

# Passive autocatalytic recombination of hydrogen on a Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated metal foam: Experimental evaluation and CFD modelling

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## ABSTRACT

Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated Al foams were tested for the passive autocatalytic recombination of H<sub>2</sub>. The characterisation of the washcoat surface confirmed the uniform distribution of Pt and Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> over the entire washcoat surface. Transmission electron microscopy results revealed a slight increase in particle size from 3.8 to 6.2 nm after prolonged reaction. High H<sub>2</sub> conversions of 57–89% are achieved and the catalyst activity is maintained for >480 h on stream. The performance of the foam-based catalyst bed is similar to that of plates but surpasses that of catalyst pellets. Temperatures recorded at the hottest spots on the foam surface reach a maximum of only 393 °C at the highest H<sub>2</sub> inflow. Computational fluid dynamics simulations were performed on the actual foam geometry obtained using computed tomography. The simulations demonstrate the importance of thermal radiation in the model. There is good agreement between results of experimental H<sub>2</sub> conversions and maximum combustion temperatures.

## 1. Introduction

In order to limit the global temperature rise to <1.5 °C by 2050, the industrial sector is slowly shifting from fossil fuel to low- or zero-carbon energy sources, such as hydroelectricity, tidal, geothermal, solar and wind energy. Due to the irregular distribution and intermittent nature of several of these sources, causing an imbalance between energy supply and demand, several energy storage technologies are currently being developed. They include flywheels, superconductors, supercapacitors, batteries, compressed air, pumped hydro, phase change materials (latent heat) and chemical storage [1–4]. The chemical storage technique is considered as one of the most realistic options for long-term storage of relatively large amount of energy. This method consists using excess renewable power to produce a chemical compound, known as energy carrier [5]. Green H<sub>2</sub>, produced by water electrolysis, has been proposed as a suitable energy carrier due to its high gravimetric energy density (120 MJ/kg), the relative maturity of its production and utilisation technologies [6]. It is also a highly versatile gas; it can be used for energy production in fuel cells or microcombustors, the reduction of metal ores, and the synthesis of industrial chemical products (ammonia, methane,

methanol) and sustainable aviation fuels [7,8].

With such an increasing amount of H<sub>2</sub> being handled in industries of various sizes, there is a clear need for the application of strict safety measures [9]. H<sub>2</sub> leaks in air can pose significant risks of deflagration or detonation in an environment where the gas' self-ignition temperature of ~585 °C is reached within its flammability limits (4–75 vol% H<sub>2</sub> at normal temperature and pressure) [10,11]. Reported methods of H<sub>2</sub> removal include ventilation, deliberate ignition and passive autocatalytic recombination (PAR) [12]. For risk mitigation, ventilation is not always effective due to the high buoyancy of H<sub>2</sub>, which can cause the gas to accumulate in dead corners and increase the formation of high-risk zones near the upper sections of confined spaces. On the other hand, deliberate ignition could cause the unintentional formation of NO<sub>x</sub> gases as combustion temperatures increase to >800 °C [13]. The advantage of PAR technology lies in its ability to prevent the accumulation of H<sub>2</sub>. Spontaneous combustion commences at ambient temperature, at low H<sub>2</sub> concentrations (i.e., within the first instants of an accidental leak), without reaching temperatures favourable to the formation of NO<sub>x</sub>, and releasing only water as product (Eq. (1)) [14]. A recombiner can be installed in confined or semi-confined spaces, as well as underground

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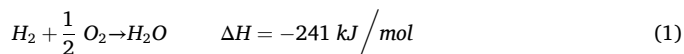
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parking, tunnels or mining facilities [15].



Arguably, the most important feature of a recombiner is its catalytic section. Pd and Pt have been reported as two of the most studied PAR catalysts due to their low light-off temperatures and high catalytic activities at temperatures <500 °C [16]. However, these noble metal catalysts have a high tendency for sintering at increasing combustion temperatures, resulting in significant loss of catalytic activity. One way to prevent this problem is to use a high-surface morphological support such as alumina, ceria, yttria or zirconia [13,17]. These supports improve the dispersion of active metal nanoparticles (NPs), limit their mobility and prevent their aggregation [11,18]. Du Preez et al. [18] demonstrated the importance of the presence of a morphological support for their Pt sputter-coated on Ti meshes. They showed that the abundance of an oxide layer prevented the aggregation of Pt nanoparticles. This high-surface oxide layer improved the catalyst long-term stability.

Another preventive option is making use of high thermal conductivity materials (e.g. metals such as Al, Cu, Ti) as catalyst support structures. They efficiently distribute the heat released through chemical reaction, thus preventing the occurrence of hot spots at which local aggregation of the NPs could occur [13,14]. Further process intensification could be achieved through the use of porous materials such as open-cell metal foams, which have outstanding heat and mass transport properties [19,20]. These high-surface catalyst support structures facilitate not only mass transport through radial reactant mixing and increased tortuosity, but also heat transport by convection and conduction [21,22].

Experimental studies on catalytic H<sub>2</sub> combustion on foams are reported in literature. A study by Jo et al. [20] offers clear insight into the effects of the inlet H<sub>2</sub> feed rate, the active metal (Pt) content and morphological support (Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) loadings on H<sub>2</sub> conversions, and the maximum temperatures obtained during the H<sub>2</sub> combustion process in a tubular reactor. Jin and Kwon [23] investigated the performances of a Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated Ni foam and Pt-coated ceramic foam for H<sub>2</sub> combustion at different feed gas flow rates and equivalent ratios (0.5H<sub>2</sub>/O<sub>2</sub> molar ratio). They reported the effects of these operating parameters on the H<sub>2</sub> conversion rates and the maximum temperatures achieved. Furthermore, they discussed the potential effects of the water vapour generated during the process. Fumey et al. [24] developed a H<sub>2</sub>-based cooker for domestic applications utilising uncoated and Pt-coated SiC foams as gas diffuser and catalyst bed, respectively, for the combustion of H<sub>2</sub>. They reported the effects of the H<sub>2</sub> flow and equivalence ratios on the water heating efficiency of the device. Fernandez et al. [25] conducted H<sub>2</sub> combustion experiments on a clay-bound SiC foam coated with Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-CeO<sub>2</sub>. This foam-based catalytic system exhibited a high catalytic performance even at lean H<sub>2</sub>/air mixtures and at ambient conditions. Their findings demonstrated the suitability of foam-supported catalysts for H<sub>2</sub> combustion processes.

To further understand the benefits of conducting H<sub>2</sub> combustion processes in foam-based catalytic reactors, particularly in the context of accidental H<sub>2</sub> release, it is considered important to study the difference between different catalyst bed structures. Furthermore, it is important to investigate the effects of prolonged exposure of the catalyst to the reaction medium in order to assess the catalyst durability or resistance to deactivation by sintering [13,14,26].

The PAR process has also been investigated through simulations based on theoretical and analytical knowledge of fluid dynamics and chemical reactions. Computational fluid dynamics (CFD) tools such as Ansys Fluent, COMSOL Multiphysics, STAR-CCM+ or OpenFOAM have been used to simulate the complex chemistry and transport behaviour of the reacting gas in different processes. The focus of the reported H<sub>2</sub> combustion simulations has usually been on the estimation of

temperature, velocity, or gas composition profiles in relatively simple geometries [15,27–33]. For instance, Zanoni et al. [15] developed a CFD model, using COMSOL Multiphysics, to simulate the PAR process on rectangular stainless steel plates. They investigated the effects of inlet flow conditions (H<sub>2</sub> concentration, gas velocity) and plate spacing on the temperature profile along the plate height, the H<sub>2</sub> and CO recombination rates, the surface reaction and the catalyst poisoning by CO. Malakhov et al. [10] used STAR-CCM+ for the CFD simulation of the PAR process in a recombiner consisting of cylindrical ceramic rods. Temperature profiles and H<sub>2</sub> recombination efficiencies were assessed at different H<sub>2</sub> inlet mole fractions. Experimental results were used for model validation. Kim et al. [33] conducted transient CFD simulations in OpenFOAM to study the PAR of H<sub>2</sub> under oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>)-rich and O<sub>2</sub>-lean conditions in industrial plate-based recombiners. Their study compared a correlation-based model with a mass-diffusion model and results demonstrated the importance of O<sub>2</sub> diffusion on the H<sub>2</sub> recombination, especially under O<sub>2</sub>-lean conditions.

To simulate more complex fluid behaviours occurring in irregular geometries, an accurate 3D rendering of the solid domain (foam) can be obtained using computed tomography (CT). Here, inaccuracies of the simulation will be only due to the uncertainties related to the differential equations, assumptions and boundary conditions chosen to describe the model [34].

In the present study, a 5 wt% Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst coated on Al foams was tested in a PAR reactor set-up, previously reported by Malakhov et al. [10]. There is currently a need for comparison between different catalyst configurations containing the same amount of Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst. Besides, there is no known fully heterogeneous 3D CFD simulation of PAR processes conducted on foam-supported catalysts. The objectives of our study are the following: (1) Characterise Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated foams and evaluate their catalytic performance in a passive autocatalytic recombiner using steady-state H<sub>2</sub> conversions and coated foam surface temperatures as the main performance criteria. (2) Compare the performance of a recombiner using a Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated foam, Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated plates or Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> pellets in its catalytic section. (3) Carry out a durability test of the foam-supported Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst. (4) Carry out a fully heterogeneous CFD modelling of the catalytic H<sub>2</sub> combustion process using accurate 3D geometry of the foam samples in the PAR reactor set-up. The experimental section of this study will give an insight into the difference in performances between geometric configurations of the catalyst bed in the same recombiner. The numerical modelling will provide a deeper understanding of the flow phenomena and temperature profiles inside a foam-based recombiner.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Catalyst preparation and coating procedure

The 5 wt% Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst was prepared in-house by the wet impregnation method: 150 g γ-alumina pellets (Sasol, South Africa) were soaked, at ambient temperature, in an aqueous solution containing 19.2 g 38 wt% hexachloroplatinic acid (H<sub>2</sub>PtCl<sub>6</sub>) (HySA Infrastructure, South Africa). The water was then removed by evaporation at 60 °C and a pressure of 46 mbar in a Büchi Rotavapor® R300 (BÜCHI Labortechnik AG, Switzerland), equipped with an evaporating flask, rotating at a speed of 40 rpm. The H<sub>2</sub>PtCl<sub>6</sub>-impregnated alumina was subsequently dried in an EcoTherm oven (Labotec, South Africa) at 120 °C for ~4 h. Calcination and reduction of the dried pellets was performed at 350 °C (ramp rate 10 °C/min) over a period of 2 h in a stream of air and 50 vol% H<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> (flow rate 250 mL/min), respectively, using a CTF12 horizontal tube furnace (Carbolite Gero, England).

Aluminium foams (Recemat BV, Netherlands) of pore density 10 PPI (pores per inch) and 95% porosity were cut into four blocks (70 mm × 40 mm × 10 mm) and cleaned in 99.5 vol% ethanol (Rochelle Chemicals, South Africa) for 10 min to remove any organic impurities from the substrate surface. Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> pellets sampled from a batch prepared using

the method described above were crushed into fine powder and later used for preparation of the slurry. This slurry consisted of ~30 wt% of the Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> powder in an aqueous solution containing 1.5 wt% poly-vinyl alcohol (MCL, South Africa) as binder, and 0.1 M HCl as dispersant and etching agent to increase the roughness of the aluminium foam surface [22,35,36]. The mixture was thoroughly homogenised (400 rpm, 60 °C, 1 h) using an AccuPlate hotplate stirrer (Labnet International, NJ, USA). The clean and dry foams were then dipped into the slurry. A constant flow of compressed air was used to remove the excess slurry blocking the foam pores. The foam samples were subsequently dried and the process was repeated until the desired amount of catalyst was coated on the foam struts. To stabilise the washcoat layer, the dry coated foams were calcined in air and reduced in 50 vol% H<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub> (flow rate 250 mL/min) at 350 °C in the tube furnace. The same procedure was used to coat the four aluminium plates (70 mm × 40 mm × 2 mm). These were first scraped with sandpaper to increase their surface rugosity and improve the adhesion of the catalyst. The foam and the plate samples were coated with 3.8 g Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and their performances compared with that of the same amount of Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> pellets.

2.2. Characterisation

The surface morphologies of the Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated foams, Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated plates and Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> pellets were characterised using a FEI Quanta FEG 250 field emission gun scanning electron microscope (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA). Elemental mapping of the washcoat surface was performed with energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) using an X-Max SDD 20 mm<sup>2</sup> detector (Oxford Instruments, England). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) micrographs were analysed using xT Microscope Server and xT Microscope Control software, while EDS data were processed using AZtec software. Pt NPs were observed via transmission electron microscopy (TEM) using an electron microscope (JEOL JEM 2100, Japan) at 200 kV. Samples were dissolved in ethanol and sonicated for about 30 min then dispersed on a carbon-coated copper grid for analysis. Mean particles sizes were calculated from at least 150 particles obtained from TEM images using the open-source ImageJ program. TEM was performed before and after the long-term utilisation of the Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated foam in the PAR process in order to gain insight into the effect of prolonged utilisation on the Pt NPs.

Characteristic dimensions of the coated and uncoated foam samples were determined by CT using the Nikon XT 225 system (Nikon Corporation, Tokyo, Japan) of the Central Analytical Facilities of Stellenbosch University, South Africa [37]. In this process, a voxel size of 55.85 µm

was utilised and X-rays were generated at 100 kV and 500 µA. Captured images were analysed with the system-supplied Datos reconstruction software for the reconstruction of the volumetric dataset and the generation of the stereolithography (STL) file. VGSTUDIO MAX 2024.1 (Volume Graphics, Heidelberg, Germany) was used for the visualisation and quantitative analysis of the generated 3D geometry (STL file). From the CT-generated database, the gravimetric surface area, pore density, and the pore and strut diameters of the foam samples were calculated.

2.3. Experimental evaluation

Fig. 1 shows the two different set-ups in which catalytic H<sub>2</sub> recombination experiments were conducted: first, a recombiner [10], for performance evaluation of the Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated foams and further comparison with two catalyst structural configurations previously reported in the literature (plates and pellets) [14,26,38] and, second, a tubular fixed-bed reactor for durability tests on the foam-supported Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst [26,39].

2.3.1. PAR experiments

PAR experiments were conducted in a rectangular recombiner (280 mm × 242 mm × 45.5 mm) that contained the four Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated foams (Fig. 1a). At the recombiner inlet, 99.9 vol% H<sub>2</sub> (Hydrogen South Africa Infrastructure, South Africa) and compressed air flow were adjusted using thermal mass flow controllers (EL-FLOW F-201AV, Netherlands). The gas mixtures were then feed to the recombiner inlet (lower section) through a pipe (diameter 10 mm) that distributed premixed mixtures of H<sub>2</sub> and air through 12 holes (diameter 0.5 mm). The mixture was passed through a perforated plate to prevent uneven distribution of the gas as at the catalyst region (middle section) where the recombination occurred. The product gas mixture (H<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O) exited the recombiner through its outlet (top section) and was vented to the atmosphere. Three XEN-5320 H<sub>2</sub> sensors (Xensor Integration, Netherlands) were fitted at the recombiner inlet section and three more at the outlet section. The sensor data were recorded every second and then used for calculation of the H<sub>2</sub> conversions at the different flow

**Table 1**  
Operating parameters used during the catalytic activity test in a PAR set-up.

| Parameters                                | Values                 |
|-------------------------------------------|------------------------|
| H <sub>2</sub> inlet concentration (vol%) | 2–6 (increments of 1%) |
| Gas injection velocity (m/s)              | 2.0, 5.0, 7.5 and 10   |

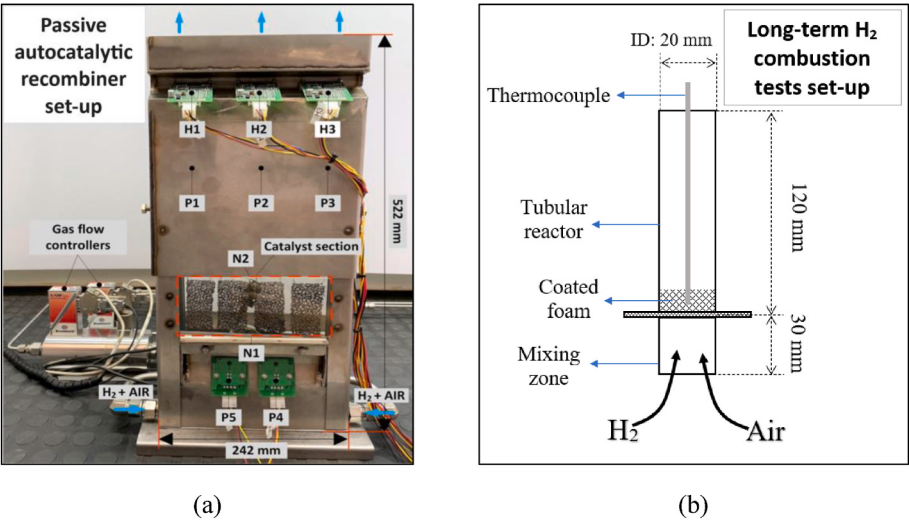


Fig. 1. (a) Image of the reactor set-up used in the PAR experiments. (b) Schematics of the tubular reactor used for the durability tests. (Legend. H1–H3 and P1–P5: H<sub>2</sub> sensors).

conditions as given in Table 1.

Performance assessment was based on the steady-state  $H_2$  conversions and average temperatures recorded on the foam surface at different operating conditions.  $H_2$  conversions were evaluated using Eq. (2), in which the number of moles  $n_{H_2in}$  was calculated from the gas flow rate, and the inlet and outlet  $H_2$  concentrations. Selected experiments were conducted in triplicate to ensure the repeatability of results. The average deviation in  $H_2$  conversions was ~5%.

$$X_{H_2} = \frac{n_{H_2in} - n_{H_2out}}{n_{H_2in}} \quad (2)$$

Surface temperatures were recorded every second using Reveal IR software (Telops, Canada), while temperature profiles were analysed using a high-resolution M100hd IR camera (Telops, Canada) equipped with lenses capable of detecting electromagnetic intensities corresponding to temperatures in the range 0–2500 °C.

### 2.3.2. Durability tests

The durability of a foam-supported Pt/ $Al_2O_3$  catalyst was tested in a tubular reactor in which a 10 PPI foam disk (diameter 20 mm, height 10 mm) coated with 0.2 g Pt/ $Al_2O_3$  was placed 3 mm above the inlet nozzle supplying  $H_2$  gas from an electrolyser (Hydrogen South Africa Infrastructure, South Africa) at its maximum release rate of 138 NmL/min. The catalytic  $H_2$  combustion into surrounding air increased the temperature progressively. This increase was recorded every second, over a period of 480 h, using a K-type thermocouple (RS PRO, South Africa).

### 2.4. CFD simulations

The 3D steady-state CFD simulations of the catalyst performance were performed using STAR-CCM + code supported with thermochemical data and reaction kinetics using the chemistry tool CHEMKIN. The computational domain consisted of the foams and the rectangular casing representing the recombiner's walls. The boundary conditions and computation domain mesh settings are presented in Fig. 2. To capture the real geometric features of the Pt/ $Al_2O_3$ -coated foam sample in the numerical study, a STL model was imported into the CFD code. The imported 3D geometry was subjected to re-tessellation and reparation to obtain a continuous surface with no self-intersected faces, edges and vertices. The 3D computational domain was created by

inserting the repaired STL model into a rectangular recombiner channel that represents an actual experimental channel (Fig. 2). Then, 3D foam geometry was duplicated three times in the computational domain and subsequently subtracted from the fluid; then was re-imprinted in order to create an interface between the fluid and solid domains in the simulation. The repaired surface was volume meshed by using the same strategy as reported in previous work [29] (a polyhedral mesh was utilised). Mesh refinement was applied to the recombiner inlet and outlet, and around the catalytic section. Mesh independence was reached at a base size of 4 mm and all simulations discussed below were performed using the same base size. The total number of roughly 2 860 000 cells discretises the fluid and solid computational domains. The meshing parameters are summarised in Fig. 2.

A realisable k-epsilon model with a two-layer approach based on Reynolds-averaged Navier–Stokes equations was used to simulate the turbulent flow inside the channel and through the foam pores [40,41]. A no-slip velocity condition was assumed at the walls and solid domains of the recombiner channel. An experimental inlet mass flow rate of  $35.0 \pm 0.2$  g/min (corresponding to a gas inlet velocity of 10 m/s) and gas mixture composition of 2–6 vol% were set as the inlet boundary conditions. The governing equations were as follows (3D Cartesian coordinate system) [32,34,42,43].

Conservation of mass:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{v}) = 0 \quad (3)$$

where  $\rho$  is the density ( $kg/m^3$ ) and  $\vec{v}$  is the continuum velocity (m/s).

Conservation of momentum:

$$\frac{\partial(\rho \vec{v})}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{v} \otimes \vec{v}) = -\nabla \cdot \vec{\sigma} \quad (4)$$

where  $\otimes$  denotes the outer product and  $\vec{\sigma}$  is the stress tensor. For a fluid,  $\vec{\sigma}$  can be calculated as

$$\vec{\sigma} = -p\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{T} \quad (5)$$

where  $p$  is the pressure (Pa),  $\mathbf{T}$  is the viscous stress tensor, and  $\mathbf{I}$  is the identity tensor. The viscous stress tensor  $\mathbf{T}$  can be calculated as

$$\mathbf{T} = 2\mu^* \frac{1}{2} (\nabla \vec{v} + \nabla \vec{v}^T) - \frac{2}{3} (\mu^* \nabla \cdot \vec{v}) \mathbf{I} \quad (6)$$

where  $\mu$  is the dynamic viscosity (Pa.s) and  $\vec{v}$  is the mean velocity.

Conservation of species:

$$\frac{\partial \rho Y_i}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho U Y_i) = \nabla \cdot \left( J_i + \frac{\mu_t}{Sc_t} \nabla Y_i \right) + S_{Y_i} \quad (7)$$

where  $S_{Y_i}$  is the mass fraction source term,  $Y_i$  is the species mass fraction,  $U$  is the total internal energy (J),  $\mu_t$  is the dynamic viscosity,  $J_i$  is the diffusive mass flux ( $kg/m^2/s$ ), and  $Sc_t$  is the turbulent Schmidt number. The diffusive flux is calculated based on Fick's law

$$J_i = \rho D_{i,m} \nabla Y_i \quad (8)$$

where  $Y_i$  is the mass fraction of species  $i$  and  $D_{i,m}$  is the diffusion coefficient of species  $i$  in the mixture ( $m^2/s$ ). The Schmidt number function is available in STAR-CCM + for specifying molecular diffusivity of components in a mixture and is calculated as

$$Sc_t = \frac{\nu}{D_{i,m}} \quad (9)$$

where  $\nu$  is the kinematic viscosity ( $m^2/s$ ) and  $D_{i,m}$  is the diffusion coefficient of species  $i$  in the mixture. In this study, a Schmidt number equal to 0.2 was used to influence the molecular diffusion coefficients in order to obtain reasonable accuracy of the computational results [29,44,45].

Conservation of energy:

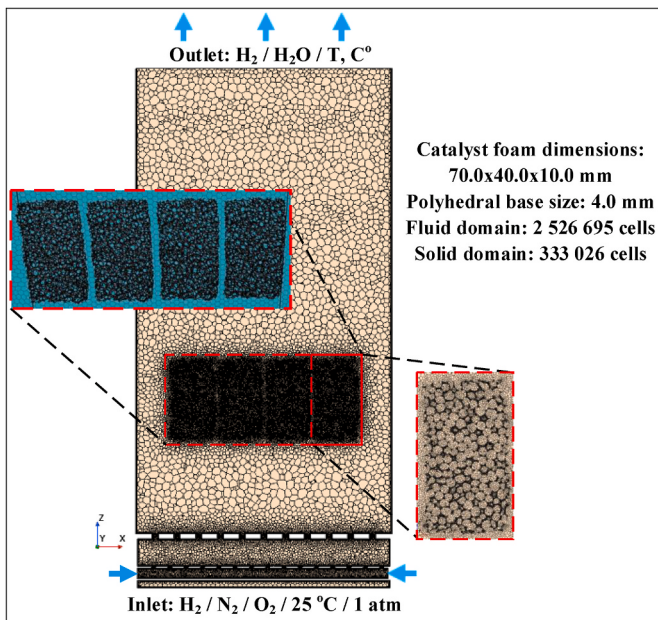


Fig. 2. Computational domain and boundary conditions of CFD model.

$$\frac{\partial(\rho E)}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho E \vec{v}) = \vec{f}_b \cdot \vec{v} + \nabla \cdot (\vec{v} \times \vec{\sigma}) - \nabla \cdot \vec{q} + S_E \quad (10)$$

where  $E$  is the total energy per unit mass (J/kg),  $\vec{q}$  is the heat flux (W/m<sup>2</sup>), and  $S_E$  is an energy source per unit volume (W/m<sup>3</sup>).

The applied emissivity of the catalytic surface was  $\varepsilon = 0.9$ . The gas mixture (H<sub>2</sub>/O<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub>) was assumed to be ideal. The components' thermophysical properties were obtained from the CHEMKIN material database. The rate constant was determined using the Arrhenius equation.

$$k_j = AT \exp \left( -\frac{E_a}{R_u T} \right) \quad (11)$$

where  $A$  is the pre-exponential factor (mol cm K s),  $T$  is the reaction temperature (K) and  $E_a$  is the activation energy (J/kmol) and  $R_u$  is the universal gas constant (J/kmol/K).

Table 2 summarises the detailed surface reaction kinetics mechanism utilised in order to simulate the catalytic H<sub>2</sub> recombination reaction [10, 46].

The catalytic activity was assumed to occur only on Pt uniformly distributed on the surface of the section of the geometry representing the coated foam. A surface site density of  $S_0 = 2.7 \times 10^{-8}$  kmol/m<sup>2</sup> was assumed [43]. A catalytic H<sub>2</sub> recombination reaction is associated with high thermal radiation, therefore, the surface-to-surface thermal radiation model was considered in CFD modelling [34]. In this study, the models of gravity force, thermal diffusion and external forces were not considered. The channel walls were assumed to be adiabatic.

### 3. Results and discussion

#### 3.1. Characterisation

The textural properties related to the Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated foams and geometric characteristics of the uncoated and coated foams are now reported and discussed. Their anticipated advantages on catalytic performance in the recombiner are briefly mentioned.

##### 3.1.1. Textural properties

Fig. 3 shows SEM micrographs of the Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated foams and EDS spectra of surfaces. The SEM micrographs of the foam struts confirmed that the Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst was deposited over the entire surface of the Al foam. The surface of the catalyst layer was generally rugous and cracks were spotted at several struts on the foam (Fig. 3a). Some surface irregularities could have resulted from the removal of organic species (e.g. polyvinyl alcohol) during the calcination step after catalyst coating. This

**Table 2**

Heterogeneous mechanism of H<sub>2</sub>/O<sub>2</sub> recombination on Pt. (Mechanism taken from a more detailed mechanism of H<sub>2</sub> oxidation on Pt from Deutschmann et al. [47,48]).

| Reactions                                                 | A <sup>a</sup>       | E <sub>a</sub> <sup>b</sup> | S <sub>0,i</sub> <sup>c</sup> |
|-----------------------------------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1 $H_2 + 2Pt^{(s)} \rightarrow 2H^{(s)}$                  | 0.0                  | 0.0                         | 0.046                         |
| 2 $2H^{(s)} \rightarrow H_2 + 2Pt^{(s)}$                  | $3.7 \times 10^{21}$ | $6.74 \times 10^7$          | 0.0                           |
| 3 $O_2 + 2Pt^{(s)} \rightarrow 2O^{(s)}$                  | $1.8 \times 10^{21}$ | 0.0                         | 0.5                           |
| 4 $O_2 + 2Pt^{(s)} \rightarrow 2O^{(s)}$                  | 0.023                | 0.0                         | 0.0                           |
| 5 $2O^{(s)} \rightarrow O_2 + 2Pt^{(s)}$                  | $3.7 \times 10^{21}$ | $2.132 \times 10^8$         | 0.0                           |
| 6 $H_2O + Pt^{(s)} \rightarrow H_2O^{(s)}$                | 0.75                 | 0.0                         | 0.0                           |
| 7 $H_2O^{(s)} \rightarrow H_2O + Pt^{(s)}$                | $1.0 \times 10^{13}$ | $4.03 \times 10^7$          | 0.0                           |
| 8 $OH + Pt^{(s)} \rightarrow OH^{(s)}$                    | 1.0                  | 0.0                         | 0.0                           |
| 9 $OH^{(s)} \rightarrow OH + Pt^{(s)}$                    | $1.0 \times 10^{13}$ | $1.928 \times 10^8$         | 0.0                           |
| 10 $H^{(s)} + O^{(s)} \rightarrow OH^{(s)} + Pt^{(s)}$    | $3.7 \times 10^{21}$ | $1.15 \times 10^7$          | 0.0                           |
| 11 $H^{(s)} + OH^{(s)} \rightarrow H_2O^{(s)} + Pt^{(s)}$ | $3.7 \times 10^{21}$ | $1.74 \times 10^7$          | 0.0                           |
| 12 $OH^{(s)} + OH^{(s)} \rightarrow H_2O^{(s)} + O^{(s)}$ | $3.7 \times 10^{21}$ | $4.82 \times 10^7$          | 0.0                           |

<sup>a</sup> Pre-exponential factor: A [mol cm K s].

<sup>b</sup> Activation energy: E<sub>a</sub> [J/kmol].

<sup>c</sup> Sticking coefficient.

irregular surface morphology has the benefit of increasing the surface area of the catalyst deposited on the foam; foam-supported catalysts generally have a low gravimetric surface area [49]. The observed disadvantage of cracks in a catalyst washcoat layer is that they constitute weak points from which the catalyst tends to flake off the foam, especially at high catalyst loading or when the catalyst is subjected to intense mechanical or thermal stresses [22,50].

The EDS maps (Fig. 3b) confirmed the presence of Pt and Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> particles on the entire surface of the catalyst washcoat. An even distribution of Pt on the surface of the washcoat is essential for maintaining high activity of the foam-based catalytic structure because Pt is the active metal in the PAR process. The presence of the morphological support (Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) over the surface of the struts was expected as it is the most abundant constituent of the catalyst (~95 wt%). The high specific surface area of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> is an added advantage in the process. It maintains high dispersion of the Pt NPs over the surface whilst minimizing their agglomeration at prolonged reaction times [13,16].

TEM micrographs of the catalyst powders sampled from the washcoat layers of the foam samples before and after 480 h of reaction are shown in Fig. 4. It is evident that long-term exposure to the H<sub>2</sub> combustion process alters the Pt nanoparticle (NP) size. The average size of Pt NPs increased from 3.8 nm to 6.2 nm. Kozhukhova et al. [14] observed a smaller increase in particle size from 3.0 to 3.8 nm on their Pt catalyst supported on anodised Al plates exposed to 530 h combustion at ~160 °C. The higher combustion temperatures (~300 °C) reached during the long-term test in this study can explain the more pronounced agglomeration of Pt NPs. Nevertheless, the maximum NP size obtained is still within the size range of several catalysts reported in earlier literature, namely 5–20 nm [16,25,51].

The use of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> as morphological support could have prevented excessive sintering of the Pt NPs. In a study of catalytic H<sub>2</sub> combustion on Pt supported directly on stainless steel mesh, Du Preez et al. [39] obtained average Pt NP sizes of up to 120 nm after prolonged H<sub>2</sub> combustion reactions. The higher Pt mobility on the metal surface increases the tendency for agglomeration of Pt NPs, especially at high temperatures (>500 °C) or high moisture levels [18].

##### 3.1.2. Geometric properties

Table 3 presents the geometric parameters calculated using CT results. The results revealed slight differences between the uncoated and coated foam samples. The coating process resulted in a 48% increase in the average strut diameter, which corresponds to an estimated average washcoat thickness of 75 μm. Such a relatively high value could be expected because 95% of the washcoat consists in the morphological support. Much thinner layers would be achieved if only the active phase (Pt) was deposited directly on the Al foam surface.

Tomographs of the uncoated and Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated foam samples are presented in Fig. 5. The expected decreases in pore diameter and pore volume are a direct consequence of the increase in strut diameter from the catalyst coating process. In this study, the decrease in pore volume did not result in pore blocking because of the relatively large pores combined with small strut diameters. The 10 PPI foam used in this study has pores sufficiently large to accommodate relatively high catalyst amounts. Foams of higher pore density (e.g. 40 PPI) have the advantage of having a higher volumetric surface area due to the increased number of cells. However, they can easily be blocked during the catalyst coating step. This may result in a significant decrease in porosity and the occurrence of preferential pathways within the catalyst bed during the reaction. An unblocked foam-based catalyst support structure offers the benefit of improving mass transfer because of the high mixing and tortuosity increasing turbulence within the structure. Similarly, heat transfer is also improved by the contribution of conduction, convection and radiation in the heat-transfer mechanism [52].

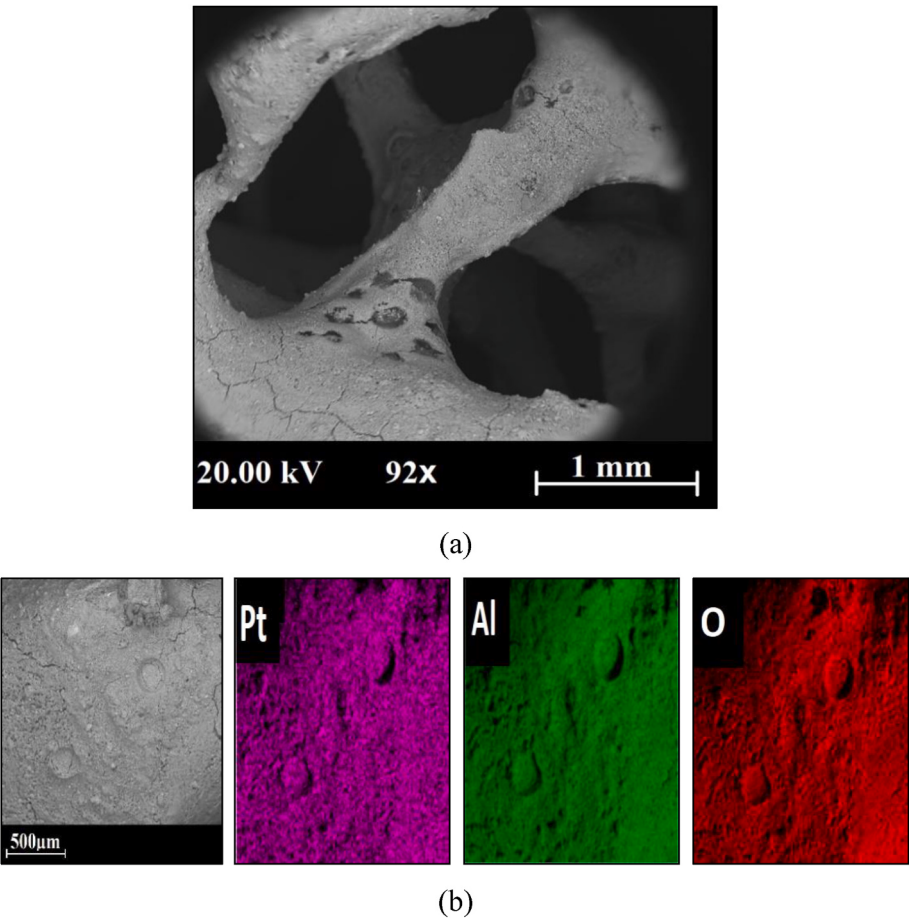


Fig. 3. (a) SEM micrograph of the coated foam, (b) EDS maps of the sample surface.

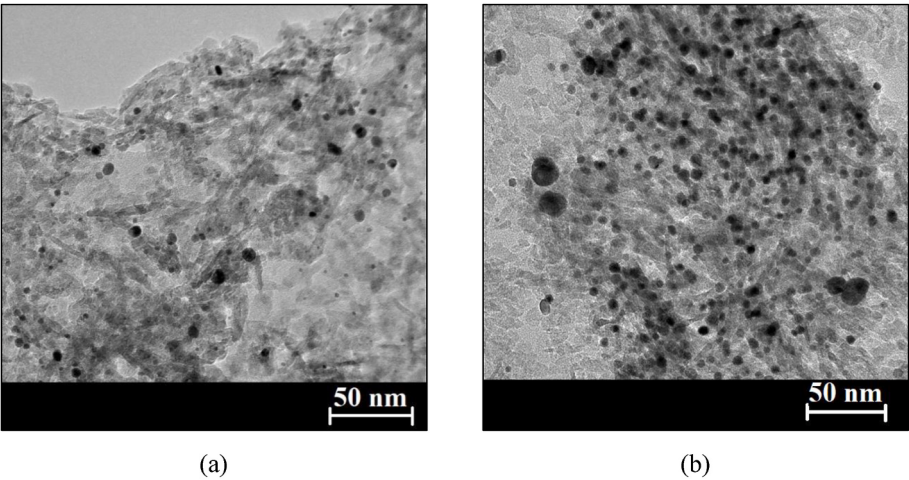


Fig. 4. TEM micrographs of Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst extracted from (a) fresh foam and (b) used foam.

**Table 3**  
Geometric properties of the 10 PPI Al foam used in this work.

| Geometric property                                        | Uncoated foam | Coated foam |
|-----------------------------------------------------------|---------------|-------------|
| Average strut diameter (mm)                               | 0.31          | 0.46        |
| Average pore diameter (mm)                                | 4.19          | 3.37        |
| Average pore volume (mm <sup>3</sup> )                    | 49.09         | 34.58       |
| Volumetric surface area (m <sup>2</sup> /m <sup>3</sup> ) | 336.02        | 447.93      |

3.2. Catalytic activity tests

The effects of the inlet gas velocity and H<sub>2</sub> inlet concentrations on the performance of the Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated foams in the recombiner are now reported. Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated aluminium plates and pellet-based catalysts (for which the same amount of Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was used as on the coated foams) were also tested, at the same process conditions, for comparison. Average temperatures and temperatures at the hottest spots on the catalyst bed were also recorded to assess the operating conditions that

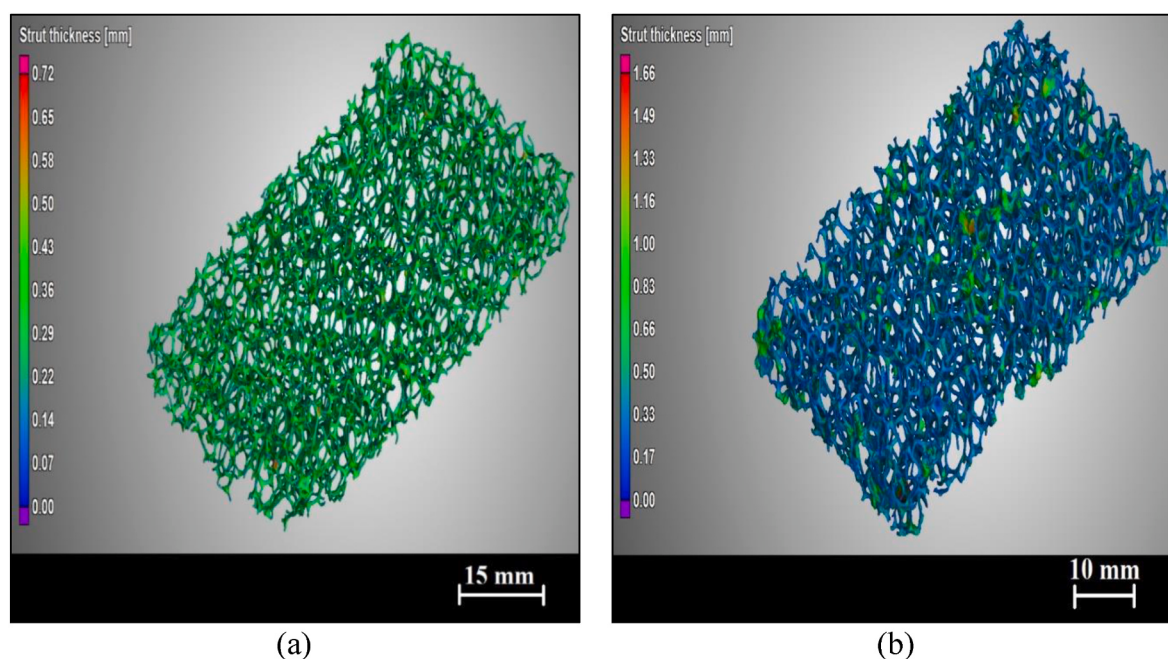


Fig. 5. Tomograms of 3D structures generated from CT scans of (a) uncoated foam and (b) coated foam.

posed the greatest safety risks. It was established that the foam-supported Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst was able to withstand long-term continuous operation without showing signs of deactivation.

### 3.2.1. Effect of inlet gas velocity and H<sub>2</sub> concentration on the recombiner performance

The effects of the inlet gas velocity and inlet H<sub>2</sub> concentrations on the steady-state recombiner performance are shown in Fig. 6. To understand the overall recombination performance as a function of the inlet conditions, the H<sub>2</sub> conversions and surface temperatures were averaged over the four foam samples. During the PAR process, the exothermic H<sub>2</sub>

combustion on the Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> catalyst spontaneously commences at ambient temperature. As the reaction proceeds, more catalyst active sites are covered with H<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> species, resulting in the occurrence of more H<sub>2</sub> combustion and heat release. This naturally increases the surface temperature of the foam – and the reaction kinetics – resulting in higher H<sub>2</sub> conversions, with further increases in the heat released [53]. Eventually, the combustion process transits from a kinetically controlled to a mass-transfer-controlled regime and a thermodynamic equilibrium is achieved at steady-state conditions [16]. The recombiner performances achieved at these steady-state conditions are strongly dependant on the supply of the gas mixture (reactants and inert N<sub>2</sub>) and the reactant

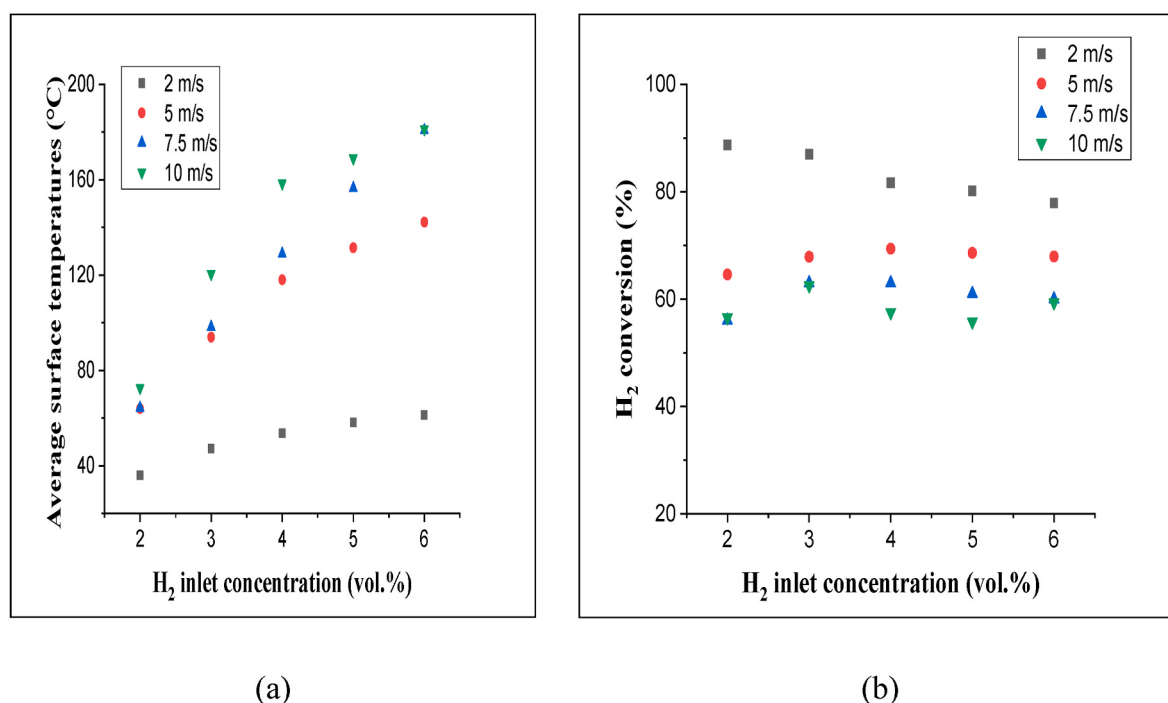
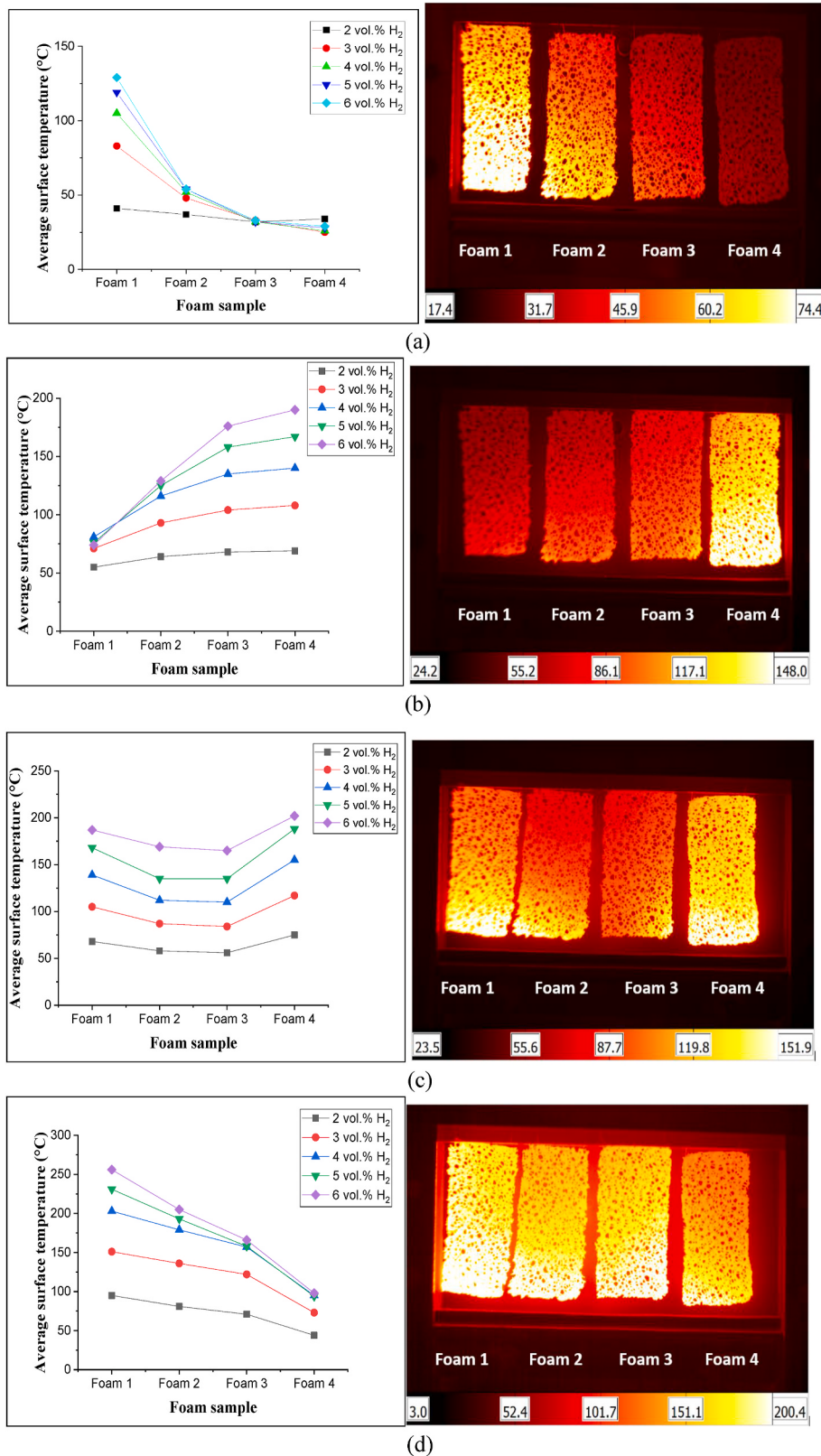


Fig. 6. Effects of inlet gas velocity and inlet H<sub>2</sub> concentration: (a) on the average surface temperature of the foams and (b) on the H<sub>2</sub> conversions.

consumption rate on the catalyst surface. The process outcome is therefore determined by the competing effects of reaction kinetic rates and mass transfer rate limitations at the gas–solid interface and in the gas phase.

Fig. 6a shows that the average steady-state surface temperatures of the four coated foam samples generally increases at higher inlet gas velocities. Increasing the surface temperatures causes an increase in the reaction rate [16,53]. However, the increase in combustion rate does not



**Fig. 7.** Average temperatures obtained at inlet gas velocities of (a) 2 m/s, (b) 5 m/s, (c) 7.5 m/s and (d) 10 m/s, coupled with thermograms, obtained at inlet H<sub>2</sub> concentrations of 3 vol%.

cause an increase in  $H_2$  conversions. From Fig. 6b it is evident that an increase in inlet gas velocity results in lower  $H_2$  conversions. This can be attributed to the decrease in residence times on the catalyst surface [20, 53]. Shorter residence times result in lower rates of mass transfer of reactants from the bulk of the fluid to the catalyst surface [16]. Consequently, more  $H_2$  and  $O_2$  leave the recombiner unreacted [18]. This, in turn, suggests that limitations in mass transfer rates prevail over kinetic rates at the experimental conditions investigated.

It is also evident from Fig. 6 that the recombiner performance is differently affected by  $H_2$  concentrations at different inlet gas velocities. At a low gas inlet velocity of 2 m/s, as  $H_2$  inlet concentrations increases from 2 to 6 vol%, the  $H_2$  conversion decreases from 88.7% to 77.9%, while average steady-state temperatures increase from 36 to 61 °C. At higher  $H_2$  inlet concentrations, more  $H_2$  is fed to the foam surface. This results in higher rates of reaction, which then increase the catalyst surface temperature [54]. Despite this, the subsequent increase in combustion rate is not sufficiently high to compensate for the increasing amount of  $H_2$  fed to the recombiner inlet at higher inlet  $H_2$  concentrations. At higher inlet gas velocities (5–10 m/s), steeper increases in surface temperatures were observed with increasing  $H_2$  inlet concentrations (Fig. 6a). Meanwhile, at the same conditions, the  $H_2$  conversions remained almost constant (Fig. 6b). At these gas flow rates, the increase in  $H_2$  consumption rates offset the increase in  $H_2$  inflow at higher inlet concentrations.

Moreover, gas–solid and intermolecular gas-phase diffusions could limit the access of the reacting gas to the catalyst active sites [54], as also illustrated in Fig. 6. For equivalent amounts of incoming  $H_2$ , two different conversions can be obtained depending on the amount of inert gas ( $N_2$ ) present in the feed. For instance, two gases fed at a velocity of 2 and 5 m/s and containing 5 and 2 vol%  $H_2$  in air, respectively, introduce  $H_2$  at the same rate in the recombiner but result in different conversions: 80.2 and 57.0%, respectively. Consequently, the recombiner performed better when removing  $H_2$  from slow leaks of relatively high  $H_2$  concentrations than from rapid leaks of low  $H_2$  concentrations.

### 3.2.2. Temperature profiles in the foam-based recombiner

Arguably, one of the greatest practical challenges in a PAR set-up is to establish the optimum location at which maximum  $H_2$  conversion will be achieved, preferably at the lowest temperature possible. Fig. 7 reports the average temperatures obtained on each of the four Pt/ $Al_2O_3$ -coated foams at different inlet gas flow velocities and  $H_2$  concentrations. The thermograms illustrate the temperature profiles for the four foam samples at selected inlet conditions. There are several possible reasons for the different temperature profiles across the catalyst bed, including an uneven gas distribution inside the recombiner due to different unpredictable flow patterns of the gas entering the reaction zone [10], or a possible higher concentration of the catalytically active metals at one particular spot on the catalyst bed (i.e. a non-uniform catalyst washcoat layer) [14]. This last possibility is unlikely, because the profiles in Fig. 7 show that the hottest foams are not the same at the different flow conditions. At inlet gas conditions of 7.5 m/s, the temperature profiles were found to be the most uniform. In the case of accidental leaks in large-scale settings, even gas distribution is very unlikely to occur; hence the recombiner positioning is an important optimisation parameter in the mitigation of risks related  $H_2$  leaks in confined spaces.

The highest temperatures were obtained at the base of the foams. A maximum temperature of 393 °C was measured on Foam 1 at the highest  $H_2$  inlet concentration and inlet gas velocity. The average surface temperature of Foam 1 was 252 °C. This confirms the heat dissipation capability of foam-based catalyst beds, attributed to their high thermal conductivity and high porosity. Heat transfer occurs by conduction through the metal struts as well as convective and radiative heat transfer through the foam's pores [52,53,55]. Relatively large amounts of inert  $N_2$  and unreacted species flow through the foams. These species that enter the recombiner at ambient temperature contribute to cooling the surface of the coated foams. The maximum temperatures obtained on

the coated foams were generally still <585 °C—the temperature for spontaneous combustion of  $H_2$  within its flammability limits.

### 3.2.3. Effect of configuration of the catalyst region on the recombiner performance

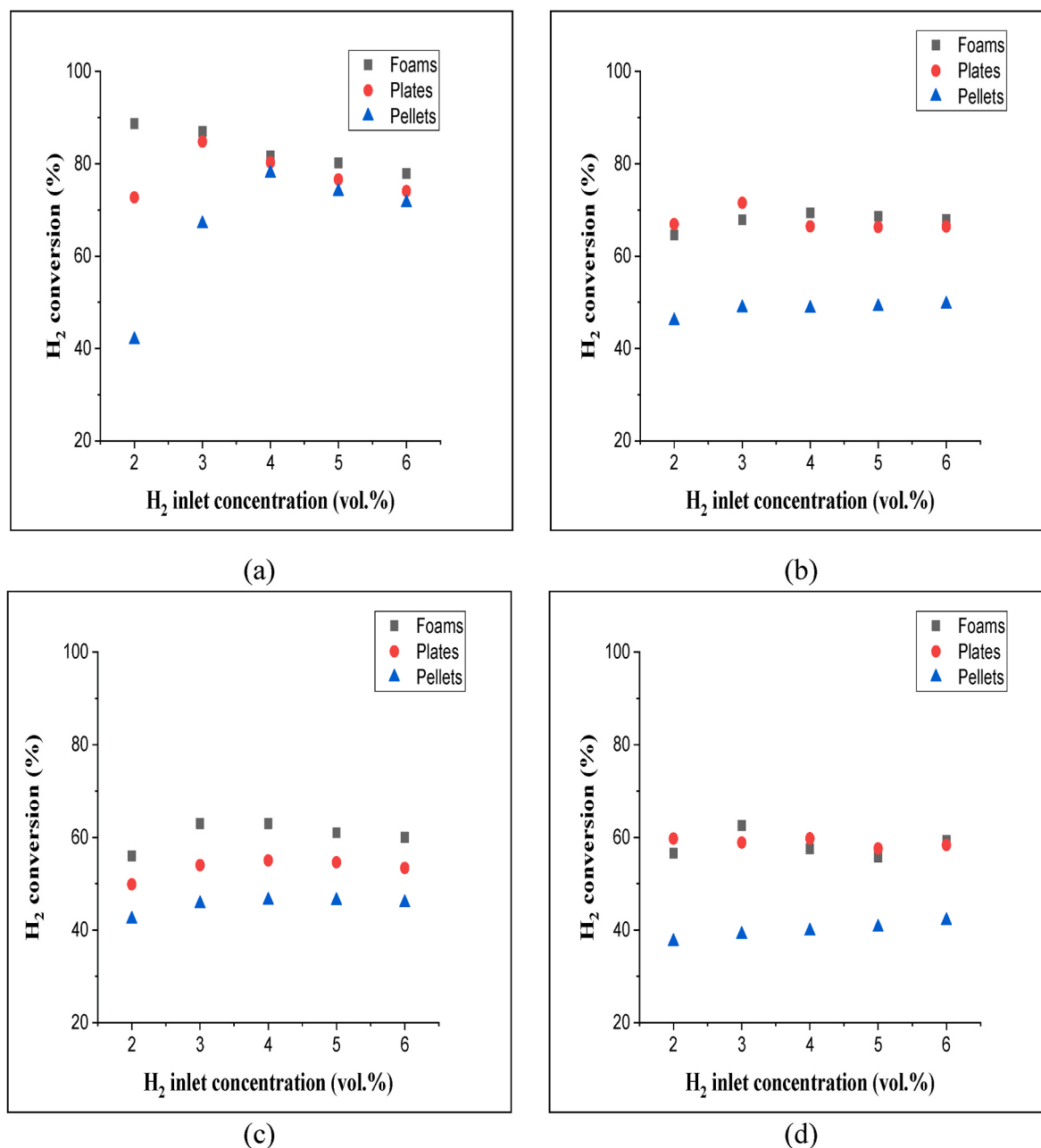
Fig. 8 shows the results of a comparison of the performances of the Pt/ $Al_2O_3$ -coated foams, coated plates and pellet-based catalysts. Major differences between the three configurations include the volume occupied by the catalyst bed and the exposed catalytic surface area in the recombiner. These differences have an impact on the gas–solid mass transfer rates. The high macro-porosity of the foam-based bed causes it to occupy a larger volume in the recombiner than the plates do, and especially larger than the pellets. This contributes to the higher exposure of  $H_2$  gas on the catalyst surface despite its high dilution in the relatively large amount of  $N_2$  in the incoming gas. For instance, a higher  $H_2$  conversion was achieved in the foam-based catalytic recombiner when a 2 vol%  $H_2$  gas was fed at a velocity of 2 m/s (Fig. 8a). The spontaneous combustion of  $H_2$  at very low concentrations is of great practical importance because a recombiner should be able to prevent accumulation of  $H_2$  by oxidising it within the first instants of slow accidental leaks in confined spaces.

At the same inlet gas velocity of 2 m/s, and as the  $H_2$  inlet concentrations increases, the performance advantage of the foams is lost. As more  $H_2$  is fed to the recombiner, more  $H_2$  is exposed to the catalyst surface, thus the  $H_2$  conversion on plates and pellets increases, as expected, until the point at which gas–solid mass transfer limitations prohibit higher conversions (Fig. 8a). At higher inlet gas flow rates (Fig. 8b–d), the pellet-based configuration proves to be less suitable for high-velocity leaks than the foams and plates. The amount of pellets loaded in the recombiner should be increased significantly in order to improve their efficiency. One way to improve the performance of pellets is to use a catalyst of lower Pt loading (e.g. 0.2 wt% Pt/ $Al_2O_3$ ) dispersed on more  $Al_2O_3$  pellets. This increase in dispersion will inevitably require larger amounts of  $Al_2O_3$  to be used in the recombiner. Additional information on the performance of the plate-based and pellet-based recombiners can be found in the Supplementary data.

### 3.2.4. Catalyst durability tests

For safety applications, the recombiner should be equipped with a catalytic system characterised by short initiation times and high stability upon prolonged exposure to streams of  $H_2$  gas. In the present work, the foam-supported Pt/ $Al_2O_3$  catalyst was exposed to a constant  $H_2$  flow of 138 mL/min for 480 h. Fig. 9 shows the maximum temperature achieved during the test. On fresh foam-supported Pt/ $Al_2O_3$ ,  $H_2$  combustion was initiated at ambient temperature (~24 °C) after a time of 35 s. The combustion temperature subsequently increased over a period of ~215 s before steady state was achieved (Fig. 9a). In an earlier study performed at the same flow conditions [14],  $H_2$  combustion on a Pt catalyst supported on anodised aluminium oxide was initiated within 27 s and stabilised slowly after ~500 s. The rapid heating observed in the present study was attributed to the relatively low amount of material (0.2 g Pt/ $Al_2O_3$  and 0.5 g Al foam) and the high thermal conductivity of the Al foam (237 W/m/K). The catalyst bed could therefore heat up much faster. This can also be seen in the higher combustion temperature achieved (~300 °C vs 163 °C in Ref. [14]) once steady state was reached. Almost constant catalytic activity was maintained for a period of >480 h on stream (Fig. 9b). This is a preliminary indication of the stability of the 5 wt% Pt/ $Al_2O_3$  supported on Al foam.

The fluctuations seen in the temperature profile in Fig. 9b were attributed to insufficient thermal insulation, which caused the reactor to be subjected to the environmental fluctuations in the laboratory [13]. Some water vapour condensation was observed around the reactor wall and towards the reactor outlet (these areas were colder than the reactor inlet where the reaction takes place). These droplets caused an increase in relative humidity inside the reactor, even causing some water droplets to fall on the catalyst surface, despite the precaution taken to prevent



**Fig. 8.** Effect of support structure configuration and inlet  $H_2$  concentration on the  $H_2$  conversion at inlet gas velocities of (a) 2 m/s, (b) 5 m/s, (c) 7.5 m/s and (d) 10 m/s.

interference with the catalyst surface.

The catalyst subjected to the long-term test was allowed to cool to room temperature and was later exposed to the same experimental conditions as the freshly prepared catalyst. The initiation and stabilisation times were increased by  $\sim 15$  and 95 s, respectively (Fig. 9a). This slight change in catalytic behaviour is an indication of possible changes in the textural properties of the catalyst [11]. TEM analysis of the used catalyst revealed an increase in Pt NPs (Fig. 4). Nevertheless, the observed maximum temperatures were similar on both the used and fresh catalyst bed.

#### 4. CFD modelling results

The catalytic  $H_2$  recombination reaction is highly exothermic. The heat released is transferred through conduction within the struts, convection in the fluid domain and thermal radiation in the foam pores.

These three mechanisms of heat transport are included in the conjugated heat transport model [56]. It was found that thermal radiation plays a particularly significant role in the heat transport model. As illustrated in Fig. 10, the CFD model validation shows that neglecting the thermal radiation model in CFD simulation of catalytic recombination results in overprediction of the catalyst temperature profile, worsening as the inlet  $H_2$  concentration increases. This has been demonstrated in a plate-type recombiner catalyst by Meynet et al. [57]. Sinn et al. [58] demonstrated similar deviations in their results of a study of combustion on foam catalysts. The maximum calculated temperature of the catalytic foam was overpredicted by  $\sim 120^\circ\text{C}$  at 6 vol% of inlet  $H_2$ .

Fig. 11 shows plots of the simulated velocity,  $H_2$  mole fraction,  $H_2O$  mole fraction and temperature profiles along the middle of the channel and centre of catalytic foams at 4 vol% of inlet  $H_2$ . As reported in a previous study by Malakhov et al. [29], at the inlet mass flow rate of  $35.0 \pm 0.2$  g/min the flow velocity is distributed uniformly throughout

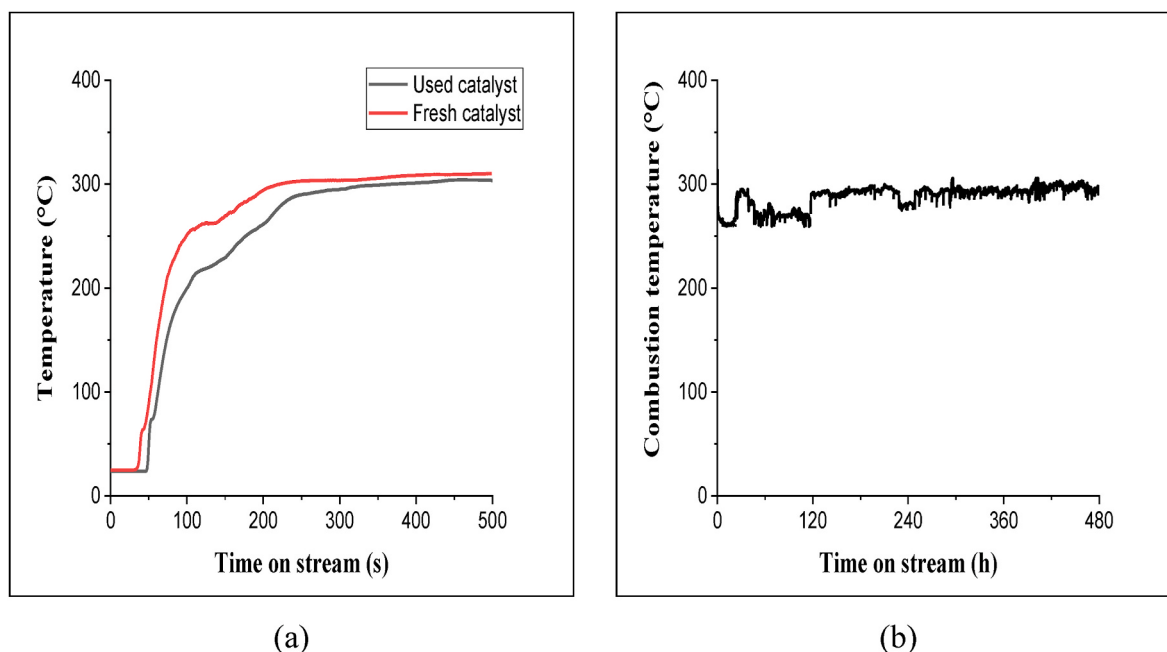


Fig. 9. Temperature profiles recorded on the surface a coated foam (a) during the initial 500 s and (b) over a period of 480 h on stream.

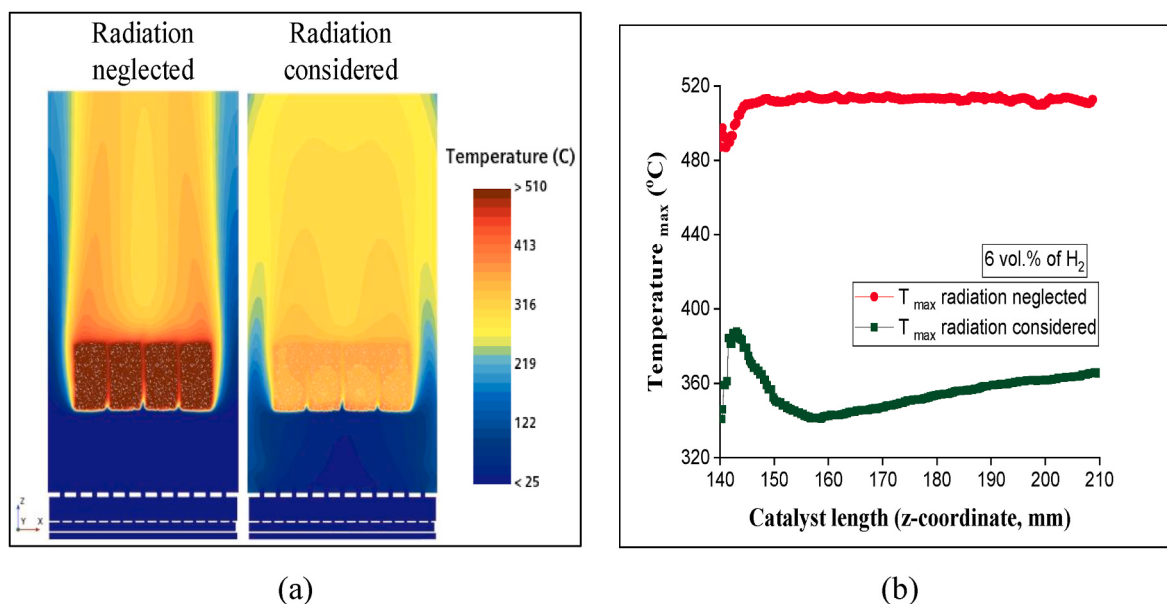


Fig. 10. Comparison between temperature profiles obtained at an inlet gas flow rate of  $35.0 \pm 0.2$  g/min (inlet velocity  $\sim 10$  m/s) and concentration 6 vol%  $H_2$  in simulations: (a) including the radiation model and (b) excluding the radiation model.

the recombiner channel and the catalyst area in the middle (Fig. 11a and b). Two zones of high turbulence vortex can be seen on the right- and left-hand sides at the bottom of the channel below the catalyst foam. These two turbulent zones cause the flow to decrease, resulting in a slightly lower catalyst temperature of foams 1 and 4 (Fig. 11e).

Fig. 11c displays the  $H_2$  distribution profile along the recombiner channel, indicating near-complete recombination of  $H_2$  on the catalyst surface and within a small area around the foam. However, a certain amount of  $H_2$  slips away unreacted on the catalyst surface and escapes through the outlet boundary of the channel, resulting in incomplete  $H_2$  conversion.

Fig. 11d presents a typical steady-state profile of the  $H_2O$ . It demonstrates that  $\sim 4.04$  vol% of  $H_2O$  is generated during the catalytic  $H_2$

recombination reaction at 4 vol% of inlet  $H_2$ . A similar profile of reaction products has been published by Malakhov et al. [10]. Fig. 11e illustrates the temperature profile along the channel length and the catalyst surface. A maximum catalyst temperature of  $293^\circ\text{C}$  was observed at the bottom edge of all four of the foam samples at 4 vol% of inlet  $H_2$ , corresponding to the position of higher  $H_2$  concentrations and flow rates. The simulated positions and magnitudes of temperature maxima were found to be in good agreement with experimental results.

Fig. 12 shows the  $H_2$  and  $H_2O$  concentration profiles together with a comparison of the simulated and experimental catalyst temperatures along the length of the catalytic foam, obtained at an inlet gas flow rate of  $35.0 \pm 0.2$  g/min and inlet  $H_2$  concentrations of 2% and 4 vol%. The  $H_2$  profiles demonstrate a near-complete  $H_2$  conversion along the length

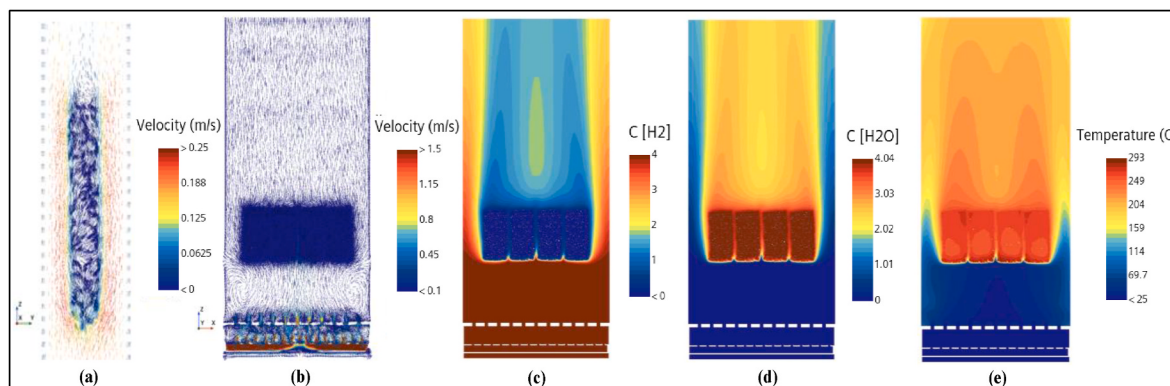


Fig. 11. Calculated profiles of the velocity, temperature, and concentration of  $H_2$  and  $H_2O$  (inlet gas flow rate  $35.0 \pm 0.2$  g/min, inlet  $H_2$  concentration 4 vol%).

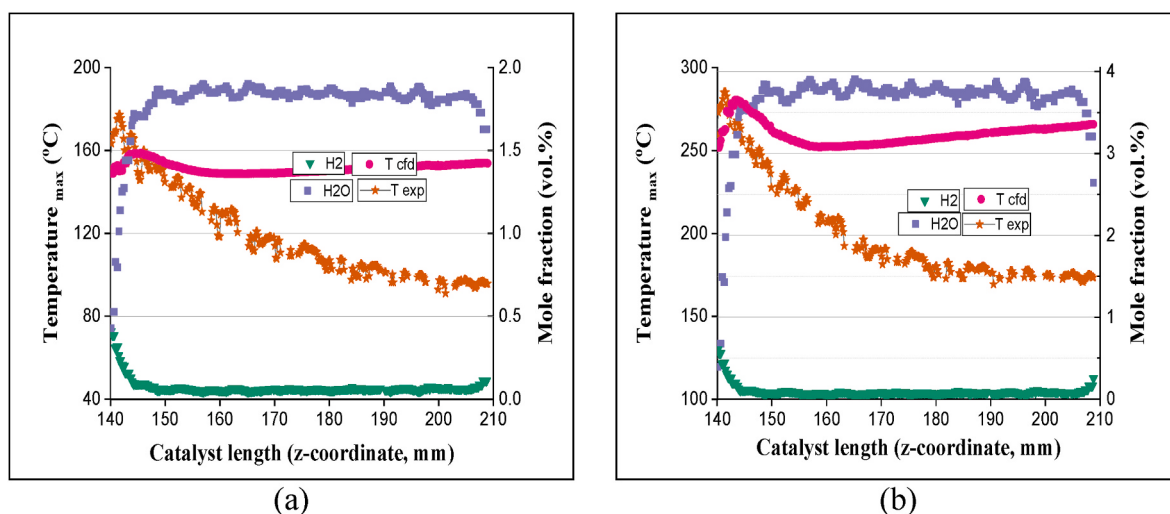


Fig. 12.  $H_2$  and  $H_2O$  mole concentration profiles together with experimental and simulated temperatures obtained at an inlet gas flow rate of  $35.0 \pm 0.2$  g/min and inlet  $H_2$  concentrations of (a) 2 vol%  $H_2$  and (b) 4 vol%  $H_2$ .

of the catalytic foam in both cases. The  $H_2$  concentrations at the bottom edge of the foam are about 0.5 and 0.65 vol%, respectively. These low  $H_2$  concentrations confirm that most  $H_2$  conversion occurs towards the bottom edge of the foam. Therefore, this section heated up faster than the remaining part of the catalytic structure. Nearly complete  $H_2$  conversion was achieved within the first 10 mm from the bottom edge of the foam. At the last few millimetres above the foam, the slight increase in  $H_2$  concentration and temperature are due to the higher velocity of free stream that comes up around the foam (see Fig. 11).

As mentioned above, at the bottom edge of the foam, the numerically simulated maximum catalyst temperatures are in good agreement with experimental values at all the inlet  $H_2$  concentrations considered here. However, along the foam length, the temperature profiles are systematically different (Fig. 13). Both the experimental and simulation profiles decrease after the maximum at the bottom edge until the upper edge of the foam, while the experimental temperature decreases steeply and then stabilises to linear after 30 mm of its length; the numerically simulated temperature slightly decreases for the first 15 mm after the maximum and then increases towards the top edge of the foam without reaching the maximum temperature of the bottom edge. Such a steep down-slope profile indicates heat loss along the catalyst length due to the experimental channel not being truly adiabatic.

The catalyst demonstrates a lower temperature of  $\sim 150^\circ\text{C}$  at 2 vol% of  $H_2$ . The temperature increases as the inlet  $H_2$  concentration increases, resulting in  $235^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $295^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $340^\circ\text{C}$  and  $395^\circ\text{C}$  at 3, 4, 5 and 6 vol% of inlet  $H_2$ , respectively. It was observed that the deviation between

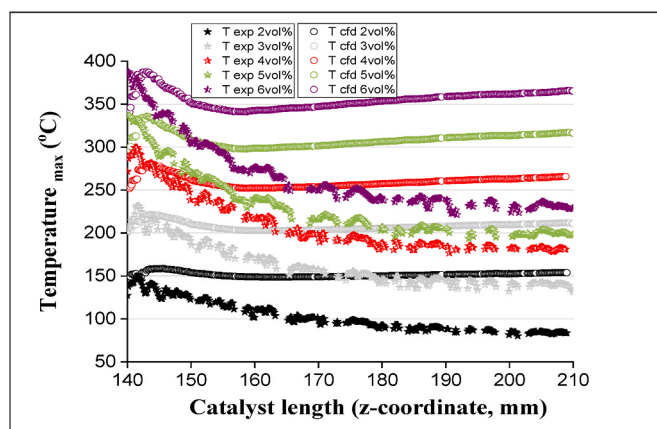


Fig. 13. Comparison of the experimental and simulation temperature profiles along the foam length (z-coordinate, at an inlet gas flow rate of  $35.0 \pm 0.2$  g/min).

experimental and simulated temperature increased with increasing  $H_2$  concentrations [29]; however, the overall numerically simulated trend demonstrates a reasonable prediction of experiment data.

A comparison of the experimental and simulated  $H_2$  conversions obtained on the foam-based catalyst is displayed in Fig. 14, for all

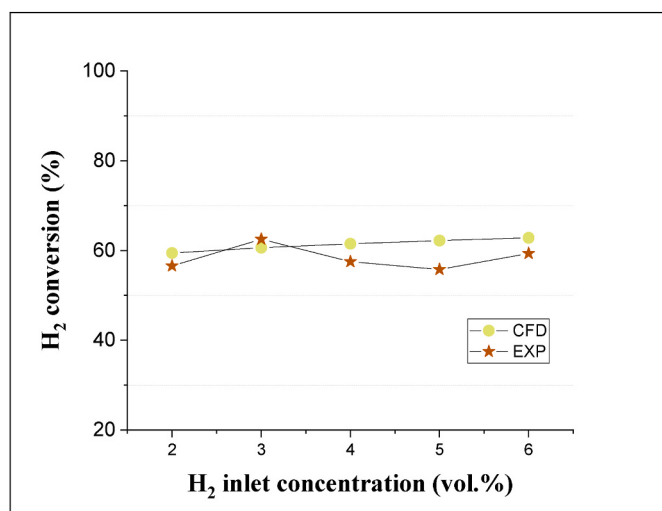


Fig. 14. Comparison of the experimental and simulated H<sub>2</sub> conversion at an inlet gas flow rate of  $35.0 \pm 0.2$  g/min (inlet gas velocity 10 m/s).

considered cases mentioned. Results show that the average experimental and simulated conversions agreed reasonably well. Both cases show that the inlet H<sub>2</sub> concentrations did not significantly affect H<sub>2</sub> conversion.

## 5. Conclusions

Catalytic H<sub>2</sub> combustion tests were conducted in a bench-scale recombiner containing an in-house prepared catalyst (5 wt% Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) coated on commercial Al foams. SEM images and EDS spectra of the coated foams revealed a uniform distribution of the catalyst on the entire Al foam surface. This confirms the suitability of slurry coating as catalyst deposition procedure on a metal foam used for PAR. TEM micrographs showed that long-term catalytic activity increased the particle size from 3.8 to 6.2 nm. However, this increase did not negatively impact the catalytic performance. The foam-supported catalyst maintained a constant activity for more than 480 h on stream.

A comparison between the performances of the foam-, plate-supported and pellet catalysts indicated that the foam-supported catalyst bed has the potential to mitigate risks similar to that achieved with coated plates, and even more so with catalyst pellets, during long periods of exposure to H<sub>2</sub>. At the operating conditions investigated in this study, H<sub>2</sub> conversions of 57–89%, 50–87% and 37–78% were obtained on the foam-, plate-supported and pellet catalysts respectively. This suggested that the geometric configuration had a significant effect on the H<sub>2</sub> conversions obtained at different gas flow conditions, i.e. inlet gas velocity, H<sub>2</sub> concentration and gas distribution. The geometric configuration affected the relative importance of kinetic and mass transfer rates on the catalyst surface. Increasing the volumetric surface area of the catalytic system has the potential to improve the overall H<sub>2</sub> conversion capability of the recombiner.

The uneven temperature profiles observed during the catalytic tests were attributed to the unpredictable gas flow distribution in the recombiner. The profiles revealed the importance of selecting a suitable position for the catalytic bed in the recombiner. Nevertheless, the maximum temperatures obtained at all conditions were much lower than 585 °C, temperature at which gas phase combustion can occur.

CFD simulations revealed important insights into the transport phenomena within the Pt/Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-coated foams during the PAR process. The simulations demonstrated that neglecting the thermal radiation model can significantly overpredict catalyst temperatures, as evidenced by past studies in plate-type recombiners and on foam-supported catalysts used for CO combustion. The calculated maximum temperatures obtained at the bottom edge of the foams – near the reactor inlet –

corresponded well with experimental data. However, evident profile differences were observed elsewhere along the catalyst length. Experimental results indicated a steeper temperature decline compared to simulations, attributed to heat loss under the non-adiabatic experimental conditions. The model also showed that near-complete H<sub>2</sub> conversions were obtained within the catalytic foam region. This suggests that the unconverted H<sub>2</sub> is concentrated in the areas of the recombiner that are not occupied by the foam. Simulated H<sub>2</sub> conversions were also in relatively good agreement with experimental calculations, confirming the validity of the kinetic and transport models used in the calculations.

Overall, this investigation confirms the effectiveness of a foam-supported recombiner for the PAR process. However, some uncertainty remains regarding the benefits of foam-supported catalysts for PAR applications. The following are suggested as topics for further experimental and modelling studies: determinations of the effects of the pore density, the thickness of the washcoat layer, the size and position of the catalytic foam in the recombiner.

## CRedit authorship contribution statement

**Kyatsinge Cédric Musavuli:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Resources, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Alexander Malakhov:** Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Validation, Supervision, Software, Resources, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Raymond Cecil Everson:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Alina Kozhukhova:** Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Validation, Resources, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Phillimon Modisha:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Dmitri Bessarabov:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Resources, Project administration, Funding acquisition, Data curation, Conceptualization.

## Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhydene.2024.11.116>.

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