

1 Computational optimization of CH₄/H₂/CO blends in a
2 spark-ignition engine using quasi-dimensional
3 combustion model

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11 **Abstract**

12 Recent research has proven that computational fluid dynamics (CFD) mod-
13 eling in combination with a genetic algorithm (GA) algorithm is an effective
14 methodology to optimize the design of internal combustion (IC) engines. How-
15 ever, this approach is time consuming, which limits the practical application of
16 it. This study addresses this issue by using a quasi-dimensional (QD) model in
17 combination with a GA to find optimal fuel composition in a spark ignition (SI)
18 engine operated with CH₄/H₂/CO fuel blends. The QD model for the simula-
19 tion of combustion of the fuel blends coupled with a chemical kinetics tool for
20 ignition chemistry was validated with respect to measured pressure traces and
21 NO_x emissions of a small size single-cylinder SI engine operated with CH₄/H₂
22 blends. Calibration was carried out to assess the predictive capability of the QD
23 model, and the effect of hydrogen addition on the lean limit extension of the
24 methane fueled engine was studied. A GA approach was then used to optimize
25 the blend composition and engine input parameters based on a fitness function.
26 The QD-GA methodology was implemented to simultaneously investigate the
27 effects of three input parameters, i.e., fuel composition, air-fuel equivalence ratio
28 and spark timing on NO_x emissions and indicated thermal efficiency (ITE) for
29 the engine. The results found indicated that this approach could provide opti-
30 mal fuel blends and operating conditions with considerable lower NO_x emissions
31 together with improved thermal efficiencies compared to the methane fueled en-
32 gine. The presented computationally-efficient methodology can also be used for
33 other fuel blends and engine configurations.

34 *Keywords:*

35 SI engine; fuel composition; quasi-dimensional model; efficiency; GA
36 optimization

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Preprint submitted to *Applied Energy* on May 2, 2021.
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37 **Nomenclature**

38 η	molecular viscosity [mP]
39 λ	air-fuel equivalence ratio
40 τ	time constant [s]
41 θ	engine crank angle [CA]
42 A	area [m ²]
43 C	constant [-]
44 D_3	fractal dimension of a 3D rough surface
45 K_{st}	flame stretch factor
46 L_I	integral scale of turbulence [m]
47 L_T	Taylor's micro-scale of turbulence [m]
48 m	mass [kg]
49 n	engine rotating speed [rpm]
50 Q	heat [J]
51 r_k	initial flame kernel radius [m]
52 s	engine stroke [m]
53 S_L	laminar flame speed [m/s]
54 t	time [s]
55 u	velocity [m/s]
56 ATDC	after top dead center
57 BTDC	before top dead center
58 CAD	crank angle degree
59 CCV	cycle-to-cycle variation
60 EGR	exhaust gas recirculation
61 EVO	exhaust valve opening
62 GA	genetic algorithm
63 ITE	indicated thermal efficiency
64 IVC	inlet valve closing
65 KI	knock integral
66 LES	Large Eddy Simulation
67 MFB50	crank angle at which 50% of the fuel mass fraction has burned
68 NG	natural gas
69 ON	octane number

70	QD	quasi dimensional
71	RANS	Reynolds-averaged Navier–Stokes
72	RMSE	root mean square error
73	SA	spark advance [CAD]
74	SI	spark ignition [CAD]

75 1. Introduction

76 The passenger cars, motorcycles and small engines rely on Spark Ignition (SI)
77 combustion mode, but because of the low compression ratio and stoichiometric
78 operation, their thermal efficiency is limited. Increasing per capita energy dem-
79 and and stringent CO₂ emissions regulations motivate the use of low-carbon
80 fuels in the transport sector. Natural gas has a crucial impact on reducing CO₂
81 emissions from combustion engines thanks to their favorable H/C ratio [1]. Ad-
82 ditionally, the high octane number and high knock resistance of methane allows
83 to run the engine on higher compression ratios [2, 3]. Moreover, lean natural gas
84 combustion has shown the potential to improve efficiency compared to stoichio-
85 metric gasoline engines, but suffers from unstable and poor ignitability of the
86 fuel-air mixture, leading to incomplete combustion or misfire [4]. The reduction
87 of flame speed at lean operation results in significant cycle-to-cycle variations
88 (CCV) [5]. Hydrogen is considered a suitable candidate as additive for lean-
89 burn natural gas fueled SI engines, due to its higher laminar flame speed, wider
90 flammability limits and small quenching distance [6, 7].

91 Syngas derived from natural gas, coal, biomass, or hydrocarbon feedstock,
92 is primarily consisted of hydrogen and carbon monoxide, which has also been
93 considered as a future fuel for internal combustion (IC) engines, since in addition
94 to offering similar advantages as hydrogen it can also be produced on-board
95 through fuel reforming [8, 9]. Fuel reforming has been shown to be an effective
96 method to add syngas to the intake charge for lean and dilute SI operation [10].
97 Syngas operated SI engine is expected to reduce the lean misfire limit, which
98 decreases the flame development duration leading to improved engine lean burn
99 capability. However, syngas also affects the engine volumetric efficiency, and
100 typically has a lower heating value compared to liquid fuels [11]. Considerable
101 power output derating (20%-30%) has been reported for direct use of syngas
102 in engines designed for natural gas operation [12]. Addition of natural gas into
103 syngas to form a fuel blend is an effective method to minimize power derating
104 and increase thermal efficiency of the engine [13]. In addition, NO_x emissions
105 can benefit from syngas combustion because of lean operation.

106 Trial and error approaches have been extensively used to study methane-
107 syngas fuel blends in SI engines [14–18]. However, the optimal composition of
108 the fuel blend can be determined numerically to satisfy the requirements of im-
109 proved performance and low exhaust emissions, in order to prevent costly exper-
110 iments. In a first step towards using optimization to determine computationally

111 the optimal composition of gaseous fuels in SI engines, Paykani et al. [19] em-
112 ployed simple models to study how ignition delay times and high laminar flame
113 speeds can be optimized by adding hydrogen and syngas to methane to obtain
114 optimal fuel blends under engine-relevant conditions.

115 Currently, 3-D engine simulations are being extensively used for the IC en-
116 gine research, however, optimization of complex engine configurations relies
117 mainly on computationally efficient simulation tools, such as zero-dimensional
118 (0D) and quasi-dimensional (QD) models, since extensive experimental investi-
119 gations can be costly and time-consuming (see, for example, [20]). There are
120 several research works in the literature where a QD model was employed for
121 combustion modeling in SI engines, but a few have considered fuel blends with
122 a wide blending range and operating conditions (e.g. [21, 22]). The main chal-
123 lenge in using QD model for fuel blend stems from variations in laminar flame
124 speed.

125 The aim of this paper is to bridge the gap by developing a computationally
126 cost-effective numerical tool for optimization of the fuel blend and combustion
127 system in an SI engine. A QD combustion model was presented and validated
128 through experiments in a small, single-cylinder SI engine. The QD combustion
129 model proposed here builds upon the previous models and includes an extension
130 of the QD model developed in an earlier work of Perini et al. [23]. Then a genetic
131 algorithm (GA) optimization methodology was coupled to the QD model to si-
132 multaneously optimize fuel blend composition and engine input parameters of
133 the SI engine. Major novelties of the present methodology include the extensive
134 work on fuel blends and optimization, as well as validations in a SI engine for
135 a wide range of operating conditions. The computational study demonstrates
136 the applicability of a rigorous but computationally cost-effective numerical op-
137 timization strategy for SI engines operating with gaseous fuel blends.

138 **2. Engine specifications and experimental facility**

139 A series of measurements were carried out on a Swissauto Wenko 250 cm³
140 four-stroke single cylinder SI engine on a test bench shown schematically in
141 Fig. 1. The engine specifications are given in Table 1. In order to calculate the
142 output torque and control the speed, the engine is mounted on a water-cooled
143 eddy current dyno. A gas mixing system consisting of one flow sensor for CH₄
144 and three flow controls for the other gases is mounted before the gas valve in
145 order to change the desired fuel mixture of CH₄ and H₂. For this study, no
146 synthetic exhaust gas recirculation (EGR) has been taken into account. For
147 correct model parameter calibration, a venturi mixer homogeneously mixes the
148 intake air and the fuel until it reaches the engine.

149 **3. Numerical methodology**

150 In the following sections the submodels used in this study will be explained.
151 First, the laminar flame speed calculation for fuel blends is presented which is
152 an important part of the QD combustion model.

Table 1: Engine Specifications.

Engine name	Swissauto
Number of cylinders	1
Bore (mm)	75
Stroke (mm)	56.5
Connecting rod length (mm)	95
Total displacement (cc)	250
Compression ratio	12.5:1
IVC (CA deg ATDC)	-112
EVO (CA deg ATDC)	109
Fuel supply	Venturi gas mixer, naturally aspirated

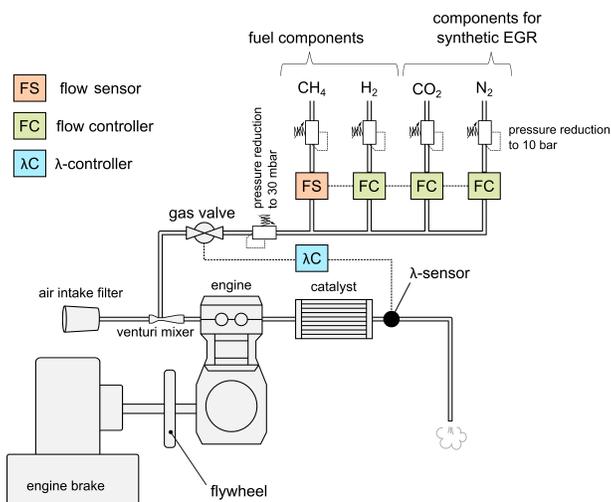


Figure 1: The engine test facility allows for freely adjustable CH₄/H₂ fuel mixtures and operation with synthetic EGR.

153 3.1. Laminar flame speeds

154 Laminar flame speed calculations for the CH₄/H₂ and CH₄/H₂/CO blends
 155 have been discussed in our recent published paper [19]. Since no suitable correlation
 156 for laminar flame speed was found in the literature for engine-relevant conditions,
 157 reaction kinetics computations were used to tabulate the flame speeds.
 158 In particular, a lookup table for S_L as a function of fuel composition, temperature,
 159 pressure, and equivalence ratio was generated using Cantera [24] within the
 160 ranges listed in Table 2. Following a comparative study of ignition delay times
 161 and laminar flame speeds of methane-based fuel blends under engine-relevant
 162 conditions with experimental data, the 290Rxn mechanism [25] was selected and
 163 is also employed in the present study. It is a reduced version of AramcoMech1.3
 164 mechanism [26] containing 72 species and 290 reactions, and has been successfully
 165 used to predict the ignition properties of biogas and syngas fuel mixtures,

166 as well as natural gas [25].

Table 2: Ranges of tabulated conditions for the laminar flame speed.

Parameter	Range	Step size
Pressure	5 – 95 bar	15 bar
Temperature	280 – 1000 K	120 K
Air-fuel equivalence ratio (λ)	1.0 – 1.8	0.16
H ₂ /syngas fraction	0.0 – 0.5	0.125

167 *3.2. Quasi-dimensional combustion model*

168 A two-zone, quasi-dimensional (QD) model for the simulation of combustion
 169 with methane-based fuel blends SI engine is presented. In QD models, the mass
 170 burning rate is computed by a predictive expression and the geometrical pa-
 171 rameters are characterized in the form of a thin flame front interface separating
 172 burned from the unburned gases [20]. The two-zone thermodynamic model has
 173 been already used in different papers (e.g. [27, 28]), and the detailed description
 174 can be found in [23, 29, 30].

175 Accurate submodels are critical for the predictive capability of a QD model,
 176 particularly the ones for ignition, combustion, heat transfer and knock, and a
 177 submodel was used for the prediction of NO_x emissions, as described in the
 178 following subsections.

179 *3.2.1. Ignition model*

180 Simple models are typically used to model ignition in SI engines. The initial
 181 flame kernel is often considered as a certain mass or volume [29]. In this work,
 182 an initial flame kernel with a constant volume is assumed. Although such an
 183 initialization is arbitrary, it has provided acceptable results in previous works
 184 [23, 31]. The kernel shape was selected to be sphere with radius of $r_k = 0.01$ m.
 185 Sensitivity analysis of maximum in-cylinder pressure and crank angle degree in
 186 ignition kernel modeling was also performed around this value with 10% change
 187 and the results were reported in the Fig. 2. The sensitivity analysis of flame
 188 kernel was done to define the sensitivity of the model with respect to this con-
 189 stant in different operating condition and find out which case number is more
 190 sensitive to the flame kernel size. The kernel shape was selected to be sphere
 191 with radius of $r_k = 0.01$ m. Generally the value of the kernel size should be
 192 chosen in a way that the model results capture the experimental data.

193 *3.2.2. Combustion model*

The fractal combustion model based was employed, where the entrainment
 of unburned gas into the mean flame front was modeled by Blizzard and Keck
 [32] as,

$$\frac{dm_e}{dt} = \rho_u A_f u_{te} \quad (1)$$

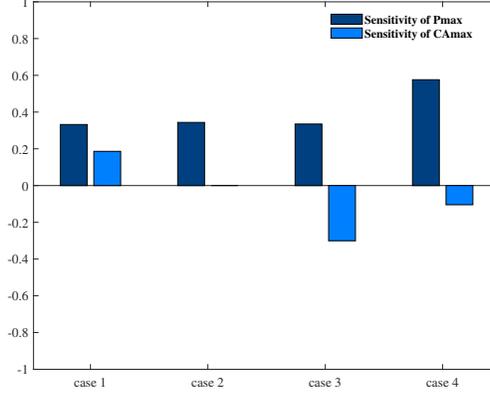


Figure 2: Sensitivity of the maximum in-cylinder pressure and crank angle degree in ignition kernel modeling.

Here, u_{te} is the ‘turbulent entrainment’ velocity, and A_f denotes the mean flame front area. The accurate flame front area prediction is important for the mass fraction burned profiles. The mass burning rate can be assumed to be proportional to the unburned mixture’s mass within the entrainment front,

$$\frac{dm_b}{dt} = \frac{m_e - m_b}{\tau_b}, \quad \tau_b = C_{\tau_b} \frac{L_T}{S_L} \quad (2)$$

194 A characteristic time constant τ_b is used to control this process, which is cal-
 195 culated as the ratio of the Taylor micro-scale length to the laminar burning
 196 velocity.

The fractal-based methodology has been widely showed good results for combustion modeling of SI engines [33–35]. A better agreement with the experimental results, a better replication of the overall burn rate shape, and a reduced tuning effort have been demonstrated compared to the eddy burn-up theory [36]. The model assumes that flame wrinkling dominates the burning rate and the wrinkled surface area of the flame can be characterized by a fractal geometry [37]. Turbulence causes the flame wrinkling, hence increases its surface area and consequently the flame speed

$$u_t = u_L \left(\frac{L_{\max}}{L_{\min}} \right)^{D_3 - 2} \quad (3)$$

where u_L is the laminar burning velocity of the stretched flame front, L_{\min} , L_{\max} denote the minimum and maximum turbulence wrinkling scales, respectively, and D_3 is the fractal dimension of a three-dimensional rough surface. Matthews and Chin [38] proposed the following stretch model for the relationship between S_L and u_L

$$u_L = S_L \left(1 - \frac{\eta_u}{\rho_u S_L^2} K_{st} \right) \quad (4)$$

in which η_u is the molecular viscosity of the unburned mixture, and K_{st} the flame stretch factor [39]. Santavicca et al. [40] introduced a reliable expression for the prediction of D_3 as

$$D_3 = C_{D_3} 2.35 \frac{u'}{u' + S_L} + 2.0 \frac{S_L}{u' + S_L} \quad (5)$$

For suitable in-cylinder turbulence modeling, a simple turbulence model, first proposed by Hall and Bracco [41] was considered

$$u'_{TDC} = 0.75 \bar{u}_p = 0.75(2sn), \quad u' = C_{u'} u'_{TDC} \left(1 - \frac{\theta}{90}\right) \quad (6)$$

Finally, the transient flame development phase from early flame kernel growth to fully developed turbulent flame for the accurate prediction of turbulent burning velocity was considered based on the ratio suggested by Lipatnikov and Chomiak [42]

$$\frac{u_{t,t}}{u_t} = \left\{ 1 + \frac{\tau'}{t} \left[\exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau'} - 1\right) \right] \right\}^{1/2}, \quad \tau' = 0.55 C_{\tau'} L_I / u' \quad (7)$$

197 The turbulent burning velocity calculated from Eq. (3), and corrected with
 198 the exponential term for its transient development (Eq. (7)) gives the turbulent
 199 entrainment velocity u_{te} in Eq. (1), and thereby closes the model of turbu-
 200 lent flame development and combustion. The expressions for the fractal-based
 201 combustion model are shown in Fig. 3.

202 3.2.3. Wall heat transfer

A combined convective and radiative heat transfer approach was employed. The methodology couples a convective heat transfer coefficient according to [43] to a radiative term [44], for considering high temperature burned gases effects,

$$\frac{dQ}{dt} = C_Q \left(\frac{dQ_{h_0}}{dt} + \frac{dQ_r}{dt} \right) \quad (8)$$

203 where C_Q is a calibration coefficient. In addition, wall heat losses are distributed
 204 according to the wall-wetting area at the two zones.

205 3.2.4. Knock model

206 Variations of fuel composition in gas-fueled IC engines can lead to engine
 207 knock as a result of autoignition in the unburnt zone during the regular combus-
 208 tion process [45]. Autoignition depends on reactivity of the fuel-air diluted mix-
 209 ture in the end gas, and is usually characterized by the autoignition delay time
 210 [46]. Knock modeling in SI engines ranges from simple empirical expressions to
 211 complex formulations featuring chemical kinetics [47–49]. The Livengood integral
 212 [50] (Eq. (9) below) is widely used in knock models for 0D/1D-simulations
 213 as it is a fast and easy to calibrate method for estimating the onset of autoigni-
 214 tion and consequently the onset of knock.

215

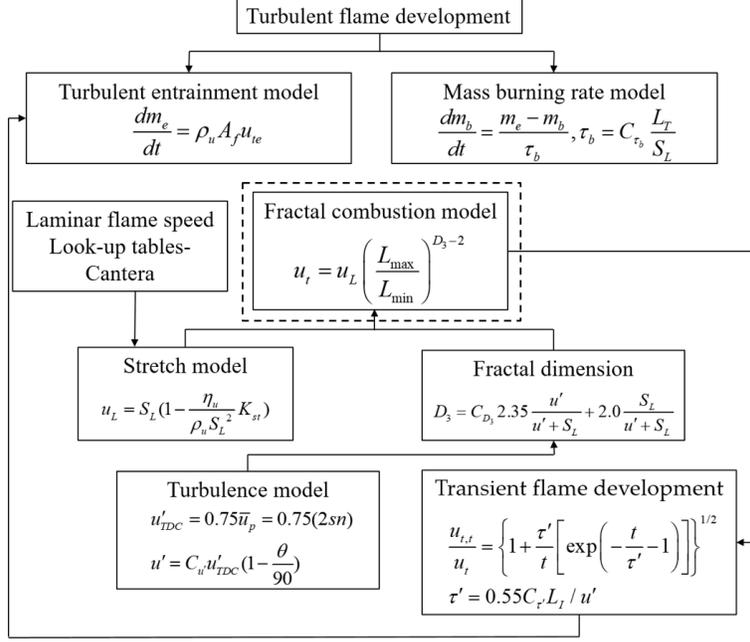


Figure 3: The fractal-based combustion model.

The knock integral (KI) has been used to describe a state related to a critical hypothetical indicator for the progress of the autoignition process of the end gas. By integrating its instantaneous value during the compression and combustion strokes, the overall ignition delay time can be computed, and is specified when the knock integral reaches the value of one,

$$\int_{t_{IVC}}^{t_{KO}} \frac{dt}{\tau(t)} = 1 \quad (9)$$

Here, t_{IVC} and t_{KO} are the times at intake valve closure and knock onset, respectively, and $\tau(t)$ is the instantaneous autoignition delay time. For the autoignition delay time calculation, a simple Arrhenius correlation is used for knock modeling [45]

$$\tau = Ap^n e^{\frac{B}{T}} \quad (10)$$

A , n and B are mixture-dependent parameters. For QD engine models, empirical expressions have been shown to yield good results [47]. Several well known parameter sets for Eq. (10) were tested in this study, and the most widely used one based on recording the knock onset in a CFR engine for various operating conditions [51] was selected

$$A = 0.01869 \left(\frac{ON}{100} \right)^{3.4017}, \quad n = -1.7, \quad B = 3800 \quad (11)$$

216 3.2.5. NO_x emissions

The minimization of NO_x emissions from SI engines is a crucial design target, and the QD combustion simulation framework must include a submodel for NO_x emissions. The main source mechanism (thermal-NO) is considered here, while ‘prompt’ NO, which describes the formation of NO at the flame fronts was neglected. The extended Zel’dovich mechanism listed in (Table 3) [52] was employed in the simulations, and the reaction rate expression for NO is modified by the introduction of a calibration coefficient c_{NO} , which multiplies the forward reaction rate of the first reaction

$$r_{NO} = c_{NO} k_{f,1} [N_2][O] - k_{b,1} [NO][N] + k_{f,2} [N][O_2] - k_{b,2} [NO][O] + k_{f,3} [N][OH] - k_{b,3} [NO][H] \quad (12)$$

Table 3: Arrhenius coefficients for the forward reactions of the extended Zel’dovich mechanism [23].

Reaction	A	b	E (kJ/kmol)
$N_2 + O \rightleftharpoons NO + N$	3.30×10^{12}	0.20	0.0
$N + O_2 \rightleftharpoons NO + O$	6.40×10^9	1.00	3160.0
$N + OH \rightleftharpoons NO + H$	3.80×10^{13}	0.00	0.0

217 **4. Model calibration**

218 The model was calibrated over the wide range of experimentally studied
 219 engine operating conditions summarized in Table 4. The measurement matrix
 220 comprises variable methane-hydrogen ratio, air-fuel equivalence ratio and spark
 221 timing at a constant engine speed of 3000 rpm and fully unthrottled operation.

Table 4: Validation cases and operating parameters.

Case	Speed (rpm)	λ (-)	f_{H_2} (%vol)	Spark timing (ST) (CA BTDC)
1	3000	1.4	0	45
2	3000	1.4	10	45
3	3000	1.4	25	45
4	3000	1.4	25	60
5	3000	1.6	10	45
6	3000	1.6	25	45
7	3000	1.6	50	45
8	3000	1.6	25	70
9	3000	1.8	50	45
10	3000	1.8	50	60

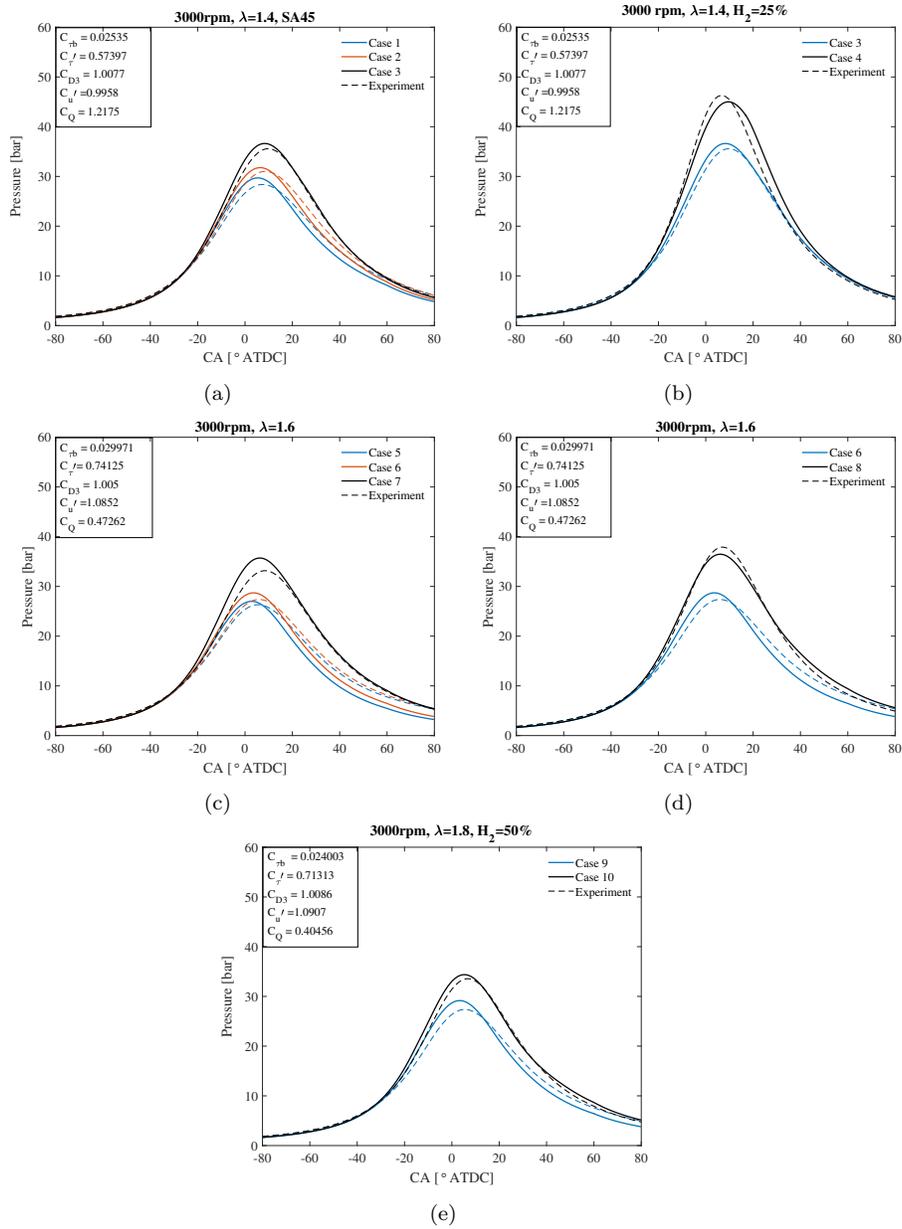


Figure 4: Comparison of the measured (dashed lines) and the computed (solid lines) in-cylinder pressure validation for the calibration constants specified for different cases.

222 4.1. Model calibration

223 The model was calibrated on the set of five coefficients regarding flame de-
224 velopment, turbulence–flame interaction and heat transfer submodels: C_Q for
225 heat transfer modeling, C_{D_3} for the fractal dimension of the developed flame
226 front surface, the $C_{u'}$ multiplier of the in-cylinder *rms* turbulence, $C_{\tau'}$ for tran-
227 sient turbulent flame development, and C_{τ_b} which is used for estimating the
228 overall burning rate time. For the optimization study, we need a specific set of
229 coefficients, which can yield good in-cylinder pressure predictions for the desired
230 range of the operating conditions. Since it is unlikely to obtain a set of specific
231 coefficients for all the studied cases in Table 4, validation and calibration focused
232 on three air-fuel equivalence ratios $\lambda = 1.4, 1.6, 1.8$. The coefficients were cali-
233 brated using simultaneous multi-objective minimization of the root mean square
234 error (RMSE) between measured and calculated in-cylinder pressure traces by
235 means of GA. Simulations were performed with values for all five coefficients
236 varying within a specified range, and the results at the ten operating conditions
237 of Table 4 are compared to the experimental in-cylinder pressure traces and
238 NO_x emissions in Figs. 4 and 5, respectively, showing a good agreement with
239 low RMSE error for all ten cases.

240 By operating the engine at hydrogen enriched methane of up to 50%/50%
241 CH_4/H_2 , it can be seen that the combustion process becomes faster, due to
242 the higher flame speed of the blend. From the emissions point of view, higher
243 hydrogen content generally results in increased NO_x emissions, although by
244 moving to a leaner point these can be lowered while still maintaining a similar
245 efficiency [53]. It is evident that for the leanest case of $\lambda = 1.8$, NO_x emissions
246 are almost negligible.

247 5. Genetic algorithm optimization strategy

A genetic algorithm (GA) was used to optimize the model output for the
input parameters listed in Table 5 together with their respective ranges of vari-
ation selected on the basis of the available experimental data and consideration
of the knock limit. Fuel composition and spark timing are design parameters at
different air-fuel ratio λ . The ranges of variation included the baseline condition
with pure methane operation. A properly-defined merit function is vital to the
efficiency and success of a GA. In this study, the following merit function is used
based on the work of Montgomery [54]

$$248 \text{ Merit} = \frac{1000}{\text{NO}_x/\text{NO}_{x_Base} + \text{ITE}_{Base}/\text{ITE}} \quad (13)$$

249 where ITE_{Base} and NO_{x_Base} are the indicated thermal efficiency and NO_x
250 emissions for the pure methane (case 1 in Table 4), respectively. The goal is
251 to demonstrate how the optimal results would improve ITE and NO_x emissions
252 compared to the base case (methane fueled engine). The optimization study
253 was performed based on the calibration, optimal parameters were obtained at
specific λ and finally the best case was selected.

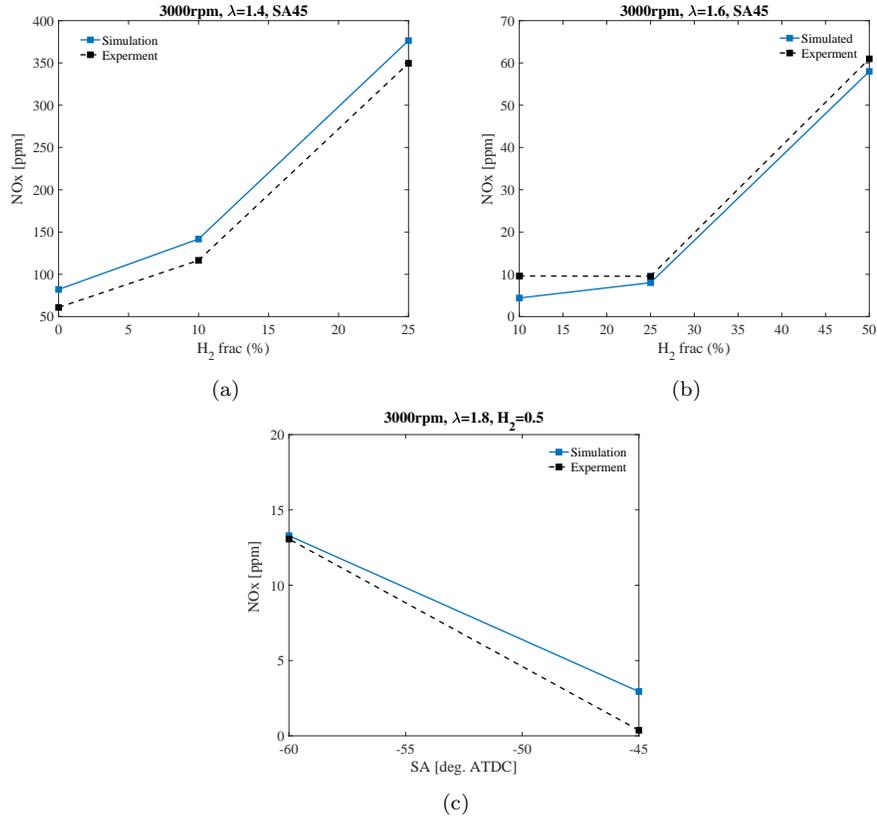


Figure 5: Comparison of the measured (dashed lines) and computed (solid lines) NO_x emission.

Table 5: GA design parameters and ranges.

Parameter	Range
H ₂ /syngas (%vol)	0 – 50
Air-fuel equivalence ratio (λ)	1.4 – 1.8
Spark advance ($^{\circ}$ CA BTDC)	10 – 80

254 5.1. QD-GA approach

255 The flowchart of the QD-GA methodology is illustrated in Fig. 6. A GA
 256 takes a “survival of the fittest” approach to optimize a design, and was run
 257 with a population of 20 individuals for 20 generations until the merit function
 258 converged, i.e., reached a maximum value globally. Each individual is a QD
 259 simulation case with a set of input parameters, which were initialized randomly,
 260 and each subsequent generation consists of a population containing the best in-
 261 dividual from the previous generation. The merit values for the individuals were

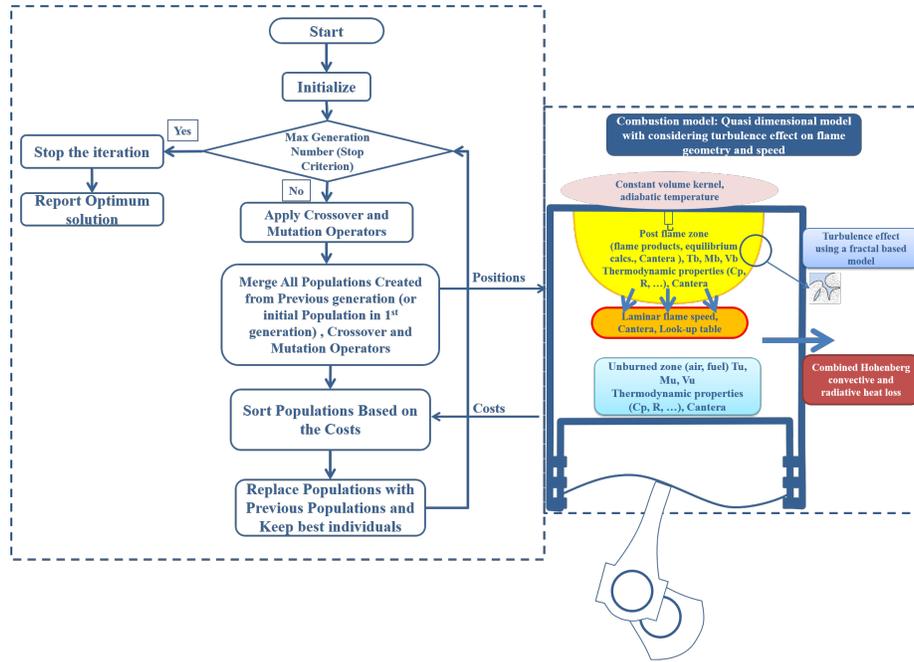


Figure 6: Flowchart of QD-GA solution methodology.

262 evaluated after each generation was completed and the population was monitored for
 263 similarity between the individuals. Convergence was achieved when the the maximum merit
 264 value was reached. The evolution of the merit function towards its maximum value during
 265 the progress of the QD-GA optimization for a sample case is shown in Fig. 7.
 266

267 6. Results and discussion

268 In this section, results from the QD modeling and the QD-GA approach for the fuel blends
 269 are presented and discussed. The outputs of the optimized configurations are compared
 270 against the baseline case as well as the QD results.

271 6.1. QD modeling results

272 The effect of H_2 fraction and spark timing variations on the indicated thermal efficiency
 273 ITE, maximum pressure, MFB50 and NO_x emissions at $\lambda=1.4$ are shown in Fig. 8. The
 274 ITE and maximum pressure is found to increase by H_2 addition and spark timing advance.
 275 As seen in Fig. 8, at higher hydrogen fractions and spark advance (SA) timings, MFB50
 276 is advanced resulting in higher maximum pressures and ITE values. This has an adverse
 277 affect on NO_x emissions which are found to increase considerably by advancing the spark
 278 timings from -50 to -80 CAD ATDC and increasing the hydrogen from 15 vol% to 50
 279

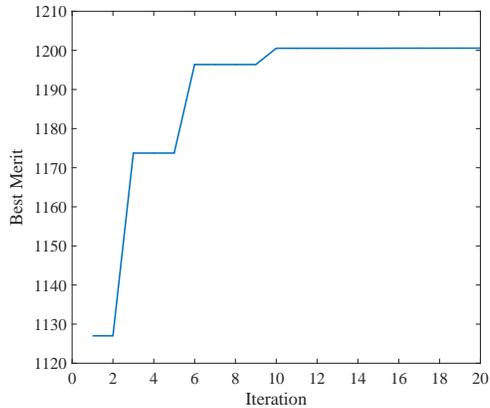


Figure 7: Evolution of the merit function using the QD-GA approach for methane-hydrogen blend at $\lambda = 1.8$.

280 vol%. Hydrogen addition increases flame speed and shortens the combustion
 281 duration, resulting in higher in-cylinder temperatures and pressures, which pro-
 282 mote NO_x formation. The best way to lower the NO_x emissions is to increase
 283 λ and/or retard the spark timing leading to lower mixture temperatures and
 284 reduced residual time of air in the heated zone. It can be concluded that in
 285 order to meet the requirement of high thermal efficiency and lower NO_x emis-
 286 sions lower H_2 fraction and spark advance timing in the range of -30 to -50
 287 CAD ATDC would be the optimal choices to avoid knock propensity, high NO_x
 288 emissions and misfiring for the studied engine.

289 The effect of hydrogen content and spark timing on knock onset and knock
 290 integral in the methane-fueled engine at $\lambda=1.4$ are shown in Fig. 9.

291 It can be seen that with advanced spark timing the knock integral increases.
 292 It is also evident that knock appears at H_2 content higher than $> 25\%$ with
 293 excessive spark timing advancing. Increased knock with higher H_2 fractions
 294 is due to the higher autoignition propensity and the wider flammability limit
 295 of hydrogen, while methane has higher knock resistance because of its higher
 296 ignition delay time. Details of autoignition delay times and laminar flame
 297 speeds for methane, methane/hydrogen and methane/syngas blends have been
 298 discussed in our previous paper [19]. Hydrogen addition increases the burning
 299 velocity and reduces the heat capacity of the blend leading to significantly higher
 300 end-gas temperature and pressure [55]. Hydrogen also has a very short flame
 301 quenching distance compared to methane, which allows flames to travel closer
 302 to the cylinder walls and results in the more severe knocking characteristics of
 303 higher H_2 content blends.

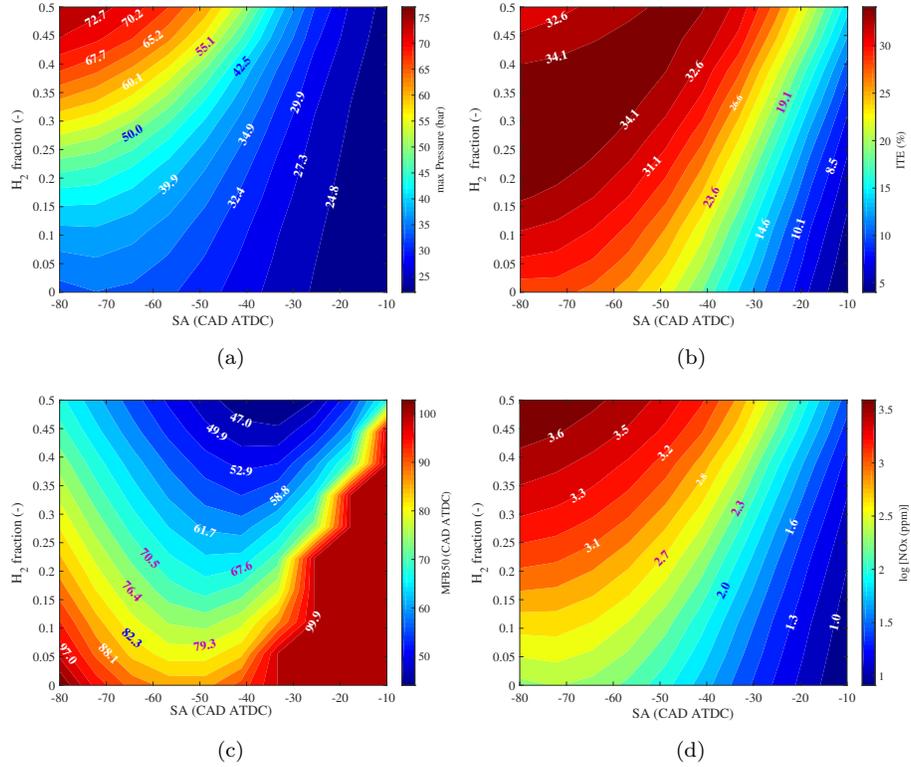


Figure 8: Effects of hydrogen content and spark timing on ITE and NO_x emissions for methane fueled engine at $\lambda=1.4$; (a) maximum pressure, (b) ITE, (c) MFB50, (d) NO_x emissions.

304 6.2. Optimization results

305 6.2.1. Methane/hydrogen blend

306 The composition of methane/hydrogen blends and spark timing were op-
 307 timized for the SI engine operating conditions at three λ values. Figure 10
 308 presents ITE versus NO_x emissions points for this optimization study obtained
 309 from simulations, in which the base and optimal cases found by the algorithm
 310 are highlighted. It was found that the ITE- NO_x trade-off is in agreement with
 311 the parametric study results of Ma et al. [53]. The trade-off extends towards
 312 higher ITEs and lower NO_x emissions as the λ increases. The temporal evolu-
 313 tion of in-cylinder pressure for both base and optimal cases are shown in Fig. 11.
 314 It is noteworthy that at $\lambda = 1.4$ the base and optimal cases are identical and it
 315 can be inferred that for quite lean mixtures, hydrogen addition is not effective in
 316 terms of NO_x emissions. For ultra-lean conditions, due to the hydrogen content
 317 in the blend and advanced spark timing the pressure is higher in the optimal
 318 case found by the algorithm. Thus, the total work done in the optimal case is

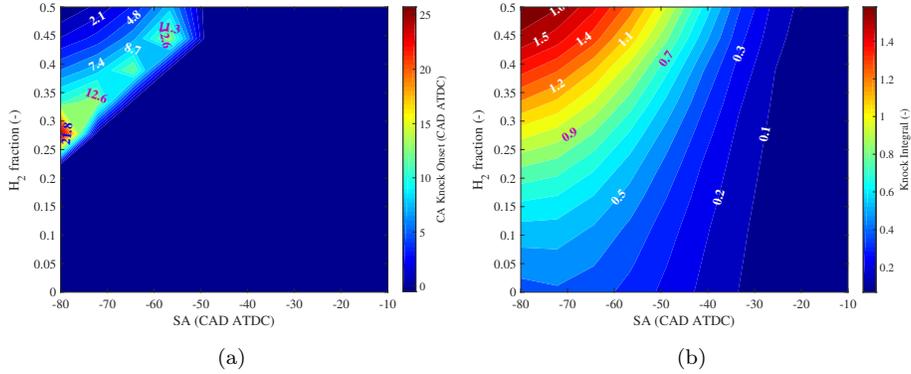


Figure 9: Effects of hydrogen content and spark timing on knocking in methane fueled engine; (a) knock onset; (b) knock integral.

319 higher with appropriate combustion phasing, resulting in higher ITEs and lower
 320 NO_x emissions.

321 From the chemical kinetics point of view, increased concentrations of OH,
 322 O and H radicals can be found with hydrogen addition to methane resulting
 323 in reduced ignition delay times and enhanced laminar flame speeds of CH_4/H_2
 324 blends [56, 57]. Hydrogen addition increases combustion efficiency due to shorter
 325 burn duration, which is beneficial for the engine to operate at higher λ values.
 326 However, at constant λ , hydrogen addition leads to higher peak in-cylinder
 327 pressures as a result of shorter burn duration.

328 The increased laminar flame speed obtained from addition of hydrogen re-
 329 sults in faster combustion and therefore higher temperatures inside the cylinder,
 330 which leads to higher NO_x emissions at constant λ .

331 It should be noted that when λ is increased to 1.8, hydrogen fraction and
 332 spark timing shifts toward higher values in the optimal case found by the algo-
 333 rithm. It was found that ultra-lean combustion can compensate the demerits of
 334 advanced spark timing and high hydrogen contents in terms of NO_x emissions,
 335 which are lower in the optimal case found by the algorithm because of the lower
 336 combustion temperatures associated with ultra-lean mixtures despite hydrogen
 337 addition.

338 The input parameters and the corresponding outputs for both the base case
 339 (case 1 in Table 4) and the optimal case from all simulations are listed in Table 6.
 340 The optimal case found by QD-GA yielded higher indicated thermal efficiencies
 341 and reduced NO_x emissions over the base case of pure methane due to extending
 342 the lean limit of the engine. It can be seen that the optimal case corresponds
 343 to the 58.9% CH_4 /41.1% H_2 , $\lambda=1.8$ and $\text{SA} = 80$ CAD BTDC.

344 6.2.2. Methane/syngas blend

345 The same approach was used to obtain the optimal composition for the
 346 methane and syngas blend for a mixture of 50% H_2 -50%CO by volume. Figure 12

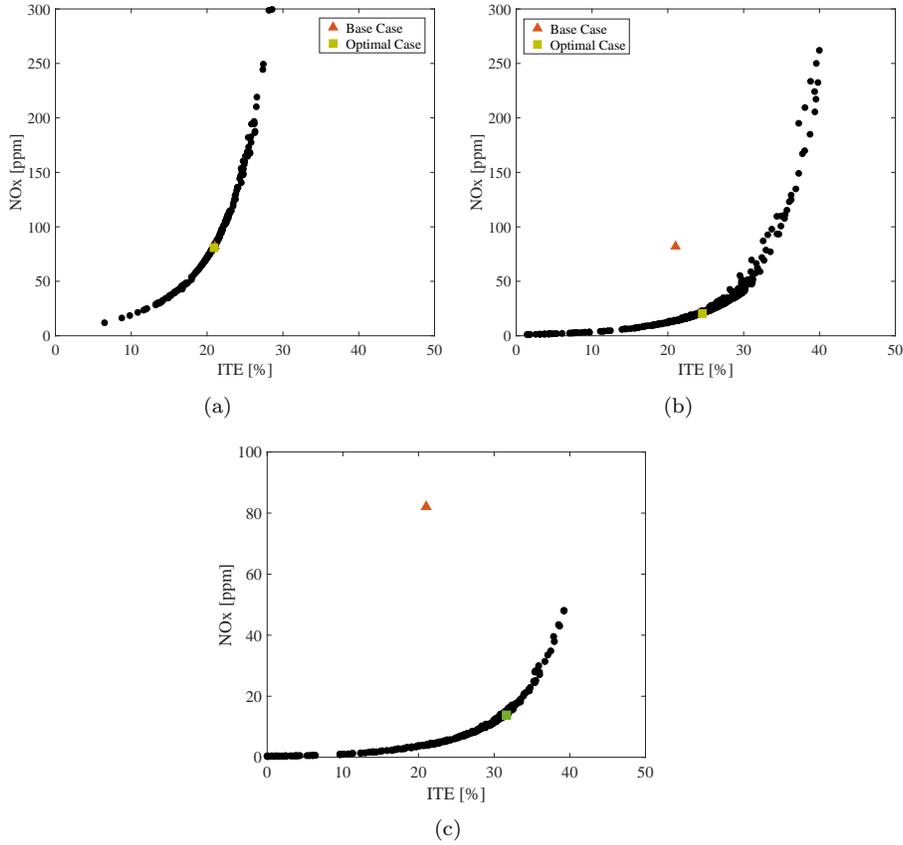


Figure 10: ITE versus NO_x emissions for methane-hydrogen case including the base and optimum: (a) $\lambda=1.4$; (b) $\lambda=1.6$; (c) $\lambda=1.8$.

347 reports ITE versus NO_x emissions points containing base and optimal cases for
 348 this optimization study. The same trend as in the methane/hydrogen case is
 349 noticed. The temporal evolution of in-cylinder pressure for both the base and
 350 optimal cases are depicted in Fig. 13. The addition of syngas to CH_4 accelerates
 351 combustion resulting in higher temperatures.

352 Not only H_2 but also CO can improve in-cylinder combustion and increase
 353 thermal efficiency. With the addition of syngas, the peak in-cylinder pres-
 354 sure increases, and flame development duration decreases compared to the pure
 355 methane case [58].

356 Syngas addition also tends to increase the NO_x emissions due to the increased
 357 in-cylinder temperature.

358 The impact of syngas addition is slightly weaker than that of H_2 addition, but
 359 much stronger than that with addition of pure CO [19]. The NO_x emissions are
 360 lower in the optimal case found by the algorithm because of the lower combustion

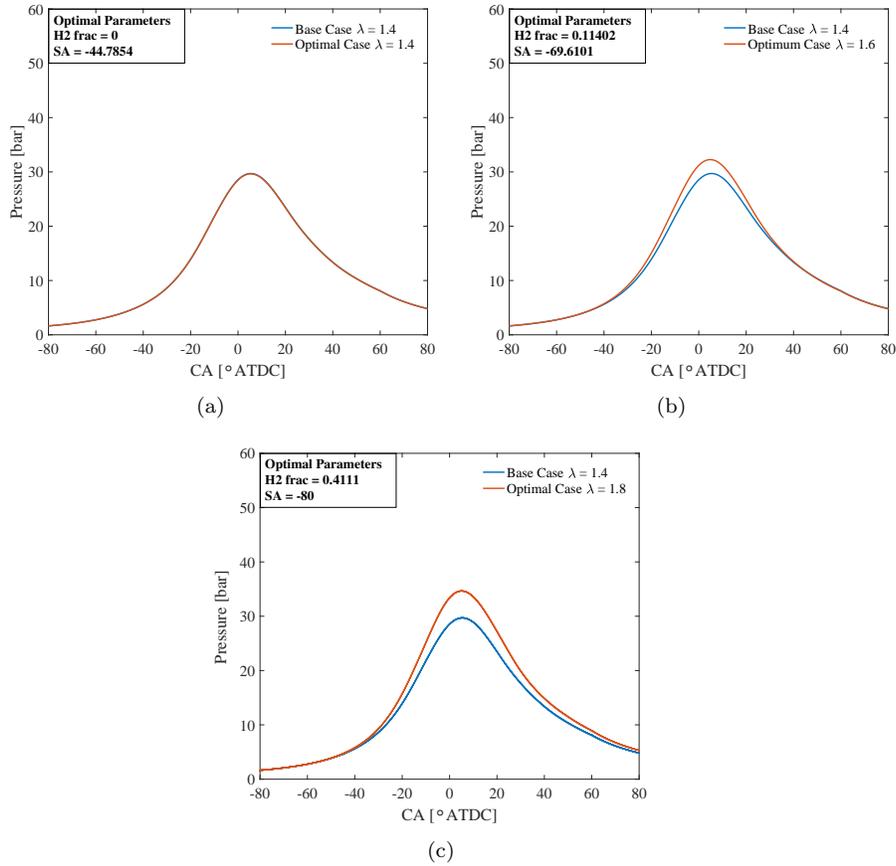


Figure 11: Comparison of in-cylinder pressure evolution for the base and QD-GA optimal methane-hydrogen cases: (a) $\lambda=1.4$, (b) $\lambda=1.6$, (c) $\lambda=1.8$.

361 temperature associated with ultra-lean mixtures despite syngas addition. Due to
 362 the high CO content in the syngas and thereby the low calorific value compared
 363 to hydrogen, the in-cylinder combustion temperature and pressure is lower,
 364 leading to lower emission levels in the case of methane/syngas blends. The
 365 relative amounts of CO and H₂ can have a significant impact on emissions. The
 366 thermal and chemical kinetic analyses have shown that the CO content in syngas
 367 has a stronger effect on the adiabatic flame temperature, but only plays a minor
 368 role in the chemical effect compared to the pure hydrogen addition [59].

369 The input parameters and the corresponding outputs for both the base case
 370 (case 1 in Table 4) and the optimal case from simulations are provided in Table 7.
 371 The optimal case found by QD-GA yielded higher indicated thermal efficiencies
 372 and reduced NO_x emissions over the base case. Because of the hydrogen content
 373 in syngas, its addition to methane increases the flame temperature, which has a

Table 6: Input parameters and outputs for the base and QD-GA optimal methane-hydrogen cases at 3000 rpm.

Parameter	Base case	Optimal case found by the algorithm
Inputs		
Fuel composition (%vol)	100%CH ₄	58.9%CH ₄ /41.1%H ₂
Air-fuel ratio (λ)	1.4	1.8
Spark timing (CA BTDC)	45	80
Outputs		
ITE (%)	21.01	31.63
NO _x (ppm)	82.07	13.83

374 strong effect on NO_x emissions. The increase to of $\lambda = 1.8$ results in significant
 375 reduction of the combustion temperature and thus in the NO_x level. It was
 376 found that the ultra-lean mixture resulted in reductions of almost 90% of NO_x
 377 emissions. Moreover, lower in-cylinder temperatures during the combustion
 378 process of ultra-lean mixture led to lower heat losses from the internal elements
 379 of the engine and consequently higher thermal efficiencies.

Table 7: Input parameters and outputs for the base and QD-GA optimal methane-syngas cases at 3000 rpm.

Parameter	Base case	Optimal case
Inputs		
Fuel composition (%vol)	100%CH ₄	50%CH ₄ /50%Syngas
Air-fuel ratio (λ)	1.4	1.8
Spark timing (CA BTDC)	45	80
Outputs		
ITE (%)	21.01	28.52
NO _x (ppm)	82.07	12.03

380 7. Conclusions

381 A quasi-dimensional model was employed for the simulation of combustion
 382 of a SI engine fueled with methane-hydrogen and methane-syngas fuel blends.
 383 The QD model was calibrated and validated against experimental data over
 384 a wide range of engine operating conditions and fuel blends. A genetic algo-
 385 rithm approach was implemented and coupled to the quasi-dimensional model
 386 to compute the optimal fuel blend and engine input parameters for an SI engine
 387 operating with methane/hydrogen and methane/syngas blends. The following
 388 key results were found:

- 389 • The addition of hydrogen extended methane-fueled SI engines' lean limit
 390 operation and enhanced ultra-lean combustion efficiency, achieving both
 391 high ITE and low NO_x emissions.

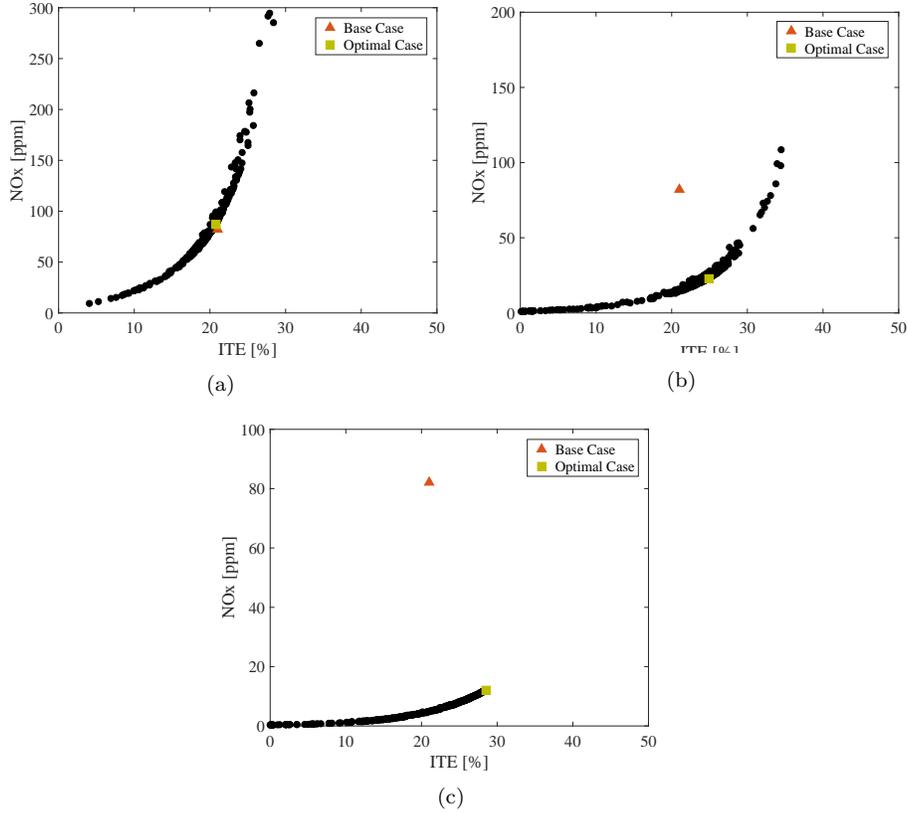


Figure 12: ITE versus NO_x emissions for methane-syngas case including the base and optimum: (a) $\lambda=1.4$; (b) $\lambda=1.6$; (c) $\lambda=1.8$.

- 392
- The lean limit extension with higher H₂ fractions of up to about 40% allows for operation at higher λ , where the NO_x-ITE trade-off can be shifted towards NO_x emissions below the base values and higher efficiencies.

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 - For the methane/hydrogen blends, the optimal blend was found to be 58.9%CH₄/41.1%H₂ at $\lambda=1.8$ and spark advance of 80 CAD BTDC. For methane-syngas blends, the optimal blend is 50%CH₄/50%syngas at $\lambda=1.8$ and SA of 80 CAD BTDC. It was noticed that the higher hydrogen fraction and λ values are favorable in terms of both efficiency and emissions, where a reduction of engine-out NO_x by 82.5% and a simultaneous increase in ITE by 33.5% were observed.

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 - Generally, it was found that the present methodology could reach an optimal design with favorable ITE and lower NO_x emissions compared to the pure methane fueled case. The average computational time for one QD-GA simulation case was 44 core-hours compared to the computational fluid

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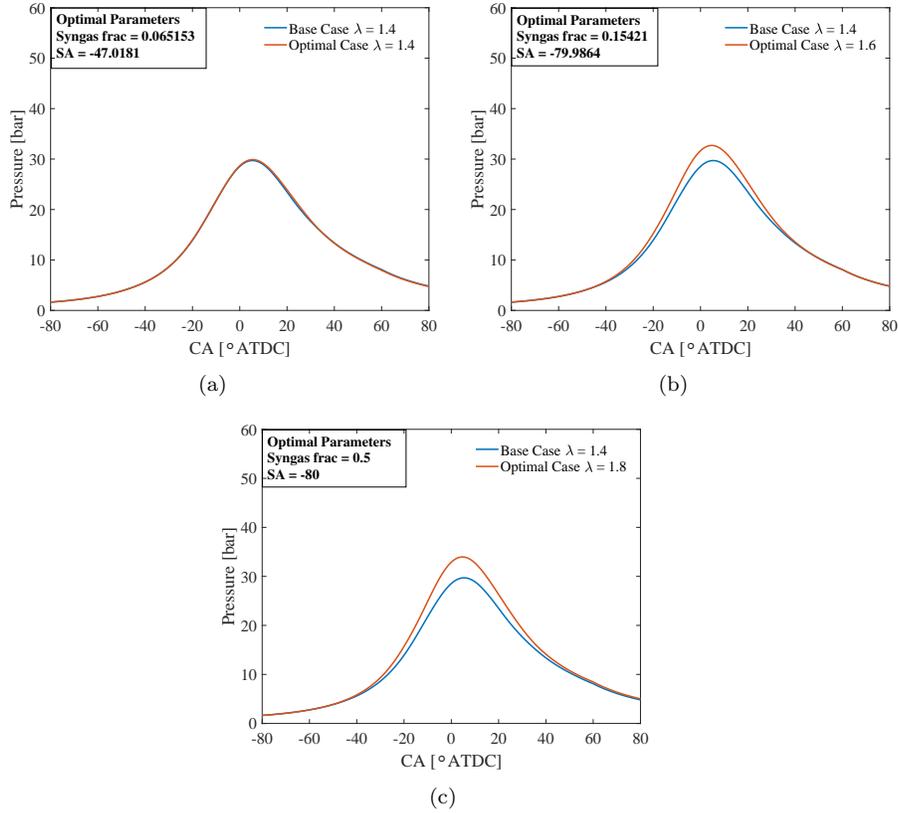


Figure 13: In-cylinder pressure comparison for the base and QD-GA optimal methane-syngas cases: (a) $\lambda=1.4$; (b) $\lambda=1.6$; (c) $\lambda=1.8$.

406 dynamics (CFD)-GA approach requiring more than 50,000 core-hours for
 407 the SI engine simulation [60]. Thereby, this methodology is very efficient
 408 and computationally cost-effective as a first screening step.

409 The methodology can be extended for inclusion of other gaseous fuel blends
 410 (e.g. biogas, ethane, propane etc.) and additional engine parameters for future
 411 research. In order to perform a comprehensive optimization study, additional
 412 operating and design parameters such as compression ratio and EGR could be
 413 considered. Currently we are working on the fuel and engine optimization using
 414 the CFD-GA approach to determine optimal blends and compare them to the
 415 QD-GA results.

416 Acknowledgements

417 This study was financially supported by the State Secretariat for Education,
 418 Research and Innovation (SERI), project C16.0066: Optimal fuel blends for

419 natural gas engines COST (SBFI/SNF) with number IZCNZ0-174833.

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