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DOI:

[10.1016/j.ijhydene.2021.04.110](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhydene.2021.04.110)

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*Document Version*

Peer reviewed version

*Citation for published version (Harvard):*

Zhang, F, Chen, G, Wu, D, Li, T, Zhang, Z & Wang, N 2021, 'Characterising premixed ammonia and hydrogen combustion for a novel Linear Joule Engine Generator', *International Journal of Hydrogen Energy*, vol. 46, no. 44, pp. 23075-23090. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhydene.2021.04.110>

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

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

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

## Nomenclature

$\phi$	Fuel-air equivalence ratio
$x\%H_2$	Hydrogen blending ratio (hydrogen mole fraction in fuel)
$E\%NH_3$	Ammonia fraction by energy
$\Omega$	Oxygen content (oxygen mole fraction in oxidizer)
$T$	Inlet temperature (K)
$P$	Inlet pressure (bar)
$S_L$	Laminar burning velocity (cm/s)
$\tau$	Ignition delay time (ms)
$x[i]$	Mole fraction of $i$
$x[i]_{end}'$	Normalized outlet mole fraction of $i$
$x[i]_{end}$	Outlet mole fraction of $i$
$x[i]_{start}$	Inlet mole fraction of $i$

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

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

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

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.

83  
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.

94  
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  $NH_3$ /50%vol  $H_2$  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.

108  
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 (DRGEP-SA) method for  
120 CFD modelling implement. Duynslaegher *et al.* [34, 35] conducted experiments with premixed  $0.21NH_3/$   
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  
124 very well, although discrepancies were found in the concentrations of  $N_2O$  and  $NH_2$ . Duynslaegher *et al.*  
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  $NH_2$ ,  
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.

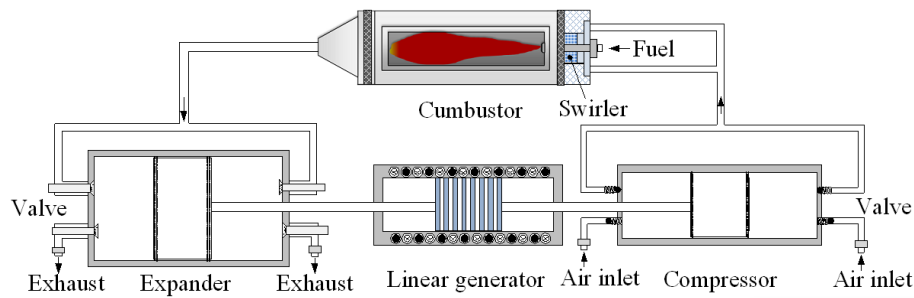
140  
141 Most of the previous studies on chemical kinetic mechanisms focuses on fundamental combustion chemistries  
142 of pure ammonia or ammonia/hydrocarbon (methane, in particular). Few works reported the characteristics of  
143 premixing ammonia/hydrogen combustion for applications with similar 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  
152 species 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  
154 identified for a further parametric study. The findings of this study will provide a clear guidance on determining  
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

159 The schematic diagram of the proposed ammonia/hydrogen dual 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.

168  
 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  
 175 power 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.



178  
 179 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:

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

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

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

guidance to improve the ignition of ammonia. In this work, the 0D closed homogeneous reactor sub-model in ANSYS CHEMKIN PRO is utilized to predict the ignition delay time. It is calculated at isobaric and adiabatic conditions and can be determined as the time during which a certain species concentration reaches its maximum or the inflection point of temperature appears. In this study, ignition delay is defined as the time to reach the maximum concentration of  $OH$ . Various parameters such as equivalence ratio (0.5, 1.0, 1.5), hydrogen blending ratio (0.0 – 1.0), oxygen content (0.21 – 1.00), inlet temperature (1400 – 2200 K) and inlet pressure (1 – 20 bar) is analysed.

One of the key targets for developing ammonia-fuelled LJEG is to minimize  $NO_x$  emission, as fuel-bound  $NO_x$  is expected to play an important role in addition to the thermal  $NO_x$ . Thus, the knowledge of ammonia flame structure and the production and consumption process of nitric oxide is critical. In this study, flame structure is investigated with a burner-stabilized flame sub-model in ANSYS CHEMKIN PRO. The species mole fraction 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 ratios (0.9 – 1.2), hydrogen blending ratios (0.0 – 0.8), oxygen contents (0.21 – 1.00) and inlet pressure (1 – 20 bar). Besides, considering that the inlet ammonia concentration varies with other inlet conditions,  $NO_x$  emission concentrations are also normalized against the inlet ammonia concentrations to avoid the influence on results interpretation, i.e.:

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

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

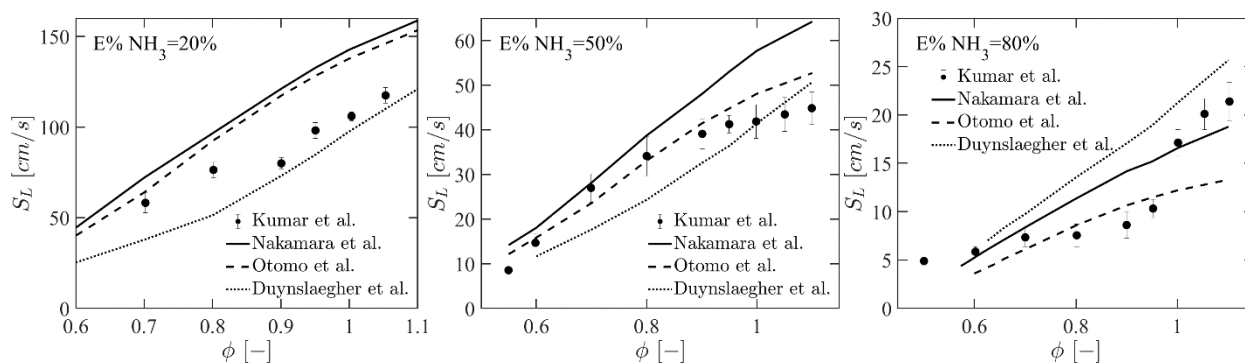
#### 4. Mechanism validation

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

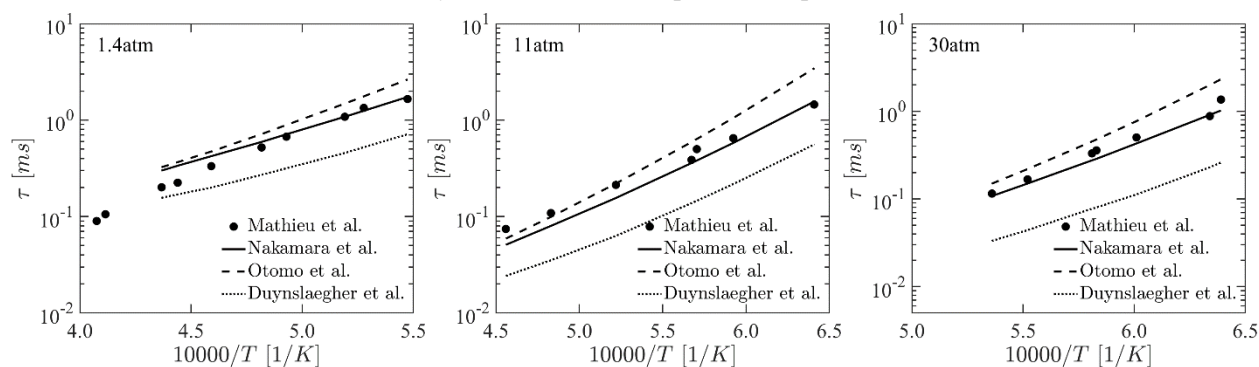
Mechanisms	Number of species	Number of elementary reactions	Mixture	Parameters validated in previous work
Duynslaegher's mechanism [34]	19	80	$NH_3/H_2/O_2/Ar$	Species profiles, laminar flame speed [46]
Otomo's mechanism [42]	32	213	$NH_3/air$ , $NH_3/H_2/air$	Ignition delay, species profiles, laminar flame speed
Nakamura's mechanism [43]	33	232	$NH_3/air$	Species profiles, ignition delay, laminar flame speed

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.



230  
 231 Figure 2. Comparison between experimental and computational premixed  $NH_3/H_2$  laminar burning velocity  
 232 when  $E\%NH_3$  is (a) 20%, (b) 50% and (c) 80%. Experimental results by Kumar *et al.* [47] plotted in  
 233 conjunction with computational results using Nakamura’s mechanism [43], Otomo’s mechanism [42] and  
 234 Duynslaegher’s reduced mechanism [34].

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

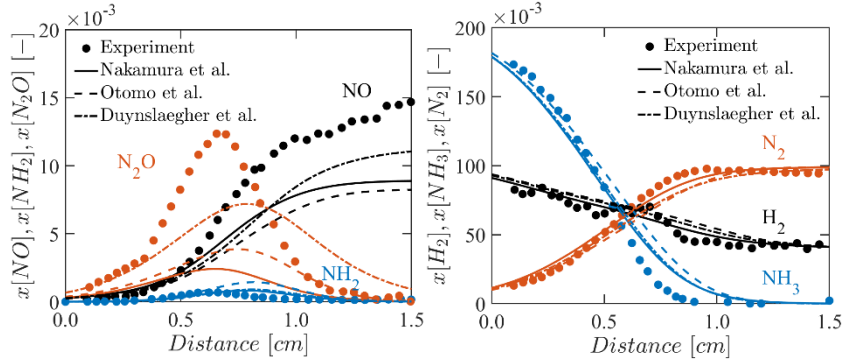


242  
 243 Figure 3. Comparison between experimental and computational ignition delay time for the case of  
 244  $0.01143NH_3/0.00857O_2/0.98Ar$  ( $\phi = 1.0$ ) at (a) 1.4 *atm*, (b) 11 *atm* and (c) 30 *atm*. Experimental  
 245 results by Mathieu *et al.* [23] plotted in conjunction with computational results using Nakamura’s mechanism,  
 246 Otomo’s mechanism and Duynslaegher’s reduced mechanism.

247 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  
 248 measured by Duynslaegher [35]. It is shown in Figure 4 that the modelling results for profiles of  $NH_3$ ,  $H_2$  and



249  $N_2$  with all three mechanisms all have satisfactory agreement with the measured results. The best agreement  
 250 with the measured profiles of  $NO$ ,  $N_2O$  and  $NH_2$  is achieved by using Duynslaegher’s reduced mechanism,  
 251 though the peak mole fractions of  $NO$  and  $N_2O$  are still underestimated.



252  
 253 Figure 4. Comparison between experimental and computational concentration profiles of (a)  $NO$ ,  $NH_2$ ,  $N_2O$  and  
 254 (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  
 255 Duynslaegher *et al.* [35] plotted in conjunction with computational results using Nakamura’s mechanism,  
 256 Otomo’s mechanism and Duynslaegher’s reduced mechanism.

257 Table 2 The comparison of three selected mechanisms

Mechanisms	Burning velocity	Ignition delay	Main species profiles
Duynslaegher’s mechanism	↑*	↓	↑↑
Otomo’s mechanism	↑	↑	↓
Nakamura’s mechanism	↑	↑↑	↑

258 \*The symbols ↑↑, ↑, ↓ 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  
 260 terms of three individual parameters of the greatest interest. Modelling results with Nakamura’s and Otomo’s  
 261 mechanism could predict better in premixed  $NH_3/H_2$  laminar burning velocity and ignition delay. In regard to  
 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

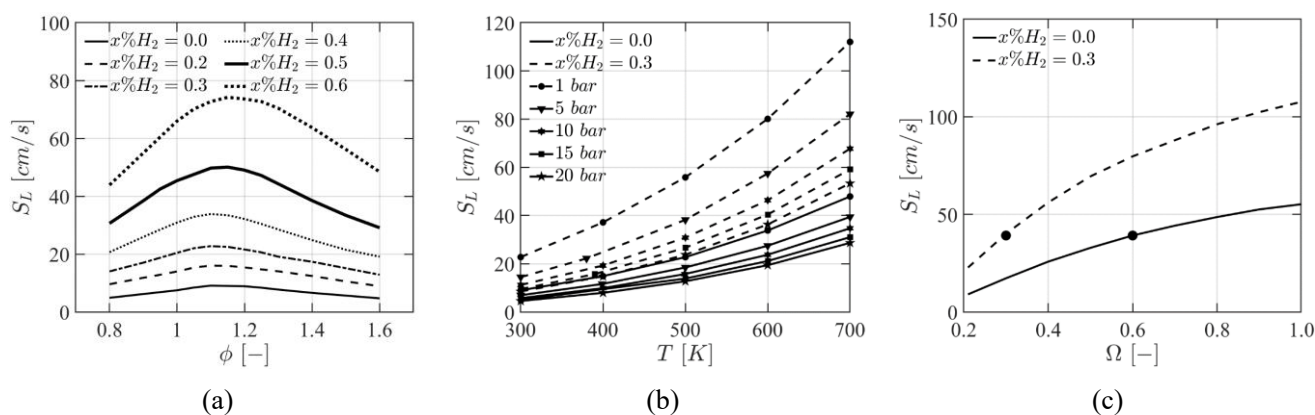
### 269 5.1 Premixed laminar burning velocity

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  
 273 various equivalence ratio and hydrogen fractions at the inlet temperature of  $300\ K$  and inlet pressure of  $1\ bar$   
 274 in Figure 5(a). It shows that increasing hydrogen fractions significantly enhance the burning velocity, which  
 275 attributes 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

280 concluded that an equivalence ratio within the range of 1.1 – 1.2 is favourable to improve the stability of  
 281 ammonia premixed combustion with hydrogen in presence working as a combustion promoter. The laminar  
 282 burning velocity of 60% $NH_3$ /40% $H_2$  fuel blend reaches 34  $cm/s$  at the equivalence ratio of 1.1, which is  
 283 equivalent to that of methane flames ( $\sim 37$   $cm/s$ ) under similar conditions [16].  
 284

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  
 295 on burning velocity is weakened if inlet pressure further increases from 5  $bar$  to 20  $bar$ . In a typical LJEG  
 296 work condition (inlet pressure of 15  $bar$  and inlet temperature of 600  $K$ ), the burning velocity of the  
 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.  
 299

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%  
 308 hydrogen and 70% ammonia fuel mixture is used, 30% oxygen content in the oxidizer assists the burning  
 309 velocity to reach 39  $cm/s$ , equivalent to that of methane again.  
 310



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

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## 5.2 Ignition delay

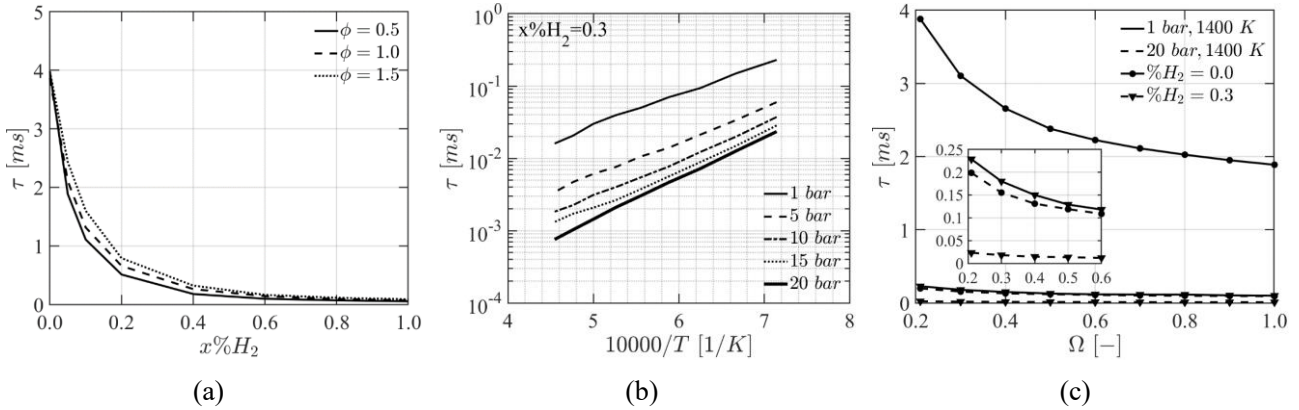
As ammonia flame requires a high ignition energy, an improvement of ignition delay for ammonia flames and ammonia/hydrogen flames is necessary for ignition system design in the combustor of the LJEG. Figure 6(a) shows ignition delay time versus hydrogen blending ratio from 0.0 to 1.0 at different equivalence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

It is concluded from Figure 6(a) that equivalence ratio shows larger impact on ignition delay as hydrogen blending ratio is around 0.2. When hydrogen blending ratio is high, equivalence ratio plays a less important role to affect ignition delay. Figure 7(c) and (d) further demonstrate the normalized sensitivity coefficients of OH 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 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 responsible for ignition suppression. The chain branching reaction  $O_2 + H = O + OH$  is promoted under fuel-lean conditions as more oxygen is involved in, which explains the shortened ignition delay time at  $\phi = 0.5$  as shown in Figure 6(a).

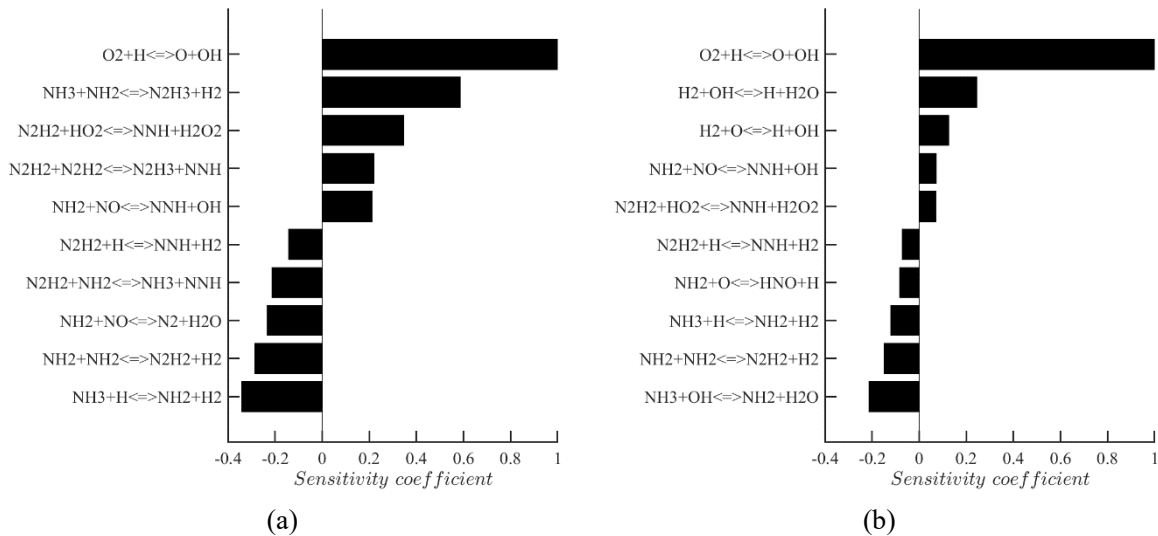
Apart from hydrogen blending ratio and equivalence ratio, inlet temperature and inlet pressure have important effects on ignition delay. Figure 6(b) illustrates ignition delay with hydrogen blending ratio of 0.3 at the equivalence ratio of 1.1. It is found that ignition delay time is shortened as the inlet temperature and inlet pressure increases. However, the influences of pressure on ignition delay decreases as pressure rises. For the case 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 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 great impact on reducing ignition delay, whilst moderate ignition delay improvement is achieved with further pressure increments.

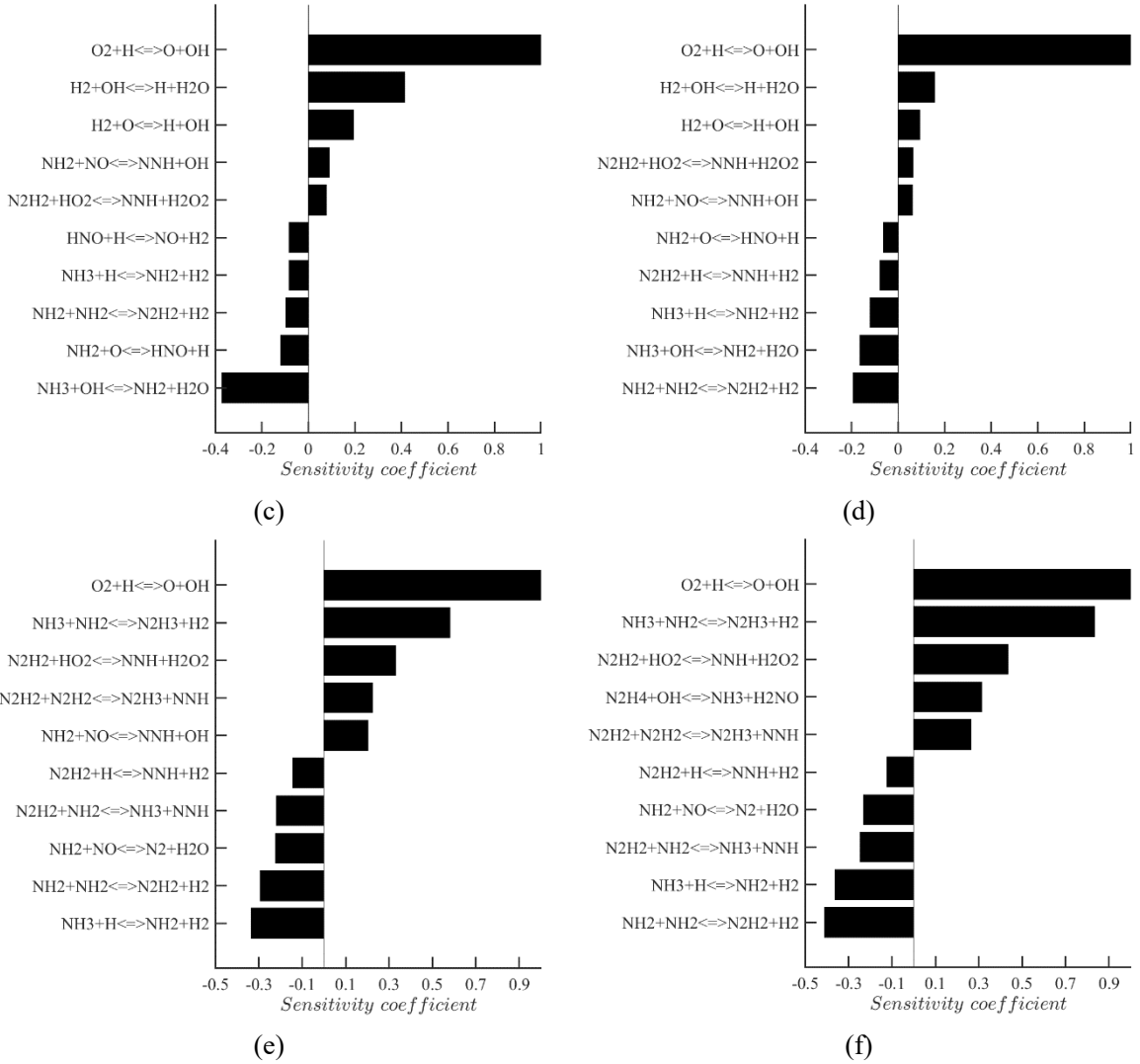
Oxygen enrichment has its impact on ignition delay as well. As shown in Figure 6(c), the increase of oxygen content in oxidizer improves ignition of both ammonia and 70% $NH_3$ /30% $H_2$  flames. Ignition delay time is shortened as the oxidizer changes from air to pure oxygen under ambient pressure condition. Figure 7(e) and (f) illustrate the most significant promoting reactions are  $O_2 + H = O + OH$  and  $NH_3 + NH_2 = N_2H_3 + H_2$ . 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 retarding effect on ignition of ammonia combustion. With higher oxygen concentration in oxidizer, normalized sensitivity coefficients of the top five promoting reactions indicate more active reactions take place, e.g., the reaction  $NH_3 + NH_2 = N_2H_3 + H_2$ . As a result, ignition delay time is commonly reduced under oxygen-

358 enriched conditions. Nevertheless, under atmospheric pressure, ignition delay time decrease attributes more to  
 359 hydrogen blending instead of oxygen enrichment. When 30% hydrogen is blending in the fuel at 1 bar, the  
 360 ignition delay time is almost equivalent to that of pure ammonia at 20 bar. Under high pressure (20 bar), for  
 361 either pure ammonia or ammonia/hydrogen mixture, limited benefit would be brought by more oxygen involved  
 362 in oxidizer. In the LJEG common work condition, the pressure in the external combustor will be maintained in  
 363 the range of 10 – 20 bar, which indicates an increase of oxygen content in oxidizer having limited positive  
 364 impact on solving ammonia ignition delay along with hydrogen addition as a combustion promoter.



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





367 Figure 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):  $\phi = 1.1, x\%H_2 = 0.0, T = 1400 K, P = 1 bar$ .

### 370 5.3 Flame species

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

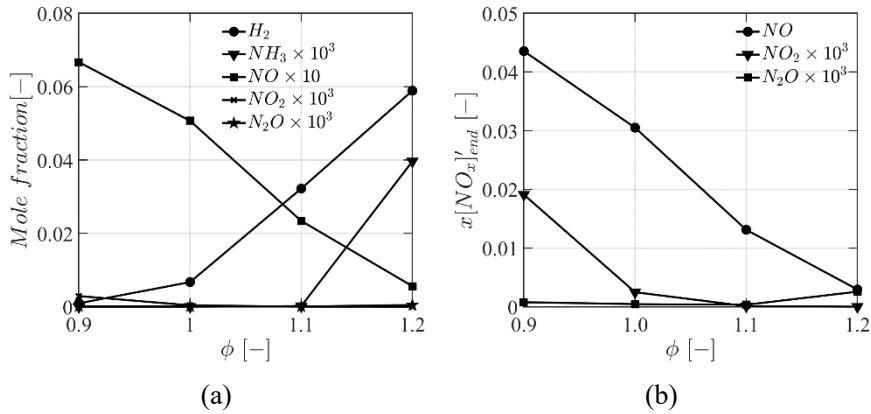
376  
 377 Figure 8(a) depicts the mole fractions of  $NH_3, H_2, NO, NO_2, N_2O$  emissions at the equivalence ratio from 0.9 –  
 378 1.2 for a 70% $NH_3$ /30% $H_2$  flame. The detailed inlet components are shown in Table 3. It can be seen that  $NO_2$   
 379 and  $N_2O$  emissions are nearly zero and the dominant  $NO_x$  emission in ammonia/hydrogen combustion is  $NO$ ,  
 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  
 384 and ammonia in rich flames and high  $NO_x$  emission in lean flames, an equivalence ratio of  $1.0 < \phi < 1.1$  is

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

390  
 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  $NO$  ( $HNO + H = NO +$   
 393  $H_2, HNO + OH = NO + H_2O$ ) and partly through thermal- $NO$ , while  $NO$  is consumed primarily through the  
 394 reaction with  $NH_i$  ( $NH, NH_2$ ) and partly through the reverse reaction of thermal- $NO$  mechanism ( $N_2 +$   
 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  $H$   
 399 is 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).

402 Table 3 Inlet components under various equivalence ratio.

Case	$\phi$	$x\%H_2$	$\Omega$	$x[NH_3]$	$x[H_2]$	$x[O_2]$	$x[N_2]$
1	0.9			0.15	0.07	0.16	0.62
2	1.0	0.3	0.21	0.17	0.07	0.16	0.60
3	1.1			0.18	0.08	0.16	0.59
4	1.2			0.19	0.08	0.15	0.58



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

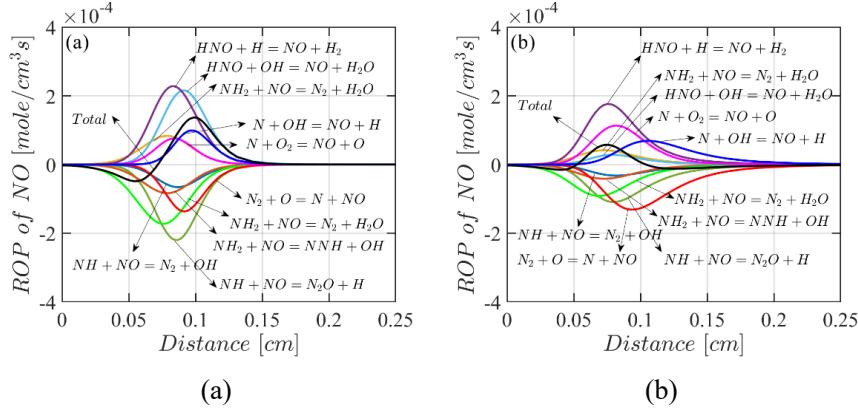


Figure 9. ROP analysis of  $NO$  at (a)  $\phi = 0.9$  and (b)  $\phi = 1.2$ .

406

407 In Figure 10(a), the effect of hydrogen fraction in fuel blend on emissions of ammonia/hydrogen flame is  
 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  
 412 mole fraction shown in Table 4. Through the ROP analysis in Figure 11, it is concluded that although the  
 413 production rates of both fuel-bound  $NO$  and thermal- $NO$  rise under a higher hydrogen blending ratio, thermal-  
 414  $NO$  ( $N_2 + O = N + NO$ ) has a greater impact on  $NO$  consumption. Extra  $NO$  consumption may dynamically  
 415 balance most of intensified  $NO$  production. Consequently, it shows a marginal increase of  $NO$  concentration in  
 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.  
 418 Hydrogen is mainly formed through the reactions of  $NH_i$  ( $NH_3, NH_2, NH, N_2H_2$ ) +  $H$ , the reaction of  
 419  $NH_i$  (e.g.  $NH_2 + NH_3, NH_2 + NH_2$ ) as well as  $HNO + H$ . Hydrogen is mainly consumed through the  
 420 hydrogen oxidation ( $H_2 + O$  and  $H_2 + OH$ ). As hydrogen mole fraction in the fuel rises, the hydrogen  
 421 oxidation is promoted, especially, the reaction of  $H_2 + OH = H + H_2O$ . Hence, although more hydrogen is  
 422 introduced into the fuel, the unburnt hydrogen in the post-flame zone at  $\phi = 1.1$  keeps almost the same.

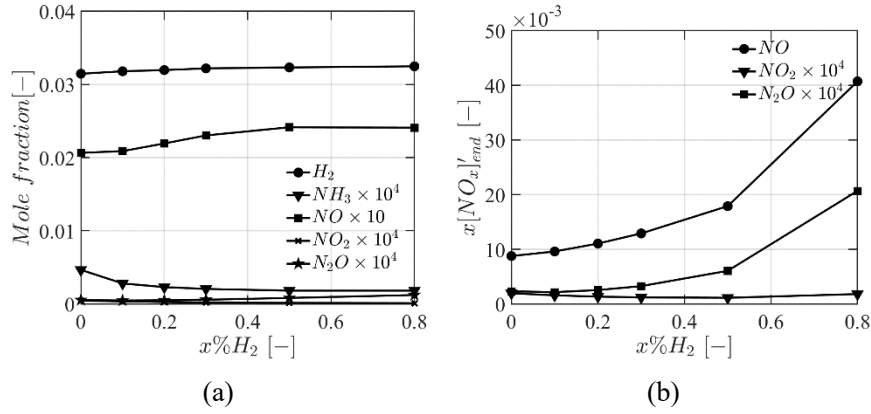
423

Table 4 Inlet components under various hydrogen blending ratio.

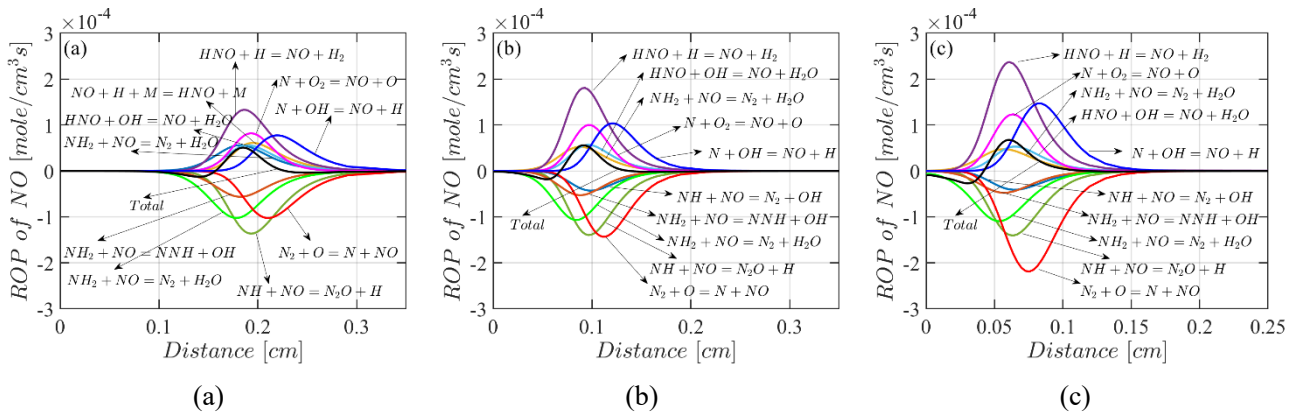
Case	$\phi$	$x\%H_2$	$\Omega$	$x[NH_3]$	$x[H_2]$	$x[O_2]$	$x[N_2]$
1		0.0		0.24	0.00	0.16	0.60
2		0.1		0.22	0.02	0.16	0.60
3	1.1	0.2	0.21	0.20	0.05	0.16	0.59
4		0.3		0.18	0.08	0.16	0.59
5		0.5		0.13	0.13	0.15	0.58
6		0.8		0.06	0.24	0.15	0.56

424

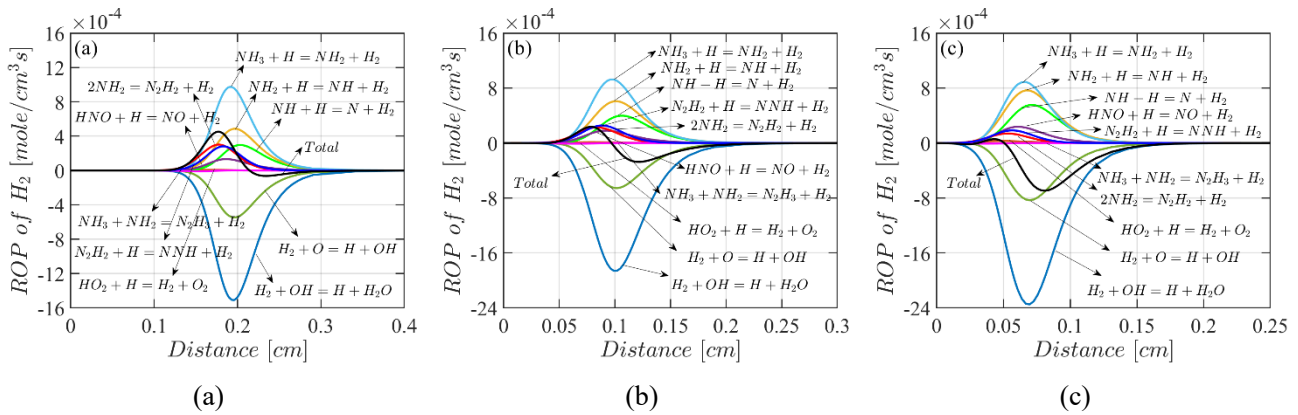




425 Figure 10. Mole fractions of  $NH_3, H_2, NO, NO_2, N_2O$  emissions and normalized  $NO_x$  emission at different  
 426 hydrogen blending ratios ( $\phi = 1.1, T = 500\text{ K}, P = 1\text{ bar}$ ).



427 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  
 433 content in oxidizer increases from 0.21 (air) to 1.00 (pure oxygen) in Figure 14. Fuel-bound  $NO$  reaction  
 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

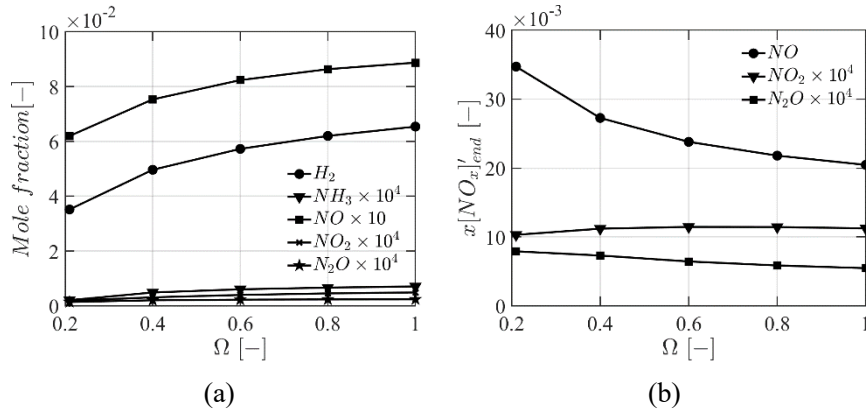


437 (see Table 5), the ammonia concentration is increased in the fuel when the oxygen content is enhanced in oxidizer.  
 438 Thus, the normalized  $NO$  emission is decreased as shown in Figure 13(b). It is concluded that the increase of  
 439 absolute  $NO$  emission is caused by the result of offsetting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

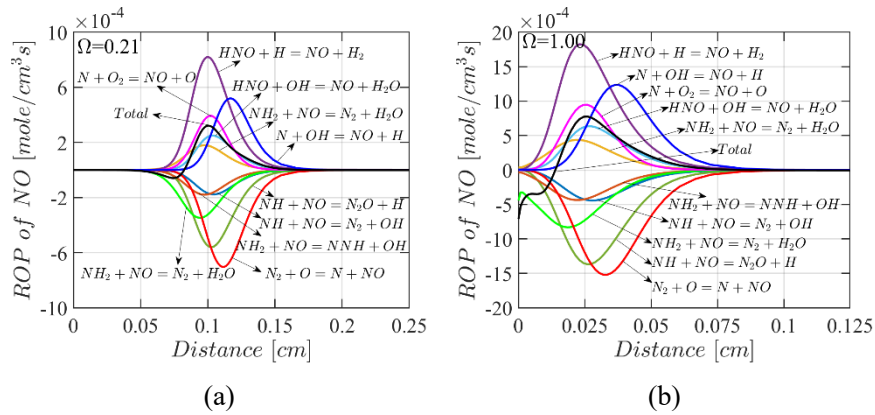
446 Table 5 Inlet components under various oxygen contents in the oxidizer.

Case	$\phi$	$x\%H_2$	$\Omega$	$x[NH_3]$	$x[H_2]$	$x[O_2]$	$x[N_2]$
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	0.19	0.38	0.00

447



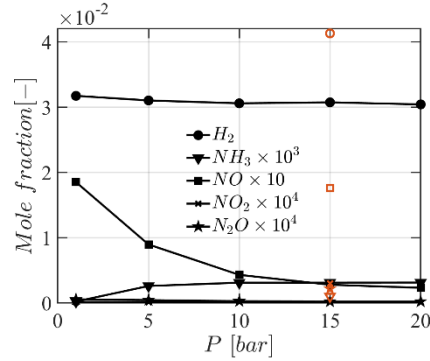
448 Figure 13. Mole fractions of  $NH_3, H_2, NO, NO_2, N_2O$  emissions and normalized  $NO_x$  emission with oxygen  
 449 content at the range of 0.21 – 1.00 for 70% $NH_3$ /30% $H_2$  flame ( $\phi = 1.1, T = 500 K, P = 1 bar$ ).



450 Figure 14. ROP analysis for  $NO$  with (a) 0.21 and (b) 1.00 oxygen content in the oxidizer at  $T =$   
 451  $500 K, P = 1 bar$ .

452 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  
 455 decreasing as inlet pressure rises. The change is more significant from 1 bar to 10 bar compared to that from  
 456 10 bar to 20 bar. A similar finding is mentioned in the study of premixed ammonia/methane combustion [17].  
 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.



461  
 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

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

470  
 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  
 473 high 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  
 478 beneficial 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  
 484 robustness when a stable flame is formed. Oxygen enrichment also has a significant and positive impact on  
 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.

488

489 In terms of ignition delay, as discussed in Section 5.2, 20% hydrogen addition already significantly reduces  
490 ignition delay time nonetheless 30% hydrogen addition applied. The common work condition of the LJEG, i.e.,  
491 15 bar at the inlet of the external combustor, has a major effect on reducing ignition delay. Jointly, the  
492 requirement of a short ignition delay also can be met with the abovementioned condition, i.e., 30% hydrogen  
493 addition, 15 bar inlet pressure and equivalent ratio of 1.1.

494  
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  $NO_x$   
505 emission 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  $N_2O$  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.

510  
511 With the advantageous parameter combination of equivalence ratio, hydrogen addition, and oxygen content, and  
512 the typical input parameters of the LJEG ( $T = 600\text{ K}, P = 15\text{ bar}$ ), 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  
515 consumption 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.

## 519 520 6. Conclusions

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  $NO_x$  emission combustion in the proposed LJEG prototype. The major conclusions are summarised as follows.

- 530 • 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  
532 equivalence ratio of 1.1 is beneficial for both combustion robustness and emission reduction.

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- 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<sub>2</sub>O 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<sub>2</sub>/70%NH<sub>3</sub>, Ω = 0.3, φ = 1.1, T<sub>1</sub> = 600 K, P<sub>1</sub> = 15 bar is selected. Result shows NO emission is around 1.7% while 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 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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551 **Acknowledgments:** The authors appreciate the support from EPSRC (Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council, United Kingdom) on the project – Powering Carbon-free Autonomous Shipping: Ammonia/Hydrogen dual-fuelled Linear Engine-Generator (EP/S00193X/2).

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554 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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