

Temperature and Heat Flux in the Delft JHC Burner

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Abstract

In this research, heat fluxes and temperature-properties of the Delft JHC (Jet in Hot Coflow) burner have been measured and calculated using thermocouples and data measured beforehand with LDA and CARS.

The temperature of the outer wall of the JHC burners pipe was measured to be up to 760 K for mixture DJHC-I, containing 16.1 l/min natural gas and 224 l/min air, and 703 K for mixture DJHC-X; 14.2 l/min natural gas and 239 l/min air. The total heat flux leaving the outer wall, mainly (60 %) caused by radiation, was calculated to be 1.3 kJ/s and 1.0 kJ/s for respectively mixture I and X. This is around 20 % of the total energy produced by the combustion of natural gas.

The management of heat fluxes in the system is important, because one wants the operational temperature to be as low as possible, such that combustion products leaving the JHC are relatively clean.

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List of Symbols

Symbol	Description	Unit
A	area, cross-section	m^2
C	constant number	—
c_p	specific heat	$\text{J/g}\cdot\text{K}$
D, d	thickness, diameter	m
E	energy	J
E	total, hemispherical radiative power per unit area	W/m^2
E_b	total, hemispherical blackbody radiative power per unit area	W/m^2
$E_{b\lambda}$	spectral, hemispherical blackbody radiative power per unit area	W/m^2
E_λ	spectral, hemispherical radiative power per unit area	W/m^2
e	non-chemical energy per unit mass	J/g
F_{i-j}	view factor from i to j	—
Gr	Grashof number	—
g	gravitational constant	m/s^2
ΔH_c^0	heat of combustion at standard conditions	J/m^3
h	sensible (non-chemical) enthalpy per unit mass	J/g
h	sensible enthalpy per mole	J/mol
\hat{h}	heat transfer coefficient	$\text{W}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{K}$
$I_{b\lambda}, I_{b\eta}$	spectral, directional emissive power of a blackbody	W
I_λ, I_η	spectral, directional emissive power	W
i, j	numerators	—
k	thermal conductivity	$\text{W}/\text{m}\cdot\text{K}$
L, l	length	m
M	molar weight	g/mol
m	mass	g
\dot{m}	mass flux	g/s
mf	mass fraction	—
n	amount of moles	mol
n	refractive index	—
Nu	Nusselt number	—
p	pressure	bar
P_e	amount of energy converted from chemical to thermal	J/s
Pr	Prandtl number	—
\dot{Q}	total heat leaving a system	W
\dot{q}	heat flux per unit area	W/m^2
R	universal gas constant	$\text{J}/\text{mol}\cdot\text{K}$
R, r	radius	m
r	radial coordinate	m
Ra	Rayleigh number	—
Re	Reynolds number	—

Symbol	Description	Unit
S	Seebeck coefficient	V/K
s	path length	m
\hat{s}	unit vector	—
T	temperature	K, °C
U	potential difference	V
v	velocity	m/s
\dot{W}	work done to a system	W
x, y, z	Cartesian coordinates	m
Y, y	mole fraction	—
α	thermal diffusivity	m ² /s
β	bulk expansion coefficient	1/K
Δ_1^2	difference prefix (₂₋₁)	—
ϵ	total, hemispherical emissivity	—
ϵ_λ	spectral, hemispherical emissivity	—
ϵ'_λ	spectral, directional emissivity	—
ϑ	angle coordinate	—
κ_η	linear absorption coefficient	1/m
μ	dynamic viscosity	g/m·s
ν	kinematic viscosity	m ² /s
ρ	density	g/m ³
ρ^0	density at standard conditions	g/m ³
σ	Stefan-Boltzmann constant	W/m ² ·K
τ_η	optical thickness	—
ϕ_m	mass flux	g/s
ϕ_q	heat leaving a system	J/s
ϕ_V	volume flux	m ³ /s
ϕ_w	work done to a system	J/s
ψ	azimuthal angle coordinate	—
Ω	solid angle	—

Chapter 1

Introduction

The Delft Jet in Hot Coflow Burner was built for investigations on mild combustion. In a furnace, mild combustion takes place when mixing combustion products with the ingoing airstream, thus preheating this flow, but also diluting it, such that the auto-ignition limit is reached. It is understood that mild combustion happens at a very uniform temperature, is fuel efficient and reduces the NO_x -emissions (which increase with the combustion temperature).



Figure 1.1: Top view of the Delft JHC Burner

In the Delft JHC Burner this situation is modelled. Natural gas combusts by mixing it with a hot coflow of hot and diluted air, generated by a secondary burner inside an annulus, at the bottom of a pipe. The coflow loses part of its

heat to the surroundings by radiative and convective heat transfer at the outside of the pipe. As seen in figure 1.2, the mild combustion occurs at the higher end of the pipe, where the hot coflow mixes with the primary fuel. This happens at a relatively low temperature, therefore the flame is hardly visible. The burner allows the experimenter to control oxygen content, velocity and temperature of the hot coflow. (this last option is obtained by cooling with pressurized air in the central duct)

Furthermore, the flame properties in the primary burner depend highly on the composition of the coflow.

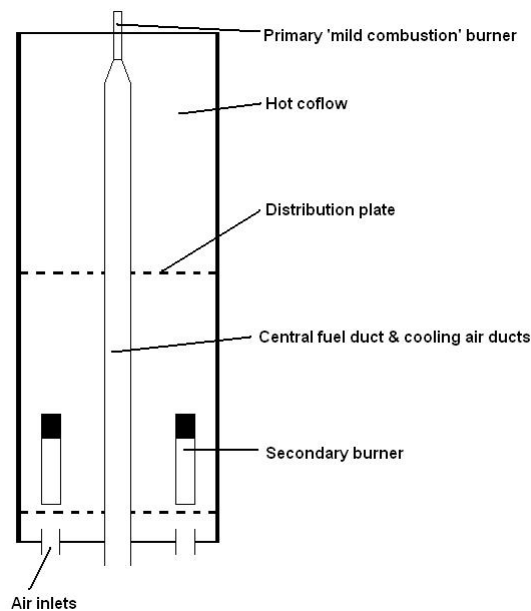


Figure 1.2: A simple scheme of the Delft JHC Burner, showing the placement of the two burners and the inner pipe within the system.

To be able to optimize the Delft JHC Burner, it is very important that more insight in the heat fluxes is gained.

Because of the high temperatures, it is expected that radiative heat transfer at the outer tube plays an important role. Calculations and measurements in this research will give the heat fluxes taking place in the Delft JHC Burner.

Also, to find an estimation of the composition of the coflow, calculations on the secondary burner will be done in this research.

Chapter 2

Theoretical Background

2.1 Energy balance

To get insight in the thermal behaviour inside the burner, balances are necessary. Because the main target is to unravel the thermodynamic properties of the primary burner and hot coflow, we focus on the part of the pipe between the secondary and primary burner (see figure 1.2). The energy balance over the volume of the pipe states:

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = \phi_{m,in} \cdot e_{in} - \phi_{m,out} \cdot e_{out} - \phi_q + \phi_w + P_e = 0 \quad (2.1)$$

Where $\phi_m = \frac{dm}{dt} = \dot{m}$ are the total mass-fluxes entering and leaving the system, P_e is the energy production per second, $\phi_w = \frac{dW}{dt} = \dot{W}$ the work done per second by the outside to the control-volume and $\phi_q = \frac{dQ}{dt} = \dot{Q}$ the energy leaving the system as heat.

Furthermore, the energy production can be calculated by

$$P_e = \Delta H_c^0 \cdot \phi_{V,gas} \quad (2.2)$$

with ΔH_c^0 the heat of combustion of natural gas in J/m³ at standard conditions ($T = 0^\circ\text{C}$, $p = 1 \text{ atm}$).

In equation 2.1, e is the mass-concentration of total non-chemical energy; the sum of the enthalpy per unit mass h , potential energy per unit mass and kinetical energy per unit mass:

$$e = h + g \cdot z + \frac{1}{2} \cdot v^2 \quad (2.3)$$

with $g = 9.81 \text{ m/s}^2$ the earth's gravitational acceleration, velocity v and z the relative height.

The enthalpy h that will be used in the research is the so called 'sensible enthalpy'; the integral of the specific heat c_p

$$h = \int_{T_0}^T c_p \cdot dT \quad (2.4)$$

For convenience a difference in mass-concentration of energy $\Delta e = \Delta_1^2 e = e_2 - e_1$ will be used

$$\Delta e = \Delta h + g \cdot \Delta z + \frac{1}{2} \Delta (v^2) \quad (2.5)$$

2.1.1 Thermodynamic properties of an ideal gas mixture

Because the gas that will be analyzed is a complex mixture of diverse components, properties such as the enthalpy cannot be taken from existing tables. To find the enthalpy $h(p, T)$, the mole fraction y_i of each component i needs to be known, as well as the enthalpy $h_i(T)$ of each of the components.

When analysing a mixture of total mass m , consisting of j components with a mass m_i and a molecular weight M_i , we first find the amount of moles n_i of the components

$$n_i = \frac{m_i}{M_i} \quad (2.6)$$

which gives the total number of moles in the mixture n when summed

$$n = \sum_{i=1}^j n_i = \sum_{i=1}^j \frac{m_i}{M_i} \quad (2.7)$$

Next, the mole fraction of each component can be found by

$$y_i = \frac{n_i}{n} \quad (2.8)$$

Now the molar enthalpy of the mixture \bar{h} can be calculated by a weighed summation of \bar{h}_i , the molar enthalpy of each component, as

$$\bar{h} = \sum_{i=1}^j y_i \cdot \bar{h}_i \quad (2.9)$$

The enthalpy of the components is temperature dependent and can be looked up in tables. It is related to the molar enthalpy by

$$\bar{h} = M \cdot h \quad (2.10)$$

$$\bar{h}_i = M_i \cdot h_i \quad (2.11)$$

where the molecular weight M of the mixture is the mole-fraction average of the component molecular weights:

$$M = \sum_{i=1}^j y_i \cdot M_i \quad (2.12)$$

2.1.2 Averaging thermodynamic properties

We introduce the notation $\langle \rangle$ to denote a cross-sectional mass-average.

Then, the mass-flux appearing in formula 2.1 can be written as a function of the volume-flux ϕ_V by

$$\phi_m = \langle \rho \rangle \cdot \phi_V \quad (2.13)$$

and as a function of the average velocity $\langle v \rangle$ by

$$\phi_m = A \cdot \langle \rho \rangle \cdot \langle v \rangle \quad (2.14)$$

Later on, we will use the (mass-)average values of velocity $\langle v \rangle$ and enthalpy $\langle h \rangle$. To calculate these, we rewrite equation 2.14, where ρ is now a function of the position (here r , because we assume cylindrical symmetry):

$$\phi_m = A \cdot \langle \rho \rangle \cdot \langle v \rangle = \int_{r_1}^{r_2} 2\pi \cdot r \cdot \rho(r) \cdot v(r) \cdot dr \quad (2.15)$$

Removing the non- r -dependent factors 2π from the integrals yields the mass-averaged velocity :

$$\langle v \rangle = \frac{\int_{r_1}^{r_2} r \cdot \rho \cdot v \cdot dr}{\int_{r_1}^{r_2} r \cdot \rho \cdot dr} \quad (2.16)$$

For the enthalpy we can use a similar method. We state the following notation for the total heat flux through a cylinder:

$$\dot{Q} = \int_{r_1}^{r_2} 2\pi \cdot r \cdot \rho(r) \cdot v(r) \cdot h(r) \cdot dr \equiv \langle h \rangle \cdot \phi_m \quad (2.17)$$

Combining this with formula 2.15, and once again removing unnecessary factors, gives rise to the mass-averaged enthalpy $\langle h \rangle$:

$$\langle h \rangle = \frac{\int_{r_1}^{r_2} r \cdot \rho \cdot v \cdot h \cdot dr}{\int_{r_1}^{r_2} r \cdot \rho \cdot v \cdot dr} \quad (2.18)$$

2.2 Heat transfer

To be able to calculate the heat \dot{Q} leaving the system, different types of heat fluxes need to be considered.

In the walls of the outer and inner tubes conduction takes place. Between the tubes and from the outside of the outer tube to the surroundings of the pipe there is radiation. A third type of heat flux is the convection at for example the outer wall of the pipe.

Heatflux and temperature difference are usually related by Newtons Law of Cooling:

$$\dot{Q} = \hat{h} \cdot A \cdot \Delta T \quad (2.19)$$

Where A represents the area of the surface, ΔT the difference in temperature and \hat{h} the heat transfer coefficient in $\text{W}/\text{m}^2\cdot\text{K}$.

Very commonly in heat transfer, the unitless *Nusselt number* (Nu) is used to express the heat transfer coefficient in terms of the thermal conductivity k , which is a material property. The Nusselt number can be described as the ratio of total heat transfer to the conductive heat transfer in a plane geometry.

$$Nu = \frac{\hat{h} \cdot D}{k} \quad (2.20)$$

In formula 2.20 D represents the characteristic length scale. Typically, the *Nusselt number* is expressed as a function of a variety of other unitless numbers (like the *Prandtl*, *Grashof* and *Reynolds numbers*), often found empirically.

2.2.1 Conduction

Thermal conduction is a type of molecular transport that gives rise to a heatflux within a material when a temperature gradient ∇T is present. The heatflux vector per unit area \vec{q} is given in vector notation as:

$$\vec{q} = -k\nabla T \quad (2.21)$$

For a uniform temperaturegradient only nonzero in the x-direction and a constant k this becomes:

$$\dot{q} = -k \cdot \frac{dT}{dx} \quad (2.22)$$

with k the thermal conductivity in $\text{W}/\text{m}\cdot\text{K}$. In a steady state, the heatflux is constant, and integrating formula 2.22 to x over a wall-thickness D gives the relation between heatflux and temperature-difference ΔT as

$$\dot{q} = -\frac{k}{D} \cdot \Delta T \quad (2.23)$$

Obviously, for this case $\hat{h} = \frac{k}{D}$, or more shortly: $Nu = 1$.

Now, because of the cylindrical geometry this will not hold for the burner pipe. The total heatflux is still constant, but the area A depends on the radius r .

$$\dot{Q} = A \cdot \dot{q} = 2\pi r L \cdot \dot{q} \quad (2.24)$$

Combining equations 2.21 and 2.24 and considering a cylindrical symmetry with just a temperature gradient in the r -direction leads to:

$$-k \cdot \frac{dT}{dr} = \frac{C_1}{2\pi r L} \quad (2.25)$$

$$T(r) = -\frac{C_1}{2\pi L k} \ln(r) + C_2 \quad (2.26)$$

by integration to r with C_1 and C_2 constants.

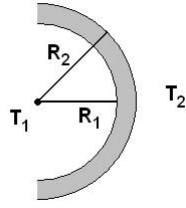


Figure 2.1: A cylinder with inner and outer radii R_1 and R_2 and temperatures T_1 and T_2 .

Using figure 2.1 and the relations $T(R_1) = T_1$ and $T(R_2) = T_2$ the temperatureprofile in a cylinder is found:

$$\frac{T(r) - T_2}{T_1 - T_2} = \frac{\ln(r/R_2)}{\ln(R_1/R_2)} \quad (2.27)$$

$$\frac{dT}{dr} = \frac{(T_1 - T_2)}{\ln(R_1/R_2)} \cdot \frac{1}{r} \quad (2.28)$$

Applying this equation into 2.21 gives the heatflux in the wall of a steady-state cylinder

$$\dot{q} = -\frac{k}{R_2 \cdot \ln(R_1/R_2)} \cdot \Delta T = -\frac{2k}{D_2 \cdot \ln(R_1/R_2)} \cdot \Delta T \quad (2.29)$$

2.2.2 Radiation

All materials emit radiation in the form of photons, covering the entire electromagnetic spectrum. The spectral, directional emissivity ϵ'_λ compares the actual spectral, directional emissive power I_λ with that of a black surface $I_{b\lambda}$ (which is equal for all directions)

$$\epsilon'_\lambda(T, \lambda, \hat{s}) = \frac{I_\lambda(T, \lambda, \hat{s})}{I_{b\lambda}(T, \lambda)} \quad (2.30)$$

Often, instead of I_λ , I_η is used.

The spectral, hemispherical emissivity is found by integrating the directional emissive powers over all directions \hat{s} and defined by [2] as

$$\epsilon_\lambda(T, \lambda) = \frac{E_\lambda(T, \lambda)}{E_{b\lambda}(T, \lambda)} \quad (2.31)$$

where

$$E_\lambda(T, \vec{r}) = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} I_\lambda(T, \vec{r}, \vartheta, \psi) \cos(\vartheta) \sin(\vartheta) d\vartheta d\psi \quad (2.32)$$

and because of the diffusive property of a blackbody

$$E_{b\lambda}(T, \lambda) = I_{b\lambda}(T, \lambda) \cdot \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos(\vartheta) \sin(\vartheta) d\vartheta d\psi = \pi \cdot I_{b\lambda}(T, \lambda) \quad (2.33)$$

This leads to

$$\epsilon_\lambda(T, \lambda) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \epsilon'_\lambda(T, \lambda, \hat{s}) \cos(\vartheta) \sin(\vartheta) d\vartheta d\psi \quad (2.34)$$

When we consider the source to be diffusive, ϵ'_λ does not depend on direction, and we find, according to [2],

$$\epsilon'_\lambda(T, \lambda, \hat{s}) = \epsilon_\lambda(T, \lambda) \quad (2.35)$$

The total, hemispherical emissivity ϵ or simply emissivity, can be found by integrating over the whole spectrum and is defined as

$$\epsilon(T) = \frac{E(T)}{E_b(T)} \quad (2.36)$$

with $E(T)$ and $E_b(T)$ being respectively the total hemispherical power and the total blackbody power per unit area (in W/m^2), formulated as

$$E(T) = \int_0^{\infty} E_{\lambda}(T, \lambda) d\lambda \quad (2.37)$$

When an object is not only diffuse, but also gray, the emissivity does not depend on wavelength either, so

$$\epsilon_{\lambda}(T, \lambda) = \epsilon(T) \quad (2.38)$$

By use of the well known formula for total emissive power of a blackbody

$$E_b(T) = n^2 \epsilon \sigma T^4 \quad (2.39)$$

the total hemispherical radiation \dot{q}_r for a gray-diffuse body in W/m^2 can be formulated as

$$\dot{q}_r = E(T) = \epsilon \cdot E_b(T) = \epsilon \sigma T^4 \quad (2.40)$$

with $\sigma = 5.670 \cdot 10^{-8} \text{W}/\text{m}^2\text{K}^4$ the Stefan-Boltzmann constant and n the refractive index. $n \simeq 1$ for ordinary gases.

2.2.2.1 View Factors

To express the fraction of radiosity leaving a surface (i) that arrives at another surface (j) view factors are used. The view factor F_{i-j} is dependent only of the geometry of the unit, and therefore for each geometry related view factors have to be calculated.

Logically, the sum of all view factors is 1. Furthermore, the reciprocity rule for view factors states

$$F_{i-j} = F_{j-i} \quad (2.41)$$

For a cylinder within a cylinder, the view factor from the interior of the outer cylinder to itself is given by

$$F_{2-2} = 1 - \frac{1}{R^*} + \frac{2}{\pi R^*} \cdot \arctan\left(\frac{2(R^{*2}-1)^{1/2}}{l^*}\right) - \frac{l^*}{2\pi R^*} \dots$$

$$\dots \left\{ \frac{(4R^{*2}+l^{*2})^{1/2}}{l^*} \cdot \arcsin\left(\frac{4(R^{*2}-1)+(l^{*2}/R^{*2})(R^{*2}-2)}{l^{*2}+4(R^{*2}-1)}\right) - \arcsin\left(\frac{R^{*2}-2}{R^{*2}}\right) + \frac{\pi}{2} \left[\frac{(4R^{*2}+l^{*2})^{1/2}}{l^*} - 1 \right] \right\} \quad (2.42)$$

and the view factor from the interior of the outer cylinder to the inner cylinder by

$$F_{2-1} = \frac{1}{R^*} - \frac{1}{\pi R^*} \cdot \left\{ \arccos\left(\frac{b}{a}\right) - \frac{1}{2l^*} [(a+2)^2 - (2R^*)^2]^{1/2} \cdot \arccos\left(\frac{b}{aR^*}\right) + b \cdot \arcsin\left(\frac{1}{R^*}\right) - \frac{a}{2} \right\} \quad (2.43)$$

with $R^* = \frac{R_2}{R_1}$, $l^* = \frac{l}{R_1}$, $a = l^{*2} + R^{*2} - 1$ and $b = l^{*2} - R^{*2} + 1$ (from [4])

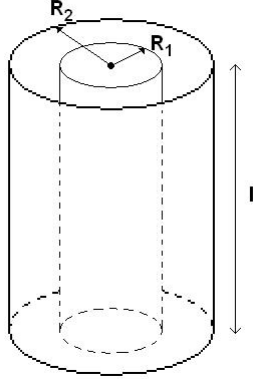


Figure 2.2: A cylinder with radius R_1 within a big cylinder (radius R_2), both with length l .

2.2.2.2 Radiation in participating media

If we assume the participating medium (in this case, the coflow), to be non-scattering, we find the source function I_η with path length s to be

$$I_\eta(\tau_\eta) = I_\eta(0) \cdot e^{-\tau_\eta} + \int_0^{\tau_\eta} I_{b\eta}(\tau'_\eta) \cdot e^{-(\tau_\eta - \tau'_\eta)} \cdot d\tau'_\eta \quad (2.44)$$

with $\tau_\eta = \int_0^s \kappa_\eta \cdot ds$ the optical thickness, k_η the linear absorption coefficient, $I_{b\eta}(0)$ the blackbody intensity at location s' , and $I_\eta(0)$ the initial intensity (so $s = 0$), without absorbing/emitting.

So, the first part of function 2.44 is the attenuation of the original, directional intensity by the coflow. The second part is the addition of energy by emission of the hot coflow, in the same direction.

Integrating over all wavelengths, directions, and surface areas then gives the amount of energy arriving at a surface. The amount of energy arriving (or leaving) at a little volume element in the coflow is found by making a balance of emission and absorption.

Unfortunately, for a complex case such as the coflow in the DJHC, the heat fluxes can only be found if the temperature field is known, and vice versa. Numerical methods are needed to solve the problem.

2.2.3 Natural Convection

When a surface, surrounded by a fluidum, is hot, it will heat up the fluidum by conduction, lowering its density. This causes the fluidum to move and allows colder fluidum to take its place, hereby speeding up the heat transfer. This is

called free or natural convection, and is sometimes referred to as thermobuoyant flow.

The most convenient way to calculate the heat transferred by natural convection in the system described is by use of a *Nusselt number* (equation 2.20). The *Nusselt number* for the natural convection of a vertical cylinder is given by [6]

$$Nu_x = \left[Nu_0 + Gr_L^{\frac{1}{6}} \cdot Pr^{\frac{1}{6}} \cdot \left(\frac{f_4}{300} \right) \right]^2 \quad (2.45)$$

with $Nu_0 = 0.68$ for a vertical cylinder and

$$f_4 = \left[1 + \left(\frac{0.5}{Pr} \right)^{\frac{9}{16}} \right]^{\frac{-16}{9}} \quad (2.46)$$

Another way to calculate the *Nusselt number* for a vertical cylinder is given by [4] (but only holds when $\frac{2r}{L} \gtrsim \frac{35}{Gr_L^{\frac{1}{4}}}$)

$$Nu_L = [Nu_{L,l}^6 + Nu_{L,t}^6]^{\frac{1}{6}} \quad (2.47)$$

where $Nu_{L,l}$ and $Nu_{L,t}$ are the laminar and turbulent parts:

$$Nu_{L,l} = \frac{2.8}{\ln \left[1 + 2.8 / \left(a_1 Ra_L^{\frac{1}{4}} \right) \right]} \quad (2.48)$$

$$Nu_{L,t} = \frac{0.13 Pr^{0.22}}{(1 + 0.61 Pr^{0.81})^{0.42}} \cdot Ra_L^{\frac{1}{3}} \quad (2.49)$$

with a_1 being

$$a_1 = \frac{4}{3} \cdot \frac{0.503}{\left[1 + (0.492/Pr)^{\frac{9}{16}} \right]^{\frac{4}{9}}} \quad (2.50)$$

In these formulas Gr , Pr and Ra represent the *Grashof*, *Prandtl* and *Rayleigh numbers* respectively. These three unitless numbers are used to describe the ratio of buoyancy forces to viscous forces (Gr), the ratio of kinematic viscosity versus the thermal diffusivity (Pr) and the presence of buoyancy driven flow (Ra) and are calculated as

$$Gr_L = \frac{g\beta\Delta T}{\nu^2} \cdot L^3 \quad (2.51)$$

$$Pr = \frac{\nu}{\alpha} \quad (2.52)$$

$$Ra_L = Gr_L \cdot Pr = \frac{g\beta\Delta T}{\nu \cdot \alpha} \cdot L^3 \quad (2.53)$$

Here x is the position parameter, ν is the kinematic viscosity of the fluid in m^2/s , β the bulk expansion coefficient of the fluid in $1/\text{K}$, L the characteristic length scale, g the gravitational acceleration and α the thermal diffusivity of the fluid in m^2/s .

Note the presence of indices x and L ; when the first is used, the unitless number is local at position x and thus position-dependent. When the second is used, the number is the average over a surface of length L .

The thermal diffusivity can be computed by

$$\alpha = \frac{k}{\rho \cdot c_p} \quad (2.54)$$

For ideal gases the thermal expansion is

$$\beta = \frac{1}{T} \quad (2.55)$$

2.2.4 Driven convection

Heat transfer by forced or driven convection is similar to free convection, except that now the fluid motion is mostly generated by an external source instead of thermobuoyancy.

When analyzing driven convection, another unitless quantity, the *Reynolds number* is needed in the calculation for the *Nusselt number*. The *Reynolds number* Re is the ratio between inertial and viscous forces and is equal to

$$Re = \frac{d \cdot \langle v \rangle}{\nu} = \frac{\rho \cdot \langle v \rangle \cdot d}{\mu} \quad (2.56)$$

Where $\langle v \rangle$ is the average velocity of the fluid, μ is the dynamic viscosity in $\text{Pa} \cdot \text{s} = \text{kg}/\text{m} \cdot \text{s}$ and ρ the density.

For circular cylinders, the *Nusselt numbers* for the convection caused by a fully developed flow are

- For laminar flows ($Re \leq 2,300$) [4, 3]

$$\langle Nu \rangle = 3.66 \quad (2.57)$$

- For turbulent flows ($Re \gtrsim 10^4$) [3]

$$\langle Nu \rangle = 0.027 Re^{0.8} \cdot Pr^{0.33} \quad (2.58)$$

Or, with $n = 0.3$ for outward heatflux, $n = 0.4$ for inward heatflux, [4]

$$\langle Nu \rangle = 0.023 Re^{0.8} \cdot Pr^n \quad (2.59)$$

- For transitional flows ($2,300 < Re < 10^4$) [4]

$$\langle Nu \rangle^{10} = \langle Nu_l \rangle^{10} + \left(\frac{\exp^{(2,200-Re)/365}}{\langle Nu_l \rangle^2} + \frac{1}{\langle Nu_t \rangle^2} \right)^{-5} \quad (2.60)$$

with d the characteristic length scale: the diameter of the tube.

Next, the *Nusselt numbers* for the heat flux caused by a laminar, fully developed flow in an annulus (outer diameter D_1) to the inner surface (diameter D_2) are listed in table 2.1 [4]

D_1/D_2	$\langle Nu \rangle$
0.05	17.81
0.10	11.91
0.20	8.499
0.40	6.583
0.60	5.912
0.80	5.580
1.00	5.385

Table 2.1: Nusselt numbers for a laminar fully developed flow in an annulus for some ratio between inner diameter D_2 and outer diameter D_1 .

For the calculation of the Nusselt number describing the heat flux at the outer wall, considering a turbulent and transitional flows in an annulus, the same formulae for can be used as for circular cylinders (2.58, 2.59 and 2.60).

2.3 Thermocouples

In order to measure temperatures over a relatively wide range, thermocouples can be used. A thermocouple is constructed by connecting two different types of conductors (usually in form of a wire).

The thermoelectric or Seebeck effect states that in any conductor exposed to a thermal gradient a potential difference arises. This potential difference U_a in a wire is calculated by

$$U_a = S_a \cdot (T_1 - T_2) \quad (2.61)$$

with S_a the Seebeck coefficient. [5]

When this conductor a is connected with another type of conductor b , with a different Seebeck coefficient S_b , a net voltage U_{ab} is created if $T_1 \neq T_2$ by

$$U_{ab} = U_a - U_b = (S_a - S_b) \cdot (T_1 - T_2) = S_{ab} \cdot (T_1 - T_2) \quad (2.62)$$

The values of the sensitivity S_{ab} for some of the most common thermocouple types are listed in table 2.2, together with the temperature range in which they can be used.

Type	S_{ab} ($\mu\text{V}/\text{K}$)	Temperature range ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	Composition
T	43	-250 to +400	copper-constantan
J	50	-180 to +800	iron-constantan
E	68	-40 to +900	chromel-constantan
K	41	-180 to +1300	chromel-alumel
B,R,S	10	-50 to +1800	different platinum/rhodium alloys
N	39	-270 to +1300	nicrosil-nisil

Table 2.2: Some thermocouple types with their sensitivity S_{ab} , temperature range and composition.

Unfortunately, in reality the sensitivity is not linear (although close to), but it can be approximated by a polynomial or looked up in tables corresponding with the thermocouple type.

Chapter 3

Experimental Setup

3.1 Description of the Delft JHC Burner

Before rushing to find the unknowns to be solved and the data to be measured, let's give a more precise description of the Delft Jet-in-Hot-Coflow burner first.

In the center of the Delft JHC Burner is a fuel duct, transporting natural gas upward. Around this fuel duct is another double duct, containing the cooling airflow. This air goes upward directly around the fuel duct and back downward in the surrounding cylinder, as can be seen in figure 3.1, effectively keeping the fuel cool. [7]

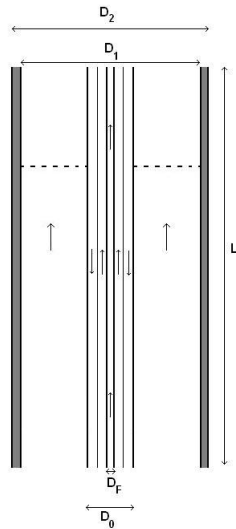


Figure 3.1: Schematic figure of the Delft JHC Burner with some of the lengths.

Around the central duct (meaning the total fuel and cooling system) the hot coflow is flowing. As explained before, this hot coflow is confined by the outer tube. A distribution plate is placed just above the secondary burners, so that the temperature of the hot coflow can be presumed uniform. At the upper end of the tube, the hot coflow mixes with the fuel leaving the fuel duct, causing combustion. The control volume does not cover this combustion.

In the following table, some of the length-scales are given, together with their values for the Delft JHC Burner. [7, 8]

Name	Value	Explanation
D_F	4.25 mm	Diameter of the fuel duct
D_0	22.0 mm	Outer diameter of the inner tube
D_1	82.5 mm	Inner diameter of the outer tube
D_2	88.9 mm	Outer diameter of the outer tube
L	600 mm	Length of the cylinder

Table 3.1: Some length-scales of the Delft JHC Burner

3.2 Energy balances for the Delft JHC Burner

Next it is necessary to specify the energy balance for the JHC Burner.

No work is done to the control-volume, thus in formula 2.1, $\dot{W} = 0$

Also, because the problem is steady-state, we have $\phi_m = \phi_{m,in} = \phi_{m,out}$

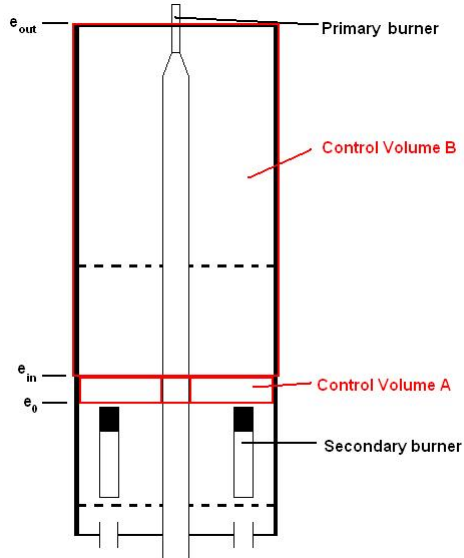


Figure 3.2: A simple scheme of the Delft JHC Burner, showing the position of the two Control Volumes.

Now, looking at figure 3.2, the more specific energy balance is found for the small region of the secondary burner, Control Volume A (where we neglect heatfluxes, thus $\dot{Q} = 0$)

$$P_e = \phi_m \cdot \Delta e_1 = \phi_m \cdot \Delta_0^{in} e \quad (3.1)$$

where e_0 is the energy concentration of the coflow just before the secondary burner, and e_{in} is the energy concentration of the coflow just after combustion. Hence P_e can be described as the heat converted from chemical to thermal by combustion.

In the region from the secondary burner to the end of the tube (figure 3.2), there is only a loss of energy of the coflow by heat leaving the system, leading to Control Volume B

$$\dot{Q} = \phi_m \cdot \Delta e_2 = \phi_m \cdot \Delta_{out}^{in} e \quad (3.2)$$

Here e_{out} is the concentration of energy of the coflow when leaving the tube.

The heat \dot{Q} leaving the system is the sum of heat fluxes from the outer tube, and the inside, containing the cooling duct and the fuel duct.

$$\dot{Q} = \dot{Q}_{wall} + \dot{Q}_{cool} \quad (3.3)$$

3.3 Control Volume A

3.3.1 Composition of the coflow

First of all, we use the (molar) compositions Y of air [11] and natural gas [6] as can be found in table 3.2.

Air	Y (%)	Natural 'Groningen' Gas	Y (%)
Nitrogen	78.084	Methane	81.29
Oxygen	20.946	Nitrogen	14.32
Argon	0.934	Ethane	2.87
Carbon Dioxide	0.038	Carbon Dioxide	0.89
		Propane	0.38
		Butane	0.15
		Hexane	0.05
		Pentane	0.04
		Oxygen	0.01

Table 3.2: Composition of dry air and dutch natural gas in molar percents Y .

We assume perfect combustion; all alkanes in the natural gas react complete with oxygen from the air to water and carbon dioxide. As a result, the coflow will be a mixture of oxygen, argon, nitrogen, carbon dioxide and water.

The massflow of the gas $\phi_{m,gas}$ and the massflow of air $\phi_{m,air}$ can now be used with their respective compositions to find the exact mixture of the coflow after ideal combustion. The massflow of the coflow ϕ_m equals

$$\phi_m = \phi_{m,gas} + \phi_{m,air} \quad (3.4)$$

In this experiment we consider two cases, DJHC-I and DJHC-X, with two different gas and air massflows. Because only a volumeflow is given, we need to transform the data into molar and mass fractions (as explained in subsection 2.1.1) to find the coflow properties for both cases. To do this, we will need their densities. From literature[3] we find $\rho_{air} = 1.293 \text{ kg/m}^3$ and $\rho_{gas} = 0.833 \text{ kg/m}^3$ at $T = 0^\circ\text{C}$. These can be converted to densities at room temperature $T = 23.5^\circ\text{C}$ by the ideal gas model: $T_1 \cdot \rho(T_1) = T_2 \cdot \rho(T_2)$

The volume- and massflows of air and natural gas for DJHC-I and DJHC-X, as well as the resulting coflow compositions are given in table 3.3. For more complete data we refer to Appendix A.

DJHC-I	ϕ_V (nL/min)	ϕ_m (g/s)	Coflow I	Y (%)
Air	224.0	4.415	Nitrogen	73.69
Natural Gas	16.10	0.2044	Water	11.67
			Oxygen	7.69
			Carbon Dioxide	6.08
			Argon	0.87

DJHC-X	ϕ_V (nL/min)	ϕ_m (g/s)	Coflow X	Y (%)
Air	239.0	4.711	Nitrogen	74.41
Natural Gas	14.20	0.1803	Water	9.76
			Oxygen	9.86
			Carbon Dioxide	5.09
			Argon	0.88

Table 3.3: Initial volume- and massflows ϕ_V and ϕ_m of air and gas and the resulting composition of the coflow for case DJHC-I and DJHC-X.

The massflow of the coflow is found without difficulties, using equation 3.4. For DJHC-I and DJHC-X the massflows are $\phi_{m,I} = 4.619$ g/s and $\phi_{m,X} = 4.891$ g/s.

3.3.2 Heat production by combustion in the secondary burner

The secondary burners are the main source of heat. The amount of heat produced can be found with equation 2.2.

For natural gas in the Netherlands, we find $\rho^0 = 0.833$ kg/m³ and $\Delta h_c^0 = 31.65$ MJ/m³. [6]

The actual amount of gas that is reacting in the second burner $\phi_{m,gas}$ is a known variable, found in table 3.3, and we find the heat production to be

$$P_e = \phi_{m,gas} \cdot \frac{\Delta h_c^0}{\rho^0} \quad (3.5)$$

Filling in the variables gives an energy production of $P_{e,I} = 7766$ J/s and $P_{e,X} = 6851$ J/s for respectively DJHC-I and DJHC-X.

3.3.3 Finding the average temperature of the coflow just after the secondary burner

Now both the coflow components and P_e are known, Δe_1 can be calculated. Since the control-volume is idealised, with height zero, the terms Δz and $\Delta(v^2)$ vanish from formula 2.5, leaving only

$$\Delta e_1 = \Delta h_1 = h_{in} - h_0 \quad (3.6)$$

The difference in enthalpy can be found by applying equation 2.9 to the coflow for the initial temperature T_0 , and again for a (guessed) inlet temperature T_{in} . By iteration the temperature can be found such that the corresponding energy balance 3.1 is satisfied.

Of course, the initial temperature-profile of the coflow can never be totally smooth, but for convenience we will assume it to be, and have this temperature T_{in} .

Combining the found coflow compositions with the partial molar enthalpies \bar{h}_i in equation 2.9, gives $h_{0,I} = 311.86 \text{ J/g}$ and $h_{0,X} = 309.47 \text{ J/g}$. (See Appendix B)

Note that for the partial enthalpy of Argon, the following formula, only applicable for monoatomic, ideal gases (because \bar{c}_p is constant with temperature), has been used:

$$\bar{h}_i = \bar{c}_p \cdot T \quad (3.7)$$

where

$$\bar{c}_p = \frac{5}{2} \cdot R \quad (3.8)$$

with R the gas constant.

Combining formula 3.6 and 3.1 gives us the coflow enthalpy h_{in} :

$$h_{in} = \frac{P_e}{\phi_m} + h_0 \quad (3.9)$$

Since P_e and ϕ_m have been calculated earlier on for both coflow cases, we get $h_{in,I} = 1993.2 \text{ J/g}$ and $h_{in,X} = 1710.2 \text{ J/g}$.

By iteration (see Appendix B) we then find the inlet temperatures for both cases; $T_{in,I} = 1669 \text{ K}$ and $T_{in,X} = 1474 \text{ K}$.

3.4 Control Volume B

3.4.1 Loss of energy

As can be noticed in formula 3.2, the energy leaving the system per second \dot{Q} equals the difference in concentration of energy over the controlvolume Δe_2 times the massflux. This difference can be split into kinetic energy, potential energy and enthalpy.

3.4.1.1 Kinetic energy

Because the massflux of the coflow is now a known variable, the average velocities v_{in} and v_{out} , needed for finding Δe (formula 2.5) can be found by equation 2.14 with the density $\rho(T)$ obviously being a temperature-dependent variable and the area perpendicular to the coflow A equal to

$$A = \pi \cdot \left[\left(\frac{D_1}{2} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{D_0}{2} \right)^2 \right] \quad (3.10)$$

Solving this with the data from table 3.1, gives $A = 4.97 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ m}^2$.

The density can be found by applying the ideal gas model (unfortunately but inevitable, this method can give a small error, up to 5%)

$$p = \frac{\rho \cdot R \cdot T}{M} \quad (3.11)$$

Using the temperatures T_{in} and molar masses M found for the coflows and $p = 1.028 \text{ bar}$ and $R = 8.3145 \text{ J/mol}\cdot\text{K}$, gives $\rho_{in,I} = 209.1 \text{ g/m}^3$ and $\rho_{in,X} = 237.8 \text{ g/m}^3$.

Formula 2.14 then leads us to the initial average velocities of the coflow, using the massflows found before: $\langle v_{in,I} \rangle = 4.444 \text{ m/s}$ and $\langle v_{in,X} \rangle = 4.138 \text{ m/s}$

To find the average velocity $\langle v_{out} \rangle$ of the coflow at the higher end of the tube, we do not have to repeat this calculations; a LDA measurement of the velocity-profile will be available.

To be able to apply formula 2.16, we first need to rewrite this velocity-profile into a polynomic function $v(r)$. We can use *Microsoft Excel* to make fourth-order polynomial fits. Now we still lack information considering the density. But, since for all ideal gases the density is inversely proportional with the temperature as $\rho = \frac{C}{T}$, with C a constant, $\rho(r)$ can be replaced by a factor $\frac{1}{T}$.

A function for the temperature $T(r)$ can be recovered in the same way from CARS-measurements. Using integration limits $r_0 = \frac{D_0}{2}$ and $r_1 = \frac{D_1}{2}$ then yields

$$\langle v_{out} \rangle = \frac{\int_{r_0}^{r_1} \frac{r \cdot v}{T} \cdot dr}{\int_{r_0}^{r_1} \frac{r}{T} \cdot dr} \quad (3.12)$$

3.4.1.2 Potential energy

For the potential energy, Δz is simply equal to the tube length L .

3.4.1.3 Enthalpy

To calculate the change in enthalpy Δh , it is required to find the begin- and end-temperature(-profile) and the composition of the coflow. Since we know the composition and initial temperature of the coflow from section 3.3, the only variable that needs to be found is the temperature T_{out} at the exit of the annulus.

When the temperature-profile at the higher end of the tube is measured with CARS for both DJHC-I and DJHC-X, it will be able to find a related enthalpy-profile $h(r)$. Then, the average value $\langle h_{out} \rangle$ can be calculated by the method used in formula 2.18, once again replacing $\rho(r)$ with $\frac{1}{T}$, and integrating from r_0 to r_1 .

This leads to

$$\langle h_{out} \rangle = \frac{\int_{r_0}^{r_1} \frac{r \cdot v \cdot h}{T} \cdot dr}{\int_{r_0}^{r_1} \frac{r \cdot v}{T} \cdot dr} \quad (3.13)$$

The relation between enthalpy h and temperature T for the mixtures is slightly nonlinear and can be found by the method described earlier on, using equation 2.9. This has been done for the range 990 K – 1680 K in Appendix B, resulting in graph 3.3.

3.4.2 Heat flux from the outer wall of the outer tube

At the outer wall, we can split the heat flux in a heat flux caused by radiation, and a heat flux by natural convection. The heat conduction in the iron wall of the tube in the vertical direction is neglected, because the thickness of the wall is very small, but more importantly, because the temperature gradient in the z -direction is far smaller than the temperature gradient in the radial direction.

The total heat leaving the outer wall per unit time \dot{Q}_{wall} is

$$\dot{Q}_{wall} = \dot{Q}_{wall,r} + \dot{Q}_{wall,c} \quad (3.14)$$

3.4.2.1 Radiative heat flux at the outer wall

The heat flux caused by radiation $\dot{Q}_{wall,r}$ can be calculated by integrating 2.40 over the outer wall of the tube, since we estimate the pipe to be a grey body. Considering the wall temperature T_w to be dependent on the vertical coordinate z only and the total, hemispherical emissivity ϵ to be constant, gives rise to

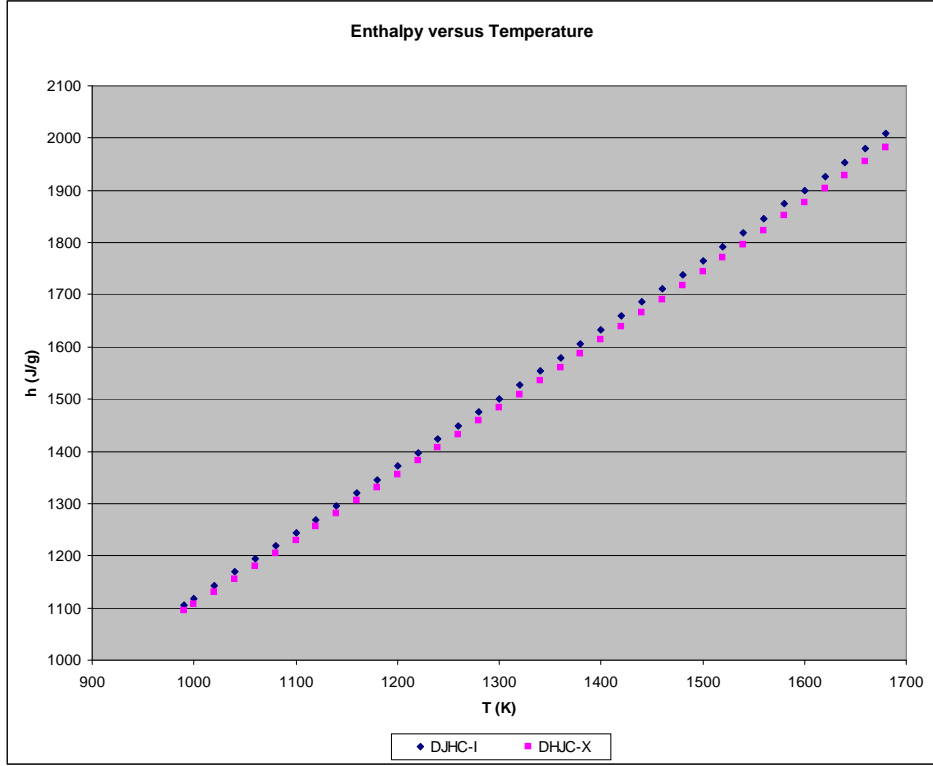


Figure 3.3: The found enthalpy h of the two different coflow mixtures, for different temperatures T .

$$\dot{Q}_{wall,r} = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^L \dot{q}_{wall,r} = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^L \epsilon \cdot \sigma \cdot T_w^4(z) \cdot dz \cdot d\varphi = \pi D_2 \cdot \epsilon \cdot \sigma \cdot \int_0^L T_w^4(z) \cdot dz \quad (3.15)$$

Of course there is also inbound radiation from the room, but since its temperature T_{room} is estimated to be at least twice as low as the wall temperature, and the emissivity is smaller than 0.1, this shall be neglected.

3.4.2.2 Convective heat flux at the outer wall

The natural convection per unit area is found by combining equations 2.22 and 2.20 as

$$\dot{q}_{wall,c} = \langle Nu_w \rangle \cdot \frac{k}{L} \cdot \Delta T(z) \quad (3.16)$$

with $\Delta T(z) = T_w(z) - T_{room}$.

The total convective heat flux $\dot{Q}_{wall,c}$ can be found by integrating $\dot{q}_{wall,c}$ over the height and circumference of the tube:

$$\dot{Q}_{wall,c} = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^L \dot{q}_{wall,c} \cdot dz \cdot d\varphi = \pi D_2 \cdot \langle Nu_w \rangle \cdot \frac{k}{L} \cdot \int_0^L (T_w(z) - T_{room}) \cdot dz \quad (3.17)$$

where the average Nusselt number $\langle Nu_w \rangle$ is found by applying equation 2.45 or 2.47. To be able to apply these, we must assume an average walltemperature $\langle T_w \rangle$:

$$\langle T_w \rangle = \frac{\int_0^L T_w(z) \cdot dz}{L} \quad (3.18)$$

Also, the kinematic viscosity ν and thermal diffusivity α at that temperature need to be looked up.

3.4.3 Heat flux from the inner tube to the cooling air and the fuel duct

To complete the heat flux part of the energy balance, the heat leaving via the inner tube is required to be known. From [7] we find the heat flux \dot{Q}_{cool} for an average temperature of 1300 K to be approximately $3 \cdot 10^2$ J/s. More accurate calculations could be made, but unfortunately the massflow $\phi_{m,cool}$ and temperature rise ΔT_{cool} of the coflow are not known. If they would be known, the heat flux could be found by

$$\dot{Q}_{cool} = \phi_{m,cool} \cdot \Delta T_{cool} \cdot c_p \quad (3.19)$$

with c_p being the heat capacity of air.

3.4.4 Heat fluxes in the annulus

To be able to get any quantification of the temperature profile in the annulus (the space where the hot coflow is flowing), it is necessary to get a better understanding of the heat fluxes pertaining to the hot coflow and its boundaries. A list of the significant heat fluxes:

- Conduction within the outer tube
- Driven convection between the hot coflow and the outer tube
- Driven convection between the hot coflow and the inner tube
- Radiative heat transfer between the inner tube and outer tube, where the hot coflow is a participating medium
- Conductive heat transfer within the coflow

Because the temperature of the inside of the outer tube (at D_1) is easily found, this shall be the starting point.

3.4.4.1 Finding the temperature at the inside of the outer tube

Within the outer tube heat is flowing. Because a steady-state system is considered and vertical conduction in the tube is neglected, the sum of heat fluxes leaving the outer tube from the outer wall is equal to the amount of heat $\dot{q}_{wall,conduct}$ surpassing the wall :

$$\dot{q}_{wall,conduct} = \dot{q}_{wall,c} + \dot{q}_{wall,r} \quad (3.20)$$

Then, using equation 2.29, the temperature at the inside of the outer tube can be found.

3.4.4.2 Driven convection inside the annulus

Using section 2.2.4, formulae for the heat flux due to convection are easily found. Since we assume the flow to be laminar (with $v = 4.0 \text{ m/s}$, $D = D_1 = 82.5 \text{ mm}$ and $\nu_{air}(1250 \text{ K}) = 1731 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$, we find $Re = 1906$), we find the convective heat fluxes

$$\dot{q}_{convection} = Nu \cdot \frac{k}{D_1} \cdot \Delta T \quad (3.21)$$

with the Nusselt number for the inward heat flux (to the cooling duct) $\langle Nu \rangle_0 = 7.86$ and for the outward flux $\langle Nu \rangle_1 = 3.66$.

3.4.4.3 Conduction within the annulus

To calculate the conduction within the coflow, we consider the velocity to be equal in the annulus. Calculation is only possible with some numerical method, using the formula of radial conduction found before 2.29. Dividing the cylinder in rings, gives the conduction from inner radius r_i to outer radius r_j as

$$\dot{q}_{conduction} = -\frac{k}{r_j \cdot \ln(r_i/r_j)} \cdot (T_i - T_j)$$

3.4.4.4 Radiation within the annulus

For the radiation originating from the outer wall, view factors are needed.

Using the formulae in section 2.2.2.1 gives $F_{2-1} = 0.27$ and $F_{2-2} = 0.73$.

The directional heat flux originating from a point at the surface is then found by integrating 2.44 over all wavelengths.

$$\dot{q}(\hat{s}) = \int_0^\infty I_\eta(\tau_\eta) \cdot d\eta = \int_0^\infty \left[I_\eta(0) \cdot e^{-\tau_\eta} + \int_0^{\tau_\eta} I_{b\eta}(\tau'_\eta) \cdot e^{-(\tau_\eta - \tau'_\eta)} \cdot d\tau'_\eta \right] \cdot d\eta \quad (3.22)$$

When summing up all directional heat fluxes that are directed to a single surface area, the amount of energy arriving at that area is found (which must, together with the added energy by driven convection, be equal to the heat flux

leaving that area by radiation and the heat flux to the room. If this is done for all surface areas, insight of the temperature field of the coflow can be gained.

3.5 Measurement of the temperature of the outer tube

As explained earlier on, the temperature at the tube wall has to be measured to be able to calculate all the heat fluxes and temperature profiles.

A simple configuration of five thermocouples in combination with a digital multimeter (single input) was chosen.

Normally the thermocouples would be soldered to the tube, but because temperatures of several hundreds degrees Celcius were expected, spot welding was used.

3.5.1 Spot Welding

Spot welding is a process in which two metals are forged together by the conversion of a large current (several thousand ampères) into heat. Because the contact resistance between the two metals is usually higher than the internal resistance, the contact point of the two metals heats up and melts eventually, after several milliseconds, forming a weld. Typically, spot welding is used for metals of only several millimeters thickness.

Next, the question remained if the tube's surface needed to be treated in some way. Several sized holes were drilled in the metal, but welding inside a hole proved to be a too cumbersome job. In the end, the thermocouples were just welded in little depressions on the surface.

3.5.2 Choice of thermocouple type

When picking a thermocouple type, one wants its sensitivity to be as high as possible for getting high resolution measurements. Because the exact range of temperature was still unknown, the K-type (chromel-alumel), stable at temperatures up to 1300°C , was chosen from table 2.2. The corresponding thermocouple reference table is found in Appendix C.

3.5.3 Thermocouple calibration

Before taking the thermocouple into use, it must be calibrated. In order to do this, the hot joint was held in boiling water, while the cold joint was cooled by melting ice, such that $T_2 = 0^{\circ}\text{C}$. With the pressure being 1.028 bar at that time, the temperature of the hot joint was found to be $T_1 = 100.3^{\circ}\text{C}$. [9] The measured thermocouple voltage was 4.099 mV, resulting in a sensitivity of $40.9 \mu\text{V}/\text{K}$.

A lot more accurate than using the sensitivity for further calculations, is the use of the reference table in Appendix C. For T_1 a voltage of 4.1086 mV can be found. Hence, for all future measurements, the voltages in the reference table will be scaled with $\frac{4.099}{4.1086} = 0.9977$.

Chapter 4

Results

4.1 Energy Balance A

The first energy balance (equation 3.1), covering the adiabatic combustion of natural gas in the secondary burner at the bottom of the DJHC, was already solved by doing calculations with the provided volume fluxes of the two cases, DJHC-I and DJHC-X. The resulting temperature, enthalpy and massfluxes are given in table 4.1.

	DJHC-I	DJHC-X
$\phi_{m,air}$	4.415 g/s	4.711 g/s
$\phi_{m,gas}$	0.2044 g/s	0.1803 g/s
h_{in}	1993.2 J/g	1710.2 J/g
T_{in}	1669 K	1474 K

Table 4.1: Coflow enthalpy h_{in} and temperature T_{in} directly after the secondary combustion, including the massfluxes of air $\phi_{m,air}$ and natural gas $\phi_{m,gas}$, for both case DJHC-I and DJHC-X.

4.2 Energy Balance B

4.2.1 Temperature- and velocity-profiles

As noted before, data from LDA and CARS are needed to solve the energy balance that covers the annulus containing the coflow (equation 3.2).

Both the temperature and velocity measurements [12] can be found in Appendix D, with the associated graphs (4.1, 4.2) showing non-uniform profiles.

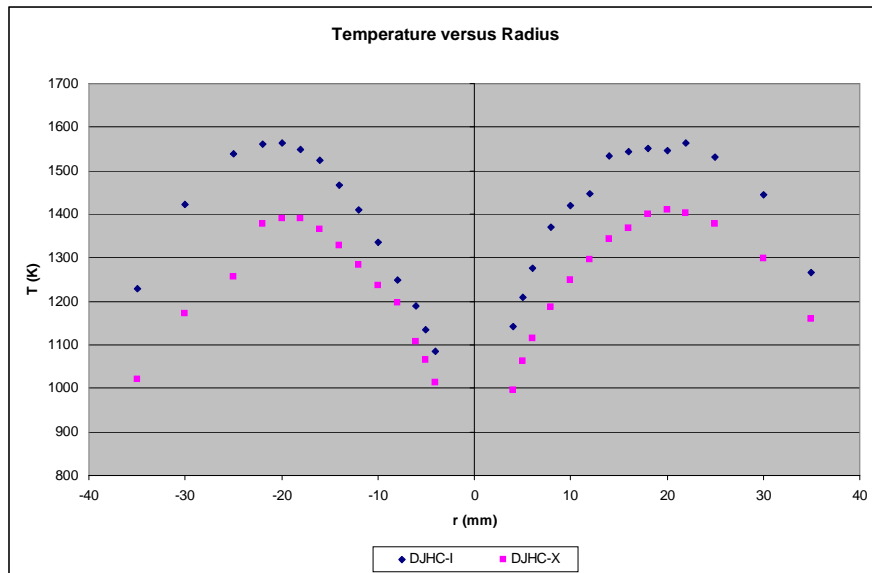


Figure 4.1: Temperature T measurements for the coflow at 3 mm above the pipe for different radii r , for both cases.

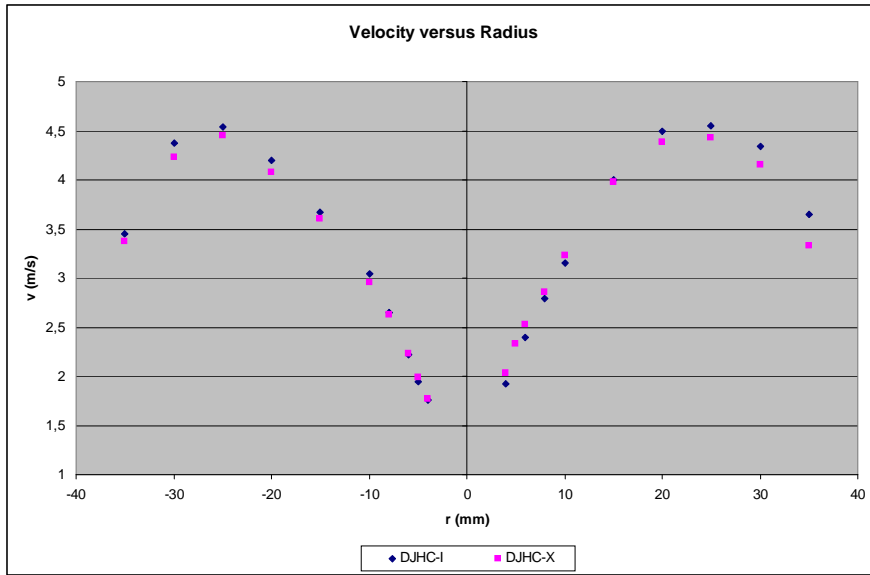


Figure 4.2: Velocity v measurements for the coflow at 3 mm above the pipe for different radii r , for both cases.

4.2.2 Enthalpy-profile

Using the calculated enthalpy-temperature tables from Appendix B for both mixtures of the coflow, the enthalpies can be found for the measured temperatures at the top, resulting in an enthalpy-profile as shown in figure 4.3. The full dataset can be found in Appendix D.

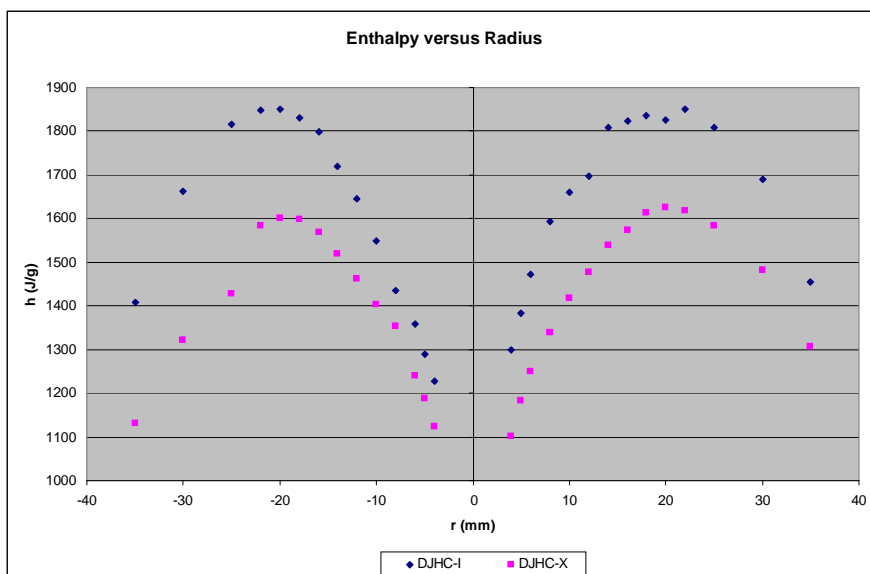


Figure 4.3: Enthalpy h calculations for the coflow at 3 mm above the pipe for different radii r , for both cases.

4.2.3 Coflow characteristics

When applying the averaging method from formulae 3.12 and 3.13, the average values for v_{out} and h_{out} are found.

We converted the enthalpy-, temperature- and velocity-profiles into fourth-order polynomials using *Maple 12*. The polynomials are plotted together with the datapoints in the graphs in Appendix E.

	DJHC-I	DJHC-X
ϕ_m	4.619 g/s	4.891 g/s
$\langle v_{in} \rangle$	4.444 m/s	4.138 m/s
$\langle v_{out} \rangle$	3.97 m/s	3.84 m/s
$\langle h_{out} \rangle$	1.67 kJ/g	1.43 kJ/g
h_{in}	1.9932 kJ/g	1.7102 kJ/g

Table 4.2: The found massflux ϕ_m , average velocities $\langle v_{in} \rangle$ and $\langle v_{out} \rangle$, and average high-end enthalpy $\langle h_{out} \rangle$ of the coflow.

4.2.4 Solving the balance

Finally, using the information from the previous sections, balance 3.2 can be filled in. The balance gives us the total heat loss of the coflow between secondary

combustion and the departing of the pipe per second, \dot{Q} .

We find $\dot{Q}_I = 1429.6 \text{ J/s}$ and $\dot{Q}_X = 1299.5 \text{ J/s}$.

In the following section we will calculate the heat losses one by one, and check if they equal \dot{Q} when summed.

4.3 Heat flux at the outer wall

For both case I and case X, 2 temperature-measurements have been done at the DJHC's wall with thermocouples. Using the correction factor calculated in subsection 3.5.3 and the thermocouple tables in Appendix C enables us to rewrite the voltages into temperatures. The datasets can be seen in Appendix F and are plotted in figure 4.4.

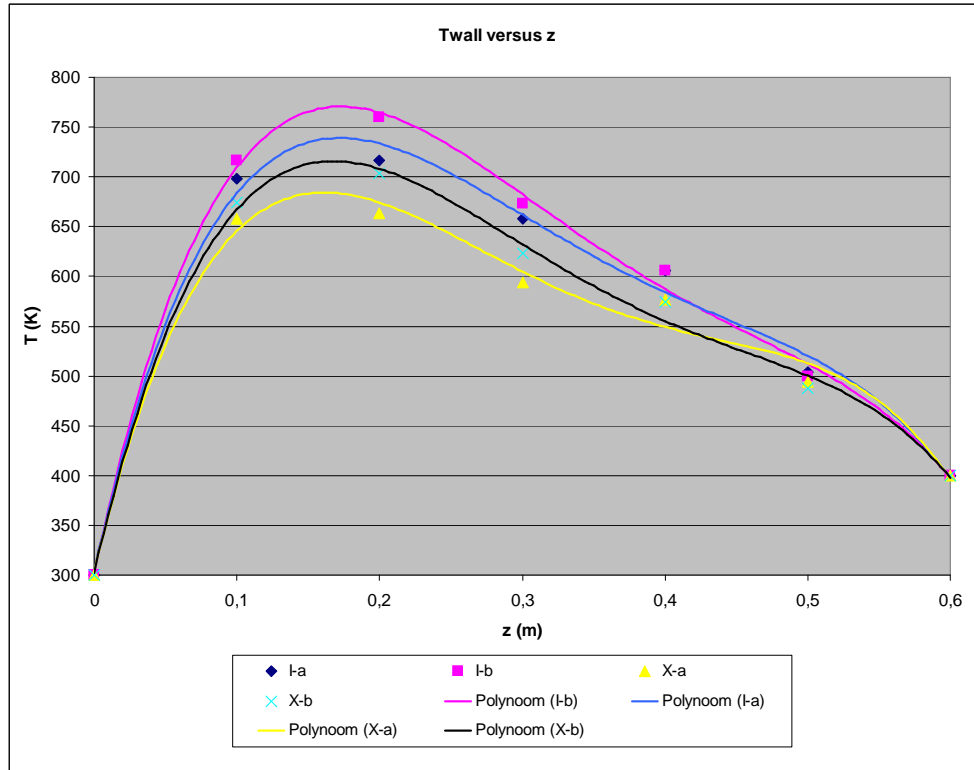


Figure 4.4: Measured wall temperatures T_w for coflow I and X. All measurements (a and b) are plotted, together with their polynomial fits.

To approximate the wall-temperature T_w as function of the height z , *Microsoft Excel* was used to make a polynomial fit. Unfortunately, using the thermocouple measurements up $z = 0.5$ m leads to a fit not in any agreement with the CARS measurements at the top ($z = 0.6$ m), Therefore the fit was based on the thermocouple measurements combined with the CARS measurements from Appendix D at $z = 0.56$ m. Then, using 3.18, average temperatures were found for each of the four datasets.

With this average temperature $\langle T_w \rangle$, a corresponding thermal diffusivity and kinematic viscosity for air were found by cubic interpolation of the data from

[4], listable in table 4.3.

Furthermore, the room temperature was measured to be 297 K.

Case	$\langle T_w \rangle$	α	ν
I-a	600 K	$73.11 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$	$50.50 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$
I-b	613 K	$75.65 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$	$52.32 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$
X-a	567 K	$66.74 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$	$45.98 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$
X-b	580 K	$69.23 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$	$47.74 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$

Table 4.3: Averaged temperature and corresponding thermal diffusivity α and kinematic viscosity ν , for mixtures I and X.

Using formula 3.15 with total, hemispherical emissivity $\epsilon = 0.6$ [4] enables us to compute the value of the heat flux at the wall caused by radiation, \dot{Q}_r .

Also, applying formula 3.17 with air's thermal conductivity $k(T)$ [4] gives us the convective heat flux \dot{Q}_c . In table 4.4 these heat fluxes are listed, together with the total heat flux from the DJHC wall \dot{Q}_{wall} and the total heat loss \dot{Q} .

In figure 4.5 the heat flux leaving the wall per unit area is plotted as function of height.

Case	\dot{Q}_r	\dot{Q}_c	\dot{Q}_{wall}	\dot{Q}_{cool}	\dot{Q}
I-a	870 J/s	308 J/s	1179 J/s	0.3 kJ/s	1.5 kJ/s
I-b	975 J/s	324 J/s	1298 J/s	0.3 kJ/s	1.6 kJ/s
X-a	666 J/s	270 J/s	936 J/s	0.3 kJ/s	1.2 kJ/s
X-b	753 J/s	286 J/s	1039 J/s	0.3 kJ/s	1.3 kJ/s

Table 4.4: List of the calculated radiative and convective heat fluxes \dot{Q}_r and \dot{Q}_c , the total heat flux from the outer wall and to the inner duct \dot{Q}_{wall} and \dot{Q}_{cool} , and the total heat flux leaving the annulus \dot{Q} .

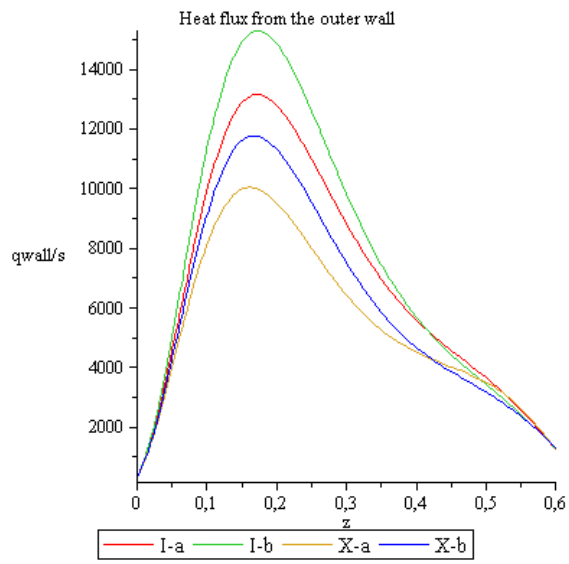


Figure 4.5: Heat flux from the wall per unit area \dot{q}_{wall} for all cases.

4.4 Temperature inside the annulus

Using relation 3.20 and the parameters found in section 4.3 gives the temperature difference ΔT_{wall} between the inside and outside of the outer wall. As can be seen in figure 4.6, this difference is generally less than 1 K, so the temperature-profile of the inside of the outer burner wall is nearly the same as the measured T_{wall} at the outside.

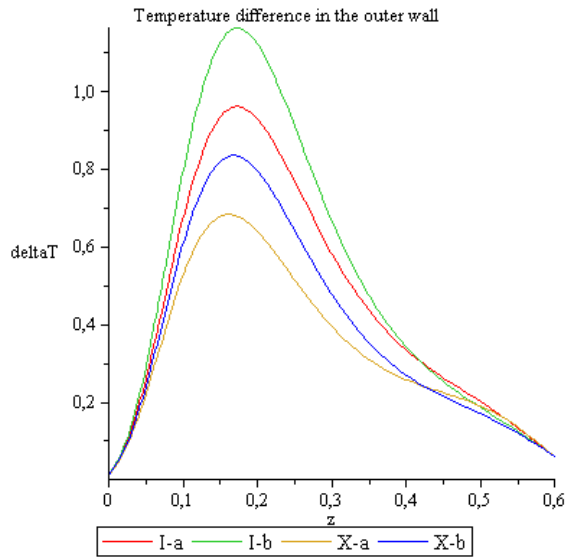


Figure 4.6: Temperature difference inside the outer wall ΔT_{wall} versus height z for the four found temperatureprofiles.

Because only the total heat flux to the cooling gas is known, it is hard to produce the temperature profile along the inner wall of the burner. An option is to assume the profile to be decreasing linearly from it's maximum value T_{in} (table 4.1) at $z = 0$ m to the minimum of T_{CARs} (1 mm) from Appendix D at $z = 0.6$ m.

This results in the temperatureprofiles $T(r, z)$ at the boundaries and constants in 4.1:

Algorithm 4.1 Simplified input for a numerical solver, numbers from measurement **b are used.**

Properties

$$D_1 = 2r_1 = 0.0825 \text{ m}$$

$$D_0 = 2r_0 = 0.022 \text{ m}$$

$$L = 0.6 \text{ m}$$

$$\langle Nu \rangle_0 = 7.86$$

$$\langle Nu \rangle_1 = 3.66$$

thermodynamic properties of the coflow

Boundary conditions for Coflow I

$$T_I(r = r_1, z) = -38182z^4 + 58874z^3 - 32630z^2 + 6789.9z + 301.84$$

$$T_I(r = r_0, z) = 1669 - 1932z$$

$$T_I(r, z = 0) = 1669$$

$$T_I(r, z = L) = -0.0017161r^4 + 0.14346r^3 - 5.5218r^2 + 104.01r + 812.38$$

Boundary conditions for Coflow X

$$T_X(r = r_1, z) = -38598z^4 + 57846z^3 - 30884z^2 + 6202.2z + 301.91$$

$$T_X(r = r_0, z) = 1474 - 1643z$$

$$T_X(r, z = 0) = 1474$$

$$T_X(r, z = L) = -0.00030619r^4 + 0.031540r^3 - 2.3973r^2 + 69.639r + 765.34$$

Heat Fluxes

$$\dot{q}_{conduction} = -\frac{k}{r_j \cdot \ln(r_i/r_j)} \cdot (T_i - T_j)$$

$$\dot{q}_{convection} = Nu \cdot \frac{k}{D_1} \cdot \Delta T$$

$$\dot{q}_{radiation}(\hat{s}) = \int_0^\infty I_\eta(\tau_\eta) \cdot d\eta = \int_0^\infty \left[I_\eta(0) \cdot e^{-\tau_\eta} + \int_0^{\tau_\eta} I_{b\eta}(\tau'_\eta) \cdot e^{-(\tau_\eta - \tau'_\eta)} \cdot d\tau'_\eta \right] \cdot d\eta$$

Chapter 5

Conclusions

The total heat fluxes that have been calculated using thermocouples were 1.6 kJ/s and 1.3 kJ/s for respectively mixture DJHC-I and DJHC-X and are very similar to the total heat fluxes that were found using the LDA and CARS measurements (1.43 kJ/s and 1.30 kJ/s).

Comparing this energy loss to the heat production when the combustion is considered adiabatically (giving productions of respectively 7.77 kJ/s and 6.58 kJ/s), results in a heat loss of respectively 19% and 21% for mixture DJHC-I, and 18% and 19% for mixture DJHC-X.

As expected, most of the heat loss was due to radiation (around 60% of the total, for both mixtures), although the amount of heat loss by cooling and free convection is not negligible, both contributing around 20% of the total heat loss.

The total heat to the cooling air was calculated to be 0.3 kJ/s for both air-gas mixtures, while the total heat to the surroundings was found to be as high as 1.3 kJ/s and 1.0 kJ/s , for respectively mixture I and X.

Chapter 6

Discussion

In this experiment, a lot of data was not too accurately measured, resulting in a not as accurate heat fluxes and temperatures as expected.

For example, if the thermocouples would be placed just a millimeter from the DJHC wall, this mattered dozens of degrees Kelvin. Also, around the bottom and top of the pipe, the temperature profile on the wall was not known too well (error up to 50 K)

Another important inaccuracy is the total, hemispherical emissivity. Literature listed this to be in the range 0.5 – 0.8, and since the radiative heat flux is more than half of the total heat flux, this matters a lot. Furthermore, the iron has been considered a grey emitter.

Lastly, the heat flux due to cooling is a very crude estimate, and an error of 50 % would not be unlikely.

Next, the calculations to internal energy have been made while doing a lot of estimates.

First of all, the natural gas was assumed to combust adiabatically, without production of NO_x , and the resulting temperature to be constant for that height.

Also, the pressure was considered constant everywhere, and the density of the coflow to behave like an ideal gas' density, that is, linear with T^{-1} .

Then, at the top end of the DJHC, CARS-measurements were used. Unfortunately, these were not available at a lower height than at 3 mm above the fuel duct (so 18 mm above the top), which will have led to a slightly lower temperature profile.

Lastly, the effect of the distribution plate inside the annulus was neglected.

Some recommendations for interesting measurements and calculations that will give more insight to some heat fluxes are:

- Measuring the temperature gain and massflux of the cooling air, in that way being able to calculate the heat flux from the coflow to the cooling duct very accurately.
- Measuring the total hemispherical emissivity of the burner pipe with some device.
- Securing some of the coflow gases and studying it's components and material properties such as density, enthalpy and total emissivity.
- Using a numerical solver to calculate the temperature profile of the coflow in 3-dimensions, using the inlet, outlet and outer wall temperatures, the velocity profile and the formulae for driven convection to the walls, conduction inside the coflow, and radiation between the annulus' walls, where the coflow is a participating medium.

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Appendix A

Coflow

This appendix lists the available data on the composition of the different streams; natural gas, air and coflow.

gas	i	Yi	Mi	Mi*Yi	ni	mi	mfi	i	ni
	N2	14,32%	28,01	4,0115	0,0016	0,0440	21,53%	C	0,0099
	CO2	0,89%	44,01	0,3917	0,0001	0,0043	2,10%	H	0,0382
	O2	0,01%	32,00	0,0032	0,0000	0,0000	0,02%	O	0,0002
	CH4	81,29%	16,04	13,0389	0,0089	0,1430	69,97%	N	0,0031
	C2H6	2,87%	30,07	0,8630	0,0003	0,0095	4,63%		
	C3H8	0,38%	44,10	0,1676	0,0000	0,0018	0,90%		
	C4H10	0,15%	58,12	0,0872	0,0000	0,0010	0,47%		
	C5H12	0,04%	72,15	0,0289	0,0000	0,0003	0,15%		
	C6H14	0,05%	86,18	0,0431	0,0000	0,0005	0,23%		
		100,00%		18,6350	0,0110	0,2044	100,00%		
				M	n	m			

Air	i	Yi	Mi	Mi*Yi	ni	mi	mfi	i	ni
	N2	78,08%	28,01	21,8740	0,1190	3,3340	75,51%	C	0,0001
	O2	20,95%	32,00	6,7025	0,0319	1,0216	23,14%	O	0,0640
	Ar	0,93%	39,98	0,3735	0,0014	0,0569	1,29%	N	0,2380
	CO2	0,04%	44,01	0,0167	0,0001	0,0025	0,06%	Ar	0,0014
		100,00%		28,9666	0,1524	4,4150	100,00%		
				M	n	m			

coflow I	i	Yi	Mi	Mi*Yi	ni	i	ni
	Ar	0,87%	39,98	0,3478	0,0014	C	0,0099
	CO2	6,08%	44,01	2,6757	0,0099	H	0,0382
	H2O	11,67%	18,02	2,1027	0,0191	O	0,0642
	N2	73,69%	28,01	20,6431	0,1206	N	0,2412
	O2	7,69%	32,00	2,4612	0,0126	Ar	0,0014
		100,00%		28,2306	0,1636		
				M	n		

	gas	air		23,5 Celcius	0,0 Celcius
l/min	16,1	224		0,7619	0,833
l/s	0,2683333	3,733333		1,1826	1,293
g/s	0,2044364	4,415033	4,6195		

R	8,3145
monoatomic Cp	20,78625

Table A.1: Coflow Properties for DJHC-I [10, 3, 9, 6, 11]

gas	i	Yi	Mi	Mi*Yi	ni	mi	mfi
	N2	14,32%	28,01	4,0115	0,0014	0,0388	21,53%
	CO2	0,89%	44,01	0,3917	0,0001	0,0038	2,10%
	O2	0,01%	32,00	0,0032	0,0000	0,0000	0,02%
	CH4	81,29%	16,04	13,0389	0,0079	0,1262	69,97%
	C2H6	2,87%	30,07	0,8630	0,0003	0,0084	4,63%
	C3H8	0,38%	44,10	0,1676	0,0000	0,0016	0,90%
	C4H10	0,15%	58,12	0,0872	0,0000	0,0008	0,47%
	C5H12	0,04%	72,15	0,0289	0,0000	0,0003	0,15%
	C6H14	0,05%	86,18	0,0431	0,0000	0,0004	0,23%
		100,00%		18,6350	0,0097	0,1803	100,00%
				M	n	m	

i	ni
C	0,0087
H	0,0337
O	0,0002
N	0,0028

Air	i	Yi	Mi	Mi*Yi	ni	mi	mfi
	N2	78,08%	28,01	21,8740	0,1270	3,5572	75,51%
	O2	20,95%	32,00	6,7025	0,0341	1,0900	23,14%
	Ar	0,93%	39,98	0,3735	0,0015	0,0607	1,29%
	CO2	0,04%	44,01	0,0167	0,0001	0,0027	0,06%
		100,00%		28,9666	0,1626	4,7107	100,00%
				M	n	m	

i	ni
C	0,0001
O	0,0683
N	0,2540
Ar	0,0015

coflow X	i	Yi	Mi	Mi*Yi	ni
	Ar	0,88%	39,98	0,3520	0,0015
	CO2	5,09%	44,01	2,2412	0,0088
	H2O	9,76%	18,02	1,7590	0,0168
	N2	74,41%	28,01	20,8442	0,1284
	O2	9,86%	32,00	3,1543	0,0170
		100,00%		28,3508	0,1725
				M	n

i	ni
C	0,0088
H	0,0337
O	0,0684
N	0,2567
Ar	0,0015

	gas	air		23,5 Celcius	0,0 Celcius
l/min	14,2	239	rho gas	0,7619	0,833
l/s	0,2366667	3,983333	rho air	1,1826	1,293
g/s	0,1803104	4,710683			
					4,8910

R	8,3145
monoatomic Cp	20,78625

Table A.2: Coflow Properties for DJHC-X [10, 3, 9, 6, 11]

Appendix B

Enthalpy-Temperature relations

	T (K)	297	990	1000	1020	1040	1060	1080	1100	1120
0,87%	Ar	6174	20578	20786	21202	21618	22033	22449	22865	23281
6,08%	CO2	9326	42226	42769	43859	44953	46051	47153	48258	49369
11,67%	H2O	9870	35472	35882	36709	37542	38380	39223	40071	40923
73,69%	N2	8639	29803	30129	30784	31442	32101	32762	33426	34092
7,69%	O2	8652	31041	31389	32088	32789	33490	34194	34899	35606
M = 28,2306	h (J/g)	311,86	1106,42	1118,80	1143,70	1168,71	1193,78	1218,94	1244,20	1269,56

T (K)	1140	1160	1180	1200	1220	1240	1260	1280	1300	1320
Ar	23696	24112	24528	24944	25359	25775	26191	26606	27022	27438
CO2	50484	51602	52724	53848	54977	56108	57244	58381	59522	60666
H2O	41780	42642	43509	44380	45256	46137	47022	47912	48807	49707
N2	34760	35430	36104	36777	37452	38129	38807	39488	40170	40853
O2	36314	37023	37734	38447	39162	39877	40594	41312	42033	42753
h (J/g)	1294,99	1320,51	1346,17	1371,83	1397,58	1423,40	1449,29	1475,28	1501,33	1527,43

T (K)	1340	1360	1380	1400	1420	1440	1460	1480	1500	1520
Ar	27854	28269	28685	29101	29516	29932	30348	30764	31179	31595
CO2	61813	62963	64116	65271	66427	67586	68748	69911	71078	72246
H2O	50612	51521	52434	53351	54273	55198	56128	57062	57999	58942
N2	41539	42227	42915	43605	44295	44988	45682	46377	47073	47771
O2	43475	44198	44923	45648	46374	47102	47831	48561	49292	50024
h (J/g)	1553,64	1579,93	1606,25	1632,64	1659,06	1685,58	1712,16	1738,78	1765,46	1792,21

T (K)	1540	1560	1580	1600	1620	1640	1660	1680
Ar	32011	32427	32842	33258	33674	34089	34505	34921
CO2	73417	74590	76767	78944	81123	83303	85486	87670
H2O	59888	60838	61792	62748	63709	64675	65643	66614
N2	48470	49168	49869	50571	51275	51980	52686	53393
O2	50756	51490	52224	52961	53696	54434	55172	55912
h (J/g)	1819,01	1845,81	1874,87	1899,66	1926,68	1953,76	1980,87	2008,04

Table B.1: Relation between temperature T (K) and enthalpy h (J/g) for coflow mixture I, using the partial molar enthalpies \bar{h}_i of the components. [9]

	T (K)	297	990	1000	1020	1040	1060	1080	1100	1120
0,88%	Ar	6174	20578	20786	21202	21618	22033	22449	22865	23281
5,09%	CO2	9326	42226	42769	43859	44953	46051	47153	48258	49369
9,76%	H2O	9870	35472	35882	36709	37542	38380	39223	40071	40923
74,41%	N2	8639	29803	30129	30784	31442	32101	32762	33426	34092
9,86%	O2	8652	31041	31389	32088	32789	33490	34194	34899	35606
M = 28,3508	h (J/g)	309,47	1094,50	1106,72	1131,27	1155,94	1180,66	1205,47	1230,38	1255,38

T (K)	1140	1160	1180	1200	1220	1240	1260	1280	1300	1320
Ar	23696	24112	24528	24944	25359	25775	26191	26606	27022	27438
CO2	50484	51602	52724	53848	54977	56108	57244	58381	59522	60666
H2O	41780	42642	43509	44380	45256	46137	47022	47912	48807	49707
N2	34760	35430	36104	36777	37452	38129	38807	39488	40170	40853
O2	36314	37023	37734	38447	39162	39877	40594	41312	42033	42753
h (J/g)	1280,45	1305,61	1330,90	1356,19	1381,56	1407,01	1432,52	1458,12	1483,79	1509,50

T (K)	1340	1360	1380	1400	1420	1440	1460	1480	1500	1520
Ar	27854	28269	28685	29101	29516	29932	30348	30764	31179	31595
CO2	61813	62963	64116	65271	66427	67586	68748	69911	71078	72246
H2O	50612	51521	52434	53351	54273	55198	56128	57062	57999	58942
N2	41539	42227	42915	43605	44295	44988	45682	46377	47073	47771
O2	43475	44198	44923	45648	46374	47102	47831	48561	49292	50024
h (J/g)	1535,32	1561,22	1587,14	1613,13	1639,14	1665,26	1691,42	1717,64	1743,90	1770,24

T (K)	1540	1560	1580	1600	1620	1640	1660	1680
Ar	32011	32427	32842	33258	33674	34089	34505	34921
CO2	73417	74590	76767	76944	78123	79303	80486	81670
H2O	59888	60838	61792	62748	63709	64675	65643	66614
N2	48470	49168	49869	50571	51275	51980	52686	53393
O2	50756	51490	52224	52961	53696	54434	55172	55912
h (J/g)	1796,62	1823,00	1851,27	1876,00	1902,58	1929,23	1955,91	1982,64

Table B.2: Relation between temperature T (K) and enthalpy h (J/g) for coflow mixture X, using the partial molar enthalpies \bar{h}_i of the components. [9]

Appendix D

LDA and CARS Measurements

DJHC-I		DJHC-X	
r (mm)	v (m/s)	r (mm)	v (m/s)
-40	1,0401	-40	1,0109
-35	3,4487	-35	3,3686
-30	4,3779	-30	4,2346
-25	4,5365	-25	4,4466
-20	4,1947	-20	4,0803
-15	3,6665	-15	3,5997
-10	3,04	-10	2,9532
-8	2,645	-8	2,6262
-6	2,2156	-6	2,2332
-5	1,9475	-5	1,9943
-4	1,7551	-4	1,771
-3	1,5656	-3	1,5707
0	34,05	0	32,858
3	1,6167	3	1,7394
4	1,9257	4	2,0306
6	2,4007	5	2,3263
8	2,7919	6	2,5239
10	3,1512	8	2,8547
15	4,0036	10	3,234
20	4,4947	15	3,9798
25	4,55	20	4,3894
30	4,3382	25	4,4272
35	3,6511	30	4,1526
40	1,1593	35	3,3246
		40	0,87772

Figure D.1: Velocity-data as measured with LDA at a distance 3 mm from the top of the fuel-duct, for coflow I and coflow X. Only the velocities above the annulus, from $r = -35$ mm to $r = -4$ mm and from $r = 4$ mm to $r = 35$ mm, have been used for calculations. [12]

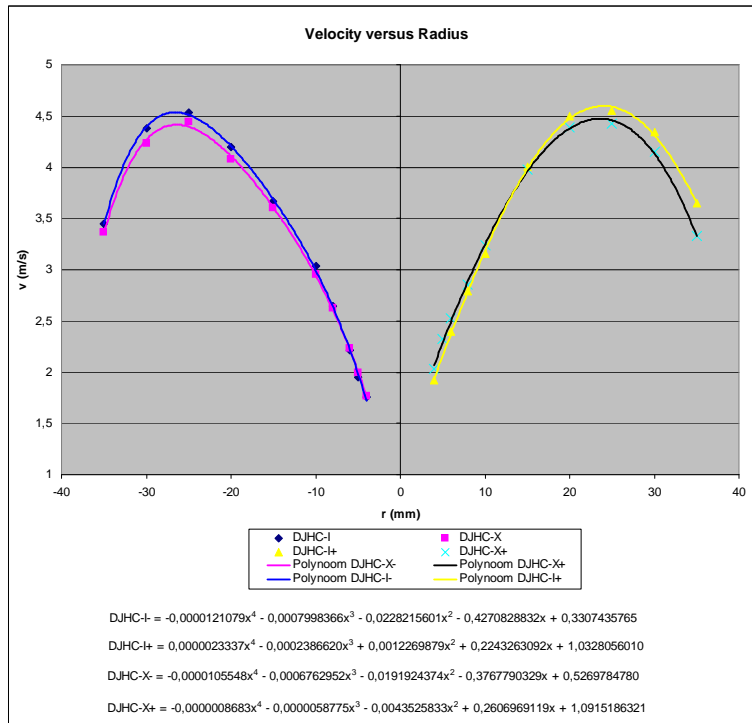
DJHC-I			DJHC-X		
r (mm)	T (K)	h (J/g)	r (mm)	T (K)	h (J/g)
-35	1229	1409,20	-35	1020	1131,27
-30	1422	1661,71	-30	1172	1320,78
-25	1538	1816,33	-25		1428,69
-22	1562	1848,72	-22	1377	1583,25
-20	1564	1851,62	-20	1390	1600,14
-18	1549	1831,07	-18	1389	1598,84
-16	1524	1797,57	-16	1365	1567,70
-14	1466	1720,15	-14	1328	1519,83
-12	1410	1645,85	-12	1284	1463,25
-10	1336	1548,40	-10	1236	1401,92
-8	1249	1435,05	-8	1197	1352,40
-6	1189	1357,72	-6	1108	1240,38
-5	1135	1288,64	-5	1066	1188,10
-4	1086	1226,52	-4	1013	1122,68
-3	967		-3	906	
-2	644		-2	536	
-1	510		-1	488	
0	470		0	477	
1	477		1	484	
2	601		2	568	
3	958		3	891	
4	1143	1298,82	4	996	1101,83
5	1208	1382,13	5	1062	1183,14
6	1277	1471,38	6	1116	1250,38
8	1371	1594,41	8	1187	1339,75
10	1420	1659,06	10	1248	1417,21
12	1448	1696,21	12	1295	1477,37
14	1533	1809,63	14	1343	1539,21
16	1544	1824,37	16	1369	1572,88
18	1552	1835,09	18	1400	1613,13
20	1546	1827,05	20	1410	1626,14
22	1563	1850,17	22	1403	1617,03
25	1532	1808,29	25	1378	1584,55
30	1444	1690,90	30	1298	1481,21
35	1265	1455,79	35	1160	1305,61

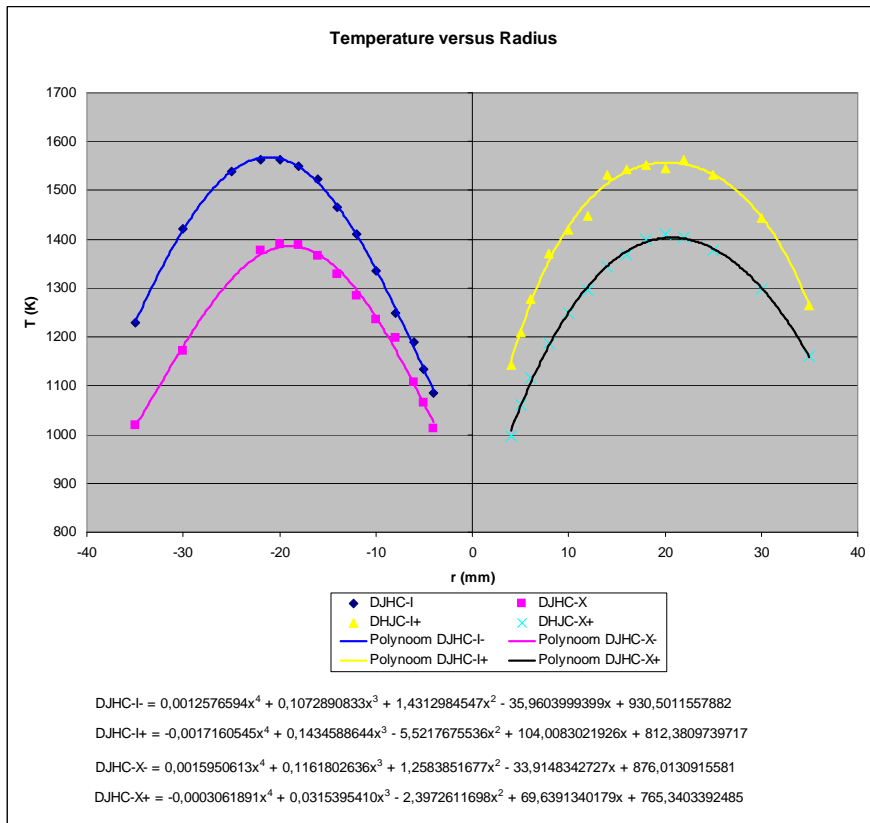
Figure D.2: Temperature-data as measured with CARS at a distance 3 mm from the top of the fuel-duct, for coflow I and coflow X. Included are the (temperature-related) enthalpies, found by linear interpolation of the data in Appendix B. Only the measurements above the annulus, from $r = -35$ mm to $r = -4$ mm and from $r = 4$ mm to $r = 35$ mm, have been used for calculations. [12]

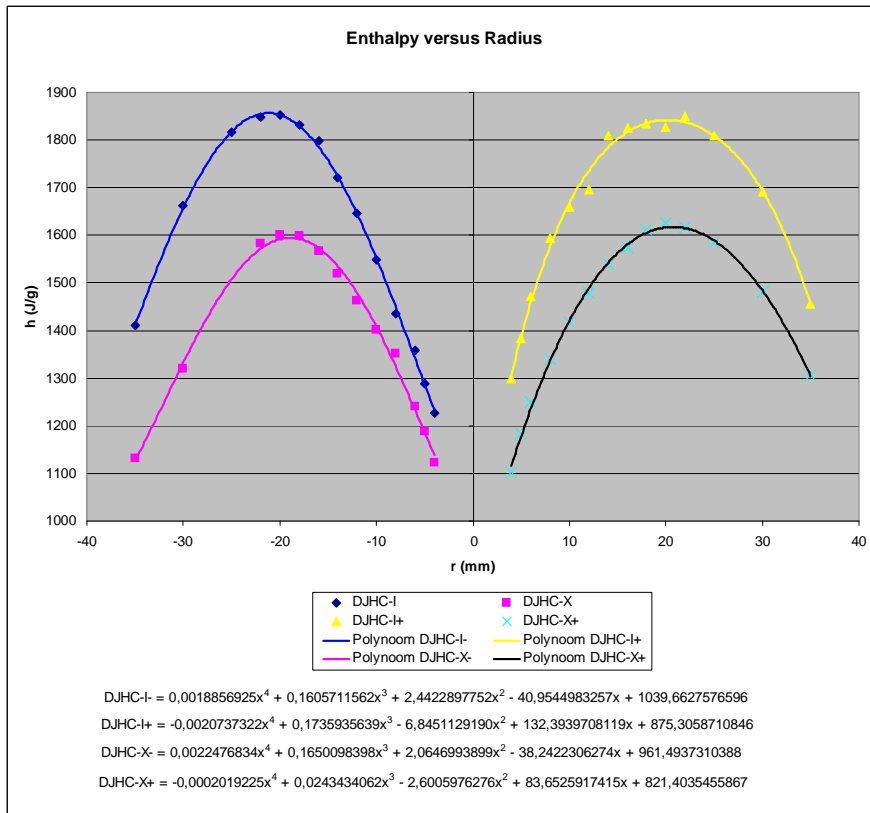
Appendix E

Polynomials Fits to LDA and CARS Data

Using *Microsoft Excel* and the data from Appendix D, fourth-order polynomial fits were constructed for the velocity v , temperature T and enthalpy h .







Appendix F

Wall Temperature Measurements

		TC1	TC2	TC3	TC4	TC5
z(m)		0,5	0,4	0,3	0,2	0,1
I-a	U (mV)	9,40	13,60	15,80	18,30	17,50
	U _{corr} (mV)	9,38	13,57	15,76	18,26	17,46
	T (C)	231	333	385	444	425
	T (K)	504	606	658	717	698
I-b	U (mV)	9,24	13,61	16,42	20,15	18,25
	U _{corr} (mV)	9,22	13,58	16,38	20,10	18,21
	T (C)	227	333	400	487	443
	T (K)	500	606	673	760	716
X-a	U (mV)	9,00	12,40	13,10	16,00	15,80
	U _{corr} (mV)	8,98	12,37	13,07	15,96	15,76
	T (C)	221	304	321	390	385
	T (K)	494	577	594	663	658
X-b	U (mV)	8,76	12,29	14,34	17,72	16,49
	U _{corr} (mV)	8,74	12,26	14,31	17,68	16,45
	T (C)	215	301	350	430	401
	T (K)	488	574	623	703	674

Figure F.1: Measured thermocouple voltages U at height z , the corrected voltage U_{corr} and corresponding temperatures T for mixtures I and X. Both have been measured twice, at two different times (a and b).