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# Experimental study of RCCI engine – Ammonia combustion with diesel pilot injection

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#### Abstract

Ammonia is seen as one potential carbon-free fuel, especially for maritime applications. Since SI engines require important ignition energy for large cylinders, engine manufacturers are targeting the use of ammonia in CI engines. Because of ammonia's high auto-ignition temperature, to ensure that the combustion occurs in a CI engine, a pilot injection of a higher reactivity fuel must be used, as in Reactivity Controlled Compression Ignition engine. In the present study, the objective was to provide first unique data about the efficiency and pollutant emissions for a single cylinder compression ignition engine with a diesel energy fraction as minimum as possible (down to less than 2%) at constant 1000 rpm. Experiments cover the impact of a wide variation of the equivalence ratio of NH<sub>3</sub>-air mixture, from ultra-lean to slightly rich conditions. CO<sub>2</sub>, CO, NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O, UHC values were measured with a Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) spectrometer. Results of CO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O are presented as CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent impact. The combustion stability was achieved for most of conditions but not the leanest ones. Furthermore, under lean conditions for a similar ammonia content, the minimum CO<sub>2eq</sub> is reached with a slightly higher Diesel Energy Fraction than the minimum possible. Last, both leanest and richest conditions present a higher level of CO<sub>2eq</sub> compared to the range of ammonia/air mixture at stoichiometry or just below.

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Keywords: Ammonia, Diesel pilot ignition, Emissions, performances.

#### 1 Introduction

2 Ammonia is more and more recognised as one 3 chemical storage solution with the potential of 4 delivering green hydrogen over long distances and 5 for heavy loads [1], especially to store and flexibly distribute energy obtained from renewable sources 6 such as wind, solar and marine [2]. The IMO's 7 8 Initial Strategy for Green House Gases Reduction, 9 in 2018, pointed out ammonia will be not only a 10 'storage molecule' but one fuel necessary to 11 decarbonize the maritime sector for 2050. However, 12 several challenges still remain for the use of ammonia as a fuelling vector. Out of all the main 13 14 challenges recognised in the transition of a 15 hydrogen-ammonia economy [3], public perception, adequate legislations and a better knowledge on 16 17 environmental impacts are probably the most complex to deal with. Angeles et al. [4] concluded 18 19 that internal combustion engine vehicles using 20 biomass-based ammonia could deliver lower carbon footprint profiles than diesel or gasoline fuel. 21 22 Similarly, Bicer and Dincer [5] analysed various city 23 transportation and power generation systems fuelled 24 with ammonia from nuclear plants. The results 25 denoted a considerable decrease in greenhouse gas emissions with an acute impact on global warming 26 potential. However, the results also demonstrated 27 28 that with the reduction of carbon footprint the 29 increase in nitrogen-based species (ie. NO<sub>X</sub>) could 30 be considerably high, shadowing the overall balance 31 in greenhouse gases mitigation. Finally, a recent

32 report produced by the Maritime Cleantech Cluster 33 [6] stated that the use of liquid ammonia in internal combustion engines for maritime purposes can lead 34 35 to "net zero emissions". However, careful 36 considerations need to be taken to avoid large GHG 37 emissions during the combustion itself. The report 38 raises the importance of fully evaluating some of the 39 most environmentally damaging molecules of ammonia combustion, as N<sub>2</sub>O, which requires 40 further studies. Thus, it was concluded that ammonia 41 42 is a free-carbon fuel but not necessarily a "zeroemissions" combustion fuel. Since Spark Ignition 43 44 (SI) engines using ammonia require important 45 ignition energy [7] for a large cylinder like the case 46 of X40DF-1.0 [8], most marine engine 47 manufacturers announced that ammonia will be used 48 as fuel in Compression Ignition (CI) engines. Due to 49 the high auto-ignition temperature and the low 50 reactivity of ammonia, dual-fuel concept seems to 51 be more adapted as in [9-11]. But in order to reach zero carbon emissions as well as possible, the 52 53 amount of diesel has to be limited. For that RCCI 54 (Reactivity Controlled Compression Ignition 55 Combustion) concept is the most adapted as 56 underlined in [12, 13] : a pilot fuel with a higher 57 reactivity ensures the combustion ignition and 58 stability of the premixture of ammonia/air. The high 59 reactivity fuel chosen is the diesel one as a current 60 fuel on board vessels. Only two recent study is focused on this ignition of ammonia engine by diesel 61 pilot injection [14, 15]. Therefore, the objectives of 62 the present study are to evaluate the potential of 63 RCCI for ammonia engine in terms of stability and 64

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performance, i.e. to use a diesel energy fraction as 1 minimum as possible - below 2% for certain 2 3 operating conditions - and to characterize the 4 exhaust emissions. Experimentations cover the 5 impact of a wide variation of the premixed equivalence ratio (Ultra-lean to rich premixed 6 7 ammonia-air mixture) and of the Diesel Energy 8 Fraction (DEF) (maximum 12.5%) on the 9 performances and emissions in a single cylinder 0.5 10 l engine. A special attention will be given to  $N_2O$  due to its large global warming effect: at equivalent 11 12 mass,  $N_2O$  has a global warming potential 265 times 13 more important than CO<sub>2</sub> as recently indicated the 5<sup>th</sup> assessment of IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on 14 Climate Change) [16]. For the first time, some 15 16 quantitative values about the global warming impact 17 of this kind of engine without any exhaust post-18 treatment system are provided.

# 19 Experimental set-ups and operating20 conditions

21

22 Engine tests were conducted on a four-cylinder 23 Compression Ignition PSA DW10 light duty engine 24 converted into a 0.5 l single cylinder engine. All 25 experimental set-up details are shown in Fig. 1, with more details specified in Table.1. The engine speed 26 27 was maintained constant at 1000 rpm. The intake 28 and exhaust temperature and pressure were acquired 29 by K thermocouples and resistive absolute pressure 30 transducer respectively. The in-cylinder pressure 31 from a relative quartz pressure transducer Kistler 32 6045A was acquired via a LabView data acquisition 33 system, with a resolution of 0.1 CAD, provided by a

34 Kubler optical encoder.



35

#### 36 **Fig. 1** : Global view of experimental set-up

37 Ammonia, the 'low reactive' fuel was stored in 38 liquid form in a tank and heated to beevaporated 39 before entering inside the intake plenum to be mixed 40 with air. Ammonia and air flow rates were controlled by two Brooks thermal mass flowmeters. 41 The premixture was heated to be admitted up to the 42 43 intake desired temperature (T<sub>in</sub>=80°C). 44 For each operating condition, 200 consecutives

45 cycles of pressure data are recorded to analyze 46 cycle-to-cycle variations and compute averaged

- 47 pressure values. From the average pressure data, as48 a function of the crank-angle degree (each 0.1
- 49 CAD), the apparent fuel-combustion heat release is
- 50 computed from the first law of thermodynamic, first
- 51 by considering constant  $\gamma$  value as :

52 
$$\frac{dQ}{d\theta} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1} P \frac{dV}{d\theta} + \frac{1}{\gamma - 1} V \frac{dP}{d\theta}$$

53 With  $\gamma$  the heat capacity ratio, P the in-cylinder 54 pressure, V the in-cylinder volume and  $\theta$  the crank angle degree. Then, the average in-cylinder 55 56 temperature as a function of the crank-angle degree 57 is estimated. By using the Cp function of the 58 temperature, Cv and  $\gamma$  are then computed each 0.1 59 CAD. Then the heat release rate is calculated a 60 second time with this variable  $\gamma$ . The indicated work (IMEP) was evaluated by integrated the measured 61 62 pressure data with the volume variation. The blowby 63 and the internal recirculation of gases were not 64 considered here.

#### 65 Table 1. Engine specifications

Number of cylinders	1
Bore x Stroke (mm x mm)	85 x 88
Conn. Rod length (mm)	141
Displacement (l)	0.5
Bowl type	Re-entrant
Valves per cylinder (Int./Exh.)	(2/2)
Engine speed (rpm)	1000
Intake valve opening/closing	-117/344 ATDC
Exhaust valve opening/closing	134/396 ATDC
Swirl ratio (50 CAD BTDC)	2.0
Engine speed (rpm)	1000
Port intake pressure (bar)	1
Port intake temperature (°C)	80

66

#### 67 Exhaust emissions measurement

68 A fast Fourier Transformed InfraRed (FTIR) 69 DX2000 spectrometer was used to measure the 70 exhaust gases concentration of following species 71 H<sub>2</sub>O, CO<sub>2</sub>, CO, NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>X</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O, UHC. Special 72 attention was given to the accuracy of N2O 73 measurement at the exhaust especially at low 74 concentrations (lower than 50 ppm). For that, a 75 calibrated bottle of N<sub>2</sub>O/N<sub>2</sub> was used to evaluate the 76 interferences with other gases, as for instance CO<sub>2</sub>. 77 Thus, the optimized wavelength range 2300-2450 78 cm<sup>-1</sup> for N<sub>2</sub>O and 2100-2350 cm<sup>-1</sup> for CO<sub>2</sub> was 79 selected, validated for a mixture CO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub>O/N<sub>2</sub>. 80 During experiments, the exhaust gases samples are 81 heated up to 190°C before being analyzed by the 82 FTIR software. Each sample was collected and 83 analyzed every five seconds. For each condition, 20 84 consecutives samples were acquired after 85 stabilization. For N2O calculations, among these 86 samples, only ones with acceptable residuals were

considered. Standard deviations were computed but
only N<sub>2</sub>O ones are presented in this paper.

#### 3 Ammonia and Diesel amount conditions

The 'high reactivity' fuel, the diesel, was directly 4 injected inside the cylinder with a CRI Bosch 5 injector. The pressure of injection was maintained at 6 7 200 bar to ensure sufficient flexibility on injection 8 duration to adjust very low quantity as well as 9 possible. The characterization of injected diesel 10 mass was done as a function of different Durations 11 of Injections (DOI). A second order fit was used 12 afterwards to know the mass injected in each case of 13 the experiment. At each condition of ammonia/air 14 premixture and for each DOI, the Start Of Injection 15 (SOI) was carefully chosen to ensure the stability of the combustion and therefore to minimize the 16 17 variation of the Indicated Mean Effective Pressure 18 (IMEP). 4 different DOI were investigated to 19 experiment the effect of the diesel energy fraction value on the engine performance and exhaust 20 21 emissions: the DOI<sub>min</sub> corresponding to the 22 minimum amount of diesel injected which ensures stable combustion,  $DOI_{min}$  + 50, 100 and 150 µs. For 23 24 the leanest ammonia/air premixture conditions, the 25 dead-zone of the injector imposed a DOImin of 26 400µs. The values of DOI minimum as a function of 27 the ammonia/air equivalence ratio are shown in 28 Figure 2. This DOI<sub>min</sub> starts to increase only after 29  $\Phi_{\text{premix}} > 0.9$  due to the greater diesel demand to 30 ensure a stable combustion at each cycle.

From a calibration, a Diesel Energy Fraction (DEF)was determined as below:

33 
$$DEF = \frac{m_{diesel} \cdot LHV_{diesel}}{m_{diesel} \cdot LHV_{diesel} + m_{NH_3} \cdot LHV_{NH_3}}$$

#### 34 **Results**

#### 35

#### 36 Combustion development and characteristics

37 As it can be seen in Figure 3, the durations of Diesel 38 injection were set in order to ensure maximum 39 engine stability as well as possible. A minimum of 40 2% of DEF was possible only for NH<sub>3</sub>/air 41 equivalence ratio between 0.8-0.9. As expected, due 42 to the low flammability range for ammonia, it was necessary to increase the diesel injection amount for 43 44 the leanest mixtures up to 12.5% but for a very low



**Fig. 3**: Different DEF corresponding to the different DOI as a function of  $\phi_{\text{premix}}$ 

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49 In Figure 4, the Indicated Mean Effective Pressure 50 (IMEP) was plotted for all conditions with the 51 corresponding variability ( $\sigma_{\text{IMEP}}$ ). From 0.8 to 1.1 of 52  $\Phi_{\text{premix}}$ , a maximum of IMEP is obtained with a very 53 good engine stability. When the duration of diesel injection is slightly increased, it was possible to 54 55 ignite leaner ammonia/air mixture. Figure 5a 56 highlights the delay of the combustion as a function 57 of the equivalence ratio of the ammonia/air mixture 58 when the minimum of diesel amount to ensure 59 ignition of the premixed charge is injected. 60 Moreover, the more  $\phi_{\text{premix}}$  is rich, the more the heat release rate is important. These results agree with 61 62 those of Wüthrich et al. [13]. In Figure 5b, the 63 estimated averaged thermodynamic temperature along the cycle is plotted and indicates how this 64 temperature could be high when stoichiometric 65 66 mixture is used. Yet, lean conditions induce a temperature peak below 1000 K due to very low heat 67 68 release rate and therefore a poor ammonia 69 combustion efficiency.







2 3

4 Fig. 5: (a) in-cylinder pressure and heat release rate 5 and (b) average thermodynamic temperature 6 evolutions as a function of crank angle degree for 7 some different air/ammonia premixtures with 8 minimum diesel content to guarantee ignition and 9 combustion stability

10

Last, an example of the effect of diesel amount on 11 12 the combustion development is shown in Figure 6, 13 for the equivalence ratio of 0.9. The different durations of diesel injection induce different amount 14 of diesel energy fraction (1.5, 2.5, 3.5 and 5%). 15 16 When the diesel content is not minimum, the shape 17 of the heat release rate and pressure does not really change with the increase of diesel amount, this only 18 19 affects the maximum reached. The temperature 20 profile itself is similar.



Fig.6: (a) In-cylinder pressure (the left axis) and 25 heat release rate (the right axis) and (b) as a function 26 of crank angle degree for different DOI at  $\phi_{\text{premix}}=0.9$ 

#### 27 Exhaust emissions : unburnt species and CO<sub>2</sub>-CO

28 The emissions of unburned ammonia are a real issue 29 due to the environmental impact if no after-30 treatment is added [3]. In Figure 7a, one can notice 31 that the maximum of unburnt ammonia level is 32 obtained at ultra-lean conditions, and this maximum 33 peak decreases with the increase of diesel content, 34 due to the improvement of the combustion for these 35 mixture as a longer diesel injection induces more 36 stratification in the cylinder (stratification in total 37 equivalence ratio and local diesel/ammonia ratio). 38 Moreover, when going to the leanest ammonia/air mixtures, the unburnt ammonia emissions decrease 39 40 strongly as the combustion of ammonia is optimized 41 due to the relative importance of diesel energy 42 fractions.

43 Furthermore, with longer DOI strategies, more high

- reactivity zones are present inside the chamber and 44
- 45 located at different zones thus creating more local 46 ignition points.



 $\begin{array}{c} 2 & \phi_{premix} \\ 3 & \textbf{Fig.7: emissions evolution of unburnt (a). ammonia} \\ 4 & \text{and (b) hydrocarbons} \\ 5 & \end{array}$ 

6 Longer DOI might increase the local turbulencethus 7 improving the combustion. Besides, with longer DOI strategies, , more high reactivity zones are 8 9 present inside the chamber and located at different 10 zones creating more ignition spot to enhance ammonia combustion. This could be explained by 11 12 the dynamics of the diesel spray and the entrainment 13 of the fresh ammonia/air mixtures. From 0.7 to 1.0 14 of ammonia/air equivalence ratio, NH3 exhaust 15 emissions reached a minimum, without any impact 16 of the change in diesel content. This level remains 17 relatively important (1%) and is due to the design of the piston bowl as indicated in [17, 18], but not to 18 19 the ignition by a diesel pilot injection. As expected, 20 in rich condition, even slightly, the emissions increase due to the excess of fuel. By considering 21 22 Figure 7b, it is worth to notice that Unburnt 23 HydroCarbons levels increase with both ammonia and diesel content. To better visualize these effects, 24 25 the ratio between the UHC at the exhaust (in mass) 26 and the mass of diesel injected at the intake is 27 estimated (by assuming UHC as similar molecular weight than diesel) and plotted in Figure 8. A peak 28 29 of UHC, i.e., less efficient combustion of diesel 30 occurs at  $\phi_{\text{premix}}=0.8$ , whatever the fraction of diesel 31 but the combustion of diesel is improved when 32 increasing the DOI. Above this  $\phi_{\text{premix}}=0.8$ , UHC 33 ratio decreases with ammonia content and strongly

with diesel content. Therefore, it can be concluded 34 35 that the combustion of the diesel in an ammonia/air 36 mixture in engine operating conditions is improved 37 when the amount of diesel is not set at the minimum 38 possible. In fact, ammonia has an inhibiting effect 39 on the diesel combustion especially in the case of 40 small diesel amount. This was observed during the 41 experiments near the minimum of diesel fraction 42 needed to burn the premixed charge: just below this 43 limit ammonia inhibits diesel ignition and increase 44 auto-ignition delay as concluded in [19] with n-45 heptane/ammonia blend.



**Fig.8:** evolution of unburnt hydrocarbons ratio (exhaust UHC (mass)/diesel amount (mass))

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68

50 In Figure 9, it can be noted also that for the same 51 threshold value,  $\phi_{\text{premix}}=0.8$ , the emissions of CO 52 change: below this value, no CO emissions and 53 above this value, more and more CO is emitted, 54 despite the constant or even higher diesel amount 55 introduced, compared to leaner  $\phi_{\text{premix}}$ . While for 56  $\phi_{\text{premix}}$  >0.9, the CO levels increase very rapidly and 57 reach higher levels than CO<sub>2</sub> at the exhaust. By 58 increasing the diesel content at the input, the CO 59 above  $\phi_{\text{premix}}=0.9$  is greater than for poorer diesel 60 content due to less oxygen available for the greater 61 diesel content.

62 This evolution of CO between 0.8 and 1.0 is related 63 to the uncomplete oxidation which leads to the 64 decrease of CO<sub>2</sub>. As expected CO<sub>2</sub> levels are greater 65 for longer DOI strategies.

#### 67 Exhaust emissions : NO<sub>X</sub> species

69 As previously measured in [17, 18] with the same engine but ignited by a spark, NO<sub>X</sub> emissions, 70 71 plotted in Figure 10.a, reach a maximum level near 72 an equivalence ratio of 0.8. Adding diesel changes 73 only slightly the equivalence very ratio 74 corresponding to the maximum: more diesel induced 75 a peak of NO<sub>X</sub> for leaner conditions but with a slight 76 decrease of the peak. For example, at  $\phi_{\text{premix}}=0.9$ , for 77  $DOI_{min}$  the NO<sub>X</sub> emission is 4211 ppm for a peak 78 average temperature of 1839 K and for greater diesel 79 content with DOImin+150µs NOX level is at 3506

- ppm for a peak average temperature of 2180 K. But 1 2 for all cases at  $\phi_{\text{premix}} = 1.1$ , the level remains at 1000
- 3 ppm, contrary to previous studies where zero

4 emission of NO<sub>X</sub> is obtained, certainly due to the

5 pilot diesel injection.

6



12

10 for all conditions 11

13 Figure 10.b confirms that  $NO_2$  remains very 14 neglectable: almost zero above  $\phi_{\text{premix}}=0.6$  and 15 below 50ppm for ultra-lean conditions, with a positive effect of diesel amount. Adding diesel will 16 17 decrease even more these levels mostly due to higher temperature reached compared to DOI<sub>min</sub>. Indeed, 18 19 when NO<sub>2</sub> is plotted as a function of the maximum 20 average thermodynamic temperature (Figure 11), it 21 puts in evidence that NO<sub>2</sub> emissions increase when 22 this maximum is low due to the lean ammonia/air 23 mixture.





<u>2</u>9 Fig.11: evolution of NO<sub>2</sub> emissions as a function of 30 maximum average in-cylinder temperature.

#### 31 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions

32 For all operating conditions, N<sub>2</sub>O levels remain 33 below 150 ppm but present two maximum peaks, 34 one at ultra-lean conditions ( $\phi_{\text{premix}}=0.45$ ), and 35 another lower one around stoichiometry, with a 36 minimum achieved at slightly rich conditions 37  $(\phi_{\text{premix}}=1.1)$ . This specific trend of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions as 38 a function of ammonia/air mixture is in a good 39 agreement with that obtained in a swirl burner [21]. 40 The increase of diesel amount for a same  $\phi_{\text{premix}}$ decreases the levels of N2O, except for DOI 41 42 minimum, where the standard deviation indicates 43 less stability. Figure 12b illustrates N<sub>2</sub>O emissions 44 (g/kWh) at the exhaust from  $\phi_{\text{premix}}=0.5$  to 45  $\phi_{\text{premix}}$ =1.1. First, the lowest indicated power due to 46 the leanest ammonia/air mixture leads to the highest 47 levels of N<sub>2</sub>O. For each premixed equivalence ratio, 48 the longer the DOI the higher the DEF. It seems that 49 to reduce N<sub>2</sub>O as much as possible the good strategy 50 is to run at slightly rich conditions ( $\phi_{\text{premix}}=1.1$ ) or 51 lean conditions ( $\phi_{\text{premix}} = 0.7-0.9$ ), as ultra-lean and 52 near stoichiometry cases increase significantly N2O 53 at the exhaust. For conditions ( $\phi_{\text{premix}} = 0.7-0.9$ ), it 54 seems that to reduce N<sub>2</sub>O as much as possible 55 limiting the diesel energy fractions as well as 56 possible (below 2%) is not the opimised strategy.



4 5 energy fraction (b)

6 To understand better the key parameters which drive 7 N<sub>2</sub>O emissions, the impact of the combustion 8 duration and of the maximum average in-cylinder 9 temperature on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions is provided for 3 10 ranges of premixed equivalence ratio: ultra-lean conditions (a)  $\phi_{\text{premix}} = 0.25 \cdot 0.5$ , lean conditions (b) 11 12  $\phi_{\text{premix}} = 0.55 \cdot 0.8$ , near-stoichiometric conditions (c) 13  $\phi_{\text{premix}} = 0.85$ -1.1 as ranked in Figure 13. First, the decrease of the peak average in-cylinder temperature 14 appears when the combustion duration is longer. At 15 16 ultra-lean conditions, it might be assessed that except for the lowest peak of temperature 17 (T<sub>peak</sub><1100 K), N<sub>2</sub>O emissions are only affected by 18 19 the combustion duration since levels are rising 20 constantly with longer combustion duration. Under 21 the lowest T<sub>peak</sub>, it has to be added that all low levels 22 of N<sub>2</sub>O emissions (<100 ppm) are obtained with only 23 less than half of the ammonia at the input correctly 71



1



burned. For lean conditions, no distinction can be 24 25 done between the impact of combustion duration 26 and the peak of in-cylinder temperature due to their 27 inter-link. But, both, a short combustion duration 28 and a high peak temperature, are required to ensure 29 the lowest levels of N2O. It is also interesting to 30 notice that the highest variations tend to appear 31 increasingly at longer combustion duration and 32 lower T<sub>peak</sub>, except at DOI<sub>min</sub> where the standard 33 deviation is really too important. Finally, at near-34 stoichiometric conditions, both factors have a huge 35 impact on N<sub>2</sub>O emissions since with shorter 36 combustion duration than 13°CAD and T<sub>peak</sub>>2000 37 K, the levels of N<sub>2</sub>O are constant under 50 ppm. It is 38 also observed that a narrow window of T<sub>peak</sub> (2050 39 K<T<sub>peak</sub>< 2100 K) seams to minimize under 20 ppm  $N_2O$  at the exhaust for near-stoichiometric 40 41 conditions. For these operating conditions, 42 combustion durations vary a lot (between 14.3 CAD 43 and 9.2 CAD) indicating that no optimized range for 44 N<sub>2</sub>O under 20 ppm is observed for the combustion 45 duration.

#### 46 Discussion about Global warming impact for RCCI ammonia engine 47 48

49 Since 1 kg of N<sub>2</sub>O has been assessed in [17] to be 50 equivalent as 265 kg of CO<sub>2</sub>, an equivalent CO<sub>2</sub> 51 (g/kWh) was computed as below: 52

 $CO_{2 eq} = CO_2 + 265 \times N_2O$ 

53

for conditions from  $\phi_{\text{premix}} = 0.5$  to  $\phi_{\text{premix}} = 1.1$ .

54 In Figure 14a, it can be observed that equivalent CO2 55 emissions are minimized for lean conditions, 56 between  $\phi_{\text{premix}}=0.6$  and  $\phi_{\text{premix}}=1.0$ , except for 57 DOI<sub>min.</sub> The best DOI strategy seems to be for these 58 conditions and engine, DOI<sub>min</sub>+50µs so around 2.5% diesel energy fraction. By operating at 59 of 60 stoichiometry or slightly rich, the increase the GHG levels is mainly due to the increase of diesel content 61 to ensure a correct combustion. To operate at leaner 62 63 conditions increases drastically the level of GHG. 64 Finally, it can be noticed that levels of GHG can be 65 reduced by ten times compared to regular light duty 66 diesel engine assessed in [20], by optimizing the 67 ammonia/air equivalence ratio and diesel energy 68 content. This is highlighted in Figure 14b, where the 69 same results are plotted as a function of Diesel 70 Energy Fraction.



**Fig.13**. N<sub>2</sub>O emissions as a function of combustion duration and maximum averaged in-cylinder temperature for ultra-lean (**a**), lean (**b**) and near stoichiometry conditions (**c**)



Contrary to what might be expected at first sight, the increase of diesel content does not directly increase the GHG equivalent as N<sub>2</sub>O share in GHG at the exhaust is not neglectable despite their low levels. It is clear that for this engine and operating conditions, to minimize the GHG, the premixed equivalence ratio to be retained has to be between  $\phi_{\text{premix}} = 0.7$  and  $\phi_{\text{premix}} = 0.9$  since they are the only ones reaching under 100g/kWh of GHG levels. But even by choosing a lean case, it is observed that reducing as much as possible the diesel content will increase drastically GHG levels in comparison to slightly richer diesel content. Finally, an interesting trend is seen only for lean conditions since an optimal DEF, between 2% and 4%, seems to allow to minimize  $CO_{2eq}$  under 100g/kWh. For each  $\phi_{premix}$  with increasing diesel content, first GHG levels are high due to high N<sub>2</sub>O levels with low CO<sub>2</sub> levels, then CO<sub>2</sub> levels increase slightly but N<sub>2</sub>O ones decrease drastically for DEF between 2% and 4% and for DEF >=4% the GHG rises due to increasing levels of CO<sub>2</sub> despite low levels of N<sub>2</sub>O. Otherwise at stoichiometric or slightly rich conditions, at fixed  $\phi_{\text{premix}}$ , the N<sub>2</sub>O levels are always so low that the slight increase of GHG levels is related to the DEF increase and induces higher GHG increase than at lean conditions, but it has to be underlined that in this study, the intake pressure was maintained constant, inducing a strong decrease of IMEP at lean conditions.



**Fig.14** CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent emissions as a function of  $\phi_{\text{premix}}$  (a) and diesel energy fraction (b).

#### Conclusions

In this study the impact of diesel and ammonia content on performances and emissions have been investigated in a RCCI engine for the first time. The combustion properties of ammonia and its impact on the oxidation of diesel make difficult the control of this combustion mode as a function of the start of injection and the duration of the injection. The diesel energy fraction had been minimized until 2% with stable operating conditions (5% of IMEP variation maximum) over a wide variation of the premixed ammonia/air equivalence ratio (from 0.6 to 1.1). It was possible to operate at ultra-lean conditions (until  $\phi_{\text{premix}}=0.25$ ) even if the combustion was not efficient and the engine stable. Both the ammonia/air premixed equivalence ratio and the diesel energy fraction affect the combustion development and the exhaust emissions. The change of the diesel energy fraction, done with four different DOI strategies, has a major role in emissions. A trade-off has to be made with this technology since all pollutants and equivalent GHG are at their lowest value for a premixed ammonia/air equivalence ratio around 0.8 with the correct DOI strategy except NO<sub>X</sub> which reaches its maximum. Last, this study has highlighted the major importance of considering N<sub>2</sub>O emissions even if its absolute level is low, by considering its equivalent global warming impact. This study demonstrates that reducing the diesel amount of the pilot injection as well as possible is not necessarily the best strategy to minimize the carbon footprint. An optimization of both the ammonia/air premixed equivalence ratio and the diesel energy fraction has to be found to ensure this minimum. Finally, the combustion duration and the maximum of average in-cylinder temperature have been proven to be two key indicators, depending of the premix equivalence ratio, on the levels of N2O at the exhaust.

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