

Review

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Energy Fuels, **Just Accepted Manuscript** • DOI: 10.1021/acs.energyfuels.9b02346 • Publication Date (Web): 20 Sep 2019

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Effects of carbon dioxide on laminar burning speed and flame instability of methane/air and propane/air mixtures: A literature review

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Abstract

This article reviews the impact of carbon dioxide (CO₂) on laminar burning speed and stability of the flame for methane (CH₄) and propane (C₃H₈) combustion with air. Mixtures of CH₄ and CO₂, also known as biogas, are considered as low-cost alternative fuels. Biogas is widely used in various industrial and residential applications. Mixtures of C₃H₈ and CO₂ are considered as alternative refrigerants with low global warming potential and low flammability. Laminar burning speeds were reported using different experimental methods. Laminar burning speeds have also been numerically calculated by one-dimensional steady code using three chemical kinetic mechanisms. Results depict a decrease in equilibrium flame temperature and laminar burning speed of both CH₄/air and C₃H₈/air mixtures with the existence of CO₂ in those mixtures. The maximum laminar burning speeds of neat CH₄ and C₃H₈ are observed to be in the vicinity of an equivalence ratio of 1.1; however, as the percentage of CO₂ increases the maximum laminar burning speeds shift toward stoichiometric mixtures. Carbon dioxide also increases flame thickness and suppresses flame instability by the combination of thermal-diffusive and hydrodynamic effects.

Keywords: laminar burning speed, flame instability, carbon dioxide, methane, propane

1. Introduction

Biogas is primarily a mixture of CH₄ and CO₂. It may also contain small amounts of water vapor, siloxane, hydrogen sulfide, carbon monoxide, oxygen, nitrogen, hydrogen, and ammonia. Biogas is obtained either by anaerobic digestion with methanogen or anaerobic organisms that digest organic material in a reactor or by fermentation of biodegradable materials [1]. Biogas is a low-cost alternative fuel, which is used in gas turbines, internal combustion engines, cooking, and heating applications [2]. However, research on biogas in internal combustion engines shows that the existence of CO₂ in the mixture decreases thermal efficiency, increases unburned hydrocarbon emissions, and reduces thermal NO_x emissions when compared to natural gas [3–7].

Propane and other liquefied petroleum gases (LPG) have been used in various industrial and residential applications, in a manner similar to biogas [8]. Research shows that comparing to conventional fuel C₃H₈ has lower CO and NO_x emissions in engine applications [9]. Also, products of combustion of propane and methane have lower greenhouse gas emissions than most other fossil fuels, like gasoline and diesel oil, due to

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its lower carbon content. The addition of CO₂ into the fuel mixture lowers the flame temperature, which can reduce thermal NO_x emissions [10, 11].

Propane has also been considered as an alternative refrigerant in heating, ventilation, and air conditioning (HVAC) applications as it is a natural and environmentally friendly refrigerant [12]. However, its high flammability limits its extensive usage because of fire safety concerns. By blending CO₂ with C₃H₈, the mixtures can be classified as low flammability refrigerants [13].

It is crucial to study vital combustion properties like laminar burning speed and stability of the flame for CH₄/CO₂/air and C₃H₈/CO₂/air mixtures, to understand how they perform over various operating conditions. Laminar burning speed adequately describes the essential characteristics of the fuel/oxidizer mixtures regarding thermal diffusivity, exothermicity, and reactivity. It is essential in calculating turbulent burning speed and validating chemical kinetic mechanisms. Flame instability describes the flame transition from smooth to cellular, which is an essential characteristic of fuel/oxidizer mixtures. Two significant contributors to flame instability are hydrodynamic effects and thermal-diffusive effects [7, 12].

This article presents a thorough study on the literature of the laminar burning speed for CH₄/CO₂/air & C₃H₈/CO₂/air blends and investigates the effects of CO₂ on laminar burning speed and the stability of the flame for varying CO₂ concentrations, equivalence ratios, temperatures, and pressures.

Methane and Carbon Dioxide: Stone et al. [14] developed a correlation for laminar burning speed of CH₄/CO₂/air blends for CO₂ concentrations of 0–60%, pressures of 0.5–10.4 bar, temperatures of 295–494 K, and equivalence ratios of 0.6–1.4. They measured pressure as a function of time to calculate laminar burning speed in a spherical constant volume vessel. Hinton and Stone [15] later expanded their correlation to incorporate high temperatures till 520 K. Kishore et al. [16] measured laminar burning speed of natural gas by a heat flux method and studied the effects of CO₂ (0–60%) on flame properties at equivalence ratios (0.6–1.4), temperature of 307 K and atmospheric pressure. Vital flame properties of hydrocarbons (C₁–C₄)/CO₂ mixtures were investigated by Park et al. [17] experimentally and numerically. They used counterflow flame method to determine laminar burning speeds, ignition limits and extinction limits of premixed flames at pressures of 1, 2, 4 atm and atmospheric temperature. Xie et al. [18] investigated flame properties of biogas/oxygen mixtures experimentally and numerically. They measured laminar burning speeds by using a spherical flame at equivalence ratios (0.4–1.6), temperature of 298 K, and pressures (0.1–0.3 MPa). They also investigated the influence of CO₂ on the sensitivity of chemical reactions, flame radiation, and the stability of the flame. Cardona et al. [19] measured laminar burning speed for biogas/air blends in a contoured slot burner at a pressure of 0.828 atm & atmospheric temperature. Zahedi and Yousefi [20] conducted experimental and numerical studies on the influence of CO₂ on NO_x formation and the laminar burning speed for CH₄/air mixtures at equivalence ratios (0.7–1.3), pressures (0.1–0.5 MPa), and a temperature of 298 K. Chan et al. [21] measured laminar burning speed for CH₄/CO₂/air

blends utilizing flat flame burner at standard conditions for a range of equivalence ratios (0.8–1.4). Nonaka and Pereira [22] measured laminar burning speed of biogas experimentally & calculated numerically for varying CO₂ concentrations (0%–50%) at atmospheric temperature and pressure. Their numerical results showed that thermal and reaction effects caused the shifting of maximum laminar burning speed to leaner mixtures. Hu and Yu [23,24] investigated the influence of elevated temperatures (300, 400, & 543 K) on laminar burning speed for biogas oxygen mixtures. Also, they studied the chemical and radiative effects of CO₂ on those mixtures. Bai et al. [7] burned CH₄/CO₂/air mixtures, and also developed power-law correlations for laminar burning speed of these mixtures for equivalence ratios (0.8–1.2), CO₂ concentrations (0%–60%), pressures (0.5–6.9 atm), and temperatures (298–661 K). They also studied the influence of CO₂ on flame instability. All the aforementioned studies of laminar burning speed for CH₄/CO₂/air blends are summarized in Table 1.

Propane and Carbon Dioxide: Akram et al. [25] measured laminar burning speed for C₃H₈/CO₂/air and C₃H₈/N₂/air blends. They conducted experiments using a preheated mesoscale diverging channel for equivalence ratios (0.7–1.3) and temperatures (370–650 K). Nair et al. [11] examined the influence of CO₂ and N₂ on the laminar burning speed for different liquid petroleum gases and air mixtures. They developed a power-law correlation for temperatures (300–500 K), equivalence ratios (0.8–1.3), and CO₂ percentages (0%–30%). Goswami et al. [26] measured laminar burning speed for C₃H₈/air mixture experimentally and studied numerically for equivalence ratios (0.8–1.3), pressures (1–4 atm), and atmospheric temperature. Yelishala et al. [12] conducted a constant volume experiment to measure laminar burning speed of C₃H₈/CO₂/air blends for equivalence ratios (0.7–1.2), CO₂ concentrations (0%–80%), pressures (0.5–6.2 atm), and temperatures (298–420 K). They studied flame stability using a Z-shaped Schlieren system by taking pictures during flame propagation. Fedyaeva et al. [27] examined the influence of H₂O and CO₂ as diluents on C₃H₈ oxidation numerically at different pressures. All the aforementioned studies of laminar burning speed for C₃H₈/CO₂/air mixtures are summarized in Table 2.

Table 1. Literature studies on experimental laminar burning speed of CH₄/CO₂/air blends

Ref.	Mixture	Pressure	Temperature	Equivalence Ratio	Experimental Method
[14]	0-60% CO ₂	0.5-10.4 bar	295-454 K	0.6-1.4	Spherical constant volume
[16]	0-60% CO ₂	1 bar	307 K	0.8-1.3	Flat flame burner (heat flux)
[17]	25%, 45% CO ₂	1, 2, 4 atm	298 K	0.75-1.25	Counterflow Stagnation twin flame opposed jet configuration
[18]	CH ₄ /O ₂ /CO ₂	1-3 bar	298 K	0.4-1.6	Spherical constant pressure
[19]	34% CO ₂	0.828 atm	298 K	0.9-1.2	Contoured slot burner
[20]	0-20% CO ₂	1-5 bar	298 K	0.7-1.3	Flat flame burner (heat flux)
[15]	0-40% CO ₂	1-8 bar	380-520 K	0.7-1.4	Spherical constant volume
[21]	0-15% CO ₂	1 bar	298 K	0.8-1.4	Flat flame burner (heat flux)
[22]	0-50% CO ₂	1 atm	298 K	0.7-1.4	Flat flame burner (heat flux)
[23,24]	CH ₄ /O ₂ /CO ₂	1 atm	300, 400, 543 K	0.6-1.4	Bunsen burner
[7]	0-60% CO ₂	0.5-6.9 atm	298-661 K	0.8-1.2	Spherical constant volume

Table 2. Literature studies on experimental laminar burning speed of C₃H₈/CO₂/air blends

Ref.	Mixture	Pressure	Temperature	Equivalence Ratio	Experimental Method
[25]	0-40% CO ₂	1 atm	370-650 K	0.7-1.3	Externally preheated divergent mesoscale channel
[12]	0-80% CO ₂	0.5-6.2 atm	298-420 K	0.7-1.2	Spherical constant volume

2. Experimental Methodologies

Different experimental methods have been undertaken to study laminar burning speed of CH₄/CO₂/air and C₃H₈/CO₂/air such as flat flame burner [16, 20–22], Bunsen burner [23, 24], counterflow/stagnation flame [17], constant pressure spherical flame [18], and constant volume spherical flame [7, 12, 14, 15]. Egolfopoulos et al. [28] recently reviewed the advances and challenges of these different methods.

Botha and Spalding [29] determined the energy loss in heat interaction incurred to stabilize the flame on a flat flame burner to measure adiabatic laminar burning speed. de Goey and co-workers [30] later established a heat flux setup to stabilize the flame and to determine the adiabatic laminar burning speed. In this method, the temperature of the unburned mixture is increased using a heating jacket, which compensates for the energy loss to the environment. This method can get rid of the stretch effect of the flame, while it is limited to low burning speed and atmospheric pressure and temperature measurement. Fig. 1 (a) illustrates the schematic of a flat flame burner.

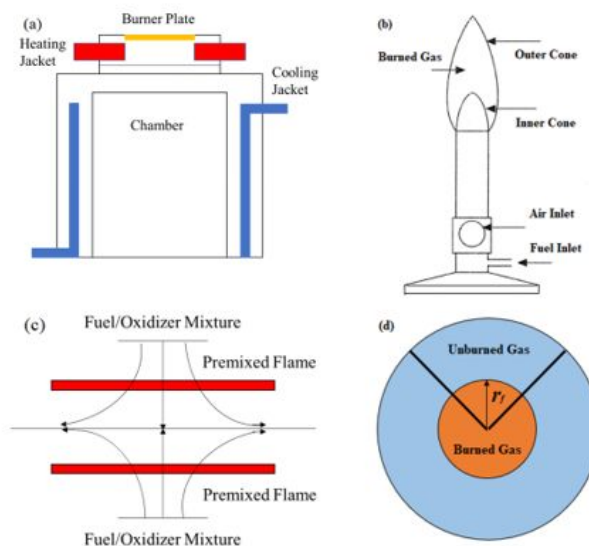


Fig. 1. Schematic of different experimental methods. (a) flat flame burner, (b) Bunsen burner, (c) counterflow/stagnation flame, (d) constant pressure or constant volume spherical flame.

Fig. 1 (b) shows the schematic of the Bunsen burner, which measures flame speed, S_b , for a conical flame where the reaction zone is assumed to have a 1-D flame speed, S_b^0 [23, 24]. Based on mass balance, the laminar burning speed, S_u^0 , is calculated by

$$S_u^0 = \frac{\rho_b}{\rho_u} S_b^0 = \frac{\dot{m}}{\rho_u A_b} = \frac{\dot{Q}_u}{A_b} \quad (1)$$

where, \dot{m} is mass flow rate, ρ_b and ρ_u are burned gas and unburned gases densities, and flame area, A_b , is obtained from the flame image. Volumetric flow rate, \dot{Q}_u , is determined by the mass flow controller (MFC). It is a simple method; however, the determination of flame area is complicated, and the stretch effect cannot be neglected.

Fig. 1 (c) shows the schematic of counterflow/stagnation flame experiments. There are two symmetric (twin) and planar flames with the same chemical composition in counterflow/stagnation flame configuration [31–33]. The axial velocity profile is determined by using laser Doppler velocimetry or particle image velocimetry. The maximum absolute value of flow velocity gradient is defined as the strain rate, K , and the minimum axial flow velocity is defined as the reference flame speed, $S_{u ref}$. S_u^0 is determined by extrapolation of $S_{u ref}$ to $K = 0$. Conductive energy loss of the flame is eliminated due to symmetry in this method, while it is challenging to create zero strain rate.

Fig. 1 (d) shows the schematic of spherical flames. The constant pressure method of spherical flames was first developed by Strauss and Edge [34] to measure laminar burning speed. Flame radius, r_f , varying with time, t , was captured using a Schlieren or shadowgraph system with a negligible pressure rise in the vessel. The burned gas speed is defined as

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$$S_b = \frac{dr_f}{dt} \quad (2)$$

The stretch rate, κ of the spherical flame is defined based on the flame surface area,

$$\kappa = \frac{d \ln A_b}{dt} = \frac{1}{A_b} \frac{dA_b}{dt} = \frac{2}{r_f} \frac{dr_f}{dt} \quad (3)$$

Subsequently, the zero-stretch burning speed related to burned gas, S_b^0 , could be determined by linear or nonlinear extrapolation. Finally, S_u^0 is calculated through mass balance, $S_u^0 = \frac{\rho_b}{\rho_u} S_b^0$.

The constant volume method of spherical flames was first developed by Lewis and von Elbe [35] to measure pressure rise, p , in the vessel. The laminar burning speed is deduced using

$$S_u = \frac{dr_i}{dt} \left(\frac{r_i}{r_f} \right)^2 \left(\frac{p}{p_i} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma_u}} \quad (4)$$

where, r_i is flame radius, p_i is initial pressure, and γ_u is ratio of specific heats for unburned gas.

Metghalchi, Keck, and co-workers [36–50] improved the laminar burning speed calculation using measured pressure rise in a constant volume vessel. They developed a multi-shell thermodynamic model and later modified it by considering effects of thermal boundary layer, preheat zone, burned gas temperature gradient, conductive and radiative energy losses.

They used the following equations for volume and energy to calculate the laminar burning speed

$$m \left[\int_0^{x_b} v_{bs}(T, p) dx + (1 - x_b) v_{us} \right] = V_c - V_e + V_{eb} + V_{wb} + V_{ph} \quad (5)$$

$$m \left[\int_0^{x_b} e_{bs}(T, p) dx + (1 - x_b) e_{us} \right] = E + \frac{p V_{ph}}{\gamma_u - 1} - A_{wb} \int_0^{\delta_{wb}} p d\delta - A_{eb} \int_0^{\delta_{eb}} p d\delta - Q_r \quad (6)$$

where m and E are total mass and energy, x_b is mass fraction of burned gas, v_{bs} and v_{us} are specific volumes for burned and unburned mixtures; V_c is chamber volume; V_e is volume for electrodes; V_{wb} , V_{eb} , and V_{ph} are displacement volumes for wall boundary layer; electrode boundary layer; and preheat zone; e_{bs} and e_{us} are specific energy of burned and unburned gases; A_{wb} and A_{eb} are areas of the wall and electrodes; δ_{wb} and δ_{eb} are displacement thicknesses for wall boundary layer and electrode boundary layer; and Q_r is radiative energy loss.

For a given pressure, $p(t)$, two unknowns: mass fraction of burned gas, $x_b(t)$ and temperature of burned gas in the last shell, $T_b(r, t)$ can be solved by Eq. (5) and (6).

Finally, the laminar burning speed is calculated using

$$S_u = \frac{\dot{m}_b}{\rho_u A_b} = \frac{m \dot{x}_b}{\rho_u A_b} \tag{7}$$

where \dot{x}_b is the mass fraction rate for burned gas.

Contrary to the constant pressure method of spherical flames that burning speed needs to be adjusted for stretch effects, constant volume method stretch effects are negligible because of high flame radius. This can be observed by analyzing Fig. 2 that shows laminar burning speeds of three different states. For each state, burning speed has been measured for 3-4 flame radii having different stretch rate. It shows that laminar burning speed becomes independent of stretch rate as long as $\kappa < 100 \text{ s}^{-1}$. Therefore, in this study, only smooth (laminar) flames with $r_f > 4 \text{ cm}$, which have lower stretch rates, have been used.

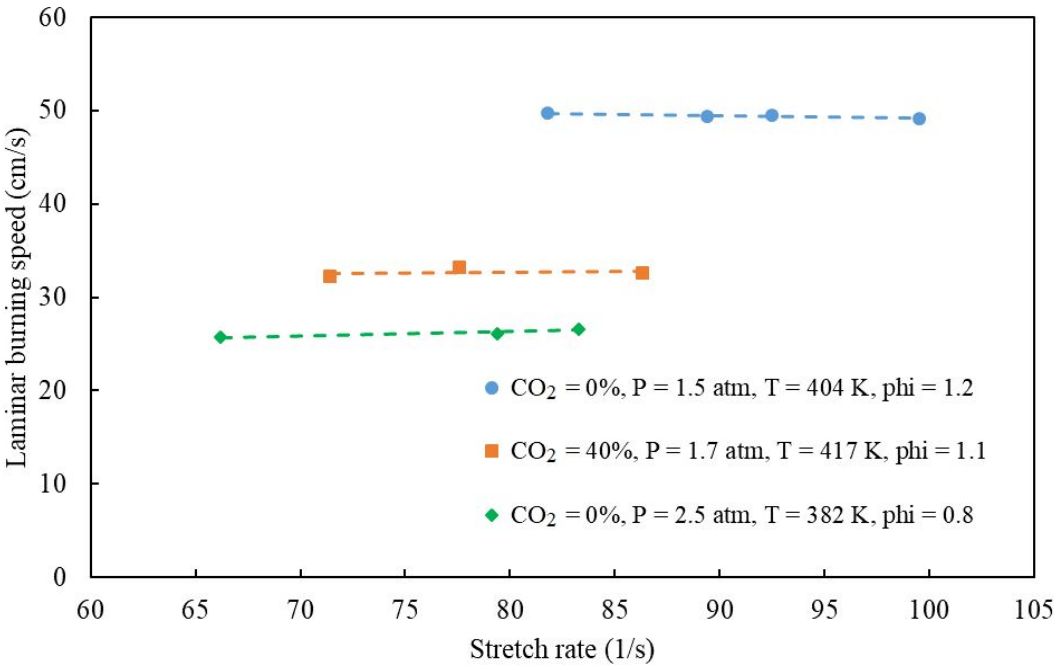


Fig. 2. Laminar burning speed of CH₄/air/CO₂ at different thermodynamic states with different stretch rates [7].

3. Effects of CO₂ on laminar burning speed

3.1. Methane/carbon dioxide/air mixture

Different experimental methods of laminar burning speed measurement in literature [7, 17, 20, 22, 51–56] were mentioned in Section 2. The experimentally measured laminar burning speeds and the numerical results calculated by 1-D steady state premixed flame code from CANTERA [57] are shown in this section. The numerical results were calculated using 3 chemical kinetic mechanisms: GRI-Mech 3.0 [58], USC Mech II [59], and San Diego [60]. The GRI-Mech 3.0 mechanism has 53 species and 325 chemical reactions and is adjusted to model methane combustion at pressures of 0.1–10 atm. The USC Mech II mechanism

has 111 species and 784 chemical reactions relevant to C₁–C₄ hydrocarbons and syngas oxidation at high temperature. The San Diego mechanism has 37 species and 177 chemical reactions and is optimized for auto-ignition and diffusive flames of different hydrocarbons [22]. Table 3 lists different numerical methods burning CH₄/CO₂/air blends in literature.

Table 3. Literature on numerical calculation of laminar burning speed for CH₄/CO₂/air blends

Ref.	Mixture	Numerical Method
[16, 20]	CH ₄ /CO ₂ /air	CHEMKIN programs using GRI-Mech 3.0 mechanism
[17]	CH ₄ /CO ₂ /air	CHEMKIN programs using USC Mech II mechanism
[18, 23, 24]	CH ₄ /O ₂ /CO ₂	CHEMKIN programs using GRI-Mech 3.0 mechanism
[19]	CH ₄ /CO ₂ /air	CHEMKIN programs using GRI-Mech 3.0 and C1-C3 reaction mechanisms
[21]	CH ₄ /CO ₂ /air	CHEMKIN programs using Le Cong mechanism
[22]	CH ₄ /CO ₂ /air	Chem1D code using San Diego, GRI-Mech 3.0, USC Mech II, and Konnov mechanisms
[7]	CH ₄ /CO ₂ /air	CANTERA code using GRI-Mech 3.0 mechanism

Fig. 3 shows experimental and numerical values of laminar burning speed for CH₄/air mixtures at standard conditions for varying equivalence ratios. This figure displays that most of the laminar burning speed values for stoichiometric mixtures are approximately 36.5 ± 1 cm/s. For increasing equivalence ratio, the laminar burning speed is observed to increase first and then is observed to decrease, after it reaches its maximum at equivalence ratios (ϕ) of 1.07 ± 0.01 .

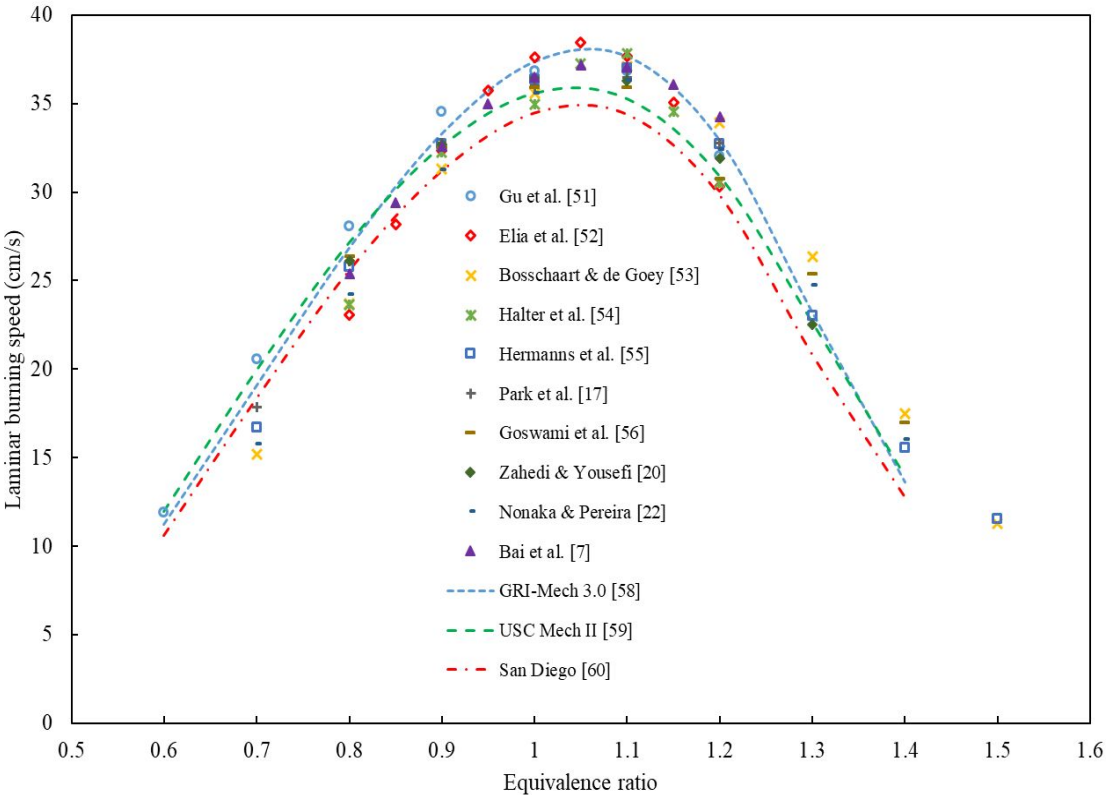


Fig. 3. Laminar burning speed of CH₄/air blends for varying equivalence ratios and at standard conditions.

Figs. 4–6 show experimental and numerical values of laminar burning speed for CH₄/CO₂/air mixtures at standard conditions for varying equivalence ratios with a different CO₂ concentration in each figure. Carbon dioxide concentration in Fig. 3 is 0%, in Fig. 4 is 20%, in Fig. 5 is 40%, in Fig. 6 is 60%.

Fig. 7 compares the laminar burning speed of CH₄/CO₂/air blends for different CO₂ concentrations versus equivalence ratio in a single plot. In this figure, the experimental data was taken from Bai et al. [7], and numerical results are calculated by GRI-Mech 3.0 [58] mechanism. As shown in Figs. 3–7, laminar burning speed decreases with an increase of CO₂ concentration and the maximum laminar burning speeds shift toward stoichiometric mixture as the percentage of CO₂ increases in both experimental and numerical results. The influence of CO₂ on laminar burning speed is discussed later in this section.

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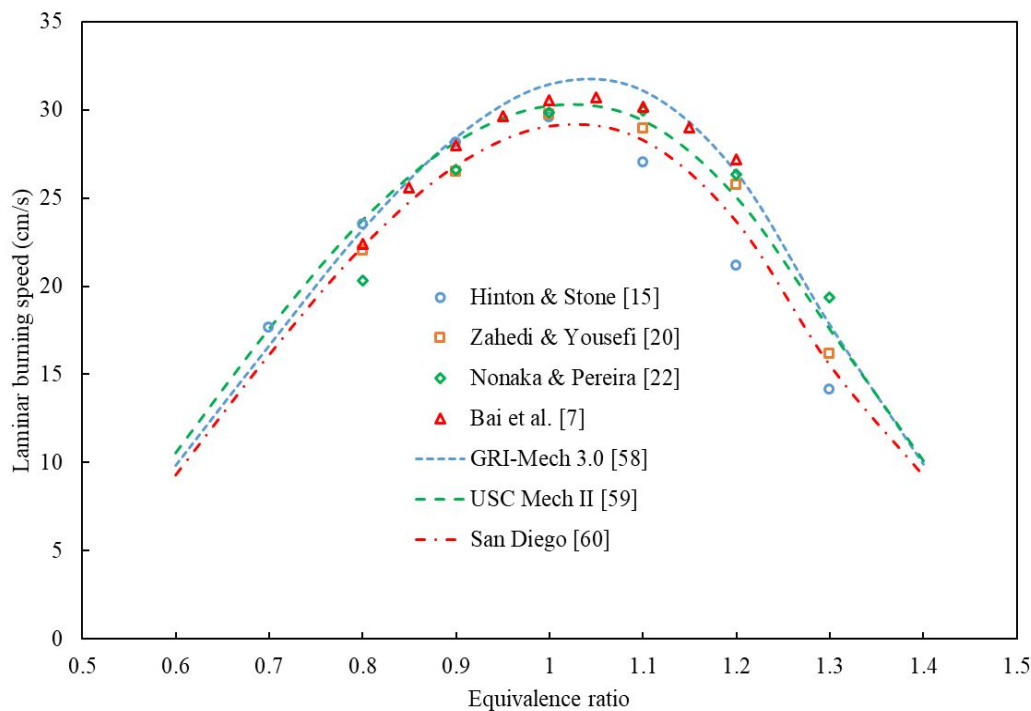


Fig. 4. Laminar burning speed of $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ blends at varying equivalence ratios, CO_2 concentration of 20%, and standard conditions.

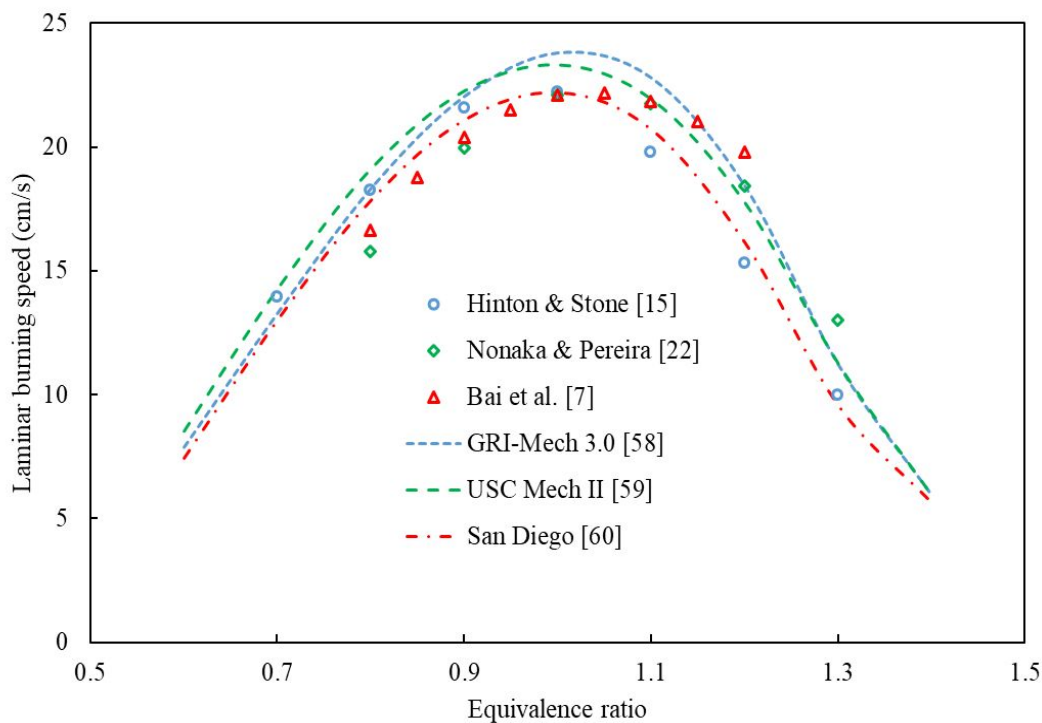


Fig. 5. Laminar burning speed of $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ blends at varying equivalence ratios, CO_2 concentration of 40%, and standard conditions.

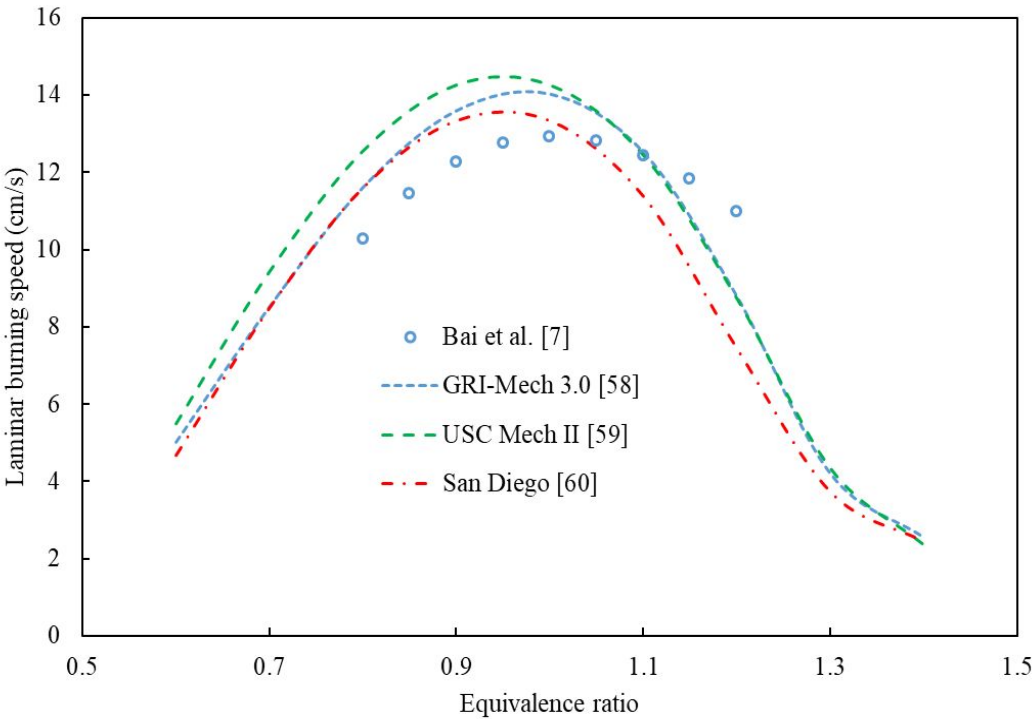


Fig. 6. Laminar burning speed of $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ blends at varying equivalence ratios, CO_2 concentration of 60%, and standard conditions.

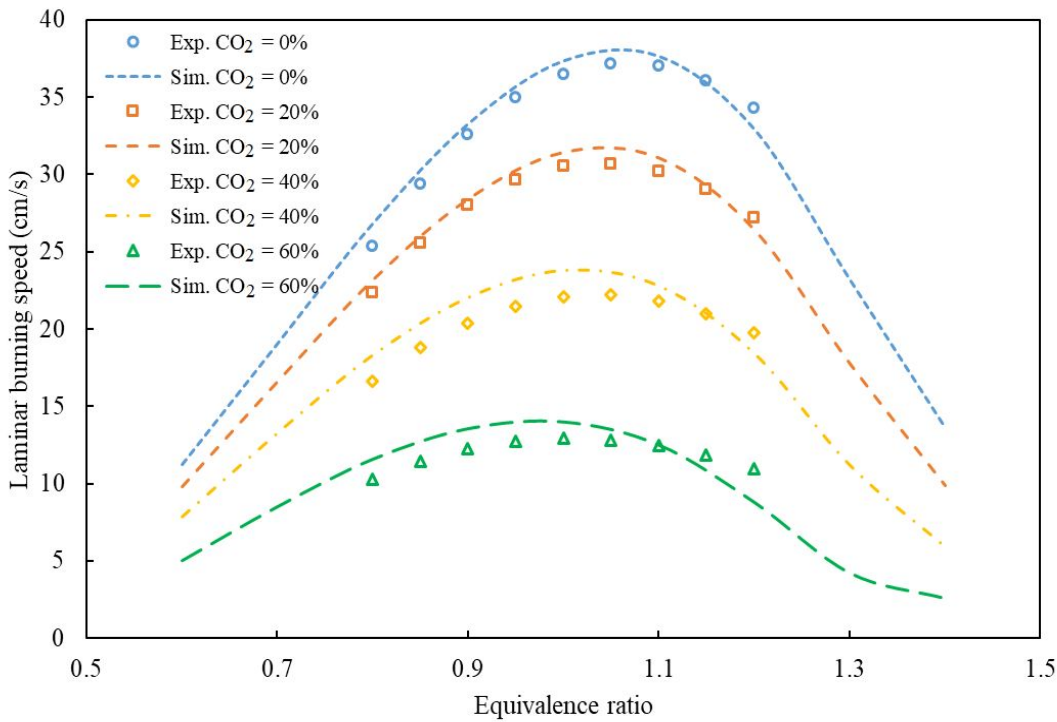


Fig. 7. Laminar burning speed of $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ blends at varying equivalence ratios and standard conditions for various CO_2 mole fractions [7,58].

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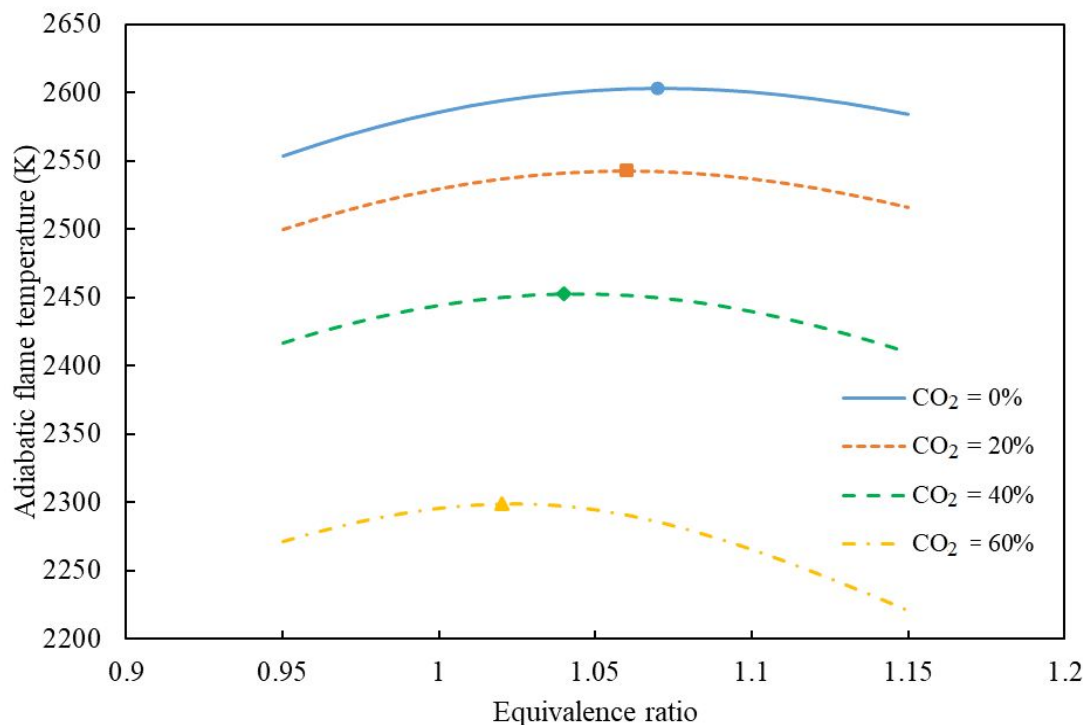


Fig. 8. Equilibrium adiabatic flame temperature of CH₄/CO₂/air blends along varying equivalence ratios and standard conditions for various CO₂ mole fractions.

Fig. 8 shows equilibrium adiabatic flame temperature of CH₄/CO₂/air as calculated by STANJAN [61]. As CO₂ concentration increases, the equilibrium adiabatic flame temperature decreases because of the high heat capacity of CO₂, which in turn acts as an energy sink. However, equilibrium adiabatic flame temperature is observed to decrease nonlinearly with increasing CO₂ concentration. It has a stronger thermal effect for higher CO₂ mole fractions in the blends [18]. The direct chemical participation of CO₂ also reduces the rate of exothermic reaction $\text{CO} + \text{OH} = \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}$, which results in a temperature reduction. Markers on the trends in Fig. 8 indicate the maximum equilibrium adiabatic flame temperature of each case. A shift of equivalence ratio for the maximum equilibrium adiabatic flame temperature from 1.07 to 1.02 can be observed when CO₂ concentration changes from 0% to 60%. This shift of maximum flame temperature relates to the shift of maximum laminar burning speed to stoichiometric ratios for CO₂ concentrations of 0–60%.

The GRI-Mech 3.0 mechanism was used to perform sensitivity analysis of laminar burning speed for CH₄/CO₂/air mixture. Fig. 9 illustrates normalized sensitivity coefficients of laminar burning speed at standard condition and for stoichiometric mixture and different CO₂ concentrations. A normalized sensitivity coefficient is defined as $\frac{k}{S_u} \frac{dS_u}{dk}$, where k is the reaction rate constant. The sensitivity factors of laminar burning speed are observed to be affected by increasing CO₂ concentrations in CH₄/CO₂/air flames. This figure shows the largest positive sensitivity coefficient for the reaction $\text{H} + \text{O}_2 = \text{O} + \text{OH}$ and is followed

by $\text{CO} + \text{OH} = \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}$. The reverse reaction $\text{CO} + \text{OH} = \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}$ is considered as the main pathway where CO_2 plays a role in chemical reactions [22]. The direct involvement of CO_2 reduces the rate of reaction $\text{CO} + \text{OH} = \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}$. Since this is a primary exothermic reaction in the mechanism, a temperature reduction results from the decrease of energy release rate. With the addition of CO_2 , the H radicals compete among the reaction $\text{H} + \text{O}_2 = \text{O} + \text{OH}$ and the reverse reaction $\text{CO} + \text{OH} = \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}$. Therefore, the reaction $\text{H} + \text{O}_2 = \text{O} + \text{OH}$ is restricted by the existence of CO_2 , which subsequently inhibits the combustion process [22].

As CO_2 concentration increases, CO_2 mole fraction in unburned mixture increases at the same equivalence ratio. Due to the nonlinear thermal effect of CO_2 and chemical reaction effect of CO_2 mentioned above, the leaner mixture (less CO_2 content) seems to have a higher equilibrium adiabatic flame temperature. Thus, the higher CO_2 mole fraction in an unburned mixture shifts the maximum equilibrium adiabatic flame temperature to leaner equivalence ratios. Which explains the cause of shifting maximum laminar burning speeds toward stoichiometric mixtures.

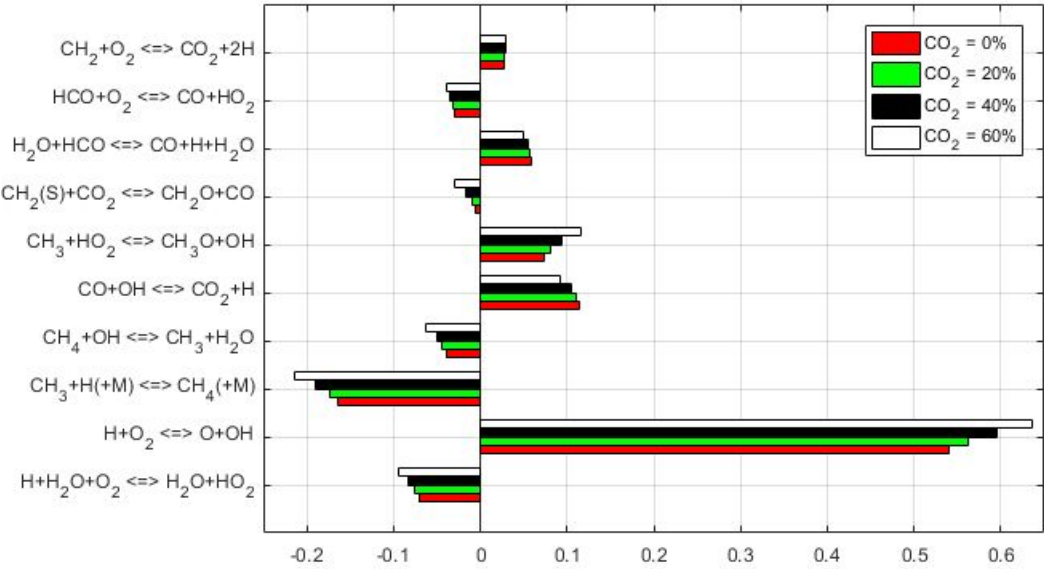


Fig. 9. Normalized sensitivity coefficients of $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ blends at stoichiometric and standard conditions for various CO_2 mole fractions.

3.2. Propane/carbon dioxide/air

Different experimental approaches of laminar burning speed measurement in literature [12, 25, 26, 36, 53, 62–69] were mentioned in Section 2. Experimental and numerical values of laminar burning speeds for $\text{C}_3\text{H}_8/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ mixtures are presented in this section. In this paper, numerical results were calculated using the same methodology as $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ using two chemical kinetic mechanisms: USC Mech II [59] and San Diego [60]. Table 4 lists different numerical methods burning $\text{C}_3\text{H}_8/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ blends.

Table 4. Literature on numerical calculation of laminar burning speed for $C_3H_8/CO_2/air$ blends

Ref.	Mixture	Numerical Method
[25]	$C_3H_8/CO_2/air$	CHEMKIN programs using C1-C3 reaction and Konnov mechanisms
[12]	$C_3H_8/CO_2/air$	CANTERA code using USC Mech II mechanism

Fig. 10 showcases the experimental and numerical laminar burning speeds of a C_3H_8/air mixture at standard condition for varying equivalence ratio. This figure displays that most of the laminar burning speed values for stoichiometric mixtures are approximately 39.5 ± 1 cm/s. For increasing equivalence ratio, the laminar burning speed is observed to increase first and then is observed to decrease, after it reaches its maximum at equivalence ratios (ϕ) of 1.09 ± 0.01 .

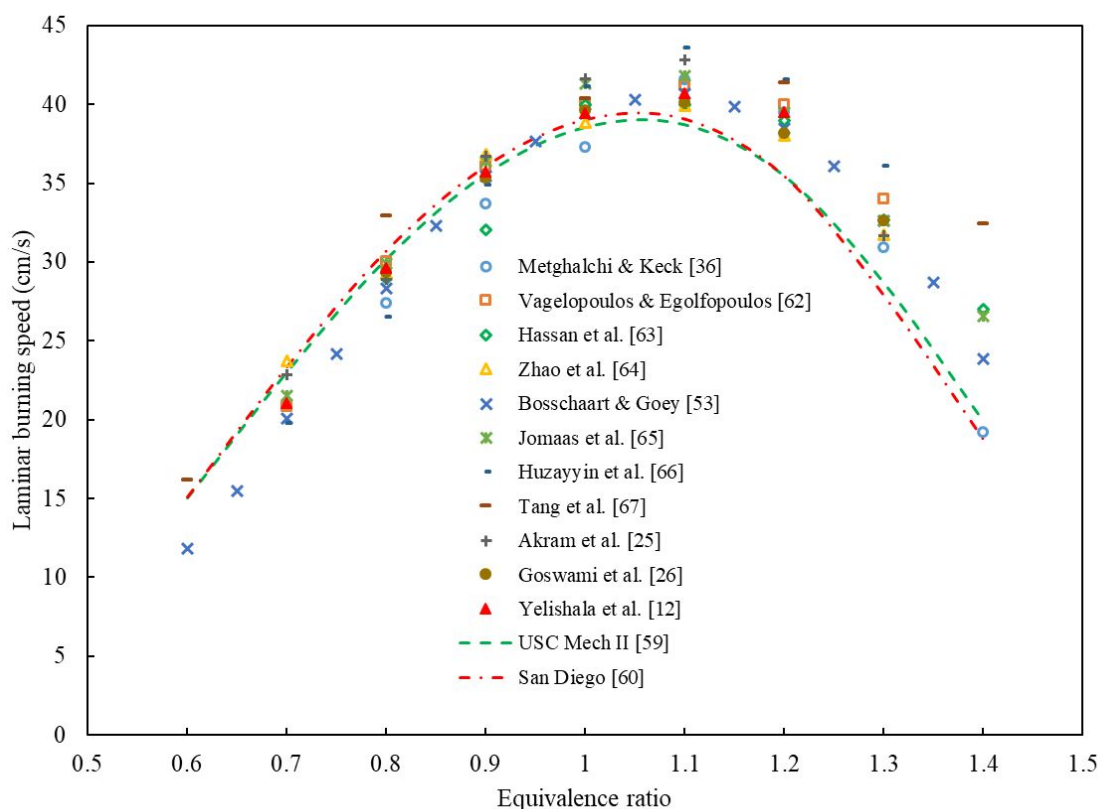


Fig. 10. Laminar burning speed of C_3H_8/air blends for varying equivalence ratios and at standard conditions.

Figs. 11–13 show the experimental and numerical values of laminar burning speeds for $C_3H_8/CO_2/air$ mixtures versus different equivalence ratios at standard condition. While temperature and pressure have been fixed in these figures, carbon dioxide concentrations have been varied from 0% to 80%. Fig. 14 shows comparison of laminar burning speeds for $C_3H_8/CO_2/air$ mixtures versus equivalence ratio for different CO_2 concentrations. In

this figure, experimental data was taken from Yelishala et al. [12] and simulation results are calculated using the USC Mech II [59] mechanism. Similar to CH₄/CO₂/air mixtures, laminar burning speed decreases with an increase of CO₂ concentrations and the maximum laminar burning speed shifts towards leaner mixtures with an increase of CO₂ concentrations in both experimental and numerical studies. As shown in Fig. 15, the maximum equilibrium adiabatic flame temperature calculated by STANJAN shifts from $\phi = 1.09$ to $\phi = 1.03$. This phenomenon is due to the high heat capacity of CO₂, which in turn acts as an energy sink. However, it is noted that the equilibrium adiabatic flame temperature decreases nonlinearly with the increase of CO₂ concentration. It has a stronger thermal effect for a higher CO₂ concentration in the mixture [18]. The direct chemical participation of CO₂ also reduces the rate of exothermic reaction CO + OH = CO₂ + H, which results in a temperature reduction. Markers on the trends in Fig. 15 present the maximum equilibrium adiabatic flame temperature of each case. This shift can be explained in the same way as for the CH₄/CO₂/air flame.

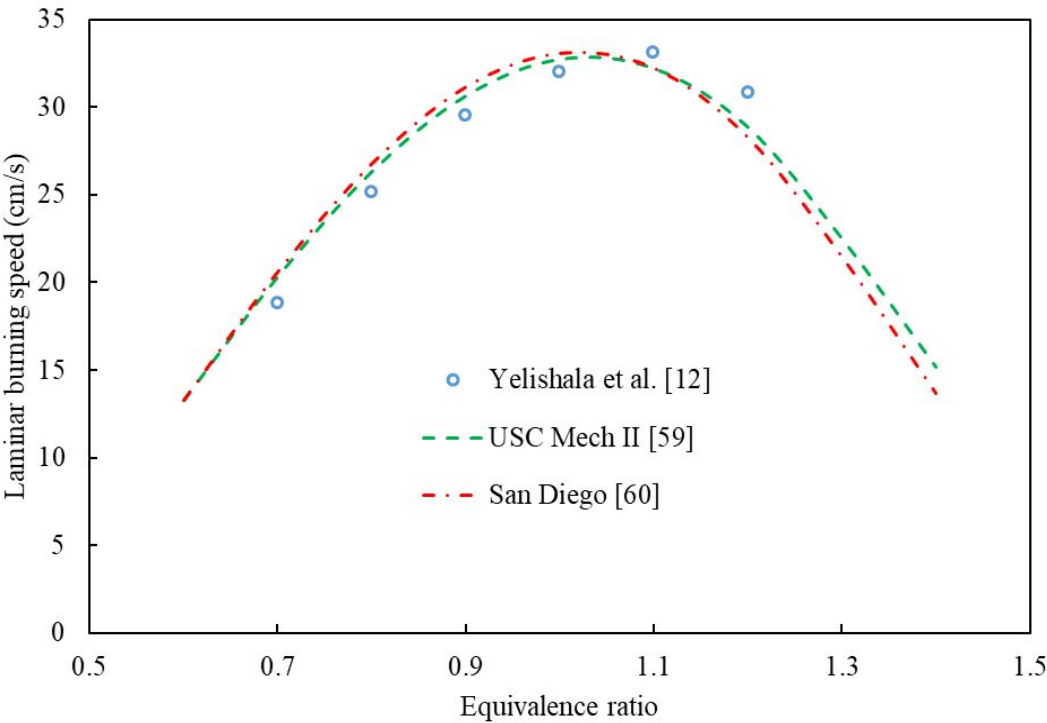


Fig. 11. Laminar burning speed of C₃H₈/CO₂/air blends at varying equivalence ratios, CO₂ concentration of 20%, and standard conditions.

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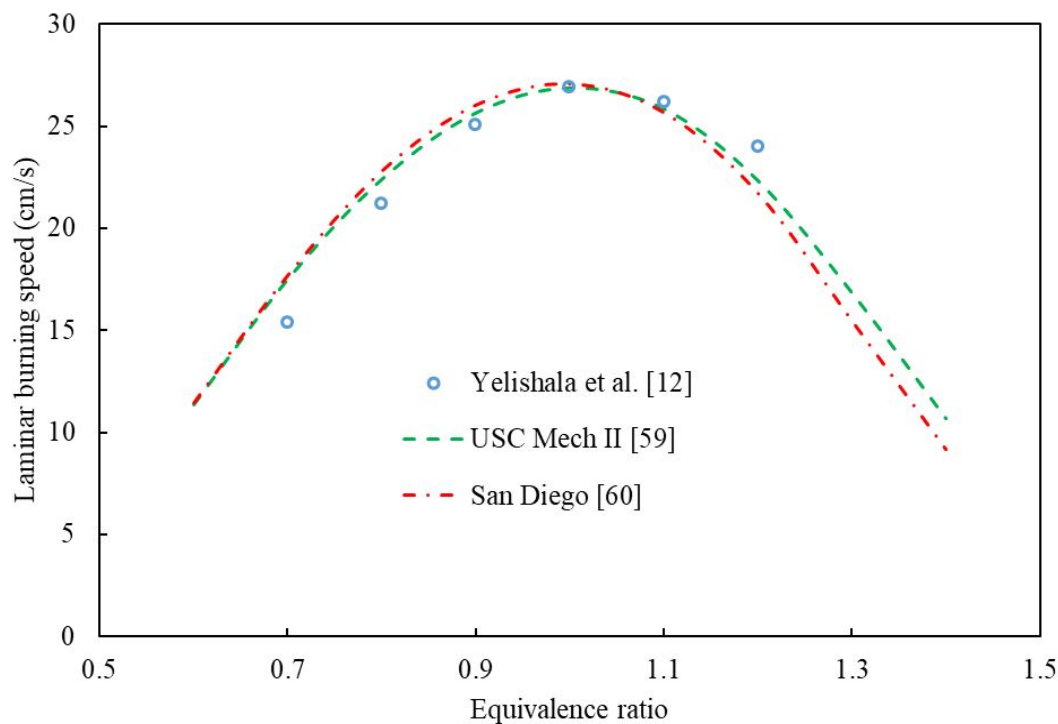


Fig. 12. Laminar burning speed of C_3H_8/CO_2 /air blends at varying equivalence ratios, CO_2 concentration of 60%, and standard conditions.

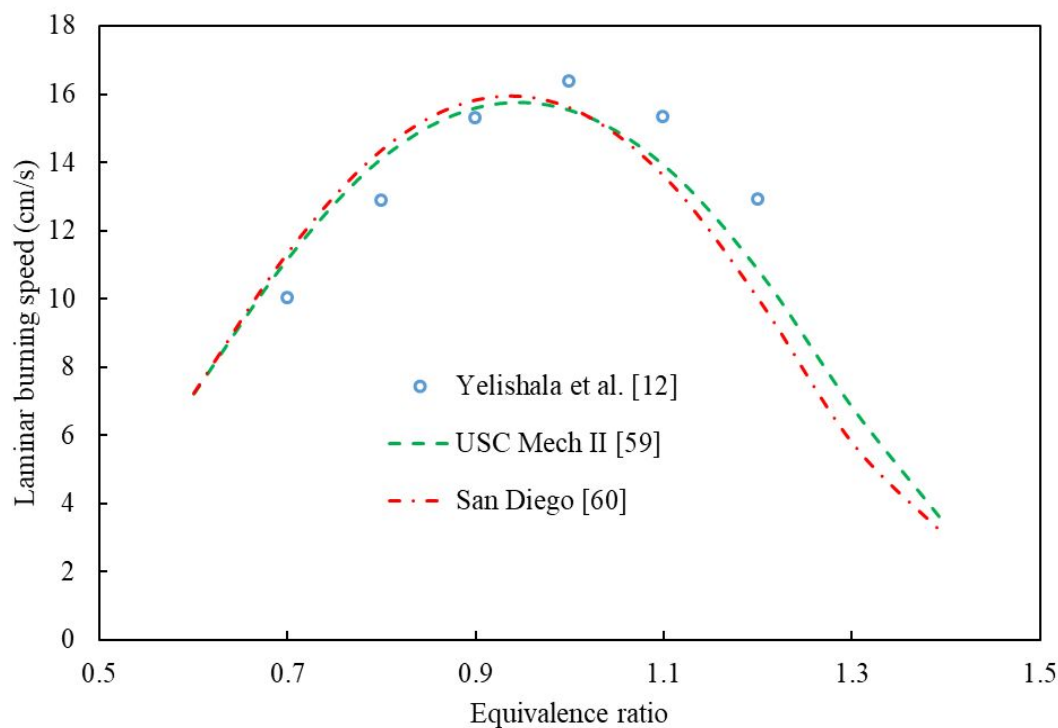


Fig. 13. Laminar burning speed of C_3H_8/CO_2 /air blends at varying equivalence ratios, CO_2 concentration of 80%, and standard conditions.

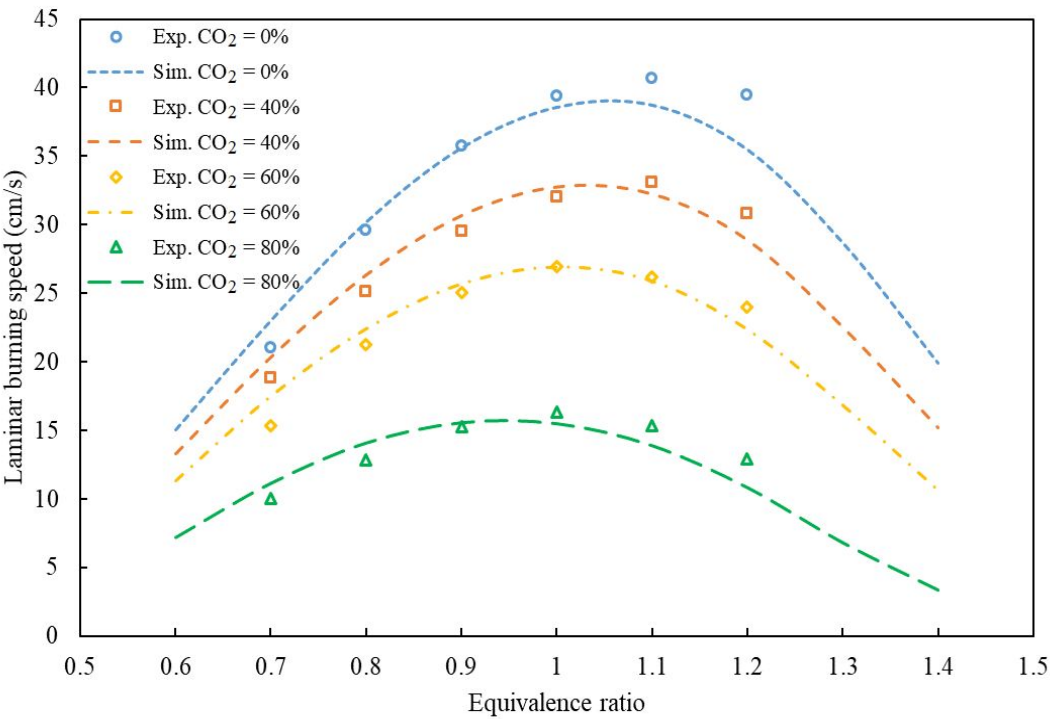


Fig. 14. Laminar burning speed of C_3H_8/CO_2 /air blends at varying equivalence ratios and standard conditions for various CO_2 mole fractions [12,59].

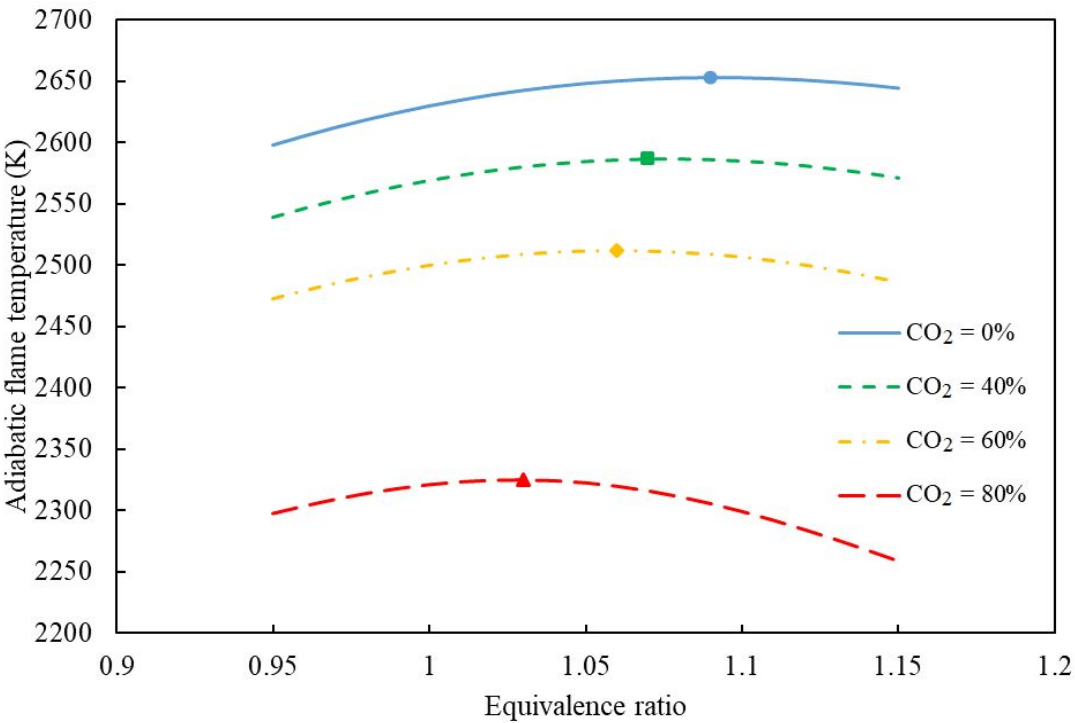


Fig. 15. Equilibrium adiabatic flame temperature of C_3H_8/CO_2 /air blends along varying equivalence ratios and standard conditions.

A sensitivity analysis of laminar burning speed for a C_3H_8/CO_2 /air mixture has also been done using the USC Mech II mechanism. Fig. 16 shows the normalized sensitivity coefficients of laminar burning speed for stoichiometric mixture and different CO_2 fractions at standard condition. It can be noted that CO_2 fraction affect the sensitivity factors of laminar burning speed for C_3H_8/CO_2 /air flame. This figure shows the largest positive sensitivity coefficient for the reaction $H + O_2 = O + OH$ and is followed by $CO + OH = CO_2 + H$. Similar to the CH_4/CO_2 /air flame, the direct involvement of CO_2 in chemical reaction and the nonlinear thermal effect of CO_2 shifts the maximum laminar burning speed of the C_3H_8/CO_2 /air mixture [70, 71].

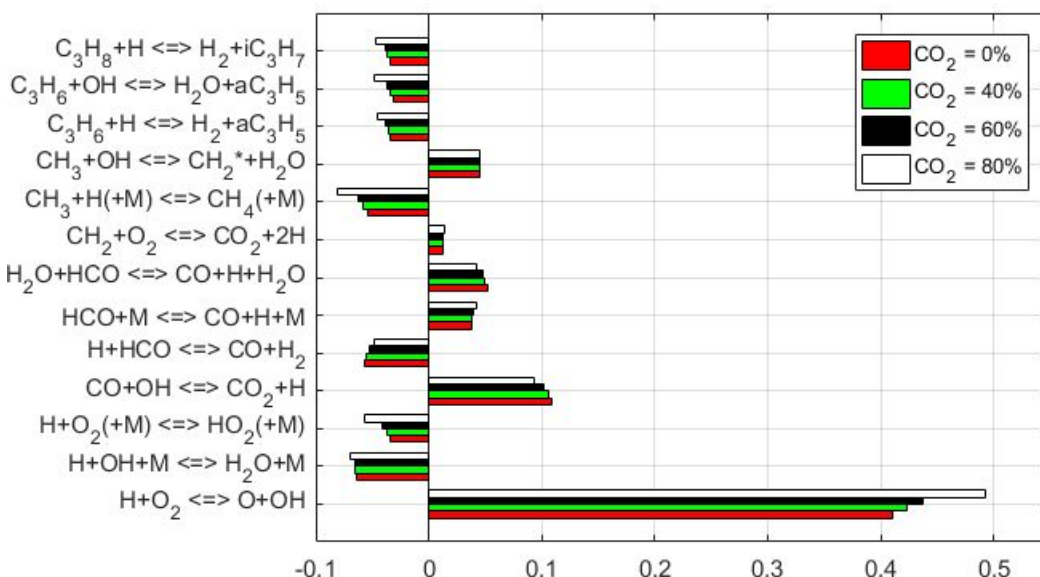


Fig. 16. Normalized sensitivity coefficients of C_3H_8/CO_2 /air blends at stoichiometric and standard conditions for various CO_2 mole fractions.

The combined uncertainty of constant volume method with multi-shell thermodynamic model is calculated as follows [7, 12]

$$E(S_u) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \right)^2 E_i^2(x_i)} \quad (8)$$

where $E(S_u)$ is the uncertainty of S_u related to x_i (temperature, pressure, equivalence ratio, diluent, model) and sensitivity coefficient $\partial f / \partial x_i$. The combined uncertainty of this measurement is predicted to be 3% using Eq. (8).

4. Effects of CO_2 on flame instability

Three primary instabilities: Rayleigh-Taylor instability, hydrodynamic instability, and thermal-diffusive instability [72–75] are common in combustion study. Rayleigh-Taylor instability was first recognized by Lord Rayleigh [76] and later by Geoffrey Ingram Taylor

[77]. The flame interface is destabilized by the buoyancy effect of lighter burned gas and gravity effect of heavier unburned gas. This instability is neglected in this study due to the relatively high laminar burning speed of methane and propane. Hydrodynamic instability was independently described by Darrieus and Landau [78,79]. This instability is caused by the gas expansion because of the energy released by chemical reactions and is governed by flame thickness and expansion ratio, which always destabilize the flame. Hydrodynamic instability will be enhanced due to the decrease of flame thickness or the increase of expansion ratio. Thermal-diffusive instability is caused by the inequality of thermal and mass diffusion of different species, which is determined by the effective Lewis number [80]. Li and his co-works [81–84] also studied flame instability and other combustion properties of CH_4 and C_3H_8 .

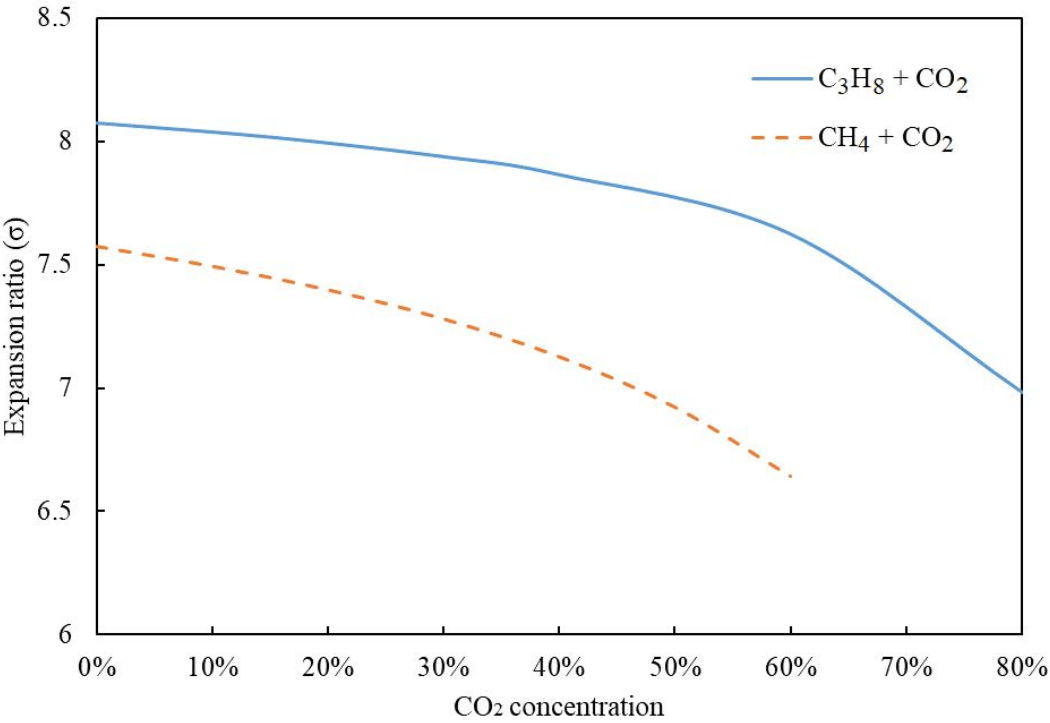


Fig. 17. Expansion ratio of $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_8/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ at stoichiometric mixture, standard temperature, and pressure of 2 atm.

20

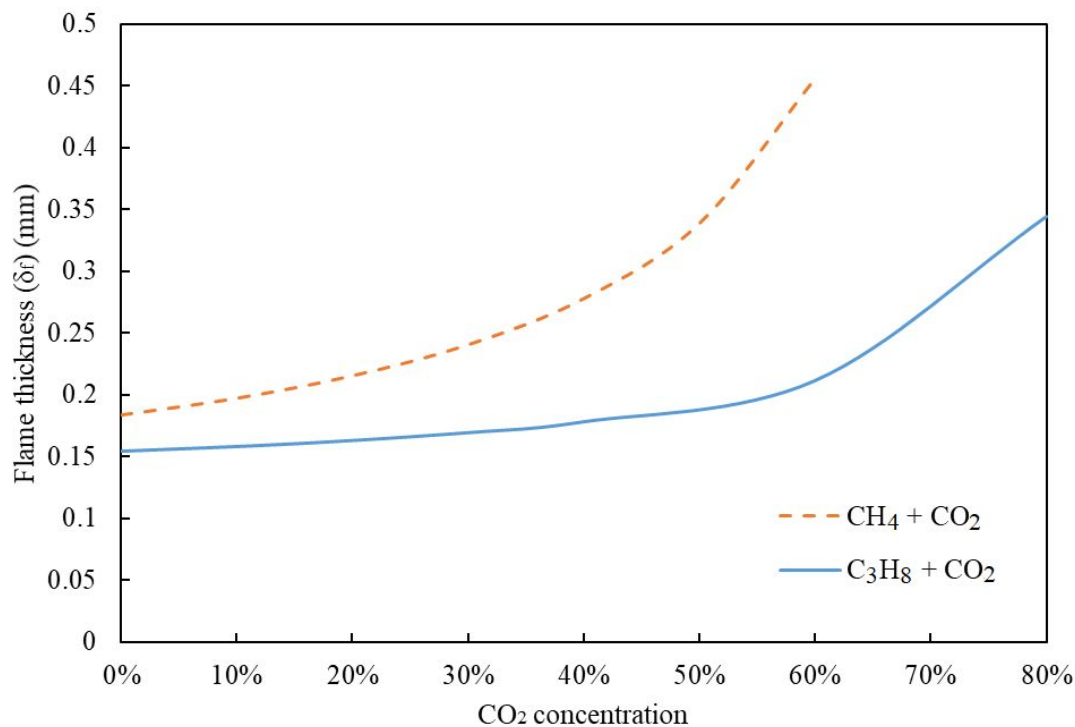


Fig. 18. Flame thickness of CH₄/CO₂/air and C₃H₈/CO₂/air at stoichiometric mixture, standard temperature, and pressure of 2 atm.

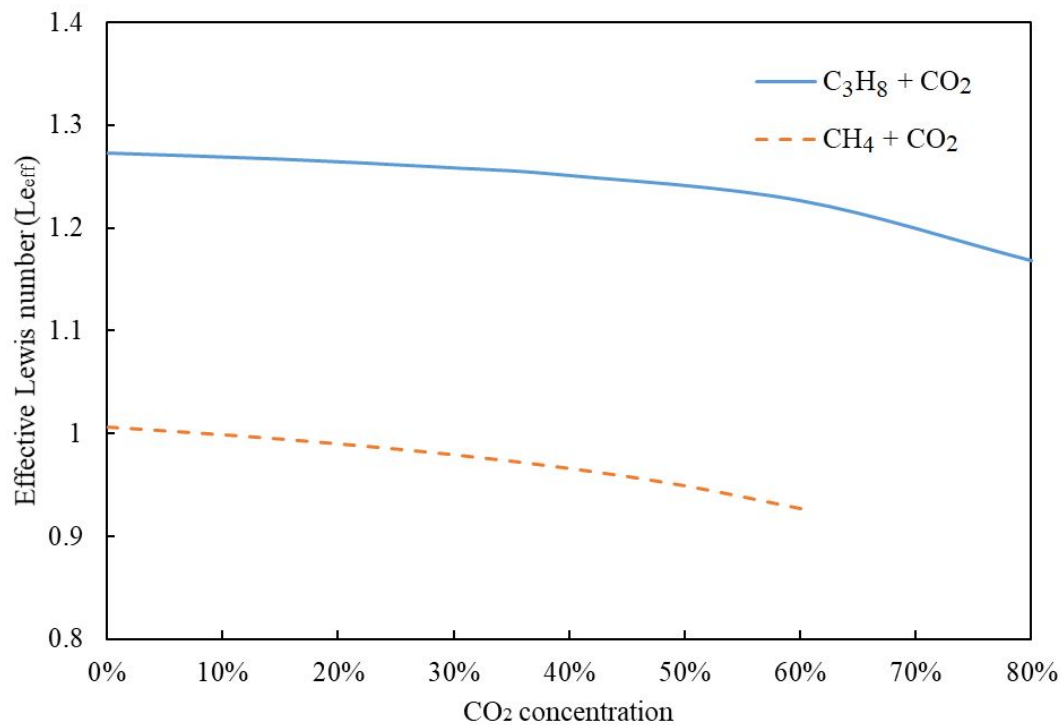


Fig. 19. Effective Lewis number of CH₄/CO₂/air and C₃H₈/CO₂/air at stoichiometric mixture, standard temperature, and pressure of 2 atm.

Figs. 17–19 show the thermal expansion ratio, flame thickness, and effective Lewis number for CH₄/CO₂/air and C₃H₈/CO₂/air flames versus CO₂ concentration. The thermal expansion ratio is defined by $\sigma = \frac{\rho_u}{\rho_b}$, the flame thickness is defined by $\delta_f = \frac{\alpha}{S_u}$, the Lewis number is defined by $Le = \frac{\alpha}{D}$, where α and D are the thermal and mass diffusivities. The effective Lewis number is defined by

$$Le_{eff} = 1 + \frac{(Le_{Ex} - 1) + (Le_{Def} - 1)A}{1 + A} \tag{8}$$

where $Le_{Ex} = \frac{\alpha_{Ex}}{D_{Ex}}$ is the Lewis number of excessive reactants and $Le_{Def} = \frac{\alpha_{Def}}{D_{Def}}$ is the Lewis number of deficient reactants. $A = 1 + Ze(\frac{1}{\phi} - 1)$, Ze is the flame Zeldovich number calculated as follows

$$Ze = \frac{E_a(T_b - T_u)}{\bar{R}T_b^2} \tag{9}$$

where $E_a = -2\bar{R}\frac{\partial \ln(S_u \rho_u)}{\partial \ln(1/T_b)}$ is the global activation energy and \bar{R} is the universal gas constant [46]. With an increase of CO₂ concentration in both CH₄ and C₃H₈ flames, the flame thickness increases while the expansion ratio decreases, which suppresses hydrodynamic instability. However, the effective Lewis number decreases as CO₂ concentration increases in both CH₄ and C₃H₈ flames, which promotes thermal-diffusive instability.

As shown in Fig. 20, flames become more stable as the concentration of CO₂ increases for various equivalence ratios. It shows that CO₂ suppresses flame instability as a consequence of the combination of thermal-diffusive and hydrodynamic effects.

	0%	20%	40%	60%
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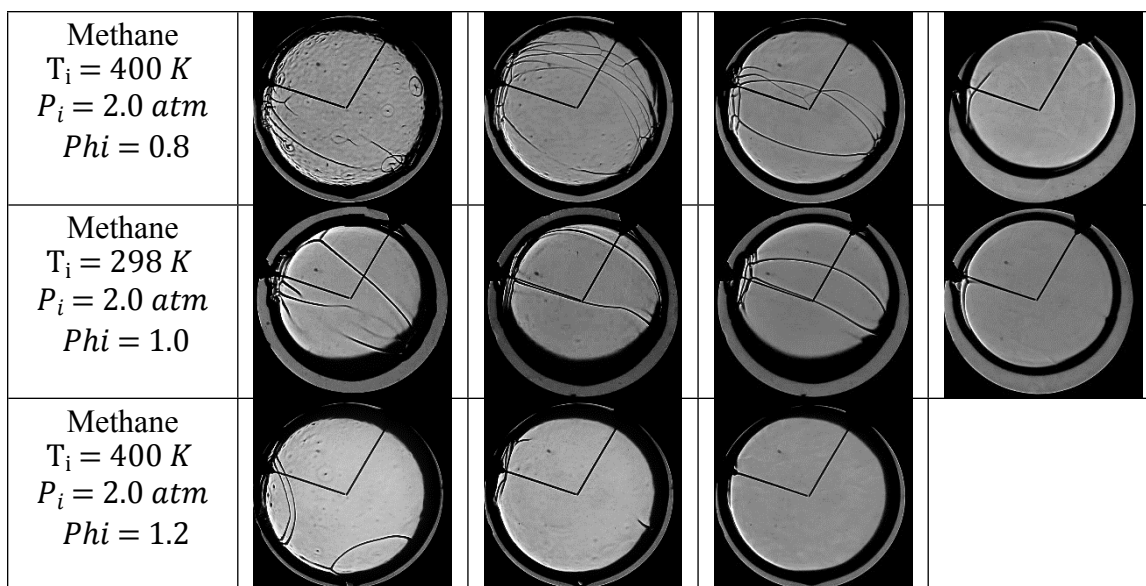


Fig. 20. Snapshots of $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ blends at two different initial temperatures and initial pressure of 2 atm [7].

5. Conclusions

The available literature for laminar burning speed and flame instability of $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_8/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ blends has been reviewed. The results are summarized as follows:

- (1) Laminar burning speeds and equilibrium adiabatic flame temperatures of $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_8/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ combustion decrease with the addition of CO_2 . Laminar burning speeds of stoichiometric $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_8/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ were measured to be around 36.5 cm/s and 39.5 cm/s, respectively. Addition of CO_2 reduced such speeds significantly, for instance 60% CO_2 reduced these speeds to around 12.5 cm/s and 26.5 cm/s, respectively.
- (2) Carbon dioxide contributes in the chemical reaction mainly via the reverse reaction of $\text{CO} + \text{OH} = \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}$ and slows down the flame by competing for the H radical with reaction $\text{H} + \text{O}_2 = \text{O} + \text{OH}$.
- (3) As CO_2 concentration increases, the maximum laminar burning speed shifts toward stoichiometric mixture because of the thermal and chemical effects.
- (4) As CO_2 concentration increases, thermal-diffusive instability is promoted while hydrodynamic instability is inhibited in both $\text{CH}_4/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_8/\text{CO}_2/\text{air}$ flames. Carbon dioxide suppresses flame instability as a consequence of the combination of thermal-diffusive and hydrodynamic effects.

Acknowledgments

This research is funded by the American Chemical Society (ACS), Petroleum Research Fund (RPF#59069-ND9; Funder ID: 10.13039/100006770).

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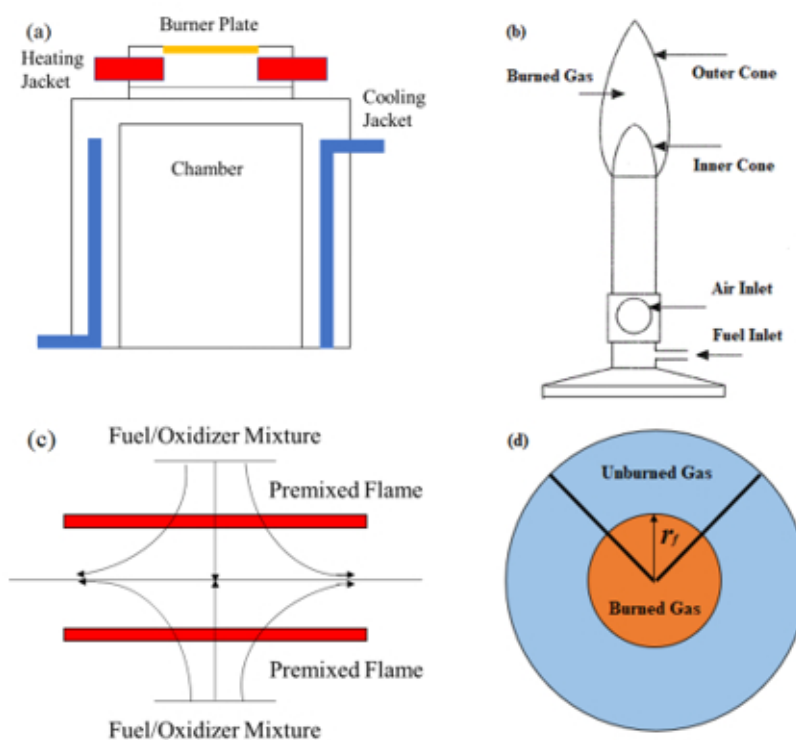
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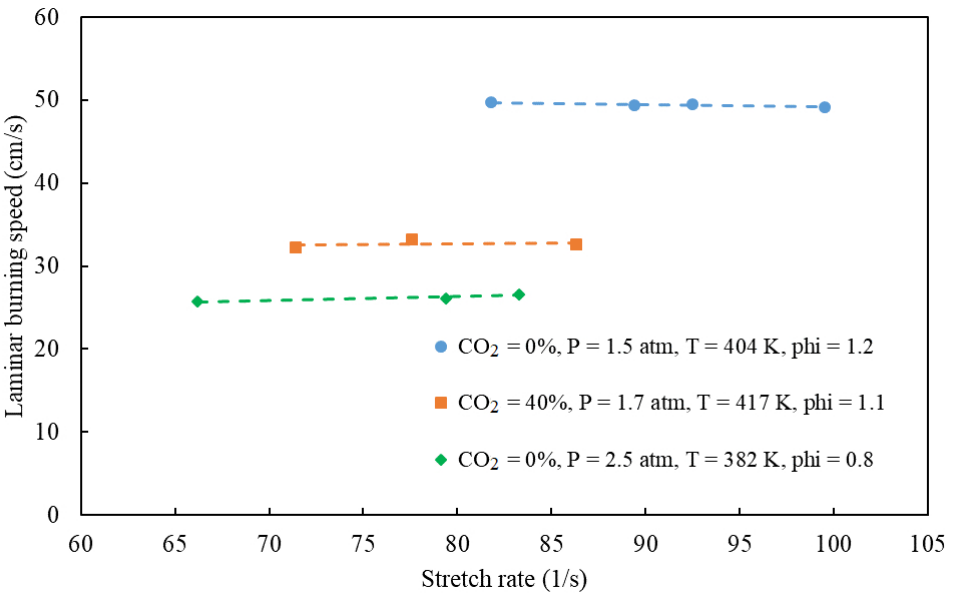
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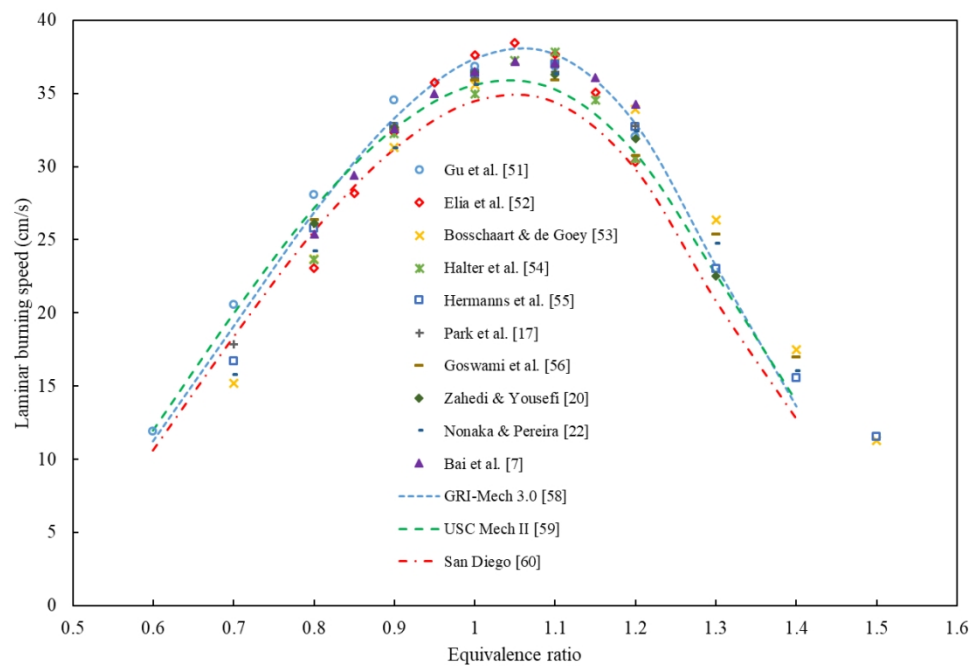
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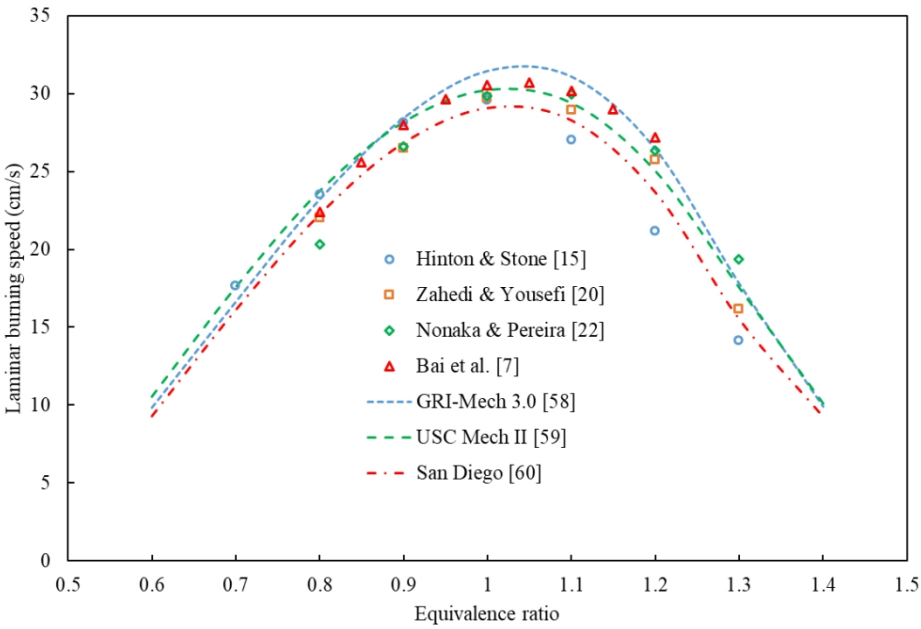
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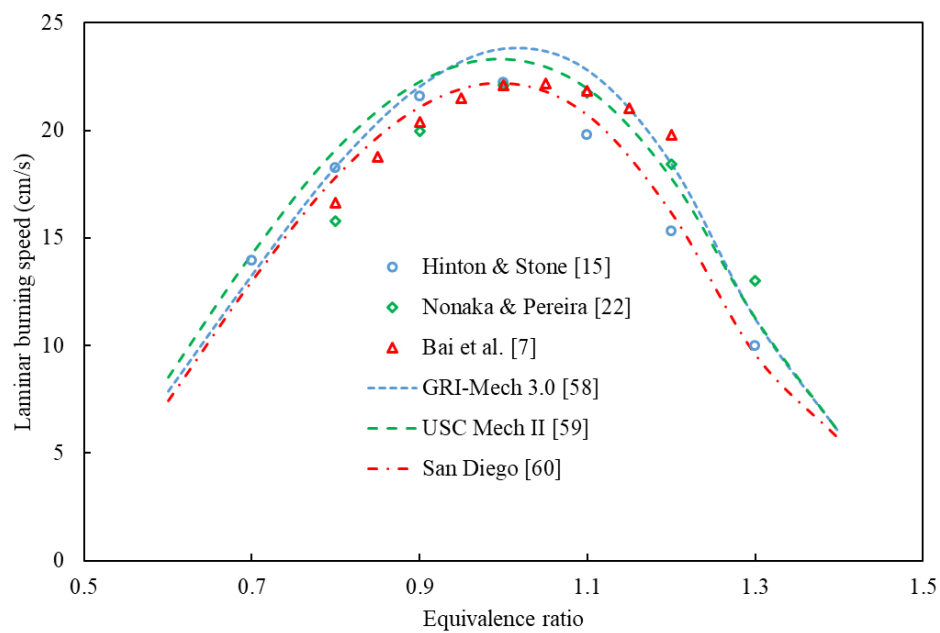
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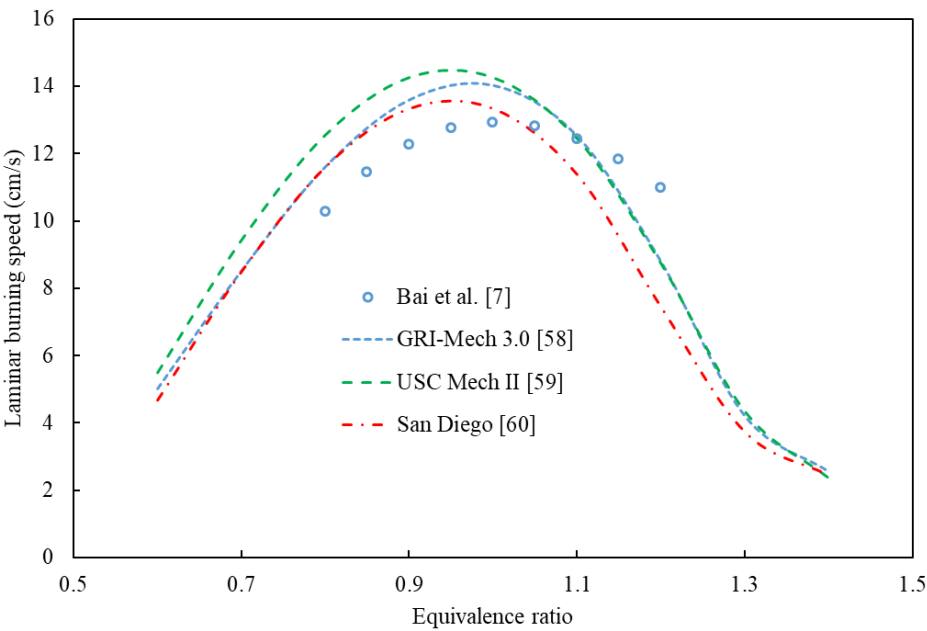
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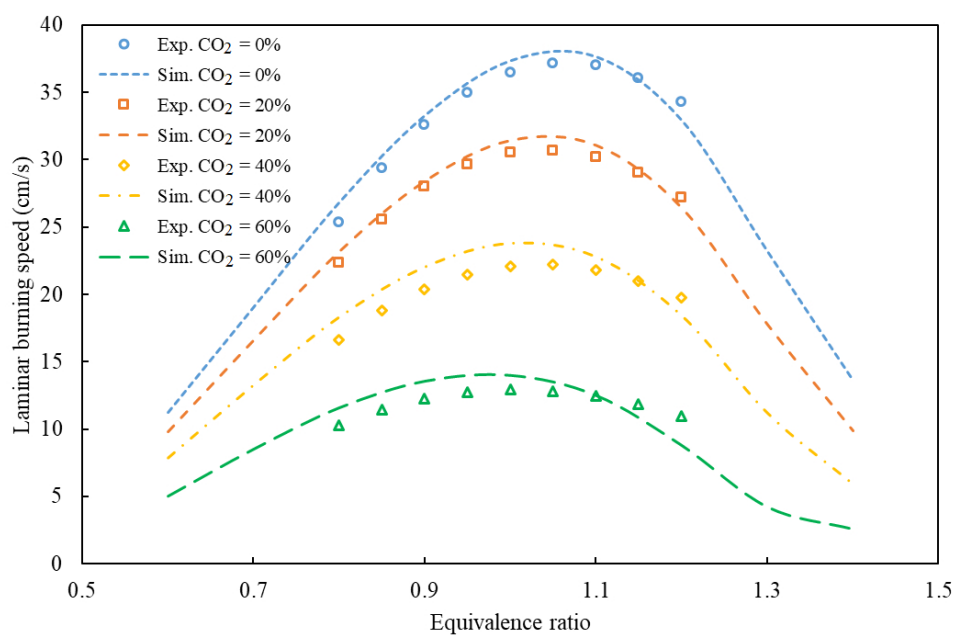
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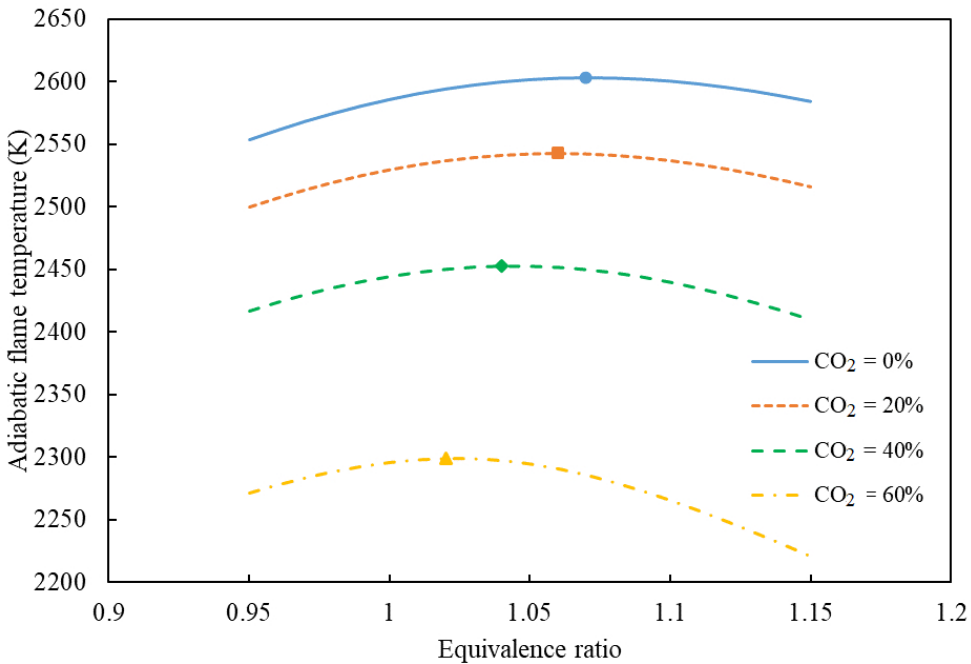
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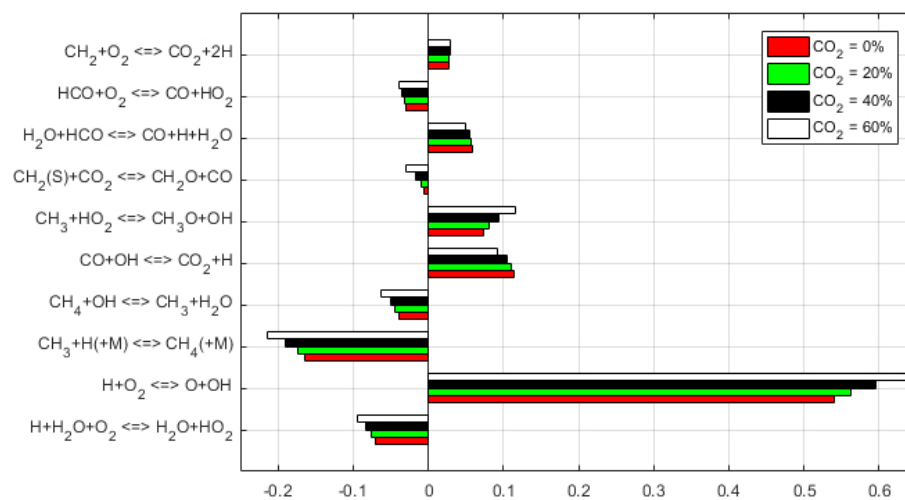
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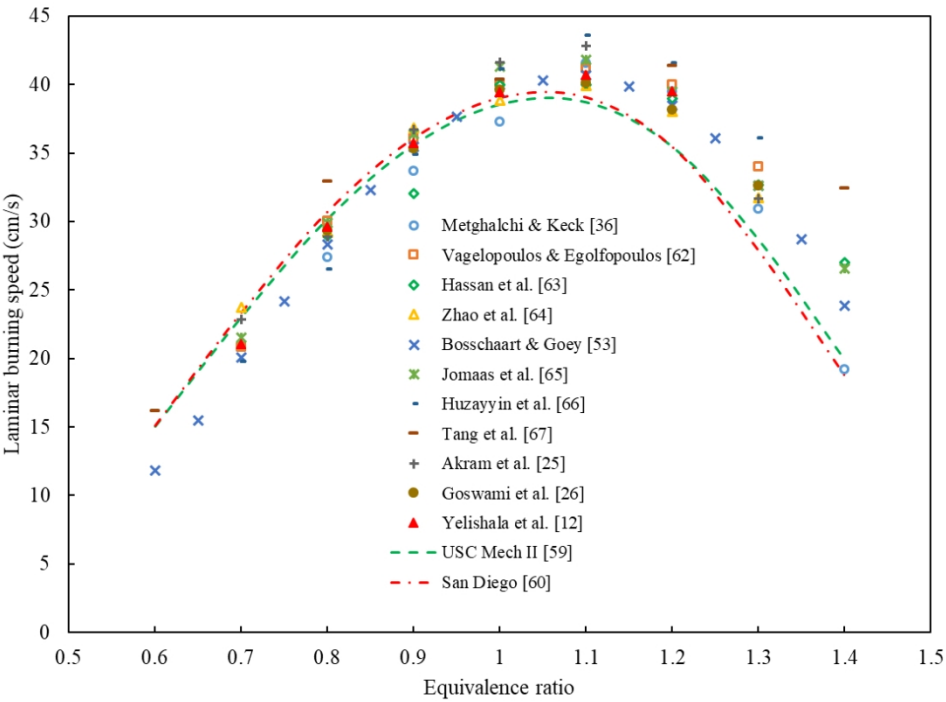
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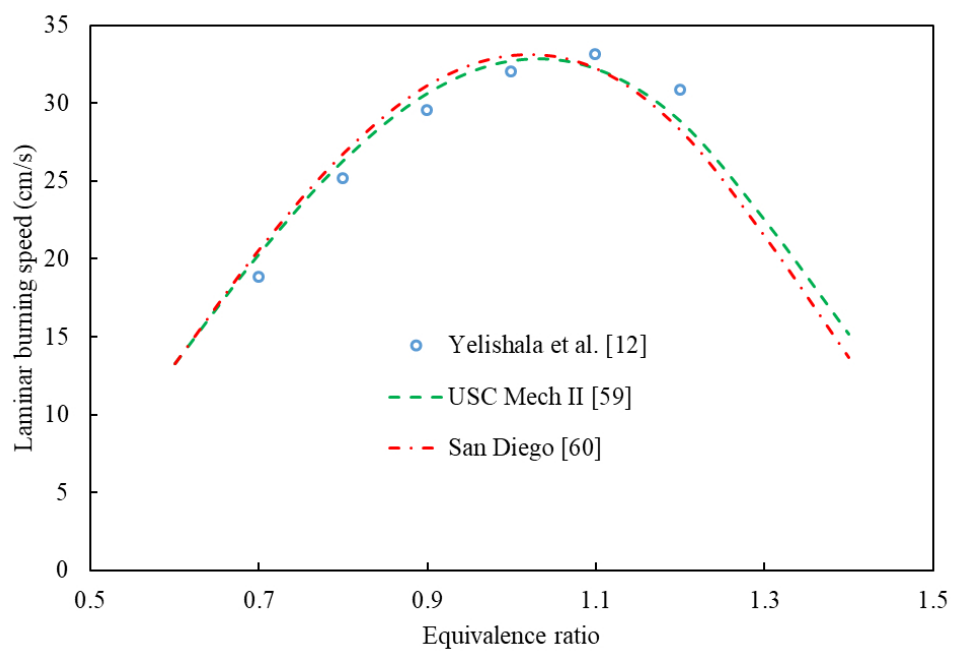
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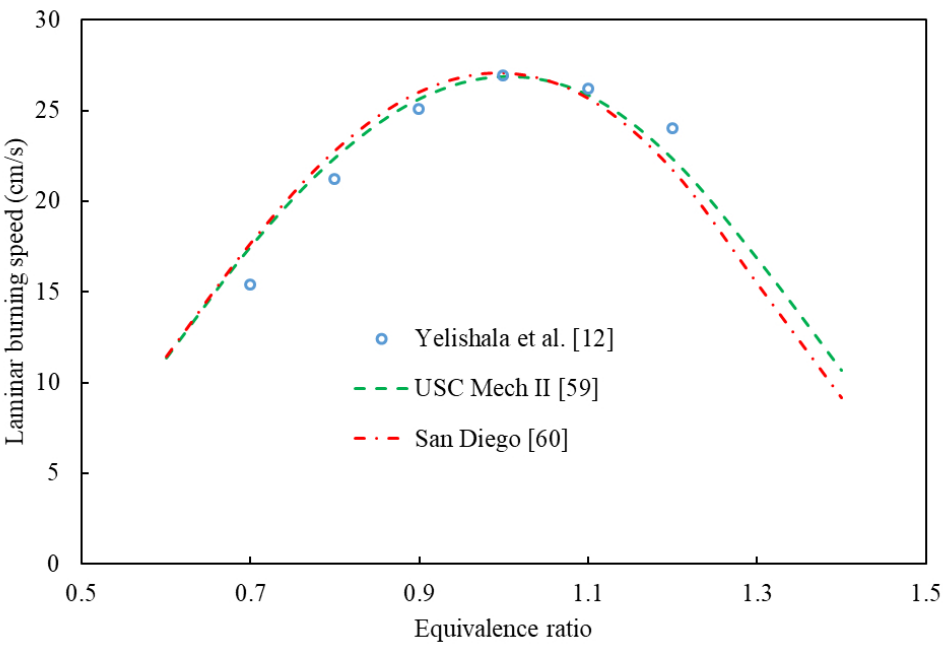
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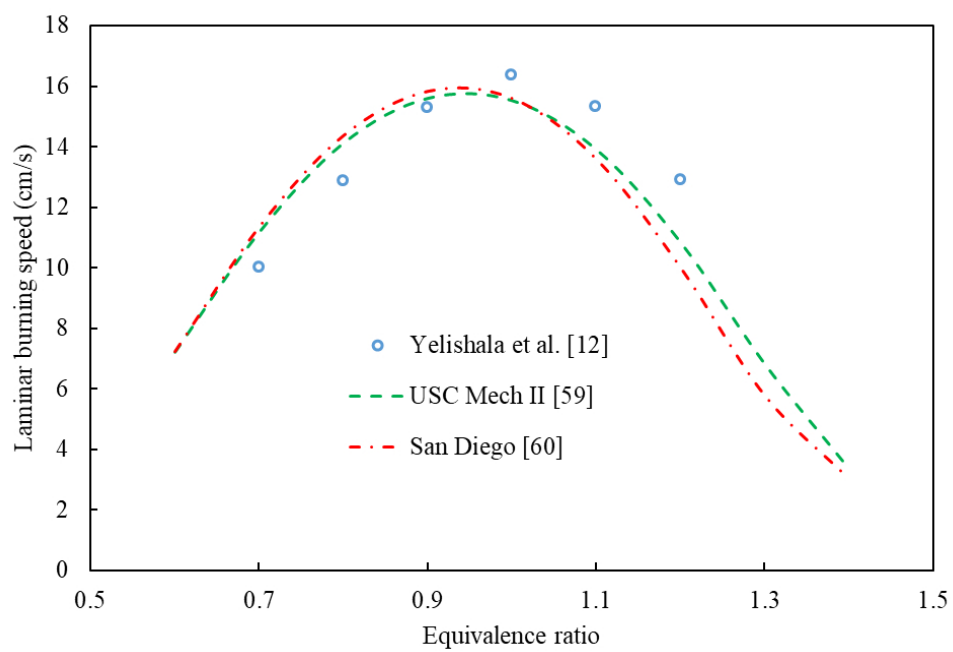
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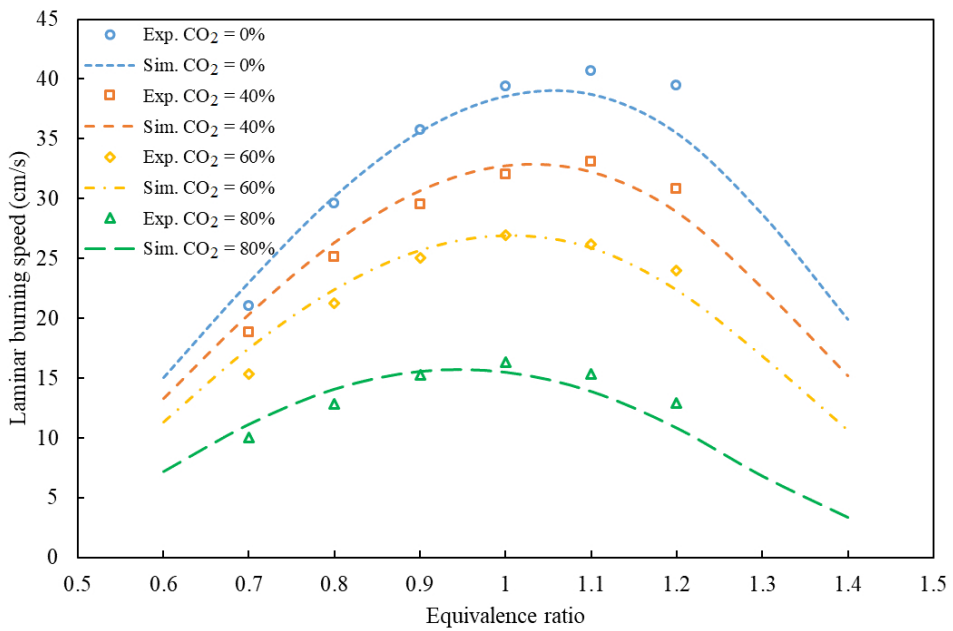
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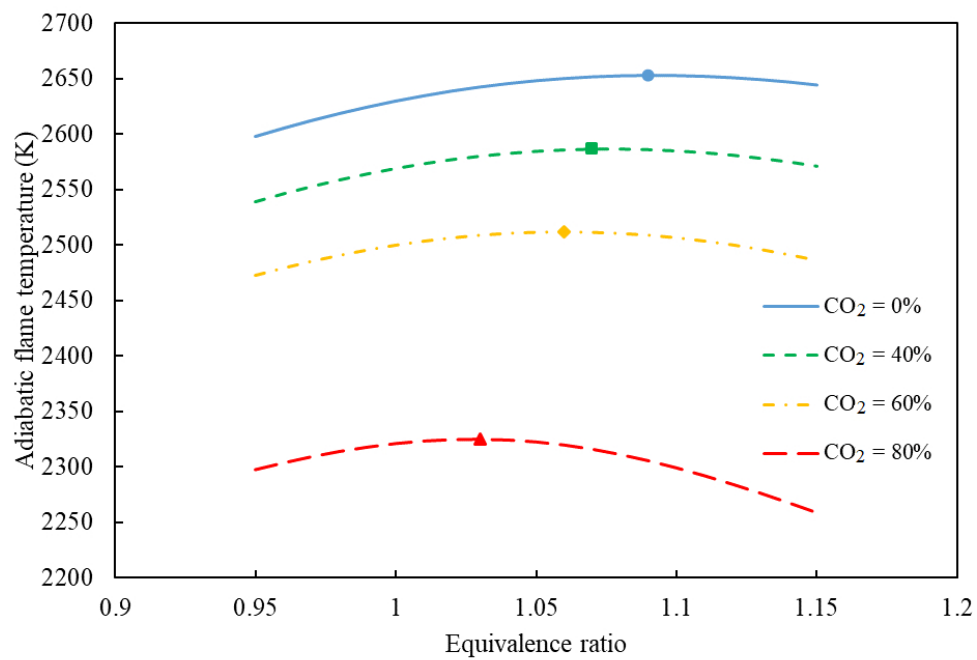
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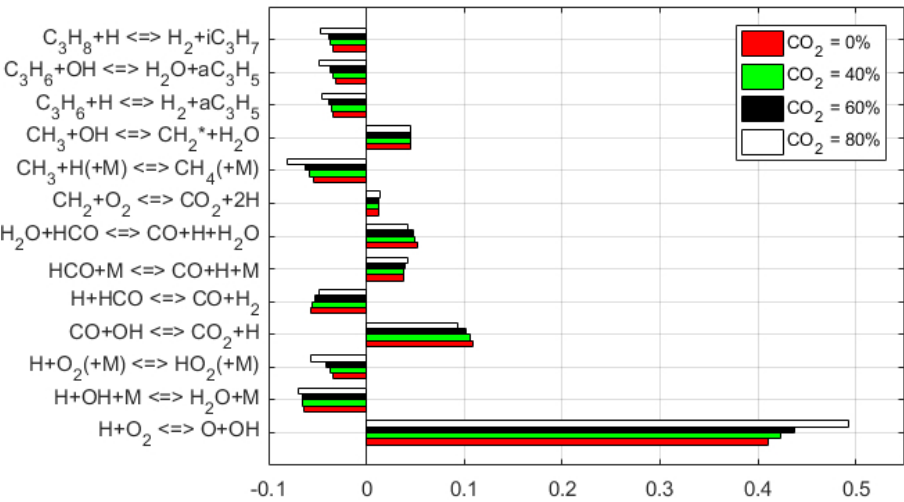


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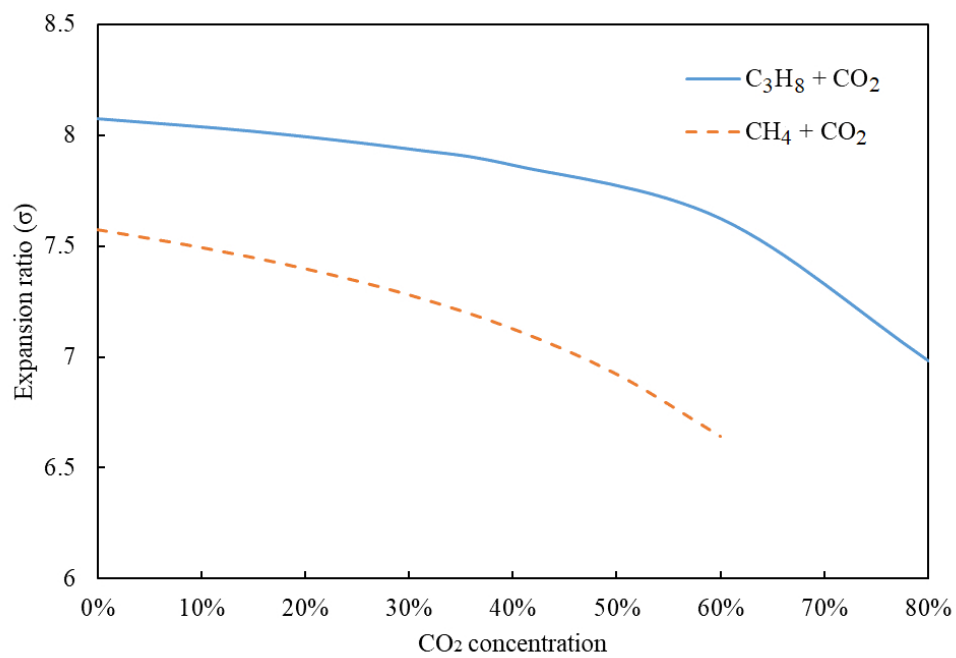


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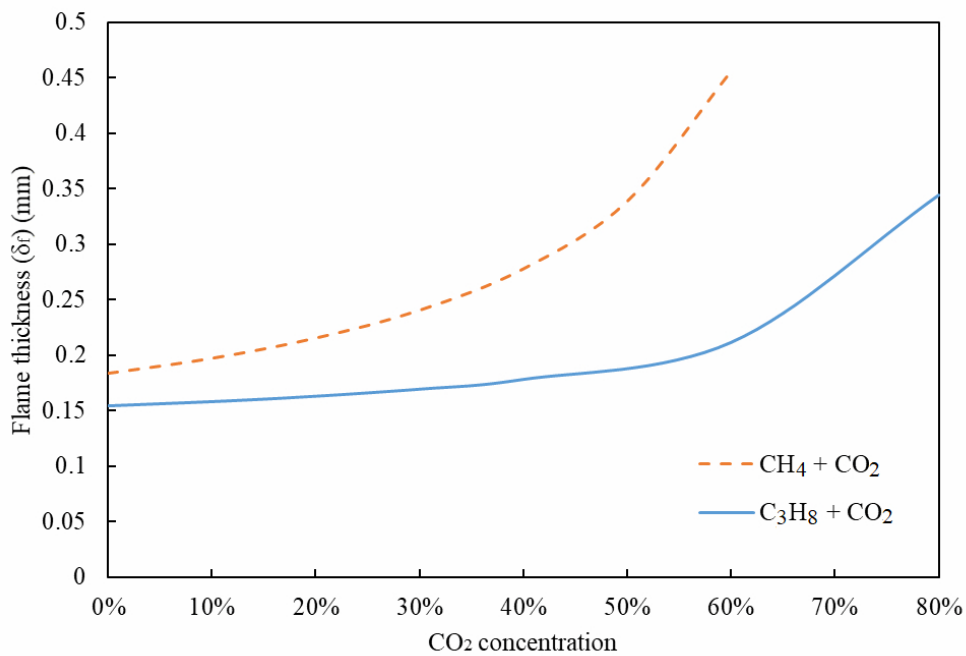
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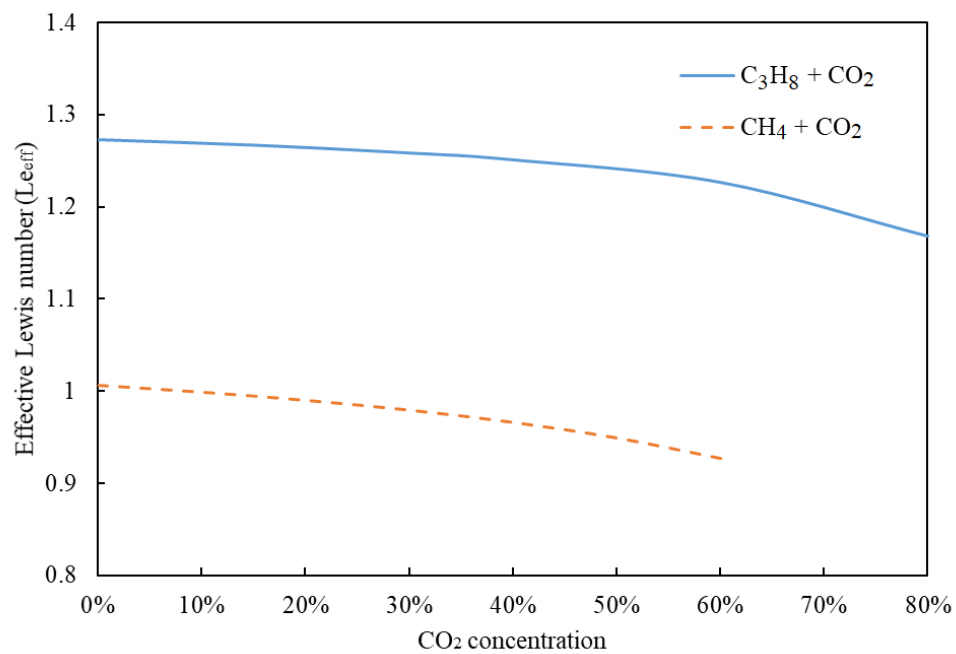
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83x56mm (300 x 300 DPI)



83x56mm (300 x 300 DPI)



83x56mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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	0%	20%	40%	60%
Methane $T_i = 400\text{ K}$ $P_i = 2.0\text{ atm}$ $\Phi = 0.8$				
Methane $T_i = 298\text{ K}$ $P_i = 2.0\text{ atm}$ $\Phi = 1.0$				
Methane $T_i = 400\text{ K}$ $P_i = 2.0\text{ atm}$ $\Phi = 1.2$				

59x33mm (300 x 300 DPI)