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# Numerical investigation of premixed hydrogen/air combustion at lean to ultra-lean conditions and catalytic approach to enhance stability

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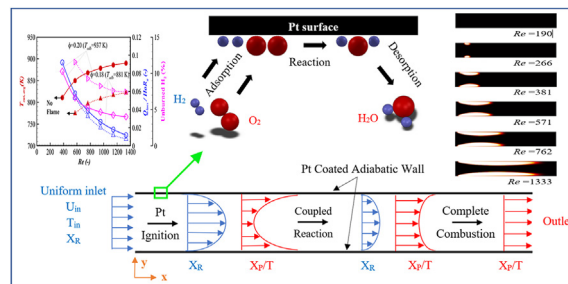
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## HIGHLIGHTS

- Premixed hydrogen/air combustion at lean to ultra-lean conditions.
- A stability map is presented for non-catalytic combustion.
- Catalyst enhances flame stability and provides complete hydrogen combustion.
- Radiation significantly affects combustion kinetics and flame temperature.
- $\text{NO}_x$  emission at lean to ultra-lean conditions investigated.

## GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT



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## ABSTRACT

Premixed combustion of hydrogen/air over a platinum (Pt) catalyst is numerically investigated in a planar channel burner with the aim of stabilising the flame at lean to ultra-lean conditions. A steady laminar species transport model is examined in conjunction with elementary heterogeneous and homogeneous chemical reaction schemes and validated against experimental results. A stability map is obtained in a non-catalytic burner for the equivalence ratios ( $\phi$ ) of 0.15–0.20, which serves as the basis for the catalytic flame analysis. Over the Reynolds numbers ( $Re$ ) investigated in the non-catalytic burner, no flame is observed for  $\phi \leq 0.16$ , and flame extinction occurs at  $Re < 571$  and  $Re < 381$  for  $\phi = 0.18$  and  $0.20$ , respectively. Moreover, a significant amount of unburned  $\text{H}_2$  exits the burner in all cases. With the Pt catalyst coated on the walls, complete  $\text{H}_2$  combustion is attained for  $0.10 \leq \phi \leq 0.20$  where the contribution of gas phase (homogeneous) reaction increases with  $Re$ . Furthermore, radiation on the wall and at the inlet affects the combustion kinetics and flame temperature. Finally,  $\text{NO}_x$  emission is investigated under the same conditions and found to increase with equivalence ratio but has a negligible effect with the inflow Reynolds number.

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### Nomenclature

|            |                                                 |
|------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| $D_m$      | mass diffusivity ( $m^2/s$ )                    |
| $e$        | total energy ( $J/kg$ )                         |
| $G$        | radiation intensity ( $W/m^2$ )                 |
| $h_i$      | enthalpy ( $J/kg$ ) of species ( $i$ )          |
| $HoR$      | heat of reaction ( $W$ )                        |
| $h$        | burner height ( $m$ )                           |
| $J_i$      | diffusion flux ( $kg/m^2s$ ) of species ( $i$ ) |
| $k_c$      | mass transfer coefficient ( $-$ )               |
| $L$        | burner wall ( $m$ )                             |
| $Le$       | Lewis number ( $-$ )                            |
| $m$        | total number of surface species ( $-$ )         |
| $n$        | total number of gas species ( $-$ )             |
| $p$        | pressure ( $Pa$ )                               |
| $Q_{loss}$ | net heat loss ( $W$ )                           |
| $Q_{rad}$  | radiation heat ( $W$ )                          |
| $q_{rad}$  | radiation heat flux ( $W/m^2$ )                 |
| $R$        | reaction rate ( $kg/m^3s$ )                     |
| $Re$       | Reynolds number ( $-$ )                         |
| $s$        | molar production rate ( $mol/m^2s$ )            |
| $Sh$       | Sherwood number ( $-$ )                         |
| $T$        | temperature ( $K$ )                             |
| $U_{in}$   | inlet velocity ( $m/s$ )                        |
| $X$        | mole fraction ( $-$ )                           |
| $Y$        | mass fraction ( $-$ )                           |
| $x$        | streamwise coordinate ( $m$ )                   |
| $y$        | transverse coordinate ( $m$ )                   |

### Greek symbols

|           |                                     |
|-----------|-------------------------------------|
| $\rho$    | density ( $kg/m^3$ )                |
| $\mu$     | dynamic viscosity ( $kg/ms$ )       |
| $\phi$    | equivalence ratio ( $-$ )           |
| $\lambda$ | thermal conductivity ( $W/mK$ )     |
| $\Gamma$  | surface site density ( $mol/cm^2$ ) |
| $\theta$  | surface coverage ( $-$ )            |

### Subscripts

|     |           |
|-----|-----------|
| a   | Actual    |
| adb | Adiabatic |
| avg | Average   |
| in  | Inlet     |
| max | Maximum   |
| out | Outlet    |
| W   | Wall      |

research on this technique has been growing with an aim to mitigate greenhouse gas emissions in combustion of hydrogen [5] or hydrogen enriched syngas mixtures [6]. Moreover, hydrogen enriched fuels are now of great interest to replace the fossil fuels in most gas-powered systems [7]. One example is a honeycomb monolith burner [8] consisting of multiple channels used in natural gas fired boiler or turbine applications. In practice, hydrogen non-catalytic combustion in such systems is not simple because of flame instabilities led to incomplete combustion [9,10]. Pizza et al. [9] investigated flame instabilities in a mesoscale planar burner considering heated wall with a hydrogen/air equivalence ratio of 0.5, and varying inflow velocities from 0.003 to 11 m/s. They categorised the instabilities as mild, ignition/extinction, oscillatory, symmetric, and asymmetric based on the flame shapes depending on the inflow velocities. In another study [11], they also discussed the similar flame instabilities in a microscale planar burner where the same inflow conditions were used. A flame can be stable, unstable or blowout in a particular inflow velocity depending on the hydrogen lean composition, as investigated in the experimental work of Schefer et al. [12] in a multi nozzle premixed burner. With an aim to increase the hydrogen/air flame stability, Yang et al. [13] experimentally investigated a converging-diverging tube burner considering various equivalence ratio (0.6–2.2) and inflow velocity (3.4–42 m/s). They found that the flame shape gets thicker and longer with an increased velocity, and the flame stability limit follows an increasing-decreasing trend with the equivalence ratio. However, the tendency to flashback of comparatively rich  $H_2$ /Air mixtures limits the applicability of non-catalytic burner due to safety issues. H.Pers et al. [14] experimentally explored possible flashback initiation of  $H_2$ /Air laminar flame in a premixed burner and discussed the effects of reactants preheat and wall temperature on flashback. Although some efforts are made considering pin fin arrays [15] and a pre-heater conductor plate [16] inside the reactor to maintain  $H_2$ /Air flame, this is only feasible with high inflow velocity.

In contrast, catalytic aided hydrogen combustion provides a lower activation energy [17], a higher flame stability limit [18], and the potential to reduce  $NO_x$  emissions [19]. However, hydrogen catalytic combustion involves complex chemical interactions with solid substrate, resulting in a number of homogeneous (gas phase) and heterogeneous (surface) reactions with increasing temperature [20], and the behaviour of which and impact on  $NO_x$  emission are beyond understanding in most applications. Therefore, prior to practical implementation, a comprehensive investigation is required for fundamental knowledge of heterogeneous kinetics and their coupling with corresponding homogeneous kinetics. Many studies have aimed at investigating hydrogen hetero-/homogeneous combustion in a planar burner because of its design simplicity and operation. For example, Appel et al. [21] experimentally investigated the hydrogen/air mixtures over platinum in a planar burner under fuel lean stoichiometric

## Introduction

Combustion using a catalyst is a promising technique to stabilise a premixed flame with low  $NO_x$  emission used in a number of applications [1–4] for many years. Recently,

condition (0.28–0.32), providing results of the onset of homogeneous ignition at different laminar inflow operations. In the same study they numerically studied several hetero-/homogeneous reaction schemes (four homogeneous and three heterogeneous) and addressed the effect of various combination of chemistry coupling. To observe the effect of catalytic reactivity ( $A_s$ ), Pizza et al. [22] numerically studied a 1 mm height microchannel with an equivalence ratio of 0.5. The results suggest that the catalyst loading controls the mode of combustion and an active catalyst is required to suppress undesirable flame. Similarly, Choi et al. [23] investigated a platinum catalytic micro planar combustor for a range of inflow conditions at stoichiometric  $H_2$ /Air mixtures. They found that the platinum catalyst concentration has no effect on reaction characteristics. However, the requirement of a catalyst depends on the specific fuel and catalyst type discussed in the previous study [22]. Again,  $H_2$  combustion using a catalyst is influenced by the wall thermal condition [24]. With an aim to improve hydrogen conversion rate, Y. Zhang et al. [24] investigated catalytic microchannel by varying solid wall thermal conductivity and outer wall heat transfer coefficient. They showed that the conversion rate of  $H_2$  is increased with lower wall thermal conductivity and heat transfer coefficient. The same team [25] also studied the self-ignition process of  $H_2$ /Air in microchannel catalytic considering radiation and convective heat dissipation. They showed that the self-ignition process is influenced by several factors which are dependent on temperature. Again, Sui et al. [26] studied combustion stability limits of hydrogen/air mixtures (equivalence ratio = 0.4) in platinum-coated microchannels by considering radiation heat transfer and solid heat conduction. They showed that lower solid thermal conductivity provides wider combustion stability and radiation heat loss towards inlet has a substantial effect on lowering wall temperature.

$H_2$ /Air premixed combustion in a catalytic planar burner has been carried out at elevated pressures. Mantzaras et al. [27] experimentally and numerically studied a hydrogen/air planar combustor with a pressure range of up to 10 bar and found homogeneous combustion suppression at high pressure (>4 bar) due to produced water that acts as a third body efficient radical for terminating gas phase reactions. Moreover, Ghermay et al. [18] investigated the same burner with preheat to gain a better understanding of the pressure/temperature dependence and catalytic chemistry coupling effect. Over the operating conditions considered, the results showed that the mass transport limited conversion of hydrogen and homogeneous combustion could be sustained at high pressure with preheating. Furthermore, the effect of hetero-/homo-geneous chemistry of hydrogen/air combustion in planar burner was studied by considering catalytic segmentation [25,28], burner aspect ratio [29,30], multiple channel [31], and addition of intermediate and final product on homogeneous combustion [32,33]. Besides, Zhang et al. [34] studied a planar model with platinum catalyst and obtained the critical range of equivalence ratio for transitioning from coupling chemistry reaction to pure catalytic/heterogeneous reaction. In another study [24], they investigated the effect of wall thermophysical conditions on hydrogen catalytic reaction and compared the performance in terms of the reaction efficiency and flame stability, which were favourable at higher

wall thermal resistance. Similarly, the recent experimental work of Lu et al. [35] reported that the wall heat loss has a significant effect on catalytic reaction. Additionally, they studied the critical equivalence ratio of transformation of reaction type (pure catalytic and hetero-/homo-geneous reaction) for an equivalence ratio range of 0.2–1.2. Hence, the mode (or type) of reaction inside a catalytic burner is highly influenced by the wall thermal conditions. However, an exploration is required to observe the effect of inflow velocity on transforming the reaction type (pure catalytic and hetero-/homogeneous reaction) inside a catalytic burner.

As discussed above, a catalytic combustor of planar type was of prime interest in most studies as it provides efficient interaction with fuel species as well as design flexibility in various applications. Again, the low flame temperatures in such system are vital for zero  $NO_x$  emission. For this, the ultra-lean mixtures are preferable, however, there are limited investigations on it. The underlying physics of flame at an ultra-lean condition is to be investigated to get a full understanding of  $NO_x$  reduction process. Moreover, wall thermal condition in a planar burner was considered convective heat loss or fixed temperature in previous studies but an adiabatic assumption is more practical for modelling a multi-channel honeycomb burner as heat is uniformly distributed in this case. Hence, the heat conduction in solid wall has not been considered in the present study. Furthermore, a flame stability analysis is necessary for this condition to observe the challenges prior to switching to catalytic approach.

The present work undertakes a numerical study on both non-catalytic and catalytic planar models for hydrogen/air combustion. The computations on two-dimensional laminar flow species transport model with multicomponent diffusion were carried out. Both homogeneous and heterogeneous kinetics were included in species transport modelling. A stability map as a function of Reynolds number for homogeneous combustion under fuel lean operation of equivalence ratio of 0.18 and 0.20 was obtained. The objectives were to assess the gas phase stability map and to delineate the catalytic approach for hydrogen/air combustion with  $NO_x$  emission over a range of equivalence ratio (0.10–0.20).

The article is organised as follows. First, the numerical model of planar burner is validated with experimental measurements. Then a stability map is obtained and discussed for homogeneous combustion in non-catalytic burner. Transition of chemistry coupling in catalytic burner, and their effects are analysed with species average mole fraction profiles, average temperature profiles and contour plots. Finally,  $NO_x$  emission characteristics are discussed.

## Computational modelling

Fig. 1 shows a schematic of a planar burner having a dimension of  $h = 7$  mm between two parallel Pt coated plates. The chemically reacting gas flow through the burner is governed by the Navier-Stokes, energy and species transport equations which are solved considering steady-state, laminar and multicomponent flow assumptions. The equations solved are stated as follows:

Continuity equation:

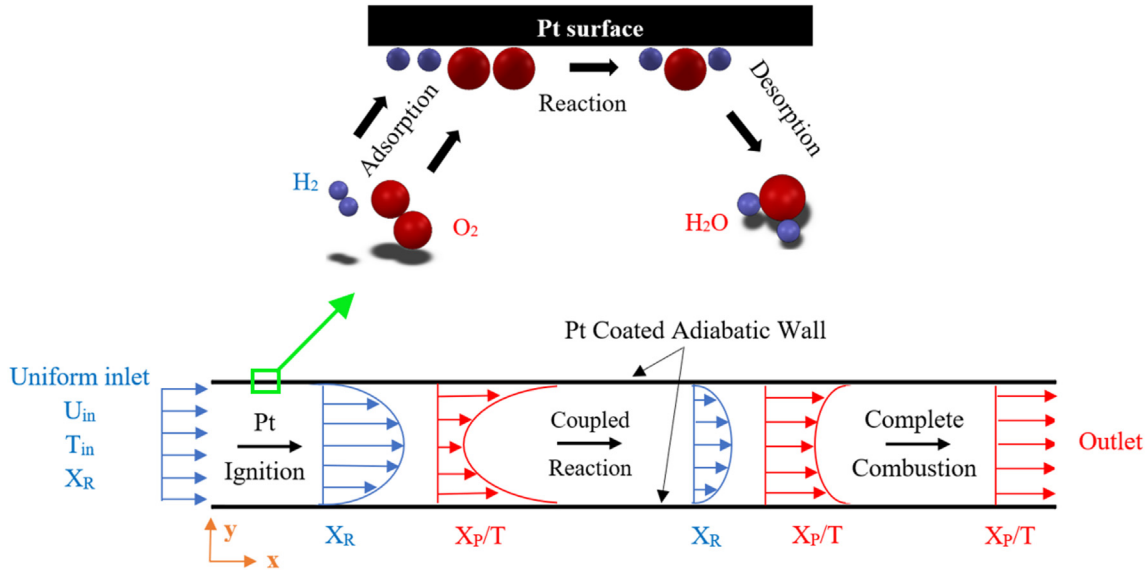


Fig. 1 – Schematic of the catalytic burner geometry ( $L$  – burner length,  $h$  – gap between wall).

$$\nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{u}) = 0 \quad (1)$$

Where  $\rho$  is the density,  $\mathbf{u}$  is the velocity vector.

Momentum equations:

$$\nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}) = \nabla \cdot \mu \left[ \nabla \mathbf{u} + (\nabla \mathbf{u})^T - \frac{2}{3} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u}) \mathbf{I} \right] - \nabla p \quad (2)$$

where  $\mu$  is the dynamic viscosity,  $p$  is the pressure,  $\mathbf{I}$  is the unit tensor.

Energy equation:

$$\nabla \cdot (\mathbf{u}(\rho e + p)) = \nabla \cdot \left( \lambda \nabla T - \sum_{i=1}^n h_i \mathbf{J}_i + \boldsymbol{\tau} \cdot \mathbf{u} \right) \quad (3)$$

where  $e$ ,  $T$ ,  $\lambda$ ,  $h_i$ ,  $\mathbf{J}_i$  and  $\boldsymbol{\tau}$  denote the total energy including pressure work and kinetic energy, temperature, thermal conductivity, species enthalpy, species diffusion flux and viscous stress tensor, respectively. Here,  $n$  is the total number of gas species ( $i$ ).

Species transport equations:

$$\nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{u} Y_i) = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{J}_i + R_i \quad (4)$$

Here,  $Y_i$  is the species mass fraction. The species diffusion fluxes ( $\mathbf{J}_i$ ) are computed from the multicomponent diffusion equations of Maxwell-Stefan [36] considering the thermal diffusion for light species. The source term,  $R_i$  is the result of the rate of production and destruction of gas species ( $i$ ).

Surface species coverage equations:

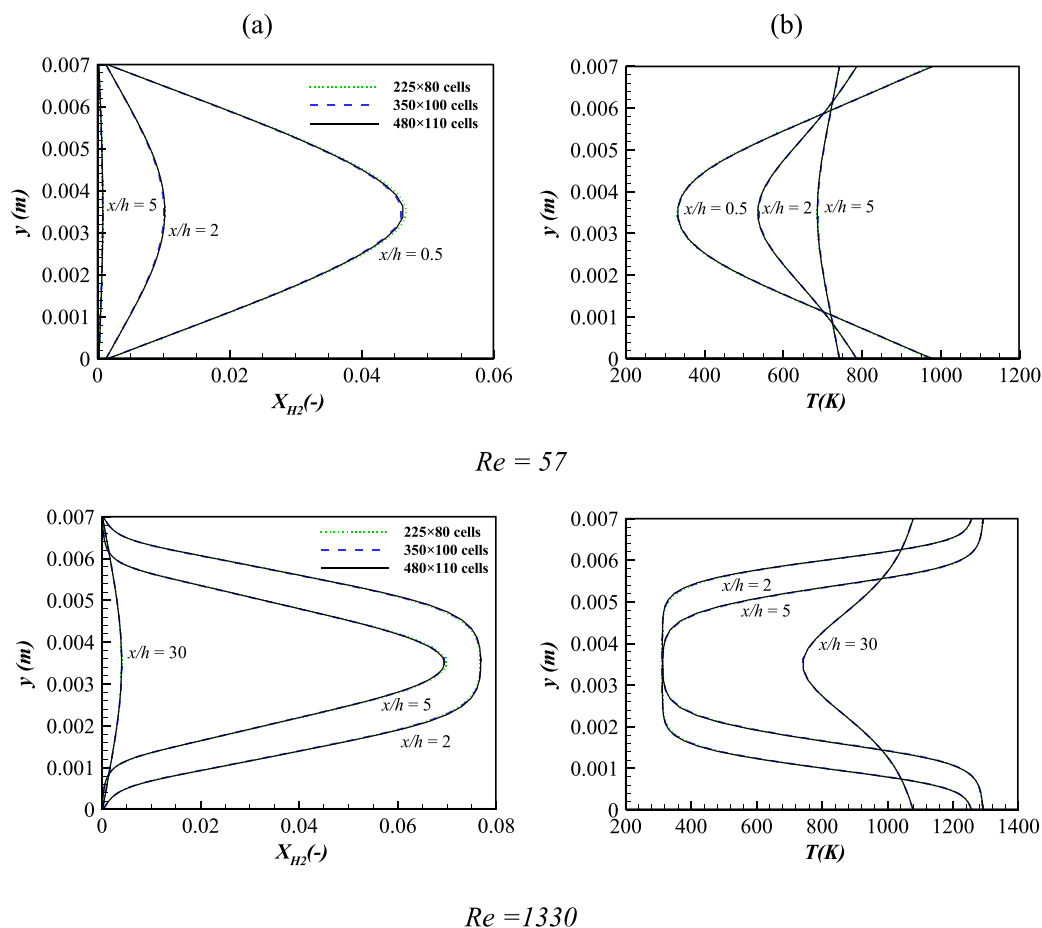
$$\frac{d\theta_j}{dt} = \frac{s_j}{\Gamma} = 0 \quad (j = 1, 2, \dots, m) \quad (5)$$

Where  $\theta$ ,  $s$  and  $\Gamma$  are the surface species coverage, surface species molar production rate and surface site density, respectively. The alteration of species site coverage that is a fraction of the surface sites covered by species ( $j$ ) calculated from the above equation (5). The production rate ( $s$ ) for each surface species is computed considering both gas and surface

species' production and destruction by the surface reactions. Here,  $m$  is the total number of surface species ( $j$ ). At the steady-state condition, the transient term of the equation vanishes and the net production rate equals to zero.

The boundary condition for burner wall is considered to be no slip and adiabatic. The interfacial gas-wall boundary ( $y = 0$  and  $y = h$ ) conditions for gas-phase species are  $(\rho Y_i V_{i,y})_y = W_i s_i$ . Where  $V_i$ ,  $W_i$ , and  $s_i$  are the gaseous species diffusion velocity, molecular weight and heterogeneous molar production rate, respectively. Inflow boundary conditions are set uniform for velocity, temperature, and the species mass fraction. A zero gradient boundary condition is imposed at the outlet for all the properties and the pressure is specified as atmospheric. To simulate the radiation effects between the inner surfaces, at the inlet and outlet, the discrete ordinates (DO) model is used. The DO radiation model is uncoupled, in which energy iterations per radiation iteration is set to 10. The radiation heat transfer from a hot reaction zone towards the inlet and outlet are considered at boundary temperature. The internal emissivity of 1.0 is set for Pt-coated surface, the inlet and outlet enclosures. The Pt catalyst wall acts as an igniting medium of the incoming premixed  $\text{H}_2/\text{air}$  mixture, releasing radicals and heat that promote the gas phase reaction.  $\text{H}_2/\text{air}$  lean mixtures (varying  $\phi = 0.10$ – $0.20$ ) are considered at the inlet temperature of 312 K. Such flow conditions are chosen to represent a range of low temperature heating applications, covering the inflow velocity from 0.075 m/s to 3.5 m/s at 1 atm. These conditions can be characterised by the flow Reynolds number based on the burner height ( $h = 7$  mm). The upper limit of the Reynolds number studied is 1333 which is below the critical Reynolds number 1400 and thus justifies the laminar assumption in the present configuration.

The above governing equations were discretized and solved on a structured grid using Finite Volume Method (FVM). The grid with  $350 \times 100$  points (in the  $x$  axis and  $y$  axis, respectively) over the burner domain ( $250 \text{ mm} \times 7 \text{ mm}$ ) was



**Fig. 2 – Grid test: Transverse profiles at three selected streamwise locations, (a) hydrogen mole fraction ( $X_{H_2}$ ) (b) Temperature ( $T$ ),  $\phi = 0.20$ ,  $T_{in} = 312$  K.**

sufficient to obtain a grid independent solution. Grid towards the inlet and walls were refined to capture the high gradients of flow variables. The near upstream node and near wall node were positioned at  $x/h$  (from inlet) = 0.033 mm and  $y/h$  (from catalytic wall) = 0.0061 mm, respectively. An example of grid test is presented in Fig. 2 which ensures the grid requirement for the Reynolds number from 57 to 1333. However, the burner length in this study was also extended up to 700 mm for capturing the entire reaction zone at higher Reynolds numbers of interest. As a result, a total of  $900 \times 100$  grid points in the extended domain was used keeping the same resolution near upstream and also at the near wall region. Ansys Fluent 2020 R2 version was used to carry out computations. A 2-D double precision planar steady-state solver was selected, and viscous model was set to laminar. Species transport model was used to solve the volumetric and wall surface reactions using a stiff chemistry solver with finite rate chemistry. For pressure velocity coupling, SIMPLE algorithm was used. Spatial discretization method for the gradients and pressure were specified as least square cell based and second order, respectively. To ensure accuracy, momentum, energy, and species equations were spatially discretized with a second order upwind method. The simulation terminates when the convergence criteria of  $10^{-6}$  for all the residuals were met or the residuals approach steady states.

### Chemical kinetics

A detailed mechanism of surface reactions [37] for hydrogen oxidation over the platinum catalyst, was used in this study. The mechanism consists of eleven irreversible and three reversible reactions and, has five surface and six gaseous species. The platinum surface site density ( $I$ ) was set to  $2.7 \times 10^{-9}$  mol/cm<sup>2</sup> [37]. The homogeneous gas phase chemistry proposed by Warnatz et al. [38] was used with the heterogeneous surface chemistry, which includes nine species and nineteen elementary reactions. CHEMKIN [39] and Surface-CHEMKIN [40] were used to calculate the homogeneous and heterogeneous reaction rates, respectively, while the transport properties were evaluated from the CHEMKIN transport database [41]. Furthermore, to simulate NO<sub>x</sub> emission, a NO<sub>x</sub> kinetic scheme is added to gas phase kinetics for the catalytic burner. As mentioned in many studies, NO<sub>x</sub> in H<sub>2</sub>/air combustion comes mainly from NO and NO<sub>2</sub>. NO can be produced in three ways: the thermal route using Zeldovich mechanism [42], the N<sub>2</sub>O route and the NNH route [43]. The thermal NO is significant in high flame temperature combustion which is available in the Ansys Fluent module and estimated at post-processing stage. The kinetics of the N<sub>2</sub>O route and NNH route are taken from Glarborg et al. [43] and are considered responsible for NO<sub>x</sub> emission over a wide range of



lean combustion. The well-established  $\text{NO}_2$  reaction of Howard et al. [44], is considered to estimate  $\text{NO}_2$ . However, the mixture gas viscosity and thermal conductivity were computed using mass weighted mixing law. Both the multicomponent and thermal diffusions were considered in the simulation and the kinetic theory was used for the calculation of binary mass diffusion coefficients and thermal diffusion coefficients.

### Validation of the numerical simulations

In order to validate the numerical model, the computed results are compared against the existing experimental results [21]. The burner configuration chosen was the same as experiment [21]. Inflow parameters from the experiment were copied exactly in simulation and the measured temperatures along the burner length were used as a wall boundary condition. An extensive validation was carried out at different flow conditions and, the profiles of species mole fraction as well as temperature in five axial locations were compared. An example of validated results for  $\varphi = 0.28$ ,  $T_m = 312$  K,  $Re = 762$  is shown in Fig. 3(a). The overall agreement between the measured and computed results is excellent and the maximum deviation is estimated only less than 3%. Besides, a comparison of the onset of homogeneous ignition is also presented in terms of the OH contour plot in Fig. 3(b) which further confirms the accuracy of the numerical model used in the work.

## Results and discussion

A stability map of the fuel lean  $\text{H}_2/\text{air}$  combustion in non-catalytic burner is firstly presented, to gain a comprehensive understanding of the challenges and also to facilitate the discussion of the importance of using a catalyst under similar operating conditions. Then, a comparison is made between pure catalytic and coupled chemistry (hetero-/homogeneous reactions). Finally,  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions are computed.

### Flame stability map in non-catalytic burner

The flame stability map of premixed fuel lean  $\text{H}_2/\text{air}$  is shown in Fig. 4(a). The computations of fuel lean conditions were performed under wall adiabatic condition by varying the inflow Reynolds number ( $Re$ ). The  $\varphi$  for  $\text{H}_2/\text{air}$  is considered here just above the lower flammability limit from 0.15 to 0.20. Prior to combustion, the  $\text{H}_2/\text{air}$  mixtures is ignited on both surface wall at a distance  $0.5h$  from inlet. The ignition temperature is set equal to adiabatic temperature of respective stoichiometric condition. The average outlet temperature ( $T_{out,avg}$ ) (Left axis) of products and the dimensionless heat loss at the inlet ( $Q_{loss}/\text{HoR}_a$ ) (1st right axis) and unburned  $\text{H}_2$ (%) (2nd right axis) exiting the burner outlet are presented as a function of  $Re$ . Here,  $Q_{loss}$  is defined as the net heat leaving the burner through the inlet and calculated from the following expression:

$$Q_{loss} = Q_{rad} - H \quad (6)$$

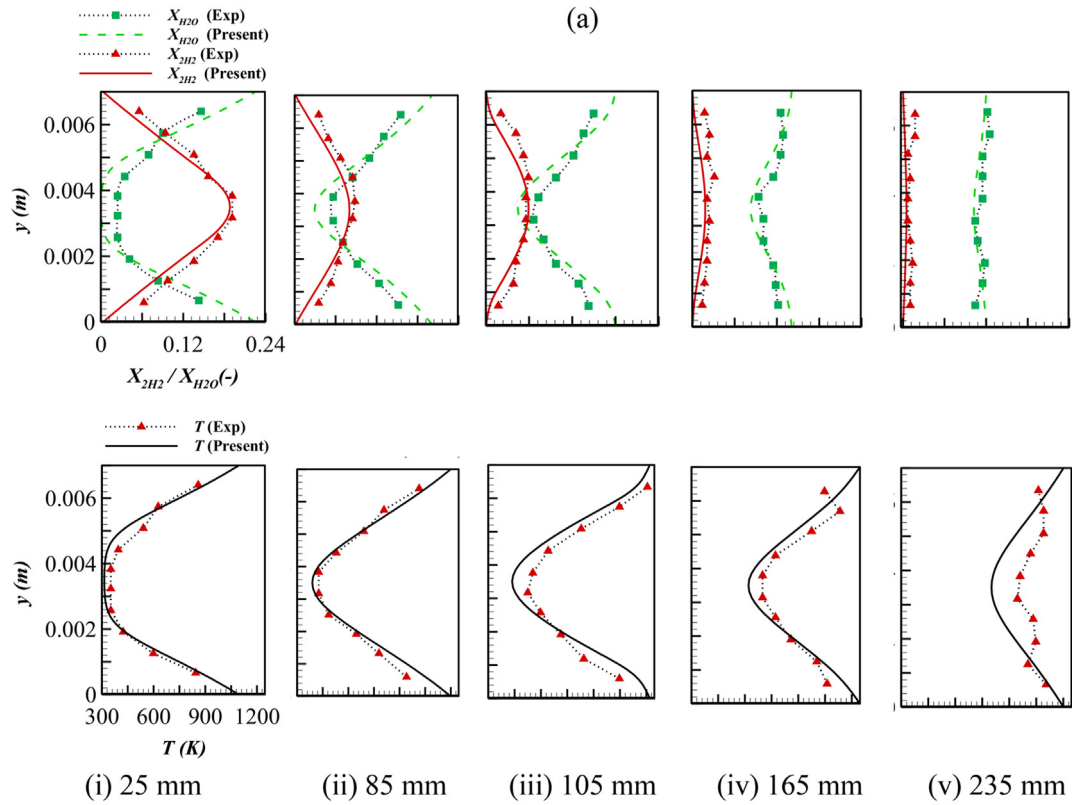
Where  $Q_{rad}$  and  $H$  are the radiation heat and enthalpy flux through the inlet boundary, respectively.  $Q_{loss}$  is made dimensionless with the actual heat of reaction ( $\text{HoR}_a$ ) inside the burner. The dashed and solid lines denote the results of

the equivalence ratio ( $\varphi$ ) of 0.18 and 0.20, respectively. It should be noted that for  $\varphi \leq 0.16$  no flame is observed under the present operating conditions, but the flame extinction lower limit for  $\varphi = 0.18$  and  $\varphi = 0.20$  is found below  $Re < 571$  and  $Re < 381$ , respectively as pointed out by the arrows in the temperature results.  $T_{out,avg}$  measured both cases gradually increases with  $Re$  and this variation is due to the unburned  $\text{H}_2$  exiting the burner and the radiation heat loss at the inlet. At a low  $Re$ , high radiation heat loss causes a low flame temperature in the reaction zone and consequently, less  $\text{H}_2$  conversion. The maximum unburned  $\text{H}_2$  at the near flame extinction limit is obtained 11.5% and 10.3% for  $\varphi = 0.18$  and  $\varphi = 0.20$ , respectively. Again, as the  $Re$  increases, the radiation heat loss gradually decreases. Therefore, there is increased flame temperature with  $Re$ . However, the flame extinction higher limit is not obtained within the  $Re$  studied here.

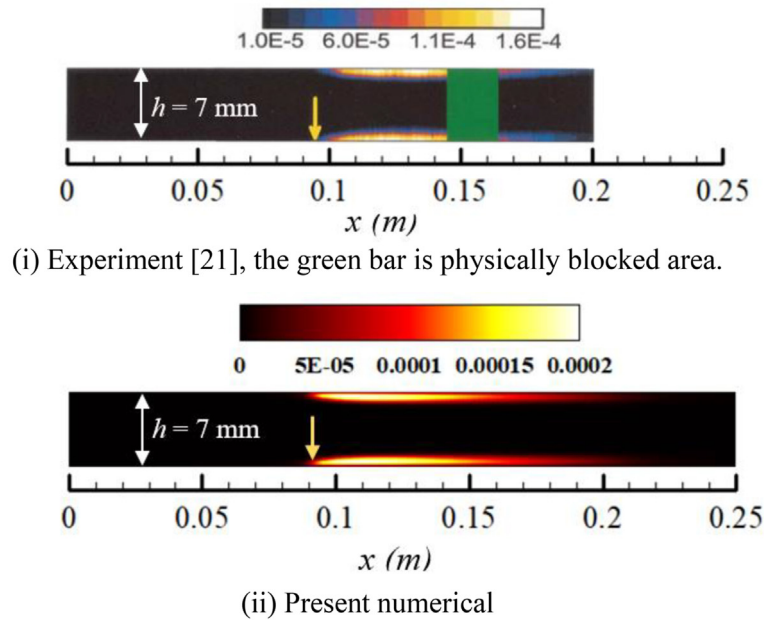
Fig. 4(b) shows average mole fraction (Left axis) of  $\text{H}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , and average temperature (Right axis) for  $\varphi = 0.20$  along the burner length ( $x/h$ ). Solid line and dashed line denote the results of  $Re = 762$  and  $Re = 1333$ , respectively. The OH mole fraction on the wall shows the onset position where the flames are ignited. As shown, the flame ignition for both  $Re$  is almost at the same position and, precisely within 0.20–0.30 of  $x/h$ .  $T_{avg}$  increases up to a certain burner length as a result of the high rate of  $\text{H}_2$  consumption, then decreases to a constant value. As expected, the trend of  $X_{\text{H}_2\text{O},avg}$  is similar. However, the position at which the flame peak temperature occurs is varied respectively at  $x/h = 10$  and  $x/h = 14.3$  for  $Re = 762$  and  $Re = 1333$ . The interesting point is that there is no change in  $X_{\text{H}_2,avg}$  beyond the position of the flame peak temperature for both cases. The reason is the position of reaction zone attached to the wall keeping  $\text{H}_2$  unburned in the burner centre region as shown in Fig. 5(a). As the results indicate, most of  $\text{H}_2$  is consumed within the reaction zone and after that no further reaction of  $\text{H}_2$  takes place. Again, the peak temperatures exceed the adiabatic flame temperature ( $T_{adb} = 937$  K) and are pronounced near the wall of the burner. This is because of diffusional imbalance of the  $\text{H}_2/\text{air}$  mixture as the Lewis number of  $\text{H}_2$  is below unity (i.e.  $Le = 0.3$ ). Therefore, the  $\text{H}_2$  species high affinity towards the hot reaction zone causes a comparatively rich mixture and high temperature. To get a better understanding of the reaction zone, the temperature contour plots are shown in Fig. 5(b) for three different  $Re$ . As the main interest is on the reaction zone near upstream, only 3/7 of the burner length is presented. The high temperature region near the wall is the reaction zone and the shape of the zone is symmetric about the burner mid plane. At low  $Re = 381$ , the reaction zone is confined to a small region near upstream. As  $Re$  increases, the reaction zone elongates along the burner length. Such behaviour was also predicted in the same burner by Pizza et al. [9] but at different inflow conditions ( $\varphi = 0.50$  and  $1110 < Re < 2960$ ), and they defined the flame as an open symmetric steady flame. However, it is worth noting that complete  $\text{H}_2$  conversion is not attained at the burner exit under the current operating condition.

### Catalytic burner combustion

To investigate the catalytic effect in the same burner, the wall is considered as a Pt coated reacting surface, and the



(b)



**Fig. 3 – Comparisons of (a) species and temperature profiles at axial positions (b) OH contour plot (arrow indicates the onset of homogeneous ignition),  $\phi = 0.28$ ,  $T_{in} = 312$  K,  $Re = 762$ .**

elementary chemistry of Deutchmann et al. [37] is implemented including the gas phase chemistry. The other boundary conditions are kept similar as in the non-catalytic burner.

*Flame stability*

Fig. 6 shows the OH contours inside the catalytic burner at different operating conditions. The results are presented for four equivalence ratios ( $\phi$ ) of 0.10, 0.15, 0.18 and 0.20.  $H_2$

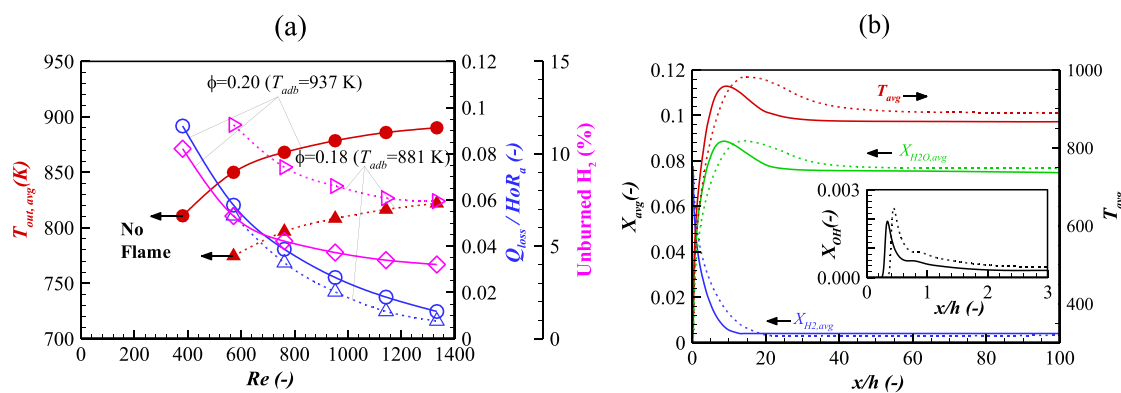


Fig. 4 – H<sub>2</sub>/air combustion in non-catalytic burner (a) stability map as a function of Re (b) Average value along the burner length ( $\phi = 0.20$ ,  $T_{in} = 312$  K): Left Axis- Mole fraction ( $X_{avg}$ ); Right Axis- Temperature ( $T_{avg}$ ). OH mole fraction is taken on surface wall. Re = 762 (solid line); Re = 1333 (dashed line).

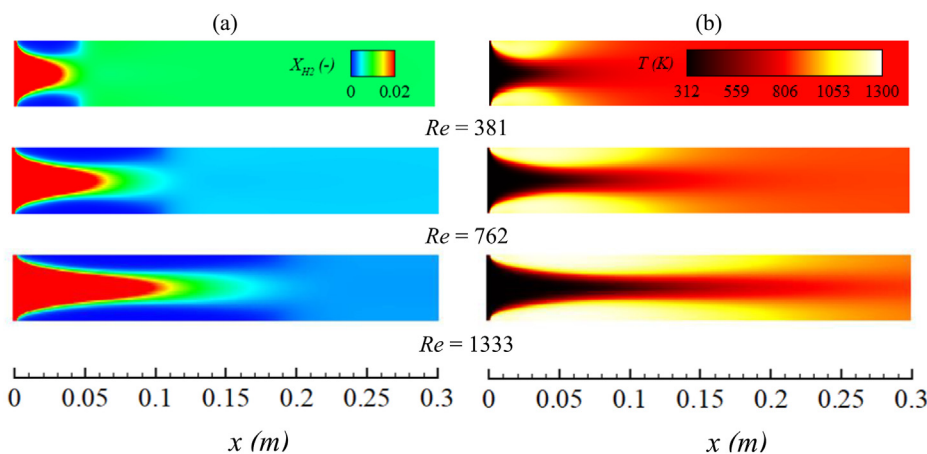


Fig. 5 – Contour plots at different Reynolds numbers inside non-catalytic burner for  $\phi = 0.20$ ,  $T_{in} = 312$  K (a) hydrogen mole fraction ( $X_{H_2}$ ) (b) Temperature ( $T$ ).

conversion is achieved 99.9% at the burner exit almost in all the cases except in a few cases where  $\phi = 0.10$  at high Reynolds number. Only the  $X_{OH}$  contour plot of  $x/h = 30$  is shown to focus the interest. The  $X_{OH}$  scale is kept  $0\text{--}10^{-4}$  to capture the onset of homogeneous combustion. The equivalence ratio of  $\phi = 0.10$  represents an ultra-lean mixture as that is below the lower flammability limit of hydrogen. For this case, no significant  $X_{OH}$  is observed over the range of  $Re$  considered, which indicates pure catalytic conversion of H<sub>2</sub>. At a near flammability limit ( $\phi = 0.15$ ), the flame is ignited near the burner wall at  $x/h = 10$  when  $Re$  is 571. However, as  $Re$  increases, the onset position remains approximately the same, and the flame shape is elongated along the burner length. Whereas, at a lower  $Re < 571$ , flame is not ignited because of the high radiation heat loss at the inlet as shown in Fig. 7 (a). Under such conditions, pure catalytic (i.e., heterogeneous) chemistry (PC) plays the main role in complete H<sub>2</sub> combustion, which will be discussed in more details in the later section. Again, flame ignition occurs at a lower  $Re = 381$  for  $\phi = 0.18$  and the onset position shifts toward the inlet. This is due to the comparatively rich H<sub>2</sub>/air

mixture closer to the upstream near catalytic surface and releases high heat promoting flame ignition. This effect is also observed for  $\phi = 0.20$  where the onset position is very close to the inlet.

Fig. 7 (a) shows the dimensionless heat loss ( $Q_{loss}/HoRa$ ) (right axis) at the inlet and the convective heat ( $H$ ) (left axis) as a function of  $Re$ . The heat loss is dependent on  $\phi$  as the radiating temperatures are different. At a low  $Re$  for all  $\phi$ , the heat loss is very high and then gradually decreases with  $Re$ . However, the heat loss becomes negative at high  $Re > 952$  cases for  $\phi = 0.10$ . This is because  $H$  dominates over  $Q_{rad}$  at the inlet, and thus the  $(Q_{rad} - H)$  becomes negative which further indicates no heat leaving the burner inlet. As expected, the convective heat increases with  $Re$  and is independent on  $\phi$ . As also mentioned earlier, the radiation heat loss through inlet has a significant influence on the flame temperature and reaction kinetics. However, the average flame outlet temperatures ( $T_{out,avg}$ ) with increasing  $Re$  for catalytic combustion are shown in Fig. 7 (b). The arrow denotes the transition of pure catalytic chemistry (PC) to coupled (hetero-/homogeneous) chemistry (CC) reaction.



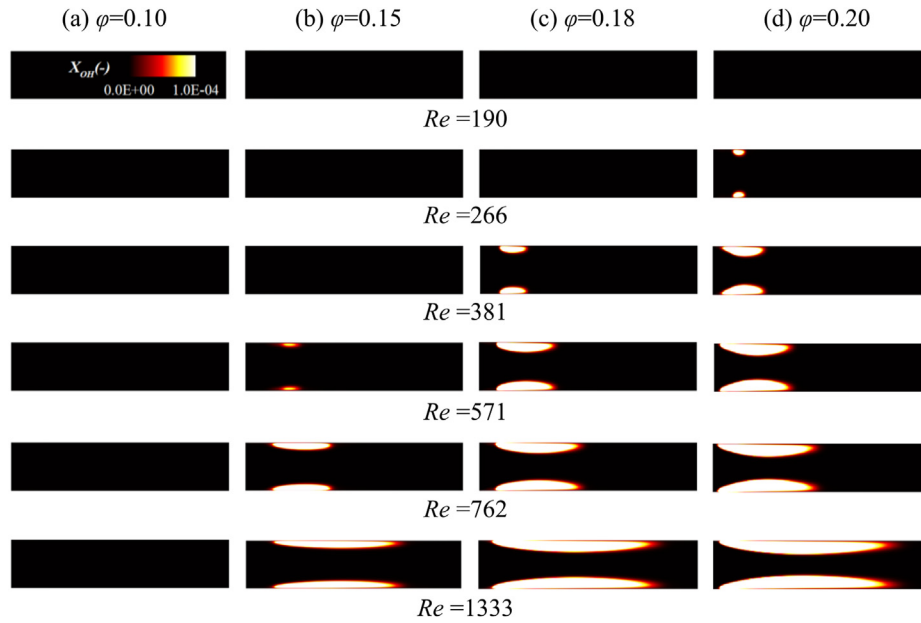


Fig. 6 – OH contour plot inside catalytic burner (up to  $x/h = 30$ ) at different  $Re$ ,  $T_{in} = 312$  K.

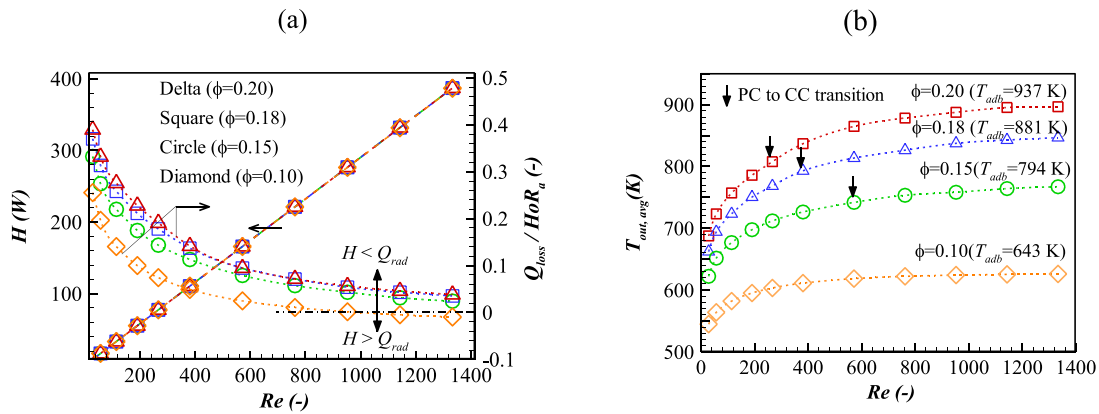
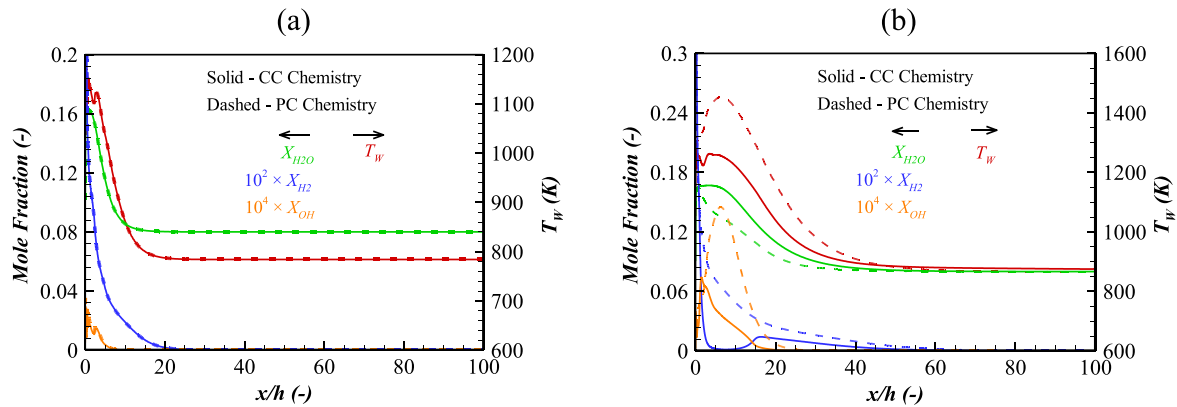


Fig. 7 – Catalytic burner: (a) Left axis: Enthalpy flux at inlet ( $H$ ), Right axis: Net heat loss at inlet ( $Q_{loss}/HoR_a$ ) (b) Average outlet temperature ( $T_{avg,out}$ ),  $T_{in} = 312$  K.

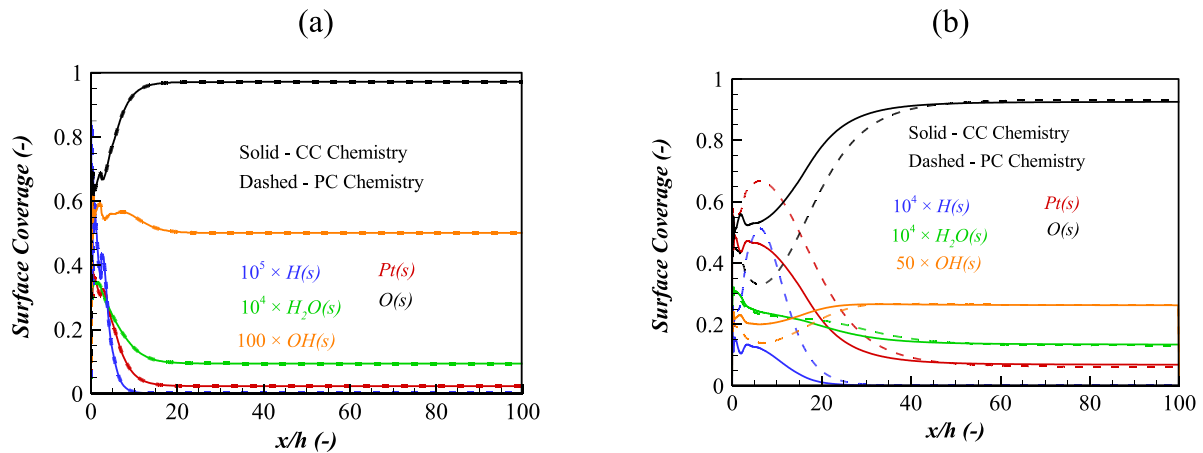
Effect of coupled (hetero-/homogeneous) chemistry

The distribution of species mole fraction and temperature on the catalytic wall are shown in Fig. 8 for  $\phi = 0.20$ . To identify the effect of the homogeneous chemistry on catalytic combustion, two Reynolds numbers, 190 and 762, are selected for comparison where the pure catalytic chemistry (PC) and coupled chemistry (CC) are dominant, respectively. At the pure catalytic mode, the computation is performed without considering the homogeneous chemistry. Fig. 8 (a) shows a comparison of the results of PC (dashed line) and CC (solid line) for  $Re = 190$ . There is no variation observed in the species mole fraction of  $H_2$ ,  $H_2O$  and  $OH$  and wall temperature ( $T_w$ ). The catalytic conversion starts at the beginning of upstream wall resulting in a high temperature near upstream close to the wall. Then, it decreases as there is gradual reduction of  $H_2$  concentration along the length.  $T_w$  becomes steady where no unburned  $H_2$  is left.

Similarly, no changes between the two chemistries are found in the surface coverages as shown in Fig. 9 (a), where  $PT(s)$  and  $O(s)$  constitute the main coverage. Here, the surface coverage is the fraction of surface sites covered by species and  $PT(s)$  is available surface sites for adsorption.  $O_2$  adsorption/desorption has strong dependence on the wall temperature as discussed in the earlier studies [37,45]. As the temperature decreases, the excess  $O_2$  allows for  $O_2$  adsorption that consequently promotes  $H_2$  reaction. Therefore,  $H_2$  is completely consumed. The available uncovered surface sites  $PT(s)$  are then used for further  $O_2$  adsorption. However, all the results indicate that the contribution of the homogeneous chemistry on the species concentration is negligible for  $Re = 190$ . By comparison, the effect of homogeneous chemistry is significant for  $Re = 762$  shown in Fig. 8 (b). The  $X_{H_2}$  distribution on the wall for PC decreases gradually but the distribution for CC is very low and, approaches zero within a certain burner length.



**Fig. 8** – Comparison of species mole fraction and temperature distribution on wall between Coupled (CC) and pure catalytic (PC) chemistry,  $\phi = 0.20$ ,  $T_{in} = 312$  K (a)  $Re = 190$ , (b)  $Re = 762$ .



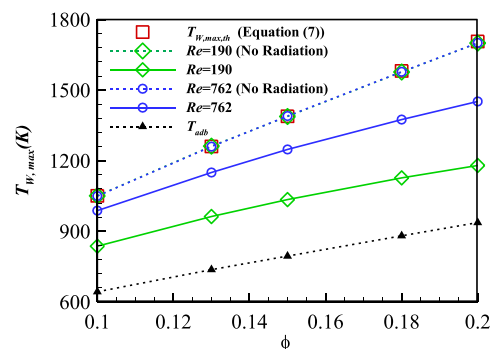
**Fig. 9** – Comparison of species surface coverage on wall between Coupled (CC) and pure catalytic (PC) chemistry,  $\phi = 0.20$ ,  $T_{in} = 312$  K (a)  $Re = 190$ , (b)  $Re = 762$ .

This is due to the homogeneous reaction zone in proximity to the catalytic wall. Therefore, most of  $H_2$  near the surface is burned in the reaction zone, reducing the  $H_2$  level on the catalytic surface. Consequently, the  $H_2O$  wall distribution for CC is found to be higher. However, the  $X_{OH}$  distribution on the wall is lower for CC because of the strong influence of the catalytic reaction. Previous studies [21,46] showed that the catalytic reaction influences the homogeneous ignition as the catalyst itself produces less OH. So, catalyst is an efficient sink of homogeneously produced OH inhibiting homogeneous reaction. Moreover there is significant variation of wall temperatures between two chemistries (PC and CC) which is discussed in later section. A comparison of the surface coverages for  $Re = 762$  is shown in Fig. 9 (b). As expected, there is a large variation in the surface coverage values near the homogeneous reaction zones. The hydrogen adsorption  $H(s)$  for CC is found to be less as there is high  $H_2$  consumption in the reaction zone. For example, the maximum variation between two chemistry (CC and PC) is at a distance  $x/h = 7.7$  from inlet where temperature difference is maximum. Here, the  $H(s)$  ( $\times 10^4$ ) level for CC and PC are 0.11 and 0.48, respectively. Again, the OH adsorption in CC is higher due to the influence of the catalytic reaction. At  $x/h = 7.7$ , the  $OH(s)$  ( $\times 50$ ) level for

CC and PC are 0.202 and 0.141, respectively. However, there is no significant variation observed in  $H_2O(s)$  at that position.

#### Surface temperatures

The maximum surface temperature,  $T_w$ , in all cases depicted in Fig. 10, exceeds the adiabatic flame temperature. This is due to the diffusional characteristics of the  $H_2/air$  mixture which



**Fig. 10** – Maximum wall temperature using pure catalytic chemistry (PC),  $T_{in} = 312$  K.

can be described by the theoretical wall temperature ( $T_{w,max,th}$ ). In the case of the catalytic surface reaction on a flat plate, it is shown in Ref. [47] that  $T_{w,max,th}$  remains constant along the plate under adiabatic conditions and is determined as:

$$T_{w,max,th} = T_{\infty} + Le_{H_2}^{-2/3}(\Delta T) \quad (7)$$

where  $Le_{H_2}$  is the hydrogen Lewis number and its value of 0.30 is considered in all the cases,  $T_{\infty}$  is the free stream temperature, and  $\Delta T$  is the combustion temperature rise from the adiabatic temperature:

$$\Delta T = T_{adb} - T_{\infty} \equiv Y_{H_2,\infty} Q_{H_2} / C_p \quad (8)$$

Here,  $T_{adb}$  is the adiabatic flame temperature,  $Y_{H_2}$  is the free stream hydrogen mass fraction,  $Q_{H_2}$  is the combustion heat per unit mass of hydrogen. At a unity Lewis number, the  $H_2$ /air flame temperature is identical to the adiabatic temperature but it always becomes super-adiabatic temperature ( $T_{w,max,th} > T_{adb}$ ) at a Lewis number less than unity. Fig. 10 shows the maximum wall temperature using the pure catalytic chemistry (PC) for  $0.10 \leq \phi \leq 0.20$  along with  $T_{w,max,th}$  calculated from equation E7. The computed maximum wall temperatures ( $T_{W,max}$ ) for the Reynolds numbers of 190 and 762 are shown, considering with and without radiation. The  $T_{W,max}$  values are identical to  $T_{w,max,th}$  irrespective of the Reynolds number when the radiation model is not included. With radiation, the predicted catalytic peak temperatures are lower than the theoretical value due to the radiative heat loss towards the inlet. In particular, at a lower  $Re = 190$ , the  $T_{W,max}$  are comparatively very low because of the high heat losses at the inlet discussed in Fig. 7.

However, the wall temperature for CC in Fig. 8 is lower than PC in the region of homogeneous reaction zone. This is because of the shielding effect of the homogeneous reaction zone that limits the surface superadiabaticity induced by the catalyst [27]. Furthermore, there are up/down peaks on the wall temperature near inlet as shown in Fig. 8. These peaks are mainly from the effect of radiation. To observe this effect, the incident radiation ( $G$ ) and net radiation heat flux ( $q_{rad}$ ) at the inlet and on the wall surface are presented in Fig. 11. At the inlet, Fig. 11 (a), the incident radiation is maximum at the wall and then gradually decreases to a minimum at midplane for

$Re = 762$ . For  $Re = 190$ , the minimum occurs at  $y/h \approx 0.15$  at a distance from bottom wall (which is the same in case of top wall because of symmetry) and then reaches to peak at  $y/h \approx 0.20$ . Apart from that there is no significant variation. The magnitude between two  $Re$  differs significantly as the amount of fuel burned is different. However, the radiation heat fluxes have significant variation within  $y/h \approx 0.20$  from the bottom wall for both cases ( $Re = 190$  and 762). Again, the trend and magnitude are approximately similar. The plot for  $Re = 762$  shifted toward wall is expected as the net heat loss for both cases are not same. Here, it should be noted that the negative heat flux represents the radiative heat flux leaving the burner whereas the positive value is the opposite.

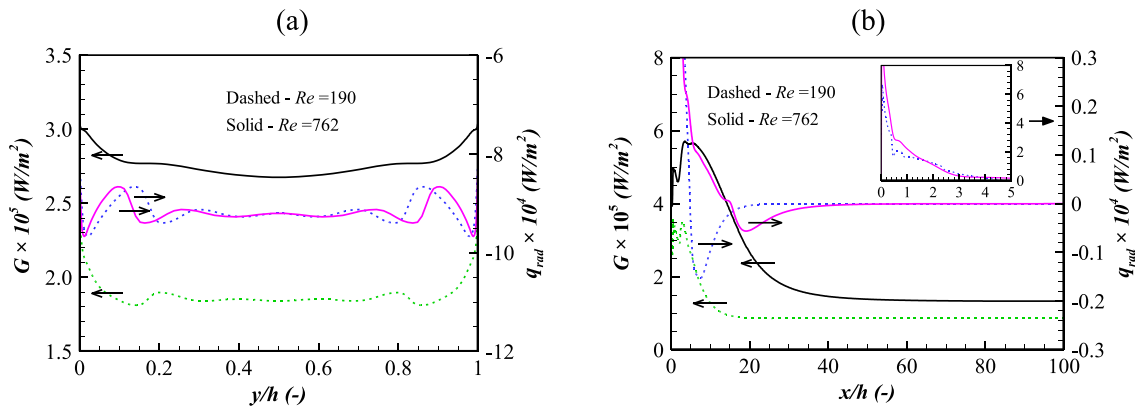
However, the up/down peaks of incident radiation are observed on surface wall near upstream within the burner length ( $x/h$ ) of 5 for both cases. This is the effect that causes the up/down peaks of the wall temperature near upstream (Fig. 8) and consequently affects the reaction kinetics on the catalytic wall (Fig. 9). After  $x/h > 5$ , the incident radiation decreases gradually without showing any variation. Consequently, the radiation heat fluxes are maximum at inlet and then decrease along the length. This becomes negative within the range 5 ~20 and 15 ~40 of  $x/h$  for  $Re = 190$  and  $Re = 762$ , respectively. This further indicates that the radiation flux directed towards the wall in that region and then, it becomes zero because of the uniform flame temperature.

#### $H_2$ conversion

The percentage of  $H_2$  converted for  $\phi = 0.20$  at different  $Re$  is shown in Fig. 12 (a) along the length of the burner. The percentage is estimated from the average results at different axial positions of the burner:

$$H_2 \text{ Conversion}(\%) = \frac{Y_{H_2,avg,in} - Y_{H_2,avg,x}}{Y_{H_2,avg,in}} \times 100 \quad (9)$$

Where  $Y_{H_2,avg,in}$  is the average  $H_2$  mass fraction at the inlet,  $Y_{H_2,avg,x}$  is the average  $H_2$  mass fraction at axial positions. For all cases, almost 99.9%  $H_2$  conversion is achieved within the burner length considered in this study. By comparison, the complete  $H_2$  conversion for lower  $Re$  is obtained at shorter length because of the higher residence time shown in Fig. 13. The residence time is calculated from the minimum burner



**Fig. 11** – Variation of Incident Radiation (Left Axis) and Net Radiation Flux (Right axis), Coupled chemistry (CC),  $\phi = 0.20$ ,  $T_{in} = 312$  K at (a) inlet (b) wall.

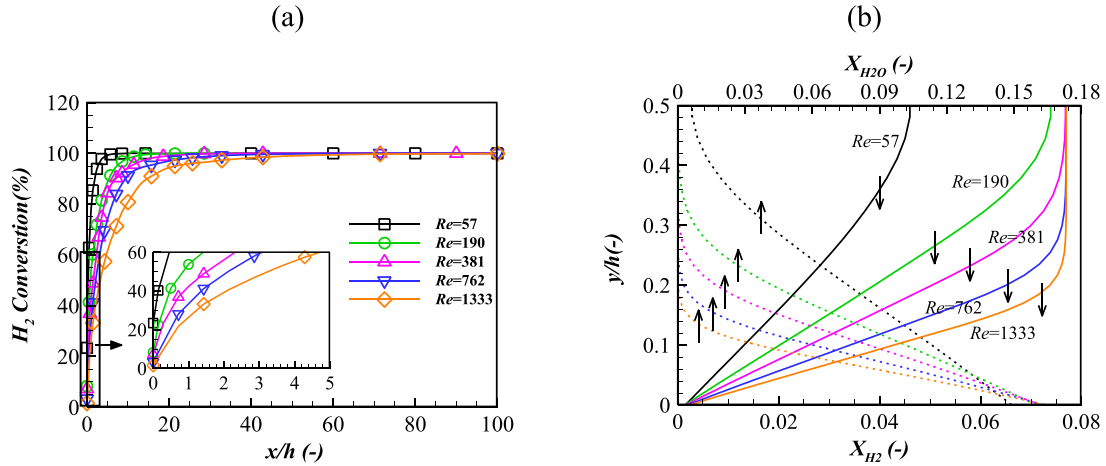


Fig. 12 – (a) H<sub>2</sub> conversion at different Re, (b) H<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O distribution at  $x/h = 0.5$ , Coupled chemistry (CC),  $\phi = 0.20$ ,  $T_{in} = 312$  K.

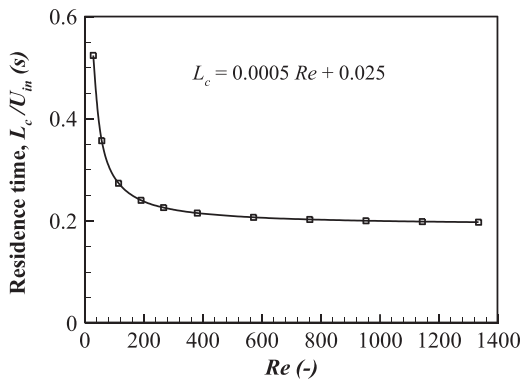


Fig. 13 – Residence Time as a function of Re using coupled chemistry (CC),  $\phi = 0.20$ ,  $T_{in} = 312$  K.

length ( $L_c$ ) for 99.9% H<sub>2</sub> conversion and inflow velocity. For  $\phi = 0.20$ , the relation  $L_c = 0.0005 Re + 0.025$  is obtained. However, the zoomed view in Fig. 12 (a) shows a significant catalytic conversion near upstream. For  $Re = 57$ , the conversion is above 22% at near upstream and, this becomes comparatively less at higher Re. The main reason is a high rate of H<sub>2</sub> consumption in the entrance region of the burner. Again, the low inflow and high residence time at a lower Re facilitates H<sub>2</sub> diffusion towards the catalytic surface. For clarification, Fig. 12 (b) shows the mole fraction distribution of H<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O at  $x/h = 0.5$  from inlet. The vertical up and down arrows denote  $X_{H_2O}$  (dashed) and  $X_{H_2}$  (solid), respectively. The low H<sub>2</sub> level near wall for all cases indicates that catalytic reaction is practically mass transport limited. However, the H<sub>2</sub> distribution across the burner for  $Re = 57$  is low because of the strong H<sub>2</sub> diffusion to the catalytic wall. Consequently, this produces high H<sub>2</sub>O (dashed-black). When Re increases, the flow becomes convectively dominant and thus reduces the residence time for H<sub>2</sub> diffusion. As a result, the H<sub>2</sub>O production is comparatively less with increasing Re.

However, H<sub>2</sub> transport toward the catalytic surface is governed by the catalytic reaction, which depletes both H<sub>2</sub> gas

and surface species and maintains a mass transfer between two species. In reality, the species boundary layer is developed on the catalytic surface that inhibits the mass transfer. Therefore, the mass transfer coefficient can be used as a measure of resistance to mass transfer between the mean species composition and the composition at the reacting surface. This is a useful approach if the mass transfer coefficient is calculated quantitatively but, for a complex catalytic reacting flow, the mass transfer coefficient cannot be correlated in a simple way. Nevertheless, they can be used qualitatively to predict the catalytic reacting flow using the dimensionless Sherwood number ( $Sh$ ).

$$Sh = \frac{k_c h}{D_m} \quad (10)$$

Where  $k_c$  is the mass transfer coefficient and  $D_m$  is the mass diffusivity for fuel species (H<sub>2</sub>). The expression for  $k_c$  is as follows:

$$k_c = \frac{D_m \left. \frac{\delta C_{H_2}}{\delta y} \right|_{y=0}}{C_{H_2,W} - C_{H_2,m}} \quad (11)$$

As noted in the above equation,  $\delta C_{H_2}/\delta y$  is the gradient of the species molar concentration at surface. The  $C_{H_2,W}$  and  $C_{H_2,m}$  are the surface and the mean concentration of H<sub>2</sub>, respectively. The  $C_{H_2,m}$  is transversely calculated from the following equation.

$$C_{H_2,m} = \frac{\int_0^h C_{H_2} u dy}{\int_0^h u dy} \quad (12)$$

In this equation,  $h$  is the burner height,  $u$  is the local velocity and  $C_{H_2}$  is the local molar concentration of H<sub>2</sub>. Fig. 14 shows the computed axial Sherwood number of H<sub>2</sub> species for three different Re. As expected in all the cases,  $Sh$  have high initial values near upstream, which are associated with the

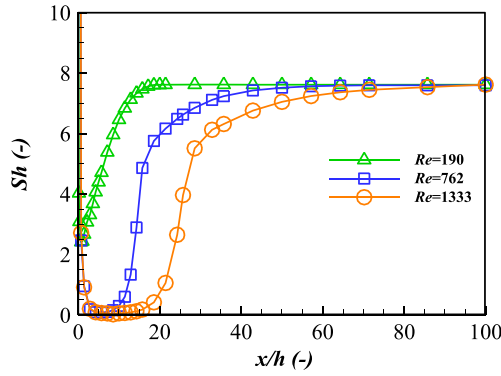


Fig. 14 – Local Sherwood Number (Sh) along the burner length for H<sub>2</sub>, Coupled chemistry (CC),  $\phi = 0.20$ ,  $T_{in} = 312$  K.

very thin H<sub>2</sub> boundary layer developed at the leading edge of the catalyst. This sharply decreases to a minimum value  $\sim 3.0$  at  $x/h = 2.0$  for  $Re = 190$ , and then, increases to an asymptotic value of around 7.6 at  $x/h = 20$ , indicating no significant catalytic activity beyond this length. The behaviour of sharp decrement in the near inlet region is due to the high temperature differences between the wall and bulk temperature, which significantly affects the property of light species like H<sub>2</sub>. Previous studies [48] showed such effect of temperature on the H<sub>2</sub> properties and other dimensionless quantities inside a pipe for non-reacting flow.

#### NO<sub>x</sub> emission

The NO<sub>x</sub> emission for ultra-lean condition is calculated in the catalytic burner keeping the same boundary condition. The inclusion of NO<sub>x</sub> kinetics into gas phase kinetics did not affect the concentration of other species or temperatures. To justify the NO<sub>x</sub> model, experimental data of Anderson et al. [49] is used for comparison. Though the experiment was done at very high inflow velocity (15–18 m/s) and high pressure (3.8 and 5.2 atm) in a cylindrical burner (0.103 in diameter and 0.31 m long), the NO<sub>x</sub> results reported were only dependent on

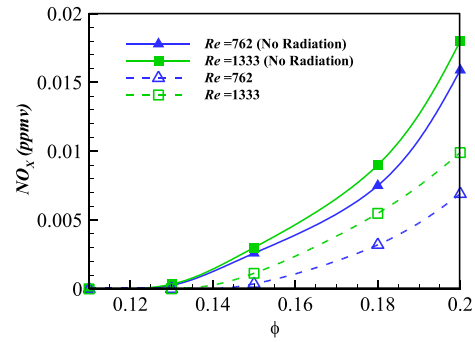


Fig. 16 – NO<sub>x</sub> Emission as a function of  $\phi$  using coupled chemistry (CC),  $T_{in} = 312$  K.

the high flame temperature and fuel compositions. Therefore, NO<sub>x</sub> values at a reasonable operating condition in the present catalytic burner are compared. Over the equivalence ratios considered in Fig. 15(a), the NO<sub>x</sub> model shows a good agreement with the experiment. The contribution of NO<sub>2</sub> in total emission is computed less than 0.5% in all cases. Thermal NO in Fig. 15(b) is evaluated at the post-processing stage at the same operating condition without considering radiation. The thermal NO obtained  $5 \times 10^{-5}$  ppmv and 0.041 ppmv for  $\phi = 0.25$  ( $T_{adb} = 1327$  K) and  $\phi = 0.39$  ( $T_{adb} = 1658$  K), respectively. Again, the total calculated NO<sub>x</sub> for  $\phi = 0.25$  and  $\phi = 0.39$  are 0.09 ppmv and 0.57 ppmv, respectively. By comparison, thermal NO contribution is much less. However, NO<sub>x</sub> emission at very lean condition within the range of  $0.10 \leq \phi \leq 0.20$  are computed for two Reynolds numbers of 762 and 1333 as shown in Fig. 16. The NO<sub>x</sub> values at  $Re = 762$  for  $\phi = 0.10, 0.13, 0.15, 0.18$  and  $0.20$  are  $9.88 \times 10^{-10}$  ppmv,  $2.53 \times 10^{-4}$  ppmv,  $2.58 \times 10^{-3}$  ppmv, 0.007 ppmv, and 0.016 ppmv, respectively. For  $Re = 1333$ , the NO<sub>x</sub> values have no significant variation for  $0.10 \leq \phi \leq 0.15$  but differ by approximately 0.002 ppmv for  $\phi = 0.18$  and  $0.20$ . Furthermore, the NO<sub>x</sub> values are comparatively less if radiation loss is considered.

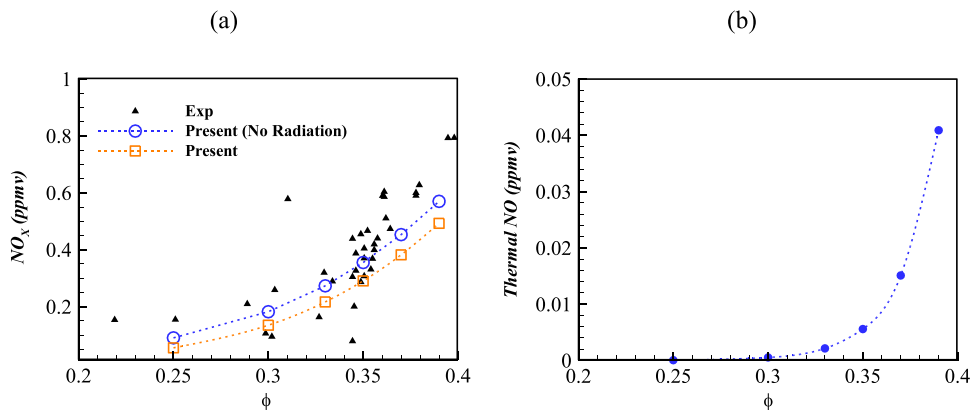


Fig. 15 – Emission as a function of  $\phi$  using coupled chemistry (CC) (a) NO<sub>x</sub> (b) Thermal NO,  $Re = 1333$ ,  $T_{in} = 600$  K.



## Conclusions

Hydrogen/air combustion in a planar burner with platinum coating along its length was numerically investigated. Computations were carried out in multicomponent species transport model of laminar solver using Ansys Fluent. Prior to analysis, the model was validated with available experimental results. To reduce NO<sub>x</sub> emission, hydrogen/air lean conditions of equivalence ratio from 0.10 to 0.20 were considered for computation. The key findings of this work are.

- Homogeneous combustion over the range of equivalence ratios from 0.15 to 0.20 in the non-catalytic burner results in an incomplete combustion causing the flame temperature less than the adiabatic temperature. Flame extinction occurs below  $Re < 381$  and  $Re < 571$  for  $\varphi = 0.20$  and 0.18, respectively. No flame is observed for  $\varphi \leq 0.16$  over the  $Re$  considered.
- In the catalytic configuration, almost complete H<sub>2</sub> conversion is obtained for  $0.1 \leq \varphi \leq 0.20$  and both combustion modes (PC/CC) are influenced by the inflow Reynolds number ( $Re$ ). With  $\varphi$ , the onset of flame ignition shifts toward the inlet.
- The radiation loss at the burner inlet has a significant effect on lowering the flame temperature, which also affects the combustion kinetics.
- Under the wall thermal condition analysed, sufficient catalytic burner length required for complete combustion is influenced by the inflow Reynolds number and residence time.
- NO<sub>x</sub> emissions were controlled by N<sub>2</sub>O and NNH routes compared to thermal NO. The NO<sub>x</sub> values in the catalytic burner increases with  $\varphi$  and can be considered independent on the Reynolds number.

Future study on the planar model will attempt to optimise the catalyst length for cost-effective and NO<sub>x</sub>-free operation.

## 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.

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