



Plasma catalysis in ammonia production and decomposition: Use it, or lose it?

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Abstract

The combination of plasma with catalysis for the synthesis and decomposition of NH_3 is an attractive route to the production of carbon-neutral fertiliser and energy carriers and its conversion into H_2 . Recent years have seen fast developments in the field of plasma-catalytic NH_3 life cycle. This work summarises the most recent advances in plasma-catalytic and related NH_3 -focussed processes, identifies some of the most important discoveries, and addresses plausible strategies for future developments in plasma-based NH_3 technology.

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Plasma, Nitrogen fixation, Ammonia, Plasma catalysis, Production and decomposition.

Introduction

In recent years, the global annual production of ammonia reached nearly 200 Mt, making it the second most-produced chemical in the world [1]. The uses of NH_3 span from textile and plastics production to pharmaceuticals and the automotive industry, with its main use as a fertiliser. Moreover, the usage of ammonia as a hydrogen carrier, and hence as a carbon-free fuel, is actively investigated [2].

The industry-dominating Haber–Bosch process of producing NH_3 via nitrogen fixation with H_2 is environmentally unbenign, very energy-intensive, and in practice relies on fossil fuels (CH_4). While CO_2 emissions can be reduced by partially electrifying the Haber–Bosch process, it is feasible exclusively on a large scale as a centralised production, which implies distribution and associated energy costs. The European strategy of decarbonisation, together with the current fossil fuel crisis, demands that an alternative be found

that would enable an auxiliary (decentralised) NH_3 synthesis based on renewable energy [2,3].

Thermocatalytic NH_3 decomposition, industrially used to generate H_2 for metallurgy, resembles Haber–Bosch in its practical reliance on fossil energy sources (at least up until now) and negative environmental impact. The emergence of NH_3 as a carbon-free hydrogen carrier creates the need for technologies to reduce energy and carbon footprints [4].

One of the most promising ways to do this is with plasma technology. Plasma is a partially ionised gas that comprises electrons, ions, radicals, excited species, and photons. Unlike most industrial processes, plasma can be operated at atmospheric pressure and intermittently, making it compatible with renewable electricity [5]. Furthermore, the effectiveness of plasma-based gas conversion can be increased by combining it with catalysis, with the potential to yield performance unattainable by plasma or thermal catalysis individually [6,7]. However, the question on whether future technologies should “use” plasma catalysis in NH_3 synthesis and/or decomposition, or perhaps it is better to “lose” it, remains open.

Numerous literature reviews describe pathways of NH_3 synthesis by plasma-based nitrogen fixation, including several from the past two years [1,2,8–12], whereas the fairly newer field of plasma-based NH_3 decomposition afforded only one review [4]. These works give a thorough overview of plasma(-catalytic) NH_3 processes. In contrast, the aim of the present paper is not solely to discuss the most recent works on these topics (2022–2023) but also to indicate some of the topics that may lie outside the traditional plasma catalysis scope (Figure 1), but in our opinion, require attention.

Plasma catalysis to produce NH_3

Two general combinations of plasma and catalysis are distinguished: in-plasma catalysis (IPC) and post-plasma catalysis (PPC) [8]. Although hypothetically also pre-plasma catalysis (PREPC) can be envisioned with plasma-generated heat transferred with a heat exchanger, to our knowledge, there are no such reports to date.

In IPC, the catalyst is in direct contact with plasma, i.e. subjected to both the plasma-generated species and the heat. The thermal degradation of most catalysts used for

Abbreviations

DBD	dielectric barrier discharge
IPC	in-plasma catalysis
MW	microwave
(P)CLAS	(plasma) chemical looping ammonia synthesis
PPC	post-plasma catalysis
PREPC	pre-plasma catalysis.

NH_3 synthesis and NH_3 itself limits IPC only to dielectric barrier discharge (DBD) plasma, which has much lower temperatures than other atmospheric pressure plasma types. In PPC, a catalyst is positioned downstream from the plasma and, hence, can be used with multiple plasma types. It must be noted that PREPC and many instances of PPC are thermocatalytic, in which the heat, which would otherwise be dissipated downstream from the plasma, is used to perform thermal catalysis, thus reducing the total energy losses. Various plasma types for PC NH_3 production/decomposition are shown in Table 1.

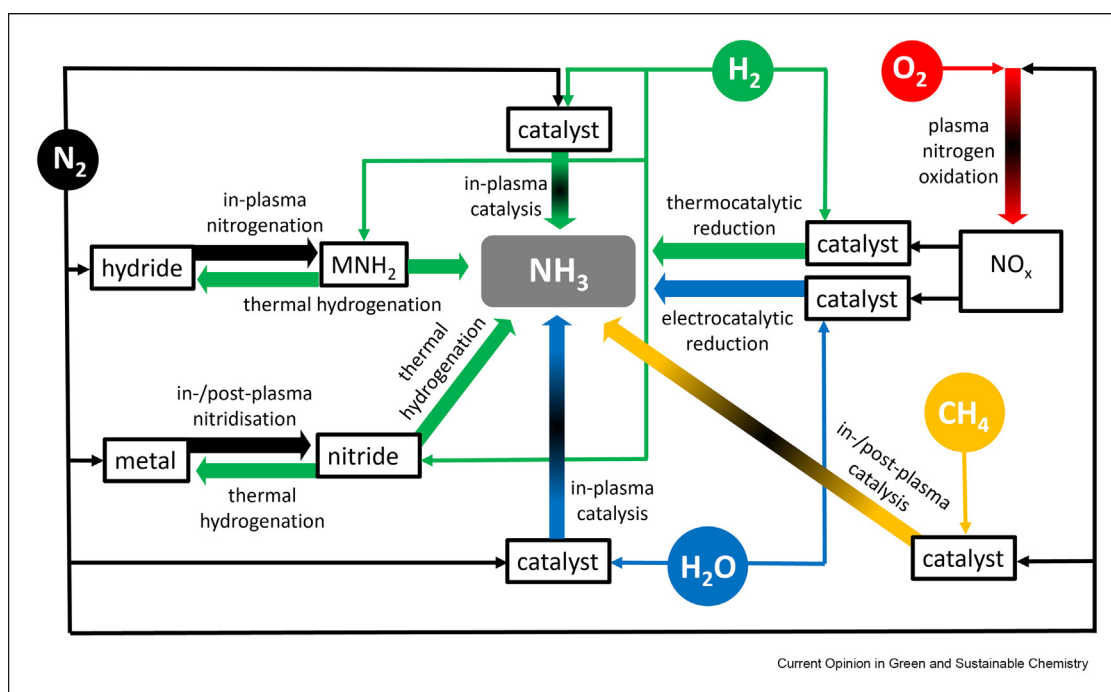
Catalyst role in in-plasma catalysis

The most common pathway of plasma-catalytic NH_3 production is direct N_2 fixation with H_2 (Figure 1, top). Since the first evidence of NH_3 production enhancement by adding a catalyst to plasma [2,8], most plasma catalysis research has focused on catalyst screening and design, varying both the metal and the support, from

monometallic catalysts on inert oxides to various dopants and photocatalytically active supports [8,13–15]. Although clear improvements in the energy cost of NH_3 synthesis are seen with catalysts compared to plasma alone (due to the increased NH_3 production rate at the same plasma power), the actual role of the catalyst remains an open question. Sometimes IPC is reported to resemble thermal catalysis, where the properties (e.g. adsorption capacity/binding energy) of the metal sites and the supports govern the process [13,14].

Contrastingly, several studies demonstrate that changing the catalyst chemical composition leads to changes in plasma discharge characteristics. In a comparison of different oxides as DBD packing materials, BeO (possessing the highest dielectric constant and thermal conductivity) afforded the highest production of NH_3 under the same energy input, which was attributed to higher electron energy in the plasma and improved heat transfer from the packing to the gas [16]. In a study with Co-based Al_2O_3 -supported catalysts with different transition metals added, their presence in the DBD (as in IPC) changed the number of microdischarges in plasma. Conductive Ce- and La-doped Co catalysts supported on otherwise dielectric Al_2O_3 transitioned the DBD from a purely filamentary to a diffuse regime, reducing the decomposition of the formed NH_3 by the energy-dense microdischarges and thus increasing the net NH_3 production and reducing the energy cost.

Figure 1



Various plasma-based pathways of nitrogen fixation into NH_3 include direct plasma catalysis, plasma with subsequent catalysis, and chemical looping.

Table 1

Qualitative description of various combinations of plasma and catalysis in NH₃ production and decomposition.

Plasma type	Compatible with	Pathways of NH ₃		Key parameters	
		Production	Decomposition	Energy cost	Throughput
Nonequilibrium (dielectric barrier discharge)	IPC, PPC	Direct, via NO _x	Direct	High	Low
Quasi-equilibrium – “warm” (microwave, gliding arc)	PPC, PREPC	via NO _x	Direct	Low	High

IPC, in-plasma catalysis; PPC, post-plasma catalysis; PREPC, pre-plasma catalysis.

Under conditions with constant discharge properties, all supported catalysts produced more NH₃ compared to blank supports but performed virtually identically regardless of the chemical nature of the metal [17]. Conversely, the addition of metal sites to a ferroelectric support coated with dielectric Al₂O₃ decreased the NH₃ generation; they were proposed to cause the formation of high-energy microdischarges rather than reducing them [18].

Adding Ag to SBA-15 support gave discrepant results at two different plasma power values, ascribed to the differences between two DBD regimes: lower power made Ag sites beneficial, and vice versa [19]. Thus, catalysts affects the performance of plasma, and plasma affect the catalyst role: lower plasma power decreases the role of gas phase reactions and increases the role of the catalyst surface [17,19].

Mechanisms of in-plasma catalysis for NH₃ production

DBD is commonly low-temperature, but microdischarges onto the metal sites may give a locally increased temperature, making discrimination between plasma-catalytic and thermocatalytic effects in IPC difficult [7]. Moreover, even in nonthermal plasma catalysis, the exact mechanism of NH₃ formation is still a debated subject. While the Eley–Rideal mechanism plays an important role in plasma-catalytic NH₃ synthesis (unlike in thermal catalysis) [20,21], the relative contributions of Eley–Rideal and the Langmuir–Hinshelwood mechanisms may depend on the metal. A kinetic study showed that on MgO-supported transition metals Co, Ru, Pt, Pd, and Cu, the PC NH₃ reaction in DBD proceeded via Eley–Rideal, while on Ag Langmuir–Hinshelwood, it was the dominant mechanism [22].

The energy cost is one of the main factors defining the feasibility of a plasma process (albeit not the only one; e.g. single-pass yield is also an important criterion). The energy cost of IPC NH₃ synthesis is most commonly in the range of 10–100 MJ/mol [17], which is dramatically higher than the suggested target value of 1.5 MJ/mol for plasma-based nitrogen fixation to be fully competitive with the industrial standard [23]. Despite the suggestion that deliberately populating plasma with vibrationally excited N₂(v) molecules (i.e. creating strong

nonequilibrium plasma conditions) may reduce the energy cost of NH₃ generation, recent experimental and computational research showed that atomic N is the kinetics-controlling species in plasma-catalytic NH₃ production [21,24–26]. While this means that nonequilibrium DBDs are not strictly needed for PC NH₃ synthesis, other plasmas are too hot for direct NH₃ production.

Preventing NH₃ destruction during synthesis

The decomposition of NH₃ by microdischarges in IPC DBD reduces its net yield, thus increasing the energy cost [20]. In-situ adsorption can reduce this detrimental effect [27]. NH₃ adsorbed in the pores of zeolite 4A and remained protected from plasma, decreasing the energy cost twice compared to plasma alone [3]. It is possible that the results of other recent works with zeolite catalysts supports giving the best performance [14,28] were also influenced by this positive effect, albeit without explicitly evaluating it. Zeolites with phosphate moieties in IPC also improved the NH₃ yield, additionally via the diffusion of excited N₂ into the pores (larger than its kinetic radius of 3.6 Å) [29].

Thus, highly porous materials have several advantages when used as supports for plasma-catalytic NH₃ synthesis. Other materials with high NH₃ sorption affinity can also be used, but the zeolites have the advantage of not undergoing surface deactivation via nitridisation [3].

Chemical looping

Deliberate nitridisation as a part of plasma chemical looping ammonia synthesis (PCLAS) is an attractive strategy. One way of treating PCLAS is by exposing supported metals to N₂ plasma and subsequent hydrogenation of the formed nitrides to release NH₃ and regenerate the “clean” metal surface [30], as shown for a microwave (MW) plasma effluent in contact with Fe, Mn, and CoMo (similar to PPC), followed by thermal H₂ treatment [31]. MW nitrification was quicker than conventional methods, and the resulting metal nitrides gave higher NH₃ production rates. Alternatively, PCLAS can be accomplished by exposing metal hydrides to DBD N₂ plasma (similar to IPC), yielding –NH₂ surface moieties, which are released as NH₃ upon subsequent thermal hydrogenation, which also regenerates the metal hydride, albeit the energy cost of NH₃

production is very high (1–2 orders of magnitude higher than for IPC NH₃ production) [32]. Thus, PCLAS can be considered a quasi-catalytic process because the looping implies regeneration of the active surface, but it still remains in its infancy and is currently mostly used for fundamental kinetics studies.

Alternative H-sources for NH₃ production

The methods of plasma-catalytic NH₃ synthesis described above employ H₂ as feedstock for NH₃. Other routes involve different sources of hydrogen, e.g. plasma-enabled nitrogen fixation into NH₃ while simultaneously converting CH₄ (the H source) into value-added hydrocarbons [7], but the main drawback is low selectivity towards NH₃. IPC (DBD with Cu/SiO₂) and PPC (MW with AgPd/CeO₂) afforded 7 and 9% NH₃ selectivity, respectively [33,34]. Besides, the process still involves CH₄, which compromises decarbonisation.

H₂O vapour can also be used for IPC-NH₃ synthesis. However, although such a process does not require molecular hydrogen and uses H₂O directly, the net energy cost is higher due to the energy required for H₂O dissociation (with a higher bond energy than H₂) and the formation of by-products (H₂O₂ or NO_x). DBD plasma with Co/SiO₂ produced NH₃ from N₂ and H₂O, albeit with a high energy cost (11 MJ/mol) [35]. DBD air plasma and γ -Al₂O₃ as a catalyst afforded NH₃ with an extreme energy cost of >12 GJ/mol, despite using humid air directly with no costs for N₂ extraction [36]. Both processes suffer from nonselective NH₃ production (due to reductive and oxidative nitrogen fixation by H₂O [35,36] and/or O₂³⁶), high energy costs, and kinetics are limited by the available humidity content (2.1 vol% at 20 °C).

Plasma with subsequent catalysis

Another route to NH₃ is plasma-based nitrogen fixation into NO_x, followed by catalytic reduction into NH₃. This can be viewed as an extreme scenario of PPC, with the nitrogen fixation and the reduction steps separated. A hybrid system with air plasma enabled the induction of NO₂⁻ and NO₃⁻ in water and their subsequent electrocatalytic reduction into NH₃ [37]. A controlled process of selective NO₂⁻ generation (which electrocatalytically reduces to NH₃ more easily) can be done in an aqueous solution of KOH [38]. In brief, this resembles a reversed industrial process of NH₃ and HNO₃ production (where NH₃ produced via Haber–Bosch is catalytically oxidised into HNO₃). It should be noted that currently, the combined industrial process of Haber–Bosch + Ostwald focusses mostly on fertilisers in the form of NH₄NO₃ (where part of the NH₃ from Haber–Bosch is oxidised into HNO₃, and then combined with pristine NH₃). This product can be obtained in a reverse process, by plasma coupled with, e.g. electrocatalytic reduction. First, NO_x is produced and turned into NO₃⁻ in an aqueous solution, and then partially reduced to NH₄⁺ so that the resulting

solution contains the fertiliser – NH₄NO₃. Such a process can be done in one pot, and in fewer steps than the Haber–Bosch–Ostwald process.

Thermocatalytic hydrogenation of the plasma-generated NO into NH₃ over a lean NO_x trap catalyst gave the lowest reported energy cost for plasma-based NH₃ of 2.1 MJ/mol, demonstrating the potential competitiveness of plasma-catalytic NH₃ synthesis [39]. Electrolysis-produced H₂ makes it compatible with electrification strategies. Advantageously, the plasma type is not limited to DBD, typically associated with low production rates, “warm” plasmas perform better in generating NO_x (see Table 1). They generally have higher single-pass yields than DBD plasmas and can be catalysis-assisted to increase NO_x production and further reduce the energy cost of this first step [40]. Such a shift towards more thermal (i.e. more equilibrium) plasmas for nitrogen fixation can bridge the gap between plasma-catalytic nitrogen fixation and an industrially viable process of NH₃ generation, albeit an indirect one [3,23].

Plasma catalysis to decompose NH₃ into N₂ and H₂

Catalysts during IPC NH₃ decomposition impose similar limitations on the process as during NH₃ synthesis, equally restricting IPC to low-temperature plasma (DBD). While IPC (and the associated low-temperature DBD) are reasonable for exothermic NH₃ synthesis, endothermic NH₃ decomposition is severely limited in this scenario. Conversely, in PPC NH₃ decomposition, the plasma-produced heat is used by a downstream catalyst for further decomposition [41].

In-plasma catalysis for NH₃ decomposition

IPC NH₃ decomposition (“cracking”) resembles IPC-NH₃ production in many ways. The main focus is to develop catalysts by screening for efficient support, metal, and their morphology [42,43]. Unlike thermocatalytic cracking, IPC showed an increase in conversion in the presence of only support material, and the electrical properties of the supports had a more significant impact on conversion than surface area or pore volume: MgAl₂O₄ and γ -Al₂O₃ (with high dielectric constants of 10–30) were the most synergistic with plasma [44]. Deposited metals exhibited both a negative [45] and positive [44] impact on the catalyst performance, although the latter, even optimised (IPC DBD with Ru/Al₂O₃), still gave a high energy cost of 400 kJ/mol, ca. 4.5 times higher than thermocatalytic NH₃ cracking with Ru catalysts [44]. Reducing the particle size of the Mo₂N catalyst shifted the DBD mode from filamentary to surface discharges, improving the decomposition and lowering the energy cost. Surface discharges were proposed to facilitate the delivery of plasma-generated reactive species to the catalyst surface, thus enhancing surface reactions [45]. Mo₂N catalysts produced via

nitrification at different temperatures performed differently, although the underlying nature (different catalytic activity or changes to discharge properties by catalysts) remained unclear [46].

Kinetic studies showed that IPC NH₃ decomposition is initiated mainly in the gas phase by electron impact dissociation [47,48]. A decrease in the threshold temperature for NH₃ decomposition by 100–120 °C was reported for a variety of catalysts in a DBD plasma where the reactors were supplied with external heat sources that operated at lower temperatures than those required for thermal catalysis, leading to the conclusion that the plasma contribution is not limited to thermal conversion [44,45,49,50]. We note, however, that the temperature of DBD microdischarge filaments is higher than the bulk gas temperature, and thus thermal decomposition as the driving force cannot be completely ruled out.

Mechanistically, the Eley–Rideal mechanism is reported to be important in IPC NH₃ decomposition: it enhances the decomposition by reactive plasma species (NH₃^{*}, NH₂, NH), which facilitate the removal of N from the catalyst surface [48,50] (although the high temperature in the microdischarge filaments may also enhance this), and inhibits it by NH₃ formation via reaction between adsorbed H and NH₂ [48]. The synergistic effect between plasma and catalyst is generally assumed to arise from the catalyst providing reaction pathways unavailable in plasma and plasma promoting NH₃ decomposition and inhibiting the formation of nitrides on the catalyst surface [44,49] (which is generally detrimental besides the aforementioned Mo₂N).

A drastically different process involved igniting plasma in-liquid in a 25 wt% aqueous NH₄OH solution using Ni–Bi titanates [51] and zeolites [52] as photocatalysts. Catalysts were suspended in liquid and agitated to ensure their contact with the localised in-liquid plasma. Insufficient intensity of UV radiation or heat reaching the catalysts resulted in a very high energy cost of NH₃ decomposition (0.9 GJ/mol), with a relative increase in H₂ production rate of only 20% when using catalysts compared to in-liquid plasma alone, and most of H₂ originated from H₂O instead of NH₃.

Post-plasma catalysis for NH₃ decomposition

The only approach to PPC NH₃ cracking was described in a slightly older work from 2021 and involved an arc plasma torch with a NiO/Al₂O₃ catalyst placed downstream from the plasma, enabling the second, thermocatalytic step of NH₃ cracking in addition to the initial plasma cracking [41]. This afforded an energy cost reduction from 200 (only plasma) to 160 (PPC) kJ/mol, nearly approaching the value of purely thermocatalytic cracking (90 kJ/mol [4]). Both plasma and catalysis steps were governed by thermal effects, with the PPC step

utilising the plasma-produced heat (which would otherwise be lost), thus decreasing the energy cost. Despite the promising results, to our knowledge, no further PPC studies were reported.

Conclusions and outlook

In this work, we attempted to answer the question on whether plasma catalysis in the NH₃ lifecycle is promising (“we should use it”) or not (“we should lose it”). Despite vigorous investigations into plasma-catalytic NH₃ formation/decomposition, the question of its feasibility on an industrial scale remains open.

Regarding IPC NH₃ formation/decomposition (“direct” plasma catalysis, realistically only available in DBD plasma), many attempts in different directions aim to improve the process performance. IPC NH₃ processing, although providing better formation/decomposition metrics at ambient temperatures than thermocatalytic processes, can become fully viable only if two critical issues are addressed: the high EC and low throughput of DBD plasma reactors, most common for direct plasma catalysis.

In contrast, the initial generation of NO_x by warm plasma, and their subsequent thermo- or electrocatalytic reduction into NH₃ offer more attractive options. Of all the literature reports to date, the least energy costly process of NH₃ production is via plasma(-catalytic) nitrogen fixation into NO_x and further catalytic reduction into NH₃. The first step can be done by warm plasmas, which exhibit much lower energy costs and higher throughput than DBDs.

As for decomposition, the examples of using “warm” plasmas for NH₃ decomposition (i.e. without catalysts) show that plasma-initiated thermal conversion has several advantages, not only over the IPC NH₃ decomposition, but also over the thermocatalytic process: the instantaneous start and intermittent operation allowing the use of renewable electricity, and reaching a high temperature (required for plasma-based thermal NH₃ decomposition) faster than with conventional gas heating. The major challenge is reducing the energy cost of such a process. Plasma with an additional catalytic step (PPC and/or PREPC) presents a promising direction for future developments of plasma technology in NH₃ decomposition.

This ultimately means we should not aim to “lose” plasma catalysis in the NH₃ lifecycle altogether; instead, we should “use” the most technologically feasible version of it. At this stage of development, the most attractive plasmas are “warm” plasmas, with catalysis not directly integrated into the plasma (i.e. not IPC). Nonetheless, we find it possible that future scientific developments can shift the appeal towards IPC NH₃ synthesis/decomposition and other near-catalytic approaches, such as, e.g. PCLAS.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

No data were used for the research described in the article.

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