

An insight into the heat-management for the CO₂ methanation based on free convection

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Abstract

This article presents a novel heat-management approach for CO₂ valorization to synthetic natural gas based on free convection to the environment, without requirements of heat-exchange services. With this aim, a reactor channel was built (d=4.6 mm, L=250 mm) and tested at different conditions of inlet temperatures, gas hourly space velocities and pressures using an active nickel/ceria-based catalyst. After experimentation, a CFD model was developed, validated and employed for an efficient sensitive analysis of the most suitable reaction conditions. The simulation criteria were high CO₂ conversion level and restrict overheating to avoid catalyst and reactor degradation. Then, the optimal conditions found by CFD modelling were successfully validated at lab-scale. The CO₂ conversion level experimentally obtained was 93%, by using a decreasing temperature profile in the range of 830-495 K, operating at a pressure of 5 atm and a gas hourly space velocity of 11,520 h⁻¹. The proposed reactor configuration guarantees an efficient heat management along the reactor channel by using feasible conditions of pressure, temperature and flowrate for its implementation in small-scale applications, where the use of the exothermic heat is less profitable.

Keywords: CO₂ methanation; synthetic natural gas; reactor design, heat-management; computational fluid dynamics

1. Introduction

The synthesis of synthetic methane through carbon dioxide (CO₂) methanation reaction has high interest in the context of Power-to-Gas (PtG) [1–6]. The methanation reaction allows to store the intermittent electricity production derived from renewable energy sources [7,8]; and besides it allows the valorization of carbon dioxide to renewable natural gas [9–12]. The starting point of the overall PtG process is the utilization of renewable electricity to produce green hydrogen (H₂) through water electrolysis. Then, in an additional processing step, the formed H₂ is combined with CO₂ and converted to methane (CH₄). In this way, the energy carrier is in the form of CH₄, which is the main compound of natural gas. Hence, this product is known as synthetic natural gas (SNG). The main advantage of SNG, in comparison with other synthetic fuels, is that it can be fed into the existing gas infrastructure without any limitations or any further processing. This is a clear advantage as transportation using pipelines is more energy-efficient and environmentally friendly than road transport.

44

45 The thermochemical CO₂ methanation process is carried out through Sabatier reaction
46 (Eq.1). This reaction is reversible, exothermic and thermodynamically favoured at low
47 temperatures and high pressures. As kinetics of the reaction are limited at the
48 mentioned conditions, an active catalytic system is required to obtain SNG at
49 reasonable reaction times. Most works on catalyst design for this reaction are based
50 on noble- and transition-metal materials (Ru, Rh, Pd and Ni) supported on metal
51 oxides (Al₂O₃, CeO₂, ZrO₂, TiO₂, SiO₂, La₂O₃ or combination between them) [13,14].
52 In recent times, it has been reported that the modification of the support through the
53 incorporation of promoters (CeO₂, La₂O₃, Pr₂O₃, Gd₂O₃, ZrO₂, MnO₂ and MgO)
54 improves the catalyst stability and even tolerance to industrial impurities [15–19].

55



57 Beyond catalyst advances, the design of a reactor with efficient heat removal is
58 another challenge to face in CO₂ methanation technology, especially for decentralized
59 application. Catalytic reactors, such multi-tubular fixed-bed [20–26], microchannel
60 [27], fluidized bed [28], stirred-tank slurry [29], microstructured [30–37], honeycomb
61 [38] and compact wall [39] are interesting approaches able to conduct the Sabatier
62 reaction. Among them, the fixed-bed reactor tube coupled with an oil cooling system
63 was already implemented at industrial level already in 2013 [40]. Recent advances are
64 related to the utilization of micro- or milli- size reactor for process intensification and
65 temperature control. Miniaturized packed-bed reactors exhibit unique heat and mass
66 transfer characteristics because of high surface-to-volume ratios [41]. Higher heat
67 transfer capacity is achieved by decreasing the inner channel dimensions.
68 Consequently, it was inferred that micro-reactors work at much higher gas flowrates
69 than conventional units [42]. However, the heat generated from the Sabatier reaction
70 is typically released to another fluid by means of the incorporation of complex heat-
71 management systems and several auxiliary devices.

72

73 A reactor configuration with a heat-management approach based on free convection
74 is a promising alternative because then the reactor engineering is significantly
75 simplified [43]. As Sabatier reaction is an exothermic process, the released heat can
76 be controlled by some reaction parameters and heat can be released to the
77 environment without the implementation of intensive cooling systems [44]. A free
78 convection heat transfer to the surroundings for the reactor cooling can be a
79 technological alternative for lowering the investment costs in small-size plants. Note
80 that the definition of this novel reactor approach differs from an autothermal approach,
81 as in this second case, the cooling is performed in-situ by an endothermic reaction;
82 e.g. autothermal steam reformers [45]. This “simple as possible” strategy is interesting
83 approach to expand the application of CO₂ methanation in decentralized locations with
84 low production capacity, where it has been demonstrated that high investments are
85 not profitable.

86

87 The operation of reactor using polytropic temperature profiles is required to achieve
88 high SNG productions in smaller volumes [21,23]. Recently, Moiola et al.[46] proposed
89 a model-based determination of the optimal reactor concept for Sabatier reaction by
90 controlling the heat transfer. They found that the reactor can be divided into three
91 zones: an initial zone for reaction activation, a central zone to remove excess heat and
92 a final zone to reach the thermodynamic equilibrium curve. For an unsteady state and

93 more flexible process operation, also known as dynamic operation, Bremer et al.[47]
94 applied stabilizing control to moderate the reactive zone (hot spot) via adaptive coolant
95 temperature variations. They suggested that through this strategy is possible to obtain
96 unconventional operating points in regions of steady-state multiplicity that offer
97 reduced catalyst temperature, while maintaining elevated reactor performance. In
98 another study, Zhang et al.[48] developed a steady-state solver based on the open-
99 source toolbox. The numerical study proposed heat transfer between the reacting gas
100 in a porous catalyst layer, reactor tube, and coolant in a shell-and-tube reactor. They
101 concluded that through the computational fluid dynamic simulations was possible to
102 predict the trends of temperature profiles both in axial and radial directions. Therefore,
103 computational fluid dynamic (CFD) modelling seems a powerful tool for reactor design
104 and specially to avoid experimental trial-and-error methodologies.

105
106 The aim of this work is to propose a simple heat-management reactor configuration
107 based on free convection to the environment for lowering the overall investment costs
108 in decentralized small-scale CO₂ methanation units. With this aim, a combination of
109 experimentation on a reactor channel (diameter of 4.6 mm and length of 250 mm) and
110 CFD simulation was carried out. The reaction conditions (T_{inlet} , GHSV, P), in which the
111 proposed configuration is able to operate without the use of external cooling/heating
112 systems and to achieve a high CO₂ conversion level ($\geq 90\%$) are hereby presented.
113 The scale-up of the reactor approach considering a representative industrial small-
114 scale CO₂ methanation case (1 Nm³·h⁻¹ of SNG production) together with the main
115 advantages and disadvantages of this heat-management configuration are further
116 discussed.

117 **2. Experimental**

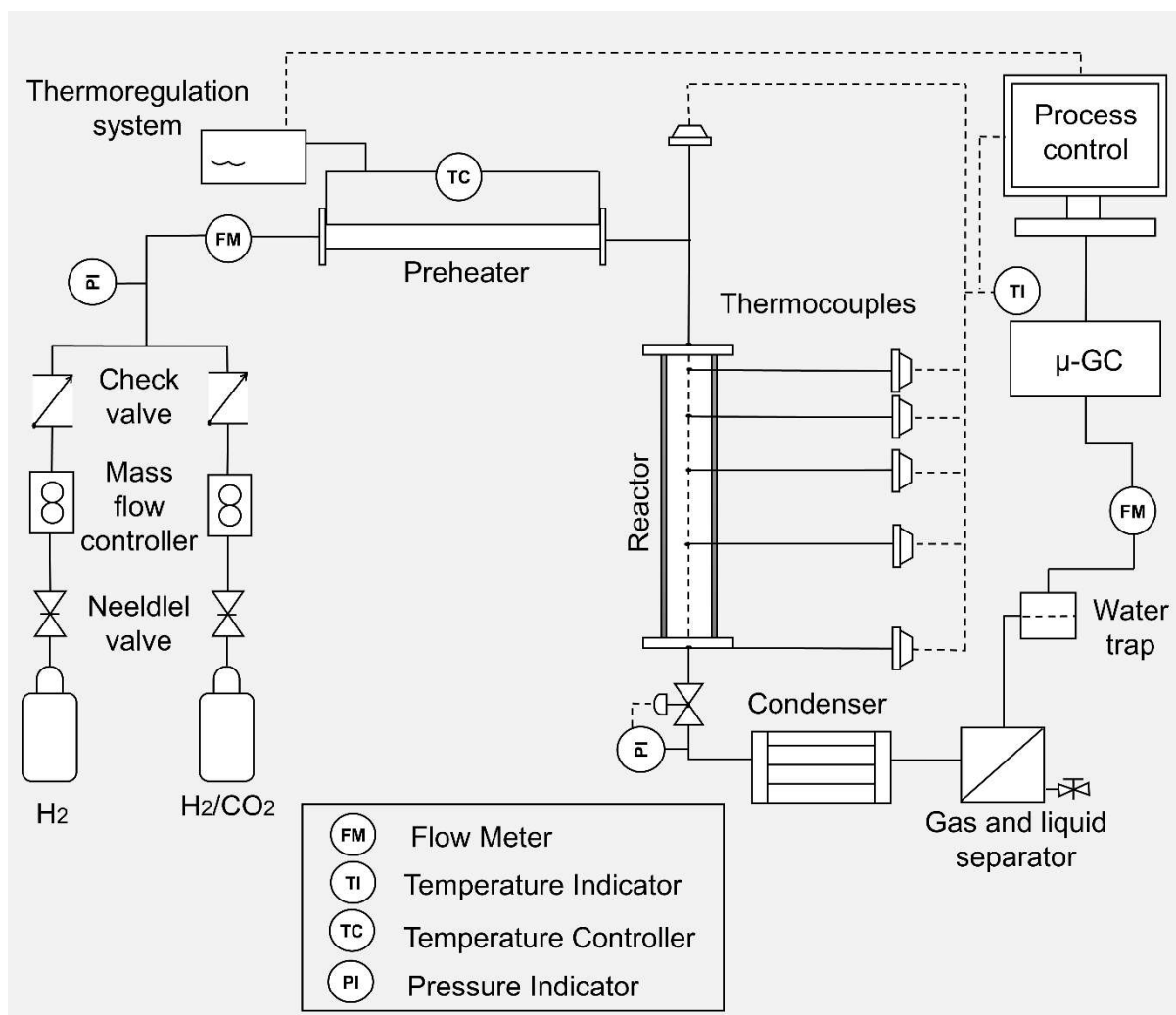
118 **2.1. Catalyst preparation**

119
120
121 The catalyst used in this study was a ternary catalytic system based on Ni as active
122 phase (25 wt.%), CeO₂ as promoter (20 wt.%) and γ -Al₂O₃ micro-spheres as support
123 (55 wt.%). Catalyst design, synthesis and formulation was optimized in previous works
124 [49,50] and validated in a relevant environment [42]. Specifications of the catalyst can
125 be found in those publications. To summarize, 50 g batch was prepared by dissolving
126 salt precursors of nickel (II) nitrate hexahydrate ([Ni(NO₃)₂·6H₂O] with 98% purity, Alfa
127 Aesaer) and cerium (III) nitrate hexahydrate ([Ce(NO₃)₃·6H₂O] with 99% purity, Fluka)
128 in distilled water. Then, the aqueous solution was mixed with γ -Al₂O₃ commercial
129 support in shape of microspheres with particle diameters $d_p=450-500 \mu\text{m}$ (NorPro
130 Saint-Gobain), on a rotary vacuum evaporator with constant stirring (25 rpm) at room
131 temperature for 1 h. Subsequently, the solvent was in-situ evaporated at 358 K and
132 $P=0.8 \text{ bar}\cdot\text{g}$ for 6 h. Finally, the impregnated micro-spheres were first dried overnight
133 at 378 K and then calcined at 723 K for 30 min with a heating ramp of $1 \text{ K}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$.

134 **2.2. Experimental setup**

135 CO₂ methanation reaction was conducted in the homemade reactor setup, illustrated
136 in Figure 1. The gases H₂/CO₂ mixture (99.999%, Linde) and H₂ (99.999%, Linde)
137 were supplied through a set of mass flow controllers (MFC, Bronkhorst). A heating
138 tape (Omegalux) monitored by a thermoregulation system (Horst GmbH) was used to
139 pre-heat the gas mixture to the desired temperature. Reactor channel dimensions

140 (inner diameter of 4.6 mm and length of 250 mm) were selected to facilitate the heat
 141 transfer to the environment, as it is highly promoted when the inner diameter is
 142 reduced from 10 mm [51]. The tube was filled with approximately 3.52 g of catalyst.
 143 Temperature was measured by six type K thermocouples (1/16 in, Omega Engineering
 144 Inc.); two of them were placed outside of the reactive zone (inlet and outlet of the
 145 reactor) and four along the reactive zone (axial position of 28, 53, 99 and 188 mm).
 146 Fiberglass tape, 40 mm mineral wool and aluminum foil was used to insulate the
 147 reactor. Pressure was regulated by a manual valve placed at the outlet. Then, the
 148 unconverted gases and the reaction products leaving the reactor were cooled down to
 149 278 K by using a circulation chiller (VWR,1160S model) and cold liquid-gas separator
 150 to condense and trap water produced, respectively. Prior to the analysis of the
 151 composition of the gases, a coalescence filter (Classic filter, SS127.221-C-5CS
 152 model) was additionally used to ensure the total water removal. At this point, the dry
 153 gas flow was measured by a flow meter (FM, Bronkhorst) and its composition was
 154 successively analysed by an on-line gas micro-chromatograph (490 microGC, Agilent
 155 Technologies). This was equipped with three columns, two molecular sieve (MS5A)
 156 for H₂, Ar, N₂, CO and CH₄ analysis, one porous polymer (PPU) for CO₂ and light
 157 hydrocarbons. Each column is followed by a thermal conductivity detector (TCD).
 158



159

160

Figure 1. Schematic illustration of the reactor testing setup.

161

162 2.3. Procedure

163 Prior to reactor start-up, catalyst was reduced in a tubular furnace using 5 vol% H₂/Ar
164 at a flowrate of 100 mL·min⁻¹. The temperature was increased up to 773 K for 3 h with
165 a heating ramp of 1 K·min⁻¹, followed by a cooled-down to room temperature. Then,
166 the catalytic bed was filled with the reduced catalyst. Experiments were conducted in
167 the range of P=1-5 atm, T_{inlet}=503-573 K, a stoichiometric H₂/CO₂ ratio of 4 and using
168 gas hourly space velocities (GHSV) in the range from 3,039 to 18,235 h⁻¹. GHSV was
169 calculated by Eq. 2:

$$170 \text{ GHSV} = \frac{F}{\frac{m_{\text{Cat.}}}{\rho_{\text{Cat.}}}} \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

171 where F is inlet gas mixture, in the range from 200 to 1,200 NmL·min⁻¹, m_{Cat.} is the
172 catalyst mass (3.52 g) and ρ_{Cat.}=0.891 g_{cat.}·mL⁻¹ is the measured catalyst density. The
173 performance of the process was evaluated through CO₂ conversion (Eq. 3), CH₄
174 selectivity (Eq. 4) and CH₄ productivity rate (Eq. 5).

$$175 X_{\text{CO}_2} [\%] = \frac{n_{\text{CO}_2, \text{in}} - n_{\text{CO}_2, \text{out}}}{n_{\text{CO}_2, \text{out}}} * 100 \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

$$176 S_{\text{CH}_4} = \frac{n_{\text{CH}_4, \text{out}}}{n_{\text{CH}_4, \text{out}} + n_{\text{CO}, \text{out}}} * 100 \quad \text{Eq. 4}$$

$$177 r_{\text{CH}_4} [\text{mol} \cdot \text{h}^{-1} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}] = \frac{n_{\text{CH}_4, \text{out}}}{m_{\text{Cat}}} \quad \text{Eq. 5}$$

178 where n_j represents the molar flow rate of species j (j=CO₂ and CH₄) in the inlet and
179 outlet gas. Sub-products, such as CO and C₂₊ hydrocarbons were not detected.
180 Therefore, methane selectivity was close to 100%. As a representative example,
181 Figure SI1-3 show raw chromatograms of the analytics, confirming complete selectivity
182 to CH₄ formation.

183 3. CFD model

184 The CFD model proposed in this work was developed using the Ansys®Fluent
185 software, 2019 R2 version. The geometry used for simulation presented the same
186 dimensions than the lab-scale reactor. A schematic representation of the methanation
187 reactor is shown in Figure 2. In the modelling, the length of the reactor was divided
188 into five symmetric sections of 50 mm (LS_{i=1-5}) to adjust individual heat transfer rates
189 along the reactor tube.

190 A dynamic meshing design of the 3D geometry model was created with a total of six
191 cell zones using 43,078 nodes. One cell zone was identified as the reactive zone with
192 homogeneous porous medium composed by catalyst and gas mixture and the others
193 five as solid zones. Eight principal zones were also defined as boundary conditions:
194 the gas inlet mixture, the gas outlet mixture, the tube length sections (LS_{i=1-5}), and the
195 interface. The set of partial differential equations involved in the mathematical model
196 were derived from the integration of three sub-models: i) energy, ii) species transport,
197 and iii) viscous. The governing equations of the Ansys®Fluent software can be found
198 in the Appendix of the Supporting Information.

199 The apparent kinetic parameters were obtained in a previous work [51]. Two empirical
200 power law rate expressions were used of the forward and the backward reaction,
201 presuming arbitrary orders only for CO₂ and H₂ (Eq. 7 and 8), while reverse water gas
202 shift reaction was neglected in the model. A more detailed experimental kinetic study
203 on this catalyst could improve adjust of the kinetic model to experimental conditions.
204 For instance, by assessing the influence of CH₄ and H₂O products to the kinetics and
205 to evaluate the influence of CO formation in the model.

206 Kinetic expression for forward reaction

$$207 \quad r_f(\text{mol} \cdot \text{m}^{-3} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}) = 8.38 \cdot 10^7 e^{-6.20 \cdot 10^7 / RT} \cdot (C_{\text{CO}_2})^{0.171} \cdot (C_{\text{H}_2})^{0.683} \quad \text{Eq. 6}$$

208 Kinetic expression for backward reaction

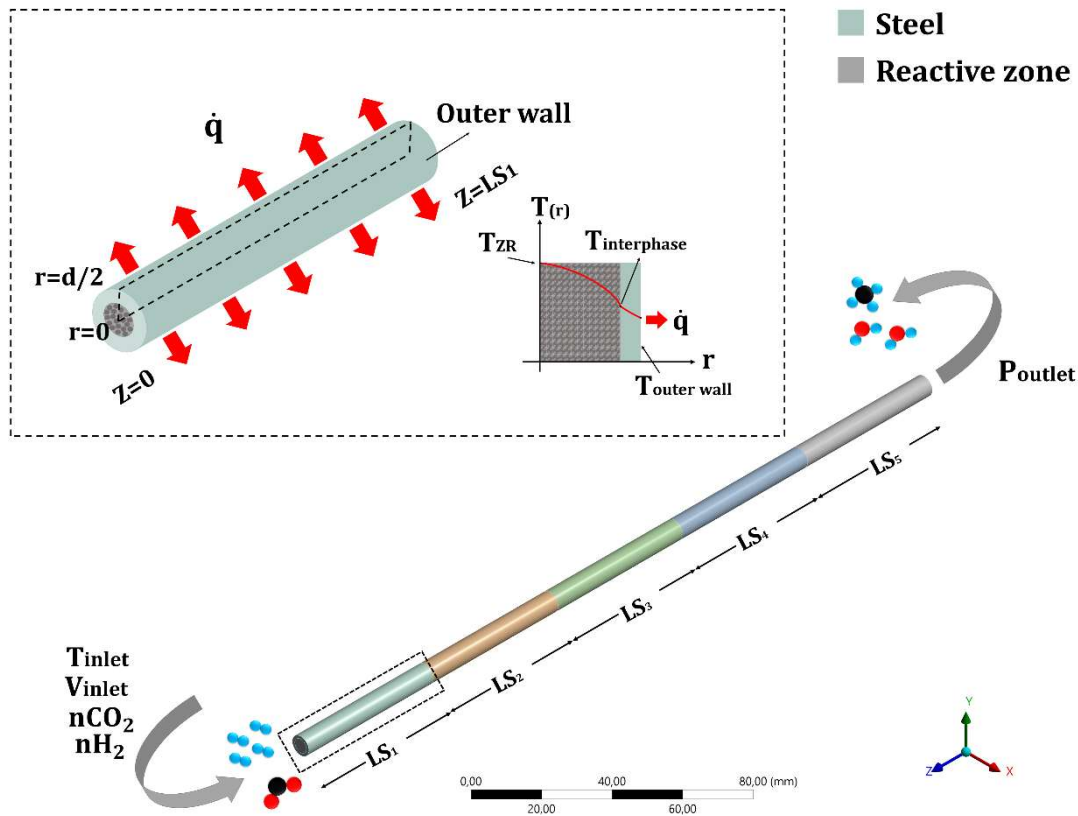
$$209 \quad r_b(\text{mol} \cdot \text{m}^{-3} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}) = 8.78 \cdot 10^{17} e^{-2.33 \cdot 10^8 / RT} \cdot (C_{\text{CO}_2})^{-0.829} \cdot (C_{\text{H}_2})^{-3.316} \quad \text{Eq. 7}$$

210
211 The physical properties for the reactive zone (rz), such as specific heat ($C_{p,rz}=6,433$
212 $\text{J} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$), thermal conductivity ($\lambda_{rz}=0.34 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$) and viscosity ($\mu_{rz}=1.23 \cdot 10^{-06}$
213 $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$) were obtained through the NIST data base [52] and defined as constant
214 values. The species (H₂, CO₂, CH₄ and H₂O) were modelled as ideal gas and their
215 mass diffusivity were calculated by the kinetic theory. Steel was selected as material
216 of the reactor tube and its thermal conductivity (λ_s) was $16.27 \text{ W} \cdot \text{m}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$. Newton's law
217 of cooling (Eq. 8) was used to model the convective heat loss to the surroundings from
218 the outer wall.

$$219 \quad \dot{q} = h\Delta T = h(T_{\text{outerwall}} - T_{\infty}) \quad \text{Eq. 8}$$

220 where \dot{q} is the heat flux density [$\text{W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$], h is the free convective heat coefficient of the
221 fluid [$\text{W} \cdot \text{m}^{-2} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$] and ΔT is the temperature difference [K] between outer wall
222 temperature ($T_{\text{outerwall}}$) and the bulk temperature (T_{∞}). The heat flux, \dot{q} , for each
223 reactor section was estimated assuming a bulk temperature of 298 K and considering
224 the temperature connexion between reactive zone, tube innerwall as well as tube
225 outerwall. Temperature behaviour between them was simulated by using a coupling
226 tool under the assumption that the reduction of temperature was from reactive zone to
227 tube outerwall.

228 The reactor modelling was carried out under the following assumption: the gas mixture
229 was preheated to the inlet temperature, the gas velocity was uniform, the operating
230 pressure was defined at outlet reactor tube, the pressure drop along the axial reactor
231 coordinate was neglected and the heat of the reaction was transferred at the pipe wall
232 to the surroundings. A summary of reactor dimensions, properties and operating
233 parameters used in the simulations are presented in Table 1. The set of partial
234 equations were solved by the pressure-based Navier-Stokes algorithm with a steady-
235 state time dependence. The pressure-velocity coupling with a Simplec scheme was
236 selected as solution methods. The number of iterations used in each simulation was
237 2000.



238

239 Figure 2. Geometry design of the fixed-bed reactor tube used on CFD model.

240 Table 1. Summary of reactor dimensions, properties and operating parameters used on the
241 CFD model.

Reactor dimension	Symbol	Value	Unit
Inner diameter	D_i	4.6	mm
Outer diameter	D_o	6.4	mm
Length	L	250	mm
Length sections	$LS_{i=1-5}$	50	mm
Property	Symbol	Value	Unit
Thermal conductivity of the steel reactor tube	λ_s	16.27	$W \cdot m^{-1} \cdot K^{-1}$
Specific heat of the reactive zone ^a	C_{prz}	6,433	$J \cdot kg^{-1} \cdot K^{-1}$
Thermal conductivity of the reactive zone ^a	λ_{rz}	0.34	$W \cdot m^{-1} \cdot K^{-1}$
Viscosity of the reactive zone ^a	μ_{rz}	$1.23 \cdot 10^{-06}$	$kg \cdot m^{-1} \cdot K^{-1}$
Temperature of the exterior	T_{\square}	298	K
Heat transfer coefficient of air ^b	h_{air}	19.45	$W \cdot m^{-2} \cdot K^{-1}$
Operating parameter	Symbol	Value	Unit
Molar ratio of H_2/CO_2	-	4	-
Mole fraction of H_2	\dot{m}_{H_2}	80	%

Mole fraction of CO ₂	\dot{m}_{CO_2}	20	%
Temperature of the inlet	T_{inlet}	473-673	K
Pressure	P	1-20	atm
Gas hourly space velocity	GHSV	6,834 -13,676	h ⁻¹

^a Calculated using NIST data base.

^b Calculated at $V_{air}=1m\cdot s^{-1}$ to guarantee a free convection.

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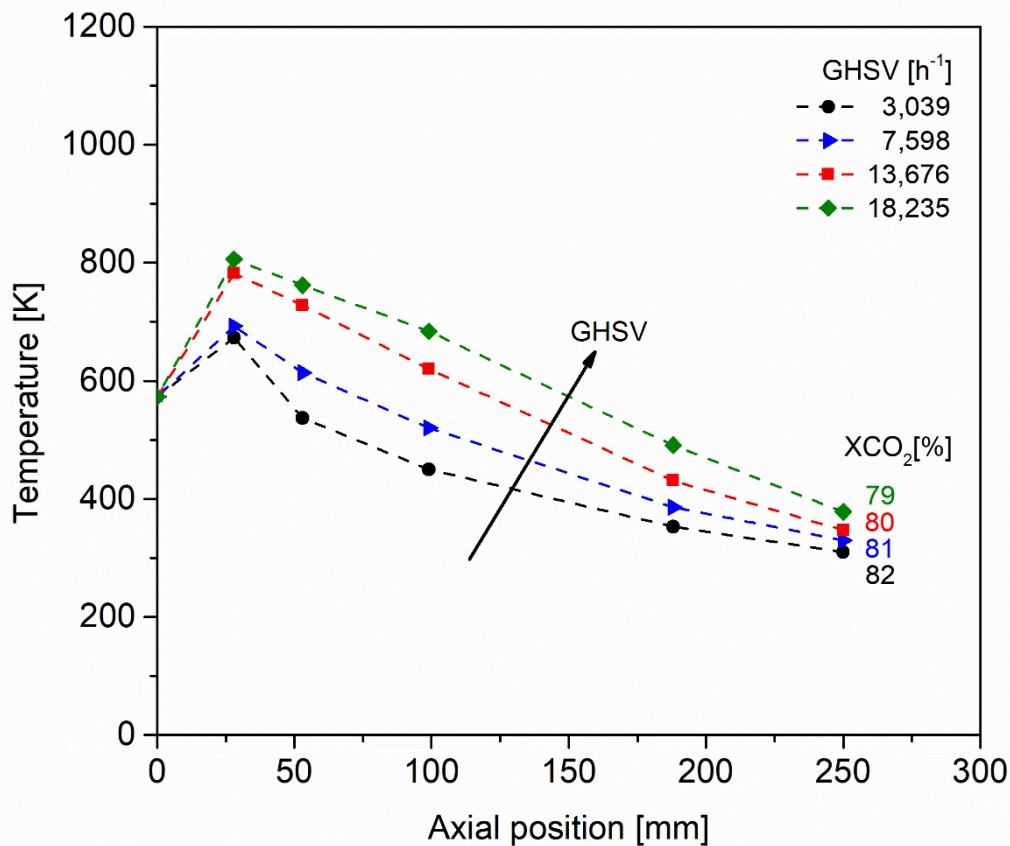
243 4. Result and discussion

244

245 4.1. CO₂ methanation tests

246 The first CO₂ methanation tests were conducted in the reactor setup by varying the
 247 gas flowrate in the range of GHSV=3,039-18,235 h⁻¹ at atmospheric pressure. The
 248 reaction start-up was carried out by pre-heating of inlet gas at T_{inlet} of 573 K. As soon
 249 as the reaction started, temperatures along the reactor increased gradually due to the
 250 exothermicity of the methanation reaction. Steady-state conditions were obtained after
 251 35-85 min, depending on the used gas flowrate. The maximum temperature of the
 252 reactor was self-restricted at $T_{max}\leq 823$ K to avoid catalyst degradation by limiting the
 253 inlet gas flowrates.

254 As it can be observed in Figure 3, non-isothermal temperature profiles were always
 255 obtained. The operation using decreasing temperature profiles is preferred to
 256 isothermal operation to reduce the reactor volume by a compromise of kinetics and
 257 equilibrium conditions [53]. Otherwise, in isothermal operation, a higher temperature
 258 can lead to equilibrium restrictions and lower temperature to kinetics ones. The highest
 259 temperatures ($T_{max}=673-806$ K) were detected close to the reactor inlet (axial position
 260 28 mm) and the lowest ones ($T_{min}=310-378$ K) were recorded at the reactor outlet
 261 (axial position 250 mm). This first series of experiments revealed that higher
 262 temperatures along the reactor were obtained at higher GHSV values. Accordingly, it
 263 was confirmed that a simple way to control the temperature profile in the proposed
 264 reactor heat-management configuration is by adjusting the inlet gas flowrate. In such
 265 a way that the reactor can be heated up by increasing the gas flowrate and cooled-
 266 down by lowering it.



267

268 Figure 3. Experimental temperature profiles by varying GHSV at $P=1$ atm and $T_{inlet}=573$ K.

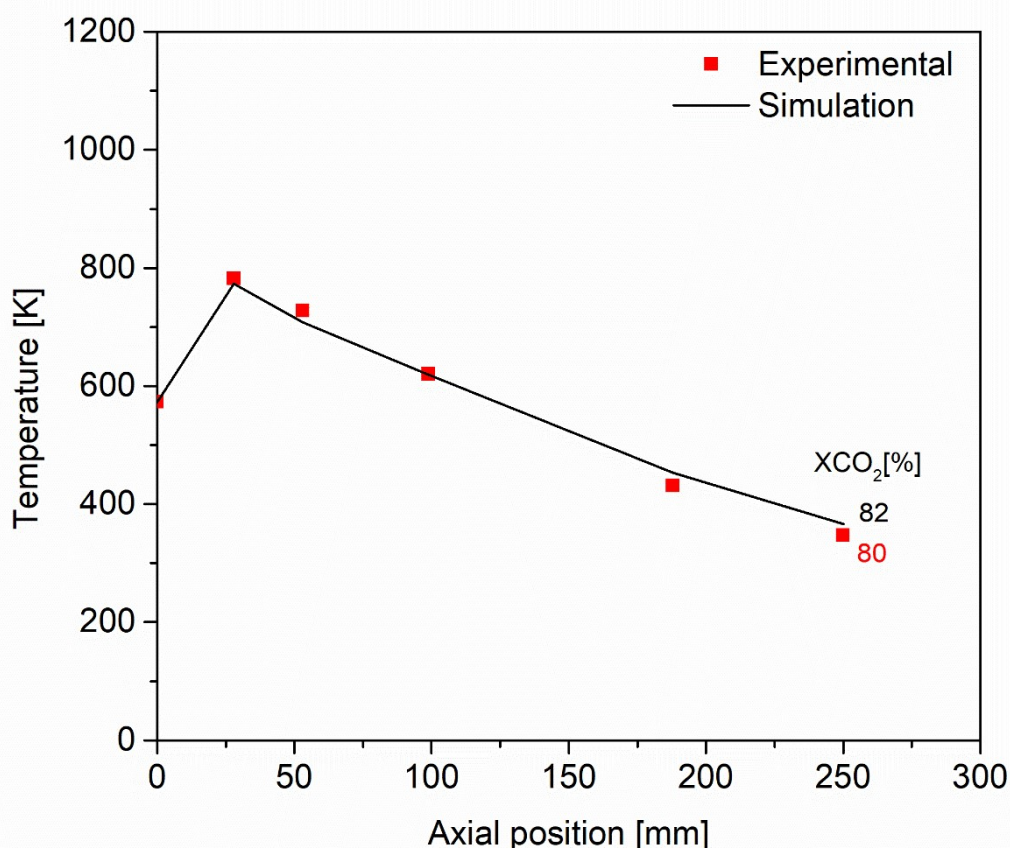
269 At the tested conditions, CO_2 conversions slightly decreased from 82 to 79% by
 270 increasing the GHSV from 3,039 to 18,235 h^{-1} . In this aspect, the decrease of the
 271 conversion (-3%) was really low compared to the reduction of the gas residence time
 272 in the reactor (-88%). The CO_2 conversion pattern was a consequence of two opposite
 273 effects; high GHSV led to higher reaction temperatures but lower residence times for
 274 reaction. As observed, the operation at higher temperatures was more decisive than
 275 lowering the gas residence time. This behaviour is probably a consequence that kinetic
 276 values depend exponentially on the temperature, while residence time does not have
 277 this strong dependence on the reaction rates. In any case, the maximum experimental
 278 CO_2 conversion achieved during this first set of experiments was 82%.

279 The achieved level of conversion is still too low for industrial applications [53], and out
 280 of the scope of the present work ($\geq 90\%$). An experimental alternative to achieve
 281 conversion close (91-84%) to the equilibrium at these conditions was adjusting the
 282 temperatures by addition of external heat to the last zone of the reactor. In this second
 283 set of experiments (see Figure S15), the most favorable conditions were obtained when
 284 the lowest temperature was higher than 573 K. Therefore, optimal conditions cannot
 285 be obtained by simply adjusting the inlet flowrate. A suitable and effective technique
 286 to obtain the optimum reaction conditions able to achieve a high conversion level is by
 287 CFD modelling.

4.2. CFD model validation

At first, the CFD model was validated using the experimental case carried out at $P=1$ atm, $T_{\text{inlet}}=573$ K and $\text{GHSV}=13,676$ h⁻¹. The parameters used in this simulation are described in Table 1. The length of the reactor was divided into five symmetric sections of 50 mm ($\text{LS}_{i=1-5}$) and the heat transfer values from the system to the surrounding were adjusted in each reaction zone. At the selected experimental condition, the amount of heat released to the surroundings was in the range of $-[9,415-2,053]$ W·m⁻². The amount of heat transferred was higher at the initial reaction zone and decreased along the reactor tube. This is a consequence of higher driving force, i.e. higher temperature difference between the system and the surroundings.

Figure 4 compares the experimental and the CFD simulation results. As can be seen, the temperature profile and the conversion level obtained from simulation were very close to the experimental results. The highest temperature ($T_{\text{max}}=775$ K) was detected close to the reactor inlet and the lowest temperature ($T_{\text{min}}=358$ K) at reactor outlet. Only small divergences were obtained in the conversion level ($\pm 2\%$). In fact, the lower experimental conversion ($X_{\text{CO}_2}=80\%$) can be a consequence of the lower temperature at the reactor outlet. Therefore, these results confirmed the suitability of the proposed CFD model to optimize the reactor parameters, as well as, to determine the heat fluxes of the proposed reactor design.

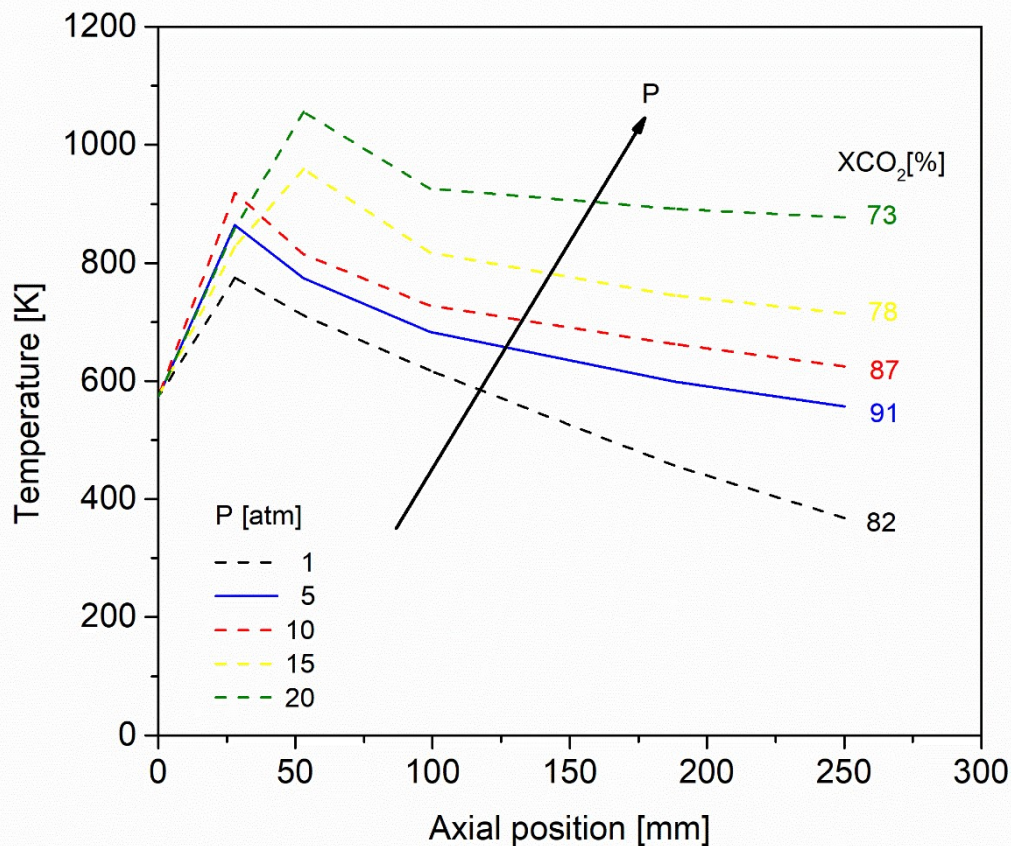


308 Figure 4. CFD model validation: comparison between experimental and simulated
309 temperature profiles. Reaction conditions: GHSV=13,676 h⁻¹, T_{inlet}=573 K and P=1 atm.

310 4.3. Sensitive analysis of the reaction conditions

311 As the experimental results were successfully described by the developed CFD model,
312 the influence of the operational parameters was further evaluated using this tool. The
313 influence of P, T_{inlet} and GHSV on temperature profile was studied in the range of 473-
314 673 K, 1-20 atm and 6,837-13,676 h⁻¹, respectively. The sensitive analysis of the
315 reaction parameters was performed using the following 2 criteria i) CO₂ conversion
316 higher than 90%, ii) maximum temperature lower than 830 K. A total of 29 reactor
317 configuration were studied. All simulation results are summarized in the Table S1.

318 As representative example, the influence of the pressure on temperature profiles at
319 T_{inlet}=573 K and GHSV=13,676 h⁻¹ is displayed in Figure 5. Note that solid lines are
320 used in the graphs for the conditions that met these criteria, while dashed for those
321 that do not. As a general rule, it was observed that temperatures along the reactor was
322 increased when the pressure was higher. Furthermore, the increase of pressure
323 impacted highly positive to the conversion, attaining 91% at 5 atm. In contrast, a
324 significant reduction on the CO₂ conversion values (≤87%) was unexpectedly
325 observed at high pressures (P≥10 atm). This pattern was related to the reaction
326 equilibrium limits the conversion level at high temperatures (T_{max}>823 K), which are
327 not favourable to produce CH₄ [54]. Therefore, this highlight allowed the identification
328 of the optimal pressure condition in which the proposed catalytic system can achieve
329 an efficient CO₂ conversion.

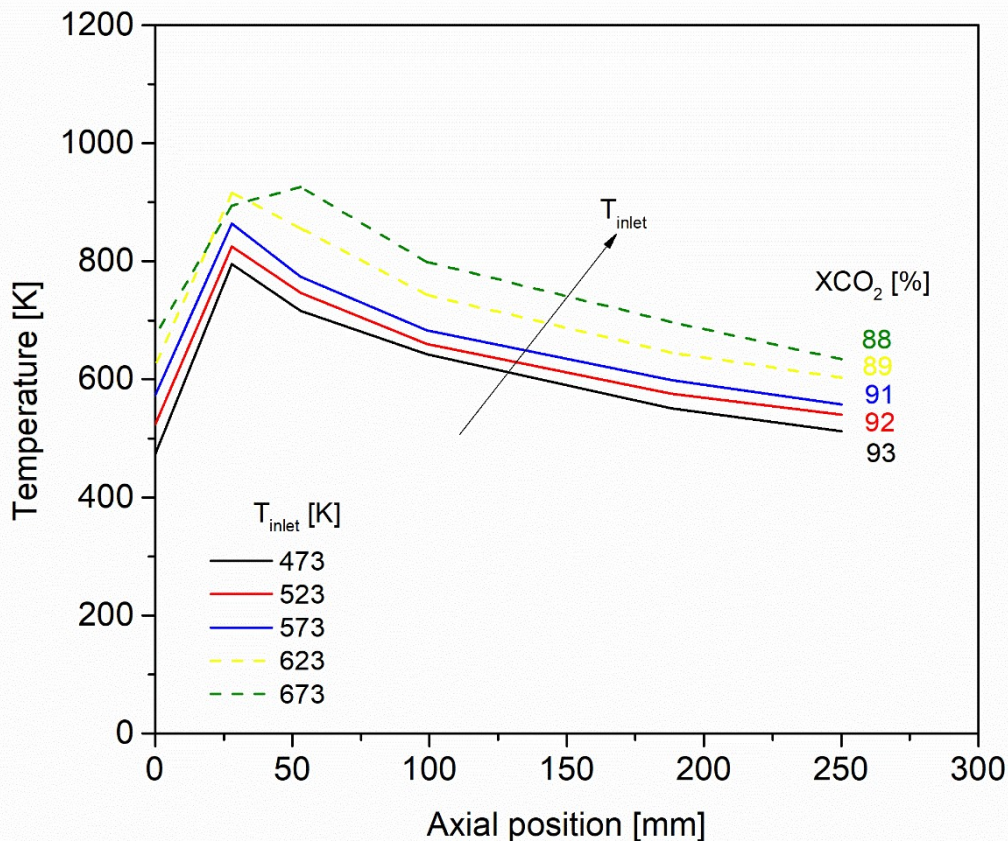


330

331 Figure 5. Influence of P on the temperature profile and the conversion level at GHSV=13,676
 332 h^{-1} and $T_{inlet}=573$ K obtained by CFD simulation.

333

334 The effect of the inlet temperature was evaluated at 5 atm and GHSV=13,676 h^{-1} in
 335 order to avoid catalyst and reactor degradation due to overheating. The influence of
 336 the inlet temperature at those conditions is displayed in Figure 6, which suggests that
 337 the inlet temperature is a strategic parameter to control the formation of the hot spots
 338 (T_{max}) inside of the reactor. A reduction of the inlet temperature below 573 K was
 339 positive as increased the conversion level and decreased the overheating, even more
 340 molecules of methane were formed and thus more heat was released. At these
 341 conditions, the T_{max} was lower than 823 K and CO_2 conversions were higher than 92%.
 342 These positive results can be related to thermodynamic reaction equilibrium. It well
 343 known that high pressures and low temperatures leads to high methane production.



344

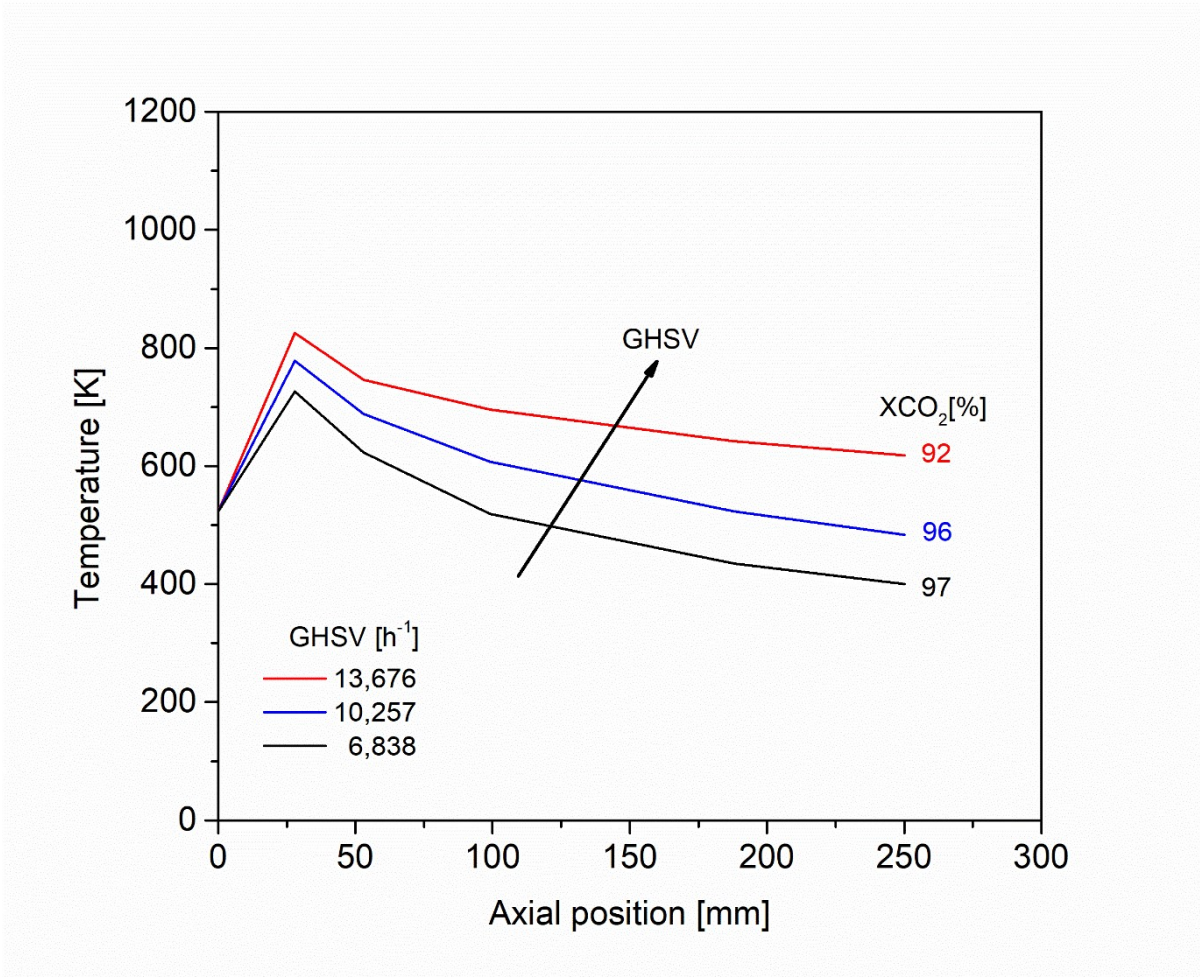
345 Figure 6. Influence of T_{inlet} on the temperature profile and the conversion level at
 346 GHSV=13,676 h^{-1} and $P=5$ atm obtained by CFD simulation.

347

348 The last parameter evaluated in the sensitive analysis was the GHSV. Figure 7 shows
 349 the temperatures along the reactor tube as a function of the GHSV values at $T_{inlet}=523$
 350 K and $P=5$ atm. As it can be seen, the influence of the inlet GHSV was relevant in both
 351 the conversion and the temperature profiles. The highest level of conversion was
 352 achieved (97%) at the lowest GHSV (6,838 h^{-1}), despite the low reaction temperatures.
 353 From these results, it is inferred that the reactor can work, in principle, at GHSV values
 354 in the range of $12,307 h^{-1} \geq GHSV \geq 8,205 h^{-1}$ at 5 atm without the installation of neither
 355 a cooling nor a heating system. At these conditions, temperature of the reaction along
 356 the reactor tube can be controlled by the inlet flowrate. On one hand, operation at
 357 higher values ($GHSV \geq 13,676 h^{-1}$) demands of an external cooling system to restrict
 358 $T_{max} \leq 823$ K to avoid catalyst degradation. On the other hand, operation at low values
 359 ($GHSV \leq 6,838 h^{-1}$) demands of an external heating system at the last zone of the
 360 reactor to achieve high conversion values. The obtained heat fluxes from the
 361 simulations are presented in Table S2.

362 As mentioned, the target of the present reactor approach is to avoid external cooling
 363 and heating of the reactor channel. In short, CFD simulations showed that the
 364 conditions for CO_2 methanation can be reached by adjusting the gas flowrate and the

365 pressure. The operation at the potential zone ($6,838 \geq \text{GHSV} \geq 13,676 \text{ h}^{-1}$) can be finally
366 adjusted by the inlet temperature of the gases. As the reactor temperature rose with
367 increasing the inlet temperature (see Figure 6), a slight decrease of the inlet
368 temperature allows to work at higher GHSV values without exceeding the self-imposed
369 limit temperature.



370

371 Figure 7. Influence of GHSV on the temperature profile and the conversion level at $T_{\text{inlet}}=523$
372 K and $P=5\text{atm}$ obtained by CFD simulation.

373

374 4.4. Reaction conditions proposal

375 CFD simulations revealed that a compromise between kinetic, thermodynamic
376 limitations and suitable heat-management is required to achieve high CO₂
377 conversions. In this aspect, the inlet temperature of the proposed reactor was set at
378 503 K and the pressure at 5 atm, the minimum values in which $\geq 90\%$ of conversion
379 was achieved. Both conditions are technically feasible in a relevant environment. On
380 the other hand, a $\text{GHSV}=11,520 \text{ h}^{-1}$ was selected considering the maximum GHSV, in
381 which is possible the operation of the reactor without the implementation of an external
382 cooling and heating system. The increase of the GHSV parameter benefits from a
383 reduction of the necessary reactor volume. A summary of the operational conditions
384 of the reactor design proposal are presented in Table 2.

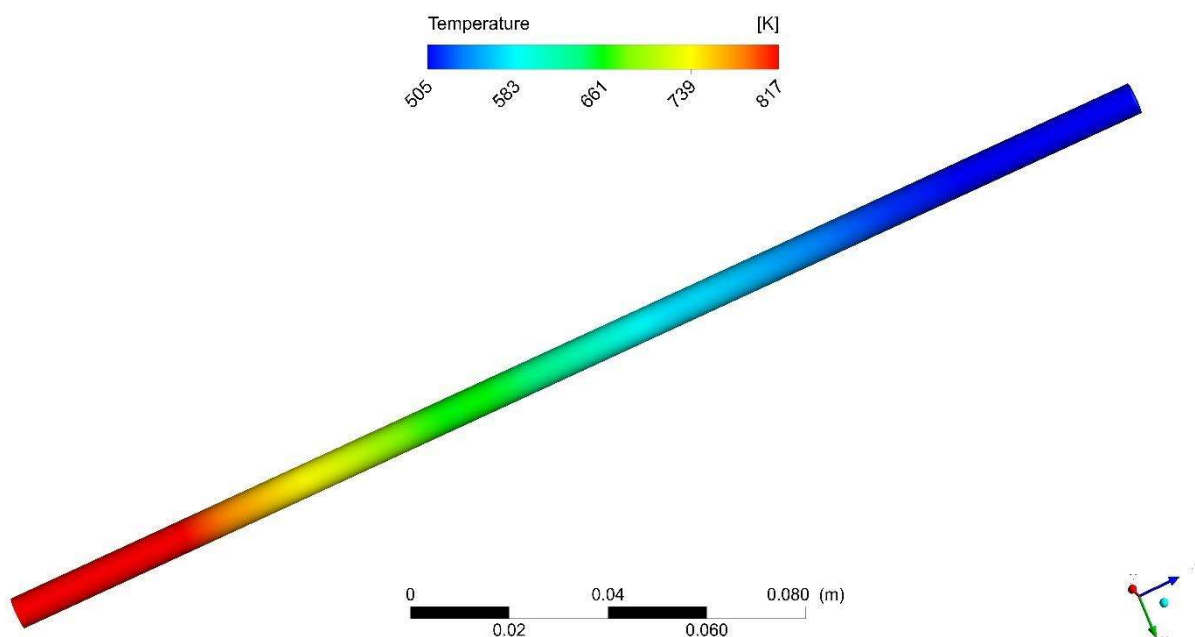
Table 2. Design proposal for reactor.

Operating parameter	Symbol	Value	Unit
Molar ratio of H ₂ /CO ₂	H ₂ /CO ₂	4	-
Mole fraction of H ₂	\dot{m}_{H_2}	80	%
Mole fraction of CO ₂	\dot{m}_{CO_2}	20	%
Temperature of gas mixture	T _{inlet}	503	K
Pressure	P	5	atm
Gas hourly space velocity	GHSV	11,520	h ⁻¹
	\dot{q}_{LS1}	17,135	
	\dot{q}_{LS2}	15,229	
Heat flux	\dot{q}_{LS3}	12,979	-W·m ⁻²
	\dot{q}_{LS4}	11,055	
	\dot{q}_{LS5}	9,900	

386

387 The temperature profile of the proposed configuration is displayed in Figure 8, which
 388 indicates the feasibility of this reactor approach. At the selected conditions, the
 389 simulated CO₂ conversion was 96% and the decreasing temperatures along the
 390 reactor tube was in the range of 817-505 K. The main effect of each parameter is
 391 described as follows. The temperature of gas pre-heating enables the restriction of the
 392 maximum temperature at the initial reaction zone and thus to avoid excessive hot-
 393 spots, GHSV allows the management of the reaction temperature along the reactor
 394 tube and to avoid external heating or cooling units, and finally, a compromise between
 395 the pressure leads to higher conversions.

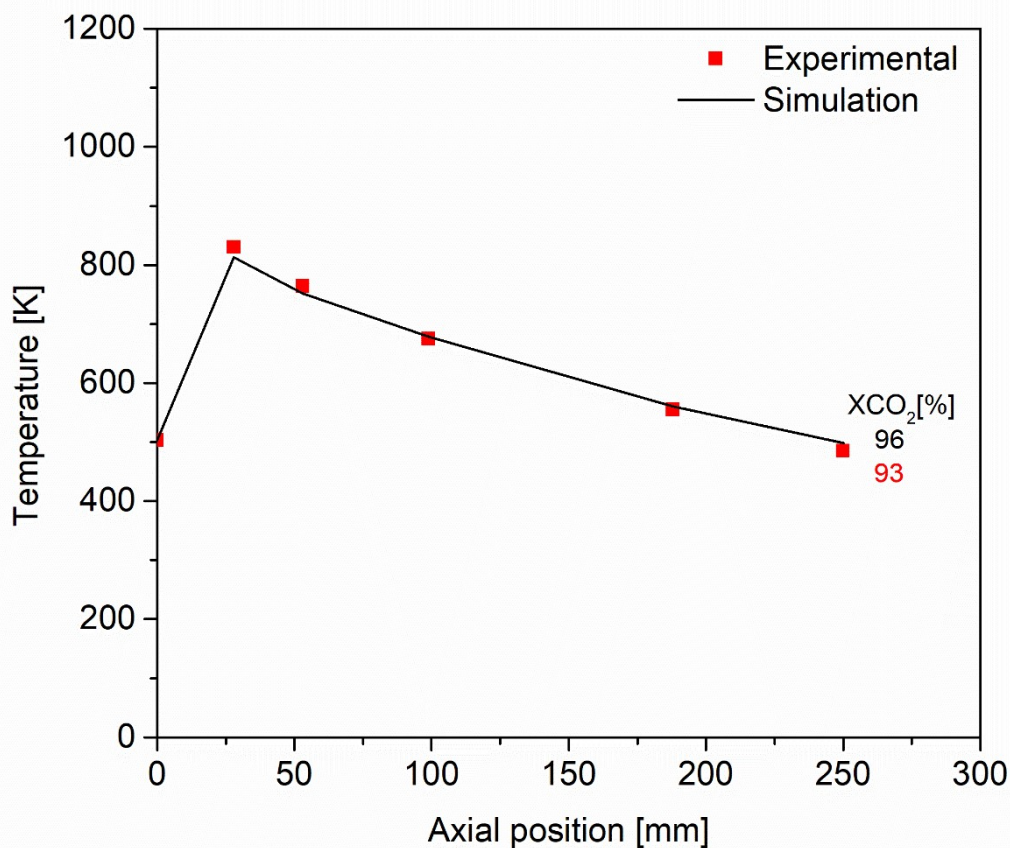
396



397

398 Figure 8. Temperature profile of the reactor obtained by CFD simulation. Reaction
 399 conditions: GHSV=11,520 h⁻¹, T_{inlet}=503 K, P=5 atm and H₂/CO₂ molar ratio=4.

400 The validation of the proposed reactor configuration was carried out under the
401 simulated conditions. In this experiment, the operation of the reactor started by fixing
402 the pressure at 5 atm, followed by setting the flow rate at the proposed GHSV of
403 $11,520 \text{ h}^{-1}$ ($F=930 \text{ NmL}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$) and switching on the preheater to rise the inlet gas
404 mixture temperature to the desired temperature of 503 K. At these conditions, the
405 experimental temperature profile was quite similar as the simulated one, as shown in
406 Figure 9. Accordingly, the technical feasibility of the reactor was experimentally
407 validated at lab-scale, as no external heating or cooling was necessary. The
408 experimental temperature was in the range of 830-495 K with a CO_2 conversion equal
409 to 93%, very close to the simulated results. At the low temperature of the outlet, the
410 chemical equilibrium is totally shifted to products. Thus, in principle 100% of
411 conversion could be achieved at very high residence time (see equilibrium data in
412 Figure S1). With regard to the total heat released to the ambient and CH_4 productivity
413 rate obtained during the process, it was estimated for this proposed reactor design a
414 total heat of 0.07 [-kW] and a CH_4 productivity rate of $95.68 \text{ mol}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}\cdot\text{kg}_{\text{cat}}^{-1}$.

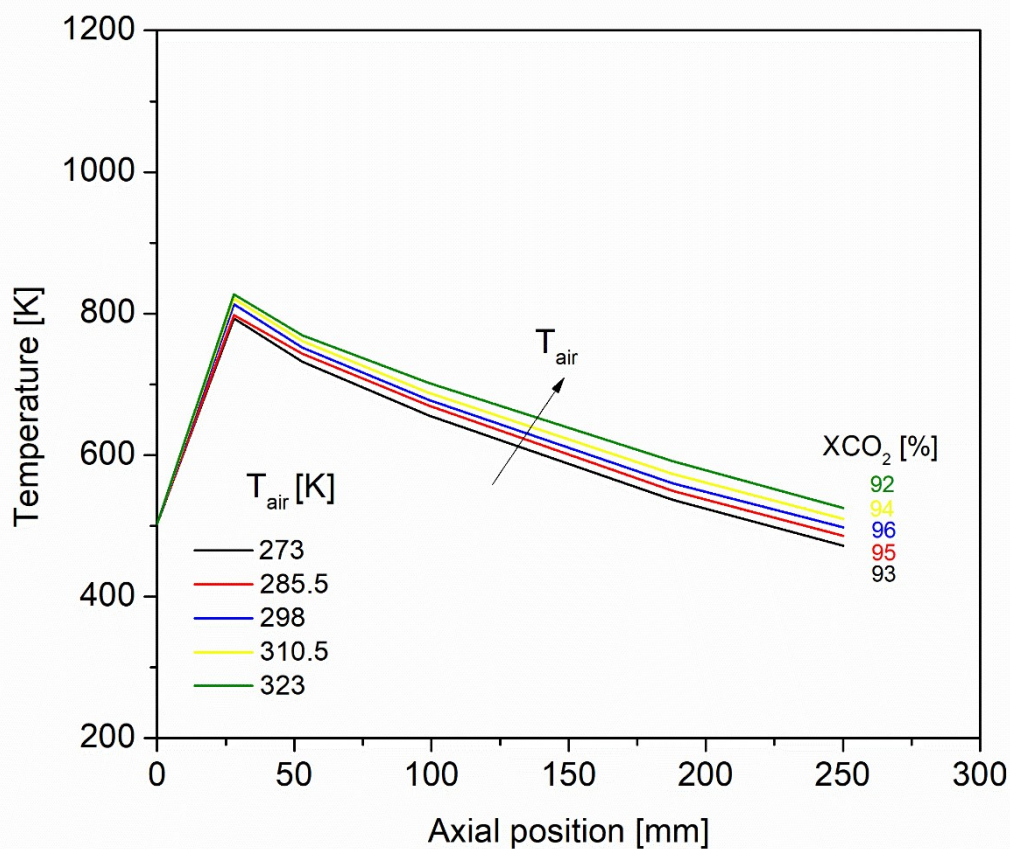


415

416 Figure 9. Experimental and simulation comparison of the proposed reactor conditions.
417 $\text{GHSV}=11,520 \text{ h}^{-1}$, $T_{\text{inlet}}=503 \text{ K}$, $P=5 \text{ atm}$ and H_2/CO_2 molar ratio=4.

418 Considering that the proposed reactor design can be exposed to the unpredictable
419 variations of the ambient air temperature (T_{air}), additional simulations were then
420 performed to evaluate its effect on temperature profiles and CO_2 conversions. This set

421 of simulations was carried out in a T_{air} range of 273 to 323 K. As is shown in Figure
 422 10, the thermal operation performance of the proposed reactor design is slightly
 423 influenced by the T_{air} . An increase in the temperature along the reactor was detected
 424 as soon as the air temperature increases. Nevertheless, all temperatures ($T_{max} \leq 827$)
 425 and CO_2 conversions ($X_{CO_2} \geq 92\%$) were above the target criteria ($T_{max} \leq 830$ K and
 426 $X_{CO_2} \geq 90\%$). The most unfavourable result was observed when the T_{air} was the too
 427 high, 323 K. At these environment conditions, CO_2 conversion was reduced by 4%
 428 and the temperature profile was in the range of 827 to 523 K. Consequently, it is
 429 inferred that T_{air} can modify the behaviour of the proposed heat-management
 430 approach to a certain degree, which is obviously a drawback of the proposed
 431 configuration.



432

433 Figure 10. Influence of T_{air} on the temperature profile and the conversion level at
 434 GHSV=11,520 h⁻¹, T_{inlet} =503 K, P=5 atm and H₂/CO₂ molar ratio=4
 435

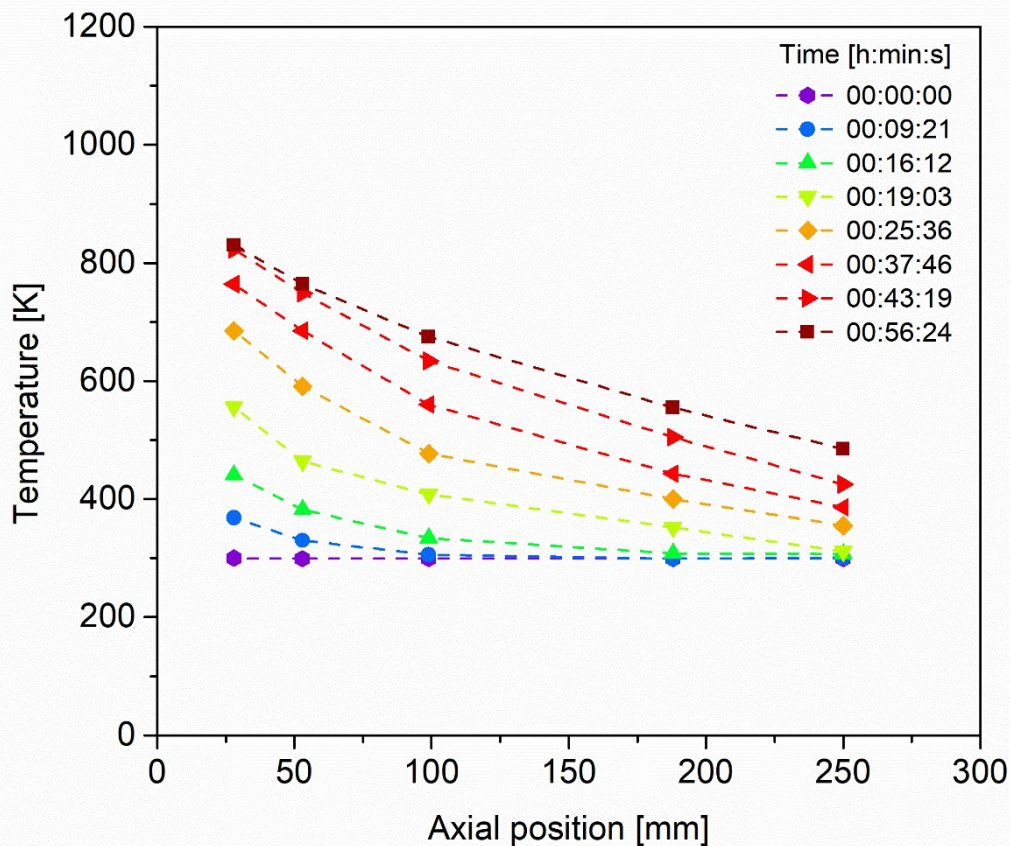
436 4.5. Comparison with other heat-management approaches

437 The production of 1 Nm³·h⁻¹ of SNG based on a pure CO₂/H₂ mixture was selected as
 438 the representative industrial small-scale CO₂ methanation case. According to the
 439 reactor dimensions (d=4.6 mm, L=250 mm), 23 channels will be required to achieve
 440 the targeted SNG production rate. It is important to point out that the reactor proposal
 441 even works at slightly higher GHSV values (11,520 h⁻¹) with respect to the commercial

442 technology ($9,000 \text{ h}^{-1}$) at industrial scale [55]. On the contrary, at much lower GHSV
443 values than the advanced micro-structured reactors ($54,000 \text{ h}^{-1}$) [42] that are in a pre-
444 commercialization state. This as simple as possible thermal approach requires of
445 similar, or slightly lower, volume and catalyst amount than conventional multi-tubular
446 reactors. Nevertheless, in a large-scale power-to-gas application the amount of tubes
447 would be 30-fold larger, considering 25 mm diameter as standard tube diameter for
448 conventional bundle reactors. In this sense, the amount of necessary auxiliaries would
449 be lower, while the amount of tubes would be much larger due to the compromise
450 between reduced dimensions of the tube diameter and operational GHSV values.

451 On the other hand, the steady-state temperature profile obtained during its
452 experimental validation was reached after approximately 56 min, as it is shown in
453 Figure 11. It is anticipated that the start-up of the proposed reactor is slower than
454 reactors that include an internal heat exchange system. As an example, the start-up
455 of a micro-structured reactor is carried out in approximately 8-30 min, using both
456 heating and cooling auxiliaries [42]. Another aspect to consider in this heat-
457 management approach is the reaction safety. Reactor runaway can occur in
458 exothermic reactions because of irregular composition of the reactants or some
459 fluctuation of inlet temperature. In those cases, an increase of the reaction
460 temperature can change conditions in a way that it causes a further increase in
461 temperature, leading to a destructive result. This fact can be problematic as no cooling
462 system is proposed to actively control the reactor temperature. Fortunately, this
463 undesired situation can be easily avoided by stopping the CO_2 dosage into the reactor
464 and/or by injecting an auxiliary gas as nitrogen. As soon as no CO_2 is introduced to
465 the reactor, the reactor temperature immediately drops.

466 In the present work, the main pros and cons of a heat-management for CO_2
467 methanation based on free convection were disclosed. The main advantage of the
468 present approach is the simple design and low auxiliary requirements of this reactor,
469 especially in decentralized locations where the integration of the exothermic heat to
470 another industrial unit is not technically feasible or, more probably, not economically
471 profitable. In this sense, the proposed reactor can be an alternative to consider for
472 producing synthetic natural gas at reasonable GHSV in decentralized small-scale
473 Power-to-Gas installations, as in most biogenic CO_2 sources.



474

475 Figure 11. Experimental evolution of the temperature profile during the reaction start-up.
 476 Reaction conditions: GHSV=11,520 h⁻¹, T_{inlet}=503 K, P=5 atm and H₂/CO₂ molar ratio=4.

477

478 5. Conclusions

479 A reactor design using a simple heat-management based on free convection was
 480 proposal in this work. The application of this approach is intended for the small-size
 481 production of synthetic natural gas from CO₂ catalytic methanation. The technical
 482 feasibility of the proposed heat-management was studied through experimentation on
 483 a lab-scale single reactor channel (diameter of 4.6 mm and length of 250 mm) and
 484 conducting a sensitive analysis by means of a CFD model to disclose the most
 485 favourable reaction conditions.

486 The experimental results revealed that the reaction conditions should be carefully
 487 selected as no external heating or cooling units can be used to adjust the temperature
 488 profiles and thus to obtain high conversion levels. The experimental data was
 489 successfully described by means of the CFD model. Accordingly, CFD modelling
 490 appears as a powerful tool that can be used for the optimization of the reaction
 491 parameters, rather than excessive experimentation. The sensitive analysis conducted
 492 by CFD simulations showed that the operation of the reactor is feasible through a
 493 compromise between 3 operation parameters: gas hourly space velocity, inlet

494 temperature and pressure. In parallel, it was observed that the T_{air} can have an
495 influence on the reactor yield.

496 The optimal conditions, which met CO_2 conversion higher than 90% and temperature
497 lower than 830 K criteria, were obtained by CFD simulation, and then, experimentally
498 validated. Those conditions were GHSV at $11,520 \text{ h}^{-1}$, inlet temperature of 503 K,
499 pressure of 5 atm, and air temperature of 298 K. Under those conditions, an interesting
500 level of CO_2 conversion (93%) was successfully achieved. The decreasing
501 temperature profile along the reactor was in the range of 830 to 495 K, without the
502 need of external heating or cooling units. Therefore, the proof-of-concept of the
503 operation for CO_2 methanation based on free convection is hereby validated in a single
504 channel reactor at lab-scale. According to the proposed reactor dimensions, 23
505 channels will be required to achieve the industrial small-scale production of $1 \text{ Nm}^3\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$
506 of synthetic natural gas.

507

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516

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