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# Effect of different fuel NO models on the prediction of NO formation/reduction characteristics in a pulverized coal combustion field

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## **Abstract**

To investigate the effects of fuel NO formation models on the prediction of NO concentrations in a coal combustion field, numerical simulations for a coal combustion field in a 760 kW test furnace were performed. Three models, those proposed by De Soete, Chen et al. and Mitchell et al. were employed to calculate fuel NO formation originating from volatile matter. The results show that the model proposed by Mitchell et al. reproduces the tendency of the experimental data better than the other two models. In addition, the difference between the NO conversion ratios of bituminous coal and sub-bituminous coal that contains a high level of moisture was examined in detail using simulation results from the model of Mitchell et al. It was found that the formation of a region with a low oxygen mole fraction immediately downstream of a region with a high NO production rate is essential to realize a low NO conversion ratio.

## 1 **1. Introduction**

2 Coal is an important energy resource from the viewpoint of energy security, because coal quarries and mines are  
3 prevalent in various regions all over the world and the number of coal deposits is greater than those of other fossil  
4 fuels. For electricity production, a large proportion of coal is consumed by coal-fired thermal power plants that  
5 employ the method of pulverized coal combustion. Therefore, emissions from pulverized-coal-fired thermal power  
6 plants represent a very important issue for the electric power industry. Although combustion technologies for  
7 reducing NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, such as staged combustion, have been utilized in pulverized-coal-fired plants [1], there is  
8 even greater potential for NO<sub>x</sub> emission reduction. NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from furnaces can be affected by fuel properties,  
9 boiler and burner design, and operating conditions. Recently, demand for utilizing low-grade coals or biomass fuels  
10 has increased due to factors such as the increased price of coal and global warming. Thus, the ability to predict  
11 changes in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions caused by utilizing these fuels in large scale boilers is required. Some experimental  
12 research has been conducted on the fundamental phenomena of NO<sub>x</sub> production during coal combustion [e.g., 2-4].  
13 However, the prediction of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in actual large-scale boilers requires an understanding of gas flow  
14 patterns, temperature, and gas-species concentrations. Numerical simulations of pulverized coal combustion fields  
15 are useful to archive such understanding [e.g., 5-28]. Recently, numerical simulations of actual large-scale boilers  
16 have been conducted by some researchers [e.g., 7-10]. Numerical simulations for predicting NO<sub>x</sub> formation  
17 characteristics in coal combustion fields have also been conducted [e.g., 11-28].

18 Since numerical simulation of pulverized coal combustion fields is difficult due to the complexity of coal  
19 combustion phenomena, relatively simple models are generally employed. Particularly when simulating a  
20 combustion field in a large scale boiler, simplified models are mostly employed due to computational limitations  
21 even though there exist many precise models using large computational resources. Therefore, in common with other  
22 models, simplified NO<sub>x</sub> formation models are commonly used to predict NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations in large-scale boilers  
23 by numerical simulation of coal combustion fields. To simulate NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations in coal combustion fields, the  
24 calculation of various NO<sub>x</sub> formation mechanisms, i.e., the Zeldovich, prompt, and fuel NO<sub>x</sub> mechanisms, is  
25 required. Among these, fuel NO<sub>x</sub> mechanisms are the most important in coal combustion fields because large  
26 portions of the NO<sub>x</sub> emitted from furnace exits originate from fuel NO<sub>x</sub> mechanisms [29]. The fuel NO<sub>x</sub>  
27 mechanisms are divided into those for which NO<sub>x</sub> originates from volatile matter and those for which it originates  
28 from char particles. For numerical simulations of coal combustion fields in large-scale boilers, the simple NO<sub>x</sub>

29 formation model proposed by De Soete [30] is commonly employed for NO<sub>x</sub> originates from volatile matter [e.g.,  
30 21-28]. However, there are other simple NO<sub>x</sub> formation models, for instance, Chen et al. [31] made corrections of  
31 the reaction parameters of De Soete's model based on the experimental data and recommended the use of proposed  
32 parameters instead of the original parameters. Mitchell et al. [32] proposed a simple NO<sub>x</sub> formation model that  
33 employed ammonia as an intermediate species. Use of the models proposed by Chen et al. and Mitchell et al. for  
34 numerical simulation of coal combustion fields is expected to improve the accuracy of NO<sub>x</sub> emission prediction.  
35 However, investigations of the differences in NO<sub>x</sub> formation characteristics between simulations employing these  
36 fuel NO<sub>x</sub> formation models have not yet been reported.

37 In this study, numerical simulations for the coal combustion field in a 760 kW test furnace were performed using  
38 three models for the formation of fuel NO<sub>x</sub> originating from volatile matter, i.e., the models proposed by De Soete  
39 [30], Chen et al. [31] and Mitchell et al. [32]. The NO<sub>x</sub> formation characteristics of each of these three simulations  
40 were compared in detail. In addition, differences in the NO emission characteristics between the combustion fields  
41 of bituminous coal and sub-bituminous coal that contains a high level of moisture are discussed.

42

## 43 **2. Numerical simulation**

### 44 **2.1. NO<sub>x</sub> formation model**

45 In this study, only the production of NO was taken into account because the NO<sub>x</sub> emitted from an atmospheric  
46 pulverized coal combustion field consists mostly of NO, with much lower concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O. In this  
47 study, the NO formation models were employed in a "post-processing" fashion, in which a converged combustion  
48 flow field solution is obtained before performing the NO prediction. To predict the NO concentration in a coal  
49 combustion field, the consideration of four main NO formation mechanisms, i.e., the extended Zeldovich NO  
50 mechanism, the prompt NO mechanism, the fuel NO mechanism originating from volatile matter, and the fuel NO  
51 mechanism originating from char particles, is required. In this study, three NO formation models were employed and  
52 the NO formation characteristics predicted by the three models were compared. Table 1 shows a summary of the  
53 three models. For the fuel NO formation mechanism originating from volatile matter, the models proposed by De  
54 Soete [30] (Model 1), Chen et al. [31] (Model 2) and Mitchell et al. [32] (Model 3), were employed. For the other  
55 NO formation mechanisms, i.e., the Zeldovich NO mechanism, the prompt NO mechanism, and the fuel NO  
56 formation mechanism originating from char particles, the same equations were used for all three models. The N

57 partition ratio between volatile-N and char-N was determined by the modified-TDP model [43] based on the  
 58 devolatilization database made by the FLASHCHAIN model [52, 53]. The same value of the N partition ratio  
 59 derived from the modified TDP model was used for all fuel NO formation models listed in Table 1. Detailed  
 60 explanations of each NO mechanism are described in the following sections.

61  
 62 **2.1.1. Extended Zeldovich NO model**

63 To calculate NO production by using the extended Zeldovich NO mechanism, the following formulae are  
 64 employed:



69  
 70 where  $K_i$  denotes various reaction rate parameters. By employing the quasi-steady-state approximation for the N  
 71 radical, the NO production rate can be expressed by

72  
 73 
$$\frac{d[\text{NO}]}{dt} = \frac{\rho_g^2}{1 + \left( K_{-1} \frac{Y_{\text{NO}}}{M_{\text{NO}}} \right) / \left( K_2 \frac{Y_{\text{O}_2}}{M_{\text{O}_2}} + K_3 \frac{Y_{\text{OH}}}{M_{\text{OH}}} \right)} \times \left[ 2K_1 \frac{Y_{\text{O}}}{M_{\text{O}}} \frac{Y_{\text{N}_2}}{M_{\text{N}_2}} - \frac{2K_{-1} \frac{Y_{\text{NO}}}{M_{\text{NO}}}}{K_2 \frac{Y_{\text{O}_2}}{M_{\text{O}_2}} + K_3 \frac{Y_{\text{OH}}}{M_{\text{OH}}}} \left( K_{-2} \frac{Y_{\text{O}}}{M_{\text{O}}} \frac{Y_{\text{NO}}}{M_{\text{NO}}} + K_{-3} \frac{Y_{\text{H}}}{M_{\text{H}}} \frac{Y_{\text{NO}}}{M_{\text{NO}}} \right) \right], \quad (2.4)$$

74  
 75 where  $Y_i$  and  $M_i$  denote the mass fraction and molecular weight of species  $i$ , respectively. In this study, the following  
 76 reaction rate parameters, proposed by Baulch et al. [33], are employed for  $K_i$  in the above formula:

77  
 78 
$$K_1 = 1.8 \times 10^{11} \exp\left(\frac{-38370}{T_g}\right), \quad (2.5)$$

$$79 \quad K_{-1} = 3.8 \times 10^{10} \exp\left(\frac{-425}{T_g}\right), \quad (2.6)$$

$$80 \quad K_2 = 1.8 \times 10^7 \exp\left(\frac{-4680}{T_g}\right), \quad (2.7)$$

$$81 \quad K_{-2} = 3.8 \times 10^6 \exp\left(\frac{-20820}{T_g}\right), \quad (2.8)$$

$$82 \quad K_3 = 7.1 \times 10^{10} \exp\left(\frac{-450}{T_g}\right), \quad (2.9)$$

$$83 \quad K_{-3} = 1.7 \times 10^{11} \exp\left(\frac{-24560}{T_g}\right), \quad (2.10)$$

84  
85 In this study, the effects of OH and H radicals in Eq. (2.4) were ignored. The following equation, proposed by  
86 Westenberg [34], was employed to calculate the mass fraction of the O radical in Eq. (2.4):

87

$$88 \quad Y_O = \frac{M_O}{\rho_g} \left( \rho_g \frac{Y_{O_2}}{M_{O_2}} \right)^{0.5} \frac{3.97 \times 10^5}{T_g^{0.5}} \exp\left(-\frac{31090}{T_g}\right). \quad (2.11)$$

89

### 90 2.1.2. Prompt NO model

91 To calculate NO production by the prompt NO mechanism, the following formula, proposed by De Soete [30],  
92 was employed:

93

$$94 \quad \frac{d[NO]}{dt} = 1.2 \times 10^7 X_{O_2}^b X_{N_2} X_{fuel} \exp\left(\frac{-2.512 \times 10^5}{RT_g}\right) \frac{P_g}{RT_g}, \quad (2.12)$$

95

96 where  $X_i$  denotes the mole fraction of species  $i$  and  $b$  is expressed by the following formulae:

97

$$98 \quad b = 1.0, \left( X_{O_2} < 4.1 \times 10^{-3} \right), \quad (2.13)$$

$$99 \quad b = -3.95 - 0.9 \ln X_{O_2}, \left( 4.1 \times 10^{-3} \leq X_{O_2} < 1.11 \times 10^{-2} \right), \quad (2.14)$$

$$100 \quad b = -0.35 - 0.1 \ln X_{O_2}, \left( 1.11 \times 10^{-2} \leq X_{O_2} < 3.0 \times 10^{-2} \right), \quad (2.15)$$

$$101 \quad b = 0, \left( 3.0 \times 10^{-2} \leq X_{O_2} \right). \quad (2.16)$$

102

### 103 **2.1.3. Models for NO originating from volatile matter**

104 NO production originating from volatile matter is considered to be very important in pulverized coal combustion  
105 fields. For NO production originating from volatile matter, the model proposed by De Soete [30] is commonly  
106 employed in numerical simulations of coal combustion fields [21-28]. However, in the detailed chemical reaction  
107 simulation conducted by Pederson et al. [35], it was found that the overall reaction rate in the model proposed by De  
108 Soete tends to underestimate NO concentration in a low oxygen concentration environment. Therefore, in this study,  
109 three models for fuel NO production originating from volatile matter, i.e., the models proposed by De Soete [30]  
110 (Model 1), Chen et al. [31] (Model 2) and Mitchell et al. [32] (Model 3), were employed. The differences between  
111 the NO formation characteristics of these models were compared in detail.

112

#### 113 **2.1.3.1 De Soete's model (Model 1)**

114 Figure 1 (a) shows a schematic of the model proposed by De Soete [30]. In this model, HCN evolved from coal  
115 particles as volatile matter is consumed by two competing reactions: one producing NO by reaction with O<sub>2</sub> and the  
116 other producing N<sub>2</sub> by reaction with NO. The reaction rates can be expressed by the following equations:

117

$$118 \quad \frac{d[HCN]}{dt} = -1.0 \times 10^{10} X_{HCN} X_{O_2}^b \exp\left(\frac{-2.805 \times 10^5}{RT_g}\right) \frac{P_g}{RT_g}, \quad (2.17)$$

$$119 \quad \frac{d[HCN]}{dt} = -3.0 \times 10^{12} X_{HCN} X_{NO} \exp\left(\frac{-2.512 \times 10^5}{RT_g}\right) \frac{P_g}{RT_g}, \quad (2.18)$$

120

121 where  $b$  can be calculated by using Eqs. (2.13) – (2.16).

122

#### 123 **2.1.3.2 Chen et al.'s model (Model 2)**

124 Chen et al. conducted chemical reaction simulations with elementary kinetics and compared simulation results with  
125 experimental data [31]. They found that employing the following equations, instead of the original equations from  
126 De Soete, provided a better prediction:

127

$$128 \quad \frac{d[HCN]}{dt} = -1.5 \times 10^{10} X_{HCN} X_{O_2}^b \exp\left(\frac{-2.646 \times 10^5}{RT_g}\right) \frac{P_g}{RT_g}, \quad (2.19)$$



$$\frac{d[HCN]}{dt} = -1.1 \times 10^{12} X_{HCN} X_{NO} \exp\left(\frac{-2.454 \times 10^5}{RT_g}\right) \frac{P_g}{RT_g}. \quad (2.20)$$

130

### 131 2.1.3.3 Mitchell et al.'s model (Model 3)

132 Figure 1 (b) shows a schematic of the model proposed by Mitchell et al. [32]. In this model, HCN is converted to  
 133 NH<sub>3</sub>, followed by the reactions of NH<sub>3</sub> to NO and N<sub>2</sub>. The reaction rates are expressed by the following equations:

134

$$\frac{d[HCN]}{dt} = -1.94 \times 10^{15} X_{HCN} X_{O_2} \exp\left(\frac{-3.282 \times 10^5}{RT_g}\right) \frac{P_g}{RT_g}, \quad (2.21)$$

$$\frac{d[NH_3]}{dt} = \frac{-3.48 \times 10^{20} X_{NH_3} X_{O_2} \exp(-4.186 \times 10^5 / RT_g)}{1 + 6.90 \times 10^{-6} X_{O_2} \exp(1.758 \times 10^5 / RT_g)} \frac{P_g}{RT_g}, \quad (2.22)$$

$$\frac{d[NH_3]}{dt} = -6.22 \times 10^{14} X_{NH_3} X_{NO} \exp\left(\frac{-2.302 \times 10^5}{RT_g}\right) \frac{P_g}{RT_g}, \quad (2.23)$$

$$\frac{d[HCN]}{dt} = 1.00 \times 10^4 X_{NO} X_{CmHb} \frac{P_g}{RT_g}, \quad (2.24)$$

139

140 where  $X_{CmHb}$  in Eq. (2.24) is the mole fraction of gaseous hydrocarbons, which is represented by CH<sub>3</sub> [36]. In this  
 141 study, the concentration of gaseous hydrocarbons could not be calculated in detail because the volatile matter was  
 142 treated as a mixture of postulated substances; therefore, its detailed reaction chemistry of the volatile matter could  
 143 not be effectively quantified. However, it was considered that the concentration of gaseous hydrocarbons is  
 144 correlated with that of volatile matter. Therefore, the concentration of hydrocarbons was assumed to be proportional  
 145 to that of volatile matter according to the following formula:

146

$$X_{CmHb} = C_l X_{VM}, \quad (2.25)$$

148

149 where  $X_{VM}$  is the mole fraction of volatile matter, and  $C_l$  is a constant. The value of  $C_l$  was set to  $1 \times 10^{-2}$  in this study.  
 150 The effect of the value of  $C_l$  on NO formation is discussed in the section 3.1.

151

### 152 2.1.4. Model for NO production originating from char particles

153 To calculate NO production originating from char particles, the following formula, proposed by Lockwood et al.

154 [37], was employed:

155

$$156 \quad S_{NO,Ch} = -\frac{dC}{dt} m_{N,Ch} F_c \eta_{N,Char}, \quad (2.26)$$

157

158 where  $\eta_{N,Char}$  is the conversion factor of the nitrogen in the char to NO; it was set to 0.2 in this study.

159

### 160 **2.1.5. Model for NO reduction by char particles**

161 The NO-char reaction has been investigated by various researchers [38-41] and is believed to have a large effect on  
162 NO reduction in a pulverized coal combustion environment. The rate of NO reduction by char can be calculated by  
163 the following equation:

164

$$165 \quad \frac{d[NO]}{dt} = -A_{re} X_{NO} \exp\left(-\frac{E_{re}}{RT_p}\right) S_p \frac{P_g}{RT_g}, \quad (2.27)$$

166

167 where  $E_{re}$  was set to  $1.33 \times 10^6$  J/mol (after Aarna et al. [38], who obtained this value by averaging the data from  
168 various studies).  $S_p$  is the external surface area of char particles per unit volume ( $m^2/m^3$ ). The pre exponential factor,  
169  $A_{re}$ , is was to  $2.0 \times 10^4$  m/s in this study.

170

### 171 **2.2. Comparison of NO production/reduction rates between the three volatile fuel NO models**

172 Before conducting the numerical simulation, the NO production/reduction rates of the three volatile fuel NO  
173 models as functions of the  $O_2$  mole fraction, the NO mole fraction, and the gas temperature were examined, as  
174 shown in Fig. 2. The basic conditions for the calculations were: HCN concentration, 3000 ppm; volatile matter  
175 concentration (VM), 10%; NO concentration, 100 ppm; and gas temperature, 1800 K. As can be understood from  
176 Eqs. (2.17) – (2.24) and Fig. 1, the volatile fuel NO mechanisms have both production and reduction rates. The  $NH_3$   
177 concentration is required to calculate the NO production and reduction rates in Model 3 (Mitchell et al.), whereas it  
178 is not required for Models 1 and 2. However, the  $NH_3$  consumption rates for production and reduction (Eqs. (2.22)  
179 and (2.23)) are much higher than the consumption rate of HCN (Eq. (2.21)). Consequently, the concentration of  $NH_3$   
180 is much lower than that of HCN [35]. Considering this fact, the steady-state approximation [42] for  $NH_3$  was

181 adopted in this calculation, i.e., it was assumed that the overall NO production and reduction rates were controlled  
182 by the HCN consumption rate (Eq. (2.21)). This steady-state approximation was only adapted to the calculation for  
183 Fig. 2, and was not adapted to the numerical simulation for the coal combustion field in the 760 kW test furnace.  
184 The ratio of the NO production rate to the NO reduction rate was calculated by using Eqs. (2.22) and (2.23) with  
185 same value of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration. In Fig. 2, the solid and dotted lines indicate the production and reduction rates,  
186 respectively, for Model 1 (blue), Model 2 (green), and Model 3 (red). If the solid line is higher than the dotted line,  
187 the net NO production rate is positive. Conversely, if the dotted line is higher than the solid line, the net NO  
188 production rate is negative. In Figs. 2 (a) and 2 (b), the NO production/reduction rates as a function of the  $\text{O}_2$  mole  
189 fraction at different gas temperatures are compared. The net NO production rate increases with increasing  $\text{O}_2$  mole  
190 fraction and switches from negative to positive at a certain  $\text{O}_2$  mole fraction (intersection point of the solid and  
191 dotted lines) for all three models. Throughout the range of  $\text{O}_2$  mole fractions in Figs. 2 (a) and 2 (b), the order of the  
192 net NO production rate is Model 1 < Model 2 < Model 3. However, there is no significant difference between the  
193 models in terms of the overall trend. In Figs. 2 (c) and 2 (d), the NO production/reduction rates as a function of the  
194 NO mole fraction at different  $\text{O}_2$  concentrations are compared. For all three models, the NO reduction rate increases  
195 with increasing NO mole fraction. As can be understood from Eqs. (2.17) and (2.19), the NO production rate for  
196 Models 1 and 2 are unchanged with NO mole fraction, whereas the NO production rate decreases with increasing  
197 NO mole fraction. However, there is no significant difference between the models in terms of the overall trend.  
198 Throughout the range of NO mole fractions in Figs. 2 (c) and 2 (d), the order of the net NO production rate is Model  
199 1 < Model 2 < Model 3. Figures 2 (e) and 2 (f) show the NO production/reduction rates as functions of gas  
200 temperature at different  $\text{O}_2$  concentrations. There is a significant difference between Model 3 and Models 1 and 2  
201 terms of the overall trend. There is no significant difference between the shapes of the curves of NO production and  
202 reduction rates for Models 1 and 2. Consequently, the NO production and reduction curves do not intersect for  
203 Models 1 and 2 in Fig. 2 (f), i.e., the net NO production rates for Models 1 and 2 are negative throughout the gas  
204 temperature range in Fig 2 (f). On the other hand, the shapes of the curves of NO production and reduction rates for  
205 Model 3 are totally different. Consequently, there is an obvious intersection point between the NO production and  
206 reduction rate curves for Model 3 in Fig. 2 (f), i.e., the net NO production rate switches from negative to positive at  
207 around 1350 K with the increase in gas temperature. This large difference between the models in terms of the overall  
208 trend with gas temperature change causes the significant difference in NO concentration distribution in the furnace,

209 as discussed later. The order of the net NO production rate at low gas temperature is Model 3 < Model 1 < Model 2,  
 210 whereas that at high gas temperature it is Model 1 < Model 2 < Model 3.

211

### 212 2.3. Numerical methods

213 Other than the NO formation model, the models used in this study for numerical simulation of the pulverized coal  
 214 combustion field were the same as those of Hashimoto et al. [43]. The models for the main phenomena are  
 215 summarized in Table 2.

216 The gas-phase time-averaged continuity equation and conservation equations of momentum, turbulent kinetic  
 217 energy, dissipation, enthalpy and species are

218

$$219 \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (\rho_g u_i) = S_c, \quad (2.28)$$

$$220 \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (\rho_g u_i \phi) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left( \Gamma_\phi \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x_i} \right) + S_\phi + S_{p\phi}, \quad (2.29)$$

221

222 where  $S_c$  denotes the mass source term from the representative particles to the gas phase.  $\phi$  denotes the generalized  
 223 variables expressing the fluid velocity components  $u_i$ , the turbulent kinetic energy  $k$ , the rate of eddy dissipation  $\varepsilon$ ,  
 224 the fluid enthalpy  $h$  and the mass fraction of chemical species  $Y_i$ .  $\Gamma_\phi$  denotes the turbulent exchange coefficient, and  
 225  $S_f$  and  $S_{p\phi}$  represent the gas-phase source terms that exist in addition to the convection and diffusion terms and the  
 226 particle-phase source terms, respectively. The continuity and momentum equations were solved using the  
 227 pressure-implicit with splitting of operators (PISO) algorithm [50].

228 The mass of the representative coal particles  $m_p$  was calculated using the following equation by considering the  
 229 evaporation of moisture, the evolution of volatile matter by devolatilization and the evolution of carbon monoxide  
 230 by the char combustion from the particles:

231

$$232 \quad \frac{dm_p}{dt} = \frac{dm_{moist}}{dt} + \frac{dm_{vola}}{dt} + \frac{dm_{char}}{dt} \quad (2.30)$$

233

234 where,  $m_{moist}$ ,  $m_{vola}$  and  $m_{char}$  are the mass of moisture, volatile matter and fixed carbon in the particle, respectively.

235 The decrease rates of  $m_{moist}$ ,  $m_{vola}$  and  $m_{char}$  were calculated by the modified TDP model [43] and the char

236 combustion model proposed by Field et al. [47] with the char combustion zone transition proposed by Essenhigh et  
 237 al. [47], as listed in Table 2.

238 The equation of motion for the representative coal particles is given by

239

$$240 \quad m_p \frac{du_{pi}}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} C_d \rho_p A_p |u_{fi} - u_{pi}| (u_{fi} - u_{pi}), \quad (2.31)$$

$$241 \quad C_d = 24(1 + 0.15 \text{Re}_p^{0.687}) / \text{Re}_p, \quad (2.32)$$

$$242 \quad \text{Re}_p = D_p |u_{fi} - u_{pi}| / \nu. \quad (2.33)$$

243

244 The particle temperature  $T_p$  was calculated using the following equation by considering the heat transfer due to  
 245 convection, radiation, heat loss due to the evaporation of moisture and the devolatilization reaction in the coal  
 246 particle, and heat gain due to char combustion:

247

$$248 \quad m_p c_{p,p} \frac{dT_p}{dt} = -A_s h (T_p - T_g) + A_s \varepsilon_p \sigma (\Theta_R^4 - T_p^4) + \Delta h_{lat} \frac{dm_{p,w}}{dt} + \Delta h_{dev} \frac{dm_{p,v}}{dt} + \dot{q}_{char}, \quad (2.34)$$

$$249 \quad h = k_g Z (2 + 0.6 \text{Re}_p^{1/2} \text{Pr}^{1/3}) / (e^Z - 1) D_p, \quad (2.35)$$

$$250 \quad Z = -c_{p,g} (dm_p/dt) / \pi D_p k_g (2 + 0.6 \text{Re}_p^{1/2} \text{Pr}^{1/3}), \quad (2.36)$$

$$251 \quad \Theta_R = (I/4\sigma)^{1/4}. \quad (2.37)$$

252

253 The absorptivities of the coal particles and wall were assumed to be 0.85 and 0.4, respectively. Also, the absorption  
 254 coefficient of the gas was set at 0.075. The interaction of the conserved properties between the gas phase and the  
 255 coal particles was calculated by the particle-source-in cell (PSI-Cell) technique [51].

256 In this study, the modified tabulated-devolatilization-process (TDP) model [43] was employed for devolatilization  
 257 of the coal particle. The FLASHCHAIN model [52, 53] was used to produce the devolatilization database for the  
 258 TDP model.

259 Gaseous combustion between the volatile matter and air was calculated using a combined model of the kinetics and  
 260 eddy dissipation models [46]. The chemical mechanism consists of the following global reactions:

261



264

265 In this study, the parameters proposed by Westbrook et al. [54] for  $C_7H_8$  oxidation were employed for the rate  
266 parameters regarding the kinetics in Eq. (2.38). The parameters proposed by Hautman et al. [55] for CO oxidation  
267 were employed for the rate parameters regarding the kinetics in Eq. (2.39).

268

#### 269 **2.4. Computational domain and conditions**

270 The test furnace studied here is located at the Energy Engineering Research Laboratory of CRIEPI, in which an  
271 advanced low-NO<sub>x</sub> burner (CI- $\alpha$  burner [3]) with a coal combustion capacity of about 100 kg/h is installed. The  
272 furnace is a water-cooled furnace made of steel with refractory materials placed on the inside wall. The diameter and  
273 length of the furnace are 0.85 m and 8 m, respectively. The configuration of the computational domain is shown in  
274 Fig. 3. The domain was designed to match the actual configuration accurately. The computational domain was half  
275 of the furnace, and a periodic condition was applied in the azimuthal direction. Combustion air was injected into the  
276 furnace through the burner and staged combustion air ports located 3.0 m from the burner outlet. The air passing  
277 through the burner was divided into primary, secondary, and tertiary air. The primary air, which carries pulverized  
278 coal, had straight motion. The secondary and tertiary air had strong swirling motions. The swirl vane angles for the  
279 secondary and tertiary air were set to 81 deg. and 63 deg., respectively, which are the optimum values for  
280 bituminous coal (these values are zero when the swirl force is zero).

281 The operating conditions of the furnace in the simulation were set to correspond with those in our experiment [56].  
282 The thermal input of the coal combustion test furnace was 760 kW (the feed rate for bituminous coal was  
283 approximately 100 kg/h). The excess air ratio was 1.24, and the O<sub>2</sub> mole fraction at the furnace outlet was 4.0%. The  
284 staged combustion air ratio was set to 30%. The mass ratio of the pulverized coal (dry base) to the primary air was  
285 1:2.2, and the mass ratio of secondary air to tertiary air was 1:6. The temperature of the primary air was set to 353 K,  
286 and that of the secondary and tertiary air was 598 K. Regarding the boundary condition on the wall, the temperature  
287 outside the furnace was assumed to be 308 K and thermal resistance was set to 0.04 (m<sup>2</sup> s K)/J.

288 The properties of the coals are listed in Table 3. The size distributions of coal particles used in the experiment [56]

289 are shown in the Fig. 4. It was assumed that the pulverized coal consisted of particles with initial diameters of 5, 20,  
290 40, 60, 80, and 100  $\mu\text{m}$ . The mass fractions of the coal particles were set to correspond with the actual particle size  
291 distribution in the experiment.

292 Four cases with different sub-bituminous coal mixing ratios were performed in this study, as listed in Table 4.  
293 Numerical simulations with sub-bituminous coal mixing ratios of 0%, 25%, 75% and 100% were conducted. The  
294 total thermal input was set at 760 kW for all cases, as described above. For each case, the calculations listed in Table  
295 1 were conducted for the three models. Therefore, a total of 12 calculations were conducted.

296

### 297 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 298 **3.1. Effect of fuel NO model**

299 Figure 5 shows the simulation results of the gas velocity vectors, gas temperatures and  $\text{O}_2$  mole fractions for  
300 Cases 1 and 4. For the gas velocity vectors, the colors in (a-1) and (a-2) indicate axial velocity. Also shown are the  
301 distributions of the gas temperature measured by the thermocouple and  $\text{O}_2$  mole fraction measured during the  
302 experiments by a gas analyzer with a suction probe [56]. The radiative heat loss from the thermocouple was not  
303 corrected because of the difficulty of estimating the furnace wall temperature. The tendency of the simulation results  
304 is consistent with that of the experimental results. For instance, due to the large flame lift-off, the temperatures near  
305 the burner exit for both the simulation and experimental results in Case 4 (Fig. 5 (b-2) and (c-2)) are markedly lower  
306 than that in Case 1 (Fig. 5 (b-1) and (c-1)). Similarly, the oxygen mole fractions near the burner exit for both the  
307 simulation and experimental results in Case 4 (Fig. 5 (d-2) and (e-2)) are high, whereas that in Case 1 (Fig. 5 (d-1)  
308 and (e-1)) is low. These marked differences between the gas temperatures and oxygen mole fractions in Cases 1 and  
309 4 are due to the large flame lift-off for Case 4, as discussed in detail in Ref. [43]. It should be noted that because of  
310 the large flame lift-off for Case 4, there is a large difference between the gas velocity vector fields in Cases 1 and 4.

311 Figure 6 shows the effect of  $C_I$  in Eq. (2.25) for Model 3 on NO mole fraction at the furnace exit. The NO mole  
312 fraction at the furnace exit decreases with increasing  $C_I$ . Even though the absolute predicted values of the NO mole  
313 fraction with  $C_I = 1$  for Case 1 and 2 agree well with the measured data, the simulation with  $C_I = 1$  could not  
314 reproduce the increase in NO mole fraction with increasing Wara coal mixing ratio. The simulation with  $C_I = 1 \times 10^{-4}$   
315 overestimates NO mole fraction too much. Therefore,  $C_I = 1 \times 10^{-2}$  was used in Model 3 in all of the following  
316 discussion.

317 Figure 7 shows the NO mole fraction at the furnace exit as a function of Wara coal mixing ratio. In addition to the  
318 simulation results from the three different volatile fuel NO models, the measurement results of the experiment [56]  
319 are also shown. The NO mole fraction at the furnace exit of the experiment gradually increases with an increase in  
320 the Wara coal mixing ratio. The NO mole fractions for Models 2 and 3 increase with increasing Wara coal mixing  
321 ratio, whereas that for Model 1 decreases as this ratio increases. If only Fig. 7 is considered, it may appear that  
322 Model 2 yields better results than the other models do. However, this appearance may change if the distribution of  
323 the NO mole fraction in the furnace is also considered, as discussed below.

324 Figure 8 shows the distribution of the NO mole fraction on the central axis of the furnace. Model 3 yields the best  
325 NO mole fraction of the models. Although overestimations of the NO mole fraction at  $Z = 0.1$  m by Model 3 are  
326 observed for (a) Case 1 (100% Newlands) and (b) Case 2 (75% Newlands + 25% Wara), the overall discrepancy for  
327 Model 3 is smaller than that of the other models. Models 1 and 2 underestimate the NO mole fraction at the burner  
328 zone (from  $Z = 0$  m to 3 m).

329 Figures 9 show the two dimensional distributions of the NO mole fraction for Cases 1 and 4. From the figure, it is  
330 evident that Model 3 yields a better NO mole fraction distribution than the other models do. A typical example of  
331 this tendency can be observed in the region bounded by the white dotted line in Fig. 9 (a-1), (b-1) and (c-1). In the  
332 experimental and simulation results of Model 3, the NO mole fraction in this region is high; whereas for Models 1  
333 and 2, it is low. This significant differences between the NO mole fractions of the different models can be explained  
334 by the differences in the volatile fuel NO production/reduction characteristics shown in Fig. 2. In this region, the  $O_2$   
335 mole fraction is low (Fig. 9 (e-1)) and the gas temperature is high (Fig. 9 (f-1)). As can be seen in Figs. 2 (a) and 2  
336 (b), the net NO production rate by the volatile fuel NO mechanism strongly depends on the  $O_2$  mole fraction, i.e.,  
337 the net NO production rate by the volatile fuel NO mechanism decreases with increasing  $O_2$  mole fraction; this  
338 overall tendency is the same for all three models. However, among the models, there are significant difference in the  
339 overall gas temperature trends, as shown in Figs. 2 (e) and 2 (f). The net NO production for Model 3 can be positive  
340 if the temperature is high, even if the  $O_2$  mole fraction is low, as shown in Fig. 2 (f). In contrast, that for Models 1  
341 and 2 cannot be positive. In other words, for Model 1 and 2, whether the net NO production rate is positive or  
342 negative is determined almost exclusively by the  $O_2$  mole fraction; whereas for Model 3, it is determined not only by  
343  $O_2$ , but also by gas temperature. This difference between the dependences of the net NO production by the volatile  
344 fuel NO mechanism on gas temperature is the main cause for the significant differences between the predicted NO



345 mole fraction distributions. In the region bounded by the white dotted line in Fig. 9, the O<sub>2</sub> mole fraction is low (Fig.  
346 9 (e-1)) and the gas temperature is high (Fig. 9 (f-1)); therefore, significant differences between the models in terms  
347 of NO mole fraction were observed in this region. Similarly, significant differences among the models in terms of  
348 NO mole fractions in the region bounded by the white dotted line are evident in Fig. 9 (a-2), (b-2) and (c-2). In the  
349 experimental and simulation results of Model 3, the NO mole fraction in this region is high; whereas for Models 1  
350 and 2, it is low. The NO mole fraction around the central axis at  $Z > 0.75$  m is low for all of the simulation results,  
351 whereas for the experimental results, it is high. However, the simulation results of Model 3 are closer to the  
352 experimental results than that of the other models.

353 Figure 10 shows the rates of NO production or reduction by each mechanism on the central axis of the furnace for  
354 Case 1. The contributions of the Zeldovich and prompt NO mechanisms to NO production or reduction of NO are  
355 quite small. On the other hand, the contribution of volatile fuel NO production is very large compared with that of  
356 the other mechanisms. This is why the differences in modeled volatile fuel NO strongly affect the distribution of the  
357 NO mole fraction in the furnace. The NO production rate by volatile fuel NO mechanism in Model 3 is greater than  
358 that for the other two models. Although the NO reduction rate by volatile fuel NO mechanism in Model 3 is also  
359 greater than that for the other two models, the NO mole fraction steeply increases from  $Z = 0.6$  to  $Z = 0.75$  because  
360 of the high volatile fuel NO production rate. The rate of NO reduction by char particles in the results of Model 3 is  
361 higher than that for the other two models. This is because the NO concentration in the results of Model 3 is higher  
362 than that for the other two models.

363 As discussed above, the model proposed by Mitchell et al. can reproduce the tendency of the measurement results  
364 better than the other two models. However, there are some quantitative discrepancies between the simulation results  
365 of the model by Mitchell et al. and the experimental results, as observed in Figs. 8 and 9. The main reason of the  
366 discrepancies is considered to be the overestimation of NO production rate in high oxygen concentration region. For  
367 instance, the calculated NO mole fraction near the furnace wall in Fig 9, in which the O<sub>2</sub> concentration is higher than  
368 that near the central axis, is higher than the measured NO mole fraction. The higher NO production rate in the  
369 condition of high oxygen concentration for Model 3 compared to other two models can be also confirmed in Fig. 2  
370 (a) and (b). Further improvement of the models is required to predict the NO production/reduction characteristics  
371 more precisely.

372

373

### 374 **3.2. Cause of differences between NO conversion ratios of two coals**

375 In Fig. 7, NO emission increases with increasing Wara coal mixing ratio. As previously mentioned, a large portion  
376 of the NO emitted from a furnace exit originates from fuel NO mechanisms. Therefore, NO emission depends  
377 strongly on the amount of fuel nitrogen fed into the furnace. For this reason, the conversion ratio of fuel nitrogen to  
378 NO is widely used as an indicator of the combustion performance of coal against the NO emission. The conversion  
379 ratio is defined as follows:

380

$$381 \quad CR_{NO} = \frac{EX_{NO}}{F_N} \times 100, \quad (3.1)$$

382

383 where  $CR_{NO}$ ,  $EX_{NO}$  and  $F_N$  are the conversion ratio of fuel nitrogen to NO [%], the NO emission rate at the furnace  
384 exit [mol/s], and the fuel nitrogen feeding rate from the burner [mol/s], respectively.

385 Figure 11 shows  $CR_{NO}$  as a function of the Wara coal mixing ratio, revealing that  $CR_{NO}$  increases with increasing  
386 Wara coal mixing ratio. This indicates that the NO formation/reduction characteristics are affected by the Wara coal  
387 mixing ratio. In this section, the cause of the increase in  $CR_{NO}$  is discussed using the simulation results of Model 3.

388 Figure 12 shows a comparison of the two-dimensional distributions of net NO production/reduction rate, NO mole  
389 fraction, gas temperature, and O<sub>2</sub> mole fraction for Cases 1 and 4 on the cross section at the center of the furnace.  
390 The main gas flow patterns are indicated by the black arrows in the figures. The position of the flame front, which is  
391 located at the position where the gas temperature steeply increases, is also indicated by solid white lines. It is found  
392 that the position of the flame front for Case 4 is markedly different from that for Case 1. Due to the large flame  
393 lift-off, the distance between the flame front and burner exit for Case 4 is larger than that for Case 1. For both cases,  
394 a region with a high net NO production rate is accompanied by the flame front (Fig. 12 (a-1) and (a-2)). In Fig. 12  
395 (a-1), for Case 1, there is a region with a high net NO reduction rate immediately downstream of a region with a  
396 high net NO production rate. For Case 4, however, there is no region with high net NO reduction rate in downstream  
397 of a region with a high net NO production rate, as indicated in Fig. 12 (a-2). Necessary conditions for a high NO  
398 reduction rate are a high NO mole fraction, high gas temperature, and low oxygen mole fraction, as can be  
399 understood from Eqs. (2.22) and (2.23). The NO reduction rate increases with increases in  $X_{NO}$  and  $T_g$  in Eq. (2.23).  
400 However, when the oxygen mole fraction is high, the net NO production rate is also high because the NO production

401 rate, expressed by Eq. (2.22), becomes larger than the NO reduction rate, expressed by Eq. (2.23). For Case 1, all of  
402 the necessary conditions for a high NO reduction rate are met in the region with high net NO reduction, i.e., the  
403 conditions of a high NO mole fraction (Fig. 12 (b-1)), high gas temperature (Fig. 12 (c-1)), and low oxygen mole  
404 fraction (Fig. 12 (d-1)) are satisfied in the region bounded by the white dotted line. For Case 4, on the other hand,  
405 although the conditions of a high NO mole fraction (Fig. 12 (b-2)) and high gas temperature (Fig. 12 (c-2)) are  
406 satisfied, the condition of low oxygen mole fraction is not satisfied in the region bounded by white dotted lines (Fig.  
407 12 (d-2)), which is immediately downstream of the region with a high NO production rate. Whether or not the  
408 region with a high NO reduction rate exists is the main cause of the difference between  $CR_{NO}$  in Cases 1 and 4, as  
409 shown in Fig. 11.

410 From the above discussion, it was found that the formation of a region with a low oxygen mole fraction  
411 immediately downstream of a region with a high net NO production rate is the essential condition for low  $CR_{NO}$ .  
412 This finding should be considered in the development of low NOx burners and the optimization of operating  
413 conditions to reduce NOx emission.

414

#### 415 **4. Conclusions**

416 In this study, numerical simulations of the coal combustion field in a 760 kW test furnace were performed by  
417 employing three models for fuel NO formation to investigate the effect of fuel NO formation models on the  
418 prediction of NO formation/reduction characteristics. The results show significant differences between the NO  
419 concentration predictions of the three models. The model proposed by Mitchell et al. could reproduce the tendency  
420 of the measurement results better than the models proposed by De Soete and Chen et al. It was found that significant  
421 differences between the NO concentration predictions of the models resulted from differences between dependencies  
422 of the net NO production rate by the volatile fuel NO mechanism on the gas temperature in the different models.

423 Furthermore, the cause of the difference between the NO conversion ratios of bituminous coal and sub-bituminous  
424 coal that contains a high level of moisture was investigated using simulation results obtained using the model of  
425 Mitchell et al. It was concluded that the formation of a region with a low oxygen mole fraction immediately  
426 downstream of a region with a high net NO production rate is the essential condition for realizing a low NO  
427 conversion ratio.

428

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## Figure and table captions

Fig. 1. Schematics of reaction models for NO originating from volatile matter.

Fig. 2. Comparison of NO production/reduction rates between three volatile fuel NO models

Fig. 3. Computational domain.

Fig. 4. Diameter distribution of coal particles used in the experiment [56].

Fig. 5. Gas velocity vectors and distributions of gas temperature and O<sub>2</sub> mole fraction for Case 1 (100% Newlands) and Case 4 (100% Wara).

Fig. 6. Effect of  $C_l$  in Eq. (2.25) for Model 3 on NO mole fraction at furnace exit.

Fig. 7. NO mole fraction at furnace exit versus Wara coal mixing ratio.

Fig. 8. Distributions of NO mole fraction on central axis of furnace.

Fig. 9. Distributions of NO mole fraction for Case 1 (100% Newlands) and Case 4 (100% Wara).

Fig. 10. NO production/reduction rate on central axis of furnace (Case 1).

Fig. 11. NO<sub>x</sub> conversion ratio as versus Wara coal mixing ratio.

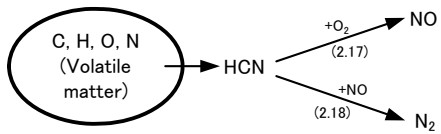
Fig. 12. Comparison of distributions of NO production/reduction rate, NO mole fraction, gas temperature and O<sub>2</sub> mole fraction for Case 1 (100% Newlands) and Case 4 (100% Wara).

Table 1 NO formation/reduction model.

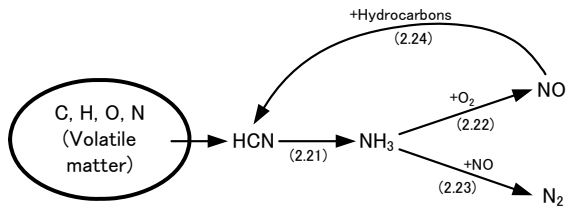
Table 2 Summary of mathematical models used in simulations.

Table 3. Coal properties.

Table 4. Cases investigated in this study.



(a) Model proposed by De Soete.

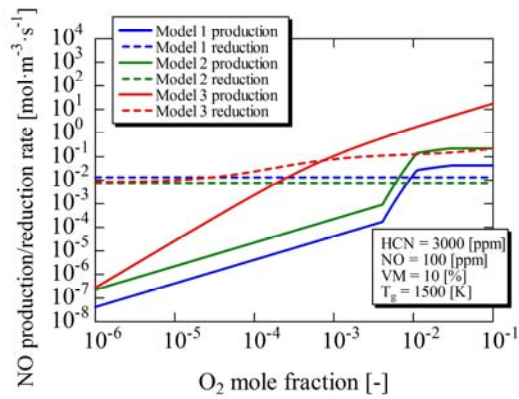


(b) Model proposed by Mitchell et al.

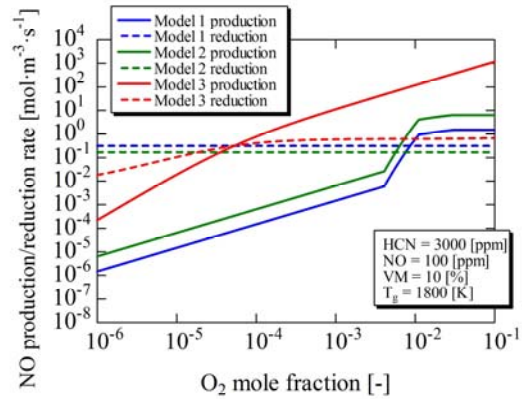
Fig. 1. Schematics of reaction models for NO

originating from volatile matter.

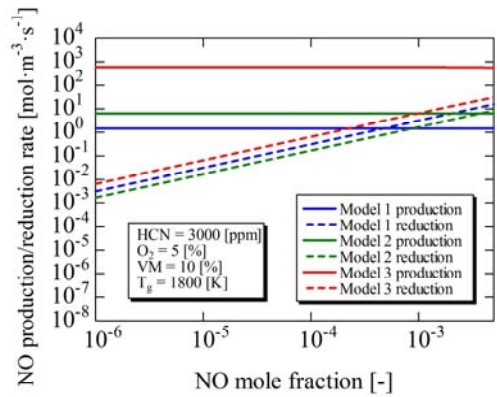




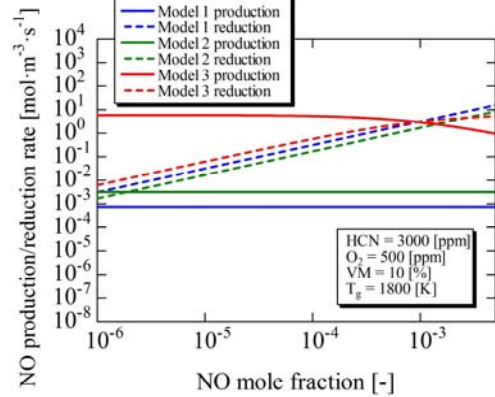
(a) NO production/reduction rate as a function of  $O_2$  mole fraction at temperature of 1500 K



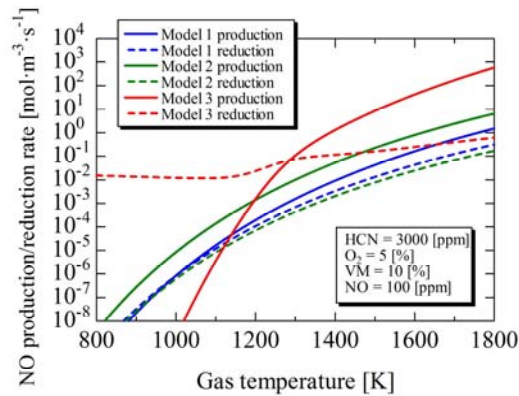
(b) NO production/reduction rate as a function of  $O_2$  mole fraction at temperature of 1800 K



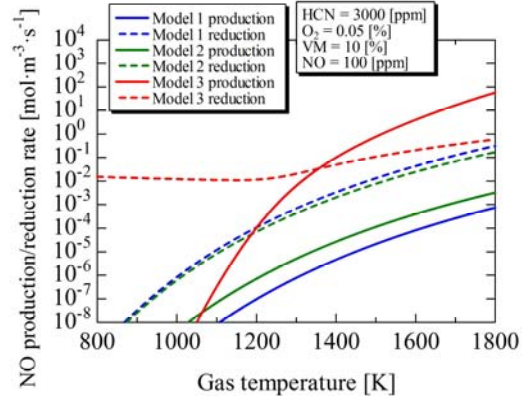
(c) NO production/reduction rate as a function of NO mole fraction at  $O_2$  concentration of 5%



(d) NO production/reduction rate as a function of NO mole fraction at  $O_2$  concentration of 500 ppm



(e) NO production/reduction rate as a function of gas temperature at  $O_2$  concentration of 5%



(f) NO production/reduction rate as a function of gas temperature at  $O_2$  concentration of 500 ppm

Fig. 2. Comparison of NO production/reduction rates between three volatile fuel NO models.

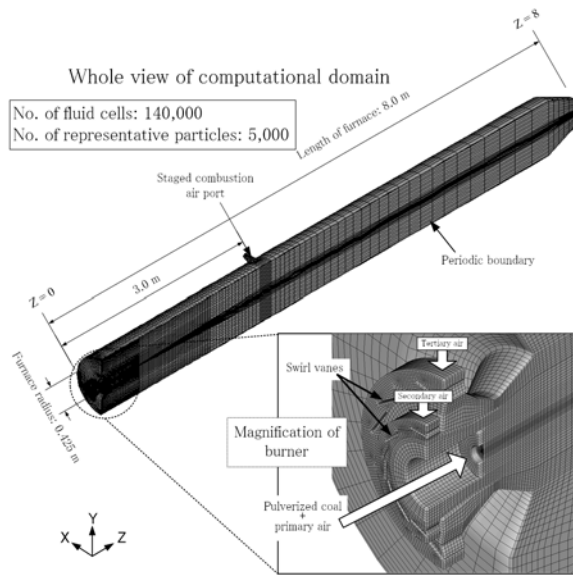


Fig. 3. Computational domain.

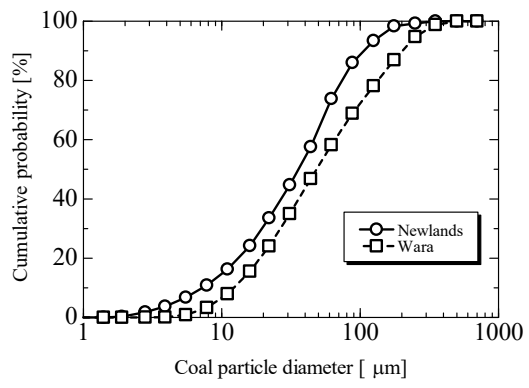


Fig. 4. Coal particle diameter distribution of used  
in the experiment [56].

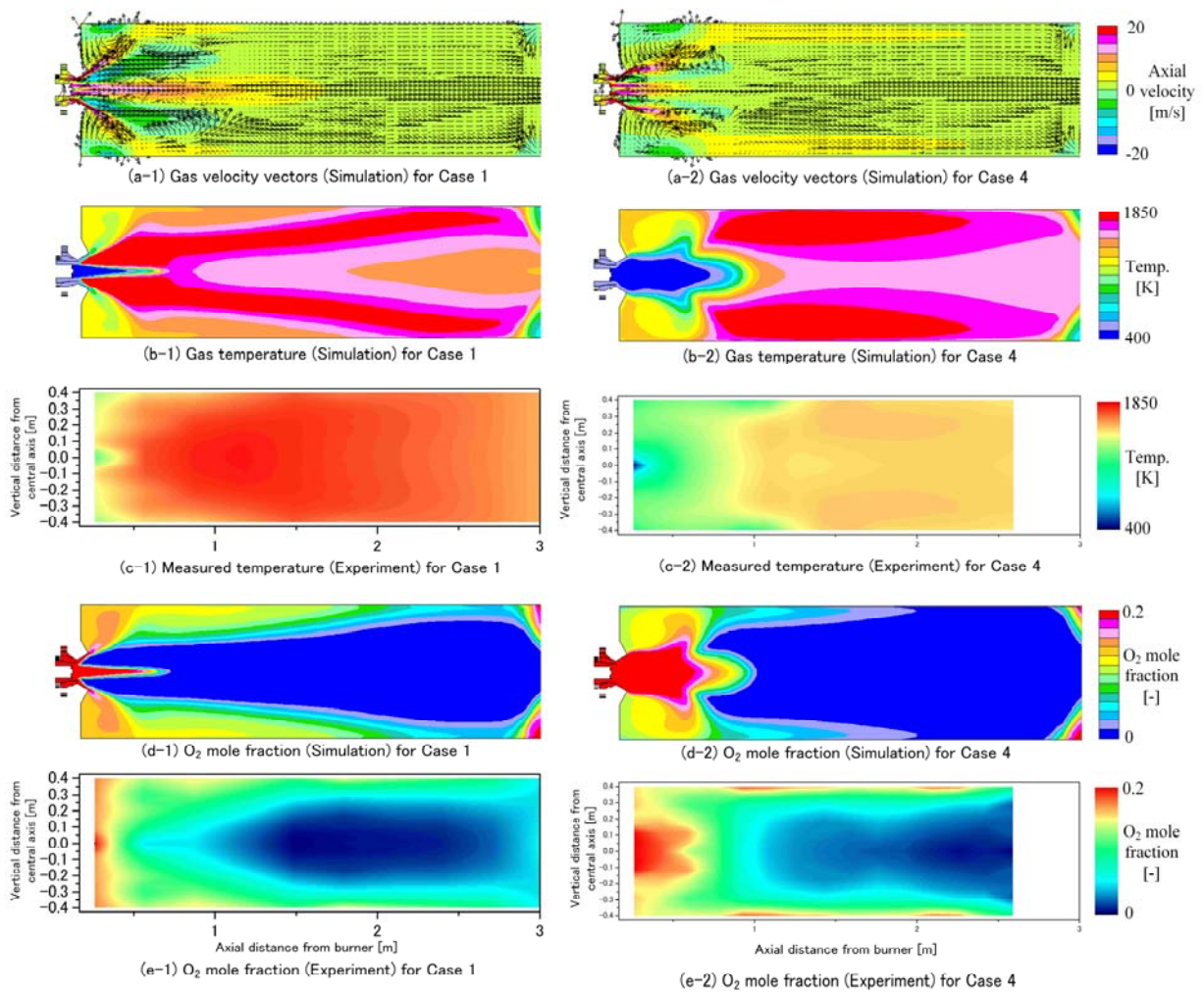


Fig. 5. Gas velocity vectors and distributions of gas temperature and O<sub>2</sub> mole fraction for Case 1 (100% Newlands) and Case 4 (100% Wara).

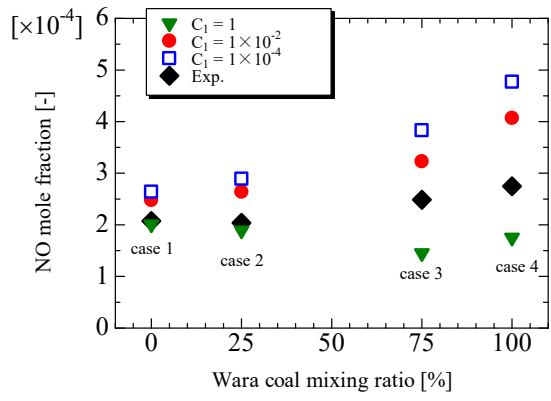


Fig. 6. Effect of  $C_1$  in Eq. (2.25) for Model 3 on

NO mole fraction at furnace exit.

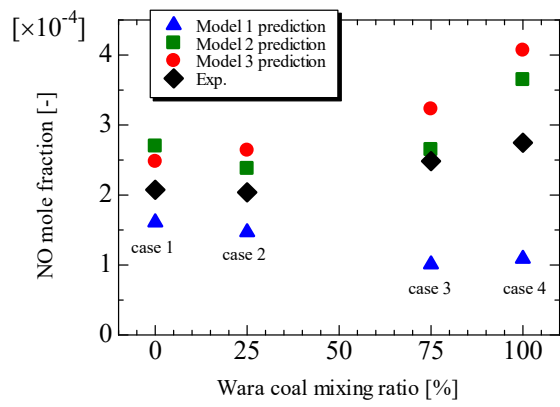


Fig. 7. NO mole fraction at furnace exit versus

Wara coal mixing ratio.

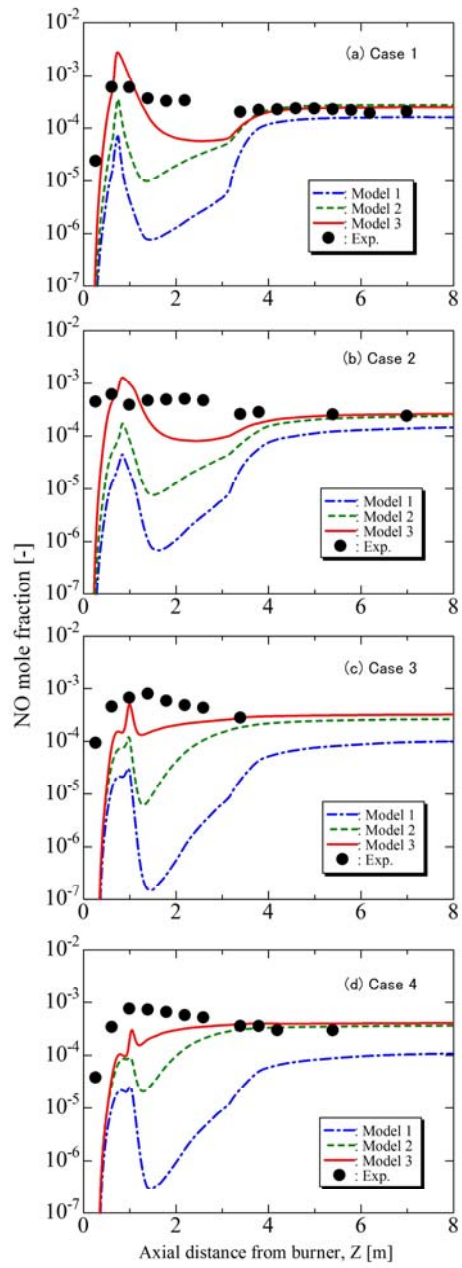


Fig. 8. Distributions of NO mole fraction on central axis of furnace.

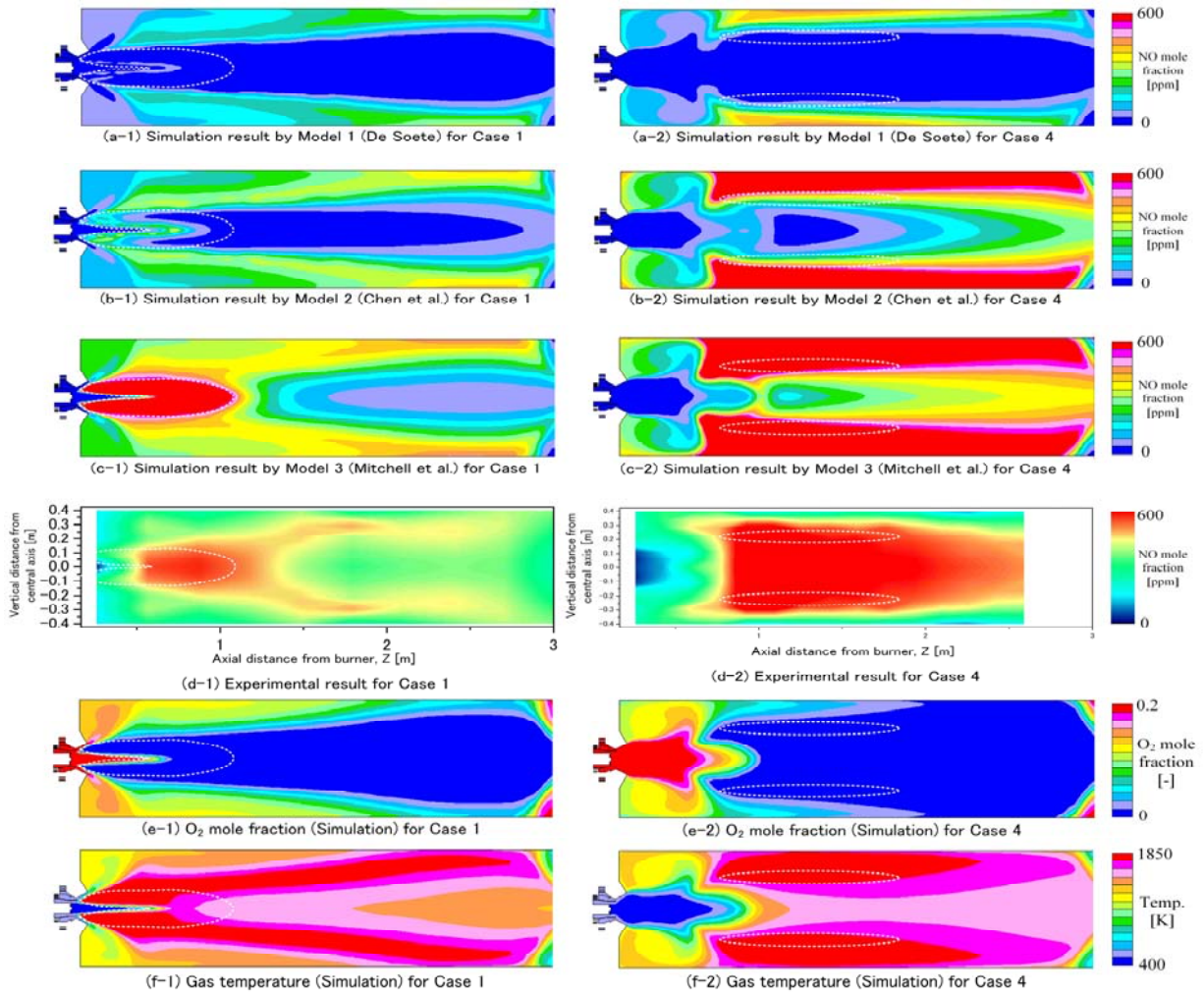


Fig. 9. Distributions of NO mole fraction for Case 1 (100% Newlands) and Case 4 (100% Wara).



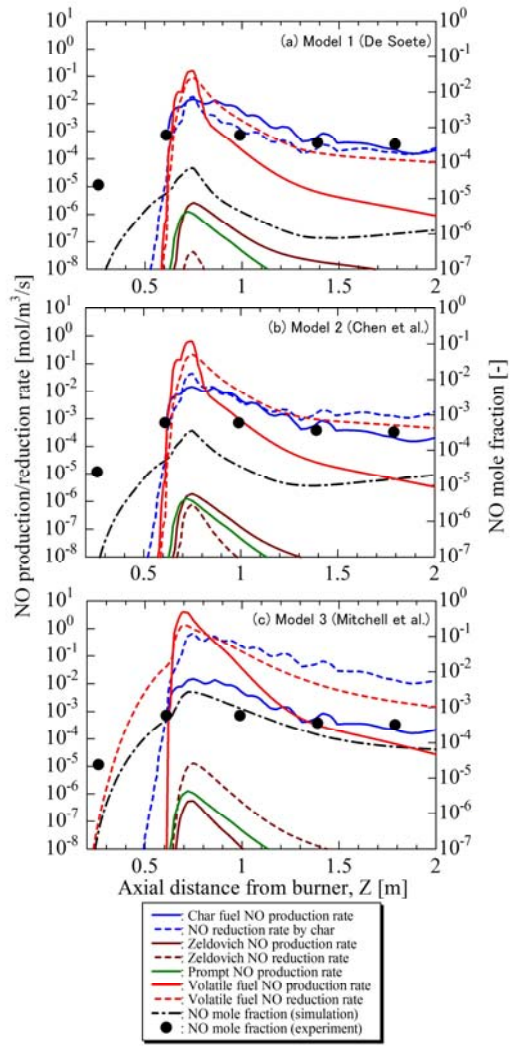


Fig. 10. NO production/reduction rate on central axis of furnace (Case 1).

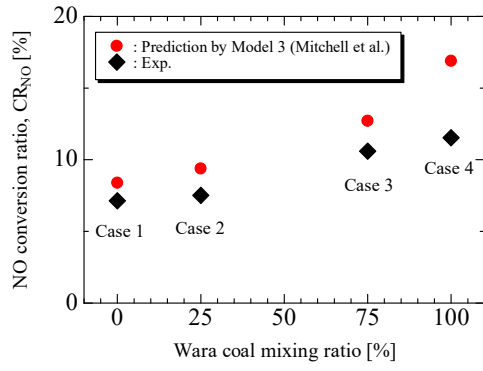


Fig. 11. NOx conversion ratio as versus Wara coal mixing ratio.

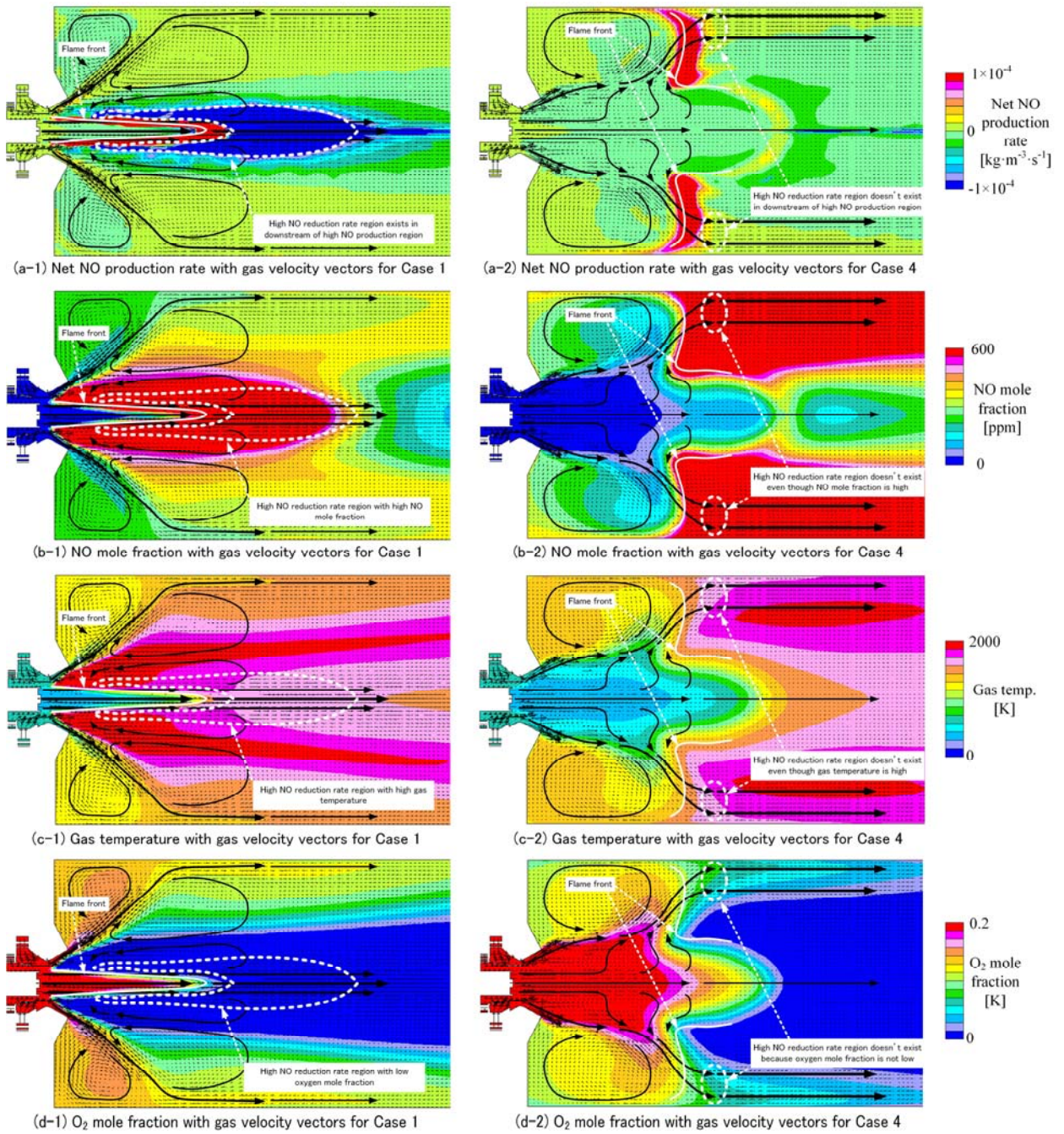


Fig. 12. Comparison of distributions of NO production/reduction rate, NO mole fraction, gas temperature and O<sub>2</sub> mole fraction for Case 1 (100% Newlands) and Case 4 (100% Wara).

Table 1. NO formation/reduction model.

Model No.	Zeldovich NO	Prompt NO	Volatile fuel NO	Char fuel NO
Model 1			Eqs. (2.17)&(2.18) (De Soete)	
Model 2	Eqs. (2.1)-(2.11)	Eqs. (2.12)-(2.16)	Eqs. (2.19)&(2.20) (Chen et al.)	Eqs. (2.26)&(2.27)
Model 3			Eqs. (2.21)-(2.25) (Mitchell et al.)	

Table 2. Summary of mathematical models used in simulations.

Phenomena	Mathematical model
Turbulence	RNG k- $\epsilon$ [44]
Thermal Radiation	Discrete Ordinate [45]
Devolatilization	Modified TDP model [43]
Gas phase combustion	Combined model of kinetics and eddy dissipation [46]
Char combustion	Field et al. [47]
Char combustion zone transition	Essenhigh et al. [48]
Particle's tracking	Lagrangian
Turbulence effect on particle motion	Stochastic [49]

Table 3. Coal properties.

Coal	Newlands	Wara
Proximate analysis [wt%]		
Moisture* (as-received)	2.5	41.2
Moisture (after pulverized)	0.0	40.1
Volatile matter*	26.6	51.4
Fixed carbon*	58.0	46.5
Ash*	15.4	2.1
Fuel ratio [-]	2.18	0.90
Ultimate analysis* [wt%]		
C	69.6	67.0
H	4.8	5.2
N	1.6	1.2
O	8.2	23.9
Combustible sulfur	0.41	0.63
Lower heating value (LHV)* [MJ/kg]	27.13	25.20
Mass fraction of particles [%]		
$D_p = 5 \mu\text{m}$	6.8	0.9
$D_p = 20 \mu\text{m}$	26.8	23.2
$D_p = 40 \mu\text{m}$	24.0	22.8
$D_p = 60 \mu\text{m}$	16.3	11.4
$D_p = 80 \mu\text{m}$	12.2	10.6
$D_p = 100 \mu\text{m}$	14.0	31.2

\*: Dry basis

Table 4. Cases investigated in this study.

Case No.	Coal feeding rate ratio on LHV basis (%)	
	Newlands coal	Wara coal
Case 1	100	0
Case 2	75	25
Case 3	25	75
Case 4	0	100