Numerical Simulation of Flame Quenching and Acceleration by a Metal Foam

Hsiao-Chi Li and Ryan W. Houim University of Florida Gainesville, Florida, USA

1 Introduction

Reactive fuel-oxygen mixtures can be prone to unwanted combustion events and even detonation [1]. Flame arrestors are often placed in systems where explosion hazards may be a significant concern [2, 3]. Several flame arrestor concepts are based on open-cell metal foams that remove thermal energy from the flame and, if designed properly, quench reactions [4]. However, improperly-designed flame arrestors may exacerbate the unwanted ignition event. If length scales of the pores are too large, the struts of the foam may act as bluff bodies that promote turbulence, flame acceleration, and possible transition to detonation. Understanding how flames interact with metal foam structures can lead to improved safety designs, or be used to promote deflagration-to-detonation transition (DDT) if a detonation is wanted for applications such as propulsion [5]. Details of how flames interact with metal foams have not been extensively studied.

2 Problem Setup

In this work we present 3D numerical simulations of flame propagation through a metal foam structure by solving the fully compressible reactive Navier-Stokes equations. The solid surfaces representing the foam are embedded using an immersed boundary method (IBM) [6–8] with isothermal boundary conditions. The fuel-oxidizer mixture is stoichiometric hydrogen-oxygen at 300 K and 1 atm. Detailed chemical kinetics with 27 reactions and 8 species [9] and mixture-averaged transport are used.

The simulations cases consider in this paper are summarized in Table 1. Figure 1 shows the geometrical setup for the baseline geometry (Cases 1 and 5) presented in this paper. A metal foam structure is placed inside of a square channel to interact with a propagating stoichiometric H_2 -O₂ flame. The baseline case considers a channel of length 16 mm with a 1 mm by 1 mm square cross-section. The influence of channel size is explored by multiplying all dimensions of the channel and foam by a scaling factor to produce geometrically similar channels. Two initial condition configurations are considered. The first is a planar flame that is ignited by constant-pressure equilibrium products of stoichiometric H_2 -O₂. The high-temperature products are located at a distance of 4 mm from the left-end of the domain for the baseline geometry. The second configuration considers a flame ignited by a spherical spark that is 400 μ m in diameter at 10,000 K and 100 atm. The spark diameter is not scaled with the channel size.

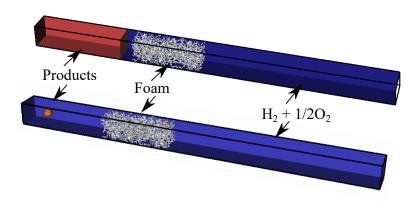


Figure 1: Initial conditions showing (top) the planar and (bottom) spherical flame initial conditions for a stoichiometric H_2 and O_2 flame propagating in a closed channel with a metal foam inserted. The boundary conditions on the sides and right end are symmetry planes channel. The left boundary condition is a non-reflecting outflow.



Figure 2: The foam geometry used in the simulation.

Figure 2 shows a closeup view of the metal foam embedded in the computational domain. The stereolithography (STL) file for the metal foam was obtained from https://grabcad.com/library/auxetic-foamsample-1. The length of the foam is 2.5 mm and the left end is placed 4.5 mm from the left boundary for baseline channel size (Cases 1 and 5). The dimensions of the foam are scaled along with the channel size for other five cases. Isothermal and no-slip boundary conditions at 300 K are used on the embedded foam. The foam is inserted into the domain using an advanced immersed boundary method (IBM) [7, 10, 11]. A ghost-fluid method is used to enforce boundary conditions on the foam [6, 7].

The governing equation were solved using an operator splitting approach. The hydrodynamic terms where computed using a high-order Godunov method with seventh-order WENO and the HLLC flux for spatial discretization of the hyperbolic terms. Second-order central differencing was used for the viscous and diffusion terms [12]. The yet-another-stiff-solver (YASS) [13] was used to integrate the chemical source terms. Adaptive mesh refinement was implemented using the massively-parallel AMReX library [14]. The simulations used two levels of refinement with 128 cells across the channel at the finest level. This corresponds to a grid spacing of 7.8 μ m which is ~ 31 cells in the thermal thickness of a laminar H₂-O₂ flame for the baseline channel size. The numerical code, HyBurn, used in this work has been extensively verified and validated for scenarios including laminar flames, detonations, a variety of Riemann problems, and shock-obstacle interactions.

3 Results

Figure 3 shows time sequence plots for Cases 4 and 7. In Case 7 (spherical spark ignition with a channel height of 4 mm) the small flame kernel elongates due to preferential flow along the channel axis and

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Table 1: List of simulation cases and results.					
Case	Initial Flame	Channel Height (mm)	Result		
1	Planar	1 by 1	quench		
2	Planar	1.1	shock and flame		
3	Planar	1.5	detonation		
4	Planar	2	detonation		
5	Spherical	1	quench		
6	Spherical	2	shock and flame		
7	Spherical	4	shock and flame		

also interactions with weak shock reflections produced by the high pressure in the spark. At 206 μ s, the flame kernel grows close to the side walls and also enters the foam. The flame accelerates as it propagates through the tortuous path created by foam struts. The flame exits the foam about 20 μ s later and with an averaged flame velocity of ~ 600 m/s inside of the foam. The resulting shock and turbulent flame complex [1] propagates downstream of the foam.

The results for Case 4 show a scenario where the planar flame grows and propagates into the foam. The flame reaches the foam at $\sim 71 \ \mu$ s and exits the foam at $\sim 88 \ \mu$ s. Unlike Case 7, a detonation is initiated as the flame exits the foam. The exact mechanism of detonation initiation by the foam are currently being analyzed.

Figure 4 shows a time series of temperature slices at the centerline of the channel for Cases 1 and 4 (planar ignition). The flame enters the foam at 24 μ s for Case 1 (1 mm-high channel). The heat loss from the reaction zone of the flame due to the foam is too high and ultimately quenches the combustion wave. As already discussed above, the flame enters the foam for Case 4 (2 mm-high channel) at about 71 μ s and rapidly accelerates. A detonation emerges from the foam and continues to propagate downstream. Similar to Case 4, the flame propagates through the foam and transitions to detonation in Case 3 as shown in Fig. 5.

Cases 1 and 4 illustrate the extreme limits of how the foam can interact with the flame in ways can either quench the reaction or promote DDT. Case 2 (1.1 mm-high channel), shown in Fig. 5, represents a scenario between these two extreme limits. In Case 2, the flame enters the foam at $\sim 90 \ \mu s$ and continues to propagate. However, in this case, the heat losses and shorter length of the foam do not accelerate the flame to the point where a detonation is initiated. Instead, the flame exits the foam as a decoupled turbulent shock-flame complex [1].

Figure 6 shows temperature slices for Cases 6 and 7 which consider the high-temperature and highpressure spark initial conditions. The initial dynamics of the flame are significantly different than they are for the planar ignition scenario (Cases 1-4). Here, the small 400 μ m-diameter flame kernel growths and the high initial pressure in the spark produces weak shocks waves. These weak shocks reflect from the channel walls to produce complex-shaped flame shapes observed at 35 μ s for Case 6. The flame grows and expands in the flow produced by these weak shocks. The flame interacts with the foam at $\sim 59 \ \mu$ s for Case 6 and emerges $\sim 20 \ \mu$ s later as a turbulent shock-flame complex. Separate ignition kernels form in front of the main turbulent flame at $\sim 95 \ \mu$ s, but do not initiate a detonation. The results for Case 7 are similar to Case 6. However, there are some differences in timing due to the increased distance between the spark location and the foam. The flame is quenched by the foam for Case 5, which is not shown.

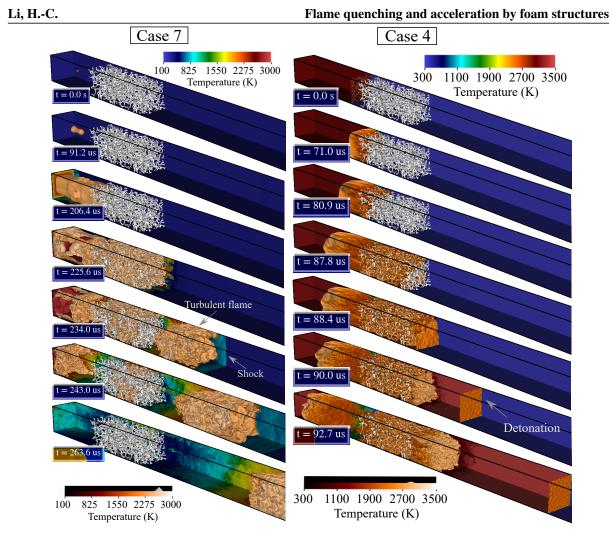


Figure 3: Computed results for (left) Case 7 and (right) Case 4 showing a time series of volume renderings of temperature and the embedded foam. Slices of temperature are shown on the left, bottom, and rear walls of the domain.

4 Discussion and Conclusions

The results shown in this work indicate that open-cell metal foams can significantly alter the dynamics of propagating flames by either quenching them or promoting flame acceleration. In extreme cases the flame accelerates rapidly and undergoes DDT. The results indicate that the effect of the foam on the flame is a competition between convective heat loss trying to quench the flame and hydrodynamic effects induced by the foam struts trying to accelerate the flame. The foam struts behave similarly to obstacles in channels that induce turbulence and shock reflections which are well-known to promote flame acceleration and even initiate detonation [1]. The flame quenches in Cases 1 and 5 due to heat losses from the reaction zone of the flame by the foam. Cases 2, 6, and 7 have larger pore structures which accelerated the flame due to gas-dynamic effects introduced by the flow interacting with the foam struts. In addition to these gas dynamic effects, mean hydraulic resistance introduced by the foam may also induce pressure gradients that may also alter the dynamics of the flame.

Our ongoing work is exploring the detailed physical mechanisms of flame quenching, acceleration, and transition to detonation by metal foam structures. Scenarios where the foam length is constant will be considered and quantitative analysis on the competition between chemical energy release and heat-loss

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Case 4	
Case 1	(100 년 15년 (200 년 5년 10년 (200 년 5년 10년
t = 0.0 s	t = 71.0 us
t = 24.5 us	t = 80.9 us
t = 47.1 us	Detonation L = 87.8 us
t = 67.8 us	t = 90.0 us
t = 81.6 us	t = 92.7 us
200 1000 2000 3500 Temperature (K)	200 1000 2000 3500 Temperature (K)

Figure 4: Time series showing temperature slices for (left) Case 1 and (right) Case 4. The slices are generated at the center plane of the channel.

Case 3	
1 = 0.0 s	Case 2
t = 71.5 us	$\begin{array}{c} \left(\begin{array}{c} S \\ S \\ S \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c} S \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c} S \\ S \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c} S \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c} S \\ S \end{array} \right) \left(\begin{array}{c} $
t = 90.3 us	t = 90.7 us
Detonation t = 93.0 us	t = 112.5 us
t = 94.8 us	Turbulent flame t = 117.0 us
t = 96.9 us	t = 122.8 us
200 1000 2000 3500 Temperature (K)	200 1000 2000 3500 Shock Temperature (K)

Figure 5: Time series showing temperature slices for (left) Case 3 and (right) Case 2. The slices are generated at the center plane of the channel.

rates will be analyzed.

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Case 6	
• (3) (3) (3) (3) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4) (4	Case 7
t = 35.5 us	1 = 0.0 s
t = 59.0 us	- (Standard 1955) Crow art 55 reg
t = 70.5 us	t = 206.4 us
Turbulent flame Shock t = 81.0 us	Turbulent flame Shock t = 225.6 us
Ignition kernel t = 90.0 us	t = 243.0 us
t = 94.8 us	t = 263.6 us
200 1000 2000 3500 Temperature (K)	200 1000 2000 3500 Temperature (K)

Figure 6: Time series showing temperature slices as the flame interacts with the metal foam for (left) Case 6 and (right) Case 7. The slices are taken at the center plane of the channel.

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