

# Hydrogen Vehicle Fire Safety

Peter B. Sunderland

Professor

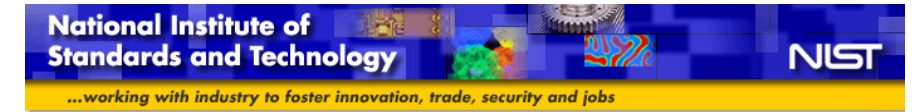
Dept. of Fire Protection Engineering

University of Maryland



# Acknowledgments

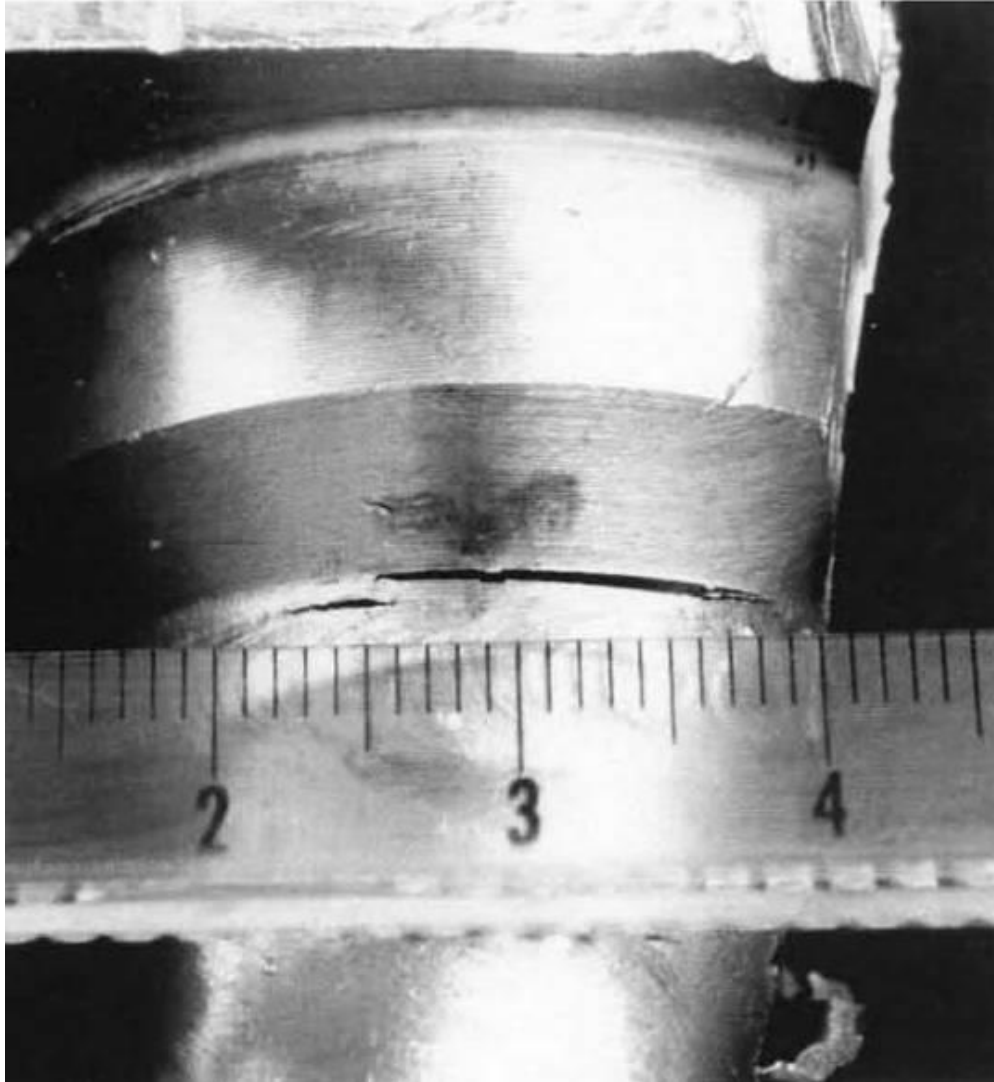
- ❖ NIST, under the technical management of J. Yang.
- ❖ Fire Protection Research Foundation, under the technical management of K.H. Almand.
- ❖ V. Molkov and the Hydrogen Safety and Research Centre at the University of Ulster.
- ❖ R.L. Axelbaum (Washington Univ.) and B.H. Chao (Univ. of Hawaii).
- ❖ Students: M.S. Butler, C.W. Moran, N.R. Morton, V.R. Lecoustre.



Most hydrogen flames are barely visible.



# H<sub>2</sub> Containment



Barthelme (2006)

# Hydrogen Vehicle PRD Test



- ❖ Swain (2001) tests comparing hydrogen and gasoline vehicle fires (above).
- ❖ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OA8dNFiVaF0>



# CNG Bus Fire Video



# Unique Fire Hazards of Hydrogen

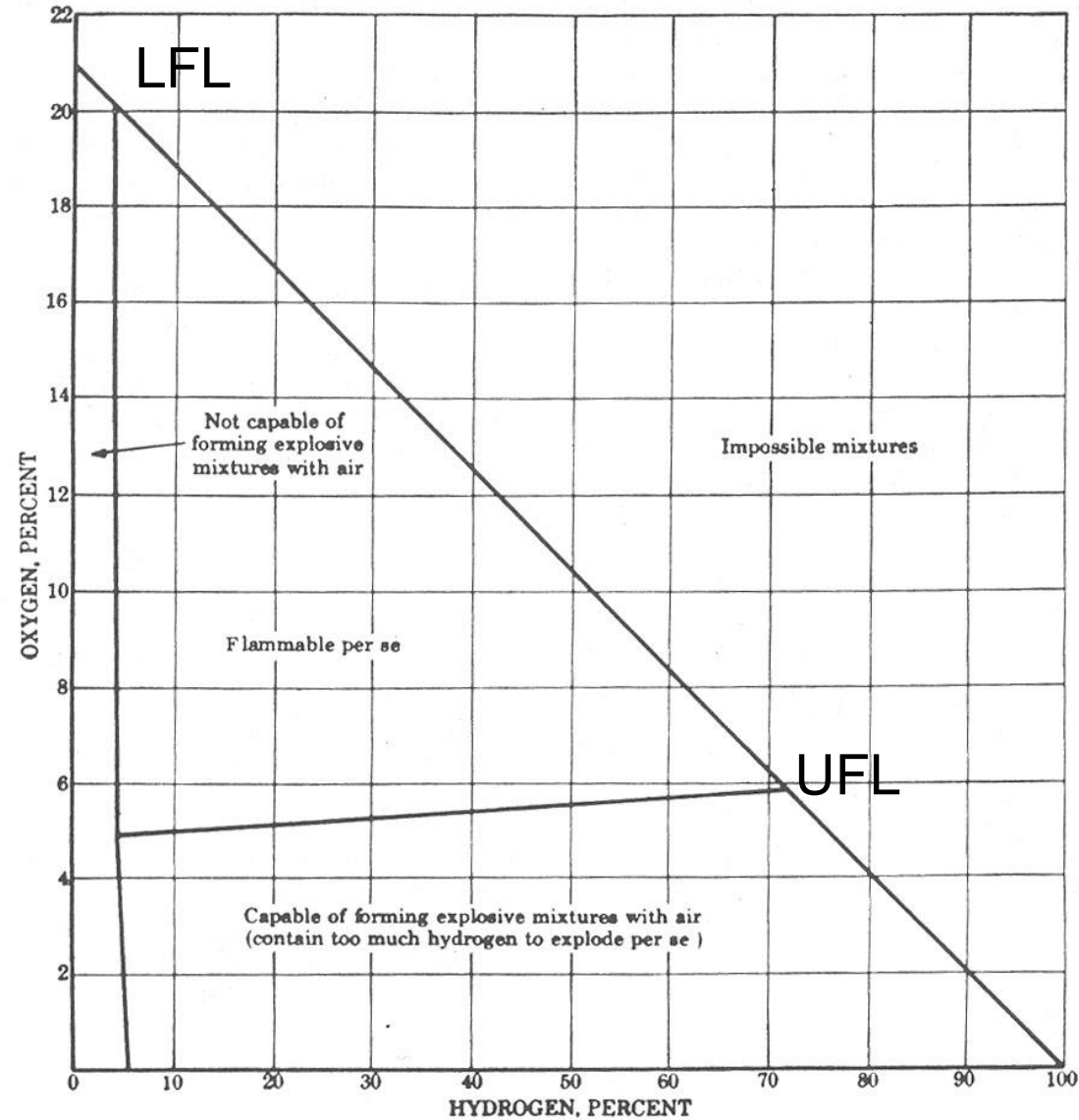
- ❖ Lightest fuel, thus requiring the highest storage pressure.
- ❖ Highest volumetric leak propensity of any fuel.
- ❖ Permeation leaks.
- ❖ Steel embrittlement.
  
- ❖ Smallest ignition energy of any fuel in air ( $28 \mu\text{J}$ ).
- ❖ Lowest autoignition temperature of any fuel ignited by a heated air jet ( $640^\circ\text{C}$ ).
  
- ❖ Wide flammability limits in air (4 – 75% by volume).
- ❖ Highest laminar burning velocity of any fuel in air (2.91 m/s).
- ❖ Smallest quenching distance of any fuel premixed with air (0.51 mm).
- ❖ Highest heat of combustion (120 kJ/g).
  
- ❖ Dimmest flames of any fuel in air.

# Fuel Properties

<b>Fuel</b>	<b>Flash Point, °C</b>	<b>AIT, °C</b>	<b>LFL, %</b>	<b>UFL, %</b>
Gasoline	-40	468	1.4	7.6
Methane	-180	632	3.8	17
Propane	-104	504	2.3	9.5
Hydrogen	-	571	4	75
Ethanol	15	392	3.3	19
Methanol	30	470	6.7	36
Biodeisel	130	240	0.6	5.6



# Hydrogen/Air/Nitrogen Flammability Map



Coward and Jones (1952)

# Hydrogen Equation of State

- ❖ At elevated density, H<sub>2</sub> gas becomes nonideal:

$$p = \rho \left( R_u / MW \right) T \left( 1 + \alpha p / T \right)$$

$\alpha$  = non-ideal gas correction factor ( $1.9155 \times 10^{-6}$  K/Pa for H<sub>2</sub>).

- ❖ Applying this equation to H<sub>2</sub> at 1.01 bar and 15 °C yields a density that is increased by a factor of just 1.00067.
- ❖ In contrast, at 70 MPa and 15 °C the quantity  $( 1 + \alpha p / T ) = 1.47$ .

# Isentropic Compression and Expansion

- ❖ When a  $H_2$  gas container is vented, its  $T$  decreases.
- ❖ When a  $H_2$  gas container is filled, its  $T$  increases.
- ❖ These processes are nearly isentropic (i.e., reversible).
- ❖ Isentropic processes for ideal gases behave according to:

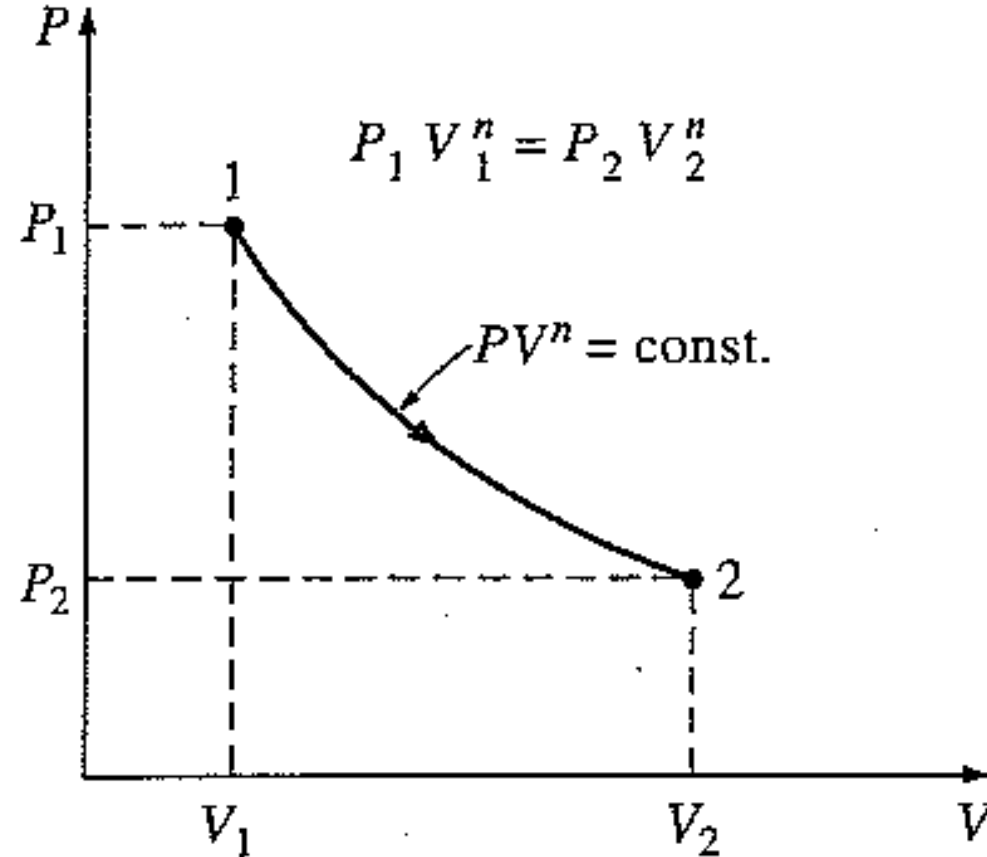
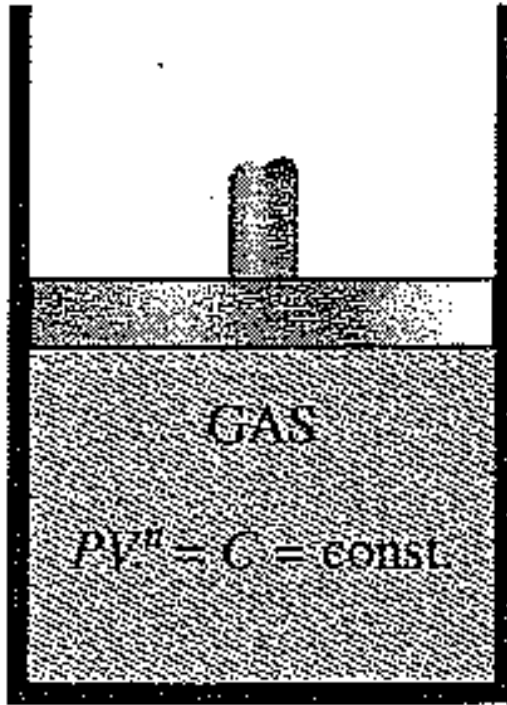
$$p V^\gamma = \text{constant}$$

$$T V^{\gamma-1} = \text{constant}$$

$$T^\gamma p^{1-\gamma} = \text{constant}$$

Here  $V$  is volume and  $\gamma$  is specific heat ratio (1.40 for air and 1.41 for  $H_2$  at standard conditions).

# Isentropic Compression and Expansion



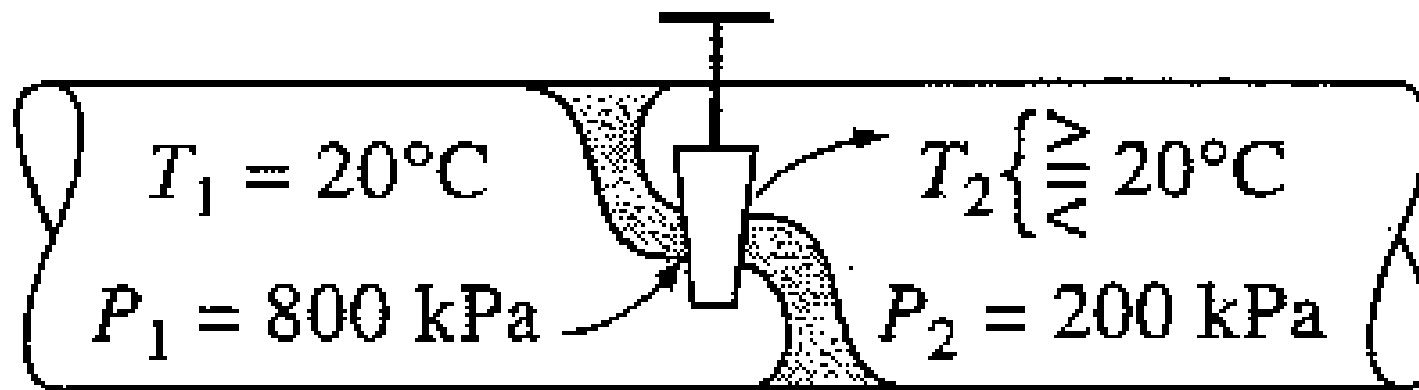
# Isentropic Compression and Expansion

- ❖ A container initially at 25 °C and 70 MPa that is rapidly vented to 1 bar will have a final T of 45 K.
- ❖ Normal driving will not vent this quickly, but an accident could.
- ❖ A container initially at 25 °C and 2 MPa that undergoes isentropic compression to 70 MPa will have a final T of 565 °C. This is avoided because:
  - The fill gas is much cooler than 565 °C.
  - Filling is slow enough that heat is lost to the container.



# Isenthalpic Throttling

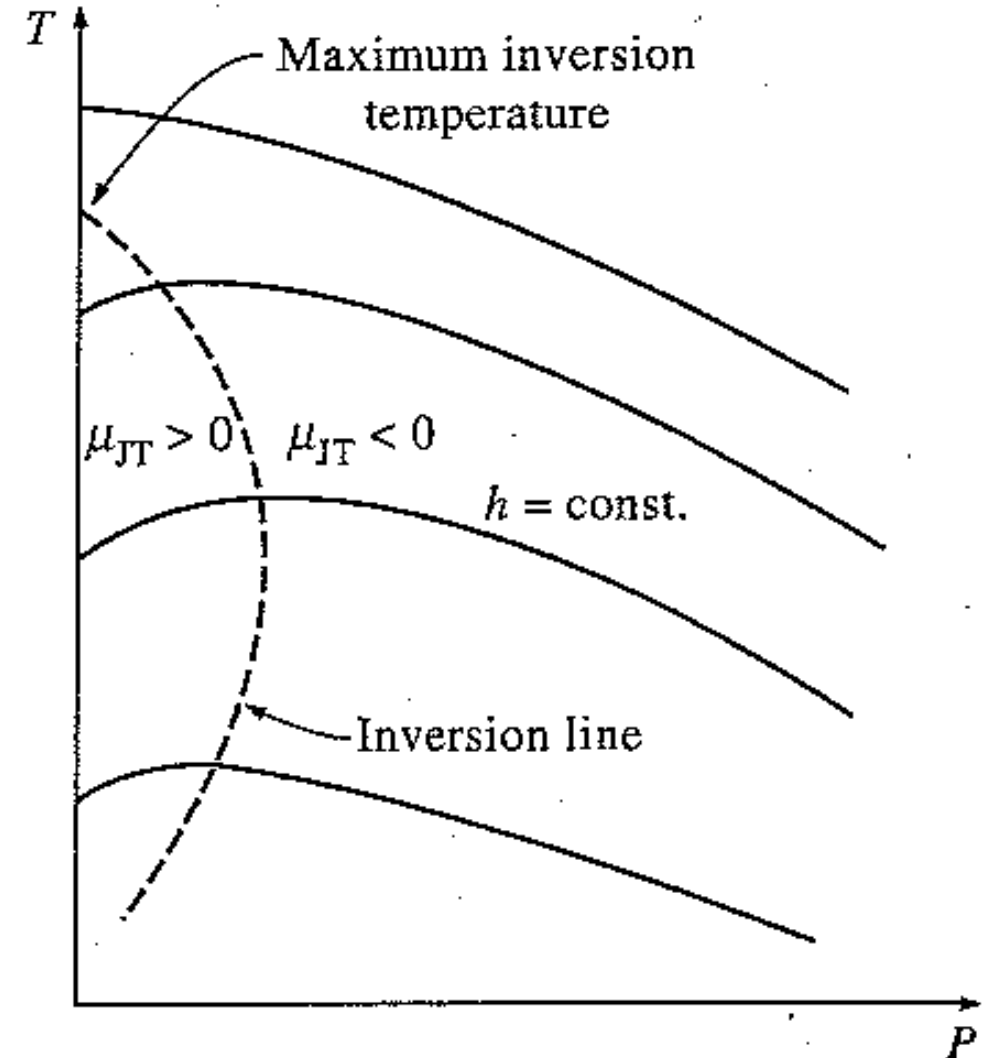
- ❖ Throttling is when gas flows through a restriction with no shaft work or increase of kinetic energy.
- ❖ Examples include flows through a porous plug, a capillary tube, or other long restriction.
- ❖ If there is no heat transfer, enthalpy is conserved.



# Joule-Thompson Coefficient

- ❖ The  $T$  change of a throttling process is given by:  

$$\mu_{JT} = \left( \frac{\partial T}{\partial p} \right)_h = \text{Joule-Thompson coefficient.}$$
- ❖  $\mu_{JT} = 0$  for ideal gases.
- ❖  $H_2$  has a negative  $\mu_{JT}$  when above  $-68^\circ\text{C}$ .
- ❖ For vehicle container conditions,  $\mu_{JT}$  is about  $-0.5 \text{ K/MPa}$ .
- ❖  $H_2$  throttling from 70 MPa to 2 MPa will increase its  $T$  by  $34^\circ\text{C}$ .



# Hydrogen Detectors

- The traditional way to detect  $H_2$  flames is with a straw broom.
- $H_2$  gas detectors can detect down to 15 ppm (molecular sieve).
- These require gas sampling and will not alert if flames consume the  $H_2$ .
- $H_2$  flame detectors can detect a  $H_2$  flame of 50 mm from 30 m (UV/IR).
- Thermal imaging firefighting cameras are effective.



H2Scan Corp.  
Hy-Alerta Model 500  
\$3750



Det-Tronics (UTC)  
Model X3302



# Hydrogen Vehicle Labeling



# Hydrogen Firefighting

- Listen for leaking gas.
- Look for white clouds near liquid hydrogen spills.
- Watch for heat shimmering.
- Use outstretched brooms, hydrogen detectors, and thermal imaging cameras.
- Prevent ignition sources (sparks, heat).
- In U.S. there are 30,000 fire departments and 1M firefighters, 75% of whom are volunteers.



# Hydrogen Firefighting

---

- Stop the flow of hydrogen if possible.
- Otherwise, allow the flames to consume the entire gas supply when this can be done safely.
- Protect nearby objects and fuels.
- Extinguishing flames without stopping leaks can result in explosive mixtures.
- Use water or a dry powder extinguisher.

# CNG Vehicle PRD Case Studies

- ❖ CNG bus fires often involve safe venting by the PRDs.
- ❖ A CNG Ford Crown Victoria in a fire experienced a container rupture in 2003.
- ❖ A CNG Honda Civic ruptured in 2007 (below).

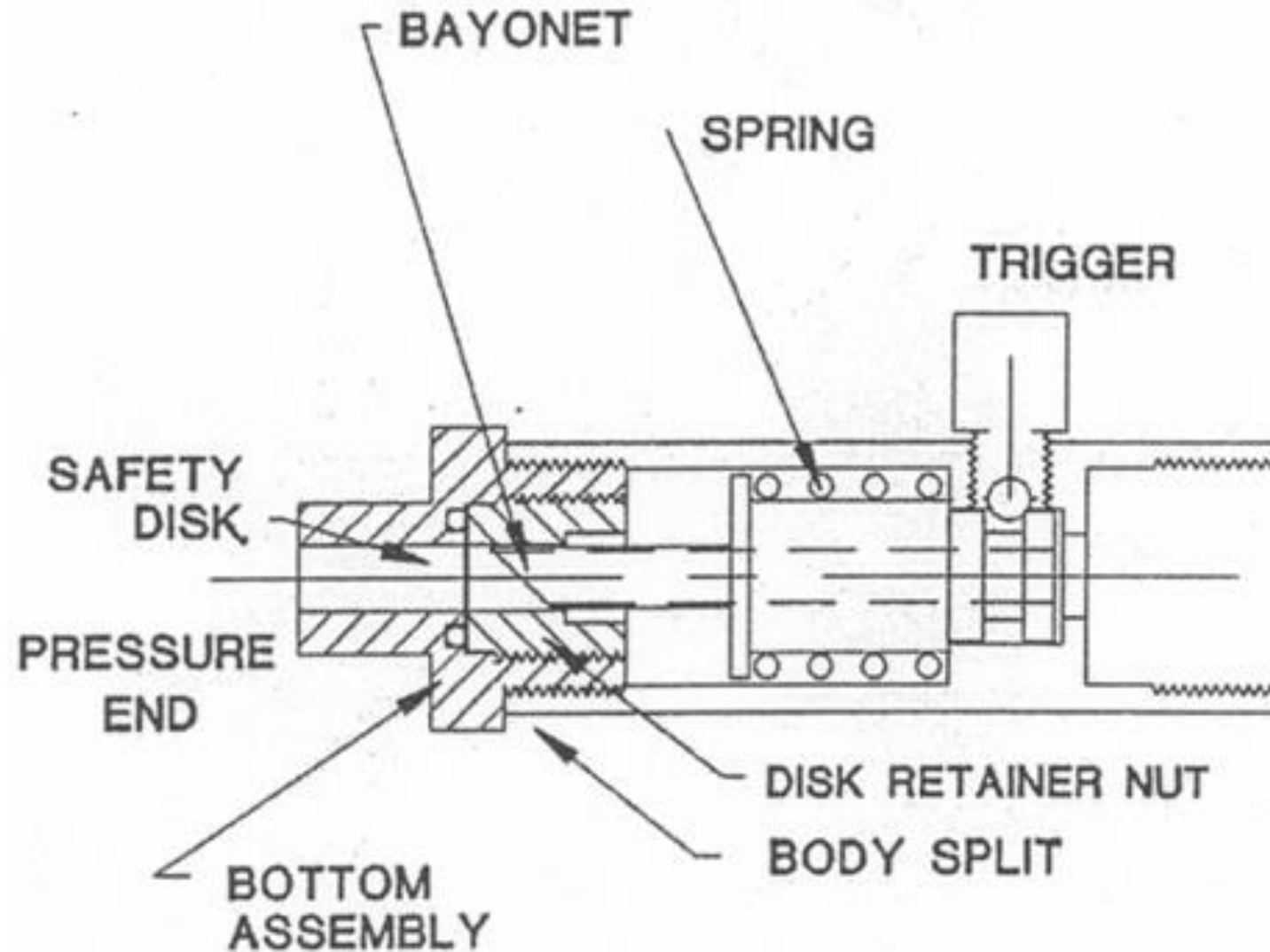


# Pressure Relief Devices

---

- ❖ CNG and Hydrogen vehicle containers require PRDs, primarily to protect against impinging fires.
- ❖ PRDs can be activated by pressure, temperature, or a combination.
- ❖ Most hydrogen, CNG, and propane containers are protected by temperature-activated PRDs.
- ❖ Modern composite tanks are good thermal insulators that weaken at high temperatures.
- ❖ Fuel pressure may not increase significantly during an impinging fire. A container may not be filled with fuel at the time of the fire.

# Mirada Bayonet PRD





# Microflame Scenario

- A small leak develops in a H<sub>2</sub> system, e.g., a H<sub>2</sub> vehicle.
- The leak could arise from H<sub>2</sub> embrittlement, H<sub>2</sub> permeation, impact, equipment failure, or improper repair.
- The leak ignites from static discharge or heat.
- The leak burns undetected for a long period, damaging the containment system and providing an ignition source for a subsequent large release.



# Microflame Background

---

- Micro diffusion flames have been observed for microcombustor applications.
- Quenching and blowoff of  $\text{CH}_4$  and  $\text{C}_3\text{H}_8$  flames were measured and modeled by Matta et al. (2002) and Cheng et al. (2006).
- Schefer et al. (2006) analyzed  $\text{H}_2$  leak rates for choked flow, subsonic laminar flow, and turbulent flow.

# Microflame Objectives

---

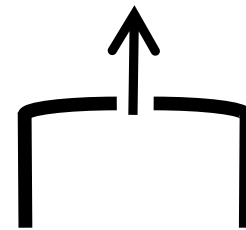
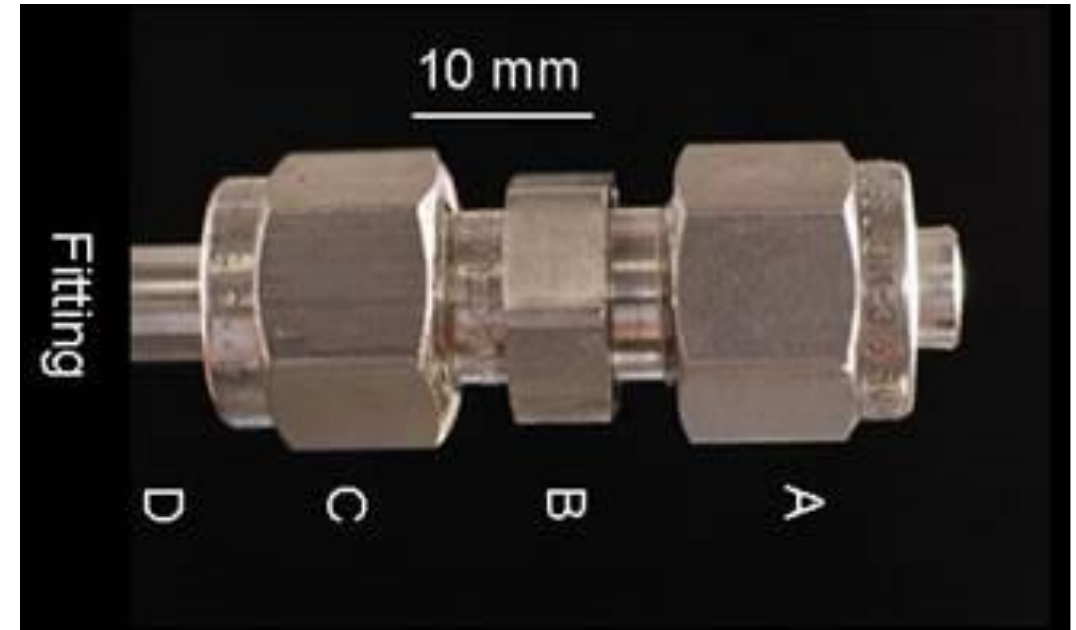
- Measure quenching and blowoff limits for  $H_2$ ,  $CH_4$  and  $C_3H_8$  on small round burners.
- Measure quenching limits for leaky compression fittings.
- Examine material degradation arising from exposure to  $H_2$  and  $CH_4$  flames.

# Experimental

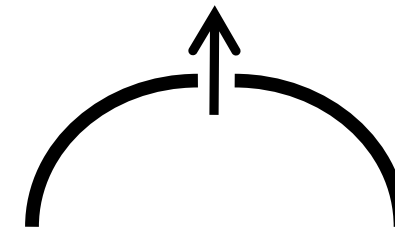
## ➤ Quenching and blowoff limits

- ❖ Fuels:  $H_2$ ,  $CH_4$ , and  $C_3H_8$
- ❖ Diameters:  $8\ \mu m$  –  $3.2\ mm$
- ❖ Leaky compression fittings

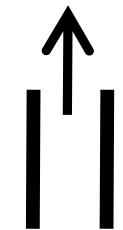
Hole diameters in mm			
Pinhole	Curved wall	Curved wall	Tube
0.008	0.41	0.41	0.051
0.13	0.53	1.75	0.152
0.36	0.74	2.46	0.406
0.53	0.86	3.12	0.838
0.71	1.02		1.194
0.84			2.21
1.01			
1.40			
1.78			
2.39			
3.18			



Pinhole



Curved-Wall



Tube

# Quenching Scaling

Laminar flame length:  $L_f / d = a \text{ Re} = 4 m_{fuel} a / (\pi \mu d)$

Length at quenching:  $L_f = L_q / 2$

Equating these:  $m_{fuel} = \pi L_q \mu / (8 a)$

Fuel	$a$	$L_q$ (mm)	$S_L$ (cm/s)	$\mu$ (g/m-s)	$m_{fuel}$ ( $\mu\text{g/s}$ )
H <sub>2</sub>	0.236	0.51	291	8.76E-3	8
CH <sub>4</sub>	0.136	2.3	37.3	1.09E-2	85
C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>8</sub>	0.108	1.78	42.9	7.95E-3	63

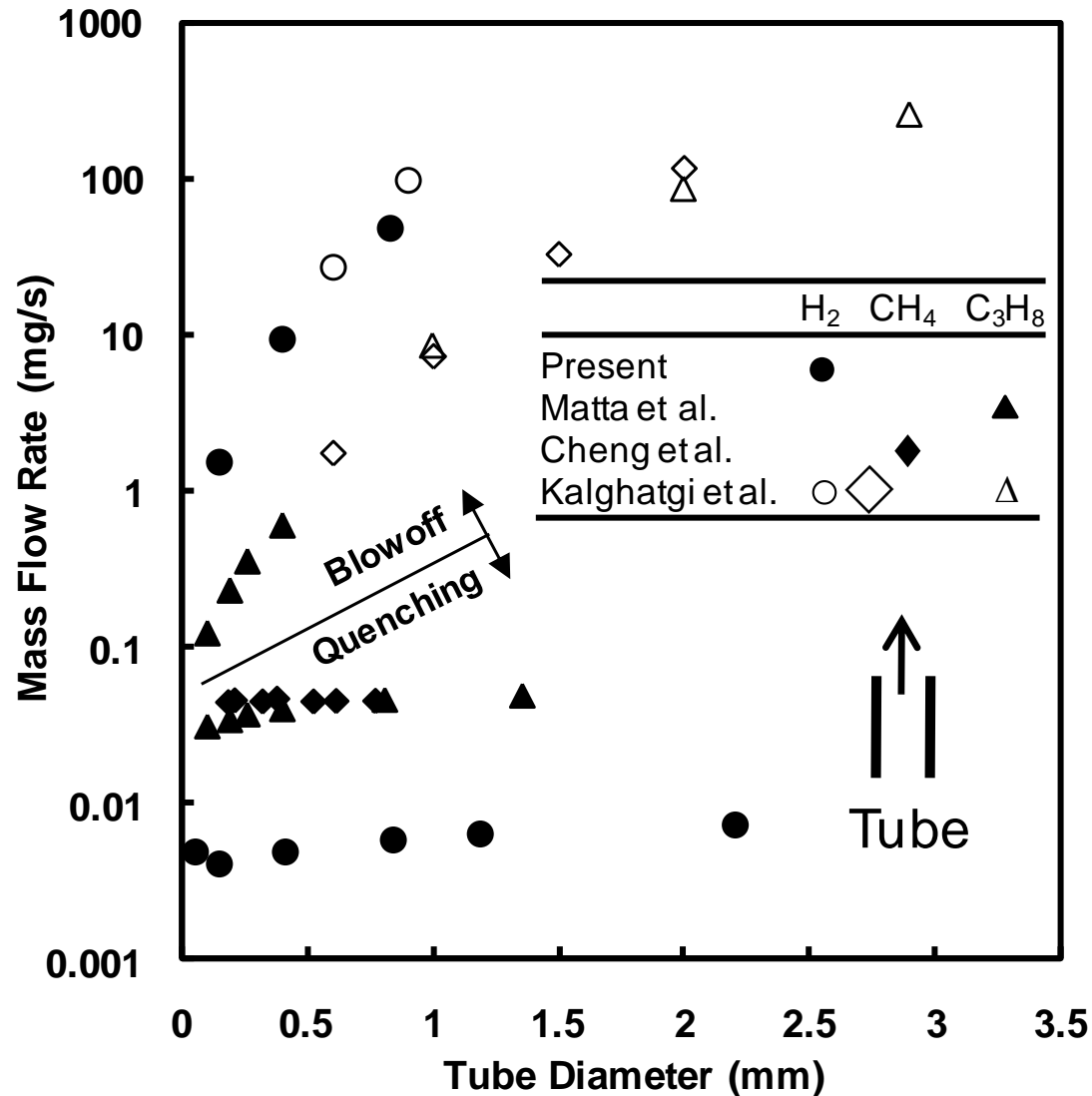
# H<sub>2</sub> Pinhole Quenching Limit

4 mm

- A H<sub>2</sub> flame at its quenching limit is shown.
- This flame is not visible to the eye and required a 30 s camera exposure.
- Stand-off height is 0.25 mm.
- Thermocouples identified flaming.

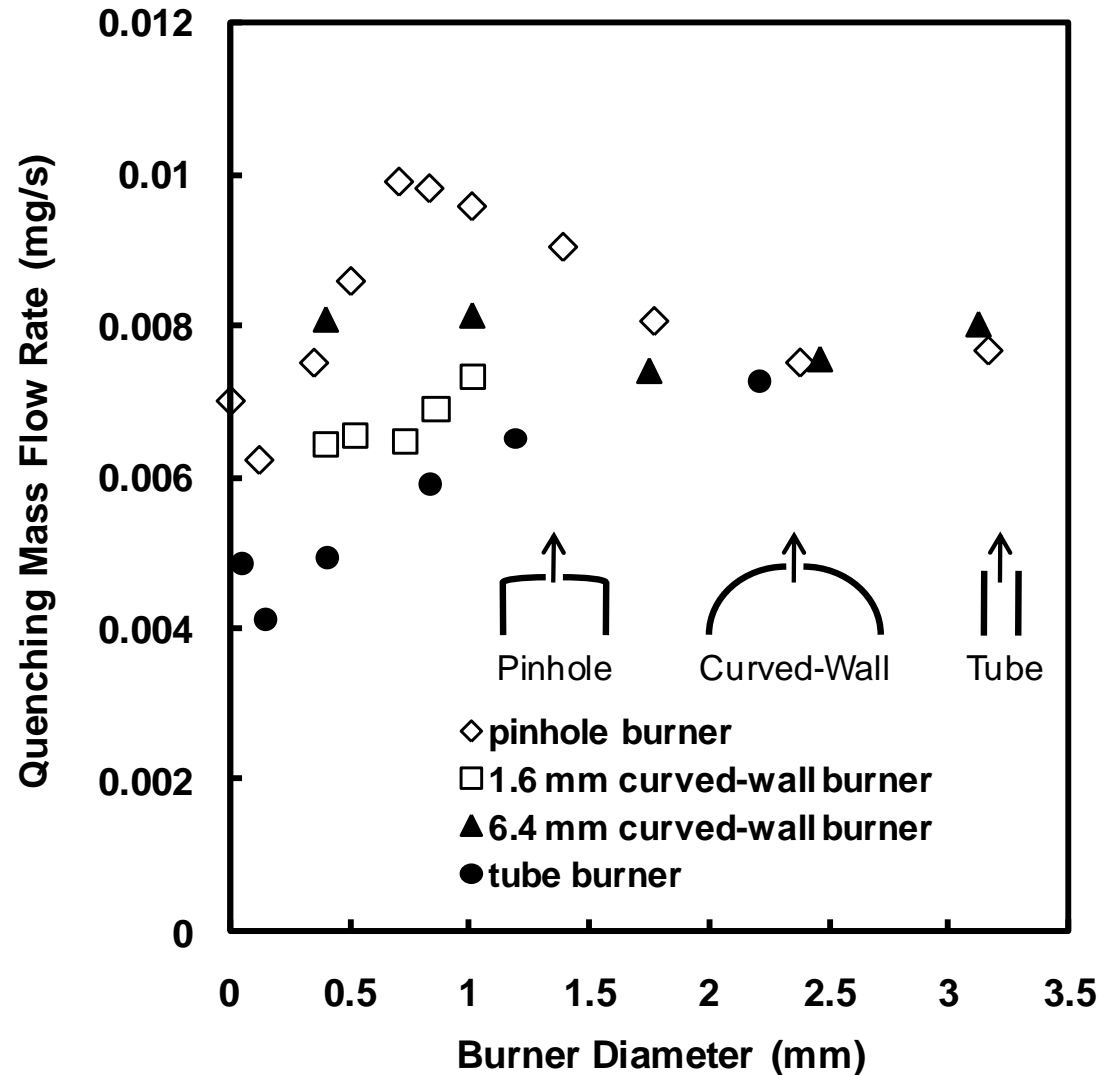


# Tube Burner Quenching and Blowoff Limits



- Quenching limits are nearly independent of  $d$ .
- H<sub>2</sub> has the lowest quenching limit and the highest blowoff limit.
- CH<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub> have similar quenching and blowoff limits.

# Pinhole Burner H<sub>2</sub> Quenching Limits



- Three burner types are shown.
- For large  $d$  the limits converge.
- Heat losses are highest for pinholes, lowest for tube burners.
- Limits increase at the smallest  $d$ .

# SAE J2579 Leak Limits

---

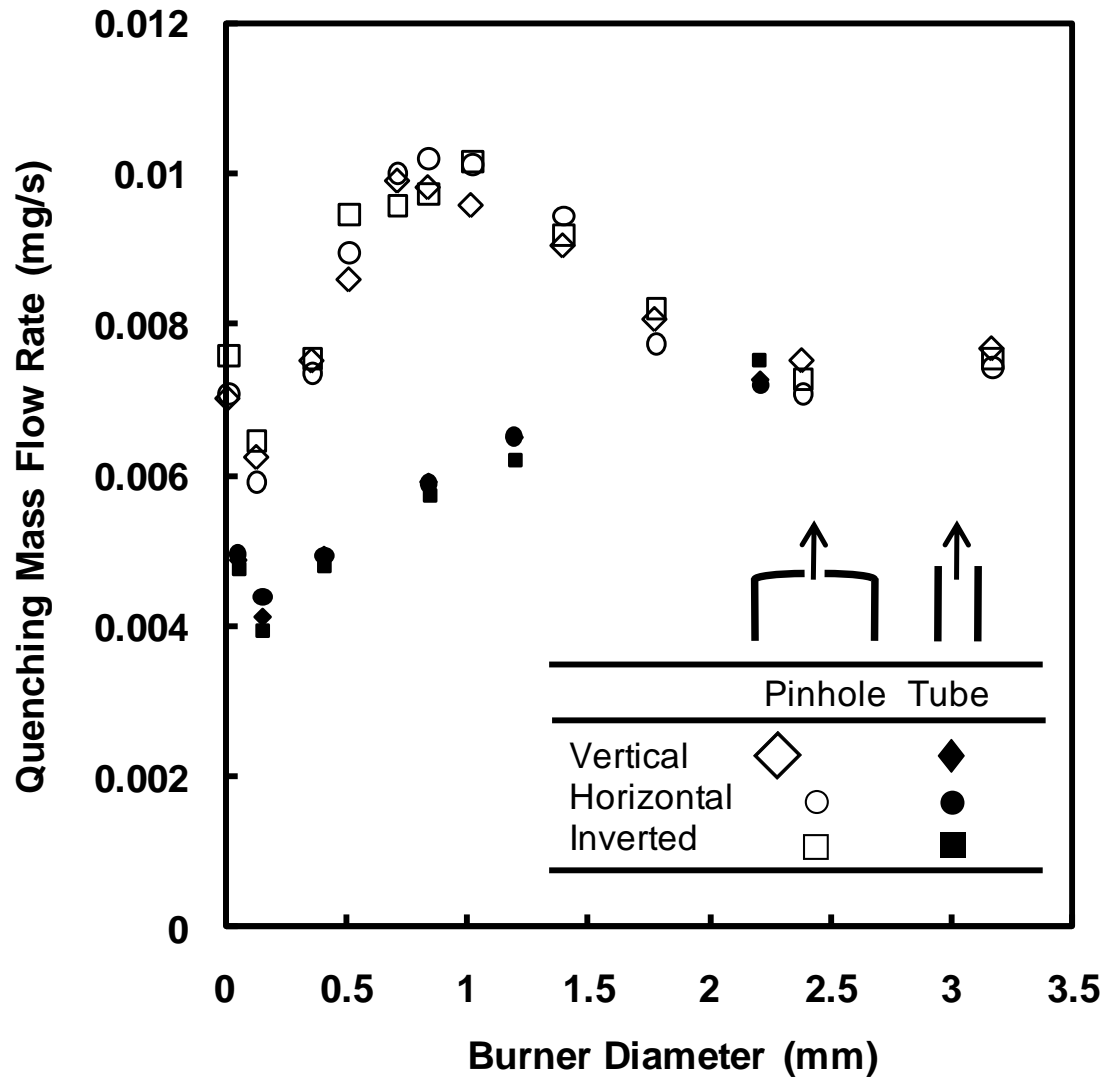
Localized leaks must not be capable of supporting a flame.

The maximum localized leak rate is 5  $\mu\text{g/s}$  (i.e., 3.6 sccm).

This equates to about 33 bubbles/s under water.

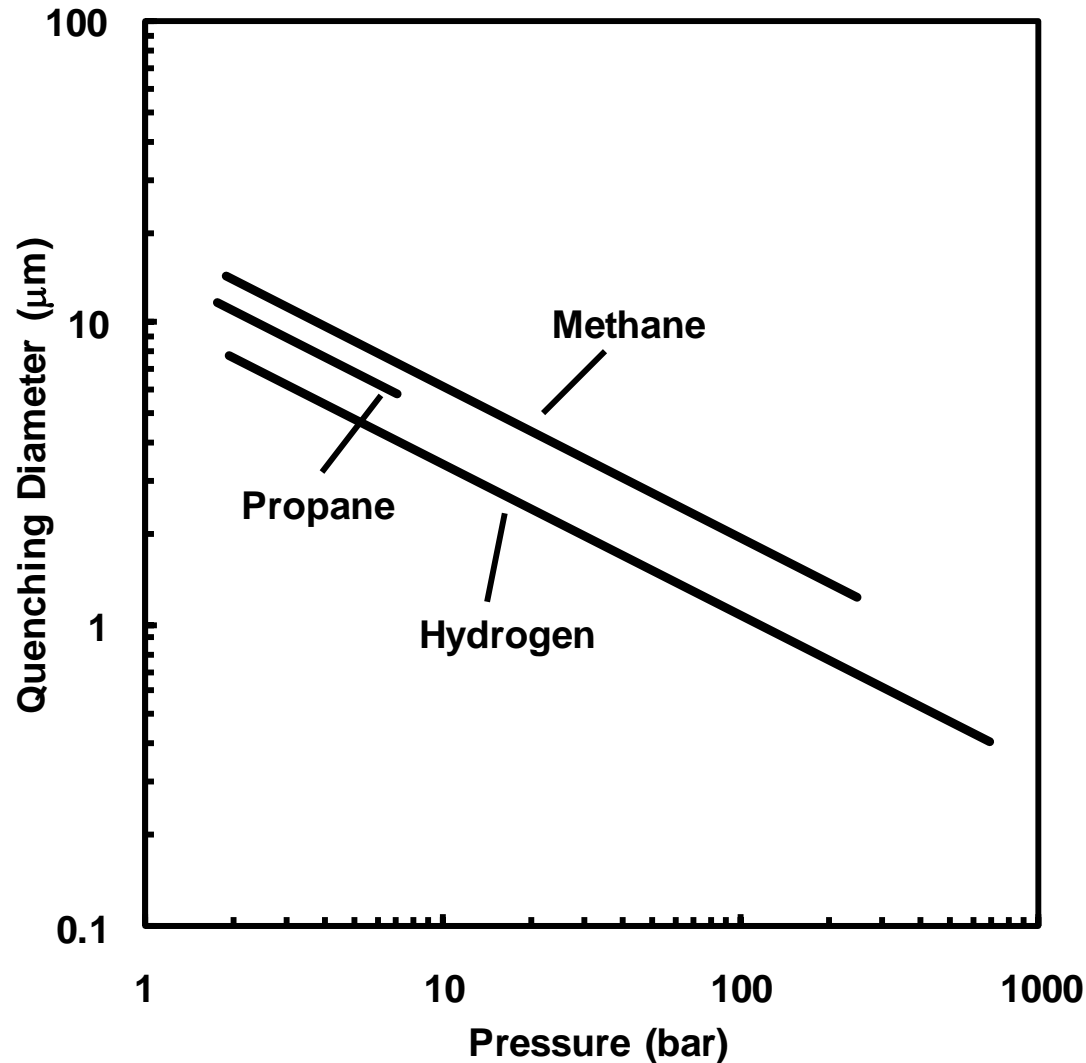
Total system leakage is limited to 150 sccm.

# Orientation Effects



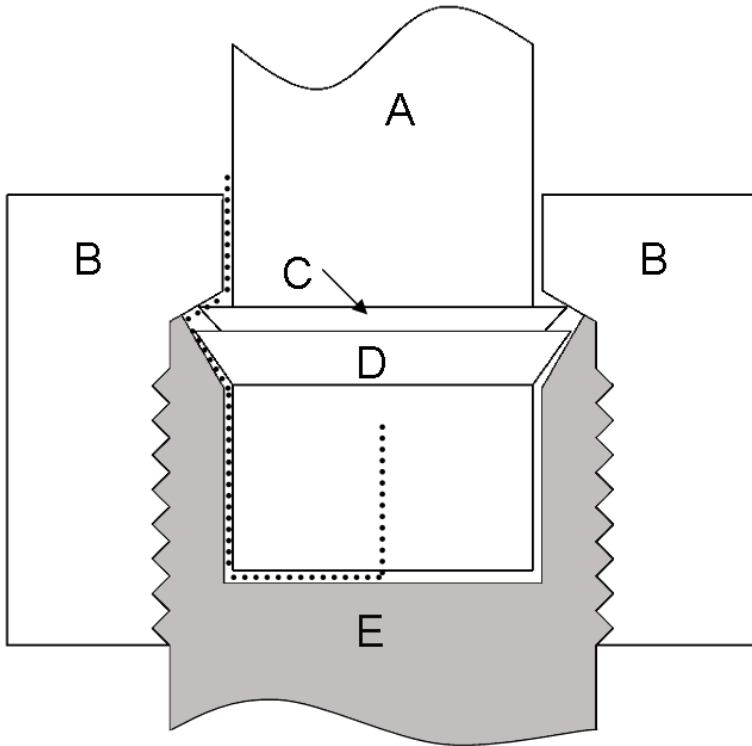
- $H_2$  quenching limits generally increase with burner diameter owing to heat losses.
- Inverted limits are lowest, attributed to fuel preheating and flame anchoring.
- This plot helped identify the world's weakest flame.

# Minimum Hole Size for Flaming

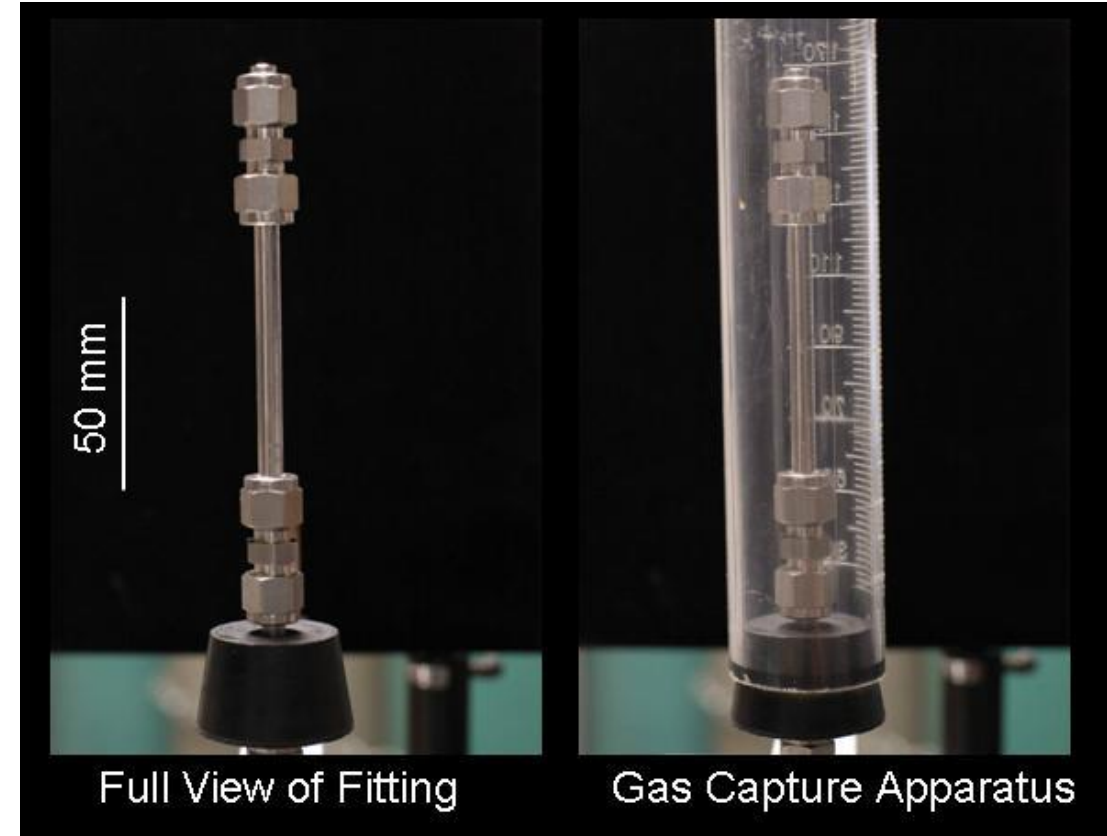


- Upstream pressure required for 5.6 μg/s H<sub>2</sub> isentropic choked flow is shown.
- For H<sub>2</sub> at 70 MPa, any hole larger than 0.4 μm will support a stable flame.

# Leaky Fittings Tests



- Leak path for loose fittings.



- Flow rates were measured downstream of the leaks.



5 mm



Hydrogen



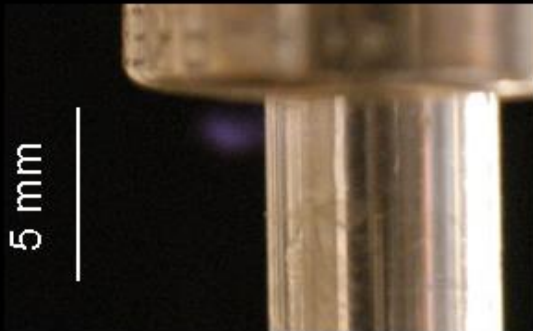
Methane



Propane

3.2 mm  
tube

5 mm



Hydrogen



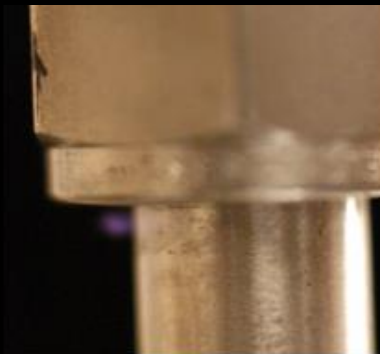
Methane



Propane

6.4 mm  
tube

10 mm



Hydrogen



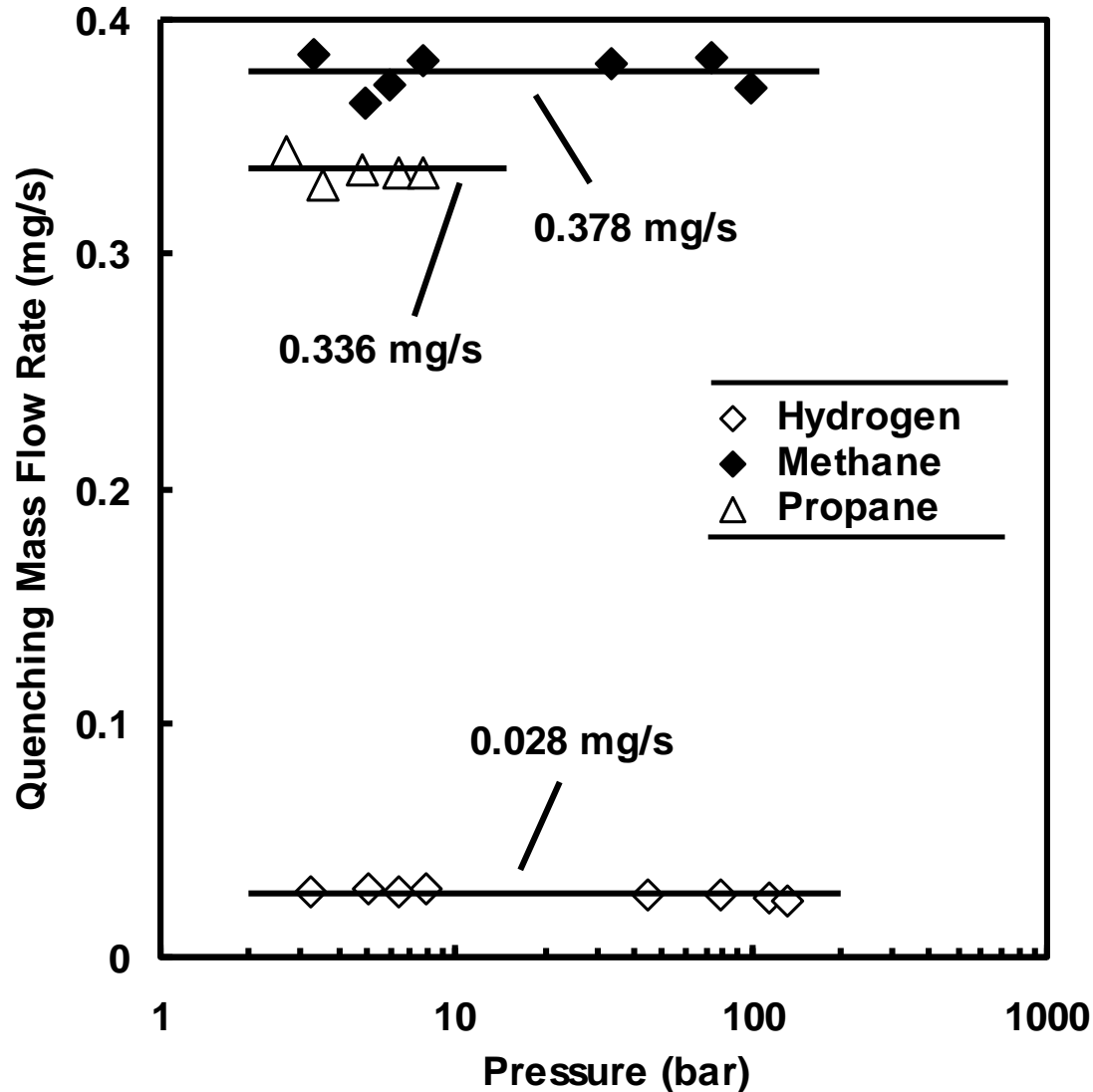
Methane



Propane

12.7 mm  
tube

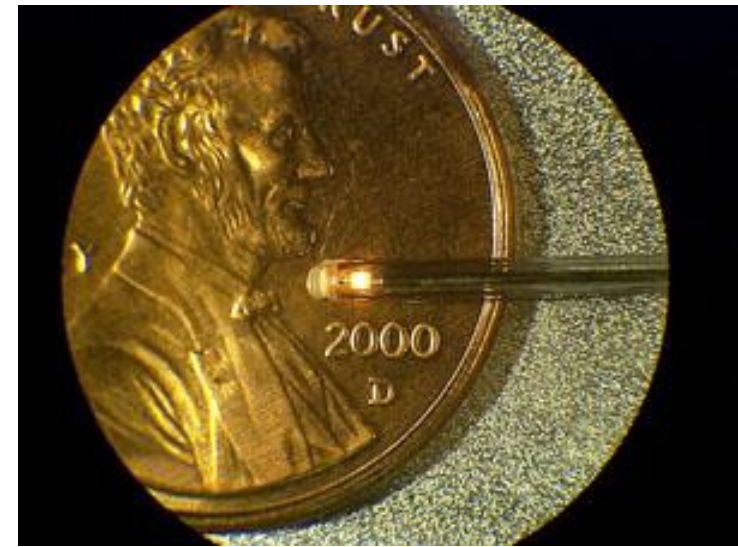
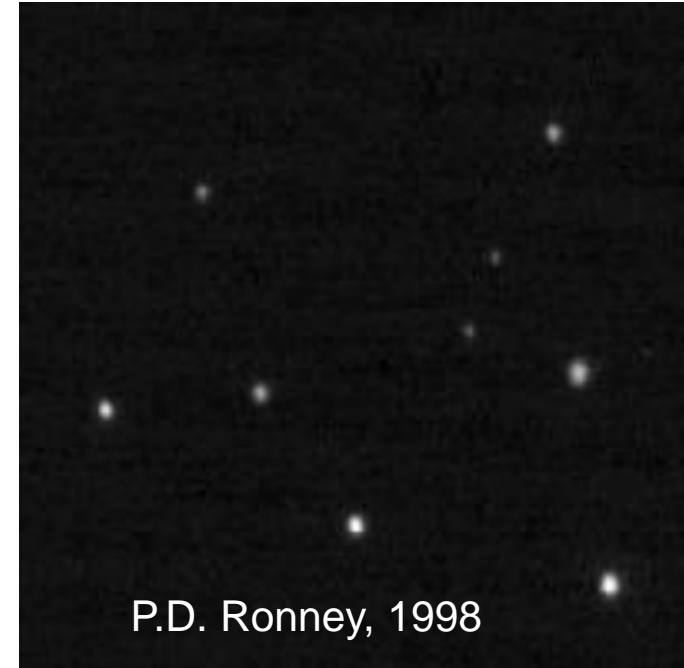
# Upstream Pressure Effects



- Quenching limits for a 6 mm compression fitting are shown.
- Limits are independent of pressure.
- Limits are about 10X those of tube burners.
- H<sub>2</sub> limits are the lowest.

# World's Weakest Flames

- Ronney et al. (1998) observed  $\text{H}_2/\text{O}_2/\text{CO}_2$  SOFBALL flames with HRR as low as 0.5 - 1 W.
- Microcombustors can benefit from high turndown ratios and weak flames that remove the need for ignitors.



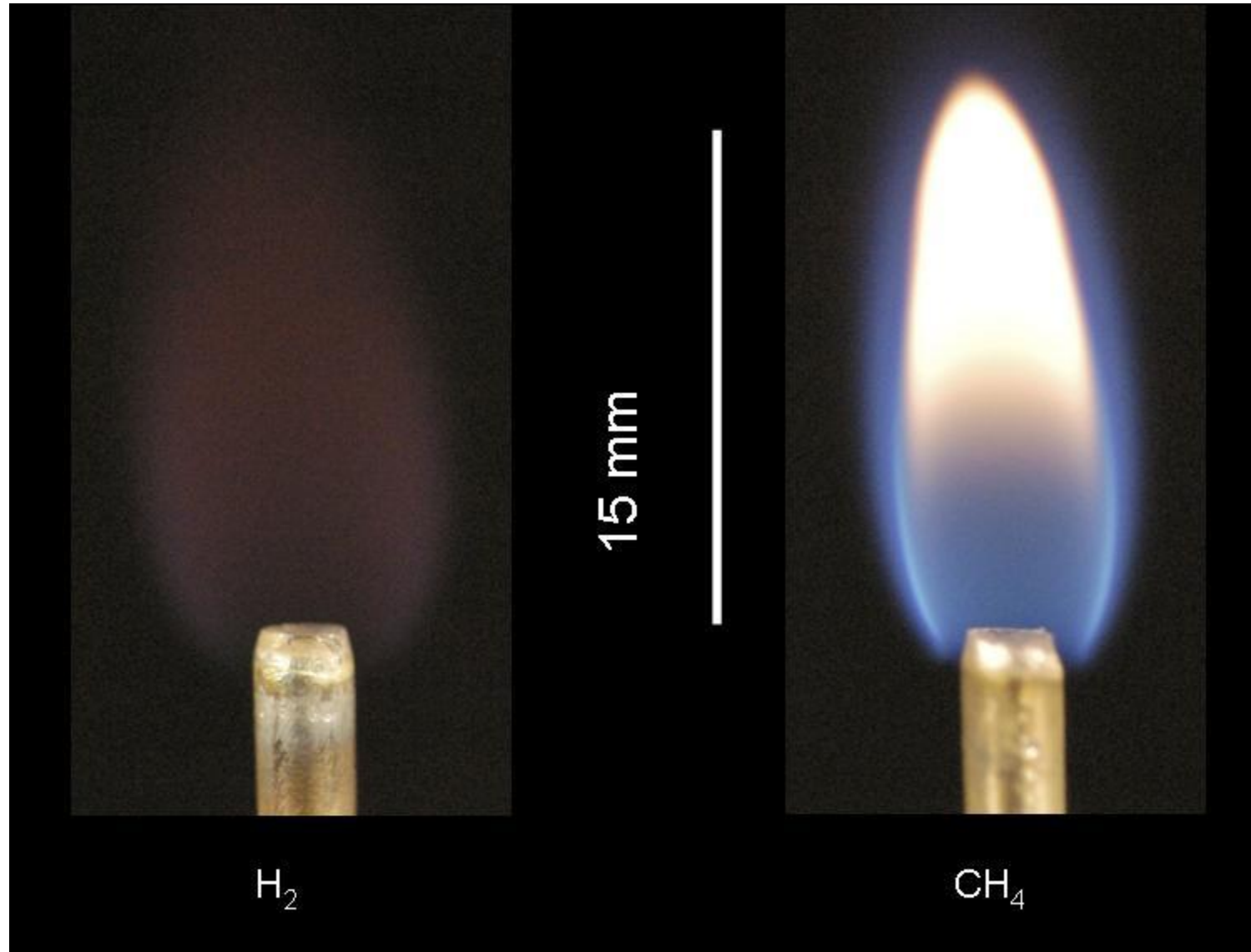
# Weakest Flames



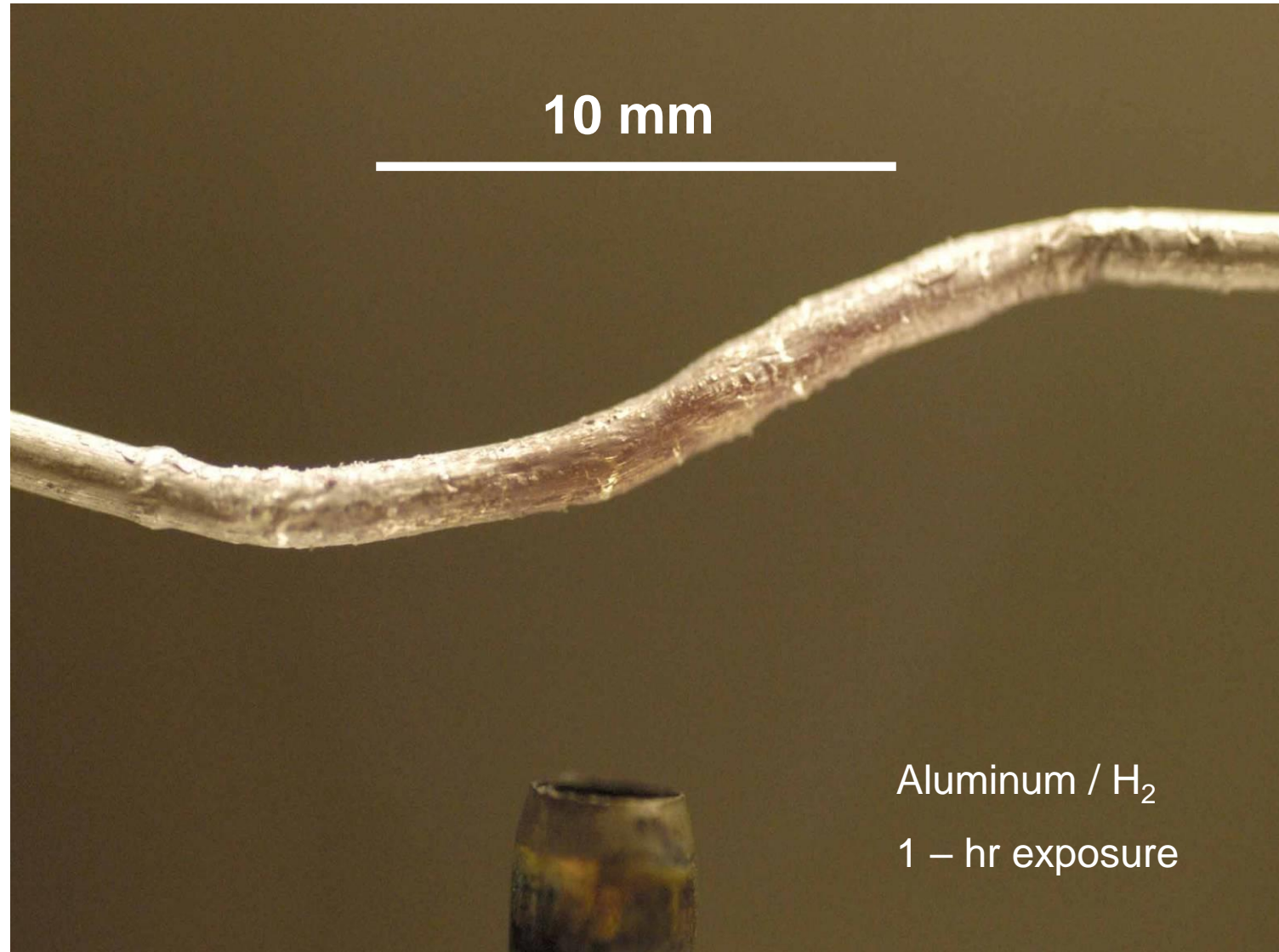
- At left is  $\text{H}_2$  flowing downward into air ( $3.9 \mu\text{g/s}$ ,  $0.46 \text{ W}$ ).
- At right is  $\text{H}_2$  flowing downward into  $\text{O}_2$  ( $2.1 \mu\text{g/s}$ ,  $0.25 \text{ W}$ ).
- The tube inside and outside diameters are  $0.15$  and  $0.30 \text{ mm}$ .
- The exposure time was  $30 \text{ s}$ .



# Materials Degradation



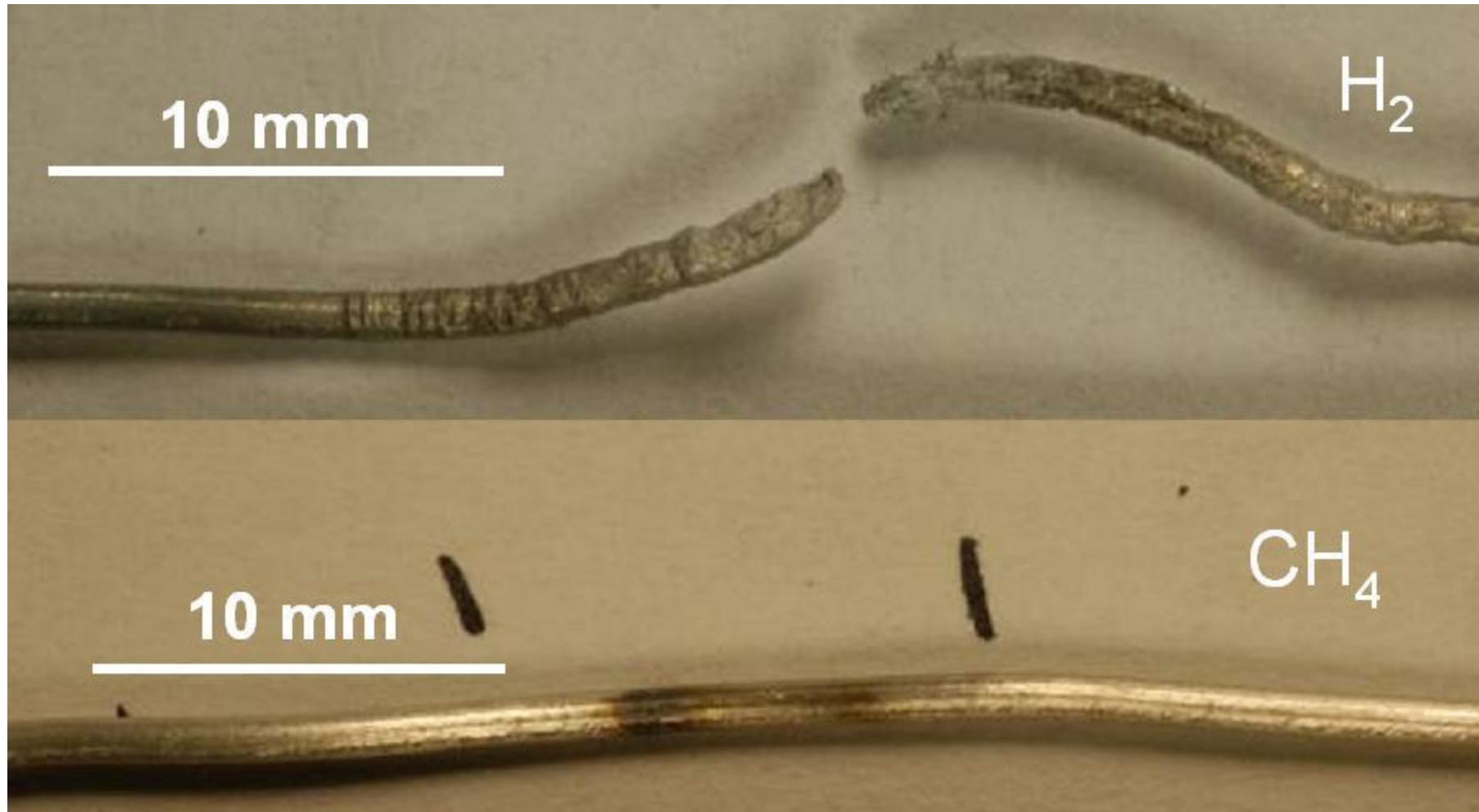
# Al Degradation





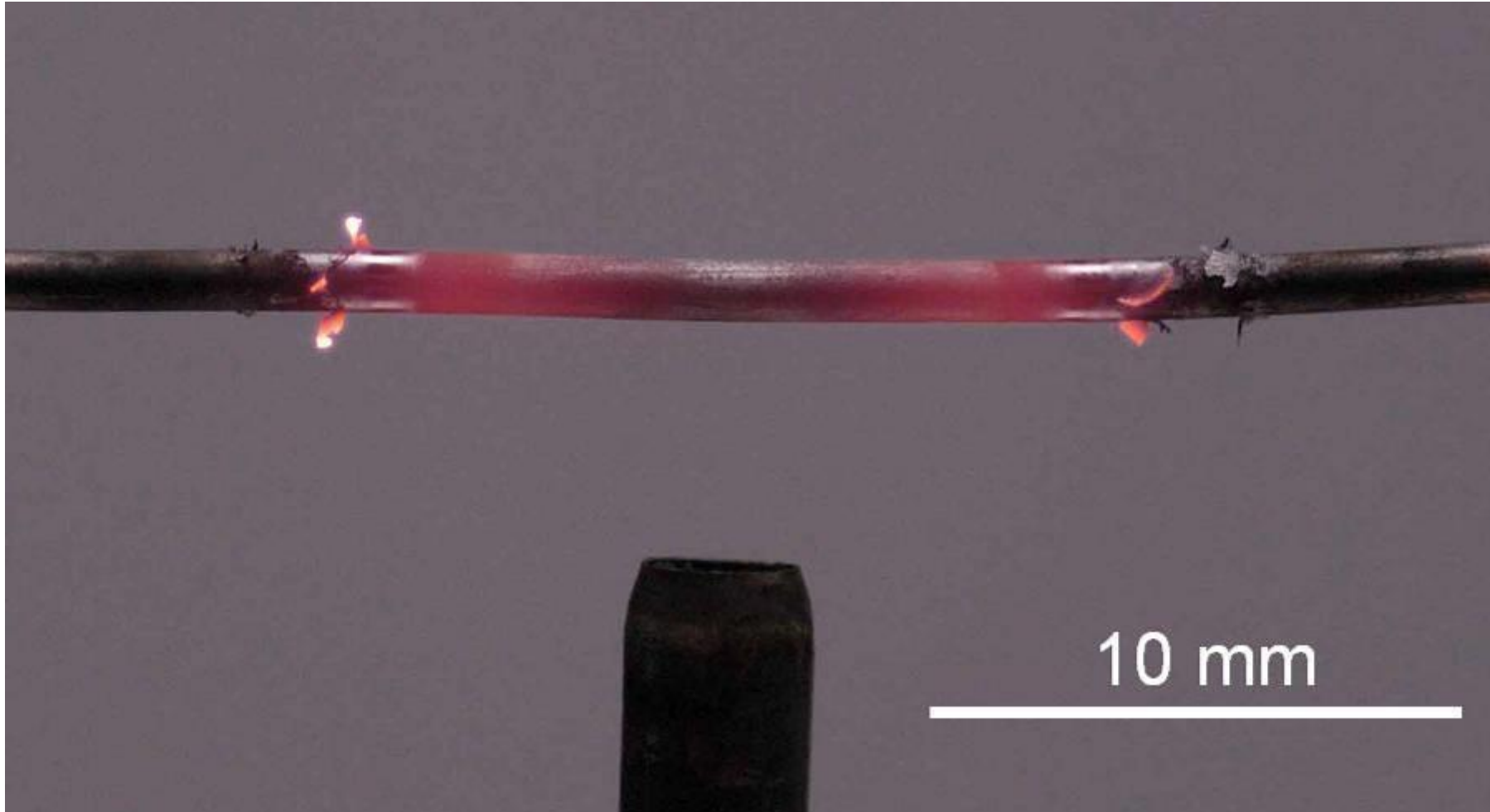
# Al Degradation

- Aluminum failed in  $H_2$  flame at 8 hours.



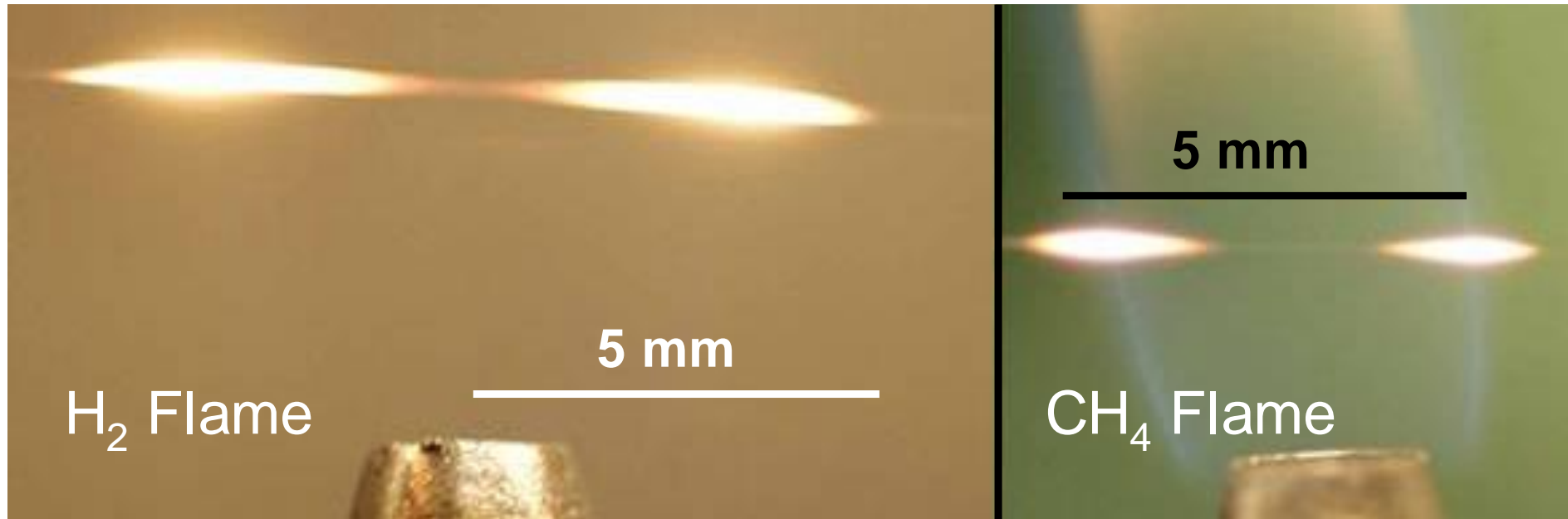
# 304 SS Degradation

- Corrosion after prolonged  $H_2$  flame exposure.



# SiC Degradation

- SiC filaments failed at 12 minutes in the  $\text{H}_2$  flame, and at 356 minutes in the  $\text{CH}_4$  flame.



# Possible Mitigation Strategies

---

- Intumescent paints
- Steel wool or ceramic blankets
- Flame detectors:
  - Cable heat detectors
  - UV and IR detectors

# Summary

---

- In the US there are 3,500 fire deaths annually, 10% of these in vehicles.
- We understand and accept the risk of gasoline and diesel vehicles with 4 mm thick HDPE containers.
- Hydrogen vehicles present different fire hazards. More research is needed for these to be understood.