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PART 1

OVERVIEW AND KEY ISSUES

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Aero Gas Turbine Combustion: Metrics, Constraints, and System Interactions

Randal G. McKinney and James B. Hoke

1.1 Introduction

The aircraft gas turbine engine is a complex machine using advanced technology from many engineering disciplines such as aerodynamics, materials science, combustion, mechanical design, and manufacturing engineering. In the very early days of gas turbines, the combustor section was frequently the most challenging (Golley, Whittle, and Gunston, 1987). Although the industry’s capability to design combustors has greatly improved, they remain an important design challenge.

This chapter will describe how the combustor interacts with the rest of the engine and flight vehicle by describing the relationship between attributes of the engine and the resulting requirements for the combustor. Emissions, a major engine performance characteristic that relies heavily on combustor design, will be introduced here with more detail found in following chapters. The wide range of operating conditions a combustor must meet as engine thrust varies, which is a major challenge for combustor design, will also be described. Last, the relationship between combustor exit temperature distribution and turbine section durability will be discussed.

1.2 Overview of Selected Aircraft and Engine Requirements and their Relation to Combustor Requirements

Aircraft gas turbine engines have been used in many different sizes of aircraft since their introduction in the 1940s. Small aircraft such as single-engine turboprops use engines of low shaft horsepower, which are of small physical size. Business jets and smaller passenger aircraft may use turbojets or turbofans with thrust in the range of several thousand pounds, usually with two engines per aircraft. The other extreme includes four-engine aircraft with turbofan engine thrusts as high as seventy thousand pounds and very large twin-engine aircraft with thrust per engine in the one hundred thousand pound class. These thrust designs are also physically very large, with fan diameters over 100 inches. In all of these applications, the engine system imposes a common set of requirements upon the combustor, as summarized in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1. *Engine system-level requirements and supporting combustor characteristics*

Engine requirement	Combustor characteristic
Optimize fuel consumption	High combustion efficiency and low combustor pressure loss
Meet emissions requirements	Minimize emissions and smoke
Wide range of thrust	Good combustion stability over entire operating range
Ground and altitude starting	Easy to ignite and propagate flame
Turbine durability	Good combustor exit temperature distribution
Overhaul and repair cost	Meet required combustor life by managing metal temperatures and stresses

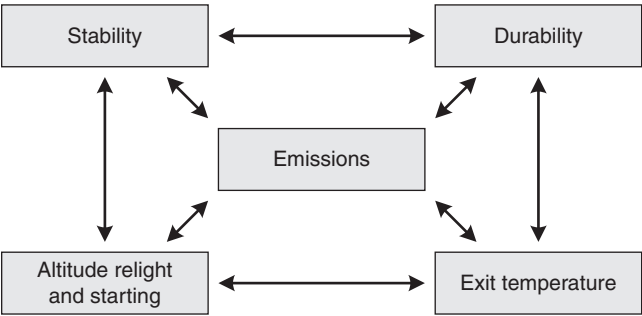


Figure 1.1. Combustor performance requirements are interrelated.

As shown in Figure 1.1, these requirements are interdependent. Years of design and development within the industry have produced successive designs that improve upon all of the requirements concurrently. Although emissions are the focus of this text, each of these other requirements interacts with the emissions constraints and will be introduced briefly.

1.3 Combustor Effects on Engine Fuel Consumption

Gas turbine engines are Brayton cycle devices. An ideal version of such a cycle comprises isentropic compression, addition of heat at constant pressure, and isentropic expansion through the turbine. Figure 1.2 is a simplified schematic of the effect of such a cycle on the pressures and temperatures in the engine. In real engines, all of the processes incur some loss of performance versus the ideal, manifested as a stagnation pressure loss in the combustor. Combustion systems incur pressure losses because of flow diffusion and turning, jet mixing, and Rayleigh losses during heat addition (Lefebvre and Ballal, 2010). However, at most power conditions, the efficiency with which the fuel chemical energy is converted into thermal energy is very high, typically greater than 99.9 percent. “Low” levels of 98 to 99.5 percent can be seen at low-power levels. In general, though, the combustion system is a small parasitic effect on overall fuel consumption.

1.4 Fundamentals of Emissions Formation

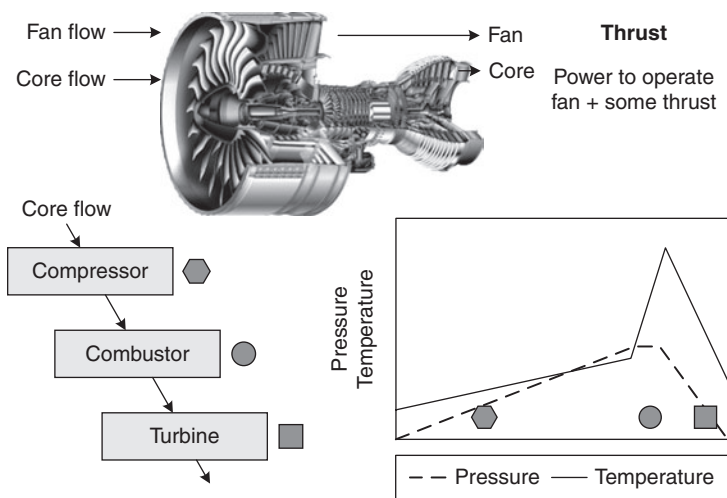
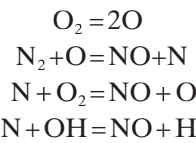


Figure 1.2. Summary of component characteristics.

1.4 Fundamentals of Emissions Formation

The pollutants emitted by engines that are of most interest are carbon monoxide (CO), unburned hydrocarbons (UHC), nitric oxides (NO_x), and particulate matter (PM or smoke). At low-power conditions, the inlet combustor pressure and temperature are relatively low, and reaction rates for kerosene-type fuels are low. Liquid fuel must be atomized, evaporated, and combusted, with sufficient residence time at high enough temperatures to convert the fuel into CO₂. If the flow field permits fuel vapor to exit the combustor without any reaction, or, if partially reacted to species of lower molecular weights, UHC will be present. If a portion of the flow field subjects a reacting mixture to a premature decrease in temperature via mixing with cold airstreams, these incomplete or quenched reactions lead to the production of CO, as detailed in Chapter 7.

At high power conditions, high air pressures and temperatures lead to fast reactions, with the result that CO and UHC are nearly zero. At these elevated temperatures, emissions of NO_x and PM become more prevalent. NO_x can be formed through several processes, but the dominant pathway is thermal NO_x, as described by the extended Zeldovich mechanism, also detailed in Chapter 7.



The formation rate is exponentially related to the temperature in the flame, peaking near stoichiometric conditions. Thermal NO_x emissions can be reduced by limiting the time the flow spends at the high temperature and/or by reducing the maximum temperatures seen in the flame via stoichiometry control. Other NO_x formation

mechanisms, such as NO_x formed in the flame zone itself, are also described in Chapter 7, but are negligible for aircraft engines.

When fuel-rich regions of the combustor flow exist at high pressures and temperatures, the formation of small particles of carbon can occur. These carbon particles result from complex chemical processes and undergo multiple processes within the combustor such as surface growth, agglomeration, and oxidation prior to leaving the combustor, as detailed in Chapter 5. These particles pass through the turbine and exit the engine in the exhaust. When the concentration of the particles in the exhaust is high enough to be visible, as was often the case in early gas turbines, it is referred to as smoke or soot. Recently, the more general term *particulate matter* (PM) has been used to describe this emission. Modern engine smoke levels are invisible but still possess large quantities of very small soot particles and aerosol soot precursors (see Chapter 5) at the exhaust. Emerging research on the effect of PM on health and climate focuses more attention on measuring, modeling, and understanding the processes governing PM production.

These relationships between engine power conditions and emissions production lead to the behavior shown in Figure 1.3. As shown in the figure, levels of UHC and CO are highest at low power and drop quickly with increasing thrust. Conversely, NO_x and PM increase with engine power and are typically maximized at maximum power. Chapters 5 and 7 discuss these emissions formation processes in more detail.

1.5 Effect of Range of Thrust and Starting Conditions on the Combustor

Flight gas turbine engines must provide a range of thrust and thrust response to power the aircraft mission. Missions vary depending on the aircraft application. Commercial aircraft and military transports have similar missions. Military fighters and other specialized aircraft can have very different missions because their use is not exclusively for the transport of payload between two points. Design requirements are also very different for commercial and military applications. Military fighter engines are often designed for maximized thrust developed per unit weight so that the maneuverability of the aircraft is maximized. Military fighter engines also fly at a wide range of thrust throughout the flight envelope and must undergo frequent rapid thrust transients. Typically, commercial engines are designed for maximum fuel efficiency per unit thrust. They fly at high altitude to achieve the best fuel efficiency and often do not have to endure the aggressive and numerous thrust transients of military fighter engines. Engine combustors must operate stably and efficiently over the full range of operating conditions, and must reliably relight if an engine shutdown or flameout should occur in flight.

1.5.1 Engine Mission Characteristics

A typical commercial engine mission consists of ground starting, taxi, takeoff, climb to altitude, cruise, deceleration to flight idle and descent, approach, touchdown,

1.5 Effect of Range of Thrust and Starting Conditions on the Combustor

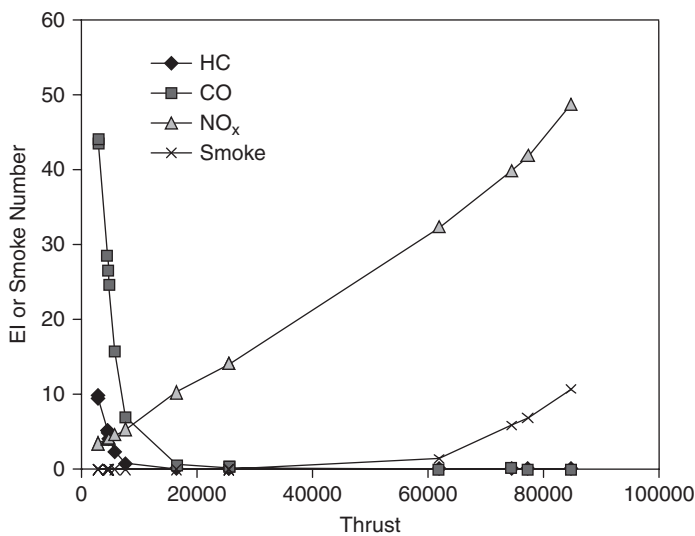


Figure 1.3. Emissions versus power level for the PW4084.

thrust reverse, and taxi in. The extremes in combustor operating conditions drive the overall design approach. The combustor must meet performance, operability, and emissions metrics over the full range of operation. In order to do so, it must operate at the following extremes:

1. Minimum fuel-air ratio – This occurs during decelerations from high power to low power. Flight decelerations normally occur when descending from high altitude cruise and during approach throttle movements. They can also occur in emergencies. Minimum fuel-air ratio typically depends on the thrust decay rate, as the time response of the engine turbomachinery that governs the airflow is much longer than that of the fuel flow. Risk of weak extinction (flameout) is highest during decelerations.
2. Minimum operating temperatures and pressures – These occur at flight and ground idle conditions. Low pressure and temperature challenges combustion efficiency due to slower fuel vaporization and chemical kinetics.
3. High operating temperatures and pressures – These occur at takeoff, climb, thrust reverse, and cruise conditions. These conditions result in the bulk of NO_x formation and the most severe liner metal temperatures.
4. Ignition conditions – Ignition normally occurs on the ground but also occasionally in flight. Ignition is required at near surrounding ambient pressure and temperature. High altitude and extremely cold conditions are typically the most challenging to achieve ignition, flame propagation, and flame stabilization. These conditions lead to low temperature (−40°F) and pressure (4 psia at 35,000 ft.) combustor inlet conditions.

Thus, the combustor design must meet the performance, emissions, and durability requirements at low- and high-power operations without compromising stability

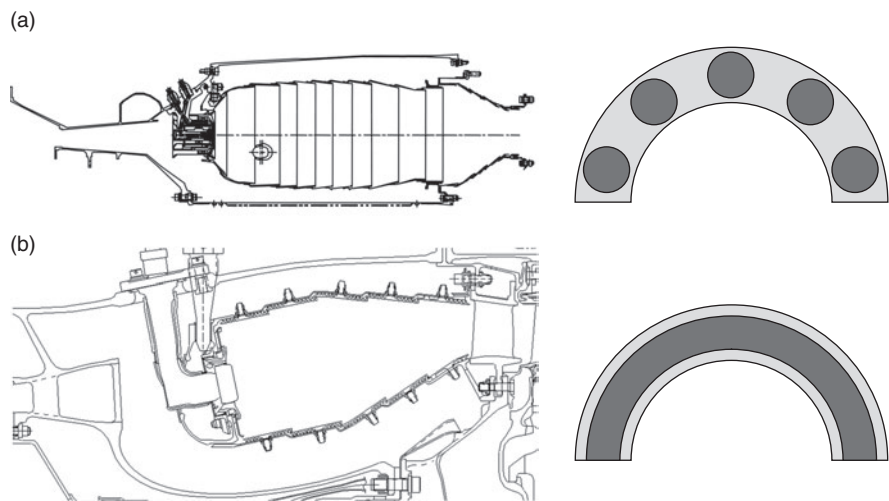


Figure 1.4. (a) Can-annular combustor (Pratt & Whitney JT8D-200); (b) RQL annular combustor (IAE V2500).

and ignition. This requires favorable combustion fuel-air stoichiometry to meet requirements at all operating conditions. Two principal approaches have been used to achieve stoichiometry control in the industry. The first, fixed geometry without fuel staging, is the most common approach and is in the large majority of engines in service. These systems have all fuel injectors operating at all conditions. The second approach controls local fuel-air ratio through fuel staging. In these systems, not all fuel injectors operate at low power. This enables more active control of the local combustion fuel-air ratio.

1.5.2 Fixed-Geometry Rich-Quench-Lean (RQL) Combustors

Fixed-geometry combustors have been used in the gas turbine industry since its inception. Early designs used multiple cans in a circumferential array. The cans transitioned through an annular duct to the turbine (Figure 1.4a). Later designs used an annular duct geometry that allowed for reduced overall length and weight (Figure 1.4b). Annular combustors also have reduced liner surface area relative to can-annular combustors and therefore use less cooling. All designs use multiple fuel injectors to provide spray atomization and fuel-air mixing. Achieving good atomization and fuel-air mixing is critical for efficient combustion, low emissions, and good temperature uniformity into the turbine. Normally, the fuel is injected in the front end of the combustor and flow recirculation is created to provide a stabilization region for the combustion process. This is typically accomplished with air swirlers, which leads to vortex breakdown and flow recirculation. The stabilization zone promotes recirculation of hot product gases forward to the incoming fuel spray, thereby providing a continuous ignition source and faster fuel droplet evaporation. Accelerated droplet evaporation is critical to high-efficiency combustion at low-power conditions, when low air inlet temperatures are insufficient to provide fast enough evaporation.

1.5 Effect of Range of Thrust and Starting Conditions on the Combustor

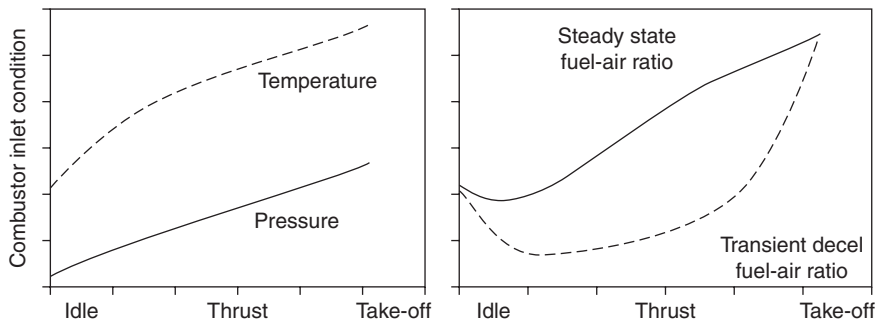


Figure 1.5. Combustor operating conditions.

If continuous ignition is not provided at low power, the vaporization and reaction times can exceed the combustor residence time and flameout occurs.

The airflow distribution in a fixed-geometry combustor must be selected to achieve both low- and high-power performance requirements. Conditions at the combustor inlet vary significantly between low-power idle and high-power takeoff conditions. At idle, inlet temperature, pressure, and global fuel-air ratio are relatively low. At takeoff, the opposite is true (Figure 1.5). The operating temperatures and pressures are largely a function of the engine thermodynamic cycle; therefore the most significant parameter for the combustor designer to consider is the fuel-air ratio. Because air is introduced in stages along the length, the designer can tailor the airflow distribution to achieve key performance metrics. This creates a distribution in fuel-air ratio along the length of the combustor, leading to variations in local temperature as power level is adjusted. The difference in fuel-air ratio between high-power takeoff and low-power deceleration and idle conditions is critical because it determines the range of local fuel-air ratio in the front end of the combustor. For most modern gas turbines, the difference is large enough that the front end operates fuel rich ($f/a > 0.068$ for jet fuel) at takeoff conditions. Consequently, fixed-geometry combustors are referred to as rich-burning or rich-quench-lean (RQL) designs. This refers to the rich front-end fuel-air ratio that is diluted (quenched) by additional airflow in the downstream section of the combustor to reach the fuel-lean conditions at the combustor exit. The RQL-type design has several advantages and challenges, which are discussed later in this chapter.

As previously described, the challenges at low power are combustion efficiency and stability. The local fuel-air ratio in the RQL combustor front end at idle is designed to generate high recirculating gas temperatures (Figure 1.6). Therefore, the local fuel-air ratio should be near the stoichiometric ($f/a \sim 0.068$ for jet fuel) fuel-air ratio to achieve high combustion efficiency. High combustion efficiency minimizes unburned hydrocarbon and carbon monoxide emissions that predominate at idle. Some increase in NO_x emissions is generated by the hot front end, but emissions at idle are not significant when compared to high power. By designing for near stoichiometric conditions at idle, stability can be ensured at deceleration conditions, where minimum fuel-air ratio occurs. If the minimum fuel-air ratio during deceleration is

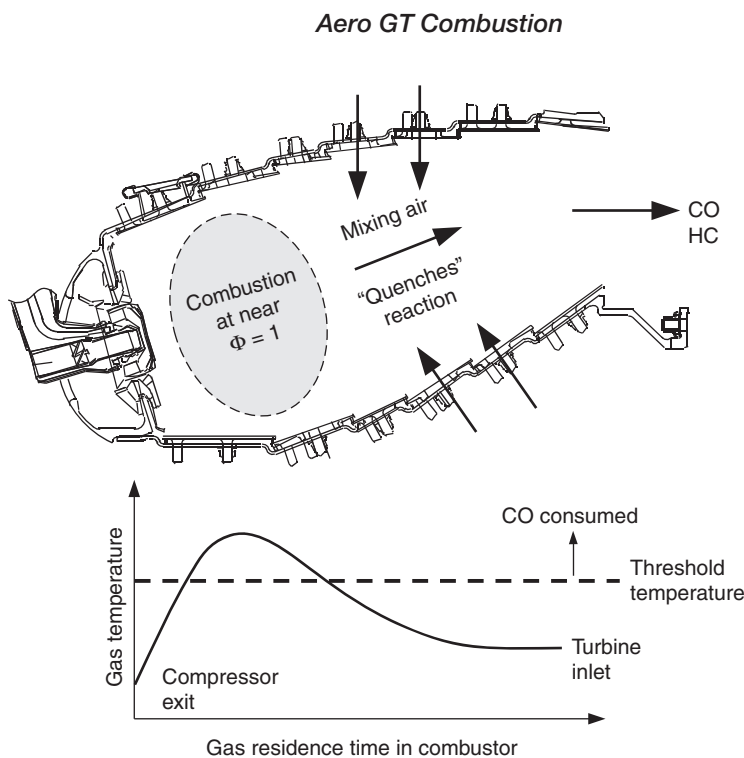


Figure 1.6. Combustor at low power.

not more than one-third below idle fuel-air ratio, the local fuel-air ratio in the front end is maintained above the weak extinction limit and flameout is avoided. Limiting of minimum deceleration fuel-air ratio is accomplished by the engine control and controls the maximum thrust decay rate for the engine transient.

At high-power conditions, the principal emissions challenges are NO_x and smoke. The RQL combustor axial temperature distribution at high power is depicted in Figure 1.7. The front end is fuel rich and consequently has lower flame temperatures. The dilution or quench region is characterized by peak gas temperatures as the fuel-rich mixture transitions through stoichiometric fuel-air ratio to the fuel-lean conditions at the combustor exit. In the front end, smoke is formed due to the combustion at fuel-rich conditions. Some of the smoke formed in the front end is oxidized in the high-temperature, oxygen-rich quench region. Thus, the front-end airflow level must be set with understanding of the formation and oxidation processes. The NO_x emissions are formed in both the front end and quench regions at high power. NO_x formation is exponentially a function of gas temperature, but also depends on the residence time at the local temperature. The highest rate of formation occurs in the quench region because it is the region where peak temperatures occur. However, time at peak temperature in the quench region is relatively short due to high mixing rates. In contrast, the formation of NO_x in the front end is not negligible because it has relatively longer residence time due to the flow recirculation. The presence of cooling flow in the front end also leads to NO_x formation when it interacts with the fuel-rich gas mixture.