

Thermal and catalytic hydrodehalogenation of halon 1301 with methane

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Summary

There are severe restrictions on the use of halons in Australia since the government has banned them for all but essential use, and legislated their withdrawal. The long term storage of these chemicals is costly and is delaying the inevitable need for proper and complete disposal necessitates the development of new and innovative technologies for the treatment of these materials. We have investigated the gas-phase and surface-catalysed conversion of halon 1301 into reusable products through their reaction with methane. A tubular flow reactor facility was used for all studies which included gas control manifold, three-zone high temperature furnace, gas chromatograph and FTIR for product identification and quantification. Gas phase reaction of CH_4 with CF_3Br in a N_2 bath (molar feed ratio of 1:1:10) at 600°C and residence time (τ) of 2 seconds produced a range of reaction products with C_2F_6 and C_2H_6 as major product species. Minor species including C_2H_4 , CF_3CH_3 , C_2H_2 and a small number of as-yet unidentified products were also detected. Under all conditions studied, an average of 0.6 moles of CH_4 reacted per mole of CF_3Br , for both gas-phase and catalytic reactions. A small number of ionexchanged ZSM5 zeolites have been studied as potential catalysts for the title reaction. Enhanced conversion activity was observed for all metal-zeolites examined, although there appears to be little difference in activity between each catalyst. Only relatively minor changes in product selectivity (as compared to gas-phase product selectivities) were observed.

Australian perspective

Unlike other countries such as the United States, the Australian government has banned both the production and the use of halons after January 1st, 1996. No recycling of halons after the January deadline is allowed in Australia, whereas in the United States recycling will continue at least for the foreseeable future. Recycling will result in the gradual diminution of halon stocks, the end result being the discharging of these compounds into the atmosphere where they will contribute to the depletion of the ozone in the upper atmosphere. As well as their ozone depleting characteristics, halons also have a high global warming potential (GWP of these compounds as high as 5000 compared to unity for CO_2) and thus will also contribute to the greenhouse effect. In Australia, halon stocks are being collected and transported to Melbourne (Victoria), where a recently commissioned plasma-arc destruction facility will convert the halons to environmentally benign byproducts

such as H_2O , CO_2 and mineral acids HF, HCl and HBr.

Destructive disposal techniques

A review of destruction technologies for halon wastes has appeared recently where a number of existing and emerging technologies, such as hydrolysis, steam reforming, dehalogenation, dehydrohalogenation as well as a variety of oxidation processes, were evaluated'. These authors recommended further testing and development of many techniques was warranted, of particular concern were the low destruction efficiencies and the possible production of undesirable side-products. Of existing "complete" treatment technologies for halons (including chemical, physical and biological processes), incineration is the most widely adopted technology². In the case of halons, complete combustion would result in the production of CO_2 , and HX , where X is an alkyl halide. Halogen gases (X_2) are toxic and difficult to separate and thus their production is not desirable.

There are many problems associated with the use of incinerators. The high cost of safe transportation of the material to the incinerator, the use of ancillary fuels (which can contribute up to 40% of the overall running cost of the process)³ and the large volume of the reactor needed to ensure adequate residence time in the reactor all contribute to a high overall running cost. It is, however, the emission of both feed and incomplete combustion byproducts from the incinerator which are the cause of most concern, and have inhibited the widespread acceptance of incinerators. Carcinogenic products such as dioxins⁴ and phosgene⁵ are just some of the by-products detected in the effluent of incineration processes. The origin of such undesirable species is not clear, though it has been suggested dioxins may form in post-combustion cooling regions of the incinerator⁶.

Hydrodehalogenation

One attraction of hydrodehalogenation is that the reaction takes place in the absence of oxygen. The process involves reacting the halon with hydrogen (either with or without catalyst) to produce mineral acids (HBr, HCl or HF) and a secondary product, usually hydrocarbons (especially methane) and possibly new HFC compounds. Since banned halons often exist in relatively pure form (as opposed to flue gases containing ppm levels of chlorinated hydrocarbons), it is (potentially) economically feasible to develop a hydrodehalogenation process to deal with a very specific halocarbon substrate'. For example when halon-1211 reacts with H₂, the products could include CH₂F₂, (where both Cl and Br halogen atoms have been removed from the parent halon, but both F species remain intact) HCl and HBr. Other halocarbons or hydrocarbons may also be produced (such as C₂F₄), depending on reaction conditions and type of catalyst.

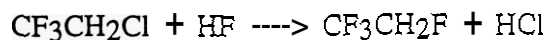
While a wide range of catalysts have been screened for activity, Group VIII metals (especially Pd) and bimetallic catalysts (usually a noble metal with a transition metal) are most often reported as catalysts for hydrodehalogenation reactions. The substrate most studied has been aromatic halides, and both homogeneous (eg. nickel(II) complexes) and heterogeneous (Pd/C⁹) catalysts have been used. Tetrachloromethane was converted to chloroform over a platinum/MgO catalyst with a H₂:CCl₄ mole ratio of 5:1¹⁰. The long lifetime of the catalyst was attributed to the retarding of coke formation by the MgO, and the authors also

concluded, using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) analysis of the catalyst, that the active species involved in the reaction was Pt^{II}. Palladium-based catalysts have demonstrated great potential for hydrodechlorination of perhalogenated aliphatic CFCs¹¹.

The conversion of difluorodichloromethane under hydrogen has been studied over a series of Pd and Pd bimetallics¹². The product distribution from palladium catalysed reactions of CFCs with hydrogen can be controlled, at least to some extent, if Pd is used in conjunction with Fe or Co. For example, at low substrate partial pressures, methane and CH₂F₂ constituted the main reaction products while higher substrate pressures resulted in increased selectivity to C₂F₄. It is not clear what mechanism leads to the observed shift in selectivity when the catalyst is changed from a single metal to a bimetallic type catalyst. It has been suggested that both hydrogen and halocarbon molecules are physisorbed on the surface of a single-metal palladium catalyst (a classical Langmuir-Hinshelwood mechanism). However, some experimental data indicate that PdFe and PdCo sites are operative and these bimetallic sites inhibit the co-adsorption of halocarbon and hydrogen. At this hydrogen-depleted adsorption site, coupling of activated halocarbon intermediates may occur leading to short chain formation, such as CF₂=CF₂. It is possible that within these large domains of PdFe and PdCo sites, halocarbons undergo preferential scission of bromine and chlorine atoms, since C-Br, and C-Cl constitute weaker bonds than C-F. Why H₂ adsorption is inhibited on these sites is not clear. Hydrogenolysis of CFC 12 (CCl₂F₂) has been studied, an activated carbon supported noble metal catalyst showing high selectivity to HCFC-22 and resistance to poisoning by coke³.

Halon - HF reactions

Most commercial processes involved with the production of CFC alternatives involve reaction of a chlorinated species with HF¹⁴. A report outlining a catalytic process to convert CF₃CH₂Cl to CF₃CH₂F has recently appeared¹⁵ where the chlorine atom present in the parent halon is replaced with fluorine (see below).



The catalyst used by the authors was a chromium (III) oxide and the authors showed that activity of

the catalyst was proportional to the number of reversibly oxidised sites present on the catalyst. This process forms the basis of a number of European and World patents''.

Halon-methane reactions

Interest in the use of methane as a hydrogen or homologation source has remained strong for a number of years, the chief attraction being the relative low cost of natural gas (the main constituent of which is methane) and its relatively high purity. The challenge in activating methane in the presence of a co-fed substrate is that the catalyst usually will react much faster with the substrate than with methane, effectively blocking the active sites on the surface of the catalyst for activation of methane. Some success in reacting methane has been achieved, as outlined below, and these catalyst systems were used as a guide in this investigation. Homogeneous (gas phase) reactions between methane and chlorinated hydrocarbons have been reported¹⁷. These studies were undertaken at relatively high temperatures, although reaction between methylene chloride and methane were observed. To our knowledge, there are no published reports of catalytic reactions of methane with halons.

Catalytic activation of methane

Catalytic reaction between methane and a co-fed substrate under reducing reaction conditions has been reported. Alkylation of naphthalene with methane was achieved, catalysed by metal exchanged zeolites and MeAlPO molecular sieves in a batch reactor¹⁸. Elevated pressure (6.3 MPa) and reaction temperatures were employed and these authors proved methane incorporation into naphthalene using ¹³CH₄ isotope studies. Nickel-based catalysts have also been used in the homologation of unsaturated compounds including propene¹⁹, and verification of the incorporation of methane into the butane products was undertaken. The coupling of cyclopentene with methane over supported nickel catalysts produced benzene and toluene as products, ¹³C labelling studies showed incorporation of the methane was taking place, but only to a modest extent. A novel approach to methane activation involves a reaction sequence divided into three distinct steps: (1) reaction of methane on a reduced transition metal catalyst, (2) after cooling, adsorption of the olefin with the methane moiety and (3) passing of hydrogen over the catalyst where the higher homologue is desorbed and the cycle is continued. ¹³C labelling studies confirmed methane incorporation into the products, although some self homologation was also taking place''.

Superacid catalysts have been used for the reaction of methane with ethylene'' (reaction pressures up to 20 MPa) as well as for the electrophilic chlorination of methane to methyl chloride²². In both these cases, sulfated zirconia was used as catalyst, although relatively mild conditions were employed for the reaction of methane with chlorine (240°C, ambient pressure) as compared with the ethylene/methane reaction.

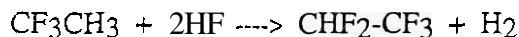
Incorporation of methane into halon 1301 could be a possible route to the production of valuable products and this possibility gave impetus to the present investigation. Consider, for example, the reaction of halon 1301 with methane where co-activation of both species results in a coupling of these species, a range of products are feasible including C₂H₆, CF₃H and CF₃CF₃. If conditions were optimised such that CF₃CF₃ production was favoured, it may then be possible to react this species further, probably with HF, to produce CHF₂-CF₃.

The overall process would then be:

Coupling of methane with halon:



Subsequent reaction with HF



This suggests that methane may not only act as possible H donor (as an alternative to hydrogen), but as a carbon source in the form of CH₃. It may thus be possible to make precursors to compounds such as CHF₂-CF₃ which are used as halon replacements in refrigeration system.

Experimental

A schematic of the research plan is presented in figure 1. All gas flows including oxygen (>99.9%), methane (>99.9) nitrogen (>99.99%) and halon 1301 (approximately 81% CF₃Br and 18% nitrogen) were controlled and metered with electronic mass flow controllers. The gas mixture was feed into a high temperature alumina (99.8%) tubular reactor heated with a 3-zone electric tube furnace. An alumina-sheathed thermocouple in the annular space in the reactor was used for reference and temperature control. Residence time experiments were performed either by altering flow rates of all feed species or by using alumina tubes of differing internal diameters. After reacting, the (heated) post-reaction gaseous effluent stream was directed through a caustic scrubber and finally either to an MTI gas chromatograph or to a FTIR gas cell for

product analysis. External standards were used where available to identify and quantify reaction products, especially light hydrocarbon gases. Identification of fluorinated products was achieved through the use of the FTIR cell and subsequent comparison with library database spectra. Using these techniques, all major products were determined, although there are a number of minor products yet to be identified. Mineral acids trapped in the scrubber were periodically analysed by ion chromatography.

Ion exchanged ZSM5, (Zeolyst International, SiO₂/Al₂O₃ ratio of 50) were prepared by adding catalyst to a nitrate solution of the metal ion to be exchanged and evaporating the solution to dryness. The metal loading of the zeolite (in all cases 10%) was predetermined by controlling the volume and concentration of the nitrate solution.

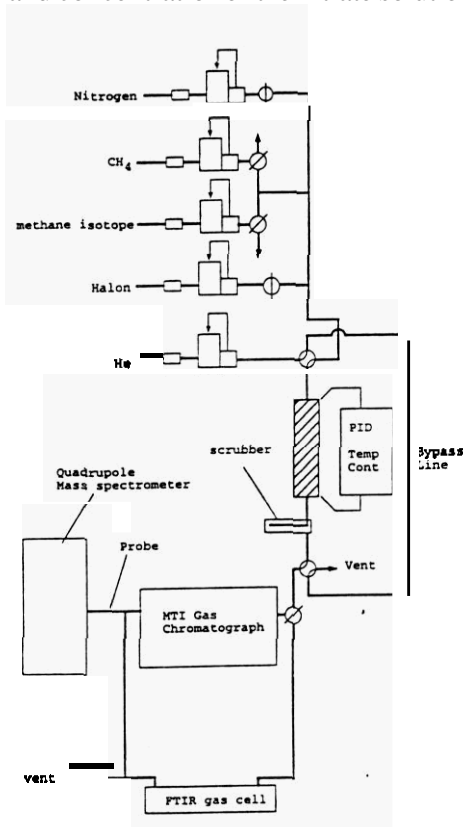


Figure 1. Experimental Facility

Gas-Phase reaction of CF₃Br with CH₄

The results of the reaction of CH₄ with CF₃Br in a nitrogen bath (molar flow rate of 1:1:10 for CF₃Br:CH₄:CF₃Br) at various residence times are presented in figures 2 and 3. Conversion products were detected at 500°C. and as expected higher conversions of both feed species were observed with increasing temperature and longer residence times. In contrast, pyrolysis experiments of CF₃Br in a nitrogen bath under flow conditions similar to those for methane

reaction no conversion products were observed below a reaction temperature of 725°C. Clearly, methane is an important reactant gas to facilitate and maintain reaction of CF₃Br. The pyrolysis experiments were performed not only to establish a baseline of activity for CF₃Br reactivity but also to examine the propensity of CF₃ radicals produced during pyrolysis to couple to C₂F₆. Curiously, only trace quantities of C₂F₆ were observed during CF₃Br pyrolysis experiments, even at the highest temperature and conversions examined 800°C and X = 0.09. The relative conversion rates for both methane and CF₃Br were constant and almost completely independent of residence time. The overall stoichiometry of the reaction observed experimentally was 0.6 moles of CH₄ reacted per mole of CF₃Br. The production of a range of unsaturated hydrocarbon products (C₂H₄ and C₂H₂) observed is consistent with the lower mole ratio of CH₄:CF₃Br reaction observed.

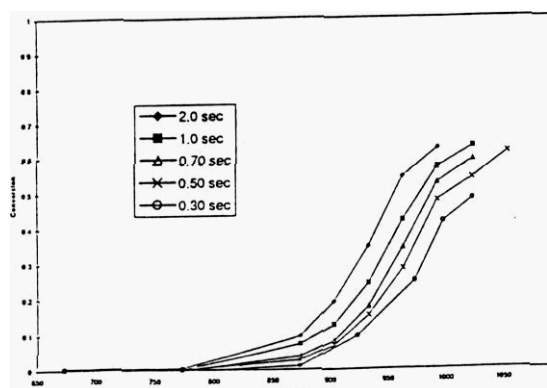


Figure 2

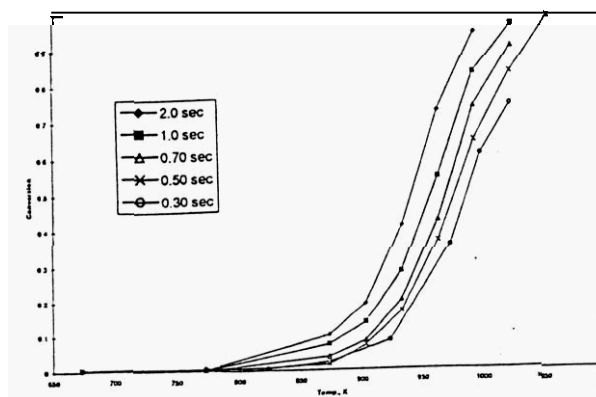


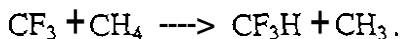
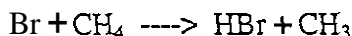
Figure 3

Gas-phase conversion of CH₄ (figure 2) and CF₃Br (figure 3) vs temperature at various residence times (τ = 0.3, 0.4, 0.8, 1.6). Feed composition 1:1:10 mol ratio of CH₄:CF₃Br:N₂.

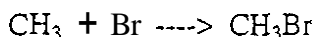
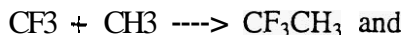
The initiation step in the overall process would probably be the thermal cleavage of CF_3Br

$\text{CF}_3\text{Br} \rightarrow \text{CF}_3 + \text{Br}$, thus creating a radical pool.

Hydrogen abstraction from CH_4 can then take place between the radicals thus produced and the abundant hydrocarbon gas:



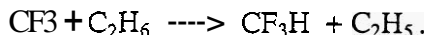
As conversion of CF_3Br and CH_4 increases, so does the relative concentration of CH_3 and CF_3 radicals, thus increasing the probability of coupling between these species to form C_2H_6 and C_2F_6 . Other (termination) coupling reactions can also take place, such as



All the stable products discussed above were produced during gas-phase and zeolite-catalysed reaction. The major products detected were C_2H_6 and C_2F_6 , consistent with the above mechanism. Other minor species were also produced and can be explained as follows. The increasing concentration of C_2H_6 as conversion increase (due to coupling of CH_3 radicals) now competes with CH_4 for reaction with CF_3 or Br radicals, thus re-entering the reaction pool. Although present in lower concentration than CH_4 , the lower relative bond strength of the C-H bond in C_2H_6 vs CH_4 suggests that it will react faster than the methane, thus effectively competing with CH_4 .



or



Under these conditions, C_2H_5 can quickly decompose to C_2H_4 , creating a secondary hydrocarbon species which, in turn, can now also re-enter the hydrocarbon pool. A similar argument can be extended to the resulting formation of C_2H_2 from C_2H_4 . The end result of these secondary reaction process is to decrease the overall C:H ratio of product hydrocarbons, thus leading to the observed lower stoichiometry.

Zeolite-catalysed reaction of CF_3Br with CH_4

Zeolite catalysed conversion of halogenated hydrocarbons have been reported both in the open²³ and patent²⁴ literature. Zeolite ZSM5 is a synthetic zeolite, and is used for a variety of hydrocarbons processes including the conversion of methanol to gasoline. The aim of this small screening trial was to determine whether ion-exchanged ZSM5 catalysts could influence either the activity or selectivity of the title reaction. The results of this screening trial are presented in figures 4 and 5.

All of the catalysts examined catalysed reaction, but the resultant activity appeared to be almost independent of the ion-exchanged metal form of the zeolite. A comparison of the conversion of CH_4 and CF_3Br under similar reaction conditions is presented in figures 4 and 5. Figure 4 also includes a comparison of CF_3Br pyrolysis under these conditions. Clearly the MnZSM5 zeolite catalyst enhanced conversion of both feed species for a given set of reaction conditions, as does the other ion-exchanged zeolites (conversion levels of the other zeolites CuZSM5 and CoZSM5 were virtually identical to that of MnZSM5). Similar to gas phase reactions, the $\text{CH}_4:\text{CF}_3\text{Br}$ conversion ratio was less than 1, approximately 0.65 over the temperature range examined for all of the zeolites studied. Reaction temperatures were restricted to below 600°C for zeolite studies as above these temperatures HF formation was detected. One of the aims of catalyst development is to minimise fragmentation of the CF_3 moiety and thus catalyst trials were performed below temperatures where this species is produced.

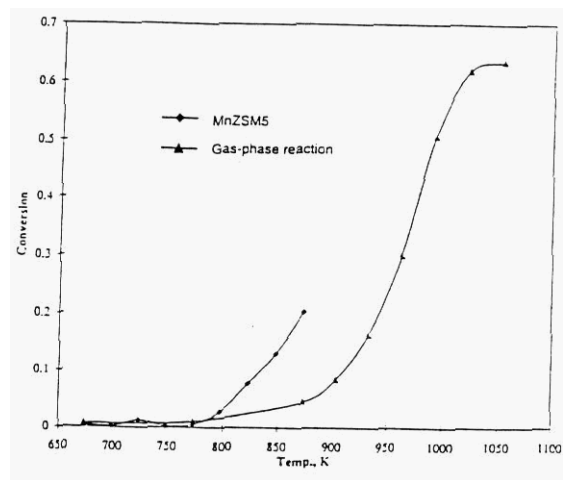


Figure 4

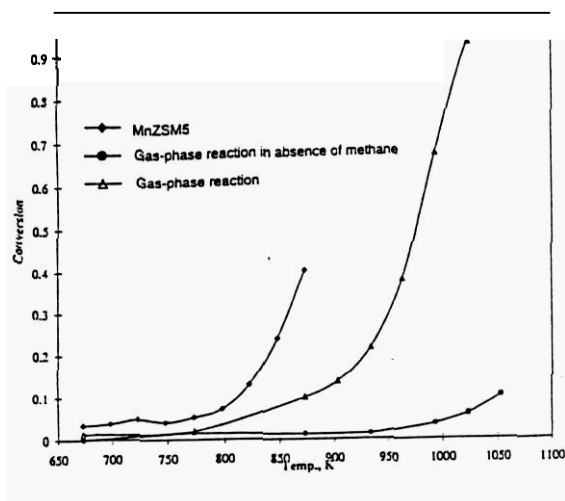


Figure 5

Comparison of MnZSM5 catalysed conversion of CH₄ (figure 4) and CF₃Br (figure 5) vs temperature and gas phase conversion levels. All zeolites were pre-treated in a nitrogen stream at 400C before being exposed to feed stream. The inlet feed composition of CH₄:CF₃Br:N₂ was 1:1:10.

Future work

The authors intend to continue screening various supported zeolites, in particular focussing on Group VIII metal-exchanged ZSM5 catalysts. In addition to catalyst screening, we intend to confirm incorporation of methane-based carbon moieties by performing experiments with ¹³C-labelled CH₄. Using an on-line mass spectrometer (currently being commissioned), the authors will determine the extent of coupling between CF₃Br and CH₄ species, as well as determining what species is most responsible for coke formation by measuring the mole fraction of ¹³C in the coke.

Acknowledgments

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