



THERMO-CATALYTIC DECOMPOSITION OF METHANE: ANNUAL REPORT

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ABSTRACT

Concerns about the rising carbon dioxide concentration in the atmosphere and its possible negative effects on life on Earth have forced governments to take actions. Many new technologies are being investigated in order to find more economically and environmentally friendly and energy-efficient methods, which could replace the conventional technologies. The power-generation industry, in particular, has shown interest, as currently the majority of electricity is produced from fossil fuels.

Cleen Oy launched a carbon capture and storage –program (CCSP) in 2011, to find and evaluate novel ways to mitigate anthropogenic emissions to the atmosphere. As a part of the program, Tampere University of Technology has conducted research on a pre-combustion carbon capturing method 'Thermo-catalytic Decomposition of Methane'. Research started as Master's Thesis and is planned to continue throughout the planned project span, 2011-2015.

During the funding period I, literature and patent review was made. Also a set of laboratory experiments was designed and conducted. Main finding from the FP I was that the reaction does take place in conditions possible to theoretically create in a larger scale. However, by optimizing both the process parameters and the catalyst used the reaction conversion percentage could possibly be higher in less severe surroundings. It was acknowledged, that as a hydrogen production method, TDM should economically overcome the current technology, steam-methane reformation,

During the funding period II, experiments were widened to cover different types of catalysts used in reaction. One goal was to find a cheap, abundant catalyst and e.g. quartz sand and biomass-based char was tested. The results were that either had very little effect on the decomposition reaction. In addition, in the high temperature required to obtain a reasonable reaction conversion rate, bio char completely lost its active surface area possibly due to the ash component melting. The commercial carbon black used already during FP I tests was further evaluated. Results indicate the high surface area is a critical requirement in order to reach even a moderate decomposition rate.

The results and experiences obtained during the FP I and II lead the author to suggest taking the metal catalysts, previously out of the scope, into the account. It would offer comparison data to make further conclusions about the catalyst requirements and decomposition efficiency, i.e. offer more tools to conduct techno-economical analysis.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND NOTATION

Symbol	Units	Definition
a	-	chemical activity
а	-	conversion
A		pre-exponential factor; frequency factor
<i>C</i>	mol m ⁻³	concentration
C _{pm}	J mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹	molar specific heat capacity
Ea	J mol ⁻¹	activation energy
∆ H r	J mol ⁻¹	formation enthalpy
∆ H r	J mol ⁻¹	reaction enthalpy
Hm	J mol ⁻¹	molar sensible enthalpy
k		reaction rate coefficient; rate constant
K		chemical equilibrium constant
K _p		chemical equilibrium constant in terms of
		pressure
М	g mol ⁻¹	molar mass
m	kg	mass
'n	kg s ⁻¹	mass flow rate
п	mol	mole mass
п	-	reaction order
'n	mol s ⁻¹	molar flow rate
P	Pa	pressure
Q	J mol ⁻¹	molar heat
r		reaction rate
T	K	temperature
V	m^3	volume
VHSV	1/h	volume hourly space velocity
<i>॑</i> V	$m^{3} s^{-1}$	volumetric flow rate
x	-	volumetric fraction

Greek symbols	Units	Definition
ρ	kg m ⁻³	density
τ	S	residence time
χ	-	conversion

Constants	Units	Definition
Ru	J mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹	universal gas constant, 8.314 J mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹

Subscripts	Definition
bed	reactor bed condition
С	carbon
i	species i
in	reactor inlet condition
<i>inlet</i>	reactor inlet condition
P	pressure

Activated carbon
Brunauer-Emmett-Teller –surface area
Carbon black
Carbon capture and storage
Funding period
Lower heating value
Standard temperature and pressure
Thermo-catalytic decomposition of methane

1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this research is to examine the potential of thermocatalytic decomposition of methane (TDM) as a method to reduce carbon dioxide emissions in natural gas combustion. The only reaction products are gaseous hydrogen and solid carbon, which both also have a potential aftermarket thus increasing the interest. Methane is the main component of natural gas, which is used in Finland mainly for the production of energy. As natural gas is mostly used in small units, the post-combustion sequestration and storage of CO_2 with the conventional methods is both impractical and expensive. An alternative approach is to separate and capture the carbon before combustion. To become economically attractive hydrogen production method, TDM must have both lower costs and lower emissions than the current *de facto*-process, steam reformation.

Although the carbon dioxide capture and storage (CCS) is globally a hot topic, concrete actions have been quite modest. A few pilot plants have been launched, but many of them have also been shut down or cancelled due to various reasons. No consensus on storaging the captured CO_2 has been reached, and to be realistic, it might still take even another twenty years to have a functioning CCS-infrastructure.

TDM can be seen as a first-generation method to lower the CO_2 emissions in natural gas use, and help the industry to meet the stricter emission limits in the years to come. It can buy the valuable time needed to come up with novel sustainable solutions without forcing the plants to shut down.

2 REACTION EQUILIBRIUM AND CONVERSION

2.1 In general

In general a chemical reaction can be expressed as follows

$$jA + kB \leftrightarrow lC + mD, \tag{2.1}$$

where upper case letters A and B represent the reactants and C and D the products of reaction. Lower case letters denote the stoichiometric reaction coefficients.

The equilibrium constant, K, for reaction, is calculated with the following formula

$$K = \frac{(a_C)^l (a_D)^m}{(a_A)^j (a_B)^k},$$
(2.2)

where a_i denotes the chemical activity of a substance. The exponents for the substance activities are the corresponding stoichiometric coefficients.

The activity can be expressed in terms of pressure, when it becomes

$$a_i = \frac{p_i}{p_{ref}},\tag{2.3}$$

where p_i represents the partial pressure of a gas, and p_{ref} the reference pressure, the value of which is usually 1 atmosphere (1 atm). In addition, it has to be remembered that in heterogeneous reactions the activity of non-gaseous substances is unity.

From the ideal gas law it can be shown, that the pressure fraction equals the mole fraction of a substance.

$$pV = nR_u T \tag{2.4}$$

For component i in a gas mixture

$$p_i V = n_i R_u T \tag{2.5}$$

$$n_i = \frac{p_i V}{R_u T} \tag{2.6}$$

For the total amount:

$$p_{tot}V = n_{tot}R_uT \tag{2.7}$$

$$n_{tot} = \frac{p_{tot}V}{R_u T} \tag{2.8}$$

Mole fraction for the species i is

$$x_i = \frac{n_i}{n_{tot}} \tag{2.9}$$

Amounts of substances can be replaced by:

$$x_i = \frac{\frac{p_i V}{R_u T}}{\frac{p_{tot} V}{R_u T}}$$
(2.10)

Which can be simplified,

$$x_i = \frac{p_i}{p_{tot}}.$$

2.2 For TDM

The stoichiometric equation for thermocatalytic decomposition of methane taking place in a nitrogen atmosphere is

$$A \cdot CH_4(g) + B \cdot N_2(g) \leftrightarrow A \cdot C(s) + 2A \cdot H_2(g) + B \cdot N_2(g), \qquad (2.12)$$

where A and B are the stoichiometric coefficients. Initial methane concentration (mole fraction) based on the Equation 2.12 is as follows:

mole fraction of methane =
$$\frac{A}{A+B}$$
. (2.13)

By using the common notation x for mole fraction and by replacing the stoichiometric coefficients with the amounts of the substances Equation 4.2 becomes

$$x_{CH_{4},0} = \frac{n_{CH_{4},0}}{n_{CH_{4},0} + n_{N_{2}}}.$$
(2.14)

Equation 2.14 is solved further in terms of nitrogen concentration:

$$x_{CH_{4},0}(n_{CH_{4},0} + n_{N_{2}}) = n_{CH_{4},0}$$
(2.15)

$$x_{CH_{4},0}n_{CH_{4},0} + x_{CH_{4},0}n_{N_{2}} = n_{CH_{4},0}$$
(2.16)

$$x_{CH_4,0}n_{N_2} = n_{CH_4,0} - x_{CH_4,0}n_{CH_4,0}, \qquad (2.17)$$

$$n_{N_2} = n_{CH_4,0} \frac{(\mathbf{1} - x_{CH_4,0})}{x_{CH_4,0}}.$$
 (2.18)

It is convenient to use one mole of CH₄ $(n_{CH_4,0} = 1 \text{ mol})$ as a base, thus reaction Equation 2.12 becomes

$$1CH_4(g) + \frac{(1 - x_{CH_4,0})}{x_{CH_4,0}} N_2(g) \leftrightarrow 1C(s) + 2H_2(g) + \frac{(1 - x_{CH_4,0})}{x_{CH_4,0}} N_2(g), \qquad (2.19)$$

and for simplicity, $B_1 = \frac{(1 - x_{CH_4,0})}{x_{CH_4,0}}$.

Table 2.1 shows the reaction equation coefficients both in the initial and in the equilibrium condition. Symbol a denotes conversion and is discussed in Section 0.

Table 2.1. Reaction equation coefficients.

	1	CH₄	+	B_1	N_2	\leftrightarrow	C(s)	+	2H ₂ (g)	+	B_1	N_2		
													sum	
start		1		B ₁			0		0		0		1+ B₁	mol
equilibrium		1-a		0			а		2a		B_1		1+2a+ B₁	mol
										ga	s pha	ase	1+a+ B₁	mol

2.2.1 Equilibrium

With the method described in Section 2.1, the equilibrium constant for methane decomposition reaction becomes

$$K = \frac{(a_C)^1 (a_{H_2})^2}{(a_{CH_4})^1}$$
(2.20)

When the activities are replaced with the pressure ratio from Equation 3.11 (and remembering that $a_c=1$), the value of the equilibrium constant K_p is normally given by

$$K_p = \frac{\mathbf{1} \cdot \left(\frac{p_{H_2}}{p_{ref}}\right)^2}{\left(\frac{p_{CH_4}}{p_{ref}}\right)^1}$$
(2.21)

Equation 3.13 can be further modified to include the effect of the operating pressure, by expanding the equation to include the total operating pressure:

$$K_{p} = \frac{\left(\frac{p_{H_{2}}}{p_{tot}} \cdot \frac{p_{tot}}{p_{ref}}\right)^{2}}{\left(\frac{p_{CH_{4}}}{p_{tot}} \cdot \frac{p_{tot}}{p_{ref}}\right)}$$
(2.22)

Pressure ratios can be replaced by the mole fractions, as follows

$$K_{p} = \frac{\left(x_{H_{2}} \cdot \frac{p_{tot}}{p_{ref}}\right)^{2}}{\left(x_{CH_{4}} \cdot \frac{p_{tot}}{p_{ref}}\right)}$$
(2.23)

$$K_p = \frac{x_{H_2}^2}{x_{CH_4}} \frac{p_{tot}}{p_{ref}}$$
(2.24)

We can formulate the mole fractions based on Table 2.1 as follows

$$x_{H_2} = \frac{2a}{1 + 2a + B_1}$$
(2.25)

$$x_{CH_4} = \frac{1-a}{1+2a+B_1}$$
(2.26)

$$x_{c} = \frac{a}{1 + 2a + B_{1}}$$
(2.27)

By substituting the hydrogen and methane mole fractions, Equation 2.24 becomes

$$K_{p} = \frac{\left(\frac{2a}{1+2a+B_{1}}\right)^{2}}{\frac{1-a}{1+2a+B_{1}}} \frac{p_{tot}}{p_{ref}}$$
(2.28)

$$K_{p} = \frac{(2a)^{2}}{(1-a)(1+2a+B_{1})} \frac{p_{tot}}{p_{ref}}$$
(2.29)

$$K_{p} = \frac{4a^{2}}{(1 + a - 2a^{2})} \frac{p_{tot}}{p_{ref}}$$
(2.30)

By using the common denotion χ for conversion we get

$$K_{p} = \frac{4\chi_{th}^{2}}{(1 + \chi_{th} - 2\chi_{th}^{2})} \frac{p_{tot}}{p_{ref}},$$
(2.31)

where subscript th emphasizes that Equation 2.31 doesn't take into account the fact that catalyst is present, but is merely for thermal decomposition. Conversion is then only a function of temperature and pressure.

Although the equilibrium constant relates to non-ideal gases, at close to atmospheric pressures the difference is negligible. It must be remembered, that the equilibrium calculations do not take into account in any way the contribution of the catalyst to the reaction. That is to say, the reaction kinetics, i.e. the rate at which the reactions take place, have to be determined experimentally. They vary considerably depending on the catalyst used so that fresh experiments have to be undertaken every time a new catalyst is to be used.

In the literature, the equilibrium constant for the reaction is usually expressed in terms of methane formation, thus after obtaining the constant values for the formation reaction, the complementary ones are used. The logarithmic value of the equilibrium constant versus temperature is plotted in Figure 2.1.



Figure 2.1. The logarithmic value of the equilibrium constant for methane thermal decomposition reaction versus the temperature.

The fit shown in Figure 2.1 was constructed using the equilibrium constant tables, with the help of mathematical software, MatLab. The fit correlation is of the form

$$log_{10}[K_p(T)] = A \cdot \frac{\ln(B \cdot T)}{T} + B \cdot \ln(T) + \frac{C}{T} + D \cdot T + E, \qquad (2.32)$$

where the constants are as follows:

$$A = -290.2$$

$$B = 0.5561$$

$$C = -2623$$

$$D = -1.266 \cdot 10^{-4}$$

$$E = 1.749.$$

The higher the value of K_p , the more the balance of the reaction moves towards the products. The figure in Appendix B shows that the temperature is an essential parameter in achieving a satisfactory level of decomposition. It is important to understand that the size of K_p and the time required to reach equilibrium are not directly related.

Figure 2.2 illustrates the equilibrium mole fractions of the substances as a function of the temperature in TDM reaction at the atmospheric pressure.



Figure 2.2. Equilibrium concentrations of reactant (methane) and reaction products (hydrogen and carbon) as functions of temperature.

Comparison to the results obtained in the experiments is done in Section 7.4.

2.2.2 Conversion calculations

Based on the Table 2.1, methane mole fraction in gaseous phase is now

$$x_{CH_4} = \frac{1-a}{1+a+B_1}.$$
 (2.33)

Solving Equation 2.33 in terms of *a* gives

$$x_{CH_4}(1 + a + B_1) = 1 - a_1$$
(2.34)

$$x_{CH_4} + a x_{CH_4} + B_1 x_{CH_4} = 1 - a_1$$
(2.35)

$$ax_{CH_4} + a = \mathbf{1} - x_{CH_4} - B_1 x_{CH_4}$$
 (2.36)

$$a(1 + x_{CH_4}) = 1 - x_{CH_4}(1 + B_1)$$
(2.37)

$$a = \frac{1 - x_{CH_4}(1 + B_1)}{1 + x_{CH_4}}$$
(2.38)

$$a = \frac{1 - x_{CH_4} \left[1 + \frac{(1 - x_{CH_4,0})}{x_{CH_4,0}} \right]}{1 + x_{CH_4}}.$$
 (2.39)

Similarly, equation for the conversion can be formulated starting with the hydrogen mole fraction, when it becomes

$$a = \frac{x_{H_2} \left[\mathbf{1} + \frac{(\mathbf{1} - x_{CH_4,0})}{x_{CH_4,0}} \right]}{\mathbf{2} - x_{H_2}}$$
(2.40)

Equations 2.39 and 2.40 give the conversion for any atmosphere. The special case is, when only methane stream is present, $x_{CH_4,0} = 100\%$:

$$a = \frac{1 - x_{CH_4} \left[1 + \frac{(1-1)}{1} \right]}{1 + x_{CH_4}}$$
(2.41)

$$a = \frac{1 - x_{CH_4}(1 + 0)}{1 + x_{CH_4}}$$
(2.42)

$$a = \frac{1 - x_{CH_4}}{1 + x_{CH_4}}.$$
 (2.43)

When conversion is formulated with hydrogen concentration, and with 100% methane atmosphere, Equation 2.40 becomes

$$a = \frac{x_{H_2}}{2 - x_{H_2}}$$
(2.44)

Equations 2.44 and 2.45 are common in research reports (e.g. Abbas & Daud, 2010).

3 ENERGY BALANCE CONSTRAINT

3.1 On reaction enthalpy

The chemical reaction is

$$CH_4(g) \leftrightarrow C(s) + 2H_2(g).$$
 (3.1)

The reaction is endothermic, which means that it requires energy in order for it to take place. The formation enthalpy value ΔH_f for methane is usually ~ -75 MJ/kmol. Thus deformation enthalpy has the complement value, ~75 MJ/kmol. Formation enthalpy is given in standard temperature and pressure (STP: T=25 °C; p=101,325 Pa).

The reaction enthalpy ΔH_r is the difference between the enthalpies of the products and the reactants, but in this case all other substances present are elements for which the formation enthalpy is zero (0). Thus the reaction enthalpy equals the methane deformation enthalpy. It is a temperature dependent quantity, and its values are tabulated in thermo chemical databases. Figure 3.1 shows a graphic representation of some tabulated values, as well as the values used in Muradov's calculations. Interestingly, they seem to somewhat differ from all the other ones. Fit for calculation is introduced in Appendix C.



Figure 3.1. Methane formation enthalpies versus temperature, plotted from different sources.

3.2 Energy to support the reaction

Several ways of producing the heat necessary to drive the reaction are reported in the literature. These can be divided roughly into two categories: heat sources that are based on the material streams essentially attached to TDM reaction, and sources that are independent of TDM. A division could also be made according to whether the heat input is direct or indirect. This becomes an option when the catalyst particles are circulated to a separate regeneration reactor, where they could be heated and carrying the energy necessary to drive the reaction in the decomposition reactor. Overall energy balance for the reaction is done here, assuming both the reactants and the products are in the reference state (STP).

Table 3.1. Net calorific heating values (LHV) from selected combustion reactions.

combustion reaction	Q _m	Q _M	Qv
	MJ/kg	MJ/kmol	MJ/m ³
CH ₄ + 2O ₂ -> CO ₂ + 2H ₂ O	50.05	802.93	35.82
$H_2 + \frac{1}{2} O_2 -> H_2 O_{vap}$	120.00	241.92	10.79
$C + O_2 -> CO_2$	32.80	393.96	

With the values obtained from the Table 3.1, following energy balance can be made.

Table 3.2. Energy balance for the TDM reaction and the energy balance distribution.

For stoichiometric reaction:	1	$CH_4 =$	1	C(s)+	2	H_2]		
Qreactants		803						803	MJ/kmol
$\Delta h_f = \Delta H_r$		74.9	(T=	25	°C)	+	75	MJ/kmol
Qinput							=	878	MJ/kmol
Q _{products}				394		484	_	-878	MJ/kmol
							=	0	MJ/kmol
Process stream heat / heat	inpu	ut: Q _i / Q	input						
ΔHr	8	.53 %							
Q _{CH4}	9	1.5 %							
Q _{H2}	4	4.9 %							
Q _C	5	5.1 %							
Fraction of process stream	hea	t to sup	port th	ne reacti	ion e	enthal	py: Δ	H _r / Q _i	
Хсил	ç	3%							

X _{CH4}	9.3 %
x _{H2}	15.5 %
x _C	19.0 %

A few conclusions can be drawn with the help of the Table 3.2: Formation enthalpy requires less than 10% of the input heat; more than 50% of the input heat is in the form

of a carbon; approximately 10% of the input methane would be required to support the reaction enthalpy.

3.3 Energy required

energy required =
energy consumed by reaction +
heating the feedstock to desired temperature

Thus we have

$$\dot{Q} = \chi \dot{n}_{inlet} \Delta H_r + \dot{n}_{inlet} C_{pm,CH_4} (T_{bed} - T_{CH_4,in}), \qquad (3.2)$$

where χ is the methane conversion percentage and C_{pm,CH_4} methane molar heat capacity. As heat capacity is a temperature dependent quantity as well, some average value should be used. It is actually more convenient to use sensible enthalpy values, $H_{m,i}$. Now Equation 3.2 becomes

$$\dot{Q} = \chi \dot{n}_{inlet} \Delta H_r + \dot{n}_{inlet} \left[H_{m_r CH_4} \left(T_{bed} \right) - H_{m_r CH_4} \left(T_{in} \right) \right]$$
(3.3)

In case diluting gas is used (most likely N_2), that has to be taken into account:

$$\dot{Q} = \chi \cdot x_{CH_4,0} \dot{n}_{inlet} \Delta H_r + (3.4)$$

$$x_{CH_4,0} \dot{n}_{inlet} [H_{m,CH_4} \langle T_{bed} \rangle - H_{m,CH_4} \langle T_{in} \rangle] + (3.4)$$

$$x_{N_2} \dot{n}_{inlet} [H_{m,N_2} \langle T_{bed} \rangle - H_{m,N_2} \langle T_{in} \rangle]$$

As the conversion reduces over time, it is taken into consideration by implying the conversion correlation 2.39:

$$\chi = \frac{1 - x_{CH_4} \left[1 + \frac{(1 - x_{CH_4,0})}{x_{CH_4,0}} \right]}{1 + x_{CH_4}}$$
(3.5)

Now Equation 3.4 becomes

$$Q = \frac{1 - x_{CH_4} \left[1 + \frac{\left(1 - x_{CH_4,0}\right)}{x_{CH_4,0}} \right]}{1 + x_{CH_4}} \cdot x_{CH_4,0} \Delta H_r +$$

$$x_{CH_4,0} \left[H_{m,CH_4} \left(T_{bed} \right) - H_{m,CH_4} \left(T_{in} \right) \right] +$$

$$x_{N_2} \left[H_{m,N_2} \left(T_{bed} \right) - H_{m,N_2} \left(T_{in} \right) \right] \right],$$
(3.6)

which we can simplify as follows:

$$\begin{split} \dot{Q} &= \\ \dot{n}_{inlet} \left\{ \frac{x_{CH_4,0} - x_{CH_4}}{1 + x_{CH_4}} \Delta H_r + \\ x_{CH_4,0} \left[H_{m,CH_4} \left(T_{bed} \right) - H_{m,CH_4} \left(T_{in} \right) \right] + \\ x_{N_2} \left[H_{m,N_2} \left(T_{bed} \right) - H_{m,N_2} \left(T_{in} \right) \right] \right\}. \end{split}$$
(3.7)

3.4 Carbon flow rate

In Section 3.2 we calculated the energy required to maintain the process. In the circulating fluidized bed application, this energy would be supported by the hot carbon particles that are heated in a separate reactor, and which is a design problem of itself. Carbon can be heated by several methods (burning NG, hydrogen or carbon even). Now we have

energy required = energy supported = carbon flow rate × heat capacity of carbon

$$\dot{Q} = \dot{n}_C C_{pm,C} \left(T_{C,in} - T_{bed} \right) \tag{3.8}$$

$$\dot{n}_{C} = \frac{\dot{Q}}{C_{pm,C} \left(T_{C,in} - T_{bed} \right)}$$
(3.9)

$$\dot{m}_C = \dot{n}_C M_C \tag{3.10}$$

Naturally, $T_{C,in}$ has to be higher than the bed temperature in order to maintain the process heat.

One suggested application is that sand would be used as fluidizing bed material. It would have the sufficient mass/volume ratio to provide the required heat in reasonable mass flow. Fine carbon is very light, thus large volume flows would be needed. In addition, fluidizing conditions are harder to control with dust-like materials.

4 **KINETICS CONSTRAINT**

4.1 Introducing the kinetic parameters

4.1.1 Activation energy

Activation energy describes the amount of energy required to initiate the chemical reactions. Therefore, activation energy determines the lower bound of the temperature at which the chemical reactions can start. Catalyst is often used to lower this barrier and initiate the desired reaction with lower energy (~temperature). Figure 4.1 illustrates the activation energy boundary both with and without the catalyst.



Figure 4.1. The effect of activation energy on reaction [1].

Due to a very strong C-H bond, 440 kJ/mol, methane is one of the most stable organic molecules: thermal dissociation of methane in reasonable amounts would require temperatures in excess of 1000 °C.

4.1.2 Frequency factor

Frequency factor describes the upper bound for the reaction rate. It is also often called a pre-exponential factor, and sometimes steric factor. It represents a theoretical situation where all the collisions between the molecules initiate a chemical reaction. The exponential part of the Arrhenius equation (see Section 4.2) describes the number of the collisions that have enough energy to do so.

4.2 In general

based

weight

surface

volume

volume

based on catalyst

based on catalyst

based on catalyst

based on total reactor volume

based on bed

Generally chemical reaction is of form

$$S \leftrightarrow product.$$
 (4.1)

The rate equation or rate law is a mathematical expression used in chemical kinetics to link the rate of a reaction to the concentration of each reactant. It is of the kind

$$-r_{s} = k(T)[s]^{n}, \tag{4.2}$$

where the exponent n is called the reaction order and it depends on the reaction mechanism. In this equation k(T) is the reaction rate coefficient or rate constant, although it is not really a constant, because it includes all the parameters that affect reaction rate, except for concentration, which is explicitly taken into account. Of all the parameters described before, temperature is normally the most important one. Temperature dependency is often given by the Arrhenius equation:

$$k = A \exp\left(-\frac{E_a}{R_u T}\right),\tag{4.3}$$

where A is the pre-exponential factor or frequency factor, and is also denoted by k_0 in literature. E_a is the activation energy (the energy that must be overcome in order for a chemical reaction to occur), and it is given in units kJ/mol.

In catalytic systems the rate of reaction can be expressed in one of many equivalent ways[1], for example

based on the
volume of voids
$$-r_s = -\frac{1}{V} \cdot \frac{dn_s}{dt} = k(T)[s]^n$$
 $\left[\frac{mols reacted}{m^3 \ voids \ \cdot s}\right]$ (4.4)
in the reactor

$$-r_{s}' = -\frac{\mathbf{1}}{W} \cdot \frac{dn_{s}}{dt} = k' (T) [s]^{n} \qquad \left[\frac{mols \ reacted}{kg \ cat \cdot s}\right] \qquad (4.5)$$

 $\left[\frac{mols\ reacted}{m^2\ cat.\ surf.\ \cdot s}\right]$ $-r_{s}^{\prime\prime} = -\frac{1}{S} \cdot \frac{dn_{s}}{dt} = k^{\prime\prime} (T) [S]^{n}$ (4.6)

 $-r_{S}^{\prime\prime\prime} = -\frac{1}{V_{cat}} \cdot \frac{dn_{S}}{dt} = k^{\prime\prime\prime} (T) [S]^{n} \qquad \left[\frac{mols \ reacted}{m^{3} \ solid \ \cdot s}\right]$ (4.7)

$$-r_{S}^{\prime\prime\prime\prime\prime} = -\frac{1}{V_{r}} \cdot \frac{dn_{S}}{dt} = k^{\prime\prime\prime\prime} (T) [S]^{n} \qquad \left[\frac{mols\ reacted}{m^{3}\ reactor\ \cdot\ s}\right]$$
(4.8)

 $-r_{S}^{*} = -\frac{1}{V_{hed}} \cdot \frac{dn_{S}}{dt} = k^{*} (T) [S]^{n}$ $\frac{[mols\ reacted]}{m^3\ hed\ \cdot\ s}$ (4.9)

For porous catalyst particles rates based on unit mass and on unit volume of particles, r_{s}' and r_{s}''' are the useful measures.

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Equations 4.2 and 4.3 are now combined, thus

$$-r_{S} = A \exp\left(-\frac{E_{a}}{R_{u}T}\right) [S]^{n}.$$
(4.10)

4.3 For TDM

The chemical reaction is

$$CH_4(g) \leftrightarrow C(s) + 2H_2(g).$$
 (4.11)

Thus Equation 4.2 becomes

$$-r_{CH_4} = k(T)[CH_4]^n.$$
(4.12)

As methane is in gaseous phase, by applying the ideal gas law, following mathematical trick can be done:

$$pV = nR_uT \tag{4.13}$$

$$[CH_4] = C = \frac{n}{V} = \frac{p}{R_u T}.$$
(4.14)

Substituting this relation into Equation 4.12 it becomes

$$-r_{CH_4} = k(T) \left(\frac{p_{CH_4}}{R_u T}\right)^n \tag{4.15}$$

$$-r_{CH_4} = \frac{k(T)}{(R_u T)^n} p_{CH_4}^n$$
(4.16)

Thus the rate constant is merely scaled with constant values of R_u , T and the reaction order n. Rewriting Equation 4.16 gives

$$-r_{CH_4} = k p_{CH_4}{}^n, (4.17)$$

where $k = \frac{k(T)}{(R_u T)^n}$. It will have the corresponding unit according to the equation above. It is more practical to use partial pressures as it involves less calculation.

4.4 Decomposition rate

Starting from a reactor performance equation (e.g. [1]), rate can be presented as follows:

$$-r_{s,out}' = \frac{\dot{n}_{s,in} \cdot \chi_s}{m_{cat}}.$$
(4.18)

Values for the methane decomposition rate (r) are calculated using the following formula (e.g. [2]):

$$-r_{CH_4} = \dot{n}_{CH_4} \cdot \frac{\chi_{CH_4}}{m_{cat}}, \tag{4.19}$$

where \dot{n}_{CH_4} is the molar flow rate of methane in units *mmol/min*, χ_{CH_4} is the measured methane conversion percentage and m_{cat} is the weight of the catalyst. Thus *r* has units of *mmol/g_{cat} min⁻¹*.

For easier calculation, Equation 4.19 can be modified as follows with the ideal gas law:

$$-r_{CH_4} = \mathbf{10}^{-3} \cdot \frac{p_{CH_4, inlet} \dot{V}_{CH_4}}{R_u T} \cdot \frac{\chi_{CH_4}}{m_{cat}}, \tag{4.20}$$

where p is methane partial pressure at the inlet, R_u the universal gas constant and T the operating temperature. It is to be discussed whether the temperature should actually be the operating temperature or the standard (STP) temperature.

Initial decomposition rate r_i (sometimes r_0) can be calculated by curve fitting (see Appendix C) from the decomposition curve, and it is used to determine the frequency factor.

4.5 Literature values obtained from previous experiments

Literature values for reaction kinetics estimation are collected from the literature in the Table 4.1. The values obtained by different researchers are fairly coherent thus acting as a rather reliable source material.

Year	Catalyst	Reaction order,	Activation energy,	Reference
		n	E _a [kJ/mol]	
2004	AC	0.5	186-198	Kim et al. [2]
2005	AC, CB	0.6; 0.5	160-201; 200-230	Muradov et al. [4]
2005	AC	0.5	117-185	Bai et al. [5]
2008	AC, CB	~0.5	141; 238	Suelves et al. [3]
2009	AC	0.4-0.6	210	Abbas et al. [6]
2010	AC	2	163	Abbas et al. [7]

Table 4.1. Values for reaction kinetics, obtained from various research papers.

5 DETERMINING BED PROPERTIES

bed volume = volumetric flow of methane **x** residence time

$$V_{bed} = \dot{V}_{feed} \cdot \tau \tag{5.1}$$

Bed mass can be determined as follows:

$$m_{bed} = \rho_c (\mathbf{1} - \varepsilon) \cdot V_{bed} \tag{5.2}$$

5.1 Residence time for the carbon particles

Residence time for the carbon particles is denoted by τ_c . It is calculated as follows:

$$\tau_C = \frac{m_{bed}}{\dot{m}_C} \tag{5.3}$$

5.2 Space velocity

In chemical reactor design, space velocity indicates the relation between volumetric flow and reactor volume. When a catalyst is present, the corresponding catalyst volume is often used. The notation for the space velocity is SV and it is related to the residence time in a chemical reactor, τ , by the relationship

$$SV = \frac{\text{volumetric flow}}{\text{reactor volume}} = \frac{1}{\tau}.$$
(5.4)

The space velocity indicates how many reactor volumes of feed can be treated in a unit time. Usually the reference time is one hour, and the values presented hereafter refer to the volume hourly space velocity (VHSV). Furthermore, if we consider the reactor dimensions to be unchanged and the catalyst density to be constant, we can deduce that the catalyst mass increase is linearly proportional to the catalyst volume:

$$VHSV = \frac{\text{volume of gas feed/hour}}{\text{volume of catalyst}} = \frac{1}{\tau}.$$
(5.5)

Abbas and Daud concluded after their measurements in [17], that the initial methane decomposition rate was enhanced by the increase of the VHSV. In order to

increase the VHSV, either the gas feed rate is increased or the catalyst volume (mass) is decreased. This is obvious from Equation 5.5, and is also consistent with the results published in the literature. The rate of decomposition seemed to be more sensitive to the change in the gas feed rate than to the mass change, but only at a relatively large VHSV. It can be presumed that with different catalyst materials we might end up with different absolute values, but the trends would remain the same.

Some research papers apply space velocity in terms of the mass of the catalyst. The author would like to discuss the use of the weight-based space velocity. Especially when dealing with porous media, like the catalysts used here, it is convenient to use the mass instead of volume, as determining the density of a porous material is not very straightforward. However, the catalyst bed volume seems to affect strongly the methane decomposition reaction. Mass-based space velocity does not give the information about the bed to a reader. For example, sand used in our experiments was many times denser than the carbon black. Samples with the same weight would have the same space velocities in terms of the mass, but drastically different bed heights leading to different residence times. Thus, in the future, the characterization of the carbon catalyst should also include the density measurements, and the use of volume-based space velocity is recommended.

6 EXPERIMENTS ON CATALYSTS

6.1 Materials

Methane (99.995%) and nitrogen from Linde Group were used without further purification.

The quartz tubes, (I.D 26mm) was supplied by Quartz Inc. (the U.S). The stainless steel reactor vessel was constructed of AISI 309 (X15CrNiS 20/12).

Commercial carbon black, BP2000 was supplied by Cabot Corporation (the U.S.). The bulk volume of CB was sieved to desired fractions. The biomass-based activated carbon was made in our laboratory, and the process is described in Section 6.3.

6.2 Experimental set-up

The experimental apparatus used is based on the designs found in the research reports, and also on the experiences with the first version during the FP I. A new reactor was built, and different oven type was used to support the heat. The reactor lid was at the cold end, thus maintaining its tightness. A quartz cylinder, with kaowool grates, was used to contain the catalyst sample, both to avoid the stainless steel from affecting the reactor and making it possible to weigh the sample before and after the run. The cylinder was tightened into the outer vessel by wrapping a ceramic band around it and lowering it into the holder at the bottom of the stainless steel reactor.



#	Component
1.	Bronkhorst mass flow
	controllers
2.	K-type thermoelements
3.	Heated reactor length, 590 mm
4.	quartz cylinder
5.	sealed lid
6.	diluting gas for FTIR
7.	sample for FTIR

Figure 6.1. Schematic diagram of the decomposition reactor.

The run length was set to approximately 150 minutes, with 100% methane in every run. The gas samples were continuously analyzed by a Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) gas analyzer. The analyzer is unable to directly measure diatomic gases – hydrogen, for example - thus the amount of hydrogen formed has to be calculated from the difference between the methane in the inlet and outlet flows.

6.3 Char production

Locally available and cheap, domestic birch (*Betula sp.*) was selected to be the raw material for the char production. The fire wood sized wood was chipped to thin sticks and heated in the oven at 500 °C for 1.5 hours in an inert atmosphere. There was a clear pulse of volatile compounds rapidly releasing from the wood at approximately 450 °C, for 10-15 minutes. after the run, the charred sample was weighed yield being approximately 20% of the original weight.

The charred wood was crushed and sieved to desired sizes. During the first runs the char still seemed to release some volatile compounds. Thus the crushed and sieved samples were further heated up to 825 °C for approximately an hour to completely remove the unwanted components. The weight loss was between 5-10% compared to the wood pyrolyzed at 500 °C. This leads the author to think the actual operating window temperaturewise is quite narrow when dealing with birch. Relatively high temperatures are required to remove all the volatiles, but only little higher temperatures already cause the ash component to go through a deformation indicating there would not be too much alternatives in the design parameters.

7 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Different catalyst materials tested in 2012 were quartz sand, pure quartz, biomass-based active carbon and commercial carbon black. Of the aforementioned, active carbon and carbon black went through more thorough tests.

Sand was taken into account, because one potential TDM-process could apply sand as a heat transfer material. In a bubbling or circulating fluidized bed, sand is the common material because of its adequate heat capacity and fluidization properties. In addition, some research conducted with metal-based catalysts in TDM applied quartz as a support material for the metal particles has yielded positive results.

To determine whether sand or pure quartz (Nilsiä) have either positive or negative effect on the reaction, we carried out runs varying the reaction temperature, catalyst mass and particle size. After only few runs it became evident that in our conditions, neither material had any kind of effect to the decomposition reaction. As a side note, in the reaction temperature 925 °C the Nilsiä quartz bed show symptoms of sintering thus making it even less feasible.

Before the actual runs, catalyst was treated with a constant flow of nitrogen for approximately two hours to remove the possible remaining moisture and surface pertained oxygen. It is to be noted, that according to literature, the oxygen adsorbed in the pores is very difficult to remove by mere flushing.

During the runs, only trace amounts of other compounds were detected.

7.1 Runs with biomass based char

The goal of the experiments was to determine the catalytic potential of a cheap, domestic biomass based char towards TDM. Runs conducted in temperatures under 900 °C showed modest catalytic activity (initial conversion percentage ~10%) but in 15-30 minutes rapidly declined to practically zero. To achieve higher conversions, reaction temperature was raised to 925 °C. Oddly, conversion was lower (~3%) than in the runs in lower temperatures. Due to the constant value it could solely be attributed to the homogenous decomposition taking place in elevated temperatures.

As the run was over and the measuring cylinder removed from the reactor, we observed the bed had gone through a deformation. The catalyst particles had taken a shape of a cylinder, i.e. 'glued' to each other. Only when the bed was poured out of the vessel, particles separated. This could indicate, that the ash component cannot withstand temperatures above 900 °C without a change in its structure, i.e. at least partial melting. This indication was strengthened, when we had the particle surface areas measured. The original surface area before the runs was 352 m²/g, whereas after the run it was only 1,1

 m^2/g . The pores in the particles seem to go through a heavy deformation thus blocking the favorable and active sites for the gas molecules to enter. Based on our observations, with the current production method, the biomass based active carbon is not suitable towards thermocatalytic decomposition of methane. Different chemical treatments to remove or alter the ash component might offer a solution.

7.2 Runs with the commercial carbon black

Again, high surface area carbon black BP 2000 was selected to be the catalyst for our tests. Although the actual particle size is in nanometer scale, the particles have agglomerated, forming larger carbon spheres. Particles were mechanically sieved to desired fractions. All the particle sizes used were in between 100-600 μ m. To our best understanding, the effect of the particle size is weak, at least in this relatively narrow range. Kim and Abbas have also obtained similar results. Diffusional limitation studies have been done by Abbas and Daud [7], and they have concluded that a mass transfer effect exists.

If the application used will be a fluidized bed reactor, it means that there is also a lower boundary for the particle size due to fluidization requirements (See more, Geldart; Kunii & Levenspiel).

7.2.1 Effect of temperature

As the temperature is a critical parameter in the decomposition reaction, its effect was evaluated with two different sets of runs, when the other process parameters remained the same. The parameters used in the first set of runs are listed in Table 7.1. All the volumetric values presented in the text are given in STP conditions.

pressure	р	1	atm (amb.)
methane flow rate	₿ U _{CH4}	0.050	l/min
methane mole fraction	x _{CH4}	100	%
catalyst mass	m _{cat}	5	g
space velocity		144	1/h

Table 7.1. Parameters used in runs to determine the effect of temperature (set 1).

In the first set, four different temperatures were used. Figure 7.1illustrates the runs in terms of the % of methane converted.



Figure 7.1 The effect of temperature on the % of methane converted (set 1: 50 $ml_{CH4}/min; 5g$).

Due to the method the runs were conducted, the stabilization time was 5-15 minutes. The initial steep part of the graph had to be fitted based on the actual measured and calculated values. The same method was used, and similar behaviour can be observed in all the runs. The gap between the runs conducted in 900 and 925 °C seems to be somewhat larger than in between the others. Partial reason can be that homogenous decomposition, i.e. methane cracking only due to the high temperature, starts to contribute.

The accumulation of carbon in the runs was also measured. The Figure 7.2 illustrates the runs in terms of the amount of carbon generated per the mass of catalyst.



Figure 7.2. The amount of generated carbon per the amount of catalyst as a function of the reaction temperature (set 1: 50 $ml_{CH4}/min; 5g$).

The amount of generated carbon seems to grow somewhat linearly. The generation of carbon would have continued until the reaction rate had dropped to negligible values. From available literature, for BP2000 it can take several hours to become completely deactivated. That is to say, the amount of generated carbon really is significant. In two hours, and with already relatively low conversions, it's between 20 and 30% of the original catalyst mass. Considering larger scale apparatus, this would most likely limit the use of a fixed bed reactor. Furthermore, if the extra bed material is meant to be extracted, it would also limit the use of a bubbling fluidized bed, leaving us with a circulating fluidized reactor, or with a completely new approach. The reason to consider some new approaches is that circulating fluidization would require high gas velocities. That in turn would mean higher space velocities, which is inversely correlated to the reaction conversion rate, as can be seen in Section7.2.2

The parameters used in the second set of runs are listed in Table 7.2. Now, the amount of catalyst is doubled, and temperatures 875, 900 and 925 °C are used. During the last two runs the FTIR exiting gas was also sampled, and measured in a gas gromatographic analyzer (GC) to directly measure the amount of hydrogen gas. The results confirmed our indirect calculations fairly well, and proved the superiority of the possibility to conduct continuous measurements of the gas concentrations over the sampling one.

pressure	р	1	atm (amb.)
methane flow rate	₿ CH4	0.050	l/min
methane mole fraction	X _{CH4}	100	%
catalyst mass	m _{cat}	10	g
VHSV		72	1/h

Table 7.2. Parameters used in runs to determine the effect of temperature (set 2).

Figure 7.3 illustrates the second set of runs in terms of the % of methane converted.



Figure 7.3. The effect of temperature on the % of methane converted (set 2: 50 $ml_{CH4}/min; 10g$).

It is to be noticed, that the conversion is remarkably higher than with the lower amount of catalyst. Also, the 'tail' that can be described as a quasi-steady state of conversion is more horizontal than in the runs described previously. As the high values of conversion are reached only during the first minutes of the run, the area of interest should maybe more guided towards the relatively steady phase, where the yields of hydrogen and carbon can more precisely be estimated.

The conversion graph for 925 °C is fitted based on the hydrogen values, and is actually slightly lower than the 900 °C graph. This can be attributed to the different method of making the conversion calculations. As there was problems with the catalyst bed in the last run, carbon accumulation values are available only for the first two runs, and presented in the Table 7.3.

Table 7.3. The amount of generated carbon per the amount of catalyst as a function of the reaction temperature (set 2: 50 ml_{CH4}/min ; 10g).

temperature	amount of generated carbon per mass of catalyst
°C	g/g _{cat}
875	0,141
900	0,184

The values seem to be lower than in the runs conducted with 5 grams of catalyst (see Figure 7.2). This leads the author to think that increasing the bed volume also has some unaccounted effect on the reaction, outside of decreasing the space velocity. Similar pattern can be found in the runs, where the space velocity was held constant, but the amount of catalyst and the gas flow were varied (see Section 7.2.2).

7.2.2 Effect of the space velocity

After the runs conducted during the FP I, it became evident, that the lower the space velocity, the higher the methane conversion percentage is. It was deduced, that the reactions taking place in the catalyst bed are not immediate, and the residence time of methane has to be rather seconds than fractions of it. During the runs, the advantages of presenting the space velocity in terms of volume became clear. This was discussed in Section 5.2. The parameters used in the set 3 runs are listed in Table 7.4:

ſ	temperature	т	900	°C		
ł	temperature	•	000	Ŭ		
	pressure	р	1	atm (amb.)		
	methane flow rate	₿ CH4	0.050	l/min		
	methane mole fraction	X _{CH4}	100	%		
		run 1		run 2	run 3	
	catalyst mass	5	g	7.5	g 10	g
	VHSV	144	1/h	96	1/h 72	1/h

 Table 7.4. Parameters used in runs to determine the effect of space velocity (set 3)





Figure 7.4. The effect of space velocity on the % of methane converted (set 3: 50 $ml_{CH4}/min; 5g, 7.5g, 10g; 900 °C$).

As can be seen from the Figure 7.4, the space velocity has a drastic effect on the conversion. Also the steepness of the initial curve, and the quasi-steady state are affected. Notable here is that with the gas flow rate used, we operated in a fixed bed mode. The space velocities used here are most likely out of question in a large scale application.

To see how the conversion rate would behave, when the space velocity was held constant but the amount of catalyst and the flow rate of methane were changed, few test runs were conducted. The parameters used in the set 4 runs are listed in Table 7.5:

				-		
temperature	Т	900	°C			
pressure	р	1	atm (amb.)			
methane mole fraction	x _{CH4}	100	%			
VHSV		144	1/h			
				_		
	run 1		run 2		run 3	
catalyst mass	5	g	10	g	15	g
methane flow rate	50 ml/min		100	ml/min	150	ml/min

Table 7.5. Parameters used in runs to determine the effect of space velocity (set 4)

Figure 7.5 illustrates the runs in terms of the % of methane converted.



Figure 7.5. The effect of space velocity on the % of methane converted (set 4: 144 1/h; 900 °C).

Initial differences are larger, than one would assume, but as the runs continue, the graphs approach each other. The notions here are, that the lowest yield obtained with the highest methane flow rate could partially be due to the possible change in the bed state. With the mentioned flow rate, the minimum fluidization velocity might have been reached. The bubbles formed can block the gas of entering the catalyst pores thus lowering the conversion.

Here we were able to determine the mass change of the catalyst. The Figure 7.6 illustrates the runs in terms of the amount of carbon generated per the mass of catalyst.



Figure 7.6. The amount of generated carbon per the amount of catalyst as a function of the reaction temperature (set 4: 144 1/h; 900 °C).

As mentioned earlier, in our experiments it seemed that the larger the volume of the catalyst bed, the less generated carbon per mass unit. This behaviour might be due to some diffusional resistance in a larger catalyst bed.

7.2.3 Decomposition rates

Decomposition rates for the methane decomposition reaction were calculated with the method described in Section 4.4. As can be seen from the Figure 7.7, rather modest reaction rate values were obtained. In the literature, as high as unity has been reported for the initial decomposition rate value. It is to be noted, however, that the high initial values have been present with the use of metal catalysts. Metal catalysts in general offer a rapid initial decomposition rate with quick decline, whereas carbon based catalysts show more steady behaviour.



Figure 7.7. Methane decomposition rate as a function of a) temperature (set 1) and b) space velocity (set 3).

7.2.4 Nature of the carbon generated

Prior to the runs, the assumption was that the carbon formed by methane decomposition would accumulate on the surface of the catalyst particles. That is also where the most reactions occurred. A strong indication of this was, when we had the the surface areas measured for one catalyst both before and after a run. The Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) surface area measurement confirmed that the carbon black catalyst had lost almost 80% of its initial surface area. The details are shown in Table 7.6.

temperature	Т	925	°C
pressure	р	1	atm (amb.)
run time	t	150	min
BET-surface areas			
initial	1483	m²/g	
final	333.4	m²/g	
change	77.5%		

 Table 7.6. Results of BET-surface area measurements

In the BET-measurement results, there was a clear spike at 0.5-0.7 nm pores in the fresh catalyst. This spike had reduced 79% after the run, indicating this might be the desirable pore size for the decomposition reaction to occur. It should be noted, however, not to draw too strong conclusions based on a single result. Further ones should be obtained before confirming this.

During the runs, we observed also flaky opaque structure forming on the inner surface of the quartz tube. Further analysis showed the layer is pure carbon, but unfortunately we were not able to determine the crystallic structure due to a measuring equipment breakdown. Based on the previous research in the area, the structure is likely graphitic. Magnified pictures of the structure can be found in the Appendix D.



Figure 7.8. Material sample obtained form the quartz tube surface after a run.

Also, during one of the runs, we observed clear carbon filamentous structures that had grown on the outer surface of the quartz tube. This was a one-time phenomenon only, thus the suitable conditions for the growth remain undetermined.

As a conclusion we can make a hypothesis, that by altering the reaction conditions we are able to change the nature of the generated carbon. This might offer us a marketable byproduct contributing to the overall process economy. Similar observations have been made by other authors as well.

7.3 Short summary of the funding period I results

During FP I, a literature and patent review was made. Based on the reviews, a short set of experimental runs was conducted. The results of these measurements are briefly summarized here. Also, as the understanding of the topic grew, novel ideas for the future focus areas were proposed. The proceedings of the first year are crystallized in a Master's Thesis 'Thermocatalytic Decomposition of Methane' by the undersigned author. As usual, when the knowledge deepens, it is easier to notice what could have been done better. We've tried to take the lessons from the past into account for this year's measurements.

By comparing the results herein, and the ones obtained during FP I leads the author to think that the diluting nitrogen gas has a different effect on the space velocity than previously thought. Otherwise, there is no proper explanation to how the high conversions could be obtained with such high space velocities. Thus, the conversions obtained during the first funding period are results of lower space velocities than mentioned in the publication. Also the unaccounted effect of a larger bed volume, as discussed earlier, might have contributed. The gap present in the figures was found to origin from an issue with the analysis software and it has been fixed. The previous results are summarized in the following figures:



Figure 7.9. The effect of temperature on the % of methane converted (FP I: 206 $ml_{CH4}/min; 50g$).



Figure 7.10. The effect of space velocity on the % of methane converted (FP I: 206 $ml_{CH4}/min; 30g, 40g, 50g; 900 °C$).

By comparing the results obtained during FP I and FP II, we notice the similarity in the patterns. This can be taken as a confirmation of the reaction taking place rather predictably, and also of the significance of certain process parameters.

7.4 Future suggestions

Based on the tests and experiences during the project, we have come up with some new suggestions for the future research.

The temperatures and space velocity values required to reach even moderate reaction conversions were found. However, in a large-scale use they might cause not only designing problems, but also be economically challenging.

As can be found in the literature, metal catalysts used to enhance the decomposition reaction have given good results. With metals, the operating conditions are often more trivial thus lowering the costs. Issues in their use were discussed in the Master's Thesis 'Thermocatalytic decomposition of methane'. Our idea is that a commercially available metal catalyst combined with our current decomposition method could already offer a simple solution in the beginning phase, when trying to tackle CO_2 -emissions in natural gas combustion. The two figures are meant to illustrate how close we are the equilibrium state of the methane decomposition reaction.



Figure 7.11. Comparison of equilibrium and measured values with a) carbon catalysts (set 1), b) metal catalysts (printed without permission from [9])

It can be seen from the figures that with carbon-based catalyst, the equilibrium concentration differs significantly from the measured values. By optimizing the process conditions, it could be possible to approach the theoretical graph, but only to some extent. Figure 7.11b is a result of Muradov's research [9], and shows the results they obtained through the measurements with Nickel- and Iron-based catalysts. It shows, that at seemingly lower temperatures, conversations only limited by the equilibrium were

achieved. Thus the author suggests taking selected metal-based catalysts into consideration in the future research.

Catalyst regeneration, for both metallic and carbon-based ones, could be a future area to examine. If the metals are taken into research, comparison between the regeneration behaviour between the different types could be made, and also in general.

For some future applications, it would be in the interest to research the combination of higher temperatures (in excess of 1000 °C) and carbon-based catalyst.

8 CONCLUSIONS

During the Cleen CCSP-program funding period II, the methane decomposition reaction to produce hydrogen and solid carbon was evaluated. As the reaction is favored by the presence of a catalyst, different catalysts were tested to gain more information of the catalyst requirements.

One potential heat carrier material, quartz sand was found to have no effect on the reaction. The domestic biomass based activated carbon showed little activity in the lower temperatures, but quickly deactivated. In the elevated temperature the carbon lost its surface area completely possibly due to the ash component melting. Tests with the commercial carbon black, BP2000 were continued and compared to the ones conducted during the FP I. With the commercial carbon black, conversion percentages around 50 % are achievable.

Essential parameters, supported both by the theory and experiments, are the reaction temperature, space velocity and catalyst surface properties.

With difficulties obtaining high conversion at moderate temperatures, the use of metal catalysts in the thermocatalytic decomposition of methane could be evaluated in the future. Novel approach could be a LUVO-type heat exchanger where the decomposition would take place.

We learned that it is difficult to design an experimental apparatus that has a large range of variables so that the reaction conditions would still be the same. It would be in the author's interest to see the results of an experiment one magnitude larger in terms of catalyst amount and gas flow rate.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A – Tabulated values for equilibrium constant of methane
decomposition reaction

Equilibriu	Equilibrium constant towards methane decomposition reaction. Ig (Kn decomp.)									
T [K]	T [°C]	NIST-JANAF	P&P							
100	-173	-33.615	-							
200	-73	-15.19	-							
250	-23	-11.395	-							
298.15	25	-8.894	-8.892							
300	26	-8.813	-8.811							
350	76	-6.932	-6.956							
400	126	-5.492	-5.489							
450	176	-4.35	-4.335							
500	226	-3.42	-3.418							
550	276		-2.600							
600	326	-1.993	-1.989							
650	376		-1.426							
700	426	-0.943	-0.940							
750	476		-0.511							
800	526	-0.138	-0.134							
850	576		0.203							
900	626	0.500	0.504							
950	676		0.776							
1000	726	1.018	1.022							
1050	776		1.246							
1100	826	1.447	1.451							
1150	876		1.639							
1200	926	1.807	1.812							
1250	976		1.972							
1300	1026	2.115	2.119							
1350	1076		2.256							
1400	1126	2.379	2.383							
1450	1176		2.502							
1500	1226	2.609	2.613							
1550	1276		2.717							
1600	1326	2.81	2.815							
1650	1376		2.907							
1700	1426	2.989	2.993							
1750	1476		3.074							
1800	1526	3.147	3.151							
1850	1576		3.224							
1900	1626	3.289	3.293							
1950	1676		3.358							
2000	1726	3.416	3.420							

APPENDIX B – Homogenous methane decomposition: Conversion percentage as functions of temperature and pressure



Formation enthalpy, ΔH _f [kJ/mol]										
CH₄(g)										
Т[К]	T[°C]	Muradov	NIST-JANAF	Barin, I.	AsTher					
298.15	25	75.6	74.873	74.873	74.872					
300	27		74.929	74.93	74.931					
350	77		76.461		76.484					
400	127		77.969	77.986	77.969					
450	177		79.422		79.383					
500	227		80.802	80.824	80.726					
550	277				81.995					
600	327		83.308	83.331	83.19					
650	377				84.312					
700	427		85.452	85.48	85.36					
750	477				86.333					
800	527		87.238	87.27	87.232					
850	577				88.058					
900	627		88.692	88.722	88.81					
950	677				89.488					
1000	727		89.849	89.876	90.092					
1050	777				90.623					
1100	827		90.75	90.773	91.081					
1123	850	89.75			91.281					
1150	877				91.497					
1173	900	89.989			91.67					
1200	927		91.437	91.454	91.855					
1250	977				92.157					
1300	1027		91.945	91.954	92.407					
1350	1077				92.608					
1400	1127		92.308	92.304	92.765					
1450	1177				92.882					
1500	1227		92.553	92.531	92.962					

APPENDIX C - Tabulated values for enthalpies and specific heat capacities for selected substances

Fit based on AsTher values:

 $\Delta H_f(T) = AT^5 + BT^4 + CT^3 + DT^2 + ET + F$

Valid temperature range 298-1500 K

coefficients:

A -4.1638E-016 B 4.4247E-012 C -1.0196E-008 D -5.3339E-006 E 0.037074 F 64.532

Specific heat capacity, c _p [J/molK]								
C(s)								
T[K]	T[°C]	Muradov	NIST-JANAF ¹	Barin ¹	AsTher ¹	fit 1 ^{1,2}	fit 2 ^{2,3}	
298.15	25		8.517	8.512	8.531	15.599	20.606	
300	27		8.581	8.594	8.604	15.607	20.607	
350	77		10.241		10.417	15.826	20.620	
400	127		11.817	11.927	11.991	16.044	20.633	
450	177		13.289		13.391	16.262	20.646	
500	227		14.623	14.633	14.649	16.481	20.659	
550	277				15.784	16.700	20.672	
600	327		16.844	16.884	16.809	16.918	20.685	
650	377				17.729	17.137	20.698	
700	427		18.537	18.59	18.55	17.355	20.711	
750	477				19.275	17.573	20.724	
800	527		19.827	19.827	19.906	17.792	20.737	
850	577				20.445	18.011	20.750	
900	627		20.824	20.792	20.893	18.229	20.763	
950	677				21.25	18.448	20.776	
1000	727		21.610	21.566	21.518	18.666	20.789	
1050	777				21.697	18.885	20.802	
1100	827		22.244	22.192	21.786	19.103	20.815	
1123	850	22.5				19.204	20.821	
1150	877				22.544	19.322	20.828	
1173	900					19.423	20.834	
1200	927		22.766	22.702	22.76	19.540	20.841	
1250	977				22.954	19.759	20.854	
1300	1027		23.204	23.117	23.129	19.977	20.867	
1350	1077				23.287	20.196	20.880	
1400	1127		23.578	23.453	23.430	20.414	20.893	
1450	1177				23.561	20.633	20.906	
1500	1227		23.904	23.725	23.682	20.851	20.919	

1 graphitic carbon

2 Flagan, R.; Seinfeld J. 1988. Fundamentals of Air Pollution Engineering. Prentice hall, USA

3 monatomic carbon

Fit based on AsTher values:

$$c_p(T) = AT^5 + BT^4 + CT^3 + DT^2 + ET + F$$

Valid temperature range 298-1500 K

coefficients:

A -1.2186E-014

B 4.9955E-011

C -6.4932E-008

D 1.0183E-005

E 0.042022

F -3.5096

Specific heat capacity, c _p [J/molK]									
CH₄(g)									
т [К]	T [°C]	Muradov	NIST-JANAF	Barin	AsTher	fit ¹			
298.15	25		35.639	35.645	35.044	51.031			
300	27		35.708	35.707	35.148	51.073			
350	77		37.874		38.013	52.210			
400	127		40.500	40.489	40.933	53.346			
450	177		43.374		43.847	54.483			
500	227		46.342	46.349	46.721	55.619			
550	277				49.538	56.756			
600	327		52.227	52.232	52.287	57.892			
650	377				54.960	59.029			
700	427		57.794	57.798	57.553	60.165			
750	477				60.063	61.302			
800	527		62.932	62.929	62.488	62.438			
850	577				64.825	63.575			
900	627		67.601	67.591	67.075	64.711			
950	677	70			69.236	65.848			
1000	727		71.795	71.782	71.308	66.984			
1050	777				73.290	68.121			
1100	827		75.529	75.523	75.181	69.257			
1123	850					69.784			
1150	877				76.982	70.394			
1173	900					70.920			
1200	927		78.833	78.839	78.692	71.530			
1250	977				80.311	72.667			
1300	1027		81.744	81.764	81.838	73.803			
1350	1077				83.275	74.940			
1400	1127		84.305	84.333	84.620	76.076			
1450	1177				85.873	77.213			
1500	1227		86.556	86.583	87.035	78.349			

Flagan,R.; Seinfeld J. 1988. Fundamentals of Air Pollution Engineering. Prentice hall, 1 USA

Fit based on AsTher values:

$$c_p(T) = AT^5 + BT^4 + CT^3 + DT^2 + ET + F$$

Valid temperature range 298-1500 K

coefficients:

A -6.8926E-015
B 3.5425E-011
C -7.1484E-008
D 5.2816E-005
E 0.042003

F 19.442

Sensible enthalpies ¹ , H _{mt} [kJ/mol]							
$(T_{ref} = 25^{\circ}C)$							
T [K]	T [°C]	CH₄	H ₂	N ₂			
298.15	25	0.000	0.000	0.000			
300	27	0.066	0.053	0.054			
350	77	1.906	1.500	1.511			
400	127	3.858	2.960	2.971			
450	177	5.956	4.419	4.437			
500	227	8.197	5.883	5.911			
550	277	10.59	7.346	7.396			
600	327	13.128	8.812	8.894			
650	377	15.811	10.277	10.408			
700	427	18.633	11.749	11.937			
750	477	21.589	13.223	13.483			
800	527	24.673	14.702	15.046			
850	577	27.88	16.186	16.626			
900	627	31.203	17.676	18.222			
950	677	34.637	19.174	19.835			
1000	727	38.175	20.679	21.463			
1050	777	41.813	22.193	23.105			
1100	827	45.544	23.717	24.760			
1150	877	49.363	25.251	26.428			
1200	927	53.266	26.796	28.109			
1250	977	57.246	28.352	29.801			
1300	1027	61.299	29.916	31.503			
1350	1077	65.421	31.493	33.215			
1400	1127	69.607	33.081	34.936			
1450	1177	73.853	34.680	36.666			
1500	1227	78.155	36.288	38.405			

1 Raiko, R et al. 2002. Poltto ja palaminen. IFRF, Suomi

Fit based on tabulated values:	coefficients:	CH ₄	H ₂	N ₂
H (T) - $AT^{5} + DT^{4} + CT^{3} + DT^{2} +$	ET + E A	3.6100E-15	-8.7727E-16	2.4909E-15
$H_{mt}(I) = AI + BI + CI + DI +$	EI T B	-1.2785E-11	3.8542E-12	-1.2304E-11
	С	2.4632E-08	-5.5542E-09	2.2659E-08
Valid temperature range 298-1500 K	D	1.3556E-05	4.0624E-06	-1.6369E-05
	E	2.1921E-02	2.7696E-02	3.4278E-02
	F	-8.2583	-8.5020	-9.2767



APPENDIX D – Photos of the material formed in the quartz tube