## Flame Speed Correlations

# FLAME SPEED CORRELATIONS FOR SELECTED FUELS 

-Metghalchi and Keck [11] experimentally determined $\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{L}}$ for various fuel-air mixtures over a range of temperatures and pressures typical of conditions associated with reciprocating internal combustion engines and gas turbine combustors.
"Eqn 8.33 similar to Eqn. 8.29 is proposed

$$
\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{L}}=\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{L}, \text { rei }}\left(\frac{T_{u}}{T_{u, r e f}}\right)^{\gamma}\left(\frac{P}{P_{r e f}}\right)^{\beta}\left(1-2.1 \mathrm{Y}_{\text {dil }}\right)(8.33)
$$

for $T_{u}>\approx 350 \mathrm{~K}$.
-The subscript ref refers to reference conditions defined by
$T_{u, \text { ref }}=298 \mathrm{~K}, P_{\text {ref }}=1 \mathrm{~atm}$ and
$S_{L, \text { ref }}=B_{M}+B_{2}\left(\Phi-\Phi_{M}\right)^{2}$ (for reference conditions)
where the constants $B_{M}, B_{2}$, and $\Phi_{M}$ depend on fuel type and are given in Table 8.3.
"Exponents of $T$ and $P, \gamma$ and $\beta$ are functions of $\Phi$, expressed as
$\gamma=2.18-0.8(\Phi-1)$
$\beta=-0.16+0.22(\Phi-1)$
-The term $Y_{\text {dii }}$ is the mass fraction of diluent present in the air-fuel mixture in Eqn. 8.33 to account for any recirculated combustion products. This is a common technique used to control $\mathrm{NO}_{x}$ in many combustion systems

- Table 8.3 Values for $\mathrm{B}_{\mathrm{M}}, \mathrm{B}_{2}$, and $\Phi_{M}$ used in Eqn 8.33 [11]

| Fuel | $\Phi_{\mathrm{M}}$ | $\mathbf{B}_{\mathrm{M}}(\mathrm{cm} / \mathrm{s})$ | $\mathbf{B}_{2}(\mathrm{~cm} / \mathrm{s})$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Methanol | 1.11 | 36.92 | -140.51 |
| Propane | 1.08 | 34.22 | -138.65 |
| Iso octane | 1.13 | 26.32 | -84.72 |
| RMFD-303 | 1.13 | 27.58 | -78.54 |

## Example 8.3

Compare the laminar flame speeds of gasoline-air mixtures with $\Phi=0.8$ for the following three cases:
i. At ref conditions of $T=298 \mathrm{~K}$ and $\mathrm{P}=1 \mathrm{~atm}$
ii. At conditions typical of a spark-ignition engine operating at wide-open throttle: $T=685 \mathrm{~K}$ and P
$=18.38 \mathrm{~atm}$.
iii. Same as condition ii above, but with 15 percent (by mass) exhaust-gas recirculation

## Solution

-RMFD-303 research fuel has a controlled composition simulating typical gasolines. The flame speed at 298 K and 1 atm is given by
$-\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{L}, \text { ref }}=\mathrm{B}_{\mathrm{M}}+\mathrm{B}_{2}\left(\Phi-\Phi_{\mathrm{M}}\right)^{2}$
-From Table 8.3,
$-B_{M}=27.58 \mathrm{~cm} / \mathrm{s}, B_{2}=-78.38 \mathrm{~cm} / \mathrm{s}, \Phi_{M}=1.13$.

- $\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{L}, \text { ref }}=27.58-78.34(0.8-1.13)^{2}=19.05 \mathrm{~cm} / \mathrm{s}$
-To find the flame speed at $\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{u}}$ and P other than the reference state, we employ Eqn. 8.33
$-\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{L}}\left(\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{u}}, \mathrm{P}\right)=\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{L}, \text { ref }}\left(\frac{T_{u}}{T_{u, v e}}\right)^{\nu}\left(\frac{P}{P_{r e f}}\right)^{\beta}$
where
$\gamma=2.18-0.8(\Phi-1)=2.34$
$\beta=-0.16+0.22(\Phi-1)=-0.204$
Thus,
$\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{L}}(685 \mathrm{~K}, 18.38 \mathrm{~atm})=$
$19.05(685 / 298)^{2.34}(18.38 / 1)^{-0.204}=73.8 \mathrm{~cm} / \mathrm{s}$
With dilution by exhaust-gas recirculation, the flame speed is reduced by factor ( $1-2.1 \mathrm{Y}_{\text {dil }}$ ):
$\mathrm{S}_{\mathrm{L}}(685 \mathrm{~K}, 18.38 \mathrm{~atm}, 15 \% \mathrm{EGR})=$
$73.8 \mathrm{~cm} / \mathrm{s}[1-2.1(0.15)]=50.6 \mathrm{~cm} / \mathrm{s}$


## QUENCHING, FLAMMABILITY, AND IGNITION

-Previously $\Rightarrow$ steady propagation of premixed laminar flames
-Now $\Rightarrow$ transient process: quenching and ignition. Attention to quenching distance, flammability limits, and minimum ignition energies with heat losses controlling the phenomena.

## 1. Quenching by a Cold Wall

-Flames extinguish upon entering a sufficiently small passageway. If the passageway is not too small, the flame will propagate through it. The critical diameter of a circular tube where a flame extinguishes rather than propagates, is referred to as the quenching distance.
-Experimental quenching distances are determined by observing whether a flame stabilised above a tube does or does not flashback for a particular tube diameter when the reactant flow is rapidly shut off.

- Quenching distances are also determined using high-aspect-ratio rectangular-slot burners. In this case, the quenching distance between the long sides, i.e., the slit width.
-Tube-based quenching distances are somewhat larger (~20-50 percent) than slit-based ones [21]


Figure 8.18 Schematic of flame quenching between two parallel walls.
2. Flammability Limits

- A flame will propagate only within a range of mixture the so-called lower and upper limits of flammability. The limit is the leanest mixture ( $\Phi<$ 1), while the upper limit represents the richest mixture $(\Phi>1) . \Phi=(A / F)_{\text {stoich }} /(A / F)_{\text {actual }}$ by mass or by mole
-Flammability limits are frequently quoted as \%fuel by volume in the mixture, or as a \% of the stoichiometric fuel requirement, i.e., (Ф x 100\%). Table 8.4 shows flammability limits of some fuels
-Flammability limits for a number of fuel-air mixtures at atmospheric pressure is obtained from experiments employing "tube method".
- In this method, it is ascertained whether or not a flame initiated at the bottom of a vertical tube (approximately $50-\mathrm{mm}$ diameter by $1.2-\mathrm{m}$ long) propagates the length of the tube.
- A mixture that sustains the flame is said to be flammable. By adjusting the mixture strength, the flammability limit can be ascertained.
-Table 8.4 Flammability limits, quenching distances and minimum ignition energies

|  | Flammability limit |  |  | Quenching distance, d |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $\Phi_{\min }$ | $\Phi_{\max }$ | Stoich-mass <br> air-fuel ratio | For $\Phi=1$ | Absolute <br> min, mm |
| $\mathrm{C}_{2} \mathrm{H}_{2}$ | 0.19 | $\infty$ | 13.3 | 2.3 | - |
| CO | 0.34 | 6.76 | 2.46 | - | - |
| $\mathrm{C}_{10} \mathrm{H}_{22}$ | 0.36 | 3.92 | 15.0 | 2.1 | - |
| $\mathrm{C}_{2} \mathrm{H}_{6}$ | 0.50 | 2.72 | 16.0 | 2.3 | 1.8 |
| $\mathrm{C}_{2} \mathrm{H}_{4}$ | 0.41 | $>6.1$ | 14.8 | 1.3 | - |
| $\mathrm{H}_{2}$ | 0.14 | 2.54 | 34.5 | 0.64 | 0.61 |
| $\mathrm{CH}_{4}$ | 0.46 | 1.64 | 17.2 | 2.5 | 2.0 |
| $\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{OH}$ | 0.48 | 4.08 | 6.46 | 1.8 | 1.5 |
| $\mathrm{C}_{8} \mathrm{H}_{18}$ | 0.51 | 4.25 | 15.1 | - | - |
| $\mathrm{C}_{3} \mathrm{H}_{8}$ | 0.51 | 2.83 | 15.6 | 2.0 | 1.8 |


| Fuel | Minimum ignition energy |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | For $\Phi=1\left(10^{-5} \mathrm{~J}\right)$ | Absolute <br> minimum $\left(10^{-5} \mathrm{~J}\right)$ |
| $\mathrm{C}_{2} \mathrm{H}_{2}$ | 3 | - |
| CO | - | - |
| $\mathrm{C}_{10} \mathrm{H}_{22}$ | - | - |
| $\mathrm{C}_{2} \mathrm{H}_{6}$ | 42 | 24 |
| $\mathrm{C}_{2} \mathrm{H}_{4}$ | 9.6 | - |
| $\mathrm{H}_{2}$ | 2.0 | 1.8 |
| $\mathrm{CH}_{4}$ | 33 | 29 |
| $\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{OH}$ | 21.5 | 14 |
| $\mathrm{C}_{8} \mathrm{H}_{18}$ | - | - |
| $\mathrm{C}_{3} \mathrm{H}_{8}$ | 30.5 | 26 |

## 3. Ignition

-Most of ignition uses electrical spark (pemantik listrik). Another means is using pilot ignition (flame from very low-flow fuel).

## Simplified Ignition Analysis

-Consider Williams' second criterion, applied to a spherical volume of gas, which represents the incipient propagating flame created by a point spark. Using the criterion:
-Find a critical gas-volume radius, $\mathbf{R}_{\text {crit }}$, below which flame will not propagate
-Find minimum ignition energy, $E_{i g n}$, to heat critical gas volume from initial state to flame temperature ( $T_{u}$ to $T_{b}$ ).


Figure 8.20
Critical volume of gas for spark ignition.

Figure 8.22. Effect of \%fuel on $\mathrm{E}_{\text {ign }}$


## Figure 8.23. Effect of methane composition on $E_{\text {ign }}$



## Table 8.5 Temperature influence

 on spark-ignition energy| Fuel | Initial temp (K) | $\mathrm{E}_{\text {ign }}(\mathbf{m J})$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| n-heptane | 298 | 14.5 |
|  | 373 | 6.7 |
|  | 444 | 3.2 |
| Iso-octane | 298 | 27.0 |
|  | 373 | 11.0 |
|  | 444 | 4.8 |
| n-pentane | 243 | 45.0 |
|  | 253 | 14.5 |


| Fuel | Initial temp $(\mathbf{K})$ | $\mathbf{E}_{\text {ign }}(\mathbf{m J})$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| n-pentane | 298 | 7.8 |
|  | 373 | 4.2 |
|  | 444 | 2.3 |
| propane | 233 | 11.7 |
|  | 243 | 9.7 |
|  | 253 | 8.4 |
|  | 298 | 5.5 |
|  | 331 | 4.2 |
|  | 356 | 3.6 |
|  | 373 | 3.5 |
|  | 477 | 1.4 |

## Premixed vs diffusion flames



Structure of a premixed flame (schematic)


Structure of a diffusion flame (schematic)

## 2- Laminar diffusion flames

- Seperate feeding of fuel and oxidizer into the combustion chamber
- Diesel engine
- Jet engine
- In the combustion chamber:
- Mixing
- Subsequently combustion
- Mixing: Convection and diffusion
- On a molecular level
$\rightarrow$ (locally) stoichiometric mixture
- Simple example for a diffusion flame: Candle flame
- Paraffin vaporizes at the wick
$\rightarrow$ diffuses into the surrounding air
- Simultaneously: Air flows towards the flame due to free convection and forms a mixture with the vaporized paraffin



## A very difficult flame: the candle flame



Combustion Theory

- The solid fuel is first heated by heat transfer induced by combustion. The liquid fuel reaches the flame by capillarity along the wick and is vaporized.
- Fuel oxidation occurs in thin blue layers (the color corresponds to the spontaneous emission of the CH radical)
- Unburnt carbon particles are formed because the fuel is in excess in the reaction zone. The this soot is the source of the yellow light emission.
- Flow (entrainment of heavy cold fresh air and evacuation of hot light burnt gases) is induced by natural convection


## Example : gas lighter

- Fuel enters into the combustion chamber as a round jet
- Forming mixture is ignited
- Example: Flame of a gas lighter
- Only stable if dimensions are small
- Dimensions too large: flickering due to influence of gravity
- Increasing the jet momentum $\rightarrow$ Reduction of the relative importance of gravity (buoyancy) in favor of momentum forces

- At high velocities, hydrodynamic instabilities gain increasing importance: laminar-turbulent transition

