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The effect of H2S on hydrogen and carbon black production from sour natural gas

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1. Introduction

Hydrogen is well known as an ideal and clean source of energy which is believed to reduce the emission of carbon dioxide and therefore play a major role in decreasing the global warming problem [Ryu et al, 2007]. Eventual realization of a hydrogen economy requires cheap and readily available hydrogen sources and a technology to convert them into pure hydrogen in an efficient and sustainable manner [Abdel et al, 1998]. In addition to water that is an ideal hydrogen source, CH₄ and H₂S are considered as alternative sources of hydrogen [Jang et al, 2007; T-Raissi, 2003]. On the other hand, there is ample scope for CH₄ and H₂S as the raw source of H₂, because the energy required for CH₄ and H₂S splitting (ΔH_{CH4} =74.9 kJ/mol and ΔH_{H2S} =79.9 kJ/mol) is much less than water splitting (ΔH_{water} = 284.7 kJ/mol) [Jang et al, 2007]. There are several convenient technologies for production of H_2 from CH₄, including steam methane reforming (SMR), partial oxidation, pyrolysis, autothermal pyrolysis, and autothermal SMR [Huang & T-Raissi, 2007a]. Methane decomposition is a moderately endothermic reaction. It requires much less thermal energy (only 37.8 kJ per mol of hydrogen produced) than SMR (69 kJ/mol H2). Besides, the decrease in the required energy, the $CO₂$ emission is also decreased in this method. Methane which is the main component of the high quality natural gas can be decomposed to hydrogen and carbon black in pyrolysis reactors [Abanades & Flamant , 2007; Moghima & Bashirnezhad, 2007]. Carbon black is an industrial form of soot produced by subjecting hydrocarbon feedstock to extremely high temperatures in a carefully controlled combustion process. Carbon black is widely used as filler in elastomers, tires, plastics and paints to modify the mechanical, electrical and optical properties of materials in which it is used [Ghosh, 2007; Petrasch et al, 2007].

As the prices of fossil fuel increase, abundant sour natural gas, so called sub-quality natural gas resources become important alternatives to replace increasingly exhausted reserves of high quality natural gases for the production of hydrogen and carbon black [Huang & T-Raissi, 2007b; Abdel et al, 1998]. At oil flow stations it is common practice to flare or vent SQNG, which is produced along with crude oil. This accounts for more than 100 million cubic meters (m³) world-wide per day, and approximately equals to France's annual gas consumption [Gruenberger et al, 2002]. Clearly this is of considerable concern in terms of

global resource utilization and climate change implications. Gas flaring has also been blamed for environmental and human health problems such as acid rain, asthma, skin and breathing diseases [Lambert et al, 2006]. The removal of H2S from sub-quality natural gas is expensive and not commercially viable for large-scale plants. When H2S concentration in natural gas is higher than about 1.0%, the high separation cost makes the sour natural gas uneconomical to use [Huang & T-Raissi, 2007b]. As mentioned above, production of hydrogen and carbon black from sour natural gas is one viable option utilizing this untapped energy resource while at the same time reducing carbon oxides and hydrogen sulfide emissions.

There is a massive back ground literature on thermal decomposition of high quality natural gas using different types of reactors. Petrasch & Steinfeld (2007) have studied hydrogen production process using solar reactors with SMR method. Abanades & Flamant (2007) also have investigated the effect of different parameters and system geometry on methane conversion and hydrogen yield using thermal decomposition method in solar reactors. Their results show that the solar reactor producing pure H_2 has high efficiency in CH_4 conversion. Cho et al (2009) have studied on the development of a microwave plasma-catalytic reaction process to produce hydrogen and carbon black from pure natural gas. The direct conversion of methane, using various plasma technologies has widely been studied in order to obtain more valuable chemical products. Gruenberger et al (2002) and Moghiman & Bashirnezhad (2007) have investigated the effect of feedstock parameters on methane decomposition in carbon black furnace.

Although many studies have been carried out on high quality natural gas pyroysis, sour natural gas pyrolysis have received much less attention. Towler & Lynn (1996) introduced thermal decomposition of hydrogen sulfide at high temperature as an alternative of Clause process. The main advantage of the thermal decomposition is reduction of produced tail gas rather than Clauses process. They have investigated the effect of $CO₂$ presence in feed gas and temperature on decomposition and sulfur compounds production. Also, Huang and T-Raissi et al (2007b, 2007c and 2008) have performed the thermodynamic analyses of hydrogen production from sub-quality natural gas using a Gibbs reactor operation in the AspenPlusTM chemical process simulator. Javadi and Moghiman (2010) have investigated carbon disulfide, hydrogen and solid carbon production from sub-quality natural gas. Their results show that the maximum yield of $C(s)$ is in 1000 °K and then decreases due to increasing of CS2 production.

Based on the importance of sub-quality natural gas pyrolysis, the effects of feedstock parameters, reactor temperature and H_2S/CH_4 molar ratio of feedstock on decomposition process have been studied using the proposed carbon black furnace by Gruenberger et al (2002).

2. Gas furnace carbon black

Hydrogen and carbon black production via thermal decomposition of natural gas have been achieved using a carbon black furnace [Gruenberger et al, 2000 & 2002], plasma [Gaudernack & Lynum 1998], solar radiation [Abanades et al, 2007 & 2008], a molten metal bath and thermal reactors with and without catalyst [Steinberg, 1998; Ishihara et al, 2002; Muradov et al, 1998 & Kim et al, 2004].

Depending on the way that heat is supplied to sour natural gas, carbon black furnaces can be classified as follows:

Type 1: Part of the natural gas or any other fuel burns inside the reactor to provide heat needed to decompose the sour natural gas.

Type 2: Direct heat transfer from inert hot gases introduced into the reactor. This method is known as "Hydrogen Sulfide- Methane Reformation".

The carbon black furnace used in this investigation is a small-scale axial flow reactor identical to that reported previously by Gruenberger et al (2002). The furnace has been designed on the basis of using gaseous fuels as feedstock hydrocarbon, with a maximum output of 10 kg carbon black per hour. The basic geometry of the carbon black furnace is shown in Fig. 1, consisting of a pre-combustor, a mixing zone and a reactor. In the precombustor, the axially injected natural gas burns with inlet air introduced through two tangential inlets. Then, the highly swirling hot combustion gases mix with the sub-quality natural gas injected radially into the pre-combustor in the proximity of the mixing zone. A sudden increase in the tube diameter at the exit of the choke promotes vigorous mixing of the SQNG fuel with the hot gases leading to thermal decomposition of CH_4+H_2S and formation of hydrogen, carbon black, sulfur compounds and other precursor species for the formation of carbon black [Lockwood et al, 1995].

Fig. 1. Carbon black gas furnace[Gruenberger et al, 2002]

3. Chemical reaction modelling

Production of carbon black through thermolysis of SQNG involves a complex series of chemical reactions which control conversion of both $\rm CH_4$ and $\rm H_2S$ as follows [Huange & T-Raissi, 2007b; Towler & Lynn, 1996]:

$$
CH4 \to C(S) + 2H2 \qquad \Delta H298 = -74.9 \text{kJ/mol} \qquad \text{Reaction (1)}
$$

$$
H_2S \to \frac{1}{2}S_2 + H_2 \qquad \Delta H_{298}^\circ = -79.9 \text{kJ/mol} \qquad \text{Reaction (2)}
$$

Since reaction 1 is mildly endothermic, it requires temperatures higher than 850° K to proceed at reasonable rates [Dunker et al, 2006], and, as reaction 2 is highly endothermic, temperatures in excess of $1500\degree K$ is required for achieving reasonable rates [Huang & T-Raissi, 2008].

Under special circumstances including using catalyst H2S can react with methane producing carbon disulfide (CS_2) and H_2 [Huange & T-Raissi, 2008].

$$
2H_2S + CH_4 \Leftrightarrow CS_2 + 4H_2 \qquad \Delta H_{298K}^{\circ} = 232 \text{ kJ/mol} \qquad \text{Reaction (3)}
$$

A portion of CH_4 and H_2S can oxidize to produce CO , CO_2 and SO_2 [Abdel et al, 1998]:

$$
CH_4 + \frac{1}{2}O_2 \rightarrow CO + H_2 + H_2O \text{ and } CO + \frac{1}{2}O_2 \rightarrow CO_2
$$
 Reaction (4)

$$
H_2S + \frac{3}{2}O_2 \rightarrow SO_2 + H_2O
$$
 Reaction (5)

H₂S can also react with CO_2 producing COS [Sakanishi et al, 2005]:

$$
H_2S + CO_2 \Leftrightarrow COS + H_2O \qquad \qquad \text{Reaction (6)}
$$

4. Turbulence–chemistry interaction

The mixture fraction/PDF method is used to model the turbulent chemical reactions occurring in the diffusion, combustion and thermal decomposition of natural gas in the carbon black furnace. This method, which assumes the chemistry is fast enough for a chemical equilibrium to always exist at molecular level, enables handling of large numbers of reacting species, including intermediate species. Transport equations are solved for the mean mixture fraction \bar{f} , its variance f'^2 and for enthalpy \bar{h} . Calculations and PDF integrations are performed using a preprocessing code, assuming chemical equilibrium between 30 different species. The results of the chemical equilibrium calculations are stored in look-up tables which relate the mean thermochemical variables (species mass fractions, temperature and density) to the values of \overline{f} , f'^2 and \overline{h} [Saario & Rebola, 2005].

In non-adiabatic systems, where change in enthalpy, due to heat transfer, affects the mixture state, the instantaneous thermo chemical state of the mixture, resulting from the chemical equilibrium model, is related to a strictly conserved scalar quantity known as the mixture fraction, f, and the instantaneous enthalpy, $H^*, \phi_i = \phi_i(f, H^*)$. The effects of turbulence on the thermo chemical state are accounted for with the help of a probability density function (PDF):

$$
\overline{\phi}_i = \int_0^1 \phi_i(f, \overline{H}^*) p(f) df.
$$
\n(1)

In this work, the β -probability density function is used to relate the time-averaged values of individual species mass fraction, temperature and fluid density of the mixture to instantaneous mixture fraction fluctuations. The β -PDF in terms of the mean mixture fraction \bar{f} and its variance \bar{f}'^2 , can be written as:

$$
0 < f < 1
$$
 (2)

where:

$$
\alpha = \overline{f} \left[\frac{\overline{f}(1-\overline{f})}{\overline{f'^2}} - 1 \right], \ \beta = (1-\overline{f}) \left[\frac{\overline{f}(1-\overline{f})}{\overline{f'^2}} - 1 \right]. \tag{3}
$$

Using the unweighted averaging [Jones & Whitelaw, 1982], the values of the two parameters \overline{f} and \overline{f}^2 at each point in the flow domain are computed through the solution of the following conservation equations [Warnatz, 2006]:

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\rho u_i \bar{f}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(\frac{\mu_t}{\sigma_t} \frac{\partial \bar{f}}{\partial x_i}),
$$
(4)

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\rho u_i \overline{f'^2}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(\frac{\mu_t}{\sigma_t} \frac{\partial \overline{f'^2}}{\partial x_i}) + C_g \mu_t \left(\frac{\partial \overline{f}}{\partial x_i}\right)^2 - C_d \rho \frac{\varepsilon}{k} \overline{f'^2},
$$
(5)

where the constants σ_t , $C_g (= 2/\sigma_t)$ and C_d take the values 0.7, 2.86 and 2.0, respectively. The distribution of the instantaneous enthalpy is calculated from a transport equation as follows:

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\rho u_i \overline{H}^*) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(\frac{k_t}{c_p} \frac{\partial H^*}{\partial x_i}) + \tau_{ik} \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_k} + S_h
$$
(6)

where k_t is turbulent thermal conductivity and S_h includes the heat generated by the chemical reaction and radiation. The instantaneous enthalpy is defined as:

$$
H^* = \sum_j m_j H_j = \sum_j m_j \left[\int_{T_{ref,j}}^T c_{p,j} dT + h_j^{\circ}(T_{ref,j}) \right]
$$
(7)

where m_j is the mass fraction of species j and $h_j^{\circ}(T_{ref,j})$ is the formation enthalpy of species j at the reference temperature $T_{ref,j}$.

5. Numerical solution procedure

Fluent CFD software has been used to model the furnace employing solution-adaptive grid refinement technique to solve the 3D problem. Gambit preprocessor is used for the fully three dimensional geometry creations and unstructured grid generation. The 3D volume grid is represented in Fig 2. The domain is discretized into a grid of 20493 nodes and 82745 tetrahedral cells.

Fig. 2. Three-dimensional tetrahedral grid

The conservation equations for mass, momentum, energy, Reynold's stresses, dissipation rate, mixture fraction and its variance, and concentration of soot are solved by finite-volume analysis, using a second-order upwind scheme for discretisation of the convective terms in the transport equations.

The radiative heat transfer in the absorbing, emitting and scattering medium is calculated by the Discrete Ordinates (DO) radiation model [Murthy & Mathur, 1998]. The RSM (Reynolds stress model) is used for prediction of anisotropic, highly swirling and recirculating flow inside the combustor. Abandoning the isotropic eddy-viscosity hypothesis, the RSM closes the Reynolds-averaged Navier-Stokes equations by solving six differential transport equations for Reynolds stresses, together with an equation for the dissipation rate of turbulence kinetic energy. The conventional wall-function approach is used in the near-wall region. At the inlet boundary, conditions are specified once and did not need updating during the course of the solution procedure. At the outlet boundary, zero gradient conditions are applied. We assumed an isothermal boundary condition at the wall of the furnace

A grid dependence study was conducted to arrive at the appropriate size of the grid for optimal accuracy and efficiency. The number of grid points was varied from 17231 to 36387 for typical set operating conditions. We observed that the field quantities varied less than 1% after the number of grid points increased beyond 20493. For the radiation model, emissivity coefficient at the flow inlets and outlets were taken to be 1.0 (black body absorption). Wall emissivity was set at 0.6, a typical value for combustion gases.

6. Results and discussion

As mentioned above, the processes of methane pyrolysis differ mainly by the way heat is supplied to the furnace. In this study, sour natural gas decomposition in a carbon black furnace has been investigated for two types of supplying heat. In the first type, the natural gas burns inside the pre-combustor (Fig.1) to provide required heat for decomposing feed sour gas. In this case, the problem is the effect of combustion product (process gases) and excess air which extremely affect on sour natural gas decomposition and furnace product. In the second type the heat transfers from inert hot gases to feed sour gas. In this case only reactions 1 to 3 are involved and there is not the problem of excess air and combustion products. In this study the sour natural gas thermal decomposition inside the axial flow gas furnace designed by Gruenberger et al (2002) has investigated. The results of two types of supplying heat for pyrolysis are as follows:

6.1 Type 1: Pyrolysis by hot combustion gases

The total pre-combustor inlet airflow rate is 19×10^{-3} m³ / s, at the temperature of 690° K and pressure of 1 bar. The equivalence ratio used for the pre-combustor is 0.92. The accuracy of the quantitative or even the qualitative trends for the combustion and decomposition parameters depend on the accuracy with which the temperature and species concentration fields are determined from the numerical calculation of the present model. To establish the accuracy of our model, we have been calculated and compared the model predictions to the experimental measurements of Gruenberger [Gruenberger et al, 2002] with no H₂S. For comparison purposes, we first conducted computations without H_2S in feed gas.

A comparison of reactor outlet average temperature and carbon black yield (kg carbon black/kg feedstock) predicted by this model and by experimental results is given in Figs. 3 and 4. Results of Fig. 3 depict that the model predicts lower temperatures than the experimental data, especially at high feed flow rates. The discrepancy between the two results might be due to the fundamental assumption made in the combustion model (PDF fast chemistry combustion model), which assumes that chemistry is fast enough for a chemical equilibrium. Results of Fig. 4 show that the predicted and measured carbon black yields are in very good agreement and maximum carbon black yield is reached at the equivalence ratio of 3. The discrepancy between the two results can be attributed to the temperature levels obtained by the two methods (see Fig. 3). The lower temperature levels computed by the model might be due to higher decomposition of CH4. Fig. 5 presents the calculated distributions for CH₄, H₂S, temperature and mass fraction of soot, carbon black, COS and gaseous sulfur predicted by the model at feed rate of 3×10^{-3} kg/s. H₂S mass fraction in natural gas is assumed to be 10%. Of particular interest are Figs. 5d-f that show soot formation due to incomplete combustion of inlet methane and production of solid carbon and gaseous sulfur by pyrolysis of methane- hydrogen sulfide jet interaction with hot surroundings. Results from the model calculations seem to indicate that the use of more inlet injection ports for SQNG feed would increase the yield of carbon black and sulfur compounds.

Fig. 6 shows the reactor outlet temperature as a function of inlet mass flow rate for two cases a) with H₂S, b) without H₂S. It can be seen that the results obtained for these two cases are similar. The small discrepancy between the results may be due to CH4 decomposition reaction that begins at lower temperatures than that of H2S. Also, Fig. 6 depicts that temperature drops precipitously with increasing flow rate of feed gas due to the endothermic nature of both CH4 and H2S decompositions.

Fig. 3. Comparison of the predicted reactor outlet temperature with the experimental data

Fig. 4. Comparison of the predicted carbon black yield with the experimental data

Fig. 5. Contour of species mass fractions and temperature (K)

Fig. 6. Effect of feedstock flow rate on calculated outlet temperature

Figs. 7 and 8 show the effect of feed gas flow rate and reactor outlet temperature on CH₄ and H2S conversions given by [Huang & T-Raissi, 2008]:

$$
CH_4 \text{ conversion} = \frac{\left[CH_4\right]_0 - \left[CH_4\right]}{\left[CH_4\right]_0} \times 100, H_2S \text{ conversion} = \frac{\left[H_2S\right]_0 - \left[H_2S\right]}{\left[H_2S\right]_0} \times 100
$$

where $\text{[CH}_4]_0$ and $\text{[H}_2\text{S}]_0$ denote the initial (input) concentration of CH₄ and H₂S, respectively. [CH₄] and [H₂S] are equilibrium concentration of CH₄ and H₂S at reactor outlet, respectively. Fig. 7 depicts that the H2S conversion drops sharply with increased feed gas flow rate, which can be attributed to the endothermic nature of H_2S and CH_4 decomposition reactions. For higher values of feed gas flow rate $(\geq 0.002 \text{kg/s})$ CH₄ conversion decreases with increased feed gas flow rate due to the endothermicity of CH⁴ thermolysis. The major factor influencing CH4 and H2S conversions appears to be temperature. Fig. 8 shows that CH4 conversion reaches 100% at temperatures above 1100°K. Because CH₄ decomposition reaction is mildly endothermic, the temperature must be above 850°K for the reaction to proceed at a reasonable rate. This is in accordance with the results of Huang and T-Raissi (2008). At any temperature, H₂S conversion is less than that of CH₄, especially at those below 1300° K wherein H₂S conversion is less than 5%. For higher values of reactor temperature $(\geq 1300\textdegree K)$, H₂S conversion increases sharply with reaction temperature. As the reaction of H_2S decomposition is endothermic, the temperature must be above 1500° K for the reaction to proceed at rapid rates.

Fig. 7. Effect of feedstock mass flow rate on H_2S and CH_4 conversions

Fig. 8. Effect of reactor outlet temperature on H₂S and CH₄ conversions

Figs. 9 shows the effect of feedstock flow rate on CH4, carbon black, soot and CO mass fractions at the furnace outlet. It can be seen that for lower values of feed gas flow rates, the very high temperature pre-combustor effluent (see Fig. 6) causes the feedstock methane to convert to CO rather than carbon. For higher values of feedstock flow rate, the formation of carbon black increases, and due to the resulting lower temperatures, the mass fraction of CO and soot decreases. This is so because the soot model strongly depends on the reaction temperature. Fig. 10 shows the effect of feedstock flow rate on H₂ and carbon black yields at the furnace outlet. It can be seen that the yield of H_2 increases with increased feed gas flow rate until it reaches a maximum value, and then drops with further increase in the flow rate. For higher values of feedstock flow rate, the yield of carbon black increases and due to reduction in CH4 conversion (see Fig. 7) the yield of hydrogen decreases.

Fig. 9. Effect of feedstock flow rate on CH4, CO, carbon black, and soot mass fractions

Fig. 10. Effect of feedstock mass flow rate on H₂ and C(S) productions

Fig. 11 depicts the yield of sulfur (due to H₂S decomposition) and SO₂ (due to H₂S combustion) as a function of feedstock flow rate at the outlet of the furnace. S_2 and SO_2 yields are defined as [Huang & T-Raissi, 2008]:

$$
S_2(\%) = \frac{2[S_2]}{[H_2S]_0} * 100 , SO_2(\%) = \frac{[SO_2]}{[H_2S]_0} * 100 .
$$

where $[S_2]$ and $[SO_2]$ denote the equilibrium molar concentrations of S_2 and SO_2 , respectively. The figure reveals that for low values of feedstock flow rate $(\leq 0.002 \text{kg/s})$ that result in high reaction temperatures (see Fig. 3) $\rm{H_2S}$ converts mostly to $\rm{S_2}$ and $\rm{SO_2}$. It can be seen that for higher values of feedstock flow rate, yield of S_2 and SO_2 are quite low. This is due to reduced of H_2S conversion (see Fig. 7). Figs. 12 and 13 depict the effects of feedstock mass flow rate and temperature on the yield of COS and $CS₂$, respectively, as defined by:

$$
COS(\%) = \frac{[COS]}{[H_2S]_0} * 100 , CS_2(\%) = \frac{[CS_2]}{[CH_4]_0} * 100
$$

where [COS] and $[CS_2]$ denote the equilibrium molar concentration of COS and CS_2 , respectively [Huang & T-Raissi, 2008]. Fig. 12 shows that COS and $CS₂$ yields increase with increased feedstock flow rate until they reach a peak, and then drop with further increase in feed gas flow rate. Figs. 12 reveals that yield of CS_2 is always low ($\leq 0.0007\%$). This is in accord with results of Huang &T-Raissi (2008) and Towler & Lynn (1996).

Fig. 11. Effect of feedstock mass flow rate on S_2 and SO_2

Fig. 12. Effect of feedstock mass flow rate on COS and CS2 yields

6.2 Type 2: pyrolysis by inert hot gases

In the case of Type 2, the inert hot gas (argon) flow rate introduced into the pre-combustor is 3×10^{-3} kg/s with pressure of 1 bar and the temperature varying from 600° K to 1800° K. The

feedstock sour natural gas feed rate is 19×10^{-3} m³/s with H₂S/CH₄ molar ratio varying from 0 to 4 and the temperature of 300 $^{\circ}$ K. As the reactions of CH₄ and H₂S decomposition are endothermic, in order to avoid the reduction of inert gas temperature some thermal elements have been utilized.

Figs. 13 and 14 illustrate the effects of feedstock H₂S/CH₄ ratio and reaction temperature on CH₄ and H_2S conversions. Results show that the major factor influencing CH_4 and H_2S conversions is temperature. As the temperature increases, CH_4 conversion also increases to reach 100% at temperatures above 1100° K for H₂S/CH₄ feed ratio ranging from 0 to 4. Since the endothermic reaction of CH₄ conversion occurs at lower temperatures compared with H₂S conversion, the reactor temperature is significantly affected by CH₄ molar ratio in feedstock. Based on these results it can be concluded that as the reaction temperature increases up to about 1100° K, methane pyrolysis is the dominant reaction that controls reactor temperature. H₂S decomposition is the limiting step in the H2S-methane reformation process (Reaction 3) as it proceeds by the sequential reaction involving H₂S pyrolysis to form sulfur diatomic gas (S_2) (Reaction 2), followed by S₂ reaction with CH₄ to produce carbon disulfide (CS₂) and H₂. Fig. 15 depicts that H₂ production increases by increasing molar ratio of CH₄ (decreasing H₂S/CH₄ ratio) in feedstock and temperature. The rate of hydrogen production from pyrolysis of methane is much more than that of hydrogen sulfide. Therefore, any reduction in H_2S/CH_4 feed ratio, for constant feedstock mass flow rate, leads to significant increase in hydrogen production rate.

Figs. 16 and 17 depict the yields of carbon and sulfur as a function of H_2S /CH₄ feed ratio and reaction temperature. Fig. 16 shows that carbon yield increases with increasing temperature until the yield reaches a maximum value (at about 1000°K), and then drops with further increase in the temperature for H_2S/CH_4 ratios more than zero.

Fig. 13. The effect of reaction temperature and feedstock H₂S/CH₄ ratio on CH₄ conversion for constant feedstock mass flow rate in the case of Type 2

Fig. 14. The effect of reaction temperature and feedstock H_2S/CH_4 ratio on H_2S conversion for constant feedstock mass flow rate in the case of Type 2

Fig. 15. Yield of H_2 as a function of reaction temperature and H_2S/CH_4 ratio for constant feedstock mass flow rate

Fig. 16. The effects of temperature and H_2S/CH_4 ratio on $C(s)$ yield for constant feedstock mass flow rate

In temperatures lower than 1000°K, hydrogen and carbon are produced by CH₄ decomposition. But in temperatures more than 1000°K hydrogen is produced from both of methane and hydrogen sulfide, and formed solid carbon from CH₄ decomposition is consumed by CS_2 production (Fig. 18). Fig. 17 depicts that by either increasing H_2S/CH_4 ratio or the reaction temperature, S_2 yield increases. As explained in chemical reactions section, hydrogen sulfide requires high temperatures to be decomposed. Consequently, S₂ yield for temperatures lower than 1000°K is negligible. As shown in Fig .18, CS2 yield depend not only on the temperature, but also on the H_2S/CH_4 feed ratio. In temperatures lower than 1000°K, the yield of carbon disulfide (CS₂) approaches zero (Fig. 7). These results are in accordance with results of Huang and T-Raissi (2008).

Fig. 17. The effects of reaction temperature and H_2S/CH_4 ratio on S_2 yield for constant feedstock mass flow rate

7. Conclusions

The production of hydrogen and carbon black from sub-quality natural gas containing methane ($CH₄$) and hydrogen sulfide ($H₂S$) has been analyzed for two types of supplying heat. Based on the presented results, the following conclusions may be drawn:

- The major factor influencing CH₄ and H₂S conversions is reactor temperature.
- At temperatures above 1100°K, CH₄ conversion is complete.
- At any temperature, H₂S conversion is less than that of CH₄, especially at temperature below 1300°K for which H₂S conversion is less than 5%.
- For lower values of feedstock flow rate, $CH₄$ is converted to mostly CO and consequently, the yield of carbon black is low. For higher values of feed gas mass flow rates yield of carbon black increases to a maximum value before dropping at much higher feed gas flow rates.

- \bullet The yield of hydrogen (in combustion case) increases with increasing feed gas mass flow rate until it peaks and then drops with further increase in the flow rate.
- \bullet For temperatures higher than $1200^\circ K$, H₂S conversion increases sharply with temperature.
- \bullet Since CH₄ conversion occurs at lower temperatures compared with H_2S conversion, the reactor temperature is significantly affected by the amount of CH_4 .
- \bullet The carbon yield reaches a maximum value about $1000[°]K$ and the then drops with further increase in the temperature for sour natural gas $(H_2S/CH_4 \text{ ratio} > 0)$.
- \bullet CS2 and COS are minor products in combustion case and can be neglected, while CS2 yield in inert gas case reaches up to 80% as a major product.

Fig. 18. The effects of reaction temperature and H_2S/CH_4 ratio on CS_2 yield for constant feedstock mass flow rate

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The contributions in this book present an overview of cutting edge research on natural gas which is a vital component of world's supply of energy. Natural gas is a combustible mixture of hydrocarbon gases, primarily methane but also heavier gaseous hydrocarbons such as ethane, propane and butane. Unlike other fossil fuels, natural gas is clean burning and emits lower levels of potentially harmful by-products into the air. Therefore, it is considered as one of the cleanest, safest, and most useful of all energy sources applied in variety of residential, commercial and industrial fields. The book is organized in 25 chapters that cover various aspects of natural gas research: technology, applications, forecasting, numerical simulations, transport and risk assessment.

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