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# Characterising Premixed Ammonia and Hydrogen Combustion for a Novel Linear Joule Engine Generator

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8 Abstract: A novel ammonia/hydrogen dual-fuelled Linear Joule Engine Generator (LJEG) is developed for medium 9 to large scale power generations and electrification of ship propulsion systems. The characteristics of premixed 10 ammonia/hydrogen combustion of the LJEG are investigated through chemical kinetic modelling. Three 11 representative mechanisms are compared based on their accuracy of reproducing experimental results. With robust 12 combustion and low  $NO_x$  emission as the primary targets, laminar burning velocity, ignition delay and flame species 13 concentration are investigated over a wide range of equivalence ratio (0.8 - 1.6), hydrogen blending ratio (0.0 - 1.6)14 0.6), oxygen content (0.21 - 1.00), inlet temperature (300 K - 700 K) and pressure (1 bar - 20 bar). Rate 15 of production (ROP) analysis is carried out to gain in-depth understanding of critical NO production and 16 consumption pathways. The results indicate that an equivalence ratio around 1.1 is beneficial for both combustion 17robustness and  $NO_x$  emission reduction. Both adding hydrogen in the fuel (40%Vol) and enriching oxygen in the 18 oxidizer (60%Vol) promote burning velocity to the similar level of methane (37 cm/s). Explicit reduction of 19 NO emission is observed when pressure increases, which can be attributed to the combination of  $NH_i$  radicals. The 20 findings show the potential of the ammonia and hydrogen fuelled LJEG for ultra-low emission power generation.

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Keywords: Ammonia-hydrogen premixed combustion, Linear Joule Engine Generator, Chemical kinetics model,
 Oxygen enrichment

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| Nomenclature          |  |
|-----------------------|--|
| $\phi$                | Fuel-air equivalence ratio                               |
| $x\%H_2$              | Hydrogen blending ratio (hydrogen mole fraction in fuel) |
| $E\%NH_3$             | Ammonia fraction by energy                               |
| Ω                     | Oxygen content (oxygen mole fraction in oxidizer)        |
| Т                     | Inlet temperature (K)                                    |
| Р                     | Inlet pressure (bar)                                     |
| $S_L$                 | Laminar burning velocity ( <i>cm/s</i> )                 |
| τ                     | Ignition delay time (ms)                                 |
| x[i]                  | Mole fraction of <i>i</i>                                |
| $x[i]_{end}'$         | Normalized outlet mole fraction of <i>i</i>              |
| x[i] <sub>end</sub>   | Outlet mole fraction of <i>i</i>                         |
| x[i] <sub>start</sub> | Inlet mole fraction of <i>i</i>                          |

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# 1. Introduction

Ammonia is regarded as a good hydrogen carrier, while it could be considered as an alternative zero-carbon fuel

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29 [1, 2]. With no carbon in the molecule of ammonia, no carbon-related gaseous and soot emissions will be emitted 30 from ammonia combustion. The recent progress in power-to-gas technologies and other renewable derived 31 methods enables ammonia production using renewable energy, which almost eliminates any carbon footprints in 32 the lifecycle of using ammonia as a fuel [3, 4]. Availability of combustion engines to adapt to ammonia as a fuel 33 is crucial for wide applications. Due to lack of diesel during the World War II, ammonia was temporarily used as 34 a fuel in internal combustion engines for buses in Belgium [5]. In the 1960s, the feasibility and performance of 35 using ammonia for reciprocating engines and gas turbines were studied by the U.S. Army [6, 7]. In 2017, National 36 Institute of Advanced Industrial Science and Technology (AIST) in Japan implemented a 50 kW micro gas 37 turbine power generations using pure ammonia diffusion combustion [8]. The project aligned with a Japanese 38 national technology development project, "Cross-ministerial Strategic Innovation Promotion Program (SIP): 39 Energy carrier" launched to promote hydrogen utilization in 2014 [9]. Apart from conventional heat engines, 40 new power generation technologies have been considered to take ammonia and hydrogen. Free piston engine 41 applying external combustion integrates with a linear alternator to form a novel Linear Joule Engine Generator 42 (LJEG), which was proposed in 2014 [10]. Recently, a further development of LJEG using hydrogen fuel has 43 been published to demonstrate the potential [11]. LJEG hires Joule Cycle/Brayton Cycle same as gas turbines 44 while has a high thermal efficiency of 33 - 45% even in small kW scales [11] compared to a typical 30 - 45%45 40% of gas turbines in the range of 5-50 MW [12]. In contrast to internal combustion engines, heat addition 46 process of LJEG takes place outside of cylinders, which allows continuous combustion if coupling with multiple 47 expansion cylinders. This may potentially make it much easier to apply some measures to avoid ammonia slip 48 and reduce  $NO_x$  emission. LJEG is dedicated to electricity generation which requests it working mostly in 49 constant frequencies and rated loads. This would benefit for LJEG to achieve stable combustion conditions, 50 thereby better thermal efficiency. The development of the LJEG prototypes, including both mechanical and 51 electrical designs, can be viewed in the published papers [13, 14], however a detailed design of an external 52 combustion reactor would be essential to achieve the full potential of an ammonia fuelled LJEG. With ammonia 53 as the main fuel, two major obstacles of ammonia combustion must be overcome: slow combustion and high 54  $NO_x$  emission. An in-deep understanding on the fundamental characteristics of premixed combustion of 55 ammonia under the working conditions of LJEG is critical to deal with those challenges and successfully develop 56 an ammonia fuelled LJEG.

# 58 2. The state of the art in characterising ammonia combustion

59 Ammonia is well-known for its narrow flammability (around 18% - 28% fuel mole fraction) [2], high ignition 60 temperature and low burning velocity. It is reported that using ammonia alone for spark ignition internal 61 combustion engine is hard to achieve satisfactory performance [15]. To stabilize ammonia combustion, it is 62 necessary to add promoters such as hydrocarbon fuel [16-18] or hydrogen [19-21]. Hydrogen is also a carbon-63 free fuel which could be obtained from ammonia thermal cracking or from a separate fuel line. It is more 64 attractive than hydrocarbons to be used as a promoter in ammonia combustion. The stability limits of premixed 65 ammonia/hydrogen and ammonia/methane flame were tested with a generic swirl combustor under 1-5 bar 66 [22]. The result shows an interesting feature of ammonia/hydrogen blends that  $40\% NH_3/60\% H_2$  flame can be 67 stable even under very fuel-lean conditions ( $\phi \sim 0.3$ ) while the minimum stable equivalence ratio for 68  $40\% NH_3/60\% CH_4$  flame is 0.6. Lee *et al.* experimentally and computationally investigated premixed 69 ammonia/hydrogen flames under ambient temperature and pressure conditions for hydrogen production [19]. It 70 was observed that the laminar burning velocity is substantially improved with the hydrogen mole fraction rising 71in the fuel from 0.0 to 0.5, under fuel-rich conditions.

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73 There have been a handful studies on ignition delay in premixed pure ammonia or ammonia blended with 74 methane combustion, but few studies on ignition delay in premixed ammonia and hydrogen combustion so far. 75 Ignition delay time of ammonia in highly diluted Ar (98 - 99%) was measured by Mathieu et al. to 76 investigate the effects of temperature (1560 - 2455 K), pressure (1.4, 11, 30 atm) and equivalence ratio 77 (0.5, 1.0, 2.0) [23]. The experiment outcomes were validated with several ammonia mechanisms, finding many 78 mechanisms are hard to predict the ignition delay accurately. Xiao et al. [17] improved the ignition chemistry for 79 a detailed ammonia chemical kinetic reaction mechanism which is mostly based on Konnov's mechanism [24]. 80 Ignition delay is predicted with several specific equivalence ratios (0.6, 1.0, 1.4) and various ammonia 81 concentrations (0% - 100%) at 2000 K. It showed that ignition delay increases monotonically with 82 ammonia concentration and equivalence ratio.

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84 Other methods to stabilize ammonia combustion include increasing oxygen content in the oxidizer [25-27] or 85 using strong oxidants [28]. The oxy-fuel combustion is a process whereby combustion is kept in a nearly pure 86 oxygen environment. This is a commonly used method in hydrocarbon combustion in order to maintain flame 87 robustness [29, 30]. Mei et al. [27] studied experimentally and numerically the effect of oxygen content in the 88 oxidizer in the range of 25% - 45% on premixed laminar flame speed of ammonia. The oxygen enrichment 89 effectively enhances ammonia flames and minimizes the buoyancy effect. The effect of oxygen content varying 90 from 21% to 30% on ammonia oxidation was studied numerically under atmospheric pressure [25]. The 91 results show that laminar burning velocity with 30% oxygen in the oxidizer is around 2.6 times of that with 92 21% oxygen in the oxidizer. The increase of oxygen content in the oxidizer promotes HNO formation, as a 93 result, NO formation increases at the post-flame zone.

95  $NO_x$  emission is another important issue to be discussed when pure ammonia or ammonia/hydrogen combustion 96 is applied in heat engines.  $NO_x$  emission is affected when hydrogen is blended into ammonia. Ammonia has a 97 lower heating value than that of hydrogen, resulting in lower temperature in ammonia/hydrogen combustion. 98 Therefore, thermal- $NO_x$  from ammonia/hydrogen combustion is lower than that from pure hydrogen combustion. 99 Meanwhile, fuel-bound  $NO_x$  is dominate in ammonia/hydrogen combustion. It is important to discuss the role 100 of  $NO_x$  formation pathways under different working conditions to minimize  $NO_x$  emission. Burner 101 experiments with 50%vol NH<sub>3</sub>/50%vol H<sub>2</sub> blend in a swirl combustor were conducted at Cardiff University 102 [20]. The flame is stable at an equivalence ratio of 0.43 - 0.52. It was found that excessive OH and O radicals 103 result in a higher  $NO_x$  emission (in the range of thousands of ppm) compared to fuel-rich conditions. Li et al. 104 [31] numerically investigated the  $NO_x$  emission of a staged  $NH_3/H_2$  combustor which consists of a rich-burn 105 stage and a lean-burn stage. The equivalence ratio of the rich-burn stage is observed to be critical and more 106 sensitive than the equivalence ratio of the whole system in minimizing  $NO_x$  emission. This may assist to 107 broaden the range of secondary air inlet amount without  $NO_{x}$  penalties.

109 Although ammonia combustion experiments have provided some important outcomes, further investigations with 110 numerical studies are required to extend understandings of ammonia combustion in different working conditions 111 which is constrained due to limited experimental rigs and available measurement methods. An appropriate 112 ammonia chemical kinetic mechanism is the basis for simulating ammonia combustion. Fundamental combustion 113 research of ammonia chemical kinetic mechanisms is extensively reviewed. The nitrogen chemistry relevant to 114  $NO_x$  formation (including Zel'dovich mechanism, prompt  $NO_x$  and fuel-bound  $NO_x$ ) was proposed and 115 compared with the experimental data by Miller and Bowman in 1989 [32]. Konnov [24] developed a detailed 116 chemical mechanism containing 127 species and over 1200 reactions which can be used for ammonia blends 117 with hydrogen and small hydrocarbons. A comprehensive mechanism for  $NH_3/H_2/CH_4$  including 128 118 species and 957 reactions were developed by Li et al. [33]. The mechanism was then reduced using directed 119 relation graph with error propagation (DRGEP) and DRGEP with sensitivity analysis (DRGEPSA) method for 120 CFD modelling implement. Duynslaegher et al. [34, 35] conducted experiments with premixed 0.21NH<sub>3</sub>/ 121  $0.13H_2/0.21O_2/0.45Ar$  (mole fraction) flames under low pressure conditions (0.05 - 0.12 bar) and 122 systematically examined five mechanisms (i.e. GRI [36], San Diego [37], Lindstedt et al. [38], Bian [39] and 123 Konnov [24, 40]) for their prediction accuracies. Konnov's mechanism aligns with the experiment outcomes very well, although discrepancies were found in the concentrations of  $N_2O$  and  $NH_2$ . Duynslaegher et al. 124 125 improved the prediction accuracy of  $N_2O$  and  $NH_2$  and further reduced the mechanism to 19 species and 80 126 reactions [34]. Song et al. [41] developed the mechanism according to the experiment of ammonia oxidation at 127 high temperature (450-925 K) and high pressure (30 and 100 bar). The reactions at high pressure are 128 emphasized in the mechanism. Following Song's work, Otomo et al. [42] revised the reactions related to NH2, 129 HNO and  $N_2H_2$  and the refined mechanism is also utilized to predict ammonia/hydrogen combustion in terms 130 of flame speed, ignition delay and unburnt ammonia and  $NO_x$  emission. More recently, Nakamura et al. [43] 131 developed an ammonia chemical kinetic mechanism which is based on Miller and Bowman's mechanism [32]. 132 The  $H_2/NH_x/N_2O/NNH$  chemistry is improved from the study of Mathieu and Petersen [23]. The chemistry 133 of  $N_2H_x$  except NNH is adopted from the study of Konnov [24]. Additionally, the thermochemical properties 134 calculated by Bugler et al. [44] is also applied in the improved mechanism. The species concentrations generated 135 from the improved mechanism aligned with the measurements. The flame speed and ignition delay results were 136 verified with literature data. In order to investigate the autoignition behaviour of ammonia and 137 ammonia/hydrogen mixtures, Dai et al. presented a mechanism validated with the experimental data under 20 -138 75 bar at 1040 - 1210 K [45]. It shows the mechanism has a good agreement with the measured ignition 139 delay time of  $NH_3$  and  $NH_3/H_2$  under 40 - 60 bar.

141 Most of the previous studies on chemical kinetic mechanisms focuses on fundamental combustion chemistries 142 of pure ammonia or ammonia/hydrocarbon (methane, in particular). Few works reported the characteristics of 143 premixing ammonia/hydrogen combustion for applications with similar working conditions in the proposed 144 LJEG. Even less works can be found on the effect of oxygen enrichment on ammonia or ammonia/hydrogen 145 premixing combustion. To develop an optimal external combustor of the LJEG prototype, it is essential to identify 146 a suitable chemical kinetic mechanism to extend the understanding of ammonia/hydrogen premixing combustion 147 under the typical LJEG working conditions. In the paper, characteristics of premixed ammonia/hydrogen 148 combustion are studied under typical LJEG operational conditions. Two relatively new mechanisms developed 149 by Otomo et al. [42] and Nakamura et al. [43], and another Duynslaegher's mechanism [34] with improved NO 150 prediction, are selected as representative ammonia combustion mechanisms to be compared with the published 151 experimental results from the comprehensive literature review. Laminar burning velocity, ignition delay and 152species concentrations are investigated over a wide range of equivalence ratios, hydrogen blending ratios, oxygen 153 content in the oxidizer, inlet temperature and pressure. The best ammonia combustion mechanism will be identified for a further parametric study. The findings of this study will provide a clear guidance on determining 154 155 operational parameters and optimal design of the external combustion reactor in the LJEG, and even more 156 potential applications like ammonia fuelled gas turbines, etc.

#### 158 **3.** Methodology

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159 The schematic diagram of the proposed ammonia/hydrogen duel fuelled LJEG is shown in Figure 1. The LJEG 160 mainly consists of the following components: a linear compressor, a linear expander, an external reactor, and a 161 linear alternator. Two double-acting pistons are applied in the compressor and the expander, respectively, which 162 separate cylinders into two opposite chambers. Compared to conventional single acting design, the double acting 163 design is expected to enhance output power while alleviating harshness caused by pulsating gas exchange flow. 164 The two pistons are connected by a rigid driving shaft, where moving magnets are installed and act as the 165 translator of the linear alternator. On the expander cylinder heads, camless poppet valves are used to control the 166 intake and exhaust gas flows in terms of real-time piston displacement, in-cylinder pressure and temperature. 167 Reed valves are used to regulating gas exchange process of the compressor.

169 Heat is introduced into the LJEG through ammonia and hydrogen combustion in the external reactor. The ideal 170 thermodynamic cycle applied in the LJEG consists of four processes. An adiabatic compression process happens 171 in the compressor of LJEG. The external combustor operates at a constant pressure, where heat addition takes 172 place through premixed ammonia and hydrogen combustion. When hot exhaust gas from the combustor enters 173 the expander, the piston is driven by gas expansion to do linear motion. The mechanical power deducing friction 174 losses is used to drive the compressor piston for the compression process, and the translator of the alternator for 175power generation. After the expansion process, used gas is rejected into the environment as a constant pressure 176 heat rejection process. The working conditions of the LJEG are identified, therefore, the ranges of interested 177 input parameters are determined for the combustion model mentioned below.



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Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the LJEG

180 For any ammonia combustion devices, ammonia slip is a foremost issue to be dealt with. The burning velocity 181 of ammonia is much lower than conventional hydrocarbon fuels, therefore it is essential to understand the 182 influence of various parameters on ammonia burning velocity and find a way to accelerate ammonia combustion. 183 In this study, 1D premixed freely propagating flame sub-model in ANSYS CHEMKIN PRO is used to calculate 184 premixed laminar burning velocity over a wide range of equivalence ratio (0.8 - 1.6), hydrogen blending ratio 185 (0.0 - 0.6), oxygen content in the oxidizer (0.21 - 1.00), inlet temperature (300 - 700 K) and pressure 186  $(1-20 \ bar)$ . The hydrogen blending ratio,  $x\%H_2$ , and the oxygen content,  $\Omega$ , are defined as the mole fraction 187 of hydrogen in the fuel mixture and mole fraction of oxygen in the oxidizer, respectively. They are determined 188 by:

$$x\%H_2 = \frac{x[H_2]}{x[H_2] + x[NH_3]} , \qquad (1)$$

$$\Omega = \frac{x[O_2]}{x[O_2] + x[N_2]} ,$$
 (2)

189 where  $x[H_2]$ ,  $x[NH_3]$ ,  $x[O_2]$  and  $x[N_2]$  denote the mole fraction of hydrogen, ammonia, oxygen and 190 nitrogen, respectively. Another important property for premixed ammonia/hydrogen combustion is ignition delay 191 which is usually measured with shock tube in experiments. It is defined as the time interval between the start of 192 injection and the start of combustion. Due to the limited range of flammability and high ignition temperature of 193 ammonia combustion, understanding the influence of various parameters on ignition delay can provide the 194 guidance to improve the ignition of ammonia. In this work, the 0D closed homogeneous reactor sub-model in 195 ANSYS CHEMKIN PRO is utilized to predict the ignition delay time. It is calculated at isobaric and adiabatic 196 conditions and can be determined as the time during which a certain species concentration reaches its maximum 197 or the inflection point of temperature appears. In this study, ignition delay is defined as the time to reach the 198 maximum concentration of *OH*. Various parameters such as equivalence ratio (0.5, 1.0, 1.5), hydrogen blending 199 ratio (0.0 - 1.0), oxygen content (0.21 - 1.00), inlet temperature (1400 - 2200 K) and inlet pressure 200  $(1 - 20 \ bar)$  is analysed.

202 One of the key targets for developing ammonia-fuelled LJEG is to minimize  $NO_x$  emission, as fuel-bound  $NO_x$ 203 is expected to play an important role in addition to the thermal  $NO_x$ . Thus, the knowledge of ammonia flame 204 structure and the production and consumption process of nitric oxide is critical. In this study, flame structure is 205investigated with a burner-stabilized flame sub-model in ANSYS CHEMKIN PRO. The species mole fraction 206 profiles of fuels ( $NH_3$  and  $H_2$ ) and  $NO_x$  ( $NO, N_2O$  and  $NO_2$ ) are analysed under a wide range of equivalence 207 ratios (0.9 - 1.2), hydrogen blending ratios (0.0 - 0.8), oxygen contents (0.21 - 1.00) and inlet pressure 208 (1-20 bar). Besides, considering that the inlet ammonia concentration varies with other inlet conditions,  $NO_r$ 209 emission concentrations are also normalized against the inlet ammonia concentrations to avoid the influence on 210 results interpretation, i.e.:

$$x[NO_x]'_{end} = \frac{x[NO_x]_{end}}{x[NH_3]_{start}},$$
(3)

211 where  $x[NO_x]'_{end}$ ,  $x[NO_x]_{end}$  and  $x[NH_3]_{start}$  denote mole fraction of normalized  $NO_x$  emission,  $NO_x$ 212 emission and inlet  $NH_3$ , respectively.  $NO_x$  refers to  $NO, NO_2, N_2O$ . The characteristics of premixed 213 ammonia/hydrogen combustion and the kinetic models used provide a solid basis of studying turbulent flame in 214 the external reactor for an optimal design.

#### 216 **4. Mechanism validation**

In order to select the most suitable mechanism for further parametric study, the comparison between three selected representative mechanisms against the same sets of experimental data is carried out. The details of the three representative mechanisms are shown in Table 1.

| Table 1 Summary of the selected mechanisms |                   |                                      |  |  |  |  |
|--|-------------------|--------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|
| Mechanisms                                 | Number of species | Number of<br>elementary<br>reactions | Mixture  | Parameters<br>validated in<br>previous work                    |  |  |
| Duynslaegher's mechanism [34]              | 19                | 80                                   | NH <sub>3</sub> /H <sub>2</sub> /O <sub>2</sub> /Ar            | Species profiles,<br>laminar flame<br>speed [46]               |  |  |
| Otomo's mechanism [42]                     | 32                | 213                                  | NH <sub>3</sub> /air, NH <sub>3</sub> /<br>H <sub>2</sub> /air | Ignition delay,<br>species profiles,<br>laminar flame<br>speed |  |  |
| Nakamura's mechanism<br>[43]               | 33                | 232                                  | NH <sub>3</sub> /air   | Species profiles,<br>ignition delay,<br>laminar flame<br>speed |  |  |

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222 For burning velocity validation, the measured data of premixed ammonia/hydrogen blends under standard 223 temperature and pressure (STP) performed by Kumar et al. [47] is used. Figure 2 demonstrates the burning 224 velocity of ammonia/hydrogen as a function of equivalence ratio at various ammonia fraction by energy. The 225 numerical results show that Duynslaegher's reduced mechanism [34] agrees better with the measured data when 226 hydrogen is the primary fuel in the blends ( $E\% NH_3 = 20\%$ ). Otomo's mechanism [42] and Nakamura's 227 mechanism [43] have better predictions when ammonia is the primary fuel in the blends ( $E\% NH_3 = 50\%$  and 228  $E\% NH_3 = 80\%$ ). Since ammonia is the primary fuel for the proposed LJEG, Otomo's mechanism and 229 Nakamura's mechanism are considered more suitable for predicting ammonia burning velocity.



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Figure 2. Comparison between experimental and computational premixed  $NH_3/H_2$  laminar burning velocity when  $E\%NH_3$  is (a) 20%, (b) 50% and (c) 80%. Experimental results by Kumar *et al.* [47] plotted in conjunction with computational results using Nakamura's mechanism [43], Otomo's mechanism [42] and Duynslaegher's reduced mechanism [34].

Mathieu et al. [23] conducted the shock tube experiments to measure the ignition delay time of  $NH_3/O_2/Ar$ blends at 1.4, 11, 30 *atm*. The ignition delay time was defined as the time between the passage of the reflected shock wave and the intersection of the slope of hydroxyl radical (*OH*\*) and the zero-concentration horizontal line. As shown in Figure 3, modelling with Nakamura's mechanism agrees well with the experimental data, while predictions based on Otomo's mechanism [42] are slightly overestimated and a significant discrepancies among the predictions and measurements are found using Duynslaegher's reduced mechanism [34], which is mainly because the initial mechanism was only validated with low pressure experimental results.



Figure 3. Comparison between experimental and computational ignition delay time for the case of 0.01143*NH*<sub>3</sub>/0.008570<sub>2</sub>/0.98*Ar* ( $\phi = 1.0$ ) at (a) 1.4 *atm*, (b) 11 *atm* and (c) 30 *atm*. Experimental results by Mathieu *et al.* [23] plotted in conjunction with computational results using Nakamura's mechanism, Otomo's mechanism and Duynslaegher's reduced mechanism.

The species profiles of premixed  $0.21NH_3/0.13H_2/0.21O_2/0.45Ar$  flame at a low pressure (0.05 *bar*) was measured by Duynslaegher [35]. It is shown in Figure 4 that the modelling results for profiles of  $NH_3$ ,  $H_2$  and  $N_2$  with all three mechanisms all have satisfactory agreement with the measured results. The best agreement with the measured profiles of  $NO, N_2O$  and  $NH_2$  is achieved by using Duynslaegher's reduced mechanism, though the peak mole fractions of NO and  $N_2O$  are still underestimated.



Figure 4. Comparison between experimental and computational concentration profiles of (a)NO,  $NH_2$ ,  $N_2O$  and (b) $NH_3$ ,  $H_2$ ,  $N_2$  for the case of  $0.21NH_3/0.13H_2/0.21O_2/0.45Ar$  at 0.05 bar. Experimental results by Duynslaegher *et al.* [35] plotted in conjunction with computational results using Nakamura's mechanism, Otomo's mechanism and Duynslaegher's reduced mechanism.

| Mechanisms               | Burning velocity | Ignition delay     | Main species profiles |
|--------------------------|------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| Duynslaegher's mechanism | <b>↑</b> *       | $\downarrow$       | $\uparrow \uparrow$   |
| Otomo's mechanism        | $\uparrow$       | $\uparrow$         | $\downarrow$          |
| Nakamura's mechanism     | $\uparrow$       | $\uparrow\uparrow$ | $\uparrow$            |

Table 2 The comparison of three selected mechanisms

258 \*The symbols  $\uparrow\uparrow,\uparrow,\downarrow$  indicate 'good agreement', 'acceptable discrepancy', and 'significant discrepancy', respectively.

259 To compare the overall performance of three mechanism candidates, Table 2 demonstrates their performance in terms of three individual parameters of the greatest interest. Modelling results with Nakamura's and Otomo's 260 mechanism could predict better in premixed  $NH_3/H_2$  laminar burning velocity and ignition delay. In regard to 261 262 flame species concentrations, Duynslaegher's reduced mechanism has better agreement than the other two 263 mechanisms, although a significant difference is found between the measured and computational ignition delay 264 time. Between Otomo's and Nakamura's mechanisms, the latter predicts much better in NO profile. Therefore, 265 Nakamura's detailed reaction kinetic mechanism is selected for the further parametric analysis of premixed 266  $NH_3/H_2$  combustion under the prevalent working conditions of the LJEG.

#### 268 **5. Results and discussion**

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# 269 **5.1 Premixed laminar burning velocity**

270 Premixed laminar burning velocity is defined as the velocity at which the flame front propagates towards the 271 unburned mixture, which is one of the most important combustion properties to provide the evidence of ammonia 272 flame robustness in the LJEG. Premixed laminar burning velocity of  $NH_3/H_2/Air$  mixture is investigated under various equivalence ratio and hydrogen fractions at the inlet temperature of 300 K and inlet pressure of 1 bar 273 274 in Figure 5(a). It shows that increasing hydrogen fractions significantly enhance the burning velocity, which 275attributes to the high reactivity of hydrogen with a laminar burning velocity over 250 cm/s at NTP (normal 276 temperature and pressure) compared to only 7 cm/s of ammonia flames [48-50]. The high reactivity of 277 hydrogen may cause flame to burn backwards, leading to flashback in boundary layer [20], which should be 278 avoid and treated with cautions in the external combustor of LJEG. It is worth noting that laminar burning 279 velocity peaks when equivalence ratio is around 1.1 - 1.2 in all cases of different hydrogen fractions. It can be concluded that an equivalence ratio within the range of 1.1 - 1.2 is favourable to improve the stability of ammonia premixed combustion with hydrogen in presence working as a combustion promoter. The laminar burning velocity of  $60\% NH_3/40\% H_2$  fuel blend reaches  $34 \ cm/s$  at the equivalence ratio of 1.1, which is equivalent to that of methane flames (~37  $\ cm/s$ ) under similar conditions [16].

285 To investigate optimal combustion conditions in the ammonia fuelled LJEG, the premixed laminar burning 286 velocity of a pure ammonia flame and a flame of  $70\% NH_3/30\% H_2$  blend is plotted as a function of inlet 287 temperature and inlet pressure in Figure 5(b) ( $\phi = 1.1$ ). Inlet temperature has a positive effect on the burning 288 velocity of both the ammonia flame and the ammonia/hydrogen flame, therefore increased temperature at the 289 compressor outlet of the LJEG may increase burning velocity, especially when hydrogen promoter is in presence. 290 At atmospheric pressure, the burning velocity of the ammonia/hydrogen flame increases by around 90 cm/s 291 compared to an increase of around 40 cm/s of the pure ammonia flame, when the inlet temperature increases 292 from 300 K to 700 K. Conversely, increasing inlet pressure results in a decrease of burning velocity. For 293 example, the burning velocity of ammonia/hydrogen decreases by approximately 30 cm/s at 700 K, when 294 the inlet pressure rises from 1 bar to 5 bar. It is also observed that the adverse impact of high inlet pressure on burning velocity is weakened if inlet pressure further increases from 5 bar to 20 bar. In a typical LJEG 295 work condition (inlet pressure of 15 bar and inlet temperature of 600 K), the burning velocity of the 296 297  $70\% NH_3/30\% H_2$  flame has the potential to reach 40 cm/s. While an even higher pressure may improve the 298 LJEG efficiency, it may cause a small penalty on the burning velocity of ammonia/hydrogen flame.

300 Potential of hydrogen-oxy combustion used in the closed-cycle LJEG has been discussed in a recent paper [11], 301 which demonstrates a clean power generation solution with water as the only emission. Although ammonia-oxy 302 combustion cannot eliminate  $NO_x$  due to inevitable fuel-bound NO formation, oxygen enrichment brings 303 substantial benefit to burning velocity of ammonia flame. Figure 5(c) illustrates the premixed laminar burning 304 velocity increases with an increasing oxygen fraction in oxidizer at equivalence ratio of 1.1 under NTP. Oxygen 305 enrichment increases adiabatic temperature, thereby increasing the laminar combustion speed. The same trend 306 was recorded in hydrocarbon combustion [51, 52]. With 60% oxygen content in the oxidizer, pure ammonia 307 flame achieves a similar flame speed as that of methane flame under NTP (37 cm/s) [16]. When 30% hydrogen and 70% ammonia fuel mixture is used, 30% oxygen content in the oxidizer assists the burning 308 309 velocity to reach 39 cm/s, equivalent to that of methane again.

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Figure 5. Variation of premixed laminar burning velocity of  $NH_3/H_2/Air$  flame with (a) different equivalence ratios and hydrogen fractions, (b) different inlet temperature and inlet pressure and (c) different oxygen contents in the oxidizer (Intersection point with laminar burning velocity of methane flame under NTP: •).

#### 314 **5.2 Ignition delay**

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315 As ammonia flame requires a high ignition energy, an improvement of ignition delay for ammonia flames and 316 ammonia/hydrogen flames is necessary for ignition system design in the combustor of the LJEG. Figure 6(a) 317 shows ignition delay time versus hydrogen blending ratio from 0.0 to 1.0 at different equivalence ratios at the 318 inlet temperature of 1400 K and inlet pressure of 1 bar. A small fraction (0.0 - 0.2) of hydrogen addition 319 may exponentially reduce ignition delay time and effectively enhance ignition robustness. With a further increase 320 of hydrogen blending ratio, ignition delay shows relatively smaller improvement. Sensitivity analysis on OH 321 radical at ignition moment has been conducted to identify the most important reactions in shortening ignition 322 delay. Ten normalised sensitivity coefficients (the top 5 positive and the top 5 negative) are shown for each 323 case in Figure 7. As shown in Figure 7(a) and (b),  $O_2 + H = O + OH$  is the dominate reaction in both pure 324 ammonia and  $80\% NH_3/20\% H_2$  blends. When 20% hydrogen is introduced into the fuel blends, the second 325 active reaction is changed from  $NH_3 + NH_2 = N_2H_3 + H_2$  to  $H_2 + OH = H + H_2O$  that consumes hydrogen 326 and yields H radical to promote ignition of ammonia. Also, the inhibitive reactions  $NH_3 + H = NH_2 + H_2$ 327 and  $NH_2 + NH_2 = N_2H_2 + H_2$  become less sensitive with  $80\% NH_3/20\% H_2$  blends. This results in the 328 promoting effect on ignition behaviour with hydrogen addition.

330 It is concluded from Figure 6(a) that equivalence ratio shows larger impact on ignition delay as hydrogen 331 blending ratio is around 0.2. When hydrogen blending ratio is high, equivalence ratio plays a less important role 332 to affect ignition delay. Figure 7(c) and (d) further demonstrate the normalized sensitivity coefficients of OH333 with the equivalence ratio of 0.5 and 1.5 when hydrogen blending ratio is 0.2. The most sensitive reactions are similar in both cases. Elementary reactions  $O_2 + H = O + OH$  and  $H_2 + OH = H + H_2O$  are dominant 334 335 for the promoting effect, while  $NH_3 + OH = NH_2 + H_2O$  and  $NH_2 + NH_2 = N_2H_2 + H_2$  are the reactions 336 responsible for ignition suppression. The chain branching reaction  $O_2 + H = O + OH$  is promoted under fuel-337 lean conditions as more oxygen is involved in, which explains the shortened ignition delay time at  $\phi = 0.5$  as 338 shown in Figure 6(a).

340 Apart from hydrogen blending ratio and equivalence ratio, inlet temperature and inlet pressure have important 341 effects on ignition delay. Figure 6(b) illustrates ignition delay with hydrogen blending ratio of 0.3 at the 342 equivalence ratio of 1.1. It is found that ignition delay time is shortened as the inlet temperature and inlet 343 pressure increases. However, the influences of pressure on ignition delay decreases as pressure rises. For the case 344 of  $70\% NH_3/30\% H_2$  flame, a factor  $(\tau_{1bar}/\tau_{5bar})$  between 1 bar and 5 bar is around 4.7 with the 345 inlet temperature at 1800 K (10000/T = 5.56), which is more than two times of the factor ( $\tau_{5bar}$ /  $\tau_{10bar} \sim 1.9$ ) between 5 bar and 10 bar. It indicates that inlet pressure changes from 1 - 5 bar has a 346 347 great impact on reducing ignition delay, whilst moderate ignition delay improvement is achieved with further 348 pressure increments.

350 Oxygen enrichment has its impact on ignition delay as well. As shown in Figure 6(c), the increase of oxygen 351 content in oxidizer improves ignition of both ammonia and  $70\% NH_3/30\% H_2$  flames. Ignition delay time is 352 shortened as the oxidizer changes from air to pure oxygen under ambient pressure condition. Figure 7(e) and (f) illustrate the most significant promoting reactions are  $O_2 + H = O + OH$  and  $NH_3 + NH_2 = N_2H_3 + H_2$ . 353 354 Similar to the previous discuss,  $NH_3 + H = NH_2 + H_2$  and  $NH_2 + NH_2 = N_2H_2 + H_2$  have the significant 355 retarding effect on ignition of ammonia combustion. With higher oxygen concentration in oxidizer, normalized 356 sensitivity coefficients of the top five promoting reactions indicate more active reactions take place, e.g., the 357 reaction  $NH_3 + NH_2 = N_2H_3 + H_2$ . As a result, ignition delay time is commonly reduced under oxygenenriched conditions. Nevertheless, under atmospheric pressure, ignition delay time decrease attributes more to hydrogen blending instead of oxygen enrichment. When 30% hydrogen is blending in the fuel at 1 *bar*, the ignition delay time is almost equivalent to that of pure ammonia at 20 *bar*. Under high pressure (20 *bar*), for either pure ammonia or ammonia/hydrogen mixture, limited benefit would be brought by more oxygen involved in oxidizer. In the LJEG common work condition, the pressure in the external combustor will be maintained in the range of 10 - 20 *bar*, which indicates an increase of oxygen content in oxidizer having limited positive impact on solving ammonia ignition delay along with hydrogen addition as a combustion promoter.





Figure 6. Ignition delay time as a function of (a) various equivalence ratios and hydrogen blending ratios, (b) various inlet temperature and inlet pressure and (c) various oxygen contents in the oxidizer.





367Figure 7. Normalized sensitivity analysis of OH with (a)  $x\%H_2 = 0.0$ , (b)  $x\%H_2 = 0.2$ , (c)  $\phi = 0.5$ ,368(d)  $\phi = 1.5$ , (e)  $\Omega = 0.21$  and (f)  $\Omega = 1.00$ . (a-b):  $\phi = 1, T = 1400$  K, P = 1 bar,  $\Omega = 0.21$ ; (c-d):369 $x\%H_2 = 0.2, T = 1400$  K, P = 1 bar,  $\Omega = 0.21$ ; (e-f):  $\phi = 1.1, x\%H_2 = 0.0, T = 1400$  K, P = 1 bar.

# **5.3 Flame species**

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An important issue associating with any ammonia-combusted heat engines is  $NO_x$  emission. Ammonia has complex reaction routes in a nitrogen rich environment. It is interesting to understand how fuel-bound nitrogen of ammonia and hydrogen blending to impact  $NO_x$  formation under the working conditions of the LJEG. In this section, flame species mole fraction profiles under various conditions are generated from the model and rate of production (ROP) analysis is conducted to get insights of flame species concentrations.

377 Figure 8(a) depicts the mole fractions of  $NH_3$ ,  $H_2$ , NO,  $NO_2$ ,  $N_2O$  emissions at the equivalence ratio from 0.9 – 378 1.2 for a  $70\% NH_3/30\% H_2$  flame. The detailed inlet components are shown in Table 3. It can be seen that  $NO_2$ 379  $N_2O$  emissions are nearly zero and the dominant  $NO_x$  emission in ammonia/hydrogen combustion is NO, and 380 which shares the same trend in hydrocarbon premixed flames. As equivalence ratio increases, NO emission is 381 decreased considerably, particularly when the equivalence ratio is slightly above unity. Additionally, it is noted in 382 Figure 8(a) that hydrogen concentration is increased significantly with an equivalence ratio higher than unity. 383 Unburnt ammonia is also increased when the equivalence ratio is higher than 1.1. To avoid abundant hydrogen and ammonia in rich flames and high  $NO_x$  emission in lean flames, an equivalence ratio of  $1.0 < \phi < 1.1$  is 384

favourable for emission control, which also aligns with the recommendation from the previous analysis of combustion robustness (Fig. 5(a), section 5.1). In Table 3, the mole fraction of inlet ammonia increases when hydrogen blending ratio and oxygen content in the oxidizer keep constant. In order to avoid the effect of various inlet ammonia amount on  $NO_x$  emission, normalized NO is calculated by dividing by the amount of inlet ammonia. It is illustrated in Figure 8(b) that normalized NO is significantly decreased at the rich flames.

391 In Figure 9, the ROP analysis of NO with the equivalence ratios of 0.9 and 1.2 represents the cases of the lean 392 flame and the rich flame. In the lean flame, NO is mostly formed through fuel-bound NO (HNO + H = NO + H) $H_2$ ,  $HNO + OH = NO + H_2O$ ) and partly through thermal-NO, while NO is consumed primarily through the 393 394 reaction with  $NH_i$  (NH, NH<sub>2</sub>) and partly through the reverse reaction of thermal-NO mechanism (N<sub>2</sub> + 395 O = NO + N). In the rich flame, the production from fuel-bound NO decreases while that from thermal-396 *NO* increases, and the consumption is mainly through the reverse thermal-*NO* mechanism. The results align with 397 a recent study indicating that the contribution of  $NH_i$  oxidation via HNO for NO formation trends to be 398 restrained due to the decrease of O/H/OH radicals in rich flames [53]. Besides, the reaction of  $NH_i$  and H is 399 promoted with the increase of H concentration in rich flame, resulting in high production of nitrogen atoms (N), 400 in turn, promoting the consumption of NO through the reversed thermal-NO mechanism. As a result, NO 401 concentration is reduced in rich flame, which helps to explain the NO profile in Figure 8(a).



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Table 3 Inlet components under various equivalence ratio. Case φ  $x\%H_2$ Ω  $x[NH_3]$  $x[H_2]$  $x[O_2]$  $x[N_2]$ 1 0.9 0.15 0.07 0.16 0.62 2 1.0 0.17 0.07 0.16 0.60 0.3 0.21 3 1.1 0.18 0.08 0.16 0.59 4 1.2 0.19 0.08 0.15 0.58

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Figure 8. Mole fractions of  $NH_3, H_2, NO, NO_2, N_2O$  emissions and normalized  $NO_x$  emission at various equivalence ratio for a  $70\% NH_3/30\% H_2$  flame ( $T = 500 \ K, P = 1 \ bar$ ).



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In Figure 10(a), the effect of hydrogen fraction in fuel blend on emissions of ammonia/hydrogen flame is 407 408 discussed at the equivalence ratio of 1.1. Table 4 presents the inlet mole fractions of components varying with 409 the hydrogen blending ratio. NO emission only increases marginally and unburnt hydrogen in the post-flame 410 zone seems to be similar, although more hydrogen fraction in the fuel blend. In Figure 10(b), normalized NO 411 concentration (against inlet ammonia mole fraction) increases apparently due to the decrease of inlet ammonia mole fraction shown in Table 4. Through the ROP analysis in Figure 11, it is concluded that although the 412 413 production rates of both fuel-bound NO and thermal-NO rise under a higher hydrogen blending ratio, thermal-NO  $(N_2 + O = N + NO)$  has a greater impact on NO consumption. Extra NO consumption may dynamically 414 balance most of intensified NO production. Consequently, it shows a marginal increase of NO concentration in 415 416 the post-flame zone. The similar hydrogen mole concentration in the post-flame zone exhaust with different 417 hydrogen fraction in fuel mixture is explained using the hydrogen ROP analysis illustrated in Figure 12. Hydrogen is mainly formed through the reactions of  $NH_i$  ( $NH_3$ ,  $NH_2$ , NH,  $N_2H_2$ ) + H, the reaction of 418  $NH_i$  (e.g.  $NH_2 + NH_3$ ,  $NH_2 + NH_2$ ) as well as HNO + H. Hydrogen is mainly consumed through the 419 420 hydrogen oxidation  $(H_2 + 0 \text{ and } H_2 + 0H)$ . As hydrogen mole fraction in the fuel rises, the hydrogen oxidation is promoted, especially, the reaction of  $H_2 + OH = H + H_2O$ . Hence, although more hydrogen is 421 422 introduced into the fuel, the unburnt hydrogen in the post-flame zone at  $\phi = 1.1$  keeps almost the same.

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Table 4 Inlet components under various hydrogen blending ratio.

| Case | $\phi$ | <i>x</i> % <i>H</i> <sub>2</sub> | Ω    | $x[NH_3]$ | $x[H_2]$ | $x[O_2]$ | $x[N_2]$ |
|------|--------|----------------------------------|------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 1    |        | 0.0                              |      | 0.24      | 0.00     | 0.16     | 0.60     |
| 2    |        | 0.1                              | 0.21 | 0.22      | 0.02     | 0.16     | 0.60     |
| 3    | 1 1    | 0.2                              |      | 0.20      | 0.05     | 0.16     | 0.59     |
| 4    | 1.1    | 0.3                              |      | 0.18      | 0.08     | 0.16     | 0.59     |
| 5    |        | 0.5                              |      | 0.13      | 0.13     | 0.15     | 0.58     |
| 6    |        | 0.8                              |      | 0.06      | 0.24     | 0.15     | 0.56     |



Figure 10. Mole fractions of  $NH_3$ ,  $H_2$ , NO,  $NO_2$ ,  $N_2O$  emissions and normalized  $NO_x$  emission at different hydrogen blending ratios ( $\phi = 1.1$ , T = 500 K, P = 1 bar).





Figure 11. ROP analysis for *NO* at (a)  $x\%H_2 = 0.0$ , (b)  $x\%H_2 = 0.2$  and (c)  $x\%H_2 = 0.5$ .



428 Figure 12. ROP analysis for  $H_2$  at (a)  $x\%H_2 = 0.0$ , (b)  $x\%H_2 = 0.2$  and (c)  $x\%H_2 = 0.5$ .

429 The effects of oxygen content in oxidizer are studied based on the case of  $70\% NH_3/30\% H_2$  flames ( $\phi = 1.1$ ). 430 The mole fractions of inlet components are demonstrated in Table 5. In Figure 13(a), it is noted that NO 431 concentration in exhaust rises when more nitrogen in oxidizer is replaced by oxygen. From the perspective of 432 ROP, it is revealed that the main paths of production and consumption remain the same even though the oxygen content in oxidizer increases from 0.21 (air) to 1.00 (pure oxygen) in Figure 14. Fuel-bound NO reaction 433 434  $(HNO + H = NO + H_2)$  is dominant in NO production and thermal NO reaction  $(N_2 + O = N + NO)$  is 435 dominant in consumption, although the rates of both production and consumption are promoted almost twice 436 while pure oxygen is used as the oxidizer. As the equivalence ratio and the hydrogen blending ratio keep constant

437 (see Table 5), the ammonia concentration is increased in the fuel when the oxygen content is enhanced in oxidizer. 438 Thus, the normalized NO emission is decreased as shown in Figure 13(b). It is concluded that the increase of 439 absolute NO emission is caused by the result of offsetting in NO production and consumption, but normalised 440 NO emission reduction is because the ammonia concentration involved in the fuel blend as the denominator increases with the increase of oxygen concentration to keep a constant equivalence ratio. With more oxygen 441 442 content is introduced in the oxidizer, absolute  $NO_2$  and  $N_2O$  emissions are also enhanced. In Figure 13(b), the normalised  $NO_2$  and  $N_2O$  emissions minimise the impact of higher fractions of ammonia, which shows limited 443 444 benefits would be brought with pure oxygen as the oxidizer for normalised  $NO_2$  emission, while normalised 445  $N_2O$  emission has a decreasing trend.

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| Case | $\phi$ | <i>x</i> % <i>H</i> <sub>2</sub> | Ω    | $x[NH_3]$ | $x[H_2]$ | $x[O_2]$ | $x[N_2]$ |
|------|--------|----------------------------------|------|-----------|----------|----------|----------|
| 1    |        |                                  | 0.21 | 0.18      | 0.08     | 0.16     | 0.59     |
| 2    |        |                                  | 0.4  | 0.28      | 0.12     | 0.24     | 0.36     |
| 3    | 1.1    | 0.3                              | 0.6  | 0.35      | 0.15     | 0.30     | 0.20     |
| 4    |        |                                  | 0.8  | 0.40      | 0.17     | 0.35     | 0.09     |
| 5    |        |                                  | 1    | 0.43      | 019      | 0.38     | 0.00     |

Table 5 Inlet components under various oxygen contents in the oxidizer.

 $\frac{1}{10^{\times 10^{-2}}}$ 



448 Figure 13. Mole fractions of  $NH_3$ ,  $H_2$ , NO,  $NO_2$ ,  $N_2O$  emissions and normalized  $NO_x$  emission with oxygen 449 content at the range of 0.21 - 1.00 for  $70\% NH_3/30\% H_2$  flame ( $\phi = 1.1$ , T = 500 K, P = 1 bar).

 $20 \frac{\times 10^{-4}}{\Omega = 1.00}$ ×10<sup>-4</sup> 10 Ω=0.21 ROP of NO [mole/cm<sup>3</sup>s] ROP of NO [mole/cm<sup>3</sup>s]  $HNO + H = NO + H_2$  $HNO + H = NO + H_2$ 15  $N + O_2$ = NO $HNO + OH = NO + H_2O$ 6 10  $H_2$  $+NO = N_2 + H_2C$  $NH_2 + NO = N_2 + H_2O$ OH = NO + H5 →Total 0 $NH + NO = N_2O + H$ -5  $NH_2 + NO = NNH + OH$  $NH + NO = N_2 + OH$  $NH + NO = N_2 + OH$ -10  $NH_2 + NO = N_2 + H_2O$ +NO = NNH + OH $VH_2$ -6 NH  $+NO = N_2O + H$  $NH_2 + NO$ = N + NO-15  $N_2 + O = N + NO$ -10 -20 0.05 0.1 0.15 0.2 0.25 0.025 0.05 0.075 0.125 0 0 0.1  $Distance \ [cm]$  $Distance \ [cm]$ (a) (b)

Figure 14. ROP analysis for *NO* with (a) 0.21 and (b) 1.00 oxygen content in the oxidizer at T = 451500 K, P = 1 bar.

To involve in the consideration of high-pressure work conditions in the LJEG, a comparison is conducted based

453 on different inlet pressures (1 - 20 bar). In Figure 15, emissions are illustrated under various inlet pressures 454 (the same inlet temperature of 600 K and an equivalence ratio of 1.1). There is a clear trend of NO emission decreasing as inlet pressure rises. The change is more significant from 1 bar to 10 bar compared to that from 45510 bar to 20 bar. A similar finding is mentioned in the study of premixed ammonia/methane combustion [17]. 456 457 An explanation was raised in [53] that the combination of  $NH_i$  radical is promoted under high pressure (or fuel-458 rich conditions), which promotes to yield nitrogen instead of NO. This finding suggests that typical high-pressure 459 in the external combustor of the LJEG is a favourable environment for NO reduction when a  $70\% NH_3/30\% H_2$ 460 fuel blend is utilized.



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462 Figure 15. Emissions of  $NH_3, H_2, NO, NO_2, N_2O$  under different inlet pressure for  $70\% NH_3/30\% H_2$ 463 flame ( $\phi = 1.1, \Omega = 0.21, T = 600 K$ ); The red points illustrate the emission species at the optimized inlet 464 parameters of LJEG, i.e.  $\phi = 1.1, x\% H_2 = 0.3, \Omega = 0.3, T = 600 K, P = 15 bar$ .

#### 465 5.4 Selected operational parameters for the external combustor of the LJEG

Following the comprehensive investigation of the impacts of various operational parameters on ammonia combustion and emissions, a general recommendation to realize stable, efficient and environment friendly operation of the ammonia fuelled LJEG is given with the clear aim to enhance ammonia combustion robustness and minimise  $NO_x$  emission.

471 The laminar burning velocity of methane flames ( $\sim$ 37 cm/s) sets a benchmark for ammonia flames enhanced 472 with combustion promoter and favourable operational parameters. Hydrogen, as a combustion promoter with its 473high burning velocity, could easily improve the burning velocity of premixed ammonia/hydrogen flame to exceed 474 37 cm/s. However, a high fraction of hydrogen in ammonia/hydrogen blends requires highly efficient premium 475 catalysts to crack ammonia online or a separate hydrogen fuel supply line. To achieve a cost-effective solution to 476 promote ammonia combustion robustness, hydrogen addition has to be considered along with other operational 477 parameters, e.g. equivalence ratio, pressure and temperature. Equivalence ratio between 1.1 and 1.2 is 478beneficial to reach a higher burning velocity in most cases. In regard to inlet pressure and temperature of the 479 ammonia combustor, they are not fully independent parameters which are largely determined by thermodynamic 480 parameters at the compressor outlet of the LJEG. Inlet temperature has a monotonical positive impact on burning 481 velocity while high inlet pressure prohibits burning velocity increase. At a typical outlet condition of 600 K and 482 15 bar, a  $70\% NH_3/30\% H_2$  fuel blend ( $\phi = 1.1$ ) achieves the laminar burning velocity slightly above 483 40 cm/s (see Figure 5(b)). This satisfies the requirement of the ammonia combustor regarding combustion robustness when a stable flame is formed. Oxygen enrichment also has a significant and positive impact on 484 485 burning velocity, which may need a detailed economic analysis to reach a more economically viable solution. 486 Further considerations also need to be put on ignition delay and  $NO_x$  emission to determine an all-rounder 487 solution.

In terms of ignition delay, as discussed in Section 5.2, 20% hydrogen addition already significantly reduces ignition delay time nonetheless 30% hydrogen addition applied. The common work condition of the LJEG, i.e., 15 *bar* at the inlet of the external combustor, has a major effect on reducing ignition delay. Jointly, the requirement of a short ignition delay also can be met with the abovementioned condition, i.e., 30% hydrogen addition, 15 *bar* inlet pressure and equivalent ratio of 1.1.

495 As discussed in Section 5.3, different operational parameters have complicated synergies on flame species, 496 especially,  $NO_x$  emission of the greatest interest. Equivalence ratio between 1.0 and 1.1 is widely accepted in 497 almost all literatures studying ammonia combustion. In rich burn,  $NO_x$  emission can be suppressed even lower, 498 however increasing amount of hydrogen in exhaust is equally unacceptable in the LJEG, where after-burn device 499 may be required which would further increase overall  $NO_x$  emission. In practical situations, rich burn with a 500 high equivalence ratio may lead to ammonia slip if the external combustor of the LJEG was not optimally designed. 501 Therefore, a moderate equivalence ratio of 1.1 as selected for combustion robustness is equally acceptable here. 502 In terms of hydrogen addition, the selected fraction (30%) is ideal as a further increase of hydrogen fraction 503 leads to intensified thermal-NO production which eventually pushes up NO emission as seen in Figure 10(a). 504 Besides hydrogen addition and equivalence ratio, the most important operational parameters to affect  $NO_x$ 505emission are oxygen content in oxidizer and inlet pressure of the combustor.  $NO_x$  emission decrease 506 monotonically while higher oxygen concentration and higher pressure are applied. Although absolute mole 507 fractions of  $NO_x$  upsurge when higher absolute oxygen concentrations are applied, the normalised NO and 508  $N_20$  emissions demonstrate a decreasing trend in Figure 13(b). A moderate oxygen concentration of 30% is 509 selected subject to a further investigation on economic viability of its application on the LJEG.

511 With the advantageous parameter combination of equivalence ratio, hydrogen addition, and oxygen content, and 512 the typical input parameters of the LJEG (T = 600 K, P = 15 bar), the concentration of  $NH_3, H_2, NO_x$ 513 species are marked in Figure 15. Mole fractions of unburnt  $H_2$  and NO emissions are around 4.1% and 1.7%, 514 respectively, while those of  $NO_2$ ,  $N_2O$  and unburnt  $NH_3$  are negligible. Moreover, both the formation and 515consumption of NO is dominated by fuel-bound NO reactions (reaction with HNO or NH). It is anticipated 516 that the selected operational parameters offer a great guidance on the design of the ammonia combustor with 517 elevated inlet pressure in the LJEG. The general conclusion of the impacts of operational parameters on ammonia 518 combustion robustness and emissions provides a useful reference for other combustion device developments.

#### 520 **6.** Conclusions

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521 The combustion characteristics of premixed ammonia/hydrogen are investigated by applying detailed chemical 522 kinetic modelling to support the combustion system development of an ammonia/hydrogen dual-fuelled Linear 523 Joule Engine Generator (LJEG). An ammonia combustion mechanism is selected from several representative 524 mechanisms based on the validation against the same set of experimental data. Laminar burning velocity, ignition 525 delay and flame species concentration are investigated over a wide range of equivalence ratios, hydrogen blending 526 ratios, oxygen content in the oxidizer, inlet temperature and pressure, which are related to typical LJEG operating 527 conditions. Rate of production (ROP) analysis is utilized to gain a deeper insight into the  $NO_x$  formation and 528 consumption pathways. The findings obtained from this study indicate the potential of realizing robust and low 529 NOx emission combustion in the proposed LJEG prototype. The major conclusions are summarised as follows.

• With the increase of equivalence ratio, *NO* concentration decreases and concentrations of unburnt  $H_2$  and 531  $NH_3$  increases notably, while laminar burning velocity peaks at around 1.1. This suggests that an equivalence ratio of 1.1 is beneficial for both combustion robustness and emission reduction.

- Both adding hydrogen in the fuel and enriching oxygen in the oxidizer effectively promote the laminar burning velocity and reduce the ignition delay of ammonia. 40% hydrogen in fuel or 60% oxygen in oxidizer can increase the burning velocity of ammonia to the similar level of methane (37 cm/s under ambient temperature and pressure condition). Adding hydrogen results in marginal increase in *NO* emission. Apparent increase of absolute *NO* emission is found in the oxygen-enriched environment, but normalised *NO* and  $N_2O$  emissions demonstrate decreasing trends.
- Increase of inlet pressure tends to suppress burning velocity, however, the effects reduce as the pressure is
   further elevated. Ignition delay is shortened as pressure increases; however, the effects diminish at a higher
   pressure. *NO* emission falls significantly with the elevation of pressure.
- Considering the impacts of different parameters, a favorable combination, i.e.,  $30\% H_2/70\% NH_3$ ,  $\Omega = 0.3$ , 543  $\phi = 1.1$ ,  $T_1 = 600 \ K$ ,  $P_1 = 15 \ bar$  is selected. Result shows *NO* emission is around 1.7% while 544 those of *NO*<sub>2</sub> and *N*<sub>2</sub>*O* are negligible, offering a great guidance on the design of the ammonia combustor 545 to minimize emissions.
- ROP analysis indicates that both fuel-bound *NO* reactions and thermal *NO* reactions play important role in *NO* production and consumption. The relative importance of those two pathways and the individual reactions within each pathway vary with the parameters studied, and lead to the phenomena observed in the parametric study.
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