

Coupling Heat and Mass Transfer for Hydrogen-Assisted Self-Ignition Behaviors of Propane-Air Mixtures in Catalytic Micro-Channels

Junjie Chen, Deguang Xu

Abstract—Transient simulation of the hydrogen-assisted self-ignition of propane-air mixtures were carried out in platinum-coated micro-channels from ambient cold-start conditions, using a two-dimensional model with reduced-order reaction schemes, heat conduction in the solid walls, convection and surface radiation heat transfer. The self-ignition behavior of hydrogen-propane mixed fuel is analyzed and compared with the heated feed case. Simulations indicate that hydrogen can successfully cause self-ignition of propane-air mixtures in catalytic micro-channels with a 0.2 mm gap size, eliminating the need for startup devices. The minimum hydrogen composition for propane self-ignition is found to be in the range of 0.8-2.8% (on a molar basis), and increases with increasing wall thermal conductivity, and decreasing inlet velocity or propane composition. Higher propane-air ratio results in earlier ignition. The ignition characteristics of hydrogen-assisted propane qualitatively resemble the selectively inlet feed preheating mode. Transient response of the mixed hydrogen- propane fuel reveals sequential ignition of propane followed by hydrogen. Front-end propane ignition is observed in all cases. Low wall thermal conductivities cause earlier ignition of the mixed hydrogen-propane fuel, subsequently resulting in low exit temperatures. The transient-state behavior of this micro-scale system is described, and the startup time and minimization of hydrogen usage are discussed.

Keywords—Micro-combustion, Self-ignition, Hydrogen addition, Heat transfer, Catalytic combustion, Transient simulation.

I. INTRODUCTION

IN order to meet the demand for portable power sources with high energy density, recent experiments have focused on utilizing hydrocarbon fuels as energy sources to replace conventional battery [1], [2]. The conventional battery has low volumetric and gravimetric power density, relatively short life cycle and is made of materials that are difficult to recycle. The high specific energy of hydrocarbon fuels (approximately 40 MJ·kg⁻¹ versus 0.5 MJ·kg⁻¹ for lithium-ion battery) [3]-[6] and the ability to recharge a hydrocarbon-fueled power source, by merely adding more fuel, are driving attributes of a future fuel-to-electricity technology. Hydrocarbon-based micro-combustors are an enticing prospective energy source for portable power applications, such as laptops, cell phones, personal heaters, and portable electronics. Most current prototypes depend on external heating to generate energy for ignition. The additional apparatus necessary to power such external heaters can negate mass advantages of

micro-combustors.

One approach to extract power is the direct combustion of hydrocarbon fuels in micro-combustors to produce power and/or heat. Efforts to utilize hydrocarbons combustion in micro-scale devices have resulted in designs that are scaled down versions of large-scale power generating devices [7], [8]. However, higher temperatures and moving parts raise higher demand for the micro-scale device capable of sealing, insulation, and fabrication. Another alternative approach is to combust the hydrocarbon fuels in micro-reactors, with minimal moving parts resulting in further reduction of system size, to produce heat which can be converted into electrical power using thermoelectric energy conversion modules [9]-[12]. The increased surface to volume ratio of such micro-scale devices leads to considerable radical quenching and heat losses, resulting in unsustainable homogeneous flame [13]-[16]. Catalytic combustion in such micro-scale devices is preferred because the surface reaction occurs at much lower temperatures and can be sustained at much leaner fuel-air ratios as compared with homogeneous flame [17], [18], and therefore easing the design constraints of the micro-scale system. Furthermore, fuel ignition occurs at much lower temperatures, and certain fuels such as hydrogen and methanol have been found to be self-starting and self-sustained at the micro-scale, eliminating the need for startup devices [19], [20].

Hydrogen-air mixtures have been found to be self-igniting over platinum wires and foils under fuel-leaner conditions [19], [21], [22] but fuel-richer mixtures exhibit ignition temperature above room temperature. In addition, catalytic combustion of hydrogen over the noble metal catalysts has low activation energy, resulting in extremely fast reaction. The self-ignition nature of hydrogen-air mixtures in ceramic micro-combustors offers an opportunity to self-ignite hydrocarbon fuels, referred to as hydrogen-assisted ignition [19], [23], [24]. This concept may be a way toward elimination of ignition sources from micro-scale devices, resulting to further reduction of micro-scale system size. In addition, since hydrogen is a main target for fuel cell applications, one can envision storage of small amounts of hydrogen during micro-scale device operation from reforming of hydrocarbons that is subsequently used for startup.

Most of the work in literatures has focused on steady-state behavior, including flame stability [25]-[29], dynamic instabilities [30], thermal management [31], interaction of homogeneous and heterogeneous chemistry [32], coupling of exothermic and endothermic reactions [33], [34], nonlinear

Junjie Chen is with the School of Mechanical and Power Engineering, Henan Polytechnic University, Jiaozuo, Henan, China (phone: +86-3987888; fax: +86-3987888; e-mail: concjj@163.com, concjj@yahoo.com).

dynamics [35], and strategies to recycle ‘excess enthalpy’ [36] via reverse-flow operation [37] or heat recirculation [38]. These studies give a good understanding with respect to the steady-state combustion process. However, they do not provide any information on the timescales of these processes. It is important to explore the transient behavior of the micro-combustor during start-up under ambient condition and changing input conditions.

In the case of propane, where external heating is necessary to ignite propane-air mixtures, and fuel adsorption on platinum is slower [19]. Propane-air mixtures also exhibit auto-thermal behavior, namely, they can be self-sustained. Here, we explore the feasibility of this idea, compute the necessary hydrogen content needed to self-ignite propane-air mixtures, and investigate the synergism of binary fuels. The main objective of the present work is to delineate the transient behavior of hydrocarbon self-ignition in catalytic micro-combustors. The present study undertakes the numerical investigation of hydrogen-assisted self-ignition of propane-air mixtures in catalytic micro-channels under ambient condition. Transient simulations are performed, which include two-dimensional gas-phase description, heat conduction in the solid wall, convection and surface radiation heat transfer, and reduced-order reaction model, to investigate the start-up processes.

II. NUMERICAL APPROACH

A. Model Geometry and Mesh

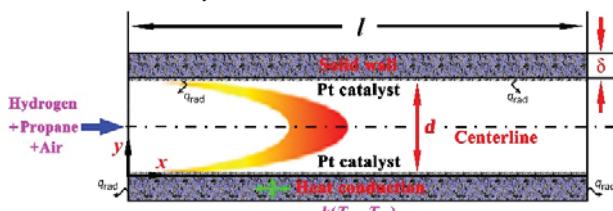


Fig. 1 Schematic diagram of the micro-channel geometry

TABLE I
 THE PROPERTIES OF PLATINUM-COATED CATALYST

Symbol	Property	Value
Γ	catalyst surface site density	$2.7 \times 10^{-9} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$
d_{pore}	average pore diameter	$2.08 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}$
ε_{cat}	catalyst porosity	0.4
τ_{cat}	catalyst tortuosity	8.0

TABLE II
 KINETIC PARAMETERS FOR THE CATALYTIC COMBUSTION OF LEAN PROPANE OVER PLATINUM

	A_0 or s_0	β	E_a
C_3H_8 adsorption	0.06	0.154	4
O_2 adsorption	0.0542	0.766	0
O_2 desorption	8.41×10^{12}	-0.796	*

$$* E_{a,\text{O}_2}^{\text{des}} = 52.8 - \frac{2.3T}{300} - 32.0\theta_{\text{O}_2}$$

Surface area factor $\eta = 1.7$, the temperature of reference conditions $T_{ref} = 300 \text{ K}$.

A schematic of the catalytic micro-channel is shown in Fig.

1. The micro-channel is modeled as two parallel plates, infinitely wide plates of gap distance $d = 0.2 \text{ mm}$ apart, length $L = 20.0 \text{ mm}$, and solid wall thickness $\delta = 0.2 \text{ mm}$. The adopted 0.2 mm geometrical confinement is typical of either catalytic honeycomb reactors for large-scale power generation [39] or of single-channel micro-reactors for portable power generation [20]. Platinum catalyst is coated on the inner channel surfaces, and its properties are listed in Table I. FLUENT-KINETICS was used to perform these transient simulations.

B. Chemical Kinetics for Catalytic Combustion of Hydrogen

A reduced-order reaction scheme is used to describe the oxidation of hydrogen over platinum, proposed by [40].

$$-r_{\text{cat}, \text{H}_2} = \eta A_0 T^\beta e^{-\frac{E_{a,\text{H}_2}^{\text{ads}}}{RT}} C_{\text{H}_2} \quad (1)$$

where effectiveness factor (η), pre-exponential factor (A_0), temperature exponent (β) and activation energy ($E_{a,\text{H}_2}^{\text{ads}}$) of hydrogen adsorption is 1.0, $1280 \text{ cm} \cdot \text{K}^{-0.5} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, 0.5 and 0 $\text{kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$, respectively. Simulations with this scheme have reproduced measured catalytic ignition temperatures of fuel-lean hydrogen-air mixtures over rhodium and platinum surfaces [41]. A minimum hydrogen-air ratio of homogenous light-off was found at approximately 0.33 [20], [40], [42]. Therefore, homogeneous chemistry of hydrogen was neglected and simulations were restricted for hydrogen-air ratio below 0.2.

C. Chemical Kinetics for Catalytic Combustion of Propane

The reduced-order rate kinetics [40] for the oxidation of propane on platinum is described as:

$$r_{\text{cat}, \text{C}_3\text{H}_8} = \frac{k_{\text{C}_3\text{H}_8}^{\text{ads}} C_{\text{s}, \text{C}_3\text{H}_8}}{\left(1 + \sqrt{\frac{k_{\text{O}_2}^{\text{ads}} C_{\text{s}, \text{O}_2}}{k_{\text{O}_2}^{\text{des}}}}\right)^2} \quad (2)$$

$r_{\text{cat}, \text{C}_3\text{H}_8}$, $C_{\text{s}, i}$ and k_i are the surface reaction rate of propane, the concentration of adsorbed species i and the ad-/desorption rate constant of species i , respectively. The latter is determined as:

$$k_i^{\text{ads}} = \frac{s_0}{\Gamma} \sqrt{\frac{RT}{2\pi M_i}} \left(\frac{T}{T_{ref}} \right)^{\beta_i^{\text{ads}}} e^{-\frac{E_{a,i}^{\text{ads}}}{RT}} \quad (3)$$

$$k_i^{\text{des}} = A_0 \left(\frac{T}{T_{ref}} \right)^{\beta_i^{\text{des}}} e^{-\frac{E_{a,i}^{\text{des}}}{RT}} \quad (4)$$

where s_0 , Γ , M_i and T_{ref} are the sticking coefficient, the surface site density of platinum catalyst, the molecular weight of species i , and the temperature of reference conditions, respectively. The values of these kinetic parameters are given in Table II. Activation energy of oxygen desorption depends on the coverage of oxygen radical, given as:

$$\theta_{O_2} = 1 - \frac{1}{\left(1 + \sqrt{\frac{k_{O_2}^{ads} C_{s,O_2}}{k_{O_2}^{des}}} \right)} \quad (5)$$

D. Boundary Conditions

Uniform velocity distributions and concentration of the incoming mixture at 300 K were specified at the inlet. The initial temperature of the solid wall is spatially uniform and equal to the incoming mixture temperature. Neumann boundary condition was given at the exit. Non-slip boundary condition was considered for the inner wall. The heat flux between fluid and solid wall is computed using the Fourier's law, and the continuity in temperature links the fluid and solid phases. The discrete ordinates (DO) model was used to consider the effect of interior surface to surface radiation [43]-[46]. At exterior surfaces, the total heat-loss rate includes both natural convection and thermal radiation, computed as:

$$q = h(T_{w,o} - T_\infty) + \varepsilon\delta(T_{w,o}^4 - T_\infty^4) \quad (6)$$

where h is the exterior convective heat transfer coefficient with a value of 20 W/m²·K [47]-[50]. $T_{w,o}$ is the outer wall temperature. T_∞ is the ambient temperature. ε is the emissivity of solid surface, taken to be 0.8. δ is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant.

E. Computation Scheme

The quasi-steady-state assumption (QSS) was invoked for the surface and gas-phase chemistry to eliminate the high computational cost of fully transient simulations. Most transient QSS models have employed one dimensional description for both the bulk-gas and solid phases. QSS necessitates gas-phase diffusive and convective timescales shorter than the heat conduction timescale in the solid phase, such that the gaseous flow temperature can equilibrate to the wall temperature at any time during the transient start-up process [21]. The integration time step Δt is selected to satisfy the QSS approximation, entailing characteristic chemical reaction, diffusion and convection times shorter than the corresponding heat conduction times in the solid phase. QSS approximation yields excellent agreement with full DNS simulations [21] when such criteria are satisfied. According to the timescale analysis of [20], the fixed integration time step $\Delta t = 50.0$ ms was selected. This time step is long enough to allow for equilibration of the chemical processes and gas-phase transport and at the same time sufficiently short to resolve the axial solid heat conduction.

In the present work, non-uniform meshes were used with more grids distributed in the reaction region near the wall to provide sufficient grid resolution in the computational domain. Grid independence was examined and the final grid density was determined when the centerline profiles of species concentration and temperature do not show obvious difference. Under these criteria, a non-uniform mesh with the distribution of 200×60 grid points in the axial and transverse directions was used. The mass, momentum, energy, species conservation equations and the conjugated heat conduction in solid walls

were solved by the computational fluid dynamics (CFD) software, FLUENT-KINETICS. The aforementioned conservation equations were solved implicitly with the 2D transient-state double-precision segregated solver using the under-relaxation method. The second-order upwind scheme and the "PISO" algorithm was used to discretize the model and employed to couple the pressure and velocity, respectively. The specific heat, fluid viscosity, and thermal conductivity were calculated using the mass fraction weighted average of species properties. The species specific heat was calculated using the piecewise polynomial fit of temperature. The transient solid energy equation was solved with a second-order accurate, fully implicit scheme and a quadratic backward time discretization [21]. A solution for the coupled solid phase and flow equations was obtained at each time step iteratively: convergence was reached as the solid temperatures at all axial positions do not vary between successive iterations by more than 10⁻⁵ K.

Gas-phase and surface reaction rates were evaluated with CHEMKIN [51] and Surface-CHEMKIN [52], respectively. Mixture-average diffusion was adopted, and transport properties were calculated from the CHEMKIN transport database [53].

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The micro-combustor initially contains only air, starting at ambient conditions of 300 K. The premixed hydrogen-propane-air mixtures is fed starting at the time $t = 0$ at the desired inlet velocity and equivalence ratio.

A. Hydrogen Requirement for Propane Self-Ignition

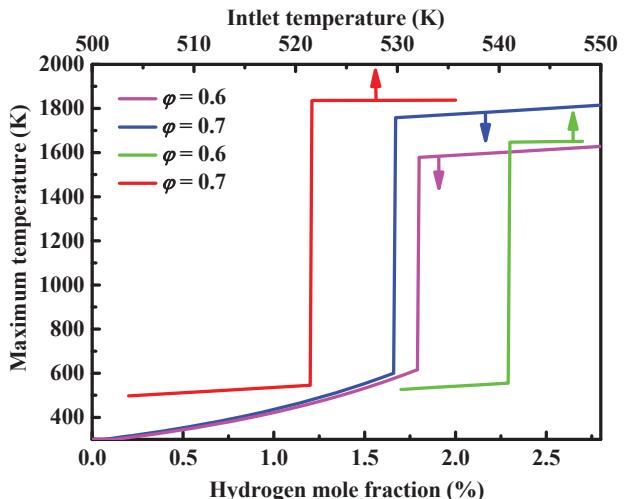


Fig. 2 Maximum temperature versus hydrogen mole fraction in hydrogen-assisted mode and inlet temperature in inlet feed preheating mode

Fig. 2 shows the maximum temperature versus hydrogen mole fraction in hydrogen-assisted mode at an inlet velocity of 10 m/s. In this case, the propane-air ratio is held constant. As the hydrogen concentration increases starting from a zero value, the flow rates of propane and air are reduced, as the hydrogen flow rate increases to maintain the total volumetric flow rate fixed. Simulations indicate that hydrogen can

successfully cause self-ignition of propane-air mixtures in catalytic micro-channels with a 0.2 mm gap size, eliminating the need for startup devices. Higher hydrogen compositions result in increased maximum temperature. As the hydrogen composition increases, the maximum temperature increases slowly until approximately the hydrogen mole fraction is approximately 1.7-1.8%. After a particular hydrogen composition, the heat released by hydrogen oxidation is sufficient to ignite propane and the turning point bifurcation is observed. This bifurcation behavior is consistent with the previous work [19]. The maximum temperature versus inlet temperature in inlet feed preheating mode (without hydrogen addition) are also shown in Fig. 2 for comparison. The temperature of bifurcation point in hydrogen-assisted mode is slightly higher than that in inlet feed preheating mode. In addition, higher equivalence ratio of propane-air mixtures results in earlier ignition.

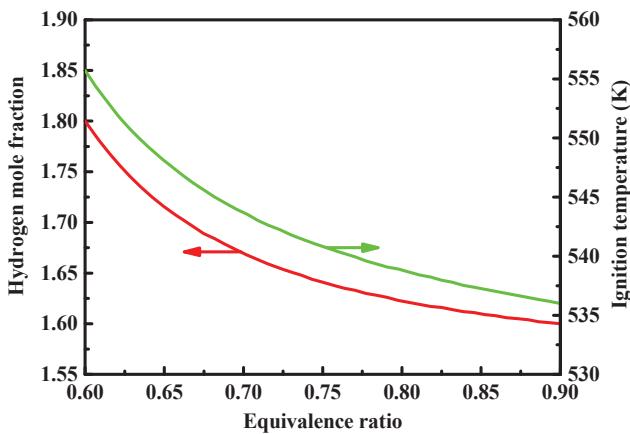


Fig. 3 Hydrogen requirement and ignition temperature versus different propane-air equivalence ratios

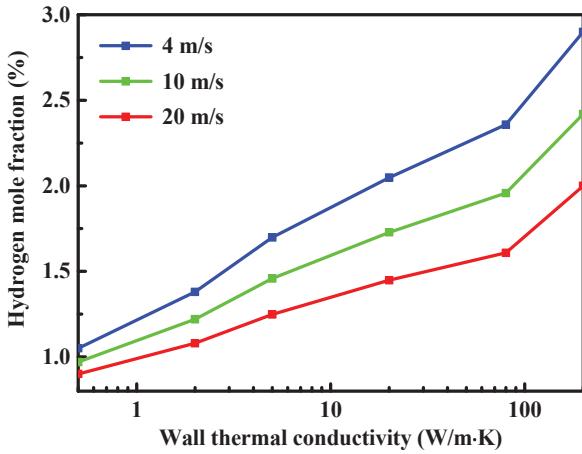


Fig. 4 Hydrogen requirement for different inlet velocities and wall thermal conductivities. The parameters used are φ (C_3H_8) = 0.7 and h = 20 W/m²·K

Fig. 3 shows hydrogen requirement for propane self-ignition of various equivalence ratios at an inlet velocity of 10 m/s. The propane ignition temperature in inlet feed preheating mode is

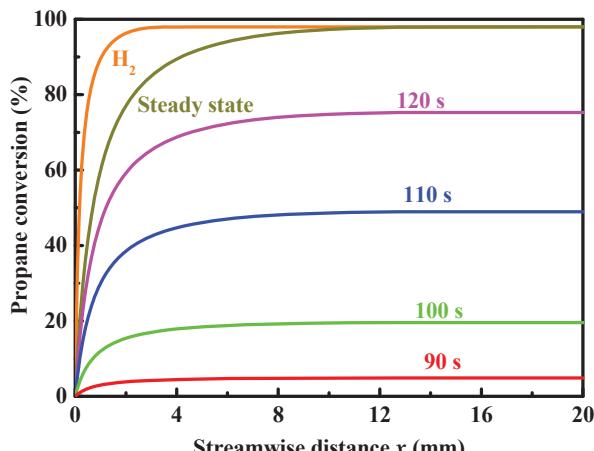
also shown in Fig. 3 for comparison. The minimum hydrogen composition for propane self-ignition is reduced with the increase of propane-air ratio. This behavior is consistent with the experimental observations by [23], who propose that the concentration of hydrogen needed for hydrocarbon ignition decreases as hydrocarbon concentration is increased. This trend in hydrogen-assisted mode is quite similar to that in inlet preheating mode.

Fig. 4 shows hydrogen requirement for propane self-ignition of various wall thermal conductivities. Both wall thermal conductivity and inlet velocity have a significant effect on hydrogen requirement. As observed, higher inlet velocities result in higher wall temperatures. As a result, hydrogen requirement reduces. Likewise, hydrogen requirement increases with the increase of wall thermal conductivity. This behavior is because the wall hot spots created near the inlet for lower thermal conductivity [20], [31], [38] help the mixtures get ignited with lesser hydrogen components. The hydrogen requirement for propane self-ignition varies in the range of 0.8-2.8% (on a molar basis).

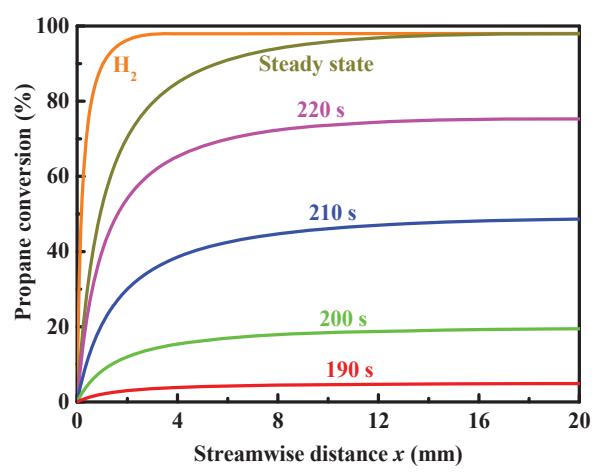
B. Ignition Characteristics and Transient Response

In this case, the propane-air ratio is kept fixed at 0.7, and the amount of hydrogen is 0.05% (on a molar basis) excess of the minimum amount required for propane self-ignition over platinum in the corresponding case. Transient responses of propane conversion, bulk-gas and interior-wall temperatures versus various wall thermal conductivities at an inlet velocity of 2 m/s are shown in Figs. 5-7, respectively.

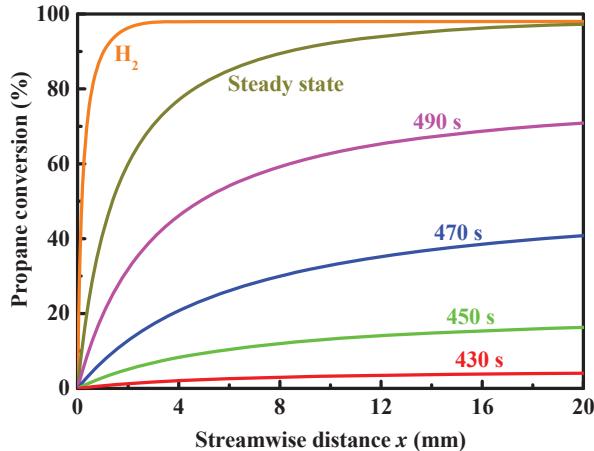
Hydrogen ignites in approximately 1.0-2.0 s and directly reaches its steady-state profile, as shown in Fig. 5. Note that the hydrogen conversion profiles change very slightly in most cases. Ignition time t_{ign} is defined as the time taken for catalytic conversion of propane to reach 50.0 % at the exit. As shown in Fig. 6, higher wall thermal conductivity results in the increase in ignition time from 98 s for insulating materials to 202 s for materials with moderate wall thermal conductivities, and 448 s for materials with higher wall thermal conductivities. This trend is caused by the heat localization within the walls with lower thermal conductivities, resulting in hot spot formation and faster ignition. In addition, the front-end ignition is observed in all cases. The bulk-gas and interior wall temperatures reach their steady-state values quickly once propane is ignited. The ignition characteristics in hydrogen-assisted mode qualitatively resemble those in inlet feed preheating mode [54]-[58]. In inlet feed preheating mode, a transition from back-end to middle of the micro-combustor to front-end ignition was observed as the wall thermal conductivity increases for the micro-combustor start-up. High inlet feed temperatures promote front-end ignition even for low conductivity walls. Front-end ignition through preheating the initial micro-combustor section provides significant reduction in ignition time and propane emissions.



(a) $k_s = 0.5 \text{ W/m}\cdot\text{K}$

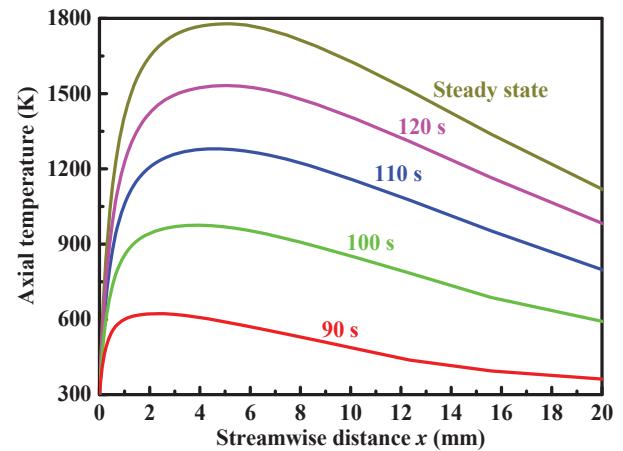


(b) $k_s = 20 \text{ W/m}\cdot\text{K}$

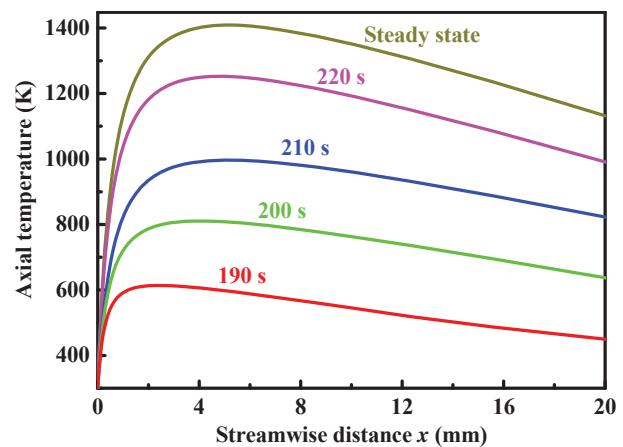


(c) $k_s = 200 \text{ W/m}\cdot\text{K}$

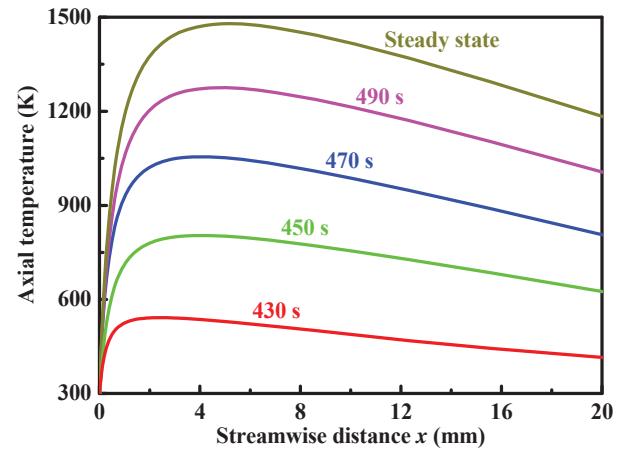
Fig. 5 Transient response of propane conversion profiles for various wall thermal conductivities. The parameters used are $\varphi (\text{C}_3\text{H}_8) = 0.7$, $u_0 = 2 \text{ m/s}$, and $h = 20 \text{ W/m}^2\cdot\text{K}$



(a) $k_s = 0.5 \text{ W/m}\cdot\text{K}$



(b) $k_s = 20 \text{ W/m}\cdot\text{K}$



(c) $k_s = 200 \text{ W/m}\cdot\text{K}$

Fig. 6 Transient response of bulk gas temperature profiles for various wall thermal conductivities. The parameters used are $\varphi (\text{C}_3\text{H}_8) = 0.7$, $u_0 = 2 \text{ m/s}$, and $h = 20 \text{ W/m}^2\cdot\text{K}$

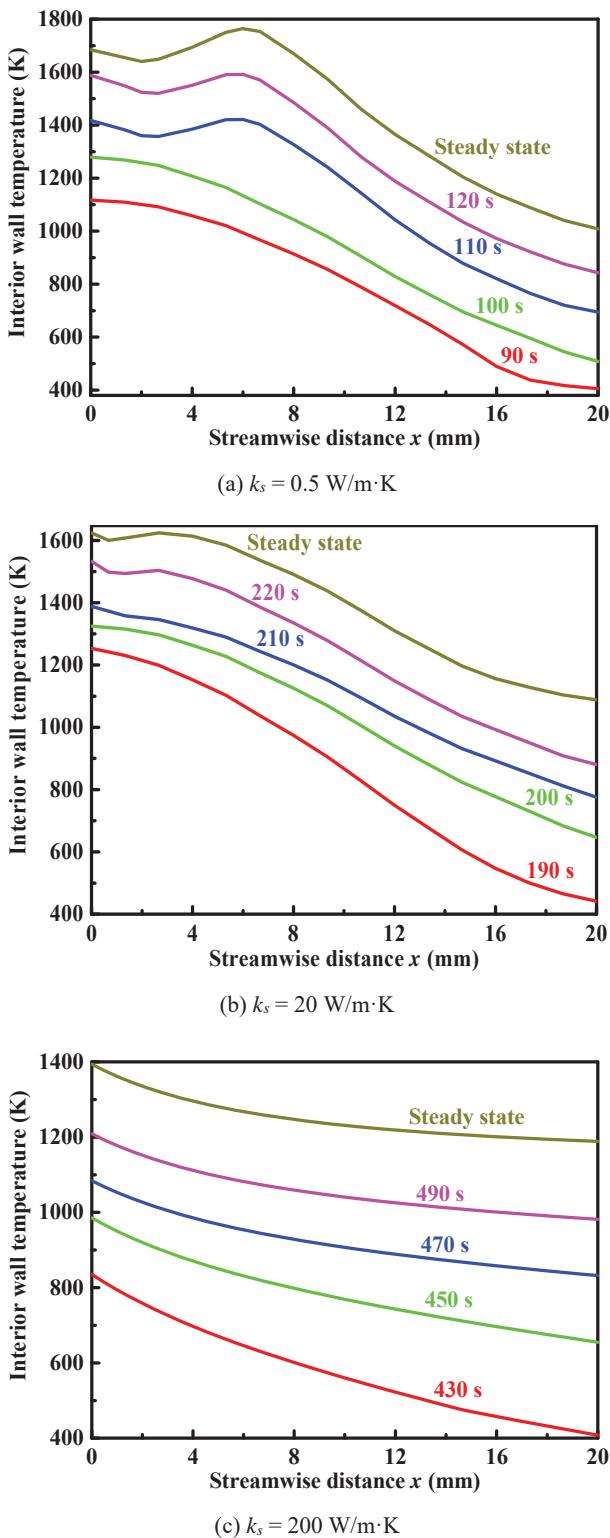


Fig. 7 Transient response of interior wall temperature profiles for various wall thermal conductivities. The parameters used are φ (C_3H_8) = 0.7, u_0 = 2 m/s, and h = 20 $W/m^2 \cdot K$

As shown in Fig. 7, the interior-wall temperatures first drop, then increase, and eventually drop again at steady-state for low conductivity walls. Hydrogen not only has thermal effects, but chemical effects as well, depending on the percentage of

hydrogen added. The above regularities are not due to any chemical effects as a result of the small amount of hydrogen addition. This trend is because hydrogen combustion region is located significantly upstream as compared with propane. In the region between them, the interior wall temperatures drop slightly as a result of heat losses to the surroundings. In addition, a similar dip in interior-wall temperatures is not observed in adiabatic simulations.

Fig. 8 shows the temperatures and propane conversions at the exit as a function of the cumulative time for various wall thermal conductivities. The triangles represent the ignition time, at which propane is ignited corresponding to 50.0% conversion. The circles represent the steady-state time, at which propane combustion taken to reach steady-state. Complete conversion of propane is achieved in all cases. Lower wall thermal conductivities cause earlier ignition of the mixed hydrogen-propane fuel, subsequently resulting in lower exit temperatures.

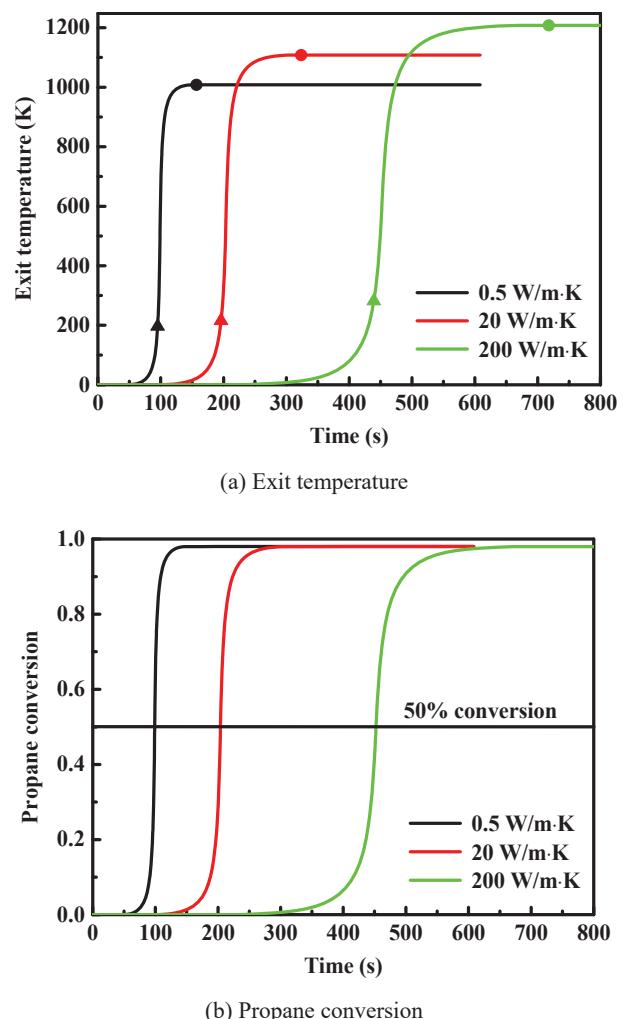


Fig. 8 Exit temperature and propane conversion profiles for different wall thermal conductivities. The parameters used are φ (C_3H_8) = 0.7, u_0 = 2 m/s, and h = 20 $W/m^2 \cdot K$. The circles denote the steady state time t_{ss} , and the triangles denote the ignition time t_{ign} .

In general, the premixed fuel-lean hydrogen-propane-air

mixtures over platinum can result in self-ignition without the need for an external preheater. The platinum catalyst allows instantaneous ignition of hydrogen, and followed by propane ignition after its ignition temperature is reached. A minimum hydrogen concentration in the range of 0.8-2.8 % (on a molar basis) is needed, and decreases for: lower wall thermal conductivity, higher inlet velocity, and higher propane-air ratio.

IV. CONCLUSION

Transient simulation of the hydrogen-assisted self-ignition of propane-air mixtures were carried out in platinum-coated micro-channels from ambient cold-start conditions, using a two-dimensional model with reduced-order reaction schemes, heat conduction, convection and surface radiation heat transfer. It has been shown that hydrogen can successfully cause self-ignition of propane-air mixtures in catalytic micro-channels with a 0.2 mm gap size, eliminating the need for startup devices. The minimum hydrogen composition for propane self-ignition is found to be in the range of 0.8-2.8% (on a molar basis), and increases with increasing wall thermal conductivity, and decreasing inlet velocity or propane composition. Higher propane-air ratio results in earlier ignition. The ignition characteristics qualitatively resemble the selectively inlet feed preheating mode. Hydrogen got ignited first, the resulting increase in wall temperature caused subsequent ignition of propane. Front-end propane ignition is observed in all cases. Low wall thermal conductivities cause earlier ignition of the mixed hydrogen-propane fuel, subsequently resulting in low exit temperatures.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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