

## Heat and Reaction Characteristics of Multistage Alcoholic-Fuel Reformer (2<sup>nd</sup> Report: Velocity and Radical Chemiluminescence Measurements)

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**ABSTRACT** The present study discusses the heat and reaction characteristics of the multistage alcoholic-fuel reformer. Gas temperatures, exhaust gas components and radical chemiluminescence intensities were monitored in the reformer. In the single-stage case, temperature level inside the reactor and decomposition ratio of CH<sub>3</sub>OH,  $\alpha$ , were decreased with an increase in equivalence ratio,  $\phi$  ( $\geq 3.0$ ). In contrast, higher  $\phi$  resulted in lower OH-radical chemiluminescence intensity inside the reactor. In the double-stage case that a portion of the air was supplied to the secondary port, a slight increase in the H<sub>2</sub> concentration was observed, and an excessive increase of local temperature was avoided. These results show the double-stage air supply is effective to control the temperature distribution and avoid an undesired hot-spot in the reformer without causing a significant change in the components of the product gas.

**Keywords:** Compact fuel reformer, Hydrogen production, Multistage reactor, Temperature measurement, Chemiluminescence intensity measurement

### 1. INTRODUCTION

Hydrogen, which is called one of the most promising energy sources, can be used for highly efficient energy systems such as fuel cells and hydrogen engines. Although large-scale industrial process of hydrogen production has been established in chemical plants, time is required until the infrastructures of hydrogen distributions and storages are introduced into the society. Meanwhile, on-site hydrogen production is essential for future distributed power supplying systems. A multistage compact fuel reformer, which is composed of multiple ports for step-by-step supply of reactants, air, and water vapor, was applied to produce hydrogen from alcoholic fuels and examined in terms of heat and reaction characteristics. Reactants were supplied partially to the reformer from several ports in order to perform effective and quick control of local heat balance and temperature inside the reformer, which is believed to result in the enhancement of reforming effectiveness and the reduction of undesired exhausts such as soot or CO [1-5].

In this paper, results of a prototype multistage tube type reformer are reported. Methanol was used as fuel in the both previous and present experiments [5]. Alcoholic fuel is relatively easy to transport and store since it is chemically stable and is in liquid phase under normal temperature and pressure. It is, therefore, considered to be suitable for compact energy supply systems with an output of several kilo watts [6]. No catalyst was applied to the reformer in the studies. It is reported that the thermal condition of the reformer greatly affects the reforming performance in either case: with and without catalyst [7, 8]. Therefore, as the initial step of evaluating the multistage reformer, the experiment was conducted without inserting the catalyst to discern the degree of effects of multiplying the reaction stages from those of the catalyst characteristics.

Reforming gas temperatures, exhaust gas components, and radical chemiluminescence intensities were monitored in the reformer. OH-radical chemiluminescence is measured to

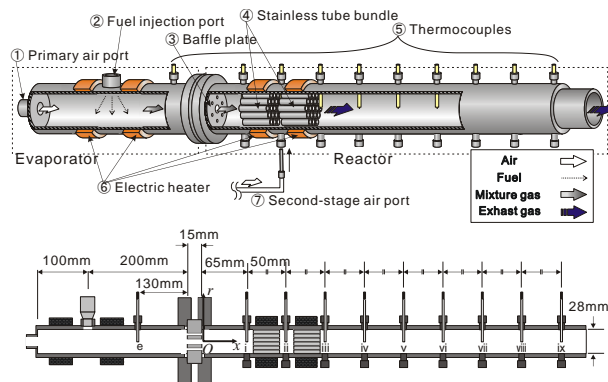
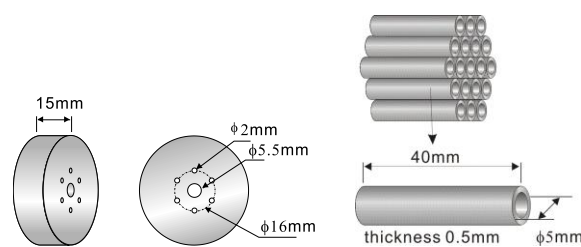


Fig. 1. Schematic view of the reformer (evaporator & reactor).



(a) Baffle plate (b) Tube bundle  
Fig. 2. Elements of the reformer.

evaluate the occurrence of the gas reaction. Flow characteristic inside the reactor was evaluated by LDV measurement inside the acrylic pipe of the same dimensions as the reformer. The effects of equivalence ratio and reactant flow rate on the reforming characteristics are discussed, mainly focusing on the partial oxidation reaction (POR).

### 2. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

Figure 1 illustrates the schematic and cross-sectional views of the reformer. As shown in the figure, the reformer

was composed of two parts, i.e., the evaporator and reactor.

The evaporator was made of a galvanized steel pipe with inner diameter and length of 28mm and 200mm, respectively. A fuel supply port was located at the side surface of the evaporator, on which an injector with electric valve was mounted. An electrical rectangular signal was sent from a function generator (Yokogawa; WE500, WE7281) to this injector to control the valve opening. Therefore, flow rate of the fuel jet was controlled by adjusting the frequency and duty ratio of the signal to a certain value. An air supply port was set at the upstream end of the evaporator. Air supplied to this port was provided from a compressor, and the flow rate was controlled by rotameter and valve (Kofloc; RK1250). In the upstream and downstream areas adjacent to the fuel supply port, electric band heaters (Sakaguchi E.H. Voc.; BH3430) were wrapped around the evaporator pipe. This heater, powered by a voltage slider (Yamabishi; V-130-3), raised the temperature of the evaporator wall up to specified °C. Thus, the fuel which is injected from the fuel supply port, impinged on the inner wall of the evaporator, and was vaporized there. The vaporized fuel mixing with the air flowing from the upstream air supply port, was then supplied to the reactor through a baffle plate.

As shown in Fig. 1, this baffle plate was located between the evaporator and reactor. Multiple holes were drilled in the 12mm-thick stainless disk. The configuration of the holes is shown in Fig. 2(a), i.e., a 5.5mm-hole was located at the center of the disk and six holes with 2mm diameter surrounded the center one. This multi-hole baffle plate was expected to enhance the mixing between the vaporized fuel and air, and to prevent backfire from the reactor to the evaporator.

The reactor was made of a stainless steel pipe 28mm in diameter and 500mm in length. In the areas of  $70 \leq x \leq 110$ mm and  $120 \leq x \leq 160$ mm, bundles of 19 stainless tubes (each tube inner diameter = 4mm, length = 40mm; see Fig. 2(b)) were inserted in the reactor. These tube bundles were expected to enhance the reaction efficiency and also maintain a stable reaction under high equivalence ratio by increasing the heat transfer at the tube walls. Band heaters (Watlow; MB01E1AB3005) were attached to the pipe sidewall at each location identical to where the tube bundles were inserted. These heaters were powered by a voltage slider in the same way as those in the evaporator, and the pipe wall was preheated before the experiment started.

Several loading ports were applied to the sidewalls of the evaporator and reactor at the locations shown in Fig. 1. Probes for temperature measurement made of K type thermocouples were inserted into the pipe through these ports. This probe was a two-hole ceramic tube (tube outer diameter = 3mm) having the weld spot of the thermocouple wires exposed at the tip. To protect the exposed parts of the thermocouples from the flame and reactive gas, and also to prevent any catalysis effects, the thermocouples were coated by silica-particles generated by burning the town gas into which Hexamethyldisiloxane was mixed. The signals from the thermocouples were recorded by a personal computer through a digital multi-thermometer (Keyence; NR-1000). The sampling rate and accuracy of the temperature measurement was 1s and  $\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ , respectively.

Additional air was also supplied through these ports to the reactor operated in the way of multistage reforming. The end of the air-feed tube was located at the central axis

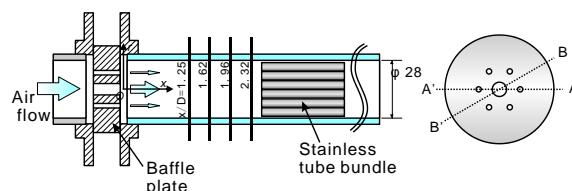


Fig. 3. Cross-sectional view of the LDV velocity measurement points.

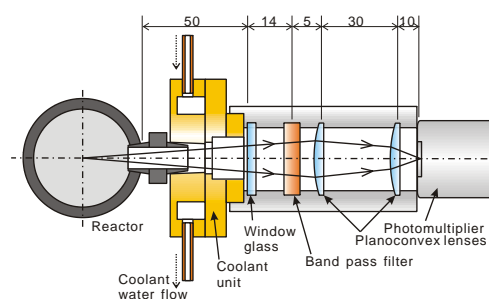


Fig. 4 Cross-sectional view of the optical measurement probe.

of the reactor, and two holes were drilled at the sidewall of the tube tip, from which the air was injected to the reactor in the radial direction.

Gas sampling for gas component analysis was conducted by inserting a gas sampling probe into one of the loading ports. The probe was made of stainless tube 3mm in diameter. The position of the tip end was set at the reactor centerline, and the gas was collected with this probe through a 0.3mm nozzle by connecting the tube to a vacuum-collecting chamber. The collected gas was then supplied to a gas chromatograph (Shimadzu; GC-8A) through a filtering chamber packed with silica gel, by which water and unburned methanol were removed from the gas. A component detector on the basis of TCD (Thermal Conductivity Detector) method was applied to the gas chromatography. The column (Shinwa chem.; Shincarbon ST) mounted in the chromatograph oven was calibrated for  $\text{H}_2$ ,  $\text{N}_2$ ,  $\text{O}_2$ ,  $\text{CO}$ , and  $\text{CO}_2$  gases. Ar gas was used as the carrier gas.

Measurements using LDV (Laser Doppler Velocimetry) were also conducted to evaluate the velocity field in the reactor. In this case, a test section different from that used in the aforementioned experiment accompanying reactions and temperature measurements was applied. An acrylic pipe of the same size as the reactor shown in Fig. 3 was made by which an optical measurement from the sidewall was available. This pipe was attached to the same evaporator and baffle plate shown in Fig. 2. The air with the flow rate equal to the total volume of the air and fuel supplied to the evaporator in the reaction experiment was provided to the upstream end of the evaporator. In the upstream of the evaporator, a particle generator (TSI; six-jet atomizer 9306) was attached and tracing particles of oil mist (DEHS: Di-Ethyl-Hexyl-Sebacate  $\text{C}_{26}\text{H}_{50}\text{O}_4$ , nominal diameter =  $1\mu\text{m}$ ) was mixed in the air. In the optical system of the LDV, the laser produced by an argon-ion laser system (Spectra Physics; model 2017L-AR) having a wavelength of 514.5nm was used together with a beam splitter coupled with a Bragg cell to detect backward flows. The Doppler burst signals from the back-scattering light of the particles were recorded and analyzed by a signal processor (DANTEC; BSA F50), which was linked to and controlled by a personal computer.

For evaluating the reforming reaction activeness, an optical probe, shown in Fig. 4, was designed to measure OH-radical chemiluminescence intensity. This probe was composed of an optical window, two plano-convex lenses, a narrow band pass filter (Edmund optics; CW = 334nm, FWHM = 10nm) and a photomultiplier (Hamamatsu; H5783-03). The optical window and each lens were made of thermal quartz glass so that OH-radical chemiluminescence light which is in ultraviolet band can penetrate through with little attenuation. The focal point of observation can be adjusted by changing the distance between two lenses ranging from 30mm to 50mm. To avoid excess heat conduction from the reactor to the optical probe, water cooling module was attached to this probe. Micro-current amplification and current-to-voltage conversion were conducted to detect weak optical signals with the photomultiplier and record them by PC via A/D converter.

The procedure applied in the reaction experiment is described in the following. The evaporator and reactor pipes were first heated by the electric band heaters so that the temperatures measured at the locations of  $x/D=-5.0$ , upstream of the baffle plate rear surface, and  $x/D=4.11$  reached 200°C and 600°C, respectively. Then, the heaters attached to the reactor were turned off and the fuel and air were supplied to the reformer. Note that the heaters of the evaporator continued to be powered during the experiment and the temperature inside the evaporator was kept at about 200°C.

### 3. EXPERIMENTAL CONDITIONS

As described above, experiment was carried out with single-stage and double-stage reformers.

Table 1 shows the conditions of the experiment of the single-stage reformer. In this case, the fuel and air were both supplied to the reactor from the evaporator through the baffle plate, which means that no air was injected from the sidewall of the reactor in this case.  $Q_{air}$  and  $Q_{fuel}$  are the volume flow rates of the air and fuel fed to the evaporator, respectively. Note that  $Q_{fuel}$  represents the volume flow rate of the fuel in liquid form.  $\phi_1$  is the equivalence ratio based on the complete oxidative reaction. The stoichiometric ratio of the POR, therefore, is  $\phi_1=3$ .  $q_e$  is the output power of the electric heater attached to the evaporator. As shown in Table 1,  $Q_{fuel}$  was changed under four conditions, and for each  $Q_{fuel}$ ,  $Q_{air}$  was varied in the range of equivalence ratios,  $3.0 \leq \phi_1 \leq 7.0$ .

In Table 2, the conditions of the experiment carried out for the double-stage reformer is shown. In this case, additional air was fed to the reactor at the location between the two tube bundles,  $x/D=4.11$ . The experiment was conducted under three conditions of  $Q_{fuel}$ . In regard to each  $Q_{fuel}$ , air was supplied to the evaporator and reactor at the mass flow rates of  $Q_{air1}$  and  $Q_{air2}$ , respectively. The total amount of air provided to the reactor,  $Q_{total}=Q_{air1}+Q_{air2}$ , was kept constant in each  $Q_{fuel}$  case, and the ratio of  $Q_{air2}$  to  $Q_{air1}$  ( $\gamma=Q_{air2}/Q_{air1}$ ) was changed. Therefore, the equivalence ratio at the first stage, to which fuel and air were supplied from the baffle plate, was varied in the range of  $4.5 \leq \phi_1 \leq 7.0$ . Note that the total equivalence ratio of the whole reformer,  $\phi_{total}$ , calculated from the values of  $Q_{total}$  and  $Q_{fuel}$ , was kept at 4.0.

### 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Before moving on to the discussion, several parameters

Table 1. Flow rate conditions in single-stage case.

case	$Q_{fuel}$ [cm <sup>3</sup> /s]	$\phi_1$	$q_e$ [W]
ss_f1	0.066	3.0, 3.5, 4.0, 4.5, 5.0, 5.5, 6.0, 6.5, 7.0	112
ss_f2	0.092		151
ss_f3	0.122		201
ss_f4	0.145		270

Table 2. Flow rate conditions in double-stage case.

case	$Q_{fuel}$ [cm <sup>3</sup> /s]	$\phi_{total}$	$\phi_1$	$\gamma=Q_{air2}/Q_{air1}$	$q_e$ [W]
ds_f1	0.066	4.0	(4.0),	(0.0),	112
ds_f2	0.092		4.5, 5.0, 5.5,	0.125, 0.25, 0.375,	151
ds_f4	0.145		6.0, 6.5, 7.0	0.50, 0.625, 0.75	270

used for evaluating the performance of reformer are introduced here.

In the present study, the quantity of the consumed methanol cannot be measured directly due to the properties of the column applied to the gas chromatograph and the silica gel chamber, which collects water and unreacted methanol. Therefore, these quantities were estimated from the concentrations of the other gases included in the exhaust gas.

Since the summation of the concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, CO and CO<sub>2</sub> in the exhaust gas was 100±2%, the major components of the gas was expected to be these five species plus water and unreacted methanol that were collected by the silica gel chamber. When paying attention on the carbon atoms, the components possessing carbon atoms among the products were found to be CO, CO<sub>2</sub> and unreacted methanol. Therefore, the quantity of the reacted methanol can be calculated using the concentrations of CO and CO<sub>2</sub> in the exhaust gas. Therefore, the methanol conversion ratio,  $\alpha$ , is defined as follows:

$$\alpha \equiv \frac{M_{CH_3OH, consumed}}{M_{CH_3OH, supplied}} = \frac{M_{CO} + M_{CO_2}}{M_{CH_3OH, supplied}} \quad (1)$$

$$= \frac{Y_{CO} + Y_{CO_2}}{Y_{N_2}} \times \frac{M_{N_2}}{M_{CH_3OH, supplied}}$$

where  $M_X$  is the molar flow rate of the X component in the exhaust gas, and  $Y_X$  is the X's concentration.

To evaluate the production efficiency of each component, the production rate of component X against 1mol of methanol supplied,  $\xi_X$ , is defined as follows:

$$\xi_X \equiv \frac{M_X}{M_{fuel, supplied}} = \frac{(Y_X / Y_{N_2}) M_{N_2}}{M_{fuel, supplied}} \quad (2)$$

In calculating the production rate of H<sub>2</sub>O,  $\xi_{H_2O}$ , it is assumed that all hydrogen atoms originated from the reacted methanol are used in producing H<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O. Thus,  $\xi_{H_2O}$  can be obtained by the following equation:

$$\xi_{H_2O} = 2\alpha - \xi_{H_2} \quad (3)$$

#### 4.1 Single-stage reformer

Figure 5 shows the streamwise temperature distributions along the centerline of the reactor in cases ss\_f1~ss\_f4. In Fig. 5(a), the temperature at  $x/D=4.11$  takes

its maximum value in the case of  $\phi_f=3.0$  and the maximum temperature decreases as  $\phi_f$  increases. The same trend for temperature distribution can be seen in the other locations or in the other fuel flow rate cases. This is due to the fact that when  $\phi_f$  becomes small, the oxygen supply rate to the methanol increases that results in promotion of the exothermic reaction of oxidation and increase of the temperature of the reforming gas.

The streamwise temperature distributions show the similar characteristic in all cases, i.e., a maximum peak of temperature is obtained at the location of  $x/D=4.11$  and the temperature level falls down in the downstream region. Therefore, it is presumed that most of the exothermic reactions take place at the area of stainless tube bundles.

Cross-sectional temperature distributions were also measured by traversing the thermocouple probe in radial direction. Figure 6 shows the results obtained in case ss\_f2 of  $\phi_f=5.0$ . The streamwise locations of measurement were  $x/D=2.32$ , 4.11 and 5.89 that correspond to the inlet of the first tube bundle, the middle point between two tube bundles, and the outlet of the second tube bundle, respectively. Figure 7 shows the spanwise distributions of the streamwise velocity at  $x/D=1.25$ , 1.62, 1.96 and 2.32, located in the area between the baffle plate and the first stainless tube bundle, obtained by the LDV measurements. Figure 7(a) and (b) shows the results of the plane crossing the center and surrounding holes of the baffle plate ((a) cross-section A-A'; see Fig. 3), and the plane crossing the middle of the surrounding holes ((b) cross-section B-B'), respectively.

In Fig. 6, at the position of  $x/D=2.32$ , corresponding to the inlet of the first tube bundle, the minimum peak of the temperature is observed at the centerline, and higher temperature near the sidewall. In Fig. 7(a), two peaks of  $U$  are observed at the locations of  $r/D=0$  and 2.85. In Fig. 7(b), a maximum peak is obtained at  $r/D=0$ . These peak locations correspond to the areas in the downstream of the center and surrounding jets. Since the center nozzle has a larger diameter than the surrounding ones, a jet of large flow rate is issued through the center nozzle. The lower temperature obtained at the centerline is, therefore, attributed to this center jet blowing the premixed fuel gas produced from the evaporator. On the contrary, the reactor wall temperature is increased by the heat generated in the downstream of the reactor. The gas near the wall is, hence, heated and a higher temperature is obtained compared with the gas near the centerline.

As shown in Fig. 7(a), the surrounding jets convect in the downstream, and their velocity decreases as  $x/D$  increases. Near sidewall, flow with negative velocity is observed in Fig. 7(b). These results indicate that a flow of three-dimensional structure was generated in the downstream area of the baffle plate, and a circulation can be generated near the sidewalls due to the interaction between the center jet and surrounding jets. Consequently, most of the premixed fuel gas enters the inlet of the first tube bundle in the area near the reactor centerline.

On the other hand, at the outlet of the tube bundles, i.e.,  $x/D=4.11$  and 5.89 shown in Fig. 6, the temperature takes a maximum peak at the reformer centerline and decreases along the radial direction. The temperature increase obtained between  $x/D=2.32$  and  $x/D=4.11$  implies that the reaction mainly starts not in the area between the baffle plate and the first tube bundle, but inside the first tube bundle. Furthermore, since the maximum peaks of  $U$  at  $x/D=2.32$  and  $T$  at  $x/D=4.11$  are located at the centerline,

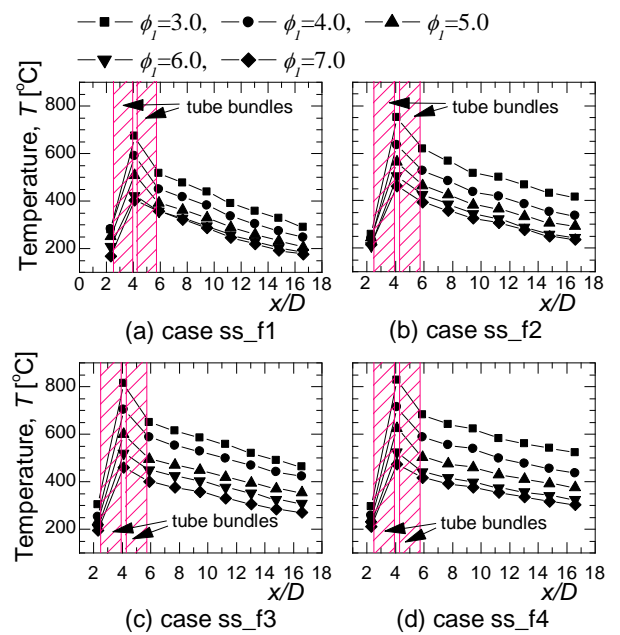


Fig. 5. Streamwise temperature distributions along reactor centerline (case ss\_f1-f4).

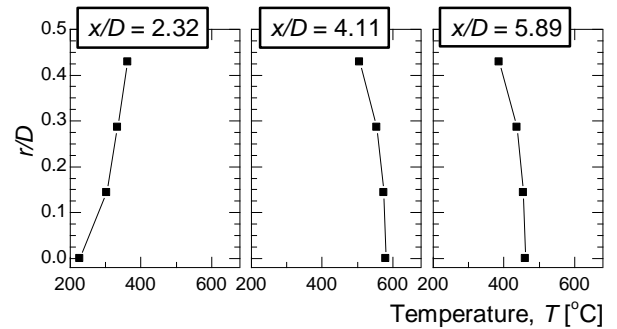


Fig. 6. Radial temperature distributions in the reactor at  $x/D=2.32$ , 4.11 and 5.89 (case ss\_f2,  $\phi_f=5.0$ ).

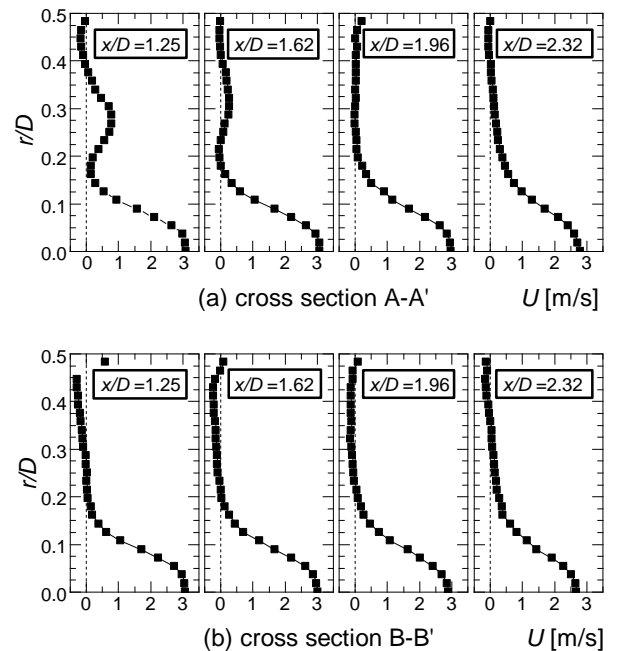
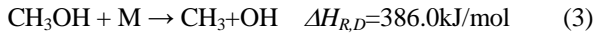


Fig. 7. Cross-sectional distributions of the streamwise velocity in the downstream area of the baffle plate (identical flow condition with case ss\_f1,  $\phi_f=5.0$ ).

the reaction is expected to occur in this area.

In the present study, chemiluminescence intensity was measured by the optical probe, as explained in the previous section, for three conditions of single-stage case (equivalence ratios  $\phi_I=3.0, 4.0$  and  $5.0$ ). Measurement points were  $x/D=2.32, 4.11$  and  $5.89$ , all of which were situated on the central axis of the reactor. Among these positions, signal was strong enough to detect by the photomultiplier only at  $x/D=4.11$ . Figure 8 shows the time histories of observed voltage intensity for each equivalence ratio,  $\phi_I=3.0, 4.0$  and  $5.0$ . In this figure, the corresponding OH-radical chemiluminescence intensity is shown, monitored for 600 seconds after the temperature inside the reactor became steady state. A maximum value of voltage was recorded for equivalence ratio  $\phi_I=3.0$  at  $x/D=4.11$ .  $\phi_I=3.0$  indicates the stoichiometric mixture of POR and the minimum equivalence ratio in the present study. For  $\phi_I=4.0$ , lower voltage was observed compared to  $\phi_I=3.0$  at the same position. For  $\phi_I=5.0$ , voltage output was too small to be observed. Therefore, lower equivalence ratio resulted in stronger luminescence intensity among these  $\phi_I$  conditions. This can be explained by the following reaction [9]:



Held and Dryer [9] proposed that this reaction predominates, accounting for 75% to 90% of the total decomposition reaction of methanol. Since this reaction is endothermic reaction, it is presumed that OH-radical produced through this reaction is sensitive to the gas temperature. As mentioned before, gas temperature increases in accordance with the decrease of equivalence ratio  $\phi_I$ . Namely, the increase of  $\phi_I$  resulted in the decrease of exothermic heat per volume, which caused smaller methanol decomposition ratio and lower OH-radical luminescence.

Figure 9 shows the relation between the concentrations of components in the exhaust gas and equivalence ratio,  $\phi_I$ . The concentration of  $\text{O}_2$  is less than 0.2% in all cases indicating that the supplied  $\text{O}_2$  were totally consumed in the reaction. The concentration of  $\text{H}_2$  increases as  $\phi_I$  increases in the region of  $\phi_I < 5.0$ . However, in  $\phi_I > 5.0$ ,  $Y_{\text{H}_2}$  is almost constant or, in some cases, slightly decreases as  $\phi_I$  increases. The aforementioned gas concentrations are the values directly obtained from the gas component analysis of the exhaust gas. Therefore, effects of unburnt methanol and water removed from the gas are not sufficiently considered. In the following discussion, the trends of parameters  $\alpha$  and  $\xi_X$  described in Eqs. (1) and (2) are discussed.

Figure 10 shows how  $\phi_I$  affects the conversion ratio of methanol,  $\alpha$ .  $\alpha$  decreases linearly as  $\phi_I$  increases. When  $\phi_I$  is small, larger reaction heat is released due to the increase of the supplied  $\text{O}_2$  rate. The temperature inside the reactor, therefore, increases as described in Fig. 5, and the decomposition and fully-oxidation reactions of methanol become more active. On the contrary, under larger  $\phi_I$  conditions, the air flow rate is reduced, which incurs a fuel-rich condition in the reactions including POR and larger heat loss at the reactor wall.

The production ratio,  $\xi_X$ , is shown in Fig. 11. In the region of  $\phi_I < 5.0$ ,  $\xi_{\text{H}_2}$  slightly increases as  $\phi_I$  increases, and decreases in the region of  $\phi_I > 5.0$ . Hence, the maximum production ratio of  $\text{H}_2$  is obtained approximately under the condition of  $4.0 < \phi_I < 5.0$ . When  $\phi_I$  is small, a large conversion ratio,  $\alpha$ , is obtained as shown in Fig. 10. However, oxidation of  $\text{H}_2$  to  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  also becomes active due to the high

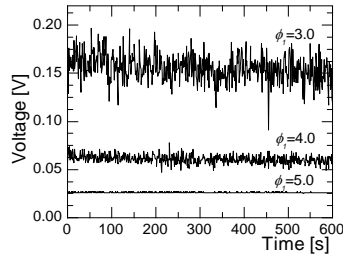


Fig. 8. OH-radical chemiluminescence intensity for the cases of equivalence ratios  $\phi_I=3.0, 4.0$  and  $5.0$ .

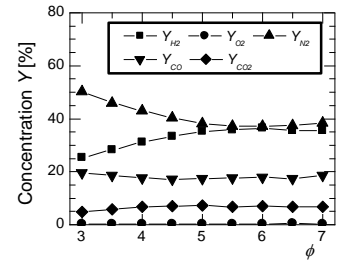


Fig. 9. Relation between gas concentration and equivalence ratio (case ss\_f4).

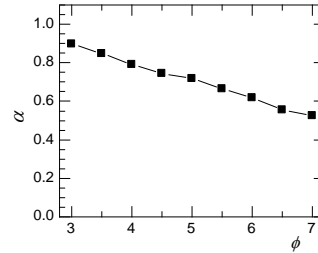


Fig. 10. Methanol conversion ratio (case ss\_f4).

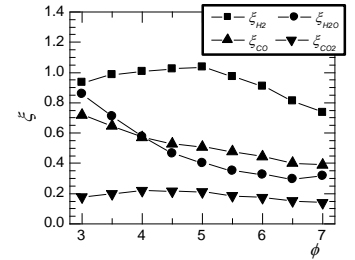


Fig. 11. Mole production rates (case ss\_f4).

temperature which leads the concentration of  $\text{H}_2$  to decrease as shown in Fig. 9. On the contrary, under larger  $\phi_I$  condition, the conversion ratio of methanol becomes small. Thus, a trade-off matter exists between  $\alpha$  and  $Y_{\text{H}_2}$ . This is believed to be the reason why the maximum peak of  $\xi_{\text{H}_2}$  is obtained at  $4.0 < \phi_I < 5.0$

To integrate all the results obtained through the temperature, velocity and chemiluminescence measurements, it is presumed that the reforming reactions start in the first stainless tube bundle, and the most of the reactions take place upstream of the end of the second tube bundle. Furthermore, the temperature takes its maximum value at the centerline of the reactor, which means intensive reaction takes place at the center region of the reactor.

Based on these results mentioned above, it is effective to supply the secondary air at the position of  $x/D=4.11$ , where the primary important reforming reaction seems active.

## 4.2 Double-stage Reformer

Figure 12 shows the streamwise distributions of the temperature along the reactor centerline obtained in the cases of double-stage reformer. The results of case ss\_f4 of  $\phi_I=4.0$  are included in the figure for comparison. The parameter  $\gamma$  is defined as the ratio of the air flow rate supplied to the second and first stages.

At  $x/D=4.11$ , the temperature decreases as  $\gamma$  increases. In the downstream area ( $x/D \geq 6$ ), on the contrary, the temperature increases as  $\gamma$  increases. Since the total amount of air supplied to the reactor in cases ds\_f1, ds\_f2 and ds\_f4 was fixed at the constant value corresponding to case ss\_f4, an increase of  $\gamma$  implies the increases of  $\phi_I$  and air flow rate supplied to the second stage. In the double-stage reformer, the air and fuel were supplied to the first stage in the same way as in the single-stage case, and a common reaction characteristic was expected to take place. The gas temperature was, therefore, reduced under larger  $\phi_I$  condition due to the fuel rich condition obtained in the first stage of the reactor as mentioned in the previous section.

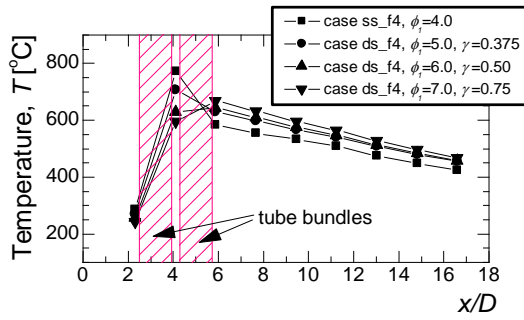


Fig. 12. Streamwise temperature distributions (comparison of cases ss\_f4 and ds\_f4,  $\phi_{total}=4.0$ ).

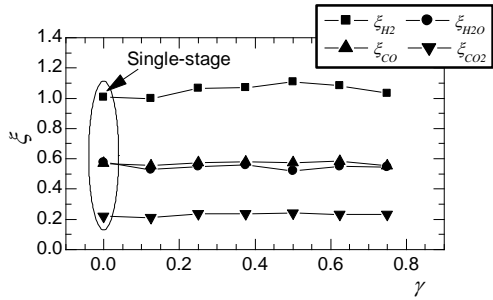


Fig. 13. Relation between  $\gamma$  and  $\zeta_x$  (case ds\_f4).

On the other hand, as indicated in Fig. 10, larger amount of unreacted methanol enters the second stage in association with the increase of  $\phi_1$ . In combination with the additional air injected to the second stage, a more active reaction, therefore, takes place in the downstream. This is believed to be the main reason why a higher temperature is obtained in case ds\_f4 in the downstream area.

Figure 13 illustrates how  $\gamma$  affects  $\zeta_x$ . The results of the single-stage case are included in the figure for comparison. In case ds\_f4, a slight increase of  $\zeta_{H_2}$  is observed as  $\gamma$  increases in the area of  $0.2 \leq \gamma < 0.6$ , and the maximum difference between the results in cases ss\_f4 and ds\_f4 is approximately 10%. This implies that the production ratio of  $H_2$  is not largely affected by increasing the reformer stage from single- to double-stage; at least the performance of double-stage case is not inferior to that of the single-stage case in the present study.

Although a noticeable improvement was not achieved, in terms of the reaction efficiency, by introducing the double-stage reforming, the results obtained in Figs. 12 and 13 indicate the possibility of controlling the temperature of the reformer by multiplying the reaction stages without incurring a serious deterioration of the reforming efficiency. This is important since the reformer can be protected from thermal fatigue by applying an appropriate gas supply ratio and preventing the generation of a significant increase of local temperature.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

In the present article, single- and double-stage methanol fuel reformer was experimentally evaluated particularly on the basis of the thermal and reaction characteristics. The major conclusions obtained are listed in the following.

1. A multistage reformer consisting of evaporator and reactor was fabricated and operated under the conditions of varying the equivalence ratio,  $\phi_1$ , in the range of  $3.0 \leq \phi_1 \leq 7.0$ . Hydrogen production and a suitable

temperature level for practical use were obtained by the reformer.

2. A better performance was obtained under the conditions of  $\phi_1=4.5\sim 5.0$  than under the stoichiometric value of partial oxidation,  $\phi_1=3$ , in the present reformer.
3. An optical measurement in the reformer was conducted and the correlation between OH-radical chemiluminescence intensity and the gas temperature condition was confirmed.
4. A maximum peak existed in the  $H_2$  production rate per supplied fuel in relation with  $\phi_1$ . This is due to the trade-off between the methanol conversion ratio,  $\alpha$ , and  $H_2$  concentration.
5. In the double-stage case, temperature control of the reformer was possible without deteriorating the reforming efficiency. Moreover, in some cases, increase of the  $H_2$  production rate by 10% was obtained in this case compared with the single-stage case.

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