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## The combustion mitigation of methane as a non-CO<sub>2</sub> greenhouse gas

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#### ABSTRACT

Anthropogenic emissions of non-CO2 greenhouse gases such as fugitive methane contribute significantly to global warming. A review of fugitive methane combustion mitigation and utilisation technologies, which are primarily aimed at methane emissions from coal mining activities, with a focus on modelling and simulation of ultra-lean methane oxidation/combustion is presented. The challenges associated with ultra-lean methane oxidation are on the ignition of the ultra-lean mixture and sustainability of the combustion process. There is a lack of fundamental studies on chemical kinetics of ultra-lean methane combustion and reliable kinetic schemes that can be used together with computational fluid dynamics studies to design and develop advanced mitigation systems. Mitigation of methane as a greenhouse gas calls for more efforts on understanding ultra-lean combustion. Recuperative combustion provides a promising means for mitigating ultra-lean methane emissions, Progress is needed on effective methods to ignite and to recuperate and retain heat for oxidation/combustion of the ultra-lean mixtures. Catalysts can be very effective in reducing the temperatures required for oxidation while plasmas may be utilised to assist the ignition, but thermodynamic/aerodynamic limits of burning ultra-lean methane remain unexplored. Further technological developments may be focussed on developing innovative capturing technology as well as technological innovations to achieve effective ignition and sustainable oxidation/combustion.

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#### Contents

Ι.	Background			
2.	Combustion mitigation and the scientific challenges			
	2.1.	Ultra-le	an methane combustion and the modelling approach	. 5
		2.1.1.	Overview of ultra-lean methane combustion	. 5
		2.1.2.	Numerical modelling approach for methane oxidation/combustion	. 6
	2.2.	Chemic	al kinetics for ultra-lean methane oxidation/combustion	ç
		2.2.1.	General background on combustion chemistry for methane oxidation	ç
			Chemical description of ultra-lean methane oxidation	
		2.2.3.	Effects of catalysts	12
		2.2.4.	Reduced chemical kinetics for ultra-lean methane oxidation	13
	2.3.	Develop	pment of chemical kinetic schemes and turbulent combustion modelling	14
		2.3.1.	General approach for developing kinetic schemes for ultra-lean methane oxidation	15
		2.3.2.	Turbulent combustion modelling of ultra-lean methane oxidation/combustion	16

Abbreviations: CFC, chlorofluorocarbon; CFD, computational fluid dynamics; CFRR, catalytic flow reversal reactor; CMM, coal mine methane; CMR, catalytic monolith reactor; CO<sub>2</sub>-eq, CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalent; CSIRO, Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organization; DNS, direct numerical simulation; EDC, eddy dissipation concept; EEC, excess enthalpy combustion; EGR, exhaust gas recirculation; GHG, greenhouse gas; GT, gas turbine; GWP, global warming potential; HFC, hydrofluorocarbon; LEM, linear-eddy model; LES, large eddy simulation; LLGHG, long-lived greenhouse gas; MD, molecular dynamics; MILD, moderate or intense low-oxygen dilution; ODS, ozone-depleting substance; ODT, one-dimensional turbulence; PDF, probability density function; PFC, perfluorocarbon; PSA, pressure swing adsorption; RANS, Reynolds-averaged Navier-Stokes; SGS, sub-grid scale; TFRR, thermal flow reversal reactor; TST, transition state theory; UQ, uncertainty quantification; VAM, ventilation air methane.

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#### X. Jiang et al./Progress in Energy and Combustion Science ■■ (2016) ■■-■■

Technological challenges and perspectives			
3.1.	VAM mitigation technical obstacles	17	
3.2.	Primary fuel systems for VAM mitigation	18	
3.3.	Ancillary use of low concentration methane	20	
4.1.	Challenges in combustion mitigation of ultra-lean methane mixtures	22	
4.2.	Promising research directions	22	
Acknowledgements			
References			
	3.1. 3.2. 3.3. Concl 4.1. 4.2. Acknowless		

#### 1. Background

Addressing climate change associated with anthropogenic emissions, either from human activities or from processes that have been affected by human activities, of greenhouse gases (GHGs) is a global challenge. Earth's climate is adversely affected as a result of the emissions of GHGs with carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) being the largest contributor, mainly from the utilisation of fossil fuels in combustion applications for energy conversion. Anthropogenic emissions of non-CO<sub>2</sub> greenhouse gases [1], such as methane ( $CH_4$ ), nitrous oxide ( $N_2O$ ), ozone-depleting substances (ODSs), hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs), perfluorocarbons (PFCs), sulphur hexafluoride (SF<sub>6</sub>) and nitrogen trifluoride (NF<sub>3</sub>), also contribute significantly to warming. In terms of the abilities to absorb available infrared radiation and their persistence in the atmosphere, these non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHGs are very different from CO<sub>2</sub>. The global warming potential (GWP), defined as the climate influence integrated over time and expressed relative to that of an equivalent mass of CO<sub>2</sub> emission, can be used to indicate the effectiveness of these non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHGs on global warming. All the major non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHGs have very large GWPs, e.g. CH<sub>4</sub> has a value of 25, N<sub>2</sub>O has a value of 298, SF<sub>6</sub> has a value of 22,800 and NF<sub>3</sub> has a value of 17,200 over a 100-year time horizon [2].

In the global combat against the adverse effects of GHG emissions, non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHGs must be taken into account, as non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHGs currently account for about one-third of total CO<sub>2</sub>-equivalent (CO<sub>2</sub>eq) emissions and 35-45% of total climate forcing from all longlived GHGs (LLGHGs) [1]. Since most anthropogenic emissions of the non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHGs are linked to society's fundamental needs for food, energy and industrial products, their emissions will continue to increase and further warm the earth unless substantial efforts are undertaken to reduce them worldwide. Although the major GHGs CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub>, and N<sub>2</sub>O occur naturally in the atmosphere, human activities have greatly changed their atmospheric concentrations. From the pre-industrial era ending at about 1750 to the present, concentrations of these three greenhouse gases have increased globally by 43, 152, and 20%, respectively [2]. This can cause a huge problem for the climate as the natural balance in our environment can be broken. For example, the global carbon cycle is made up of large carbon flows and reservoirs. Billions of tons of CO<sub>2</sub> are absorbed by carbon "sinks" such as oceans and living biomass, meanwhile they are emitted to the atmosphere through various "sources". When in equilibrium, the emissions of CO<sub>2</sub> to and the removals of CO<sub>2</sub> from the atmosphere are roughly balanced. Once the balance is broken, adverse or even catastrophic consequences might happen. The climate can also be adversely affected if the balances of non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHGs are broken.

Among the various non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHGs, N<sub>2</sub>O is mainly produced by biological processes that occur in soil and water and by a variety of anthropogenic activities in the agricultural, energy-related, industrial and waste management fields. Agricultural soil management, manure management, mobile source fuel combustion and stationary fuel combustion have been the major common sources of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions. Presently anthropogenic N<sub>2</sub>O emissions account for  $3.1 \pm 0.8$  GtCO<sub>2</sub>-eq per year [1], which is about 9% of the total radiative forcing (the difference of solar irradiance absorbed by the

Earth and energy radiated back to space). The enhanced use of fertiliser could increase  $N_2O$  emissions, and most emissions of  $N_2O$  are associated with feeding the world's growing population. Because of the relevance to food production, careful measures need to be taken when reducing the  $N_2O$  emissions. The  $N_2O$  mitigation strategies [1] could include more judicious application of fertiliser, increasing nitrogen uptake efficiency by crops, expanding the use of nitrification inhibitors, improving manure management strategies and expanding access to sewage treatment [3–5].

In the global effort to control non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHG emissions, there was a success associated with the significant reduction in ODSs of about 5 GtCO<sub>2</sub>-eq per year since 1990 [1], primarily because of the effectiveness of the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer [6]. ODSs are man-made chemicals that damage the ozone layer in the upper atmosphere (the stratosphere), including chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs), halons, etc. Measures following the Montreal Protocol such as banning the use of CFCs and limiting the critical use of halons had certainly helped. HFCs and PFCs are families of synthetic chemicals that do not deplete the stratospheric ozone layer; thus, have been used as acceptable alternatives for ODSs under the Montreal Protocol. These compounds, however, along with SF<sub>6</sub> and NF<sub>3</sub>, which are used in industrial sectors such as electrical transmission and distribution, semiconductor manufacturing, aluminium production, magnesium production and processing, are potent greenhouse gases. In addition to having high GWPs, SF<sub>6</sub> and PFCs have extremely long atmospheric lifetimes, resulting in essentially irreversible accumulation in the atmosphere once emitted. Although HFCs, PFCs, SF<sub>6</sub> and NF<sub>3</sub> are generally of small amounts [1], their controlled use is certainly important in the combat against global

In the context of energy utilisation and GHG emissions, CH<sub>4</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> are of paramount importance. Due to the vast amounts of literature available on CO<sub>2</sub> as a GHG, this review will not be focussed on CO<sub>2</sub> but on CH<sub>4</sub>, which is not only the predominant constituent of natural gas as one of the major fossil fuel sources but also the second largest GHG next to CO<sub>2</sub>. Presently CH<sub>4</sub> is the most abundant non-CO<sub>2</sub> GHG in the atmosphere. Methane's atmospheric increase since 1750 implies anthropogenic emissions of  $340 \pm 50 \text{ TgCH}_4$  per year or  $8.5 \pm 1.3 \text{ GtCO}_2$ -eq per year [1], which accounts for about 20% of the total radiative forcing from all of the long-lived and globally mixed GHGs, estimated at around 40-50 GtCO<sub>2</sub>-eq per year. Agriculture and fossil fuel exploitation together account for about 230 TgCH<sub>4</sub> per year or 5.8 GtCO<sub>2</sub>-eq per year, or two-thirds of all human-derived CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. The energy sector is a significant contributor to anthropogenic methane emissions, at around 30% [7]. The main activities causing methane emissions in the energy sector include oil and natural gas systems, coal mining and biomass combustion. Meanwhile, waste treatment and other industrial processes lead to smaller amount of CH<sub>4</sub> emissions.

Greenhouse gas emissions including those from non- $CO_2$  sources are not entirely understood. Although the GHG emission inventory (the percentage contributions of gases to anthropogenic GHG emissions) provides a solid foundation for the development of a more detailed and comprehensive strategy for the global action against

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