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Experimental investigation on laminar burning velocities of ammonia/hydrogen/air mixtures at elevated temperatures

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Abstract

The present study introduces new laminar burning velocity data for ammonia/hydrogen/air mixtures measured by means of the outwardly propagating spherical flame method at atmospheric pressure, for previously unseen unburned gas temperatures ranging from 298 to 473 K, hydrogen fractions ranging from 0 vol.% to 60 vol.% in the fuel and equivalence ratios in the range [0.8 – 1.4]. Results show increasing velocities with increasing hydrogen fraction and temperature, with maximum values obtained for rich mixtures near stoichiometry. The new experimental dataset is compared to dedicated laminar burning velocity correlations from the literature and to simulations using detailed kinetic mechanisms. The ammonia/air correlation presents a good agreement with measurements over the whole range of experimental conditions. The ammonia/hydrogen/air correlation captures the effect of the initial temperature satisfactorily for equivalence ratios below 1.3 and hydrogen fractions below 50 vol.% in the fuel, but discrepancies are observed in other conditions. The effect of hydrogen addition is reproduced satisfactorily for hydrogen fractions between 20 and 40 vol.% in the fuel, but discrepancies are observed for rich mixtures

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below 20 vol.% hydrogen and for all mixtures containing 50 vol.% hydrogen and more. An optimization of both correlations is proposed thanks to the experimental data obtained, but only with partial improvement of the ammonia/hydrogen/air correlation. State-of-the-art detailed kinetic reaction mechanisms yield values in close agreement with the present experiments. They could thus be used along with additional experimental data from different techniques to develop more accurate correlations for time-effective laminar burning velocity estimates of $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ mixtures.

Keywords

Ammonia, Hydrogen, Laminar Burning Velocity, Elevated temperature, Spherical vessel, Sustainable fuel

1. Introduction

In response to growing concerns regarding climate change, a majority of governments have agreed on common objectives to mitigate this phenomenon [1]. A recent report by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change evaluated the possibilities and implications of a global warming limitation of 1.5°C above pre-industrial levels, that would alleviate the negative effects of climate change [2]. The report indicated that fossil-free Renewable Energy Sources (RES) should supply 52 to 67% of the total primary energy demand by 2050 in order to sufficiently cut carbon-based greenhouse gas emissions and thus ensure the warming limitation.

This transition will rely on diverse, mostly intermittent RES, such as wind or solar photovoltaic, and will thus require flexibility and grid-balancing strategies, as well as safe and efficient transport and storage. Power-to-Fuel strategies are promising options, in which excess electricity is used to produce hydrogen-based synthetic fuels in gaseous or liquid form. Those so-called electrofuels [3] present a high energy density ($> 4\text{-}5 \text{ MJ/l}$), are stable in time (seasonal or long-term storage), can be transported over long distances and their production can be carbon-neutral. In spite of being already and increasingly recognized as a fuel, molecular hydrogen (H_2) presents major drawbacks caused by its high volatility and flammability, including the need for a tailored infrastructure and the associated storage and transport costs and safety issues.

Ammonia (NH_3) has received recent interest as a carbon-free electrofuel [4,5] with a relatively high energy density (13 MJ/l), as it can be stored in liquid form under 1.1 MPa at 300 K and its lower heating

[Tapez ici]

52 value reaches 18.8 MJ/kg. Additionally, ammonia is already transported and stored safely at industrial scale,
53 which makes it a promising complementary alternative to molecular hydrogen. Current annual production
54 reaches 180 Mt worldwide, mostly from the Haber-Bosch process using steam methane reforming as the
55 main H₂ source. However, renewable hydrogen from electrolysis could be used instead while ensuring a
56 satisfactory stability of the Haber-Bosch process [6]. Grinberg Dana et al. showed that NH₃ exhibits the
57 highest Power-to-Fuel-to-Power ratio when compared with methane, methanol and dimethyl-ether [7].
58 However, the high corrosiveness and toxicity of ammonia require thorough safety precautions, especially
59 when final users are exposed.

60 Following these considerations, several studies focused on ammonia combustion, addressing many of
61 the remaining challenges regarding NH₃ fundamental combustion properties, chemical kinetics modeling or
62 combustion in gas turbines and internal combustion engines as single or dual fuel [8,9]. A major drawback
63 of NH₃ as a fuel is its very low combustion intensity, as illustrated by its Laminar Burning Velocity (LBV),
64 which is one order of magnitude smaller than that of conventional hydrocarbons in atmospheric conditions
65 [10–17]. This represents a challenge for NH₃ as a fuel in practical combustion systems, but also for laminar
66 flame experiments themselves, as noted by Pfahl et al. [12], Takizawa et al. [14] and Hayakawa et al. [15].
67 Indeed, as a function of the mixture composition, ignition energies have to be significantly higher than in the
68 case of conventional hydrocarbons. Moreover, as the LBV for NH₃/air mixtures is very slow, the buoyancy
69 effect can cause an outwardly propagating spherical flame (OPSF) to propagate upward as well as outward,
70 thus losing its spherical shape and compromising the measurement.

71 Several experimental studies have considered enhancing the combustion by seeding NH₃ with H₂, which
72 could conveniently be obtained from ammonia decomposition, leading to a significant increase in the LBV
73 and extending the flammability ranges. Lee et al. investigated the combustion properties of NH₃/H₂/air
74 premixed laminar OPSFs as a function of hydrogen fractions in the fuel blend, for several equivalence ratios
75 from fuel-lean to fuel-rich at Normal Temperature and Pressure (NTP), i.e. 298K, 0.1 MPa [18,19]. Li et al.,
76 by using the Bunsen burner method, provided LBV measurements for various NH₃/H₂/air mixtures at NTP
77 as a function of equivalence ratios [20]. Ichikawa et al. investigated the LBV and Markstein length of
78 several NH₃/H₂/air stoichiometric mixtures by means of the OPSF method also at 298 K but for an initial
[Tapez ici]

79 pressure ranging from 0.1 to 0.5 MPa [21]. Han et al. reported LBV measurements obtained by means of the
80 heat flux method, with NH₃ blended with H₂, CO or CH₄ as fuels and air as the oxidizer at NTP [22]. Kumar
81 and Meyer conducted Bunsen burner experiments for different NH₃/H₂ blends at NTP, but their results
82 contradict those of the previously mentioned studies [23].

83 All these studies reported that the addition of hydrogen to an NH₃ blend significantly increased the LBV
84 with a maximum value around an equivalence ratio of 1.1. However, only partial agreement is found
85 between the different literature sources and the LBV dataset for NH₃/H₂/air flames remains significantly
86 limited, especially at temperatures above 300 K and pressures above 0.1 MPa. Moreover, the comparisons
87 between LBV measurements and numerical simulation results found in the literature show a remaining
88 potential for the improvement of the chemical kinetic mechanisms. For instance, Ichikawa et al. [21] showed
89 only qualitative agreement between their experimental LBVs and those obtained with the mechanisms of
90 Miller et al. [24], Lindstedt et al. [25], Tian et al. [26] and Konnov [27], just as Han et al. [22] exhibited
91 discrepancies between their experiments and the mechanisms of Okafor et al. [28] among others. Recently,
92 Cavaliere et al. [29] conducted a survey on ten chemical kinetic mechanisms including NH₃/H₂ chemistry
93 and selected those of Okafor et al. [28], Mathieu and Petersen [30] and Otomo et al. [31] to be reduced, so as
94 to decrease their computational cost. However, they still report a significant scatter in the results obtained by
95 the different mechanisms and see potential for further improvement in the NH₃ and NH₃/H₂ sub-
96 mechanisms.

97 As the use of chemical kinetic mechanisms in simulations remains very computationally intensive,
98 Goldmann and Dinkelacker proposed semi-empirical correlations, called GD correlations in the following,
99 for the LBV of NH₃/air, NH₃/H₂/air and NH₃/H₂/N₂/air mixtures [32]. These semi-empirical correlations
100 were based on the correlation by Metghalchi and Keck [33], by considering the LBV dataset available and
101 estimates obtained thanks to the detailed ammonia oxidation mechanism of Mathieu and Petersen [30]. The
102 correlations are simple, making them very useful to be included in computationally intensive CFD
103 simulations. The LBV is given as a function of the global equivalence ratio, the hydrogen amount, the
104 nitrogen ratio (to simulate dilution) and the unburned temperature and pressure, following the form in Eq. 1:

$$s_u^0 = s_{u,ref}^0 T_n^\alpha p_n^\beta \gamma \kappa, \#(1)$$

[Tapez ici]

105 where $s_{u,\text{ref}}^0$ is a reference velocity depending only on the fuel mixture composition and the equivalence
106 ratio, T_n and P_n the normalized unburned gas temperature and pressure respectively, γ a factor to model the
107 effect of nitrogen dilution (when relevant) and κ a correction factor to fit the correlations to the
108 experimental values from the literature. Since literature data included only measurements around 300 K and
109 pressure up to 0.5 MPa, the κ factor was determined by considering only these conditions in the GD
110 correlations. The proposed correlations were found to agree very well with the experimental data available
111 in the literature, as well as with results from kinetics simulations using the detailed reaction mechanism of
112 Mathieu and Petersen from which they were derived. Since those simulation results showed no abrupt
113 behavior and an improved accuracy when increasing the pressure, Goldmann and Dinkelacker concluded
114 that the mechanism could be extrapolated to pressures above its validation range, and therefore made the
115 same assumption for their correlations.

116 However, this conclusion remains uncertain, as is the accuracy of the reaction mechanisms and LBV
117 correlations for NH_3/air and $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ mixtures at elevated temperature (above 300 K), due to the lack of
118 experimental literature data under such conditions for validation purposes. The objective of the present study
119 was to partially fill this lack of data by introducing new LBV measurements of NH_3/air and $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$
120 outwardly propagating spherical flames at 0.1 MPa of pressure for unburned gas temperatures up to 473 K.
121 The GD correlations are also discussed with respect to the new experimental data and an optimization
122 attempt is presented.

123 **2. Experimental and numerical methods**

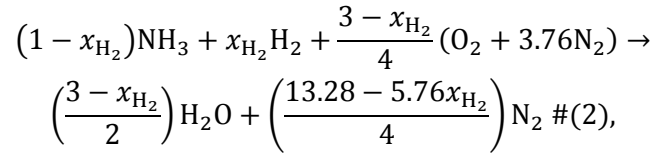
124 *2.1. Experimental set-up*

125 We carried out the experiments in a 4.2 dm³ stainless steel spherical vessel that can be heated up to 473 K by
126 an incorporated resistive coil. A type-K thermocouple and a piezoelectric pressure transducer were used to
127 monitor the temperature T_u and pressure P_u inside the chamber, respectively. The filling procedure was
128 already described in a previous study on a similar set-up [34] and is thus only briefly summarized here. A
129 vacuum pump is used to empty the vessel to a residual pressure of less than 1 kPa and the preheated reactive
130 gases are then introduced thanks to Brooks 5850S thermal mass flowmeters, while being stirred by a fan to
131 ensure a homogeneous mixture. Bottled gases are used, including synthetic air with 20.9% \pm 0.2% oxygen
[Tapez ici]

and a 99.999% purity, hydrogen with a 99.999% purity and ammonia with a 99.98% purity. After the intake, a quiescent phase of 10 s is set in order to avoid any undesired fluid motion. Then, a discharge energy is delivered for ignition at the center of the chamber thanks to two 1 mm tungsten electrodes. The spark gap can be adjusted from 1 to 3 mm to favour ignition under lean conditions with a high ammonia content.

2.2. Experimental conditions

The global stoichiometric combustion reaction of NH₃/H₂/air is:



with x_{H_2} , the hydrogen molar fraction in the fuel mixture. The global equivalence ratio ϕ is defined as:

$$\phi = \frac{\frac{X_{\text{H}_2} + X_{\text{NH}_3}}{X_{\text{air}}}}{\left(\frac{X_{\text{H}_2} + X_{\text{NH}_3}}{X_{\text{air}}}\right)_{\text{st}}}, \quad \#(3)$$

where X_s represents the molar fraction of the species s in the reactive mixture. The experimental conditions are summarized in Table 1. In some boundary cases, such as fuel-lean (resp. fuel-rich) mixtures with $\phi \leq 0.9$ (resp. $\phi \geq 1.2$) and a small hydrogen fraction, the mixture ignition fails to induce flame propagation or buoyancy instability phenomena alter the flame propagation too much to extract meaningful data and such cases are thus left aside.

Table 1. Experimental conditions

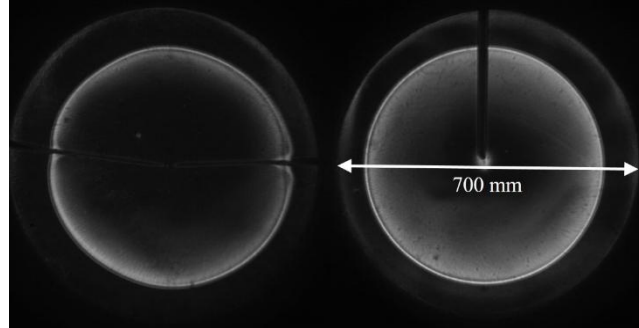
P_u (MPa)	T_u (K)	x_{H_2}	ϕ
0.1	{298 ; 323 ; 373 ; 423 ; 473}	[0 – 0.6]	[0.8 – 1.4]

2.3. Image processing

In the cases with successful laminar flame propagation, double Schlieren images of the flame are recorded from two orthogonal angles through two pairs of opposite quartz windows (70 mm diameter) by a Phantom v1210 high-speed CMOS camera, as fully described in [35]. The frame acquisition rate of the camera is adjusted with respect to the propagation velocity of the flame up to 18000 fps, in order to maximize the

[Tapez ici]

151 number of usable images. Following recommendations by Huo et al. [36], a minimum number of 30 images
 152 is considered for post-processing. The double Schlieren configuration allows the detection of flame
 153 instabilities, but only one view is used to extract the LBV. An example of a flame image is shown in Figure
 154 1.



155
 156 **Figure 1.** Double Schlieren view at time t of a stable $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ flame at 0.1 MPa and 473 K.

157 The radii of the spherical flames are extracted using an image postprocessing algorithm with background
 158 subtraction. The range of the flame radius R_f used for the analysis is manually kept between roughly 6.5
 159 and 25 mm in order to eliminate the spark ignition and wall-pressure confinement effects. The pressure
 160 measured in the vessel remains constant over the whole analysis range. The stretched laminar flame
 161 propagation velocity s_b is calculated as a first-order gradient $s_b = dR_f/dt$, since the burned gas is assumed
 162 to be quiescent. Assuming that the flame is adiabatic and the propagation quasi-steady, s_b is then
 163 extrapolated to zero stretch using the nonlinear Equation 4 proposed by Kelley and Law [37], based on an
 164 asymptotic analysis by Ronney and Sivashinsky [38] and validated by Halter et al. for methane and
 165 isooctane/air flames [39]:

$$\left(\frac{s_b}{s_b^0}\right)^2 \ln\left(\frac{s_b}{s_b^0}\right)^2 = -\frac{2L_b K}{s_b^0}. \#(4)$$

166 The flame stretch K is calculated according to $K = 2/R_f * dR_f/dt$ for a spherical flame, L_b is the Markstein
 167 length and s_b^0 the unstretched flame propagation velocity of the burned state, respectively.

168 The laminar burning velocity is finally calculated from the continuity equation through the flame
 169 surface, $s_u^0 = \rho_b/\rho_u * s_b^0$, where burned and unburned gas densities are calculated from equilibrium
 170 calculations.

171 **2.4. Uncertainty considerations**

[Tapez ici]

172 The validation of kinetic mechanisms requires accurate measurement data including quantitative uncertainty
173 ranges. In the present study, a method based on the work of Moffat [40] and developed by Brequigny et al.
174 [41] was implemented for uncertainty quantification.

175 The experimental errors are of two kind and described as experimental hardware errors $(\Delta s_u^0)_{P,T,x_s}$,
176 reflecting the accuracy of the initial temperature, pressure and mixture composition monitoring, and imaging
177 errors $(\Delta s_u^0)_{\text{imaging}}$, both from the imaging technique itself and the processing.

178 The temperature and pressure error terms are determined by using the correlations by Goldmann and
179 Dinkelacker [32] in Eq. 1, as $|\alpha| \cdot \Delta T/T$ and $|\beta| \cdot \Delta P/P$ respectively. The exponents α and β , which are
180 functions ϕ and x_{H_2} are calculated for each test condition. In most cases, the combined error from those two
181 terms is significantly smaller than $\pm 2\%$, but can be higher in a few cases at 298 K initial temperature, due to
182 the difficulty of maintaining the vessel temperature after several combustion tests, without exceeding $\pm 8\%$.

183 The uncertainties on the mixture composition are due to the accuracy of the mass flow meters (1% of the
184 full scale) and propagate on the LBV through ϕ and x_{H_2} . Depending on the representation of s_u^0 chosen in
185 this article, either ϕ or x_{H_2} can be a variable, while the other is a fixed parameter. While the uncertainty on
186 the variable must be indicated with horizontal error bars, that on the fixed parameter(s) must be propagated
187 in the depicted LBV. Since the LBV dependence on those parameters in the GD correlations is complex, the
188 propagation of the uncertainty could hardly be formulated analytically as for the temperature and pressure
189 errors. It was thus estimated by means of a Monte Carlo method as follows. The set point value of the fixed
190 parameter (ϕ or x_{H_2}) is considered as the mean value of a normal probability density function (PDF), whose
191 standard deviation is given by the uncertainty on the parameter. During a great number of $N = 10\,000$
192 iterations, a random value is taken for the parameter following that PDF. The LBV is then calculated by
193 means of the corresponding GD correlation for each iteration, all other parameters and variables remaining
194 unchanged. For each initial condition, a normal PDF for the LBV is obtained this way, of which the standard
195 deviation is considered to be the propagated uncertainty of ϕ or x_{H_2} on the LBV. The empirical correction
196 factor κ of the GD correlations (Eq. 1) was applied only when $x_{H_2} < 0.5$, as it degrades strongly the
197 prediction capability of the ϕ and x_{H_2} dependences at higher hydrogen fuel fractions, as will be seen in

[Tapez ici]

198 Section 3. Overall, the LBV uncertainty resulting from mixture composition errors is thought to be
199 conservative.

200 Another uncertainty source associated with the OPSF technique is radiation-induced uncertainty. Yu et
201 al. showed that radiative losses affect the LBV of OPSFs by reducing the flame temperature and by inducing
202 an inward flow in the burned gas due to radiation cooling [42]. They proposed a fuel independent correlation
203 for the determination of the radiation-induced relative error on the LBV in such flames, which is a
204 decreasing function of the LBV and depends on T_u linearly. However, that correlation was only validated
205 numerically in the case of different hydrocarbon fuels and syngas, and it is unclear whether it is applicable
206 in our case, especially due to the absence of CO_2 in the burned gas of $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ flames. A recent numerical
207 study by Nakamura and Shindo [43] showed a significant impact of radiative heat losses on the LBV of
208 NH_3/air flames using simulations of 1D freely propagating premixed flames with their own reaction
209 mechanism [44]. Under NTP conditions, the relative error increased away from stoichiometry and reached
210 about 13 % for $\phi = 0.8$, 3 % for $\phi = 1.0$ and about 8 % for $\phi = 1.4$, corresponding to absolute errors of a few
211 millimeters per second. However, those results do not take into account the spherical geometry of the
212 presently studied flames and depend on the accuracy of the reaction mechanism that was used. Those
213 considerations are summarized in Figure 2 for NH_3/air flames at NTP, which are the most radiation-affected
214 conditions due to very low LBVs. The simulation results of Nakamura and Shindo are plotted together with
215 similar simulations that we carried out in ChemkinPro [45] (see Sec. 2.5) with the absorption coefficients in
216 [43] and the detailed reaction mechanism of Otomo et al. [31], as well as results obtained by applying the
217 correlation of Yu et al. to present experimental data. Figure 2 highlights the dependence of the radiation-
218 induced error on the LBV, and shows good agreement between the different estimates. Therefore, the
219 correlation of Yu et al. was used presently as the best estimate for the radiation-induced uncertainty,
220 $(\Delta s_u^0)_{\text{radiation}}$, added only in the positive uncertainty $+ U_{s_u^0}^{95\%}$, and decreasing with increasing LBV down to
221 less than 1% for fast flames. The same estimation method was recently used by Mei et al. [17].

[Tapez ici]

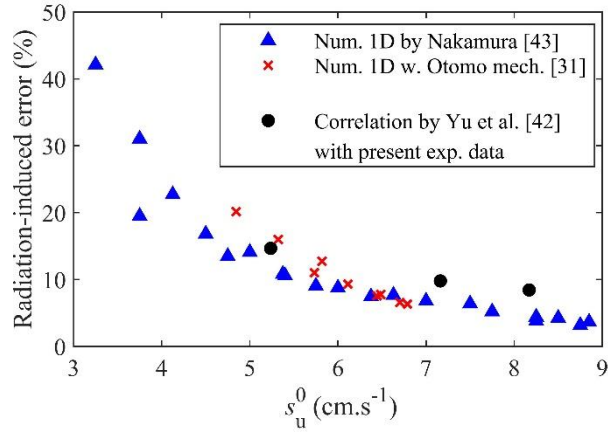


Figure 2. Relative radiation-induced uncertainty on the LBV of NH₃/air flames at NTP.

The repeatability of the tests is assessed by conducting a minimum number n of three measurements for each initial condition. The standard deviation proves the repeatability of the measurements and is used to calculate the statistical error in the form of a 95% confidence interval by means of a Student's t-distribution, as in Eq. 5:

$$\left(\frac{\Delta s_u^0}{s_u^0}\right)_{\text{statistical}} = t \frac{\sigma_{s_u^0}}{\sqrt{n}} \#(5)$$

with t , the value of the Student's density function ($t = 3.182$ for $n = 3$). The statistical error exceeds 10% in a small number of cases, generally under very lean or rich conditions, where the flame propagation is mostly affected by perturbations. In general, this value is below 5% and down to 0.1%.

The experimental error terms are finally combined with the imaging error, the radiation error and the statistical error obtained by repeating several identical measurements to calculate the overall uncertainty,

$U_{s_u^0}^{95\%}$, given in Eq. 6:

$$U_{s_u^0}^{95\%} = \sqrt{(\Delta s_u^0)_T^2 + (\Delta s_u^0)_P^2 + (\Delta s_u^0)_{X_s}^2 + (\Delta s_u^0)_{\text{imaging}}^2 + (\Delta s_u^0)_{\text{radiation}}^2 + (\Delta s_u^0)_{\text{statistical}}^2} \#(6)$$

Therefore, all the data are presented in the following figures with the average LBV values along with the overall uncertainty, $\overline{s_u^0} \pm U_{s_u^0}^{95\%}$, meaning that the error bars can be assimilated to 95% confidence intervals.

All the uncertainties are reported in the Supplementary Material.

2.5. Numerical modelling

[Tapez ici]

239 LBV simulations were performed with Ansys ChemkinPro [45] by using three detailed kinetic mechanisms
240 for NH₃/H₂/air combustion [30,31,44]. Otomo's model [31] was validated against experimental results
241 including LBVs obtained in various NH₃/H₂/Air mixture at ambient temperature and 0.1 MPa. Nakamura's
242 model [44] was validated against NH₃/air weak flames in micro flow reactor, including species profiles
243 measurements. Both mechanisms reveal the importance of intermediate species such as NH₂, HNO and
244 N₂H_x. The third one by Mathieu and Petersen [30] was mostly validated against ignition delay times and
245 was selected by Goldman and Dinkelacker [32] to fit their semi-empirical correlations.
246 The intercomparison between the experimental values and results from full kinetic computations was limited
247 to 2 cases, but in the entire range of equivalence ratio [0.8-1.4]. First, the unburned temperature is set to
248 473K, and x_{H_2} is varied between 0 and 0.6. Second, the temperature varies in the entire range of the
249 experiments, but x_{H_2} is fixed equal to 0.6. Those are the conditions of maximal discrepancy between the GD
250 correlations and the present experiments, as it will be seen in Sec. 3.

251 **3. Results and discussion**

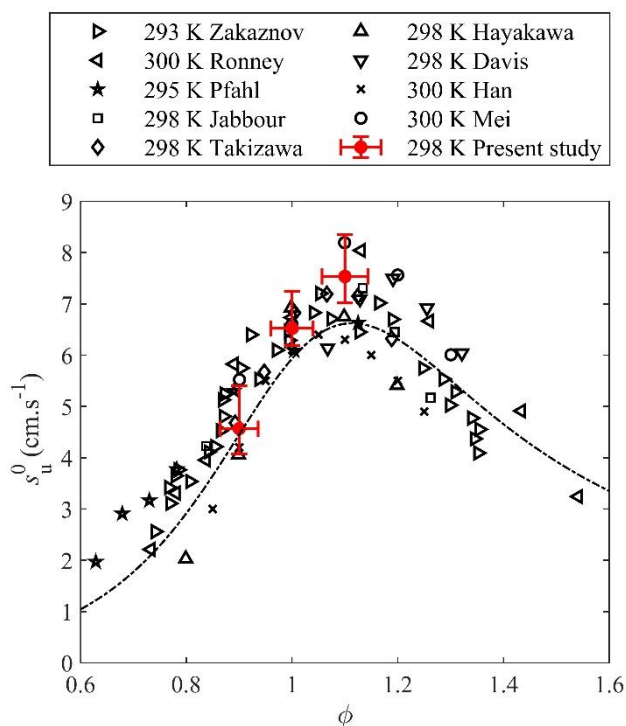
252 This section presents the main experimental results and compares them to the LBV values estimated by
253 means of the detailed kinetic mechanisms in Sec. 2.5 and the GD correlation. The experimental corrective
254 factor κ defined in Section 1 is always applied in the GD correlations with the values given in [30], unless
255 otherwise stated. The extensive dataset obtained during the present study is available in the Supplementary
256 Material.

257 ***3.1. Effect of the equivalence ratio***

258 Figure 3 shows a comparison of the present LBV measurements with experimental literature data and
259 the GD correlation for NH₃/air flames under NTP. The very low LBVs result in a significant scatter in the
260 experimental data, due to technique-dependent uncertainties that are exacerbated by the instability
261 phenomena already described in Sec. 1 and Sec. 2.2 for the OPSF technique. While the data for
262 stoichiometric flames show a good general consistency across the studies, lean and rich flames exhibit
263 differences between the measurements up to more than 2 cm/s. While this discrepancy might seem
264 reasonable in other cases, it represents presently an error of more than 50%, due to the very low LBVs.
265 Present measurements are in the middle of the literature scatter, including very recent measurements with
[Tapez ici]

266 different techniques by Han et al. [22] and Mei et al. [17]. Error bars are asymmetric due to the positive-only
267 radiation-induced uncertainty, which is especially significant at low LBVs.

268



269

270 **Figure 3.** Laminar burning velocities of NH₃/air flames under atmospheric conditions. Symbols:
271 experiments. Line: GD correlation at 0.1 MPa, 298 K [32].

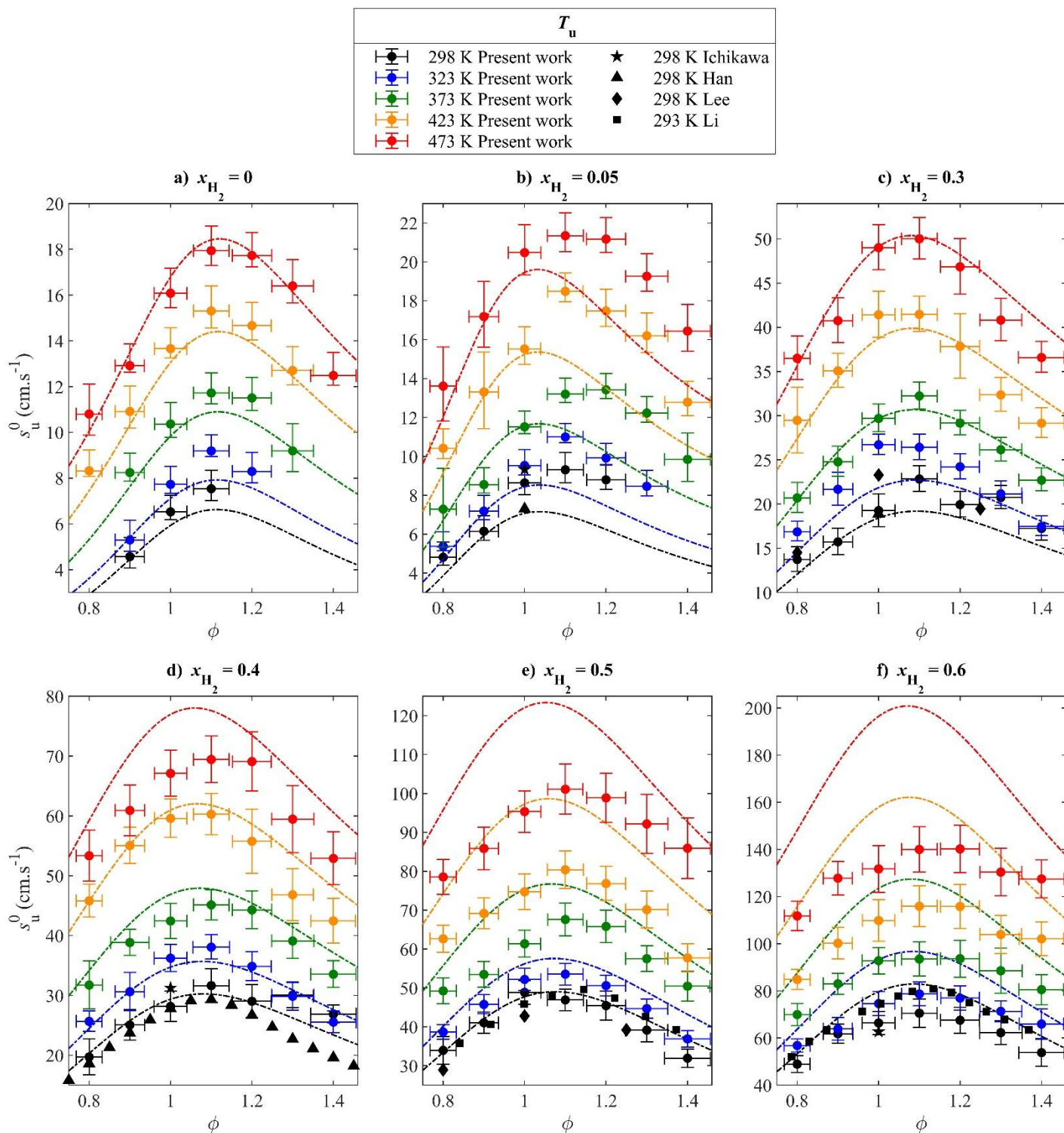
272 Figure 4 shows the variation of the measured LBV as a function of the equivalence ratio over the whole
273 temperature range for NH₃/air and NH₃/H₂/air flames, along with experimental data from the literature close
274 to 298 K and 0.1 MPa and GD correlations values. For NH₃/H₂/air flames, present measurements at 298 K
275 are in reasonable agreement with the experimental literature data. For $x_{H_2} = 0.05$ (Fig. 4b), good agreement
276 is found with Ichikawa et al. [21] at stoichiometry, while a small discrepancy is observed with Han et al.
277 [22]. For $x_{H_2} = 0.3$ (Fig. 4c), the present measurements partially agree with those of Lee et al. [19] and a
278 very good agreement is found with Han et al. at stoichiometry. For $x_{H_2} = 0.4$ (Fig. 4d), our values agree with
279 those of Han et al. for equivalence ratios between 0.8 and 1.2, and disagree for $\phi = 1.3$ and 1.4, while a
280 slight mismatch is observed with a value of Ichikawa et al. at stoichiometry. For $x_{H_2} = 0.5$ (Fig. 4e), very
281 good agreement is found with the data of Li et al. [20], except for $\phi = 1.4$ and partial agreement is observed
[Tapez ici]

282 with the data of Lee and coworkers. For $x_{\text{H}_2} = 0.6$ (Fig. 4f), present values agree with those of Li et al. only
283 below stoichiometry, and a good agreement is found at stoichiometry with Ichikawa and coworkers. Overall,
284 a comparative assessment of the uncertainties relative to LBV measurement using different methods would
285 be of interest in the case of $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ flames, along with additional measurements with various techniques,
286 in order to evaluate the reliability of the global dataset. This is however beyond the scope of the present
287 work.

288 The measured LBVs present a classical bell shape as a function of the equivalence ratio, with a
289 maximum near $\phi = 1.1$ for all temperatures and hydrogen fractions up to $x_{\text{H}_2} = 0.5$. However, for mixtures
290 with $x_{\text{H}_2} = 0.6$, the variation in the experimental LBV as ϕ varies becomes smaller around the maximum
291 due to the effect of hydrogen, resulting in a relatively “flatter” shape of the data distribution and a slight shift
292 of the maximum towards $\phi = 1.2$, as illustrated in Fig. 4f. At $T_u = 373$ K for instance, this results in a
293 relative increase of about 30 % of the LBV between $\phi = 0.9$ and $\phi = 1.1$, and a decrease of 18% between ϕ
294 = 1.1 and $\phi = 1.3$ for $x_{\text{H}_2} = 0.3$, while the relative increase and decrease reach only 13 % and 5 %
295 respectively for $x_{\text{H}_2} = 0.6$.

296 The NH_3/air GD correlation reproduces well the shape of the LBV as a function of ϕ , even at elevated
297 temperatures, as shown in Fig. 4a. The shape is also relatively well reproduced by the $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ GD
298 correlation for $0.2 \leq x_{\text{H}_2} \leq 0.4$, as illustrated in Fig. 4c and 4d for $x_{\text{H}_2} = 0.3$ and 0.4. Those are cases where
299 the effect of the equivalence ratio in the GD correlation was validated against literature measurements at
300 NTP conditions. In the cases for which limited experimental data were available or only data that do not
301 agree with the present results, the $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ GD correlation fails to reproduce accurately the shape of the
302 present measurements. In particular for $x_{\text{H}_2} = 0.05$, Fig. 4b shows that the correlation underestimates the
303 LBVs for rich mixtures at all temperatures. The correlation values are not symmetric with respect to the
304 maximum LBV, which is underestimated itself both in its magnitude and equivalence ratio of occurrence as
305 compared to the experiments. Fig. 4f shows that when $x_{\text{H}_2} = 0.6$ the estimated shape is symmetric, but does
306 not accurately reproduce the much “flatter” shape of the present experimental points, especially at higher

307 temperatures. Thus, the availability of reliable experimental LBV data seems to be critical for the behavior
 308 of the GD correlations with respect to the equivalence ratio, when the original correction factor κ is applied.



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Figure 4. Laminar burning velocities of NH_3/air and $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ mixtures at $P_u = 0.1$ MPa.

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Symbols: experiments; vertical error bars are 95% confidence intervals. Lines: GD correlation [32].

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3.2. Effects of hydrogen enrichment

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313 The influence of the fuel hydrogen fraction on the LBV is presented in Fig. 5 at NTP conditions. For the
314 sake of readability, only three equivalence ratios are depicted, along with corresponding LBV data from the
315 literature and GD correlation values. Note that the Bunsen burner study of Li et al. [20] did not always
316 provide data at the exact equivalence ratios that are depicted, so the closest values were plotted. The LBV
317 exhibits an exponential increasing trend with volumetric hydrogen addition in the fuel. Present LBV
318 measurements agree well with available literature data for a large majority of cases, as well as with GD
319 correlation values. However, significant discrepancies are noticed for $x_{\text{H}_2} > 0.5$ and $\phi \geq 1.0$, as noted in
320 Sec. 3.1. In those conditions, the present data agree with the value of Ichikawa et al. [21], but disagree with
321 the data of Li et al. [20] and the correlation. The good agreement between the correlation and Li et al.'s data
322 is explainable by the high relative weight of that experimental dataset in the $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ LBV literature at the
323 time of establishing the correlation. The latter was thus mainly fitted on that dataset, through the correction
324 factor κ . Therefore, the accuracy of the measurements at high hydrogen fractions in the fuel might be
325 questioned, with respect to the chosen experimental method. The OPSF method used by Ichikawa et al. and
326 the present authors yields closely agreeing values at $\phi = 1.0$. Under NTP conditions, the GD correlation
327 slightly underestimates present LBVs when $\phi \geq 1.0$ and $0.05 \leq x_{\text{H}_2} \leq 0.2$, agrees well with all
328 measurements for $0.2 < x_{\text{H}_2} \leq 0.5$, and significantly overestimates LBVs for $x_{\text{H}_2} > 0.5$ and $\phi \geq 1.0$. The
329 data of Lee et al. [19] show slight discrepancies with the other data and the correlation but remain in the
330 trend. However, the data of Kumar et al. [23] are off the trend and will thus be left aside in the
331 considerations of Sec. 3.4, as it was originally the case when the GD correlation was developed in [32].

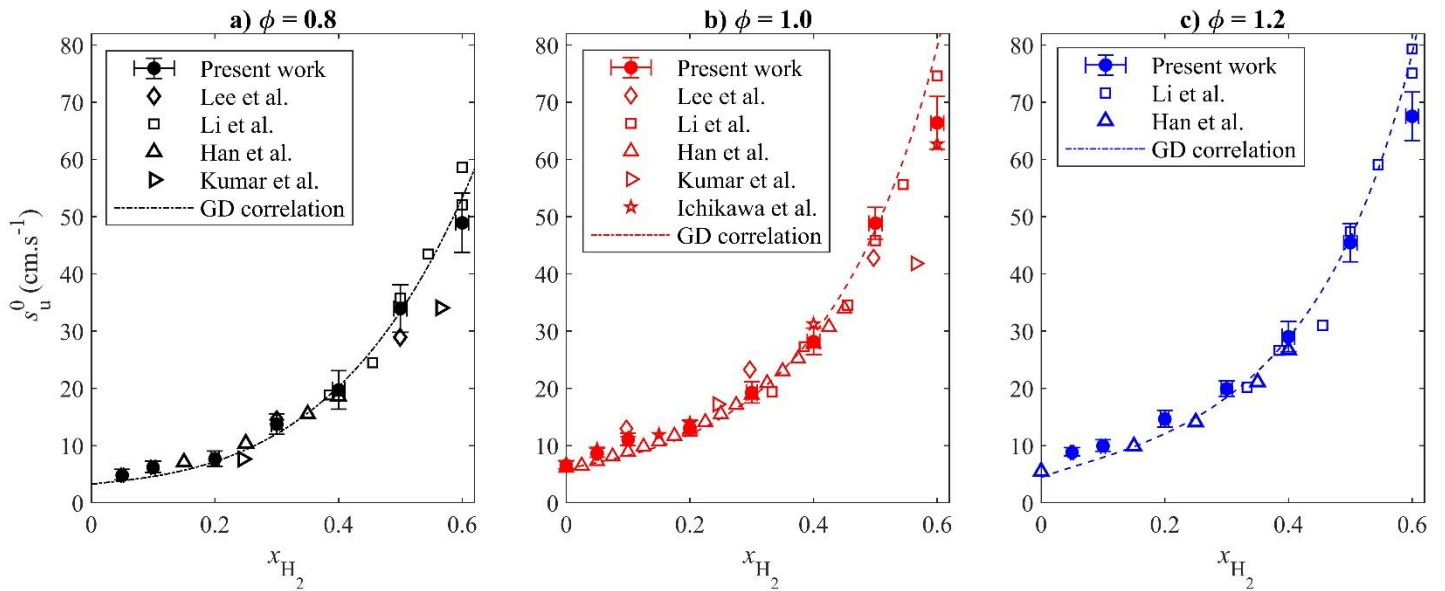


Figure 5. Laminar burning velocities of $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ mixtures at $T_u = 298$ K and $P_u = 0.1$ MPa. Symbols: experiments; vertical error bars are 95% confidence intervals. Lines: GD correlation [32].

The behavior of the GD correlation with respect to the hydrogen fraction is confirmed by LBV measurements at higher temperatures, as shown in Figure 6 in the case $\phi = 1.1$, where the maximum LBV value is reached in most conditions. The measured and estimated values both exhibit exponential increasing trends as a function of the fuel hydrogen fraction for all temperatures, but with different slopes when depicted in a logarithmic scale. A general underestimate of the present data by the GD correlation is observed for low hydrogen fractions, while the LBVs at high hydrogen fractions are largely overestimated. However, the correlation is in close agreement with data of Han et al. [22] up to 40% H_2 at $T_u = 298$ K.

It should be noted that only the correlation for $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ mixtures was plotted here. The NH_3/air correlation agrees much better with experimental values for $x_{\text{H}_2} = 0$, as previously seen in Fig. 4a. So, a lack of continuity is observed between the $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ and NH_3/air correlations when the hydrogen fraction becomes very small. Again, this is likely a consequence of the limited availability of accurate measurement data for correlation fitting at the time it was established. Since most of the previously available data were within the range $0.3 \leq x_{\text{H}_2} \leq 0.6$, the best correlation prediction is found here. It should be noted here that the mechanism by Mathieu and Petersen [30], used also to establish the correlation, is found to underestimate, respectively overestimate, the LBV of mixtures with low, respectively high hydrogen content [32].

[Tapez ici]

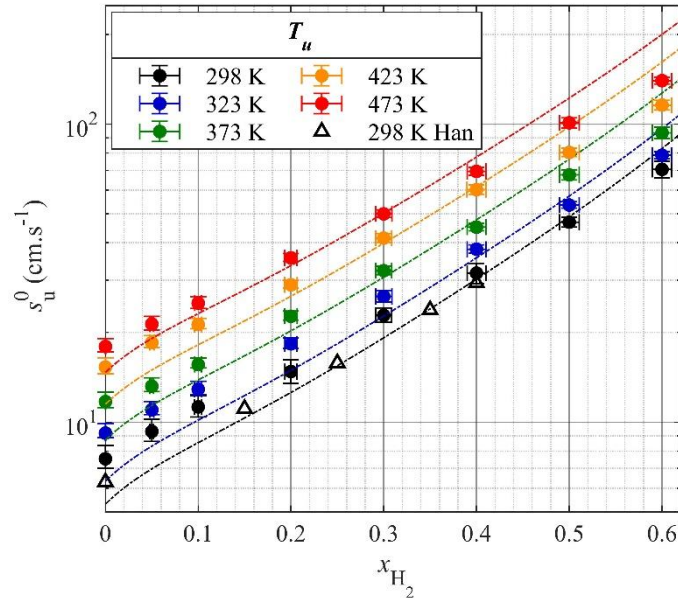


Figure 6. Laminar burning velocities of $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ mixtures at $P_u = 0.1$ MPa and $\phi = 1.1$. Filled symbols: present measurements. Hollow triangles: measurements of Han et al. [22]. Lines: GD correlation [32].

This is partly confirmed by Figure 7 that shows the evolution of the LBV with x_{H_2} at 473 K. Present measurements are compared with GD correlation values and simulations results using the detailed kinetic mechanisms introduced in Sec. 2.5. In such conditions, the mechanism of Mathieu and Petersen underestimates the experimental LBVs when $\phi = 0.8$, when $\phi = 1.0$ and $x_{\text{H}_2} < 0.5$ and when $\phi = 1.2$ and $x_{\text{H}_2} < 0.5$. The mechanism of Otomo et al. is found to slightly underestimate the LBV in most cases, especially for intermediate hydrogen fuel fractions. The mechanism of Nakamura et al. shows the best overall agreement with the present data at elevated temperature as a function of the hydrogen fuel fraction. The GD correlation estimates diverge significantly from both the experimental and kinetic modelling trends when x_{H_2} increases, even though it is based on the Mathieu and Petersen mechanism. This is probably a consequence of the scarcity and accuracy of the available experimental dataset at high hydrogen fractions used to fit the correlation in the first place, through the correction factor κ that is applied here. The behavior of the correlation without applying κ is much closer to the Mathieu and Petersen's mechanism (not plotted here for readability), and yields thus accurate estimates for $x_{\text{H}_2} \geq 0.5$.

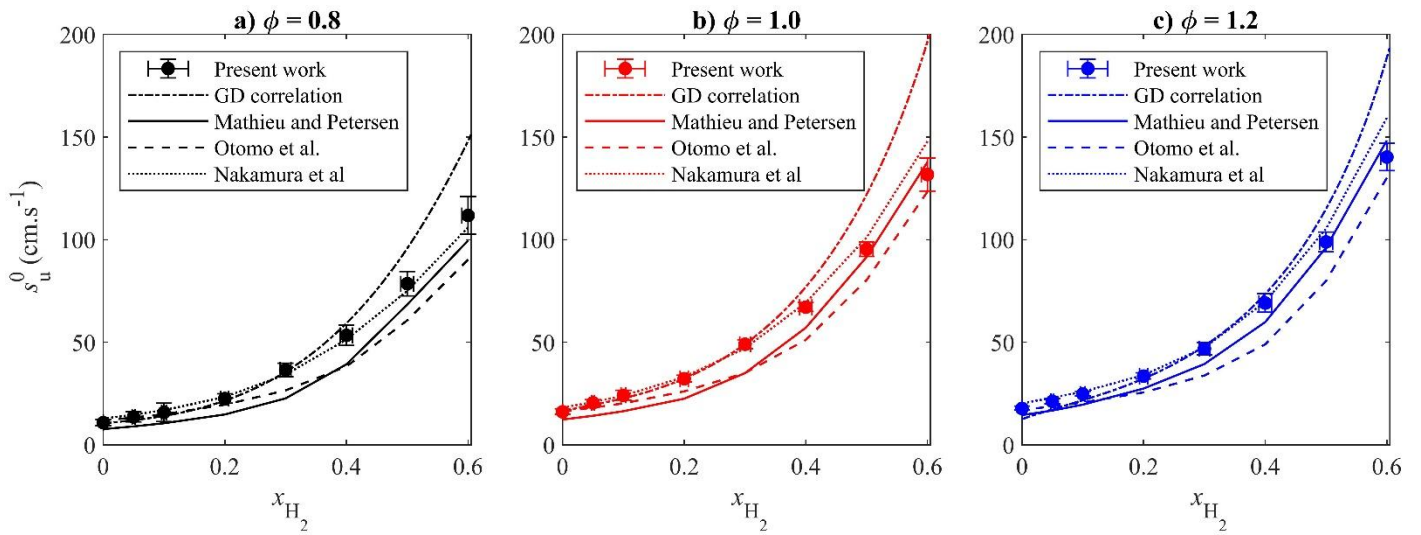


Figure 7. Laminar burning velocities of $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ mixtures at $P_u = 0.1$ MPa and $T_u = 473$ K. Symbols: experiments. Lines: numerical models.

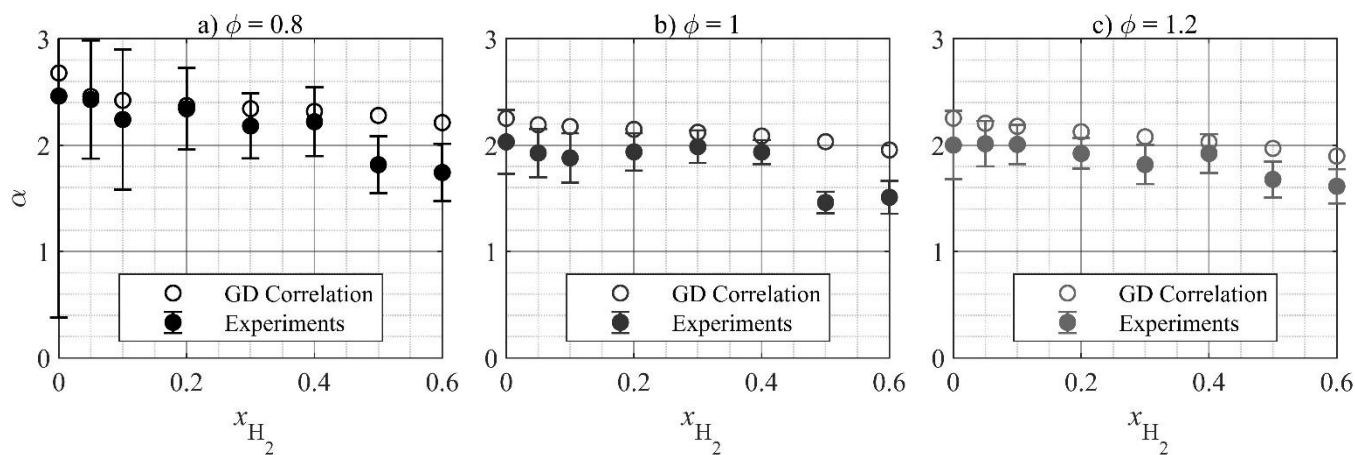
3.3. Effects of the temperature increase

Increasing the unburned gas temperature leads to an increase in the LBV and allows a more stable flame propagation in most cases. The respective influences of the equivalence ratio and hydrogen fraction on the LBV remain qualitatively unchanged when the temperature is increased: the experimental data distributions keep similar bell shapes in Fig. 4 and the slopes of the different distributions remain approximately parallel in Fig. 6 with increasing temperature.

The influence of the unburned gas temperature on the LBV is well estimated by the NH_3/air GD correlation (Fig. 4a), as well as by the $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ GD correlation when $x_{\text{H}_2} = 0.05$ for lean mixtures (Fig. 4b) and when $0.2 \leq x_{\text{H}_2} \leq 0.4$ (Figs. 4c and 4d). In order to isolate the temperature effect, the values of the temperature exponent, α , assuming an exponential temperature dependence of the LBV as in Eq. 1 are depicted in Figure 8 as a function of the H_2 fraction. The experimental values of α , as well as the associated uncertainties were estimated by means of a Monte Carlo method to allow for the propagation of the uncertainties on the LBV measurements as described in Sec. 2.4. For each test point and each iteration, α is determined as the slope of $\ln(s_u^0) = f(\ln(T_u))$ by means of a least-squares linear regression, where s_u^0 is randomly chosen from a normal PDF with the average measured LBV as mean value and the global positive LBV uncertainty as standard deviation. The mean value and standard deviation of the resulting α -

[Tapez ici]

386 distribution are taken as the best guess and uncertainty for α . Results show satisfactory agreement with the
 387 values given by the GD correlations, as a function of both the equivalence ratio and the hydrogen fraction,
 388 indicating the ability of the correlation to accurately estimate the temperature effect in most cases. However,
 389 no agreement is found between the experimental and estimated temperature behavior when the fuel contains
 390 50% H₂ or more.



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Figure 8. Temperature dependence of the LBV. α : temperature exponent as in Eq. 1.

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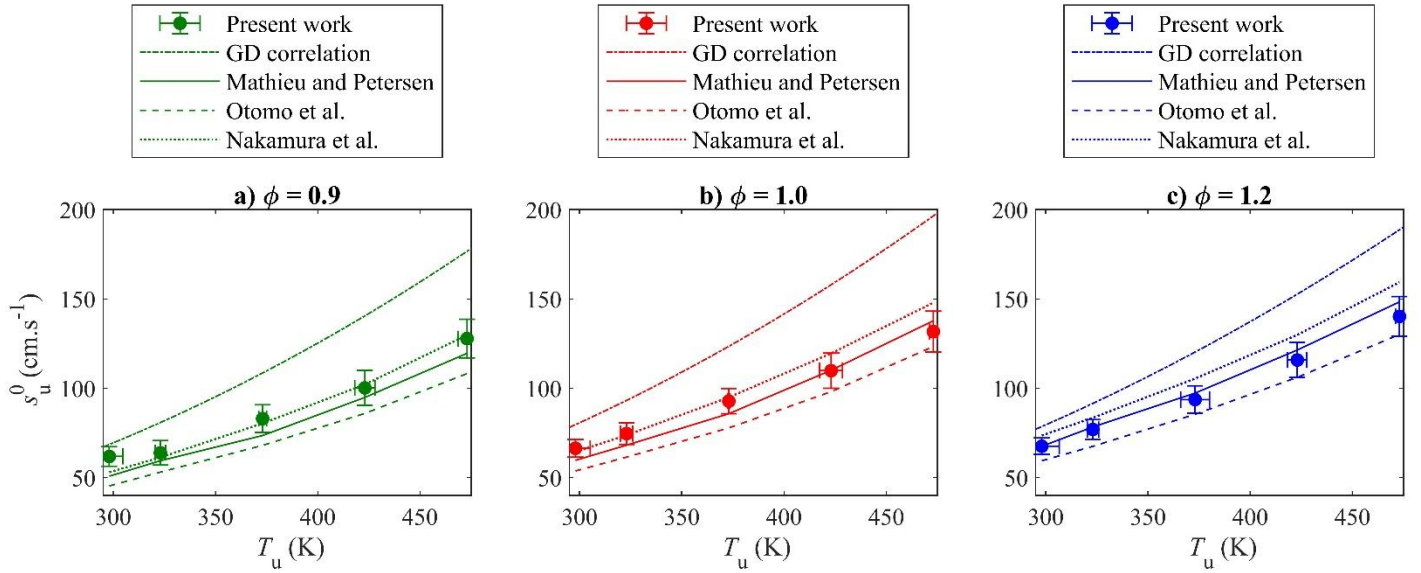


Figure 9. Comparison of the predictive capabilities of various models with respect to the temperature effect on the LBV for $P_u = 0.1$ MPa and $x_{H_2} = 0.6$.

3.4. Correlation optimization

In an attempt to optimize the correlations proposed by Goldmann and Dinkelacker [32], the new experimental dataset was used to adjust the coefficient correlations for $P_u \leq 0.5$ MPa and $T_u \leq 700$ K. To that end, the present LBV experimental dataset was consolidated with the literature data [10,11,20–22,12–19] and used to fit the correction factor κ by means of a least-squares algorithm. The form of the correction factor was extended by introducing two new coefficients k_5 and k_6 to take into account the temperature dependence, analogously to the pressure dependence: $\kappa = k_1 k_2^{p_n} p_n^{k_3} (1/\phi)^{k_4} k_5^{T_n} T_n^{k_6}$. In each case, the accuracy of the obtained correlation is assessed by the mean absolute percentage error M_ϕ , the maximum absolute percentage error M_{\max} , the minimum absolute percentage error M_{\min} and the coefficient of determination R^2 over the considered dataset of size N , as in [32]. Different comparisons were conducted and are summarized for the NH_3/air and $\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ correlations in Table 2 and Table 3, respectively.

Unsurprisingly, the GD correlation compares well with the consolidated experimental dataset for NH_3/air mixtures as seen in Table 2, since a satisfactory agreement was found with the new experimental data at elevated temperatures in Sec. 3.1 and 3.3. The extended correlation with the new coefficients of

421 Table 4 presents a slightly worsened mean absolute percentage error but a better coefficient of determination
 422 than the GD correlation.

423 **Table 2.** Accuracy of the NH₃/air correlation against experiments for $P_u \leq 0.5$ MPa.

Comparison	T_u	M_{\min} (%)	M_{\emptyset} (%)	M_{\max} (%)	R^2	N
GD vs. previous literature data	≤ 300 K	0.28	15.0	47.06	0.795	82
GD vs. consolidated data	≤ 473 K	0.08	12.04	47.06	0.948	122
New coefficients vs. consolidated data	≤ 473 K	0.13	13.05	58.41	0.9664	122

424

425 However, Table 3 shows that the new consolidated dataset does not compare well with the GD
 426 correlation for NH₃/H₂/air mixtures, since M_{\emptyset} increases from 8.26 % to 11.56 % and R^2 drops from 0.977 to
 427 0.867. This was expected following the discrepancies observed in Sec. 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3 between the GD
 428 correlation and the present experimental values, especially at high hydrogen fractions. For this reason, a
 429 comparison between the GD correlation and the experimental dataset for $0 < x_{H_2} \leq 0.4$ was attempted. The
 430 original correlation proved to be slightly more accurate in that case, though not reaching the accuracy shown
 431 against the former experimental dataset. Thus, the present attempts to fit the new correlation on the new
 432 consolidated dataset resulted in a poorer accuracy when considering the entire H₂ range. Considering that the
 433 original correlation behaves differently for small and large hydrogen fractions, it was decided to apply the
 434 optimization only in the range $0 < x_{H_2} \leq 0.4$, leading to an improvement in accuracy of the correlation
 435 against the consolidated dataset, as seen in Table 3.

436 **Table 3.** Accuracy of the NH₃/H₂/air correlation against experiments for $P_u \leq 0.5$ MPa.

Comparison	x_{H_2}	T_u	M_{\min} (%)	M_{\emptyset} (%)	M_{\max} (%)	R^2	N
GD vs. previous literature data]0 – 0.6]	≤ 300 K	0.05	8.26	36.55	0.977	93
GD vs. consolidated data]0 – 0.6]	≤ 473 K	0.03	11.56	49.15	0.867	418
GD vs. consolidated data]0 – 0.4]	≤ 473 K	0.03	10.31	41.72	0.963	295

[Tapez ici]

New coefficients vs. consolidated data]0 – 0.4]	≤ 473 K	0.02	9.15	47.24	0.971	295
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The corresponding coefficients in Table 4 can be used for the correction factor κ in LBV calculations in the range $0 \leq x_{\text{H}_2} \leq 0.4$, all other coefficients in the GD correlations remaining unchanged compared to [32]. However, the new correlation estimates the consolidated dataset less accurately than the original GD correlation estimates the original dataset. Ultimately, a better understanding of the role of NH_3 and H_2 reactions in the detailed kinetic mechanisms should help in better predicting the laminar burning velocity, especially for mixtures containing very low or very high hydrogen fractions. Refined mechanisms could then be used to establish more reliable correlations for reduced computational intensity.

Table 4. New coefficients for the empirical correction factor κ with temperature dependence.

Case	k_1	k_2	k_3	k_4	k_5	k_6
NH_3/air	1.9112	1.0019	-0.0444	0.3526	0.7444	-0.1078
$\text{NH}_3/\text{H}_2/\text{air}$ $x_{\text{H}_2} =]0 - 0.4]$	2.0873	1.0081	-0.1559	0.5383	0.7357	-0.0702

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4. Summary and conclusions

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An extensive new experimental dataset of ammonia/air and ammonia/hydrogen/air laminar burning velocities was obtained at atmospheric pressure for equivalence ratios ranging from 0.8 to 1.4, hydrogen fractions in the fuel from 0 % to 60 % and unburned gas temperatures from 298 to 473 K by means of the outwardly propagating spherical flame method. Experimental hardware, imaging, radiation-induced and statistical errors were taken into account. Results are in good agreement with previous measurements from the literature obtained with the same method and the heat flux method under NTP, but discrepancies are observed with measurements obtained with the Bunsen burner method for high hydrogen fractions. More than 260 new data points are presented, that significantly enrich the literature data, especially at high temperatures and hydrogen fuel fractions.

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457 A comparison of the present measurements with the LBV correlations recently developed by Goldmann
458 and Dinkelacker, as well as with chemical kinetic simulations using state-of-the-art reaction mechanisms,
459 led to the following summary:

- 460 1. The original NH₃/air correlation agrees well with the present experimental data for all
461 temperatures, thus validating its ability to accurately approximate the LBV of mixtures at
462 higher temperatures.
- 463 2. The original NH₃/H₂/air correlation underestimates the LBV of rich mixtures with low
464 hydrogen fractions, while it generally overestimates the LBV of mixtures with high hydrogen
465 fractions, especially at elevated temperature and regardless of the equivalence ratio. The LBV
466 of mixtures with intermediate hydrogen fractions are estimated satisfactorily in most cases. This
467 is explained by the better accuracy and availability of experimental data in that range at the time
468 the correlation was first developed.
- 469 3. The influence of the temperature is reproduced satisfactorily by the NH₃/H₂/air correlation,
470 except for mixtures with $x_{\text{H}_2} \geq 0.5$, where the influence of the temperature is again
471 overestimated.
- 472 4. Current reaction mechanisms show satisfactory agreement with the present experimental data
473 over the whole range of investigation, but a significant scatter remains between them.
- 474 5. An attempt to optimize the correlations by fitting them on the new consolidated experimental
475 dataset through an experimental correction factor was successful for a limited set of conditions
476 only.

477 As a result, while the detailed kinetic mechanisms may still require some fine tuning to improve their
478 accuracy, the development of new LBV correlations for NH₃/H₂ fuels requires careful validation based on
479 fully validated reaction mechanisms and accurate experimental data. However, the present optimization
480 proposed for the GD correlations should allow to conduct turbulent combustion simulations with satisfactory
481 accuracy and low computational cost for hydrogen fractions in the fuel smaller than 50%.

482 **Acknowledgements**

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