Large-eddy simulation of pulverized coal jet flame – Effect of oxygen concentration on NO\textsubscript{x} formation

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Abstract

Large-eddy simulation is applied to a laboratory-scale open-type pulverized coal flame generated by a triple stream burner, and the NO production and reduction in oxy-fuel condition are investigated for the first time. Pulverized Cerrejon coal which is classified as bituminous coal is used as a fuel. The results show that regardless of the equivalence ratio, as the O\textsubscript{2} concentration increases from 21\% to 40\%, O\textsubscript{2} consumption becomes marked because gas temperature rises and oxidation reaction is enhanced by the higher concentration of O\textsubscript{2}. Also, NO is formed rapidly due to the oxidation reaction of nitrogen from volatile matter of coal, and its concentration reaches a few hundred ppm further downstream. After the rapid formation, in the case of equivalence ratio larger than unity, NO decreases, because the reducing atmosphere becomes dominant due to the lack of O\textsubscript{2}. The trend becomes significant as the O\textsubscript{2} concentration in the carrier gas increases from 21\% to 40\%. In the case of equivalence ratio less than unity, on the other hand, NO does not decrease clearly, because the oxidizing atmosphere contributes to the further formation of NO. Present study shows the usefulness of the large-eddy simulations for predicting the characteristics of pulverized coal flames.

Keywords:
Pulverized coal combustion
Oxy-fuel combustion
NO formation
Swirl jet flame
Large-eddy simulation

1. Introduction

Coal is still an important energy resource to satisfy the large demand for low cost electricity in Asian countries, as coal reserves are much more abundant than those of other fossil fuels and widely distributed all over the world. However, the emission intensities of carbon dioxide (CO\textsubscript{2}), nitrogen oxide (NO\textsubscript{x}) and sulfur oxide (SO\textsubscript{x}) by using coal are generally larger than those by using other fossil fuels\footnote{Corresponding author. Tel.: +81 75 383 3737; fax: +81 75 383 3613. E-mail address: muto@me.kyoto-u.ac.jp (M. Muto).}. It is therefore important to develop clean coal technology for pulverized coal fired power plants, in order to control such emissions and to reduce the environmental impact.

Regarding the reduction of environmental impact of CO\textsubscript{2}, carbon capture and sequestration (CCS) is expected as a key technology, and it is believed that oxy-fuel pulverized coal combustion, in which gas mixture of oxygen (O\textsubscript{2}) and CO\textsubscript{2} are used instead of air as oxidizer, has advantages for CCS, with low cost by means of only a retrofit of existing pulverized coal fired power plants\footnote{http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.fuel.2014.10.069 0016-2361/© 2014 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.}.

Previous experimental and numerical investigations on oxy-fuel coal combustion technology have been reviewed in several papers\footnote{0016-2361/© 2014 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.}. In most of those papers, although the flow and gas temperature are measured at selected points in the combustion chamber, the concentration of pollutants is measured only at the outlet of the combustion chamber. Therefore, it is still difficult to clarify the formation mechanism of NO\textsubscript{x} and SO\textsubscript{x} inside the chamber. In parallel, recent simulations using computational fluid dynamics
such as Reynolds-averaged Navier–Stokes (RANS) simulation (e.g. [7–15]) and large-eddy simulation (LES, e.g. [10,16–24]) have been applied to oxy-fuel coal combustion [25–29] and revealing certain advantages of LES compared to RANS simulation in prediction of local distributions of chemical species concentrations and gas temperature [30]. However, there have been no predictions of \( \text{NO}_x \) formation for oxy-fuel pulverized coal flame by means of LES. The purpose of this study is therefore to investigate the effects of \( \text{O}_2 \) concentration and equivalence ratio on the \( \text{NO}_x \) formation process in oxy-fuel pulverized coal flame generated using a laboratory-scale triple stream burner by means of LES, for various operating conditions of \( \text{O}_2 \) concentration in the carrier gas.

2. Numerical simulation

The LES solver used here is the FrontFlow/red developed by CRIEPI (Central Research Institute of Electric Power Industry), Kyoto University, and NuFD (Numerical Flow Designing CO., Ltd.).

2.1. Mathematical models and numerical method

The pulverized coal particles are tracked in Lagrangean manner using the equation of motion for dispersed particles. Coal devolatilization was simulated by a first-order single reaction model in which devolatilization rate is given as Arrhenius equation. In this study, parameters in Arrhenius equation for each coal were obtained by pyrolysis simulation using a FLASHCHAIN model [31]. The chemical mechanism for volatile matter and \( \text{CH}_4 \) considered in this study consists of two-step global reactions [11], and the char burning rate was calculated using Field’s model [32]. In this study, LES with a standard subgrid-scale model was adopted. Second-order central differences approximations were used to discretize the spatial derivative, while 5% of the first-order upwind scheme was blended with the central differences. The time marching was based on the fractional step method [33] in which the time step for the calculation, \( \Delta t \), is set to \( 10^{-5} \) s.

2.2. Chemical reactions for \( \text{NO} \) formation

In the present LES, only the production of \( \text{NO} \) was taken into account because the \( \text{NO}_x \) emitted to the atmosphere from combusting pulverized coal consists mostly of \( \text{NO} \), with much lower concentrations of \( \text{NO}_2 \) and \( \text{N}_2\text{O} \) [5]. \( \text{NO} \) originating from nitrogen, \( \text{N}_2 \), in air (thermal \( \text{NO} \) and prompt \( \text{NO} \)) and that from \( \text{N} \) in coal (fuel \( \text{NO} \)) were considered. The \( \text{NO}_x \) formation process in oxy-fuel combustion was expressed in global reaction forms as \( \text{N}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{NO} \), \( \text{N}_2 + \text{VM} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{NO} + \text{VM} \), and \( 2\text{NO} + \text{VM} \rightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{O}_2 + \text{VM} \), where VM is volatile matter. Fuel \( \text{NO} \) originating from volatile \( \text{N} \) was assumed to be formed through instantaneous evolution in the form of hydrogen cyanide (HCN) [36], and the minor evolution of

\[
\text{C}_2\text{H}_2 + (2/3) \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{CO} + \text{H}_2 \text{O} + 2\text{NO} + 2\text{HCN} + \text{CH}_4.
\]

Table 1
Injection conditions of gas mixture and coal in primary stream.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Carrier gas (O(_2/\text{CO}_2)) (%)</th>
<th>Coal feeding rate (g/s)</th>
<th>Equivalence ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>21/76</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>1.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>30/67</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>40/57</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>21/76</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>30/67</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>40/57</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2
Coal properties [43].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of coal</th>
<th>Cerrejon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Density</td>
<td>640 kg/m(^3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proximate analysis (wt%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moisture</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volatile matter</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed carbon</td>
<td>50.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ash</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ultimate analysis (wt%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carbon</td>
<td>69.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hydrogen</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oxygen</td>
<td>9.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nitrogen</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combustible sulfur</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ammonia (NH₃) was neglected. Formation of char NO was also calculated using DeSoete’s models [37,38]. The rate of NO reduction by char is also considered using Levy’s model [39] which takes account of the external surface area of char and NO partial pressure in the gas mixture. The Scale Similarity Filtered Reaction Rate Model (SSFRRM) [40] was used as the subgrid scale (SGS) model for the NO reactions as well as for the combustion reactions of the volatile matter and CH₄. The SSFRRM attempts to model the effect of SGS fluctuations on the filtered reaction rate by assuming that the largest of the sub grid scales are dynamically similar to the smallest of the resolved scales [41]. Although some of these NO formation and reduction mechanisms involve global reaction rates, the NO formation and reduction models have been validated by comparing with the experiments and confirmed to be able to capture the general feature even in the LES targeting a large test furnace in our previous papers [10,17].

Fig. 2. Instantaneous distributions of (a) axial velocity \( \tilde{w} \), (b) gas temperature \( \tilde{T} \), and mole fractions of (c) volatile matter \( \tilde{X}_{VM} \), (d) O₂, \( \tilde{X}_{O_2} \), and RMS values of (e) axial velocity \( \tilde{w}_{RMS} \) and (f) gas temperature \( \tilde{T}_{RMS} \) on the x–z plane at \( y = 0 \) mm for Case 1.
2.3. Computational domain and conditions

The configuration of the computational domain and the laboratory-scale triple stream burner [42,43] are shown in Fig. 1. The burner consists of three coaxial pipes and an axial swirler. The axial swirler has eight evenly-spaced vanes of 1 mm thickness at an angle of 45 degree to the burner exit plane. The swirl number calculated from its geometry is 0.77. In the primary stream, pulverized coal particles are carried by the gas mixture of O2 and CO2 at an axial velocity of 7.32 m/s and a temperature of 300 K. The concentrations of the gas mixture and coal for the primary stream are listed in Table 1. For the velocity profile of the primary stream, turbulent fully developed flow in a smooth pipe was adopted. To promote coal ignition, methane (CH4) is also issued in the primary stream at the rate of 3% of total volume. In the experiment [43], there is an additional 6% of N2 in the oxidizing mixture due to the ingress of ambient air in the coal carrying process, but the present LES focuses on the NO formation derived only from coal particles so that the additional N2 is neglected. To ignite the flame, a gas mixture of CH4 and air is introduced at an axial velocity of 1.11 m/s and a temperature of 400 K from the secondary stream as a pilot flame with equivalence ratio of unity. CH4 in the secondary stream...
is immediately consumed by a reaction model, in which two-step global mechanisms [44] are considered, near the burner outlet and which does not affect the reaction in the downstream region. In the outer tertiary stream, a laminar air flow is introduced at an axial velocity of 0.37 m/s and a temperature of 300 K. The whole computational domain is divided into about 7 million hexahedral grids, and the minimum mesh size is about 300 μm near the region close to burner outlet.

2.4. Coal properties

The coal sample used in this study is Cerrejon, whose properties are listed in Table 2. The size distribution of the coal used in the experiment [43] indicates that around 50% of particles have diameters below 75 μm, another 40% are between 75 and 500 μm, and the remainder above 500 μm in size. In present LES, on the other hand, the size distribution of the coal must be compatible with the requirement associated with the grid size from the point of view of numerical accuracy (the grid spacing needs to be roughly 10 times larger than the particle size to get enough accuracy by using the PSI-Cell method [45]). The size distribution is assumed to be represented by a Rosin–Rammler distribution, in which the specific diameter and spread parameter are given as 40 μm and 2, respectively. To reduce the computational cost, representative coal particles, i.e., parcels, are tracked in time instead of all coal particles.
particles. About 0.3 million parcels exist in the computational domain during the computation.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. General features of coal jet flame and comparison with experiment

Fig. 2 shows the instantaneous distributions of Favre-filtered quantities, (a) axial velocity $w$, (b) gas temperature $T$, and (c) mole fractions of volatile matter $X_{VM}$, (d) $O_2$ $X_{O_2}$, and RMS values of (e) axial velocity $\bar{w}_{RMS}$, and (f) gas temperature $\bar{T}_{RMS}$, on the $x$–$z$ plane for Case 1. Here, the tilde denotes the Favre filtered value for any quantity, $\phi$. RMS fluctuation is defined by $\bar{\phi}_{RMS} = \sqrt{\langle \phi'^2 \rangle}$, where $\bar{\phi} = \langle \phi \rangle + \phi'$ and $\langle \rangle$ denotes time-averaged values. The time-averaged and RMS values are evaluated by using the data from $t = 1.0$–$1.2$ s which corresponds 20,000 calculation steps. It is observed that the coal particles are ignited by the pilot flame of secondary stream, and the coal flame is lifted up to a point where $\bar{w}_{RMS}$ and $\bar{T}_{RMS}$ show high values. Part of the released volatile

![Fig. 6. Instantaneous distributions of NO concentration $\bar{NO}$ on the $x$–$z$ plane at $y = 0$ mm.](image)
matter is consumed by $O_2$ oxidation near the burner outlet, whereas most of it remains unburned in the downstream region due to the lack of $O_2$, because the equivalence ratio for Case 1 is larger than unity.

Fig. 3 shows the instantaneous distributions of coal particles colored by (a) particle temperature $T_p$, and mass fractions of (b) volatile matter $Y_{p,VM}$, and (c) fixed carbon $Y_{p,FC}$, in the particles behind the $x$-$z$ plane at $y = 0$ mm for Case 1. It is found that the temperature of the particles facing the secondary streams rapidly increases and that $Y_{p,VM}$ and $Y_{p,FC}$ in the particles decreases and increases, respectively. This means that the oxidizing reaction of fixed carbon hardly occurs and the rapid increase in $T$ is attributed mainly to the combustion of volatile matter.

Figs. 4a–4c shows the comparisons of time-averaged and RMS of velocity between present and experimental results [43] in the non-reacting condition at $z = 10, 30$ and $50$ mm along the axial
direction. For experiment, RMS velocity in axial direction is defined by \( \text{w}_{\text{RMS}} = \sqrt{\text{w}^2} \), where \( \text{w} = \overline{\text{w}} + \text{w}' \) and overline denotes time-averaged value. This definition is the same as for other directions. As seen in the figures, it is confirmed that the behaviors of the experimental results [43] are quantitatively well captured by present LES.

Fig. 5 shows the instantaneous distributions of (a) Abel inverted OH* chemiluminescence obtained by the experiment [43] and (b) reaction rate of volatile matter predicted by present LES on the x-z plane at \( y = 0 \) mm for the cases with equivalence ratio of 1.73. The OH* radical is considered to be generated in the region where the volatile matter is consumed and the heat of combustion is released remarkably. The experiment shows that the peak value of the intensity of OH* radical rises with increasing O2 concentration. This is attributed to the fact that the reaction rate of volatile matter is promoted by higher O2 concentrations and suppressed by the higher specific heat capacity of CO2. This behavior is also captured by present LES. However, the LES result slightly overestimates the inward distribution of the reaction rate region further downstream, as compared to the experiment. This may be a result...

\( \text{NO reduction rate [mole/(s m^3)]} \)

\( 3\times10^{-3} \)

\( 0 \)

Fig. 8. Time-averaged distributions of NO reduction rate on the x-z plane at \( y = 0 \) mm.
of a higher estimate of reaction rates and corresponding temperatures by the devolatilization model and two-step global reaction model for combustion of volatile matter used in present study. A contributing factor may also be the smaller diameter distribution of the pulverized coal used in the computations compared to the experimental values.

3.2. Effects of the O2 concentration on NO formation

The instantaneous and time-averaged distributions of NO concentration on the x–z plane at y = 0 mm for Cases 1–6 are shown in Figs. 6 and 7. For all cases, NO formation starts to increase from where T starts to increase (see Fig. 2(b)). In particular, for Cases 2 and 3 with equivalence ratio of 1.73, there appear low NO concentration pockets (indicated by white arrows) which shift upstream with increasing O2 concentration. On the other hand, the NO concentration pockets cannot be observed for the cases with equivalence ratio of 0.64 (Cases 4–6) for both instantaneous and time-averaged distributions. The generation of the low NO concentration pockets for the cases with high equivalence ratio are attributed to the rapid decrease in O2 in the downstream region.

The time-averaged distributions of the reduction rate of NO on the x–z plane at y = 0 mm for Cases 1–6 are shown in Fig. 8. Regardless the equivalence ratio, the reduction is not significant for low O2 concentrations. For Cases 2 and 3 with equivalence ratio of 1.73, there appears to be a high NO reduction rate just upstream the NO concentration pockets seen in Fig. 7. These high NO reduction rate regions appear due to the reburn process and Levy's model described in Section 2.2. However, in Cases 5 and 6 with equivalence ratio of 0.64, the region with high NO reduction rate is small.

Fig. 9 shows the time-averaged axial distributions of (a) gas temperature \(\langle T \rangle\), and mole fractions of (b) O2 \(\langle X_{O2} \rangle\), (c) volatile matter \(\langle X_{VM} \rangle\) and (d) NO concentration (NO) at equivalence ratio of 1.73.
ignition of the coal particles shifts upstream with increasing O2 concentration, which increases reaction rate. For all three cases, \( \langle X_{\text{VM}} \rangle \) increases as \( \langle T \rangle \) increases, and the location indicating peak value of \( \langle X_{\text{VM}} \rangle \) is consistent with the location indicating the peak value of \( \langle T \rangle \). The peak value in \( \langle X_{\text{VM}} \rangle \) increases with increasing O2 concentrations, as the increase in reaction enhances devolatilization. And this increase in the peak value is also observed by an increase of coal feeding rate with increasing the O2 concentration and decreasing the CO2 concentration (see Table 1). Focusing on the NO formation behavior, the locations where \( \langle \text{NO} \rangle \) rapidly increases and reaches a few hundred ppm correspond to the locations indicating the peak values of \( \langle T \rangle \). This is followed by rapid decreases in \( \langle \text{NO} \rangle \), especially for Cases 2 and 3. The decrease in \( \langle \text{NO} \rangle \) after its peak is caused by the reducing atmosphere and associated with the low NO concentration pockets seen in Figs. 6 and 7. The peak value in the \( \langle \text{NO} \rangle \) increases with increasing O2 concentration from Cases 1 to 2, but decreases from Cases 2 to 3 despite of the higher \( \langle T \rangle \) and \( \langle X_{\text{VM}} \rangle \). This is attributed to the strong reducing atmosphere in the downstream region of the peak value in \( \langle \text{NO} \rangle \), which suppresses the NO formation.

Fig. 10 shows the time-averaged axial distributions of (a) particle temperature \( T_p \), mass fractions of (b) volatile matter \( Y_{p,\text{VM}} \), and (c) fixed carbon \( Y_{p,\text{FC}} \) in coal particles at equivalence ratio of 1.73. It is found that the behavior of \( T_p \) is consistent with that of \( \langle T \rangle \) in Fig. 9, that is, the locations where the peak values of \( T_p \) appear to shift upstream with increasing O2 concentration. The rapid decreases of \( T_{p,\text{VM}} \) are also consistent with the rapid increases of \( \langle X_{\text{VM}} \rangle \) in Fig. 9. The interesting behavior is observed in \( T_{p,\text{FC}} \): the value for Cases 2 and 3 increases as \( T_p \) increases, because the devolatilization rate is higher than the reaction rate of fixed carbon. On the other hand, \( T_{p,\text{FC}} \) for Case 1 remains the same up to \( z = 450 \) mm. This means that the reaction rate of the fixed carbon is comparable with the devolatilization rate of the volatile matter. This is consistent with the fact that devolatilization rates for Case 1 are lower than those for Cases 2 and 3 due to low \( T_p \), whereas the oxidation reaction of fixed carbon proceeds because of the remaining O2 in the downstream region. One of the reasons why the apparent NO
reduction behavior does not appear for Case 1 in the distribution of (NO) (see Fig. 9) is considered that NO is also formed by the oxidation reaction of fixed carbon, namely char NO.

Fig. 11 shows time-averaged axial distributions of (a) gas temperature ($\bar{T}$), mole fractions of (b) $O_2$ ($X_{O_2}$), (c) volatile matter ($X_{VM}$), and (d) NO concentration ($NO_i$), for the cases of equivalence ratio of 0.64. The comparisons with the cases of equivalence ratio of 1.73 (Cases 1–3) show that ($X_{VM}$) for Cases 4–6 are much lower than those for Cases 1–3 because of the lean conditions such that excess $O_2$ remains in the downstream region as seen in ($X_{O_2}$). Focusing on the NO formation behavior, (NO) rapidly increases and reaches a few hundred ppm, similarly to Cases 1–3. However, the NO reduction behavior cannot be clearly observed for Cases 5 and 6 because sufficient $O_2$ remains in the downstream region.

Fig. 12 shows the time-averaged axial distributions of (a) particle temperature ($T_p$), mass fractions of (b) volatile matter ($Y_{FC}$), and (c) fixed carbon of particles ($Y_{FC,FM}$), for the cases of equivalence ratio of 0.64. The comparisons with cases with equivalence ratio 1.73 (Cases 1–3) show that the peak values of $T_p$ are higher than those for Cases 1–3, and the locations where the peak values appear tend to shift downstream compared to those for Cases 1–3. Consequently, the locations where the peak values of $T_p, Y_{FC}$, and $Y_{FC,FM}$ appear tend to shift downstream as well. The trends in $T_p$ for Cases 4–6 are quite different from those for Cases 1–3, namely $T_p$ increases during devolatilization. This suggests that oxidation reaction of fixed carbon occurs due to the abundant $O_2$ and it is considered that char NO is also formed during the oxidation larger than that for Cases 1–3. Thus, it appears that the difference in NO formation behavior between the cases of equivalence ratio of 1.73 (Cases 1–3) and the cases of equivalence ratio of 0.64 (Cases 4–6) is caused by the complex balance of NO reduction and NO formation by combustion of volatile matter and fixed carbon in the reducing and oxidizing atmosphere formed in the coal flames.

4. Conclusions

In this study, the effects of the $O_2$ concentration and equivalence ratio on the formation process of NO in a laboratory-scale open-type pulverized coal flame generated by a triple stream burner were investigated by means of LES under oxy-firing conditions in which $O_2/CO_2$ mixture is used as oxidizer. The main results obtained in this study can be summarized as follows.

- Regardless of the equivalence ratio, as the $O_2$ concentration increases from 21% to 40%, $O_2$ consumption becomes marked because gas temperature rises and oxidation reaction is enhanced by the higher concentration of $O_2$.
- NO is formed rapidly due to the oxidation reaction of $N_2$ from volatile matter of coal and its axial profile reaches a few hundred ppm further downstream. After rapid formation, in the case of equivalence ratio larger than unity, NO decreases because the reducing atmosphere becomes dominant due to the lack of $O_2$. The trend tends to be remarkable as the $O_2$ concentration increases from 21% to 40%. In the case of equivalence ratio less than unity, however, NO does not decrease, apparently because an oxidizing atmosphere prevails.
- The present study presents for the first time LES predictions of NO production and reduction in oxy-fuel conditions, partially validated by experimental findings, which verifies the usefulness of the LES to predict the characteristics of pulverized coal flames.

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