



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

This is a repository copy of *Cooling capacity optimization of hydrocarbon fuels for regenerative cooling*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:

<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/183624/>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Wang, J, Jin, H, Gao, H et al. (1 more author) (2022) Cooling capacity optimization of hydrocarbon fuels for regenerative cooling. *Applied Thermal Engineering*, 200. 117661. ISSN 1359-4311

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.applthermaleng.2021.117661>

© 2021, Elsevier. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>.

Reuse

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivs (CC BY-NC-ND) licence. This licence only allows you to download this work and share it with others as long as you credit the authors, but you can't change the article in any way or use it commercially. More information and the full terms of the licence here: <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



eprints@whiterose.ac.uk
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/>

1 **Abstract**

2 As an effective method for heat management of hypersonic vehicles, regenerative
3 cooling faces a severe problem of insufficient cooling capacity under high-speed
4 conditions. Aiming to increase the cooling capacity of a given fuel, we conducted an
5 optimization study by considering the influence of working condition, chemical
6 kinetics and chemical routes. Via establishing a framework of multi-physical simulation
7 by coupling the catalytic reactions with complex heat transfer process from subcritical
8 to supercritical status, we conducted a parametric study of the effects of working
9 conditions (i.e., inlet temperature and inlet velocity) to reveal the influence of physical
10 heat sink, and different chemical kinetics and chemical routes to optimize the chemical
11 heat sink. As a limiting case study, surface coking process was also investigated. With
12 the consideration of both physical and chemical heat sinks, the regenerative cooling
13 capacity of a hydrocarbon fuel can be effectively increased through the optimization of
14 the working conditions. Using n-Decane as an example, a total heat sink value of 2.5
15 MJ/kg is obtained under typical working conditions. A maximum heat sink of 5.3
16 MJ/kg could be obtained by engineering chemical routes with ethylene and hydrogen
17 as the final cracking products, under conditions 473 K and 0.042 m/s. Results also
18 reveal that it is essential to reduce the temperature of the wall to minimize carbon
19 deposition. For practical applications, a careful consideration of the synergies among
20 the inlet conditions, reaction kinetics and route, and coking should be performed to
21 optimize the cooling capacity of a HC fuel.

22 **Keywords:** Regenerative cooling; Hydrocarbon fuel; Heat-sink improvement;
23 Thermal cracking reaction routes; Surface coking.

24

1

2 **Nomenclature**

3 A pre-exponential constant, s^{-1}

4 c concentration of products, mol/m^3

5 C_p constant-pressure heat capacity, $J/(kg \cdot K)$

6 d thickness of coking layer, m

7 D diameter of the regenerative cooling passages, m

8 D_i diffusion coefficient of i_{th} species, m^2/s

9 E_a activation energy in Arrhenius rate expression, kJ/mol

10 h enthalpy, kJ/kg

11 H heat sink, MJ/kg

12 k turbulent kinetic energy

13 k_A Arrhenius rate constant, $1/s$

14 L distance of the regenerative cooling passages, m

15 P_c critical pressure, MPa

16 p pressure, MPa

17 q_0 volume flow of fuel at the inlet, ml/min

18 R molar gas constant, $8.314 J/(mol \cdot K)$

19 r radial coordinate, m

20 S chemical source term, $kg/(m^3 \cdot s)$

21 T fuel temperature, K

22 T_0 inlet fuel temperature, K

23 T_c critical temperature of i_{th} species, K

24 u axial velocity component, m/s

25 u_0 inlet axial velocity of the hydrocarbon fuel, m/s

26 v radial velocity component, m/s

27 Y_i mass fraction of i_{th} cracked product species, 1

1

2 **Greeks**

3 λ thermal conductivity, W/(m · K)

4 μ_i dynamic viscosity of an individual product species, Pa · s

5 ρ density, kg · m³

6 ω_i product mass fraction of an individual product species, 1

7 τ viscous stress, N/m²

8 **Subscripts**

9 c coking

10 chem chemical heat sink

11 endo endothermic

12 i individual product species

13 in inlet of the tube

14 mix mixture

15 out exit of the tube

16 prod products

17 phy physical heat sink

18 reac reactants

19 tot total heat sink

20 w wall

21

22

23

1 **1. Introduction**

2 With the rapid development of hypersonic vehicles (HV) and increased requirement
3 of heat management, the challenge of efficient cooling becomes more and more severe.
4 Among various thermal protection measures, regenerative cooling, which uses the fuel
5 to cool some critical components before it is burned in the combustor, is considered to
6 be one of the most promising methods^{1,2}. However, as the vehicle speed increases, the
7 demand on the cooling capacity of hydrocarbon fuels (HC fuels) also increases. It is
8 predicted that more than 5 MJ/kg of cooling capacity³ is required at hypersonic flow of
9 Mach 5. The cooling capacity of a HC fuel is from two components: physical heat sink
10 and chemical heat sink. It has been shown that when the temperature of the fuel reaches
11 around 560 °C^{4,5}, the bonds of hydrocarbon molecules become broken to produce some
12 smaller molecules. This phenomenon, known as thermal cracking or pyrolysis, is
13 typically endothermic and can provide further cooling capacity, called chemical heat
14 sink, and is becoming increasingly important to meet the high cooling demand under
15 high Mach number conditions.

16 Recent years see an increasing number of experimental studies on the thermal
17 cracking characteristics and carbon deposition process of different HC fuels⁶⁻¹⁶, aiming
18 to increase their cooling capacity from both physical and chemical heat sink approaches.
19 As summarized in Table 1, the maximum physical heat sink and chemical heat sink can
20 be achieved are around 2.3 MJ/kg^{15,17,18}, and 1 MJ/kg, respectively, for pure HC fuels.
21 As the physical heat sink is mainly decided by the initial thermophysical properties,
22 how to enhance chemical heat sink becomes the key to further increase the cooling
23 capacity of any HC fuels.

24 As shown in many prior studies^{6,19,20}, the chemical heat sink is strongly influenced
25 by the conversion rate of the fuel and the distribution of reaction products. For instance
26 the thermal cracking is typically endothermic if the products are unsaturated
27 hydrocarbons (i.e., ethylene, propylene and butene) and becomes exothermic if the

1 products are saturated HCs such as methane³. Catalytic cracking is an effective way to
 2 increase the chemical heat sink of HC fuels. Properly engineered, catalytic cracking
 3 could not only increase the conversion rate, but also selectively modify the chemical
 4 routes, leading to different products. A number of catalysts have been used recently to
 5 improve chemical heat sink of different fuels^{18, 21-25}. It is clearly shown in Table 1 that
 6 catalytic cracking could significantly increase the chemical heat sink. The maximum
 7 heat sink achieved so far is 4.64 MJ/kg²⁶ at 758 °C and 3.5 MPa by using a hybrid
 8 catalyst in zeolite matrix (Cooxides@ZSM-5). This value, however, is still less than the
 9 required cooling capacity for Mach>5, and the high temperature of >750 °C inevitably
 10 brings the problem of coking, which would significantly deteriorate the regenerative
 11 cooling performance. Clearly, how to further increase chemical heat sink while
 12 minimizing the coking phenomenon is a pressing question to answer.

13 Table 1 Heat sink variations of HC fuels with different kinds of catalysts.

References	HC fuels	Catalysts	Working conditions	H_{tot} (MJ/kg)	H_{phy} (MJ/kg)	H_{chem} (MJ/kg)
Jin ¹²	RP-3	No catalyst	6 MPa, 699 °C	2.61	/	/
Zhu ¹⁵	n-Decane	No catalyst	4 MPa, 670 °C	2.70	2.17	0.53
Huang ¹⁷	JP-7	No catalyst	4.14 MPa, 635 °C	2.40	2.00	0.40
	JP-8+100	No catalyst	4.14 MPa, 734 °C	3.25	2.27	0.98
	JP-10	No catalyst	4.14 MPa, 741 °C	3.03	2.18	0.85
Yue ¹⁸	Decalin	No catalyst	3.5 MPa, 750 °C	3.21	2.23	0.98
		Pd@N	3.5 MPa, 750 °C	3.50	2.23	1.27
Sun ²⁷	JP-10	No catalyst	4 MPa, 700 °C	2.32	/	/
		HDZ-O	4 MPa, 700 °C	2.80	/	/
E, X.-t.-f ²⁸	JP-10	No catalyst	4 MPa, 680 °C	2.09	/	/
		Pt NPs	4 MPa, 680 °C	2.71	/	/
Long ²⁶	n-Decane	No catalyst	3.5 MPa, 728 °C	3.77	/	/
		Cooxides@ZSM-5	3.5 MPa, 758 °C	4.64	/	/

He ²²	Methylcyclohexane	No catalyst	3.5 MPa, 690 °C	2.48	/	/
	(MCH)	PPAMAM-1	3.5MPa, 690°C	2.95	/	/
Ye ²³	Decalin	No catalyst	3.5 MPa ,675°C	2.18	/	/
		Pt @ CPAMAM	3.5 MPa ,693°C	3.03	/	/

1 In parallel to experimental studies, a number of numerical investigations have been
2 conducted to examine the characteristics of thermal cracking, carbon deposition and
3 heat transfer of HC fuels^{4, 7, 8, 29-33}. Most of the simulation are based on simplified
4 models. For a typical regenerative cooling system, the operating pressure is generally
5 above the critical pressure of the fuel, which hence undergoes a gradually heated
6 process in cooling channels, transiting from a sub-critical to supercritical state. The
7 rapid change of thermophysical properties, coupling with multi-physical process of
8 pyrolysis and trans-critical heat transfer process, makes the simulation of regenerative
9 cooling highly challenging. How to further increase the cooling capacity of a HC fuel
10 requires to optimize the chemical reaction route while minimizing the coking
11 phenomenon, which is difficult to achieve experimentally.

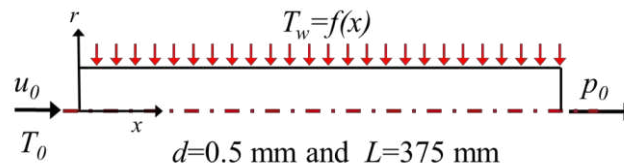
12 In this work, we try to increase the cooling capacity of a given HC fuel from two
13 approaches: i) Optimization of both working conditions and catalytic reactions, and ii)
14 Engineering suitable reaction routes to increase the chemical heat sink while
15 minimizing the coking effect. To achieve this, we established a framework of multi-
16 physical simulation by coupling the catalytic reactions with complex heat transfer
17 process from subcritical to supercritical status. We then conducted a parametric study
18 of the effects of working conditions (i.e., inlet temperature and inlet velocity) to reveal
19 the influence of physical heat sink, and different chemical kinetics and chemical routes
20 to optimize the chemical heat sink. As a limiting case study, surface coking process was
21 also investigated. As a main component of HC fuels, n-Decane has a critical pressure
22 and temperature similar to those of actual jet fuels, and is chosen as a surrogate model
23 to simplify the thermal cracking reactions. The result reveals the potentials of
24 engineered low temperature catalytic cracking in maximizing the cooling capacity of a

1 given HC fuel.

2 **2. Numerical methods and verifications**

3 **2.1 Physical model and boundary conditions**

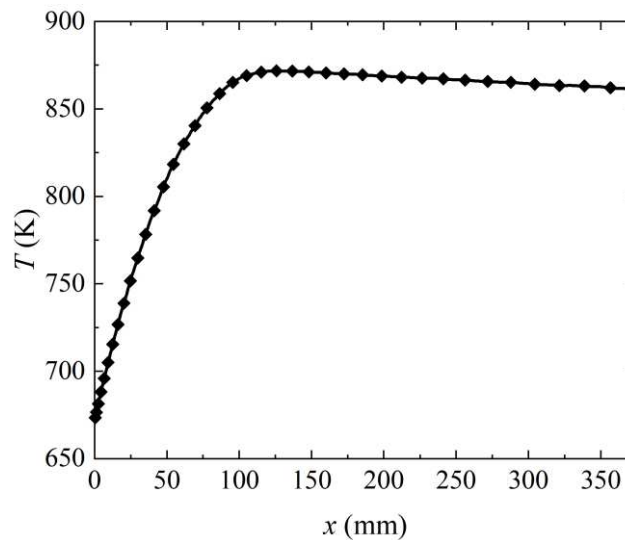
4 In order to examine the heat transfer performance and heat sink enhancement with
5 thermal cracking, a 2D axis-symmetric model is established, as shown schematically in
6 Figure 1. To effectively validate the simulation model, the velocity inlet and pressure
7 outlet conditions are used for the current setting, where the experimentally measured
8 wall temperature T_w is prescribed in the numerical study⁷, as shown in Figure 2.



9

10

Figure 1 Schematics and boundary conditions of the simulation model.



11

12

Figure 2 Thermal boundary condition: temperature distribution along the tube inner face⁷

13

2.2 Basic Chemical Kinetic Model

14

As verified in experimental results^{4, 5}, the initiated cracking temperature of n-

1 Decane is normally exceed 560 °C. For current investigations, the baseline thermal
 2 cracking reaction kinetics of the thermal cracking of n-Decane, which consists of 18
 3 species and one chemical reaction, is obtained from the one-step proportional product
 4 distribution (PPD) model⁷ based on the experimental results.

5 The reaction rate of n-Decane can be defined as

$$6 \quad \frac{d[C_{10}H_{22}]}{dt} = -k_A[C_{10}H_{22}] \quad (1)$$

7 where the rate constant, k_A , can be expressed using the Arrhenius expression:

$$8 \quad k_A = A \exp\left(-\frac{E_a}{RT}\right) \quad (2)$$

9 More detailed information of the kinetic model and the value of pre-exponential
 10 constant A and energy activation E_a are listed in Table 2.

11 Table 2 PPD pyrolytic reaction kinetics model of n-Decane.

Chemical reaction	A (s^{-1})	E_a ($kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$)
$C_{10}H_{22} \rightarrow 0.153CH_4 + 0.222C_2H_4 + 0.138C_2H_6 + 0.200$ $C_3H_6 + 0.185C_3H_8 + 0.171C_4H_8 + 0.118C_4H_{10} + 0.149$ $C_5H_{10} + 0.137C_5H_{12} + 0.170C_6H_{12} + 0.106C_6H_{14} + 0.14$ $7C_7H_{14} + 0.091C_7H_{16} + 0.132C_8H_{16} + 0.040C_8H_{18} + 0.0$ $46C_9H_{18} + 0.031C_9H_{20}$	1.6×10^{15}	263.7

12 The PPD model has been validated in previous studies^{8, 29, 31, 34} and is considered to
 13 have a high accuracy when the conversion rate of n-Decane is lower than 25%. Under
 14 higher conversion rates, as the secondary pyrolytic reactions are not taken into
 15 consideration, this model will become less accurate. However as shown by some recent
 16 work, the relative error was found to be within 15% even if the conversion reaches
 17 70%³⁵, and within 20% at a conversion rate of 76%²⁹. Consequently, this model can be
 18 considered to be applicable to simulate the effects of working conditions within a
 19 certain error range for flow in the whole channel.

2.3 Governing Equations and Solution Method

The governing equations for steady-state flow and heat transfer of thermal cracked n-Decane in cooling channels include mass conservation equation, momentum conservation equation, energy conservation equation, and chemical species mass fractions.

The mass conservation equation,

$$\nabla(\rho\vec{u}) = 0 \quad (3)$$

where ρ and \vec{u} are the density and velocity of the fluid.

The momentum conservation equation,

$$\nabla(\rho\vec{u}\vec{u}) = -\nabla p + \nabla\tau_{eff} \quad (4)$$

where p and τ_{eff} are the pressure and viscous stress tensor.

The energy conservation equation,

$$\nabla(\rho\vec{u}e_t) = \nabla(\lambda_{eff}\nabla T) - \nabla(p\vec{u}) \quad (5)$$

where e_t , λ_{eff} , and T are the total internal energy, thermal conductivity and temperature of the fluid.

The local mass fraction of each species is predicted by using a convection-diffusion equation for each component. This equation generally in the following form:

$$\nabla(\rho Y_i \vec{u}) = -\nabla(p Y_i D_i) + S_i \quad (6)$$

where Y_i , D_i , S_i are the mass fraction, diffusion coefficient and chemical source term of i_{th} species.

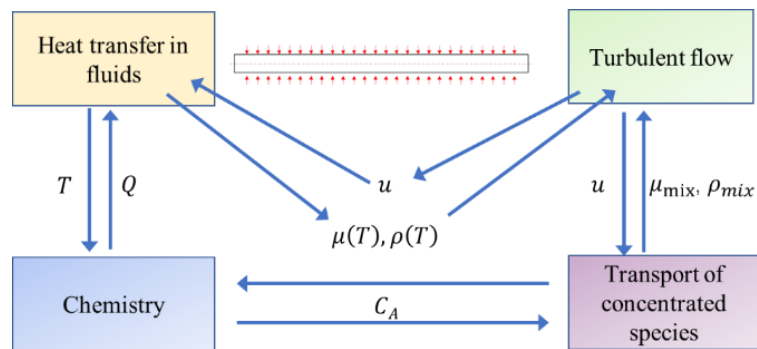
The chemical source term S_i of equation. (6) can be solved as,

$$S_i = \dot{\omega}_i \cdot M_{wi} \quad (7)$$

where $\dot{\omega}_i$ and M_{wi} are the chemical reaction rate and molecular weight of i_{th} species.

COMSOL Multiphysics[®] is used to solved the conservation equations by using four

1 different physics interfaces and two multiphysics coupling. As shown in Figure 3, the
 2 physics interfaces including turbulent flow, heat transfer in fluids, chemistry, and
 3 transport of concentrated species. The two multiphysics coupling interfaces include
 4 non-isothermal flow multiphysics coupling and reacting flow multiphysics coupling.
 5 Compared with conventional CFD package, COMSOL Multiphysics® make it easier to
 6 calculate chemical source terms in the species conservation equations and is more
 7 effectively in dealing with mult-physcis coupling.



8
9

Figure 3 Coupling relationship between physical fields.

10 The algebraic Y+ turbulent model with Low-Re wall treatment in COMSOL
 11 Multiphysics®, which enforces a low-Reynolds-number formulation all the way down
 12 to the wall if the mesh is fine enough, is employed for accurately calculating the sharp
 13 temperature gradient and pyrolytic reactions near the wall. Therefore, the mesh near the
 14 wall needs to be fined sufficiently to allow drastically change of the fluid
 15 thermodynamic properties caused by sharp temperature gradient and pyrolytic reactions.
 16 It has been reported that the algebraic Y+ turbulent flow physics interface is suitable
 17 for incompressible flows, weakly compressible flows or compressible flows at low
 18 Mach numbers (typically less than 0.3), which is sufficient for this work.

19 2.4 Thermophysical properties of coolant

20 As introduced above, the pressure of a regenerative cooling system is normally
 21 above the critical point of the fuel to avoid the deterioration of heat transfer induced by
 22 the fuel boiling. As the temperature and pressure both reach or exceed the critical point,

1 the thermophysical properties of the coolant become very sensitive to the change of
 2 temperature. In this work, the SUPERTRAPP and REFPROP software developed by
 3 NIST are used to calculate the thermodynamic properties of n-Decane under a given
 4 pressure. The data is then imported into the COMSOL Multiphysics[®] using its user
 5 defining capability and used in subsequent calculations.

6 The thermodynamic properties of the mixture, such as ρ_{mix} , μ_{mix} , k_{mix} , $C_{p_{mix}}$
 7 are determined by each component, and can be calculated as

$$8 \quad \rho_{mix}(T) = \frac{1}{\sum_i \frac{w_i}{\rho(T)_i}} \quad (8)$$

$$9 \quad \mu_{mix}(T) = \sum_i \frac{\mu}{1 + \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n x_j \phi_{ij}} \quad (9)$$

11 where the ϕ_{ij} is given as

$$12 \quad \phi_{ij} = \frac{(1 + (\mu(T)_i/\mu(T)_j)^{0.5} (M_i/M_j)^{0.25})^2}{(4/\sqrt{2})(1 + M_i/M_j)^{0.5}} \quad (10)$$

$$13 \quad k_{mix(T)} = 0.5 \left(\sum_i x_i k(T)_i + \sum_i (x_i / k(T)_i)^{-1} \right) \quad (11)$$

$$14 \quad C_{p_{mix}}(T) = \sum_i w_i \frac{C_p(T)_i}{M_i} \quad (12)$$

15 **3. Results and Discussion**

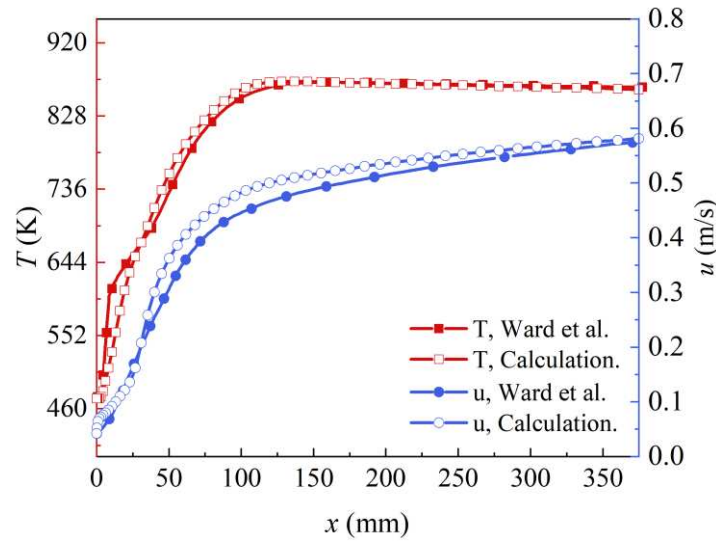
16 **3.1 Model validation and grid independence study**

17 The validation of the model follows the experiments of Ward et al.⁷ Detailed
 18 boundary conditions are listed in Table 3. Figure 4 presents the axial temperature,
 19 velocity, and mass fraction of n-Decane distribution in the flow direction. As shown in
 20 Figure 4, the numerical results show good agreement between the experimental and
 21 numerical data. The maximum difference between the experiments and the current

1 simulations are 1.9% and 9.4% for axial temperature and velocity values respectively.
 2 Consequently, the numerical model can be considered reliable and effective within a
 3 certain error range.

4 Table 3 Boundary conditions used for model validation.

Inlet pressure P_0 (MPa)	Temperature of the wall T_w (K) ⁷	Inlet fuel temperature T_0 (K)	Inlet flow rate q_0 (ml/min)	Inlet velocity u_0 (m/s)
3.45	$f(x)$	473	0.5	0.042



5
 6 Figure 4 Distribution of axial temperature and velocity of the fuel along the tube.

7 Grid independence studies have been conducted before the parameterized
 8 investigations. Structured meshes are used in the axial cross section and radial cross
 9 section. Results show that a set of computational mesh of 2000×65 (axial \times cross-
 10 sectional) are sufficient. The mesh near the wall needs to be fined due to the drastic
 11 change of the fluid thermodynamic properties caused by sharp temperature gradient and
 12 pyrolytic reactions. Totally 65 layers of meshes are used in cross-section, and 15 layers
 13 of meshes are located in the viscous layer, with the thickness of the first layer
 14 computational mesh near the wall is set to be $1 \mu\text{m}$ (i.e., satisfying the requirement of
 15 $y^+ < 1$). Meanwhile, the meshes near the entrance of the tube also need to be fined as the

1 fuel is in trans-critical state and the heat transfer process are not fully developed. The
 2 number of meshes is set to be 2000 in axial section. The growth formula is chosen as
 3 arithmetic sequence and an element ratio of 100 is used to fine the meshes near the
 4 entrance. The thickness of the first layer computational mesh near the entrance is about
 5 4 μm .

6 **3.2 Influence of working conditions**

7 In this section, the PPD model is applied to study the effects of working parameters
 8 (i.e., inlet temperature and inlet velocity) on the convective heat transfer of n-Decane
 9 with endothermic thermal reactions in the range of 300-550 K and 0.001-0.1 m/s , as
 10 Table 4 shows. The parameters of chemical kinetic model remain unchanged at this
 11 state. Three cases (cases 1-3) as shown in Table 5, are used to illustrate the development
 12 of flow and temperature field, as well as the conversion rate, along the cooling channel,
 13 as shown in Figure 5 and Figure 6.

14 Table 4 Operating conditions for parametric studies.

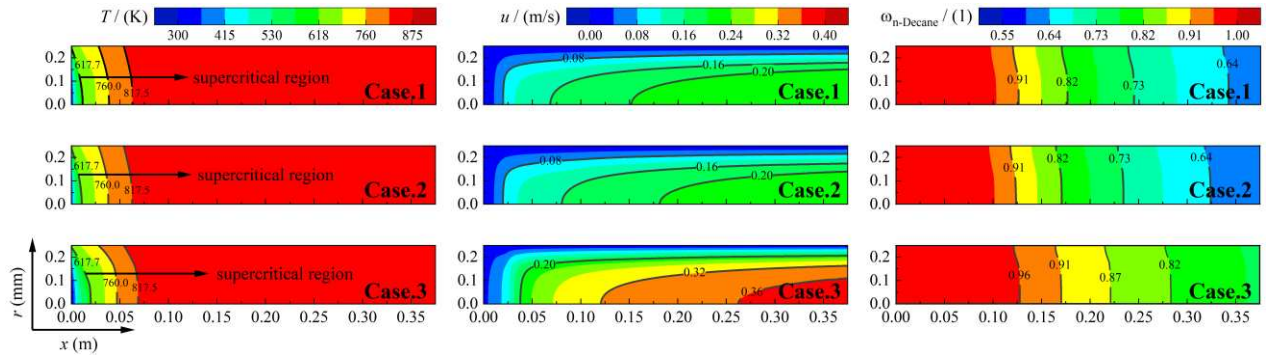
Parameters	Value
Inlet pressure, P_0 (MPa)	3.45
Temperature of the wall ⁷ , T_w (K)	$f(x)$
Inlet fuel temperature, T_0 (K)	300 – 550
Inlet velocity, u_0 (m/s)	0.001 – 0.1
Pre-exponential constant, A (1/s)	$0.8 \times 10^{15} - 2.2 \times 10^{15}$
Activation energy, E_a (kJ/mol)	230 – 280
Chemical kinetic model	PPD model

15 Table 5 Detailed information of different cases.

Case	Inlet temperature	Inlet velocity	Pre-exponential constant	Activation energy
------	-------------------	----------------	--------------------------	-------------------

	T_0 (K)	u_0 (m/s)	A (1/s)	E_a (kJ/mol)
Case.1	300	0.01	1.6×10^{15}	263.7
Case.2	350	0.01	1.6×10^{15}	263.7
Case.3	300	0.02	1.6×10^{15}	263.7
Case.4	473	0.042	1.3×10^{15}	250
Case.5	473	0.042	1.5×10^{15}	250
Case.6	473	0.042	1.3×10^{15}	260

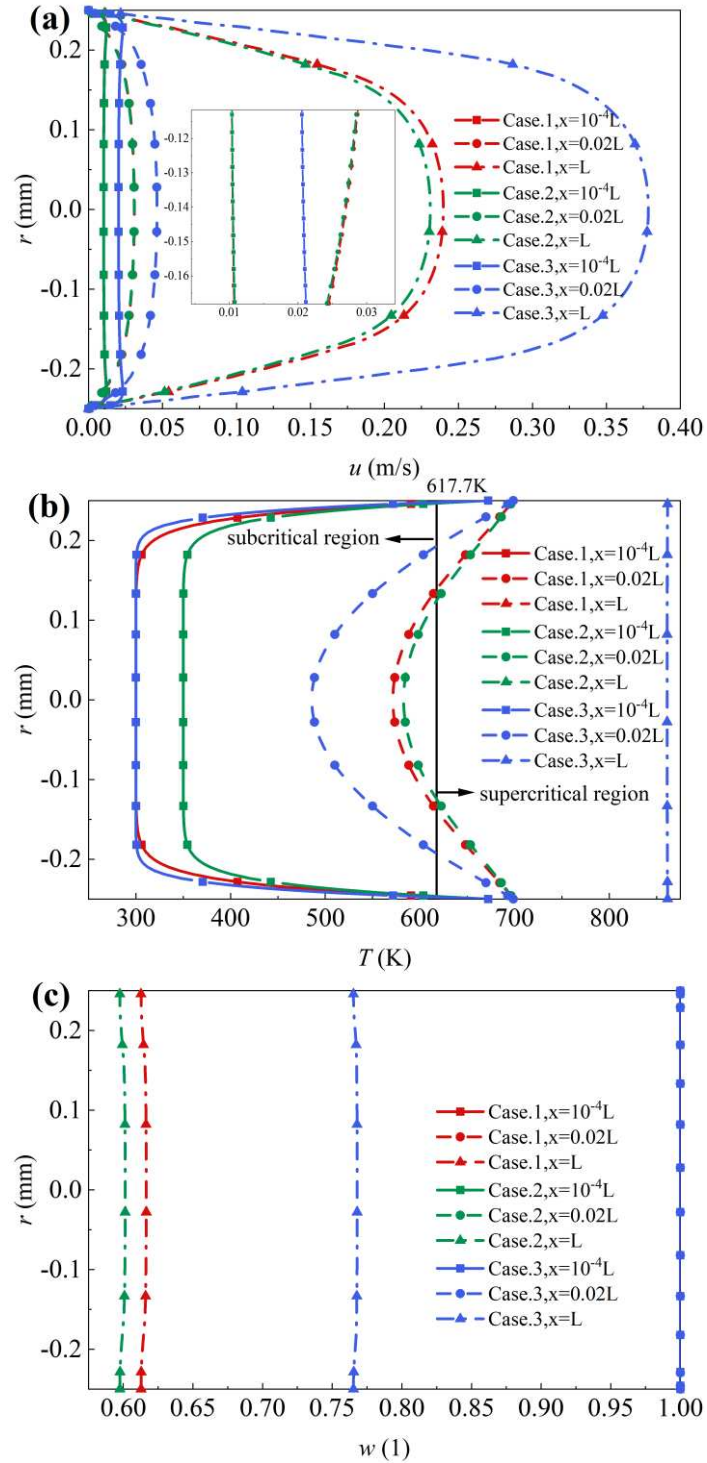
1



2

3 Figure 5 Distributions of fuel temperature, fuel velocity and fuel mass fraction at different inlet

4 temperatures and inlet velocities.



1

2 Figure 6 Variations of a) fuel velocity, b) fuel temperature and c) fuel mass fraction at different
 3 inlet temperatures and inlet velocities along radial direction at different x positions.

4 As mentioned before, the pressure of the tube is kept to be 3.45 MPa, which is
 5 higher than the critical pressure (2.10 MPa) of n-Decane, therefore, the fuel remains a
 6 subcritical state at the entrance. With the fluid temperature increases, the flow shall

1 transit into a supercritical status. However due to the rapid heating, the subcritical state
2 occupies only a small portion in the whole cooling channel. As shown in Figure 5,
3 regardless of the inlet temperature and velocity, the flow becomes supercritical at $x/L >$
4 5% where the temperature at the center of the channel becomes > 617.7 K, i.e., most
5 the channel remains in the supercritical condition. The comparison between Case.1 and
6 Case.2 indicates that as the inlet temperature is higher (i.e., Case.2), the thermal
7 cracking starts earlier. The comparison between Case.1 and Case.3 indicates that as the
8 inlet velocity increases, the fluid temperature reduces, which weakens the thermal
9 cracking of n-Decane. It is clear that the variations of the inlet conditions change the
10 flow and temperature field, leading to different conversion ratios, hence different
11 chemical heat sinks.

12 Detailed variations of fuel velocity, fuel temperature and fuel mass fraction along
13 radial direction at different x positions are shown in Figure 6. There is a quick
14 development of the flow and temperature field within a short distance, resulting in large
15 gradients near the wall. The conversion rate of n-Decane at the exit of the tube rises
16 from 30.4% to 38.8% as the inlet temperature increase from 300 K (Case.1) to 350 K
17 (Case.2). The increase of conversion rate indicates the increase of endothermic value
18 of cracking reaction, which in turn reduces the temperature of the fuel. Moreover, the
19 thermal cracking of n-Decane weakens as the flow velocity increases, as Figure 6 shows.
20 At the exit of the tube, the fuel conversion rate drops from 30.4% (Case.1) to 23.5%
21 (Case.3), which is mainly caused by the reduced temperature. As seen from Figure 6a,
22 at the position of $x=10^{-4}$ L, the velocity near the wall is obviously higher than the axial
23 velocity, which is caused by the sharp temperature gradient as the heat transfer process
24 is not fully developed. The difference is mainly caused by the large variations of
25 thermophysical properties of n-Decane as the temperature exceeds the critical point at
26 this position. The moderate conversion ratio also supports the use of PPD model
27 introduced in Section 2.2.

28 Based on the information as above, detailed heat sink distributions are calculated

1 using following equations

$$2 \quad Q_{tot} = \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_{i_{out}} h(T_{out})_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_{i_{in}} h(T_{in})_i \quad (13)$$

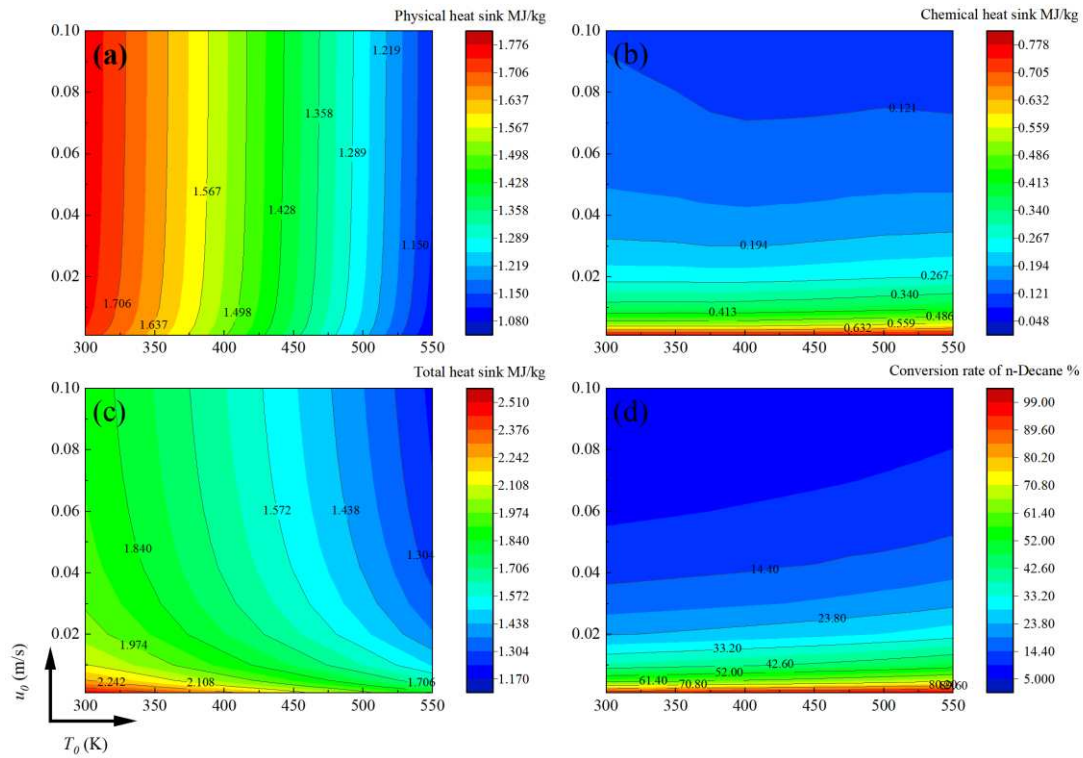
$$3 \quad Q_{phy} = \int_1^2 C_p dT \quad (14)$$

$$4 \quad Q_{chem} = Q_{tot} - Q_{phy} \quad (15)$$

5 A range of simulations are conducted and the heat sink distribution under different
6 working conditions are summarized in Figure 7. With the increases of inlet temperature,
7 the physical heat sink gradually decreases due to the reduced convective heat transfer,
8 which can be seen from Figure 6a. However, the chemical heat sink gradually increases
9 as the inlet temperature increases, as more fuel is thermally cracked as seen from Figure
10 5 and Figure 6c. As a result, the total heat sink increases as the inlet temperature
11 decreases. Similarly, as the inlet velocity increases, the physical heat sink increases
12 slowly but the chemical heat sink drastically drops because of the decreased
13 temperature and reduced residence time, resulting in less fuel is thermally cracked, as
14 shown in Figure 5, Figure 6b and Figure 6c. For comparison, at the exit of the tube, the
15 mass fraction of n-Decane drops from 0.76 to 0.61 as the inlet velocity increases from
16 0.01 m/s (Case.1) to 0.02 m/s (Case.3). The density of the fuel increases as less low-
17 molecular-weight species are formed, which causes the decreases of axial velocity, as
18 shown in Figure 6a, Figure 6b, similar to the observation from Ref.19.

19 According to the heat sink map that for current regenerative cooling settings, low
20 temperature and low inlet fuel velocity are beneficial to increase the total heat sink. The
21 maximum physical and chemical heat sinks of 1.77 MJ/kg and 0.78 MJ/kg are obtained
22 at 300 K and 0.1 m/s. Collectively the maximum cooling capacity within the
23 investigated range reaches 2.51 MJ/kg at 300 K and 0.001 m/s. This value is still much
24 smaller than the required value for hypersonic flight. There is a big scope to optimize
25 chemical reactions to increase significantly the contribution of chemical heat sink.
26 However, caution needs to be paid to the high temperature effect, coking might occur

1 that significantly reduces the performance of regenerative cooling, which is analyzed
2 below.



3
4 Figure 7 Distributions of a) physical heat sink, b) chemical heat sink, c) total heat sink, and d)
5 conversion rate of n-Decane at different u_0 and T_0 .

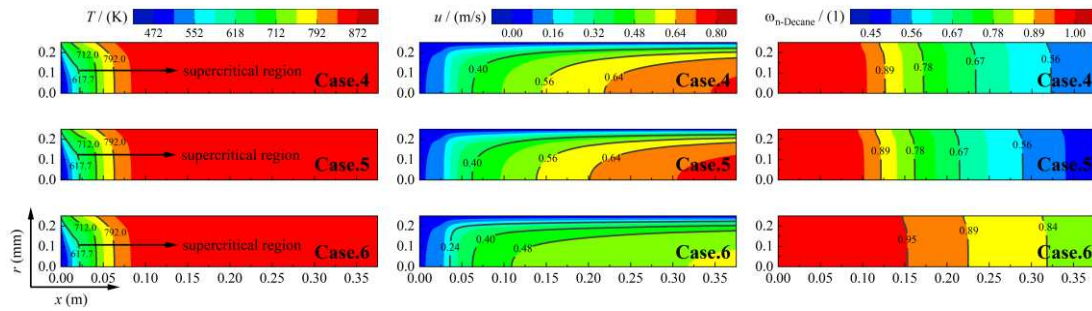
6 3.3 Effects of catalytic cracking models

7 As shown earlier, based on the optimization of working conditions, the increase of
8 heat sink is small and the potential of chemical heat sink is not fully achieved. This
9 section will look into the ways of maximizing chemical heat sink. The first part begins
10 with the standard PPD model with the consideration of the effect of different catalysts
11 by varying the values of activation energy and the pre-exponential constant. The second
12 part looks into the possibility of different chemical reactions routes.

13 3.3.1 Influence of chemical kinetics (E_a/A)

14 The cracking process is heavily dependent on the chemical kinetics, as evidenced

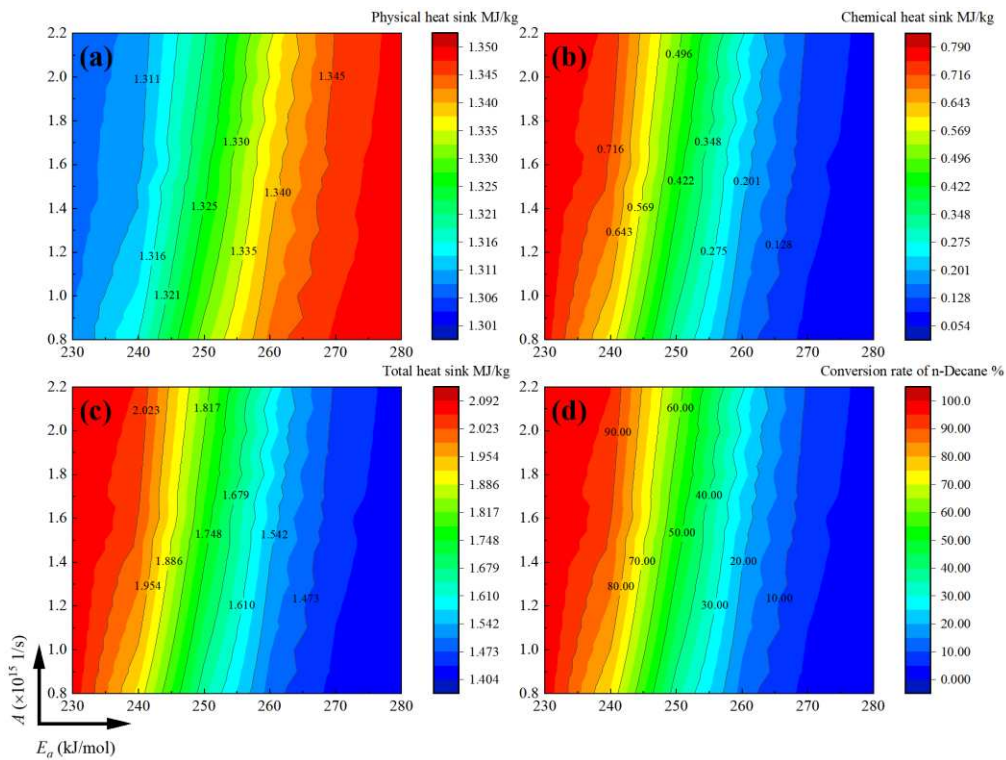
1 by the pre-exponential constant (k) and activation energy (E_a). The choice of a catalyst
 2 is subordinated not only on the desired heat absorption level but also on the quality of
 3 the cracked products obtained for given working conditions²⁰. A catalytic cracking
 4 reaction could render a very low activation energy, comparing to the thermal one²⁰, that
 5 promote cracking at a lower temperature. The effect of catalytic effects is represented
 6 by changing the value of A and E_a . The value of A is ranged from 0.8×10^{15} to
 7 2.2×10^{15} 1/s and the value of E_a is ranged from 230 to 280 kJ/mol in this work. The
 8 boundary conditions are listed in Table 4. Three cases (cases 4-6) are selected from
 9 those parametric studies to illustrate the detailed variations of temperature, velocity and
 10 mass fraction of the fuel.



11
 12 Figure 8 Variations of fuel temperature, fuel velocity and fuel mass fraction at different A and E_a .

13 Figure 8 show the variations of fuel temperature, fuel velocity and mass fraction of
 14 n-Decane in different cases. From the comparison of the results between Case.4 and
 15 Case.5, it is clear that the temperature of the fuel decreases when the value of A
 16 increases, which is mainly attributed to the improved conversion rate, indicating more
 17 chemical heat sink can be provided by the thermal cracking reaction. By comparing the
 18 results between Case.4 and Case.6, it shows a general trend of drastically increasing the
 19 conversion rate as the value of E_a decreases, which indicates a largely increased
 20 chemical heat sink at decreased fuel temperature. At the exit of the tube, the conversion
 21 rate increases from 49.2% to 53.2% respectively in Case.4 and Case.5, while the value
 22 drops to 19.4% in Case.6. Meanwhile, a highly cracked HC fuel produces many low-
 23 molecular-weight molecules such as ethylene, which largely decreases the density of
 24 the mixtures, leading to increased fuel velocity inside the tube.

1 The physical heat sink and chemical heat sink are mainly affected by the value of
 2 E_a , as shown in Figure 9a and Figure 9b. A general trend is observed that the physical
 3 heat sink decreases when the conversion rate increases, and influence of A is much
 4 smaller that of E_a . The influence of E_a to the physical heat sink is small, and the value
 5 slightly varies between 1.35-1.31 MJ/kg as the E_a reduces from 300 kJ/mol to 210
 6 kJ/mol, due to small variations of temperature of the fluid. In contrast, the chemical
 7 heat sink increases significantly as the activation energy is reduced. For example, with
 8 a change of $E_a=300$ kJ/mol to 220 kJ/mol, the chemical heat sink is increased from
 9 0.055 MJ/kg to 0.72 MJ/kg. Consequently, the chemical kinetics plays a leading role
 10 in achieving a higher cooling capacity. Within the range of parameters investigated, the
 11 maximum total heat sink of 2.09 MJ/kg for the simplified PPD model is achieved by at
 12 $E_a = 220$ MJ/kg. Further decreases of E_a is not encouraged as the HC has been fully
 13 converted at the exit. Such a result is very similar with those results that published in
 14 Ref.20. Different chemical reaction routes should be considered for further heat sink
 15 optimization, as described below.



16
 17 Figure 9 Distributions of a) physical heat sink, b) chemical heat sink, c) total heat sink, and d)

1

conversion rate of n-Decane different A and E_a .2 **3.3.2 Influence of different chemical routes**

3 Some previous studies have shown that when the reaction proceeds in the direction
 4 of generating more unsaturated hydrocarbons, more cooling capacity could be obtained
 5 ³⁶. For example, when comparing the reaction endotherm for actual fuel cracking at
 6 high pressure to that of a notional reaction that forms 100% ethylene¹⁹, the latter
 7 reaction could provide a cooling capacity of 3.56 MJ/kg, almost three times of the
 8 former. The PPD model above shows the influence of reaction kinetics, but could not
 9 change the chemical route as the final products are prescribed. There are many catalysts
 10 that can not only increase the reaction rate, but also cause one of several possible
 11 reactions to occur selectively. To systematically examine the effect of detailed chemical
 12 reaction routes, especially the influence of varied unsaturated hydrocarbons, another
 13 five kinds of reaction models are proposed theoretically, as shown Table 6. The
 14 theoretical chemical heat sinks at 3.45 MPa and 1000 K are calculated using the
 15 Reaction Engineering physics interface in COMSOL Multiphysics[®].

16

Table 6 Different pyrolytic reaction kinetic model of n-Decane.

Reaction	Reaction kinetic model	Theoretical chemical heat sinks at 3.45 MPa and 1000 K (MJ/kg)
Reac.0	$C_{10}H_{22} \rightarrow 0.153CH_4 + 0.222C_2H_4 + 0.138C_2H_6 + 0.200C_3H_6 + 0.185C_3H_8 + 0.171C_4H_8 + 0.118C_4H_{10} + 0.149C_5H_{10} + 0.137C_5H_{12} + 0.170C_6H_{12} + 0.106C_6H_{14} + 0.147C_7H_{14} + 0.091C_7H_{16} + 0.132C_8H_{16} + 0.040C_8H_{18} + 0.046C_9H_{18} + 0.031C_9H_{20}$	0.673

Reac.1	$C_{10}H_{22}=CH_4+C_2H_4+C_3H_6+C_4H_8$	1.641
Reac.2	$C_{10}H_{22}=C_4H_8+2C_3H_6+H_2$	2.067
Reac.3	$C_{10}H_{22}=CH_4+C_3H_6+3C_2H_4$	2.361
Reac.4	$C_{10}H_{22}=2C_2H_4+2C_3H_6+H_2$	2.786
Reac.5	$C_{10}H_{22}=5C_2H_4+H_2$	3.601 ¹⁹

1 The chemical heat sink of different kinetic model is calculated using the following
2 equation

$$3 \quad Q_{chem} = \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i h(T)_i \quad \underset{prod}{-} \quad \sum_{i=0}^n \omega_i h(T)_i \quad \underset{reac}{\quad} \quad (16)$$

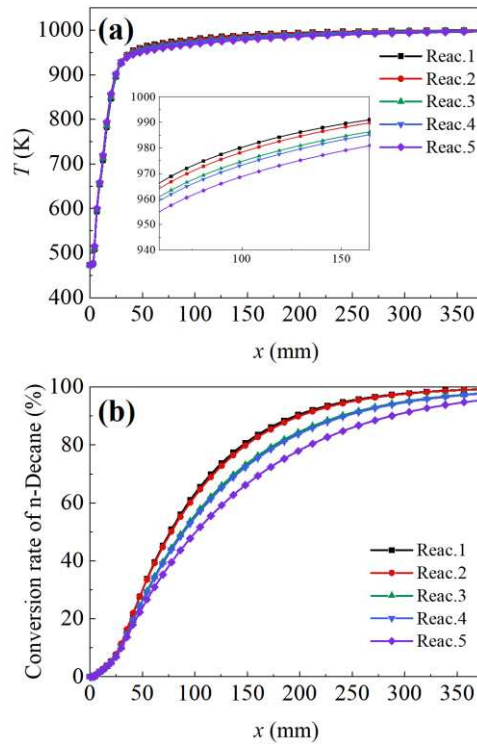
4 Further investigations about the influence of different chemical kinetic models are
5 conducted by using the same physical model in section 2.1. The boundary conditions
6 are listed in Table 7, where the temperature of the wall is set as a constant value to
7 simplify the computation process.

8 Table 7 Boundary conditions.

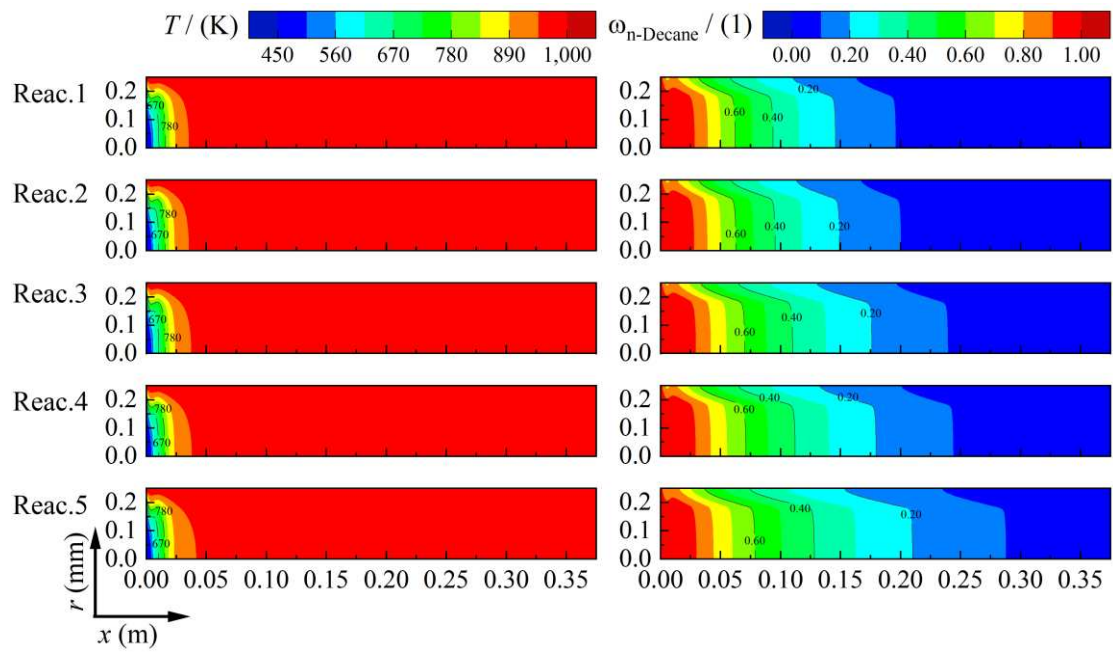
Inlet pressure	Temperature	Inlet fuel	Inlet flow rate	Inlet velocity
P_0 (MPa)	of the wall	temperature	q_0 (ml/min)	u_0 (m/s)
	T_w (K)	T_0 (K)		
3.45	1000	473	0.5	0.042

9 Variations of fuel temperature and mass fraction are illustrated in Figure 10 and
10 Figure 11, from which it can be clearly seen that with the increases of theoretical
11 chemical heat sink, the fuel temperature decreases while the conversion rate also
12 decreases. These results can be attributable to the increase of chemical heat absorption
13 due to increased presence of unsaturated hydrocarbons. More detailed value of physical
14 heat sink, chemical heat sink, total heat sink and conversion rate are shown in Figure
15 12.. It clearly shows that different reaction routes do not change the physical heat sink
16 saliently, but affect the chemical heat sink significantly. Among all the chemical routes

1 investigated, the React.5, which yield only ethene and hydrogen as the products,
2 achieves the maximum cooling capacity of 5.312 MJ/kg, which is mainly attributable
3 to the increase of theoretical chemical heat sink. It should be noted that the current
4 work only investigates the theoretical possibilities of these reactions, hence different
5 heat sinks. Whether these routes could be achieved under which catalytic conditions
6 inside a typical regenerative cooling channel is still unclear, which clearly requires
7 further work.

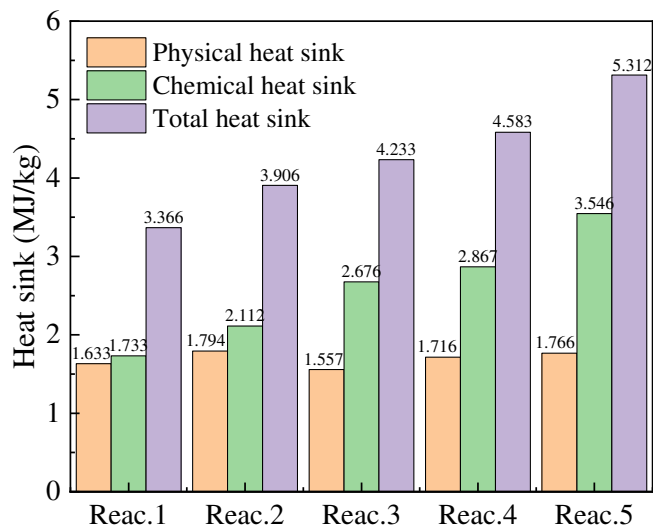


8
9 Figure 10 Distributions of a) axial temperature and b) conversion rate of n-Decane at different
10 kinetic models.
11



1
2

Figure 11 Variations of fuel temperature and mass fraction at different kinetic models.



3
4

Figure 12 Heat sink distribution of different kinetic models.

5 3.4 Influence of surface coking under high temperature

6 One of the limiting conditions for any HC fuel is to avoid / minimize the carbon
 7 deposition, which needs to be carefully taken into consideration in developing
 8 regenerative cooling technology. In this part, we used a simplified model proposed Liu⁹
 9 to analyze carbon deposition on the interior surface of the cooling passages based on
 10 experimental results. In Ref.9, the MC-II model, which considered both the catalytic

1 coking rate and lateral coking rate is recommended to calculate the coking rate.
 2 However, as the pyrolytic kinetic model used in the research is a one-step model, the
 3 aromatics are not produced. Aromatics are regarded as the coking precursor when
 4 calculating the lateral coking rate and during the primary stage (within 20 min),
 5 meanwhile, catalytic coking rate is farther larger than lateral coking rate, hence the MC-
 6 II model no longer satisfied in this situation. Therefore, a simplified model is proposed
 7 as the model of MS-II, which regarded propene as the mainly coking precursor of n-
 8 Decane. The reliability of MS-II has been verified in previous studies^{34, 37-39}.

9 The detailed chemical kinetic parameters are listed in Table 8. These parameters
 10 were obtained by fitting the experimental data of the overall mass of carbon deposition.

11 Table 8 Chemical kinetic parameters of MS-II model.

	k_{c0}	E_{a1}	n	γ
	$\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{cm}^2 \cdot \text{min}^{-1}/(\text{mol} \cdot \text{L})^{-1}$	kJ/mol	1	1
MS-II	8.68×10^{11}	192.88	0.46	0.074

12 As introduced before, propene is the key coking precursor. As the thickness of the
 13 deposited carbon is very thin within the relatively short period, its effects on fluid
 14 dynamics and heat transfer can thus be safely neglected. Therefore, the steady-state
 15 numerical results, including the surface temperature and molar concentration of
 16 propene at the tube wall, are directly used to study surface coking.

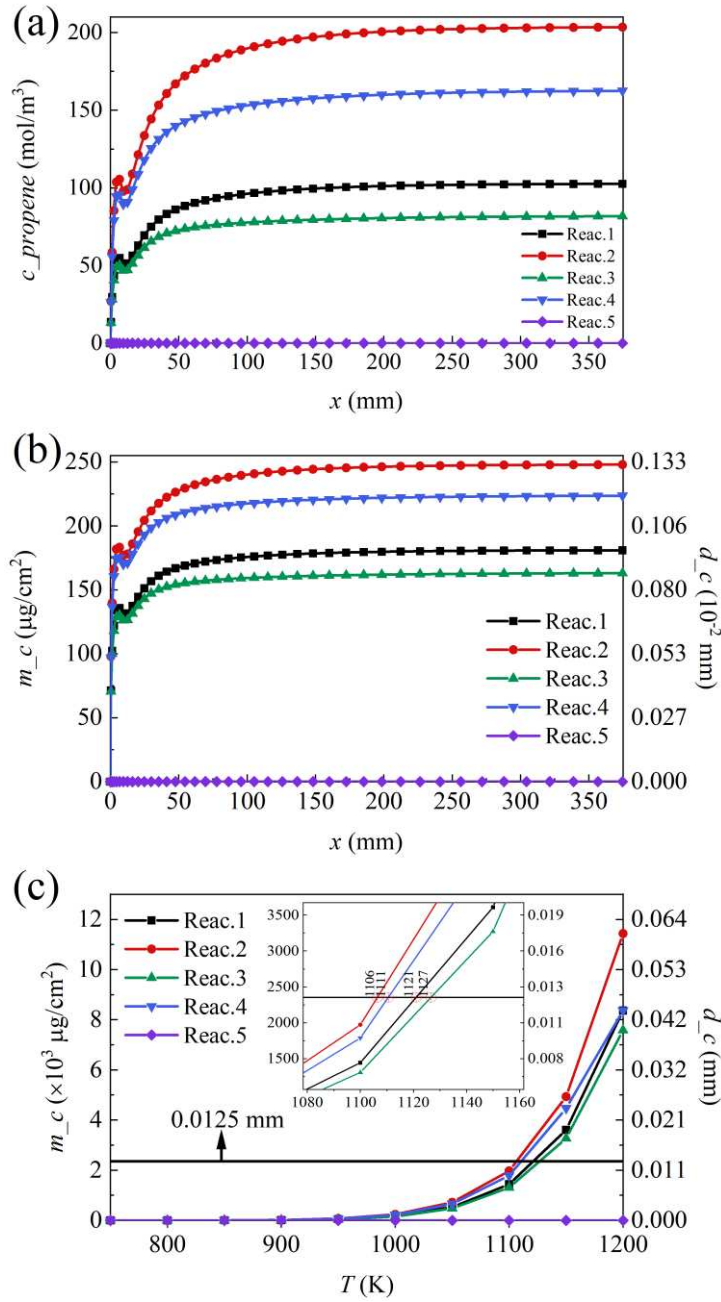
$$17 \quad \frac{dSC}{dt}(t) = k_{c0} e^{-E_{a1}/RT_w(z)} e^{-\gamma C} C(C_3H_6)^n \quad (17)$$

18 The density of coke is 1883 kg/m³ according to the measurement of Gascoin et al.⁴⁰.
 19 As the equation indicates, a higher propene concentration can lead to more surface
 20 carbon deposition. For a set wall temperature, the coking rate is only affected by the
 21 molar concentration of propene. As n-Decane is progressively cracked, the coking
 22 precursor of propene is produced, as shown in Figure 13a. Under the condition of
 23 Reac.3 and Reac.5, shown in Figure 13b, the amount of carbon deposition on the inner
 24 surface of the tube are relatively small when compared with other conditions. The

1 maximum thickness of carbon deposition occurred at the condition of Reac.2 at the exit
2 of the tube, with the value of 1.32×10^{-3} mm, which is around 0.528% of the radius of
3 the tube.

4 Besides the effect of concentration of propene, the effect of wall temperature on the
5 thickness of the carbon deposition layer within 0-10 min is also studied by using the
6 maximum value of concentration of propene in different reaction routes. The value is
7 95.438 mol/m^3 , 188.42 mol/m^3 , 77.117 mol/m^3 , 152.24 mol/m^3 , and 0 mol/m^3 ,
8 respectively for Reac.1, Reac.2, Reac.3, Reac.4 and Reac.5. Detailed distributions are
9 shown in Figure 13c, where it shows that with increasing temperature, the thickness of
10 the carbon deposition layer increase only slightly at the beginning. However, as the
11 temperature exceeds around 1050 K, the coking rate increases significantly, which
12 would clearly deteriorate the cooling performance. As there is still no definition of a
13 critical coking thickness that should not be exceeded, we will define a critical
14 deposition thickness as 5% of the inner radius value, corresponding to 0.0125 mm in
15 this work. It is clearly seen from Figure 13c that in order to satisfy the maximum
16 limitation of thickness of the carbon deposition layer, the temperature of the wall need
17 to kept below a certain value, which is around 1121 K, 1106 K, 1127 K, 1111 K,
18 respectively for Reac.1, Reac.2, Reac.3, Reac.4. The maximum difference is 21 K and
19 it is a wider temperature range for Reac. 3 to satisfy this limitation. This result indicates
20 that, to effectively reduce the thickness of the carbon deposition caused by thermal
21 cracking of n-Decane, it is more important to reduce the temperature of the wall, which
22 further illustrates the importance of the optimum of cooling capacity for HC fuels.
23 However, it should be noted that as ethylene is not regarded as the carbon precursor of
24 n-Decane in these cases, as shown no carbon deposition for Reac.5. whose effects need
25 to further investigated.

26



1

2 Figure 13 Distributions of (a) propene concentration (b) amount of surface carbon deposition

3 within 0-10 min (c) thickness of surface carbon deposition within 0-10 min and (d) change of

4

coking rate with temperature 0-10 min

5 4. Conclusion

6

In this work, a series of numerical studies are conducted to optimize the working

1 condition and reaction route as to maximize the cooling capacity of hydrocarbon fuels.
2 A parametric study of the effects of basic fluid parameters (i.e., inlet temperature and
3 inlet velocity), chemical kinetic model parameters and different chemical kinetic
4 models on the flow and heat transfer of n-Decane is conducted. The reliability of model
5 is validated by comparing with published experimental data, including fuel temperature
6 and velocity, and the main conclusions can be summarized as

- 7 ● According to the heat sink map that for current regenerative cooling settings,
8 low inlet temperature and inlet velocity are beneficial to increase the total heat
9 sink. The maximum cooling capacity of 2.509 MJ/kg is achieved at 300 K and
10 0.001 m/s for n-decane.
- 11 ● A general trend shows that a higher pre-exponential constant and a lower
12 activation energy is conducive to the cracking reaction. The maximum total
13 heat sink of 2.09 MJ/kg is achieved by reducing the value of E_a to 220 kJ/mol.
14 The heat sink distribution show less correlation with the value of A than that
15 of E_a .
- 16 ● Five types of chemical kinetic model are used to study the influence of
17 unsaturated hydrocarbons. The larger the proportion of unsaturated
18 hydrocarbons in the product, the more beneficial for increasing the chemical
19 heat sink. The maximum cooling capacity of 5.3 MJ/kg is achieved when the
20 products are ethylene and hydrogen only.
- 21 ● The phenomena of surface carbon deposition are analyzed on the basis of
22 simplified MS-II pyrolytic surface coking model. The maximum thickness of
23 carbon deposition occurred at the condition of Reac.2 at the exit of the tube,
24 with the value of 1.32×10^{-3} mm, $\sim 0.528\%$ of the radius of the tube.
- 25 ● For practical applications, a careful consideration of the synergy among the
26 inlet conditions, reaction kinetics and route, and coking should be performed
27 to optimize the cooling capacity of a HC fuel.

References

1. Jackson, T. A.; Eklund, D. R.; Fink, A. J., High speed propulsion: Performance advantage of advanced materials. *J Mater Sci* **2004**, *39* (19), 5905-5913.
2. Edwards, T., Liquid fuels and propellants for aerospace propulsion: 1903-2003. *Journal of Propulsion and Power* **2003**, *19* (6), 1089-1107.
3. Lander, H.; Nixon, A. C., Endothermic Fuels for Hypersonic Vehicles. *Journal of Aircraft* **1971**, *8* (4), 200-207.
4. Zhao, G.; Song, W.; Zhang, R., Effect of pressure on thermal cracking of china RP-3 aviation kerosene under supercritical conditions. *International Journal of Heat and Mass Transfer* **2015**, *84*, 625-632.
5. Jiang, Y.; Qin, J.; Chetehouna, K.; Gascoin, N.; Bao, W., Effect of geometry parameters on the hydrocarbon fuel flow rate distribution in pyrolysis zone of SCRamjet cooling channels. *International Journal of Heat and Mass Transfer* **2019**, *141*, 1114-1130.
6. Stewart, J.; Brezinsky, K.; Glassman, I., Supercritical Pyrolysis of Decalin, Tetralin, and N-Decane at 700—800K. Product Distribution and Reaction Mechanism. *Combustion Science and Technology* **1998**, *136* (1), 373-390.
7. Ward, T. A.; Ervin, J. S.; Striebich, R. C.; Zabarnick, S., Simulations of Flowing Mildly-Cracked Normal Alkanes Incorporating Proportional Product Distributions. *Journal of Propulsion and Power* **2004**, *20* (3), 394-402.
8. Ward, T. A.; Ervin, J. S.; Zabarnick, S.; Shafer, L., Pressure Effects on Flowing Mildly-Cracked n-Decane. *Journal of Propulsion and Power* **2005**, *21* (2), 344-355.
9. Liu, G.; Wang, X.; Zhang, X., Pyrolytic depositions of hydrocarbon aviation fuels in regenerative cooling channels. *Journal of Analytical and Applied Pyrolysis* **2013**, *104*, 384-395.
10. Jiang, R.; Liu, G.; He, X.; Yang, C.; Wang, L.; Zhang, X.; Mi, Z., Supercritical thermal decompositions of normal- and iso-dodecane in tubular reactor. *Journal of Analytical and Applied Pyrolysis* **2011**, *92* (2), 292-306.
11. Zhong, F.; Fan, X.; Yu, G.; Li, J., Thermal cracking of aviation kerosene for scramjet applications. *Science in China Series E: Technological Sciences* **2009**, *52* (9), 2644-2652.
12. Jin, B.; Jing, K.; Liu, J.; Zhang, X.; Liu, G., Pyrolysis and coking of endothermic hydrocarbon fuel in regenerative cooling channel under different pressures. *Journal of Analytical and Applied Pyrolysis* **2017**, *125*, 117-126.
13. Li, Z.; Wang, H.; Jing, K.; Wang, L.; Li, Y.; Zhang, X.; Liu, G., Kinetics and modeling of supercritical pyrolysis of endothermic hydrocarbon fuels in regenerative cooling channels. *Chemical Engineering Science* **2019**, *207*, 202-214.
14. Li, Z.; Liu, G.; Zhang, R., Heat transfer to supercritical hydrocarbon fuel in horizontal tube: Effects of near-wall pyrolysis at high heat flux. *Chemical*

15. Zhu, Y.; Liu, B.; Jiang, P., Experimental and Numerical Investigations on n-Decane Thermal Cracking at Supercritical Pressures in a Vertical Tube. *Energy & Fuels* **2013**, 28 (1), 466-474.
16. Zhang, S.; Feng, Y.; Jiang, Y.; Qin, J.; Bao, W.; Han, J.; Haidn, O. J., Thermal behavior in the cracking reaction zone of scramjet cooling channels at different channel aspect ratios. *Acta Astronautica* **2016**, 127, 41-56.
17. Huang, H.; Spadaccini, L.; Sobel, D., Endothermic Heat-Sink of Jet Fuels for Scramjet Cooling. In *38th AIAA/ASME/SAE/ASEE Joint Propulsion Conference & Exhibit*, 2002.
18. Yue, L.; Lu, X.; Chi, H.; Guo, Y.; Xu, L.; Fang, W.; Li, Y.; Hu, S., Heat-sink enhancement of decalin and aviation kerosene prepared as nanofluids with palladium nanoparticles. *Fuel* **2014**, 121, 149-156.
19. Edwards, T., Cracking and Deposition Behavior of Supercritical Hydrocarbon Aviation Fuels. *Combustion Science and Technology* **2006**, 178 (1-3), 307-334.
20. Heinrich, B.; Luc-Bouhali, A.; Ser, F.; Vigot, C., Endothermic liquid fuels - Some chemical considerations on the cooling process. In *10th AIAA/NAL-NASDA-ISAS International Space Planes and Hypersonic Systems and Technologies Conference*, 2001.
21. Huang, B.; Shrestha, U.; Davis, R. J.; Chelliah, H. K., Endothermic Pyrolysis of JP-10 with and without Zeolite Catalyst for Hypersonic Applications. *AIAA J* **2018**, 56 (4), 1616-1626.
22. He, G. J.; Wu, X.; Ye, D. F.; Guo, Y. S.; Hu, S. L.; Li, Y.; Fang, W. J., Hyperbranched Poly(amidoamine) as an Efficient Macroinitiator for Thermal Cracking and Heat-Sink Enhancement of Hydrocarbon Fuels. *Energy & Fuels* **2017**, 31 (7), 6848-6855.
23. Ye, D. F.; Zhao, L.; Bai, S. S.; Guo, Y. S.; Fang, W. J., New Strategy for High-Performance Integrated Catalysts for Cracking Hydrocarbon Fuels. *ACS Appl Mater Inter* **2019**, 11 (43), 40078-40090.
24. Yue, L.; Wu, J.; Gong, Y.; Fang, W., Thermodynamic properties and pyrolysis performances of hydrocarbon-fuel-based nanofluids containing palladium nanoparticles. *Journal of Analytical and Applied Pyrolysis* **2016**, 120, 347-355.
25. Kim, S.; Sasmaz, E.; Pogaku, R.; Lauterbach, J., Effects of reaction conditions and organic sulfur compounds on coke formation and HZSM-5 catalyst performance during jet propellant fuel (JP-8) cracking. *Fuel* **2020**, 259.
26. Long, L.; Lan, Z. Z.; Han, Z. X.; Qiu, Y. F.; Zhou, W. X., Co3O4 Nanosheet Wrapped Commercial HZSM-5 for Promoting Catalytic Cracking of n-Decane and Anticoking Activities. *ACS Appl Energ Mater* **2018**, 1 (8), 4130-4139.
27. Sun, W.; Liu, G.; Wang, L.; Zhang, X., Quasi-homogeneous catalytic cracking of JP-10 over high hydrocarbon dispersible nanozeolites. *Fuel* **2015**, 144, 96-102.

