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# Investigation of safety related ignition processes of laminar strained premixed stoichiometric $NH_3$ - $H_2$ -air flames<sup>\*</sup>

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# ABSTRACT

The ignition properties of ammonia  $(NH_3)$  / hydrogen  $(H_2)$  mixtures are important because of their abundance in chemical engineering processes, and also because of their prospective role as fuels in future energy systems. In particular, the question arises if and how important characteristics like ignition limits and minimum ignition energies in NH<sub>3</sub>/H<sub>2</sub> mixtures are related to the physical conditions. To address these questions, this work studies ignition process in ammonia/hydrogen mixtures by numerical simulations. These track the evolution of ammonia/hydrogen mixtures during and after the deposition of a certain ignition energy, using a detailed treatment of chemical reactions and molecular transport. Studies on the influence of initial and boundary conditions on the minimally required ignition energy are performed. These are the strain rate, hydrogen content, pressure and initial (pre-ignition) temperature. Significant findings include a sharp, linear correlation between the transition strain rate, defined as the strain rate below which no external energy is required to initiate successful ignition (auto-ignition) and a characteristic reaction time, defined as the inverse of ignition delay time in homogeneous, quiescent mixtures. Also, the relative decay of minimum ignition energy with increasing hydrogen content is less pronounced for higher pressures. Analysis of the results supports a knowledge-based approach towards fail-proof ignition devices and reliable prevention of hazards. The simulations are used for assessing the ignitability of ammonia and its mixtures with hydrogen.

# 1. Introduction

Spark ignition is an important aspect of fundamental and applied combustion research. It typically involves a complex interaction of physical and chemical processes. For example, flame initiation and propagation is impaired in mixtures with Lewis numbers above unity (Le > 1). Compared to Le = 1, more ignition energy must therefore be applied to trigger successful ignition. Also, induced flow fields can interfere more strongly with the ignition process for Le > 1 compared to Le = 1, leading to a larger degree of variation in the ignition process (Essmann et al., 2020). Therefore, flame propagation for mixtures with a Lewis number considerably above unity can be dominated by flow effects (spark assisted flame propagation) during the critical phase (Bradley and Lung, 1987).

While spark ignition processes have been studied for various hydrocarbon fuels under a wide range of conditions, the knowledge base on spark ignition in ammonia is still scarce. This contrasts with the increasing interest on ammonia as a carbon-free fuel (see e.g. Valera-Medina et al. (2018) for an overview).

The reactivity of pure ammonia is generally low, causing it to be prone to flame blow-off. Also, the minimum ignition energy required to burn ammonia/air mixtures is by orders of magnitude higher than that of, e.g., hydrogen cite whom???

Also, the laminar burning velocity of ammonia/air mixtures is significantly lower than that of e.g., hydrogen (Ichikawa et al., 2015).

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Thus, adding hydrogen is a common way to improve the ignitability and general combustion properties of ammonia (Li et al., 2021). Addition of hydrogen to ammonia mixtures can, more generally, enhance combustion properties, e.g., yield higher flame speeds. At sufficient hydrogen addition levels, ammonia fuel may exhibit a lower propensity of flame extinction compared to a methane/air flame (Wiseman et al., 2021). Ammonia/hydrogen mixtures can also readily be produced on a large scale, e.g., by partial cracking of ammonia (Abbas and Daud, 2010), or also directly be obtained from ammonia production processes by incomplete conversion of the initial nitrogen/hydrogen mixture.

A particularly complicated (and particularly important) configuration occurs when an ignition event is embedded into a turbulent flow. High turbulence intensities impose high strain rates on the flow, and, as a general tendency, achieving successful ignition is more difficult in flows with higher strain rates Huang et al. (2007); De Soete (1971); Shy et al. (2017). For the development of practical devices, it is therefore important to assess how ignition in hydrogen/ammonia mixtures reacts to strain rate.

The present work focuses on investigating safety-related ignition process of ammonia/air mixtures with different level of  $H_2$  addition. The investigation is based on numerical simulations involving detailed treatment of chemical reaction and transport, on the influence of strain rate and pre-heat temperature on ignition is performed. From an analysis of the data, insight is gained that can support the development of reliable ignition systems and ignition-hazard proof devices dealing with ammonia/hydrogen mixtures.

The paper is structured as follows: First, details of the model and its numerical implementation are explained, and a validation of simulations against published experimental data is given. Then, simulation data on the dependence of ignition characteristics on initial and boundary conditions are presented. Finally, the significance of these results for the design of devices that intend to initiate or to prevent ignition is discussed.

still more citations in intro? ... I moved some from results part to intro, where they seemed to fit better. e.g.: DNS of turbulent NH3/H2/N2 flames (A. Gruber et al),

# 2. Modeling and numerical method

The physical model used fore the study is presented in Fig.1. A strained premixed flame is considered, where flows of premixed unburned gas impinge and mix, formation a stagnation point. Both flows have identical temperature, pressure and chemical composition, but different velocities relative to the stagnation point. In this system, an ignition energy is released at some spatial domain and for some time. Depending on the flow velocity, the system can lead to a stable flame or flame extinguish.



Figure 1: Schematic illustration of the strained premixed laminar flame.

We consider a one-dimensional flame in counterflow configuration, using a two-parameter formulation based on tangential pressure gradient J and radial velocity gradient G, as described in detail in Stahl and Warnatz (1991), to describe the flow field. This model depends only on one spatial variable (the z-axis, i.e., the flame surface normal direction) with infinite extent in the other two directions (slab geometry) with the domain  $z \ge 0$  due to symmetry.

The strain rate describes the "strength" of the flow which is constant throughout the whole flow, and can be determined by means of the tangential pressure gradient J as (Stahl and Warnatz, 1991):

$$a = \sqrt{-\frac{J}{\rho_{\rm ub}}},\tag{1}$$

where  $\rho_{ub}$  is the density of the unburned gas.

The spark ignition energy is modelled using a prescribed spatio-temporal power density  $\dot{q}_s$  according to Maas et al. (1988):

$$\dot{q}_{s}(z,t) = \begin{cases} \frac{D_{s}}{\tau_{s}} \cdot \exp\left[-\left(\frac{z}{\delta_{W}}\right)^{8}\right] & \text{for } 0 \le t \le \tau_{s}, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(2)

Here,  $D_s$  is the maximum energy density  $(J/m^3)$  at z = 0, and  $\delta_w$  is the spark width.  $\tau_s$  is the spark duration time describing how long the spark energy is provided into the system. Note that this reflects the spark energy of practical device, as shown in Maas et al. (1988), and no energy exists for  $r \to \infty$ . Based on  $\dot{q}_s(z, t)$ , one can also calculate the total deposited energy  $E_s$  per surface (in J/m<sup>2</sup>), which can be determined as:

$$E_{\rm s} = \int_{z=-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{t=0}^{\tau_{\rm s}} \dot{q}_{\rm s}(z,t) dt dz = 2 \cdot D_{\rm s} \cdot \delta_{\rm W} \cdot \Gamma\left(\frac{9}{8}\right)$$
(3)

where  $\Gamma(\cdot)$  is the gamma function ( $\Gamma(9/8) \approx 0.94174$ ).

For the numerical simulation, the system of PDEs requires initial and boundary conditions for a unique solution. Initially, all the thermo-kinetic states such as temperature (T(z, t)) and species concentrations (mass fraction  $w_i(z, t)$ ) are homogeneously distributed through the whole spatial domain. In other words, no spatial gradients of temperature and species concentrations exist:

$$T(z, t = 0) = T_{\rm ub}, \quad w_i(z, t = 0) = w_{i,0}.$$
(4)

- Left boundary: we set the symmetry line (z = 0 in Fig.??) as the left boundary. Neumann boundary conditions are specified for temperature T(z, t) and species concentrations  $w_i(z, t)$ :  $\partial T/\partial z|_{z=0} = 0$ , and  $\partial w_i/\partial z|_{z=0} = 0$ . The velocity is v = 0 because it corresponds to the stagnation point.
- Right boundary: Dirichlet boundary conditions are specified. Values of temperature  $T = T_{ub}$  and species concentrations  $w_i = w_{i,0}$  remain unchanged at any time here. Furthermore, a constant value of the tangential pressure gradient J is also specified here in order to define the strain rate imposed on the system (c.f. Fig.1).

Simulations are initialized with a homogeneous distribution of species mass fractions ( $w_i(z, t = 0) = w_{i,ub}$ ) and temperature ( $T(z, t = 0) = T_{ub}$ ), with index "ub" specifying the unburnt gas. The pressure for the present work is assumed to be constant during the whole spark and combustion processes with p = 1 bar. The constant pressure considered in the present work is a good approximation if the spark duration is longer than 0.01 ms (Maas et al., 1988). The left boundary is specified at the the symmetry axis (z = 0) where a Neumann condition (zero gradient) is applied for the species mass fractions and temperature, and the velocity is v = 0. On the right side, a Dirichlet boundary condition (fixed value) is used for species mass fractions and temperature. Furthermore, the tangential pressure gradient J is also given as input into the system for the specification of the strain rate imposed to the flame.

A detailed transport model including the thermal diffusion (Soret effect) (Hirschfelder et al., 1964) is considered in the simulation. Furthermore, the thermal radiation is neglected. However, it is worth studying the radiation effect on the  $NH_3$  combustion system in the future.

The model is simulated numerically using the in-house code INSFLA (Maas and Warnatz, 1988). This code solves for the spatio-temporal evolution of the underlying system of PDEs for the given initial and boundary conditions using the method of lines. This involves an error-control based automatic adaptive time stepping.

#### 2.1. Gas mixture and chemical mechanism

H<sub>2</sub>-enriched stoichiometric ammonia/air mixtures, are considered in this study. The amount of H<sub>2</sub> is described by the mole fraction  $\alpha_{H_2}$  of H<sub>2</sub> in the fuel:

$$\alpha_{\rm H_2} {\rm H_2} + (1 - \alpha_{\rm H_2}) {\rm NH_3} + \left(0.75 - \frac{\alpha_{\rm H_2}}{4}\right) ({\rm O_2} + \frac{79}{21} {\rm N_2}),$$
(5)

where  $\Phi$  is the fuel/air equivalence ratio.

In this work, we focus on stoichiometric mixtures with varying H<sub>2</sub> content, as  $0 \le \alpha_{H_2} \le 0.4$ . This is motivated mainly by the following:

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		mole fraction			
$\alpha_{H_2}$	$H_2$	$NH_3$	$O_2$	$N_2$	
0.0	0.0	0.2188	0.1641	0.6171	
0.1	0.0225	0.2021	0.1628	0.6162	
0.2	0.0462	0.1846	0.1615	0.6077	
0.3	0.0712	0.1661	0.1602	0.6025	
0.4	0.0977	0.1465	0.1587	0.5971	
1.0	0.2958	0.0	0.1479	0.5563	

#### Table 1

Mole fractions of species in stoichiometric NH<sub>3</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>-air mixtures

- (i) previous works performed by Božo et al. (2019) have suggested the use of blends with less than 40% hydrogen concentration to maintain stable combustion in turbulent, swirling flames.
- (ii) The work, expanded recently to various equivalence ratios (Mashruk et al., 2022), also suggests that the increase to 50% hydrogen leads to hydrogen overtaking the combustion profile, even creating two flame fronts (Valera-Medina et al., 2018; Goldmann and Dinkelacker, 2021).
- (iii) Finally, with increasing hydrogen content, the high temperature hydrogen attack (HTHA) might become serious and destroy the material in real applications (Cesaro et al., 2021). This, in turn, leads to lower efficiencies.

Therefore, it was decided that values  $0 \le \alpha_{H_2} \le 40\%$  would be investigated in the present work, as these would keep ammonia-based features whilst being more representative to future industrial systems working on ammonia/hydrogen blends. Pure ammonia gas ( $\alpha_{H_2} = 0.0$ ) and pure hydrogen gas ( $\alpha_{H_2} = 1.0$ ) are also considered as references, comparing the performance with the hydrogen-enriched ammonia. Tab.1 lists mole fractions of species concentrations for stoichiometric unburnt NH<sub>3</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>-air gas mixture for different H<sub>2</sub> addition levels ( $\alpha_{H_2}$ ).

To perform the numerical simulation, the Li-2019 detailed chemical mechanism is used for the numerical simulation of the considered combustion system (Li et al., 2019). This mechanism, which is originally designed for  $NH_3-H_2-CH_4$  air combustion system, consists of 128 reactive species and 957 reactions and has been validated against recent literature experimental data such as ignition delay times, laminar burning velocities, and speciation. Good performance has been reported (Li et al., 2019). Removing all species including hydrocarbon and inertgas such as Ar and He, the remaining mechanism has 34 species and 252 reactions.

Figure 2 compares the predicted laminar burning velocities ( $S_L$ ) with various experimental measurements of NH<sub>3</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>-air laminar premixed flames at 1 bar and an initial temperature of 298 K. In general, the chemical mechanism gives qualitatively good agreement. It should be emphasized that due to the low burning velocities of ammonia, the influence of buoyancy is more important, especially for the spherically expanding flames Hayakawa et al. (2015a). The few known experiments therefore vary in part by up to 50% from each other. Here we should mention that the over-prediction for some situations is also observed using other mechanisms, and reported in other literature Yin et al. (2022).

Figure 3 compares furthermore the predicted extinction strain rates (ESR)  $a_E$  with experiment measurements (Colson et al., 2016) of a NH<sub>3</sub>-air strained premixed laminar flame at 1 atm and 5 atm. Good agreement can be observed, although the ESR at 5 atm is over-predicted.

## 2.2. Failed and successful ignition

For spark ignition scenarios, two qualitatively different outcomes are possible, namely a failure to ignite or a successful ignition, followed by a self-sustained flame propagation.

Fig.4 and 5 show representative spatial profiles for temperature- and mass fractions of NH<sub>2</sub> and HNO for a NH<sub>3</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>/air combustion system at different times during a failed and successful ignition, respectively. The red profiles correspond to times where ignition energy is still supplied, blue lines represent times after the ignition source has shut down. The tow cases differ only by the deposited energy: for failed ignition (Fig.4),  $D_s = 310 \text{ kJ/m}^3$ , and for a successful ignition shown (Fig.5),  $D_s = 320 \text{ kJ/m}^3$  (corresponding to the minimum spark ignition energy  $D_s^{min}$  for a successful ignition). Temperature at the ignition location increases continuously during the spark duration, because the gas mixture is heated up through the ignition energy. After the spark duration time,



Figure 2: Comparison between simulation results and the measurements from Han et.al. (Han et al., 2019a,b), Hayakawa et.al. (Hayakawa et al., 2015b), Ronney et.al. (Ronney, 1988), Lhuillier et.al. (Lhuillier et al., 2020), Kumar and Meyer Kumar and Meyer (2013), Wang et.al. (Wang et al., 2020) for laminar burning velocities  $S_L$  of NH<sub>3</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>-air mixtures at 1 bar and an initial temperature of 298 K.



Figure 3: Comparison between simulation results and the measurements from Colson et al. (2016) for extinction strain rate  $a_E$  of a NH<sub>3</sub>-air strained premixed laminar flame at 1 atm and 5 atm.

- for a failed SI (Fig.4), the temperature of the whole system is the same as the initial temperature (temperature is homogeneous distributed) at the steady state. The species such as NH<sub>2</sub> and HNO, which are shown here, are slightly produced and then consumed rapidly, such that no these intermediate species are produced at the steady state over the whole system domain.
- for a successful SI (Fig.5), after a certain time we obtain a stable steady burning flame at steady state.

In the following discussion, we will focus on the minimum ignition energy density  $D_s^{\min}$  required for a successful ignition. The effect of the amount of added co-fuel (H<sub>2</sub>), the strain rate *a*, pressure *p* and the gas mixture temperature  $T_{ub}$  on the  $D_s^{\min}$  will be investigated and discussed in detail.

# 3. Results and discussion

The effect of spark ignition parameters has been investigated in details with mathematical formulation in Ref.??, therefore in the present work, focus will be put on the effect of strain rate imposed in the flow, of the pressure of the combustion system and, especially, of the hydrogen content as co-fuel and of the gas mixture temperature. All the simulations are performed with spark width  $\delta_w = 1$  mm and spark duration time  $\tau_s = 1$  ms.

Ignition NH<sub>3</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>-air laminar strained premixed flame



Figure 4: Time development of spatial profiles of temperature and selected species mass fractions for a typical failed spark ignition.



Figure 5: Time development of spatial profiles of temperature and selected species mass fractions for a typical successful spark ignition.

# 3.1. Effect of strain rate

Figure 6 shows the dependence of  $D_s^{min}$  on strain rate for stoichiometric mixture with different H<sub>2</sub> addition under pressure p = 1 bar. A monotonic increasing of  $D_s^{min}$  with increasing strain rate is observed here. Note that the tendency ends up at the extinction strain rate (ESR), above which no stable burning solution can be obtained. It can be clearly seen that the ESR increases with increasing H<sub>2</sub> content. Such tendency of the ESR is consistent with observed in e.g. Lee and Kwon (2011), and the effect of H<sub>2</sub> addition on ESR is beyond scope of this work. Note that, although it is not shown here, such tendency also holds for other system pressures. Such dependence can be attributed to two main reasons:

- the higher the strain rate is, the higher the flow velocity (and consequently the mass flux) is. Therefore, if the flow is imposed with higher strain rate, more unburned gas mixture per time unit passes the spark ignition regime. Therefore, at the end of the spark duration, the temperature becomes lower with increasing strain rate, as shown in Fig.7. Therefore, more spark energy must be provided to heat up the unburned gas mixture for flow with increasing strain rate.
- the higher the strain rate is, the higher the rate of energy transport (convection and heat conductivity) is: high convection due to high flow velocity; and high rate of heat conductivity due to high spatial gradient of temperature. Therefore more spark energy must be provided with increasing strain rates to compensate increasing rate of energy transport.

In practical combustion devices, flows with higher turbulence intensity impose higher strain rates, indicating that more spark energy is required for flows with higher turbulence. This is also observed in e.g. Huang et al. (2007); De Soete (1971); Shy et al. (2017).



**Figure 6:** Dependence of the  $D_s^{min}$  against strain rate for different levels of H<sub>2</sub> in the fuel. Igniter:  $\delta_w = 1$ mm and  $\tau_s = 1$ ms; p = 1bar,  $T_{ub} = 300$ K.



**Figure 7:** The temperature profiles at  $t = \tau_s$  for flows with different strain rates under p = 1 bar for stoichiometric mixture with NH<sub>3</sub>:H<sub>2</sub>=0.9:0.1. Unburnt mixture gas temperature:  $T_{ub} = 300$ K. Spark energy density  $D_s^{min} = 345$  kJ/m<sup>3</sup>.

#### 3.2. Effect of hydrogen content

In this section, we investigate the effect of H<sub>2</sub> content in the gas mixture on the ignition energy, as listed in Tab.1. Besides the Fig. 6 where one compares the  $D_s^{\min}$  over strain rate for different levels of H<sub>2</sub> addition, Fig.8 shows the dependence of  $D_s^{\min}$  on H<sub>2</sub> content for three different pressures under the same flow strain rate, and the Fig.9 shows further the relative deviations  $\frac{D_s^{\min}}{D_s^{\min}(\text{pure H}_2)}$ .

We observe that the pure  $N\dot{H}_3$ -air gas mixture required much higher spark energy. For example, at 10 bar and 20 bar, the  $D_s^{min}$  of pure  $NH_3$ -air is around 20% higher than the  $D_s^{min}$  of mixture with 10%  $H_2$  addition, and around 20% higher than the  $D_s^{min}$  of pure  $H_2$ -air mixture. Such fact that the pure  $NH_3$ -air mixture is difficult to be ignited has also been confirmed in many other study **REFERENCES**.

Focusing on the H<sub>2</sub>-enriched ammonia gas mixture, we observe a clear monotonic decrease of the  $D_s^{\min}$  with increasing H<sub>2</sub>-content. This is because of the two main reasons:

- the heat capacity decreases with increasing H<sub>2</sub> content, therefore less energy is required for the system to reach sufficiently high temperatures required for a successful ignition;
- with the increasing of H<sub>2</sub> content in the gas mixture, the chemical reactions become faster and the gas mixtures can be self-ignited faster after removing the spark.



**Figure 8:** Dependence of the  $D_s^{\min}$  on different levels of H<sub>2</sub> in the fuel for different pressures. Flow strain rate:  $a = 100s^{-1}$ ;  $T_{ub} = 300$ K.



Figure 9: Dependence of the  $D_s^{\min}/D_s^{\min}$  (pure H<sub>2</sub>) on the pressure for flow imposed with strain rate  $a = 100s^{-1}$ .  $T_{ub} = 300$ K.

#### 3.3. Effect of pressure

Figure 9 discussed above shows that the addition of  $H_2$  at p = 1 bar can largely reduce the  $D_s^{min}$ , while the addition of  $H_2$  at p = 10 bar and 20 bar becomes less effective to reduce the  $D_s^{min}$ . Here we must find out some reasons. Check IDT. Such effect can be reflected in the ignition delay of ammonia-hydrogen mixtures at elevated pressures, as reported in He et al. [ref, He CnF 2019] the addition of small amount of hydrogen in ammonia (e.g., 1 and 5 percent) at 20 and 40 bar can significantly reduce the IDT of the gas mixtures, however, the efficiency of hydrogen addition of 10 and 20 percent is much weaker and the IDT of ammonia-hydrogen mixtures which contain hydrogen more than 20 percent are very close to the pure hydrogen

Figure 10 shows the influence of the pressure on the  $D_s^{\min}$ . The flow is imposed with strain rate  $a = 100s^{-1}$ , which is considered as representative example. The numerical results here show that the  $D_s^{\min}$  increases with increasing pressure, which is consistent to the statement in Maas and Warnatz (1988). This is attributed to the fact that, as stated in Maas and Warnatz (1988), higher pressures correspond to higher heat capacities inside the spark volume, leading to an increase of required spark ignition energies.

# 3.4. Pre-heating: Gas mixture temperature

Figure 11 shows  $D_s^{min}$  against strain rate for various initial gas temperatures. It is straightforward and also well known that with increasing gas temperatures, gas needs less spark ignition energy to be heated up to reach the necessary ignition temperature. However, if we further increase the gas temperature, we would expect that the gas mixture can be

(i) self-ignited due to its sufficient high temperature (correspondingly short ignition delay times), or

Ignition NH<sub>3</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>-air laminar strained premixed flame



Figure 10: Dependence of the  $D_s^{\min}$  on the pressure for flow imposed with strain rate  $a = 100s^{-1}$ .  $T_{ub} = 300$ K.

(ii) forced ignited only we provide the external spark energy, depending on the flow strength.

This can be observed through the blue line in Fig.11, where the initial gas temperature is  $T_{ub} = 1000$  K: at low strain rate regime (here  $a < 674 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ), no external spark energy is required ( $D_s^{\min} = 0$ ) and the gas mixture can self-ignite due to its own fast reaction rate; at high strain rate regime (here  $a > 674 \text{ s}^{-1}$ ) the external spark energy is required to force the gas mixture to be ignited. As we observe, there exists a so-called transition strain rate  $a_{\text{trans}}$  which distinguishes between the self ignition and the spark ignition.



**Figure 11:** CHANGE !!! The dependence of  $D_s^{min}$  on gas temperature  $T_{ub}$  for flames under p = 1 bar. Stoichiometric gas mixture with NH<sub>3</sub>:H<sub>2</sub>=0.9:0.1. Igniter parameter:  $\delta_w = 1$ mm,  $\tau_s = 1$  ms.

Since the gas mixture with sufficient temperatures can be self-ignited rapidly, the characteristic reaction rate  $k(T_{ub})$  at  $T_{ub}$ , which is defined as the inverse of the ignition delay time, can be introduced:

$$k(T_{\rm ub}) = \frac{1}{\tau_{\rm ign}(T_{\rm ub})}.$$
(6)

This characteristic reaction rate is a suitable quantity to measure how fast the reaction of a combustion system takes place, which was discussed in detail in Livengood and Wu (1955).

The dependence of  $a_{\text{trans}}$  on the gas temperature  $T_{ub}$  is represented in Fig.12 for different levels of H<sub>2</sub> addition and pure H<sub>2</sub> and pure NH<sub>3</sub> gas mixture at normal and elevated pressures. In order to clarify the physical meanings, the characteristic reaction rates  $k(T_{ub})$  over the considered gas temperature regimes are also represented in Fig.13. The

first straightforward observation is that the pure  $NH_3$ -air has a very low  $a_{trans}$  for all considered pressures. This is attributed to the fact that for a pre-heated pure  $NH_3$ -air gas mixture, it can be very difficult to achieve self-ignition due to its low reaction rate (c.f. blue lines in Fig.13) and burning rate (Valera-Medina et al., 2019). A reliable combustion is achievable only when one provides external spark ignition. From the other side, the pure  $NH_3$ -air gas mixture has the lowest possibility of hazardous explosion danger.

The phenomenon becomes more complicated if the ammonia is mixed with hydrogen. As we observe from Fig.12, for mixtures with 10% and 20% H<sub>2</sub> enrichment, the pressures promote the reaction rates and consequently the selfignition against the flow strain rate for the considered temperatures, and the  $a_{trans}$  increases with increasing pressure monotonically. However, the  $a_{trans}$  and  $k(T_{ub})$  change non-monotonically with the pressures for higher H<sub>2</sub> content in the gas mixture: both quantities first decrease (here from 1 bar to 10 bar) then increase (here from 10 bar to 20 bar) for the considered temperature range. For the pure H<sub>2</sub>-air mixture, as explained in Zhao et al. (2011), such non-monotonic behavior is due to the competition between the chain branching reactions (e.g.  $H+O_2=O+OH$  and  $H_2O_2+M=2OH+M$ ) and the chain termination reaction (e.g.  $H+O_2+M=HO_2+M$ ) which strongly depend on the high pressure. The key chemical reactions for the NH<sub>3</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>-air gas mixtures with higher H<sub>2</sub> content (here higher than 30%) to explain such nonmonotonic behavior at high pressures, to author's knowledge, has not yet been intensively reported, which is beyond the scope of this work and requires further study @Bo: Is this correct? @Chunkan: in the case that hydrogen content is more than 30 percent, the hydrogen ignition will dominate the whole chemistry, i.e, the explanation for hydrogen-air mixture can be adopted for ammonia-hydrogen mixture. However, concerning the process safety, at higher pressures, the pre-heated NH<sub>3</sub>-H<sub>2</sub>-air mixtures with higher H<sub>2</sub> content are as easily self-ignited as pre-heated pure H<sub>2</sub>-air gas mixture under higher strain rates (similar order of magnitude of  $a_{trans}$  and  $k(T_{ub})$ ).



Figure 12: Dependence of the  $a_{\text{trans}}$  over the gas mixture temperature  $T_{ub}$  for three different pressures. The color lines are the same as in Fig.6.



**Figure 13:** Dependence of the characteristic reaction rate  $k(T_{ub})$  over the gas mixture temperature  $T_{ub}$  for three different pressures. The color lines are the same as in Fig.6.

Since the tendency of  $a_{\text{trans}}$  corresponds to the one of  $k(T_{\text{ub}})$ , Fig.14 shows the  $a_{\text{trans}}$  against the characteristic reaction rate  $k(T_{\text{ub}})$ . It is observed that there exists a quasi-linear correlation, and the linear regression model gives the

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relationship between the transition strain rate  $a_{\text{trans}}$  and the characteristic reaction rate  $k(T_{\text{ub}}) = 1/\tau_{\text{ign}}$  as

$$a_{\rm trans} \approx 4.545 \cdot k(T_{\rm ub}) \approx \frac{4.545}{\tau_{\rm ign}}.$$
 (7)

If the reaction rate tends to zero  $(k \rightarrow 0)$ , corresponding to an infinite reaction time, the gas mixture cannot also be self-ignited and  $a_{\text{trans}} \rightarrow 0$ .



**Figure 14:** Correlation between  $a_{\text{trans}}$  and characteristic reaction rate  $k = 1/\tau_{\text{ign}}$  for various mixture compositions and pressures.  $\blacktriangleleft$ : pure NH<sub>3</sub>;  $\blacktriangle$ : NH<sub>3</sub>:H<sub>2</sub>=0.9:0.1;  $\checkmark$ : NH<sub>3</sub>:H<sub>2</sub>=0.8:0.2;  $\bigstar$ : NH<sub>3</sub>:H<sub>2</sub>=0.7:0.3;  $\blacksquare$ : NH<sub>3</sub>:H<sub>2</sub>=0.6:0.4;  $\blacklozenge$ : pure H<sub>2</sub>.

This simple linear correlation provides the information that if one knows the ignition delay time of the gas mixture at one temperature, the transition strain rate  $a_{\text{trans}}$  can be easily determined. Hence, for the process safety, if the gas mixture is pre-heated, one can easily estimate the critical strain rate, under which the gas mixture can be self-ignited.

#### 4. Conclusion

The following issues are suggested to be discussed in the future:

- How large different chemical mechanisms?
- Whether using different chemical mechanisms also give the same correlation?

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