions, we only calculated reactions of these unstable molecules as reactants, while their formation reactions are difficult to be calculated by NEB

methods.

As shown in Fig. 5, adsorbed SF₆* first decomposes to SF₅* and F* on γ -Al₂O₃ surface by initial bond breaking, with an energy barrier of 1.80 eV [17]. Then SF₅* can further break the S-F bond to form SF₄* and F* by reaction (7) with a reaction energy barrier of 0.01 eV and reaction heat of -1.98 eV. Besides, SF₅* can react with OH* to form SF₅OH* by reaction (8), which is an exothermic reaction with reaction heat of -1.61 eV and has no obvious barrier. In other words, although SF₅* can be adsorbed at active site, but the structure is not stable, and it can easily react with other species or decompose to form more stable products.

Then SF₅OH* can gradually leave H and F atoms to produce stable product SOF₄* by reaction (9) and (10). The reaction (9) has no obvious energy barrier and is exothermic. In reaction (10), F atoms in the SOF₅ molecule combine with adsorbed H* atoms on the surface and detach from SOF₅* with an energy barrier of 0.77 eV. Alternatively, SOF₄* can also be produced by reaction (11) where SF₄* combines with O* atoms, having a reaction energy barrier of 0.50 eV. Moreover, SF₄* can bond with OH* to produce SF₄OH* via reaction (12), which has an energy barrier of 1.12 eV. Afterwards, SOF₄* and SF₄OH* could decompose to produce unstable intermediates like SOF₃* and SF₃OH*, and then these two unstable species undergo further decompositions to generate SOF₂* via reactions (13) and (14) without any activation barrier.

Next, SOF₂* can be bonded to O* to produce SO₂F₂* via reaction (15), or alternatively loses one F atom to produce SOF* molecules. Due to instability of SOF*, it may decompose to SO* and F* atoms via reaction (16), while SO* can react with adsorbed O* atoms to produce SO₂* by reaction (17). Our results and related studies suggest SO₂F may be an important intermediate [15], [40]. It can be generated from SO₂F₂ decomposition via reaction (18), with a high energy barrier of 2.57 eV. Then SO₂F* can undergo further decomposition to generate SO₂* and F* via reaction (19) ($E_a = 2.63$ eV). These two reactions are rate-limiting steps of SF₆ degradation via LH mechanism in the already calculated path, and they are difficult to occur at room temperature without NTP.

In summary, reactions for the generation of main products in the experiment (SOF₂, SO₂F₂, SO₂) have different energy barriers. SOF₄ is generated relatively early, and it also acts as an intermediate to generate other products. The generation of SO₂ is more difficult than SO₂F₂ from the perspective of SO₂F, as it has the highest energy barrier in this degradation path. In addition, the generation of SO₂ requires SF₆ to leave six F atoms and combine with two O atoms, so its generation process is more complex than that of S-O-F gases. For SOF₂ and SO₂F₂, their generation processes undergo the decomposition of unstable intermediates with no obvious energy barriers.

From the point of view of surface reactions, γ -Al₂O₃ packing changes SF₆ decomposition in two main ways. First, γ -Al₂O₃ promotes the initial bond-breaking of SF₆. The activation barrier of SF₆* to SF₅* and F* over the surface is 1.80 eV, which is much lower than the reaction heat in gas

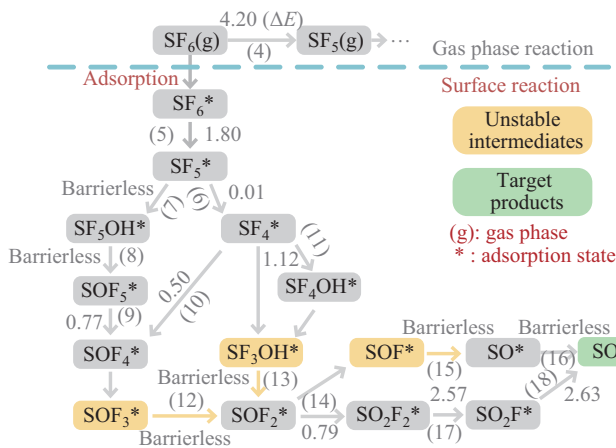


Fig. 5. The possible decomposition pathway of SF₆ via LH mechanism in the γ -Al₂O₃ packed system.

TABLE III

ACTIVATION BARRIER E_a AND REACTION HEAT ΔE FOR ELEMENTARY REACTIONS OF SF₆ DEGRADATION OVER THE γ -AL₂O₃ (110) SURFACE

| No. | Reaction | E_a (eV) | ΔE (eV) |
|------|--|------------|-----------------|
| (5) | SF ₆ (g) → SF ₅ (g) + F(g) | - | 4.20 [39] |
| (6) | SF ₆ * → SF ₅ * + F* | 1.80 [14] | -1.29 [14] |
| (7) | SF ₅ * → SF ₄ * + F* | 0.01 | -1.98 |
| (8) | SF ₅ * + OH* → SF ₅ OH* | 0.00 | -1.61 |
| (9) | SF ₅ OH* → SOF ₅ * + H* | 0.00 | -0.64 |
| (10) | SOF ₅ * + H* → SOF ₄ * + HF* | 0.77 | 0.39 |
| (11) | SF ₄ * + O* → SOF ₄ * | 0.50 | -1.27 |
| (12) | SF ₄ * + OH* → SF ₄ OH* | 1.12 | 0.70 |
| (13) | SOF ₃ * → SOF ₂ * + F* | 0.00 | -1.22 |
| (14) | SF ₃ OH* → SOF ₂ * + HF* | 0.00 | -1.62 |
| (15) | SOF ₂ * + O* → SO ₂ F ₂ * | 0.79 | -1.97 |
| (16) | SOF* → SO* + F* | 0.00 | -0.62 |
| (17) | SO* + O* → SO ₂ * | 0.00 | -4.28 |
| (18) | SO ₂ F ₂ * → SO ₂ F* + F* | 2.57 | 0.78 |
| (19) | SO ₂ F* → SO ₂ * + F* | 2.63 | -0.68 |
| (20) | H* + F* → HF(g) | 1.17 | 1.11 |
| (21) | SF ₄ * + O(g) → SOF ₄ * | 0.00 | - |
| (22) | SOF ₂ * + O(g) → SO ₂ F ₂ * | 0.00 | - |
| (23) | H(g) + SO ₂ F → SO ₂ * + H* + F* | 0.00 | - |
| (24) | H(g) + SOF ₄ * → SOF ₃ * + HF(g) | 0.00 | - |
| (25) | H(g) + F* → HF(g) | 0.00 | - |
| (26) | H* + F(g) → HF(g) | 0.00 | - |

(g) means the molecule is initiated in the gas phase. * means the adsorption state.

phase (4.20 eV). In this regard, SF₆ is much easier to undergo a stepwise decomposition over the packing surface. Second, active sites provided by packing material hold promise for adsorption and activation of SF₆ primary decompositions and intermediates by chemisorption, thus initiating and facilitating surface reactions with necessary adsorbates.

However, it should be noted generation reactions of these unstable intermediates are difficult to determine by NEB methods, which may have high energy barriers also. Therefore, actual barriers for generating SOF₂ and SO₂F₂ may also be high, and such investigations require more in-situ experimental details and more advanced calculation methods, which is beyond the scope of this paper.

In this part, we mainly focus on the generation of key products like S-O-F gases and SO₂, because they are the main stable products in NTP treatment, and S-O-F gases are target products to be reduced. Detached F from SF₆ could easily bond with H or O atoms to form HF and OF₂ or undergo self-bonding to form F₂ [10]. These fluorine gases are reactive and can be easily handled by the alkaline solution, which is not discussed in detail in this paper. It should be noted the whole degradation path of SF₆ should contain more intermediates and branches, while some of them may even play an important role in the degradation process. Therefore, it's worth further investigation when more detailed information on products in-situ and ex-situ is provided.

D. Effects of The Plasma Radicals

Previous studies have proven that additional H₂O and O₂, as well as SF₆ in DBD plasma, can produce a large number of radicals like H, O, OH, and F [16]. According to plasma-catalysis theory, high-energy radicals can move to the packing material surface and react with adsorbed species via the Eley-Rideal (ER) mechanism [41]. That is, active particles in gas phase do not undergo the adsorption process but react directly with pre-adsorbed surface species. By contrast, if there are no active particles, the reaction mainly happens among adsorbed species via Langmuir-Hinshelwood (LH) mechanism.

In this work, three typical radicals, i.e., O, H, and F are considered, and six ER reactions are calculated, as listed in Table III (21)–(26). ER reactions mainly focus on the generation of stable products and their promotional effect on gas decomposition. For better comparison, the energy path and change in key bond length of each ER reaction are summarized in contrast to their LH reactions, as shown in Fig. 6 to 8. Besides, reaction (24) has no LH reaction counterpart, and (25) and (26) reactions contrast themselves, as shown in Figs. 9 and 10.

Figure 6 shows comparison of SOF₄* formation between LH reaction (10) and ER reaction (20). It is easy to see there are obvious differences in distributions of energy path and O-S distance. SOF₄* formation via LH process has a reaction energy barrier of 0.50 eV, while its ER process is barrierless, and the energy path decreases all the way. During ER process, O radical with high energy first approaches the SF₄* molecule and then releases a large amount of energy when O-S distance is reduced to about 4 Å, as shown in coordinates 6–8 in Fig. 6(b), where '(g)' means the molecule is initiated in

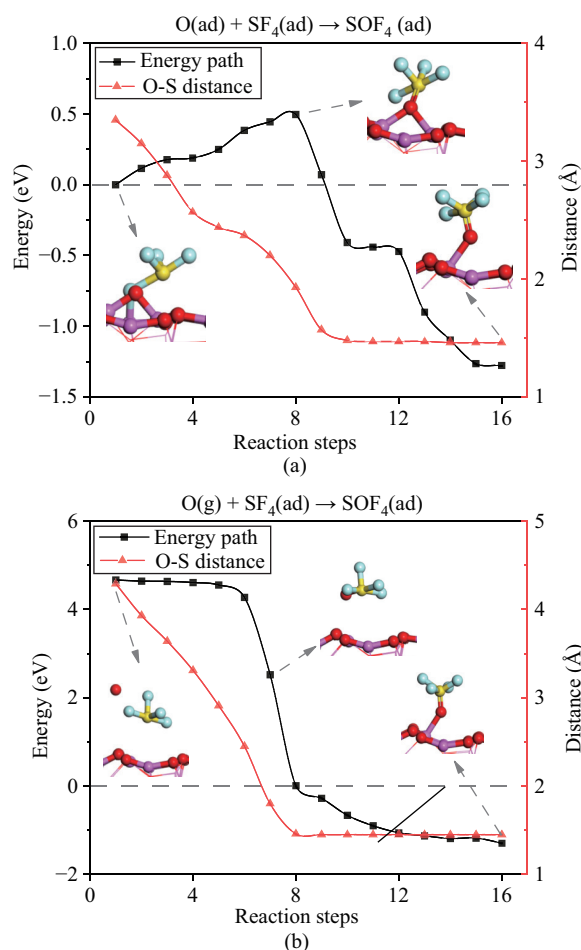


Fig. 6. Formation of SOF₄ by O and SF₄ via (a) LH reaction and (b) ER reaction. O(ad) and O(g) mean O atom is in the adsorbed state and the radical state, respectively.

gas phase. Then O radical bonds with SF₄* to produce a stable SOF₄* over γ -Al₂O₃ (110) surface. Therefore, SOF₄ formation can be promoted by O radicals via ER reactions.

Formation of SO₂F₂ via LH reaction (15) and ER reaction (22) are shown in Fig. 7. In LH reaction, SOF₂* gradually bonds with O* on γ -Al₂O₃ surface, with an activation barrier of 0.79 eV. In Fig. 7(b), the O(g) radical moves from gas phase to γ -Al₂O₃ surface with S-O distance decreasing. Once S-O distance reaches about 2.0 Å, the O(g) undergoes a bonding process with rapid energy release. This ER reaction does not have an activation barrier either. In the plasma region, O radicals are mostly produced by O₂ dissociation, thus facilitating SO₂F₂ generation. This corresponds well with experimental results in Fig. 3 that increasing O₂ concentration significantly promotes SO₂F₂ yield.

In Fig. 8(a), SO₂F* decomposes to SO₂* and F* via reaction (19) with a high barrier of 2.63 eV. This may be due to stable S-F bonding in SO₂F, which needs high energy to activate. By contrast, in Fig. 8(b), H radicals can react with SO₂F* to form HF(g), then HF(g) decomposes to H* and F*. The whole reaction shows no obvious barrier, which means it is much easier to occur than the reaction (19). In a word, reactive radicals generated in the plasma region are likely to undergo a strong interaction process with surface intermediates, leading

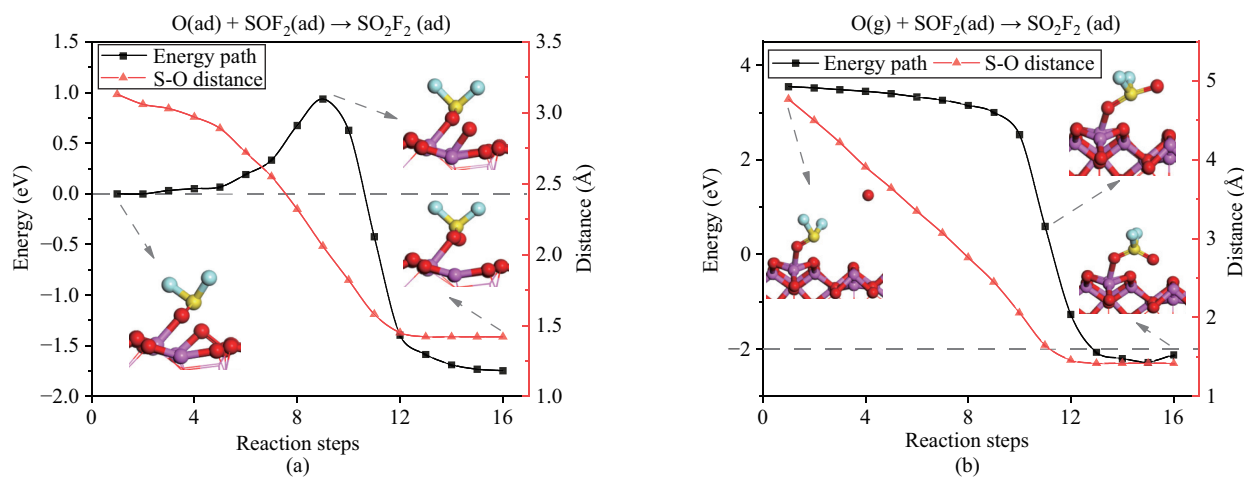


Fig. 7. Formation of SO_2F_2 by O and SOF_2 via (a) LH reaction and (b) ER reaction. O(ad) and O(g) mean O atom is in the adsorbed state and the radical state, respectively.

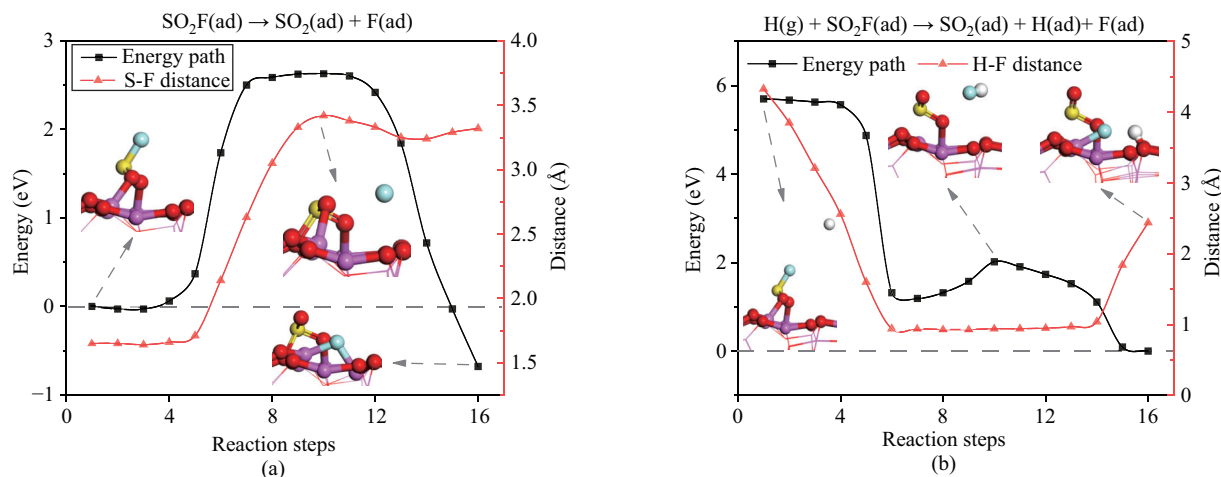


Fig. 8. Formation of SO_2 via (a) LH reaction and (b) ER reaction. H(g) means the H atom is in the radical state, respectively.

to further degradation of some products and accelerating the degradation reactions. Meanwhile, additional gases like NH_3 or H_2O in the plasma region can produce H(g) radicals, promoting the production of SO_2 by reactions like Fig. 7(b), thus affecting product selectivity. This corresponds well with the results in Fig. 3(a).

In Fig. 9, the decomposition of SOF_4 via ER reaction (24) is similar to Fig. 8(b). H radical can ‘collide’ with SOF_4^* and bond with one F atom to form an HF(g), while SOF_4^* loses one F atom to form a SOF_3^* intermediate. Then SOF_3^* can further decompose to SOF_2^* and F^* . Thus, with help of H radicals, SOF_4 , as a relative stable intermediate, can have further decomposition to produce more stable products such as SOF_2 . Moreover, the presence of H(g) corresponds to the addition of H-containing gases, like NH_3 , H_2O and H_2 . In Fig. 3(a), the selectivity of SOF_2 in the H_2O added system is obviously higher than O_2 added system, which may be caused by reaction (24).

Figure 10 shows the formation of HF(g) via ER reactions when H or F radicals are involved. It’s easy to find H or F radicals in gas phase that can react with surface F^* or H^* species and form desorbed HF(g) molecules via reactions (25)

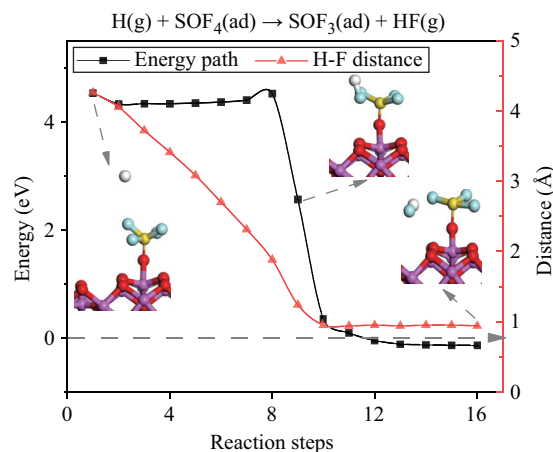


Fig. 9. Decomposition of SOF_4 via ER reaction.

and (26) without a barrier. By contrast, combination of H^* and F^* to HF^* and its desorption has a barrier of 1.17 eV. This indicates in the presence of H-containing gases, H radicals can have ER reactions to generate HF(g). Similarly, increasing input power can promote the generation of F radicals, which

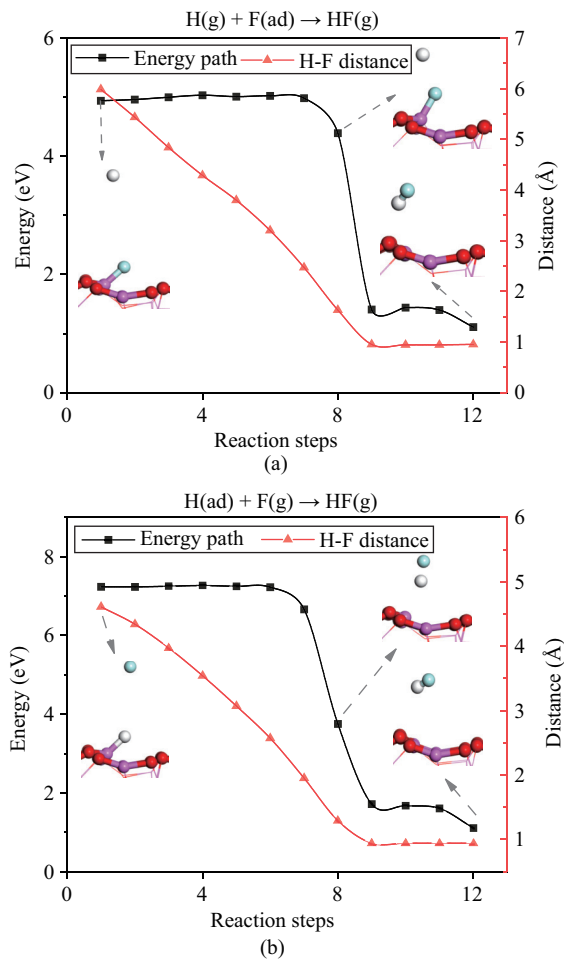


Fig. 10. Formation of HF by (a) H radical and adsorbed F and (b) adsorbed H and F radical via ER reactions.

is also expected to promote HF(g) yield. These two processes could take away the F element from packed bed system, resulting in lower selectivity of S-O-F gas products and promoting SO₂ yield.

Compared to non-packed DBD treatment in previous studies [30], γ -Al₂O₃ packing provides a gas-solid interface, which is better for discharge and degradation [12], [17], [27]. In the packed-bed system, reactive gases generate surface-adsorbed species and high-energy radicals during discharge. LH reactions occurring on the packing surface will drive SF₆ to start a significant reaction path dispersion after 1 or 2 F detachments. SOF₄ is a relatively stable product under insufficient degradation conditions [30], but it is further decomposed in packing systems, especially when radicals are involved, so it is basically not detected in this experiment (part per million level). SO₂ generation process has the highest reaction energy barrier with the most reactive processes and is, therefore, theoretically the most difficult to occur. However, our DFT calculations reveal that H radicals can promote SO₂ generation on γ -Al₂O₃ surface via ER reactions with no significant energy barrier. This corresponds well with the experimental promotion phenomenon of SO₂ by H₂O addition. Further, H radicals and H* can effectively combine with F radicals and F* at the gas-solid interface to form HF(g), which

can be carried away from the reactor, and this process could be one main reason for the reduction of S-O-F selectivity caused by H₂O addition. The type and content of free radicals will significantly affect the degradation efficiency and product generation path of SF₆.

It should be noted that the above-mentioned reactions are only a limited part of reactions involving O, H, and F radicals. Meanwhile, apart from the above three radicals, there are other radicals such as Ar, OH, Si, and N, all of which may participate in the degradation process via ER reactions. As we proposed, the above reactions are examples of elaborate effects of radicals in plasma on surface reactions and product regulation. In the future, in-situ information on gas-phase radicals and surface adsorbed species is vital for further investigation of SF₆ degradation mechanism in a plasma-catalytic system.

IV. CONCLUSION

Understanding SF₆ degradation mechanism in NTP system is important to determine harmless and effective abatement strategies. In this study, we conducted a detailed investigation of SF₆ degradation process and generation of main S-containing products by combining a discharge experiment and a DFT calculation for a γ -Al₂O₃ packed-bed DBD system. In the experiment, 0.25%–2.5% H₂O and 0.05%–4% O₂ are separately added in 3%SF₆-97%Ar mixture. The addition of H₂O or O₂ can improve SO₂ yield or SO₂F₂ yield, respectively, showing a regulation property on SF₆ products. Besides, the total yields of three stable products in this work reach a level of \sim 40 nmol/J, which is much higher than in typical spark (\sim 2 nmol/J) or corona discharges (\sim 15 nmol/J), which proves the capability of PB-DBD on effective abatement of SF₆.

In DFT calculations, adsorption properties of 16 possible decompositions are tested over γ -Al₂O₃ (110) surface. SF₅, SF₅OH, SOF₅, SOF₄, SF₄OH, SOF₂, SO₂F₂, SO₂F and SO₂ can chemically adsorb at Al_{III} surface site. SF₄ shows physical adsorption over Al_{III} atom. S₂F₁₀, SF₃OH, SOF₃, SOF, and HF are not stable and undergo further decomposition. After that, 14 possible degradation reactions of SF₆ over the γ -Al₂O₃ (110) surface with H, OH, or O pre-adsorbed species are calculated via LH mechanism. Results show SF₆ could undergo different reactions with surface species when one or two F is detached, i.e., SF₅ or SF₄ are generated. SOF₄ could act as an intermediate in the degradation path to further produce SOF₂. SO₂ is the hardest to generate, with the highest activation barrier and most complicated reaction steps. The effect of plasma-generated radicals (H, O, and F) on surface reactions is studied via 6 possible ER reactions. High-energy radicals show high reactivity in surface reactions and effectively promote further decomposition of adsorbed species (such as SOF₄) or generation of some final products (SO₂, SO₂F₂, and HF), which correspond well with experimental product results.

In general, the degradation of SF₆ with reactive gases in packed-bed plasma is very complicated. Plasma-generated radicals from reactive gases are one important factor in determining surface reactions via ER mechanism, which leads to a deep decomposition of SF₆ and regulation of by-products.

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