# COMPUTATIONAL FLUID DYNAMICS ANALYSIS OF NO<sub>x</sub> REDUCTION BY AMMONIA INJECTION IN THE MAN B&W 7S50MC MARINE ENGINE

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## SUMMARY

Taking into account the importance of  $NO_x$  (nitrogen oxides) emissions from marine engines and the current increasingly restrictive legislation, this work aims to develop a numerical model to study  $NO_x$  reduction. To this end, direct injection of  $NH_3$  (ammonia) into the combustion chamber was proposed in the MAN B&W 7S50MC marine engine. The numerical model was employed to analyze several injection temperatures, injection timings and ammonia to fuel ratios, obtaining  $NO_x$  reductions of almost 60%. Besides, a comparison between ammonia injection and water injection was done. The results showed that ammonia is more efficient than water to reduce  $NO_x$  with a negligible influence on other pollutants such as CO (carbon monoxide) and HC (hydrocarbons). Nevertheless, ammonia is efficient in a very restrictive temperature and injection timing range. This numerical model was compared with experimental measurements, obtaining satisfactory results which validate the work.

#### NOMENCLATURE

С	Concentration (kmol m <sup>3</sup> )
f	Mass fraction (-)
Н	Enthalpy (J kg <sup>-1</sup> )
k	Rate constant ( $m^3$ kmol <sup>-1</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> )
т	Number of reactions (-)
MW	Molecular weight (kg kmol <sup>-1</sup> )
N	Number of species (-)
р	Pressure (Pa)
S	Energy source term $(J s^{-1} m^{-3})$
t	Time (s)
Т	Temperature (K)
u	Velocity (m s <sup>-1</sup> )

#### **Greek symbols**

$\phi$	Diameter (mm)
μ	Dynamic viscosity (Pa s)
$\mu_t$	Turbulent viscosity (Pa s)
ρ	Density (kg m <sup>-3</sup> )
σ	Prandtl number (-)
$\sigma_h$	Turbulent Prandtl number (-)
$\sigma_{\zeta}$	Turbulent Schmidt number (-)
$ au_{ij}$	Stress tensor (Pa)
v	Stoichiometric coefficient (-)
ω	Net rate of production of a specie by
	chemical reaction (kg m <sup>-3</sup> s)

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, diesel engines power most of the ships in the world. Despite its efficiency, marine engines emit important quantities of  $NO_x$ ,  $SO_x$  and particulates. Merchant ships in international traffic are subjected to the International Maritime Organization (IMO). Particularly, the IMO Marpol Annex VI limits  $SO_x$  from marine fuels and  $NO_x$  emissions from marine engines. Apart from these international limitations, some regions

have developed regional and national tougher limits. Due to these increasingly restrictive regulations, many methods have been developed over the last few years to reduce diesel NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. Some of these methods, called primary measures, consist on reducing the amount of NO<sub>x</sub> during combustion. Concerning marine engines, several primary measures have been studied in the literature such as modification of injection parameters [1-9], water addition [10, 11], EGR [11-14], etc. On the other hand, other NO<sub>x</sub> reduction methods, called secondary measures, remove NO<sub>x</sub> from the exhaust gases by post-combustion cleaning techniques. The most employed secondary measures in diesel engines are SNCR (selective non-catalytic reduction) and SCR (selective catalytic reduction). The former consists on reducing NO<sub>x</sub> to nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) using a nitrogen reducing agent such as ammonia, urea (CO[NH<sub>2</sub>]<sub>2</sub>), cyanuric acid ([HNCO]<sub>3</sub>), hydrocarbons, etc. SNCR process has been successfully implemented in stationary power plants boilers and industrial furnaces. The main disadvantage of SNCR is that this is only efficient in a narrow temperature window centered at approximately 1200K (±100), Lamas and Rodriguez [15]. Flue gas from marine engines does not reach this temperature, and re-heating them is complicated. For this reason, catalysts are commonly employed to reduce NO<sub>x</sub> from exhaust gas, what is called SCR. The main disadvantages of SCR are the poor durability and price. Besides, an additional space is required for the catalytic reactor. Several works about SCR in marine engines can be found in the literature [16, 17].

Taking into account the disadvantages of SCR and the temperature requirements of SNCR, the present work studied the possibility of injecting the reducing agent directly into the combustion chamber [18-20]. The marine engine MAN B&W 7S50MC was analyzed numerically using ammonia as  $NO_x$  reducing agent. The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 describes the computation of  $NO_x$  reduction by ammonia injection. Section 3 describes the engine analyzed and the

details of the numerical model and Section 4 indicates the results. Finally, the conclusions of this work are presented.

#### 2. COMPUTATION OF NO<sub>x</sub> REDUCTION BY AMMONIA INJECTION

This section describes the procedure employed to model numerically  $NO_x$  reduction by ammonia injection. First of all, the chemical kinetics models are described. After that, the implementation of the chemical models into a CFD code and finally a validation of the numerical model using experimental results obtained from the literature.

#### 2.1 CHEMICAL KINETICS MODEL

Among all NO<sub>x</sub> components, almost 100% is NO. SNCR of NO using ammonia was first described by Lyon in 1975 [21]. Since then, the kinetics of the process was intensively studied. The first kinetic model was proposed by Miller and Bowman [22], based on 73 reactions and 19 species. Other models are those of Glarborg et al. [23], involving 104 reactions and 22 species; Miler and Glarborg [24], involving 134 reactions and 24 species; etc. Simplified models are also available in the literature, for instance those of Brouwer et al. [25] and Duo et al. [26], based on two-reactions. As the simulation of a complex chemical model demands extremely high computational resources, the present work employed the simplified models of Brouwer et al. [25] and Duo et al. [26]. The reactions and rate constants of these are given in Tables 1 and 2 respectively.

Table 1. Reactions and rate constants of the model of Brouwer *et al.* [25].

Reaction	<b>Reaction rate constant</b>
$NH_3 + NO \longrightarrow N_2 + H_2O + H$	$k_{1} = 4.24 \times 10^{8} T^{330} e(-83600 / RT)$
$NH_{3}+O_{2} \xrightarrow{k_{3}} NO+H_{2}O+H$	$k_{2} = 3.50 \times 10^{5} T^{745} e(-125300 / RT)$

Table 2. Reactions and rate constants of the model of Duo *et al.* [26].

Reaction	Reaction rate constant
$NH_3 + NO + 1/4O_2 \longrightarrow N_2 + 3/2H_2O$	$k_{1} = 2.45 \times 10^{20} e(-58413 / RT)$
$NH_{3} + 5/4O_{2} \longrightarrow NO + 3/2H_{2}O$	$k_{2} = 2.21 \times 10^{14} e(-75837 / RT)$

#### 2.2 CFD MODEL

Given a set of *m* reactions which involve *N* species, Eq. (1), the local mass fraction of each species,  $f_k$ , can be expressed by Eq. (2), Versteeg and Malalasekera [27].

$$\sum_{k=1}^{s} v_{i_{k}} M_{i_{k}} \longrightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{s} v_{i_{k}} M_{i_{k}} \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, m$$
(1)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho f_{i}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\rho u_{j}f_{i}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(\frac{\mu_{j}}{\sigma_{j}}\frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial x}\right) + \omega_{i}$$
(2)

In the equations above,  $v_{kj}$  are stoichiometric coefficients of reactant species  $M_k$  in the reaction *j*,  $v_{kj}^{"}$  are stoichiometric coefficients of product species  $M_k$ in the reaction *j*, *N* is the total number of species involved,  $\rho$  is the density,  $\mu_t$  is the turbulent viscosity,  $\sigma_{\varsigma}$ is the turbulent Smidth number and  $\omega_k$  is the net rate of production of the specie *k* by chemical reaction, given by the molecular weigh multiplied by the production rate of a specie, Eq. (3).

$$\omega_{i} = MW_{i} \frac{\mathrm{d}C_{i}}{\mathrm{d}t} \tag{3}$$

where MW is the molecular weight and C the concentration. The net progress rate of reaction *j* is given by the production of the species  $M_k$  minus the destruction of the species  $M_k$ :

$$\frac{dC_{u}}{dt} = (v_{u}^{*} - v_{u}^{*})k_{f}\prod_{i=1}^{n} (C_{u_{i}})^{*}$$
(4)

In the case of the chemical kinetic model of Browner *et al.* [25] indicated in Table 1, 6 species are involved NH<sub>3</sub>, NO, N<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O, H, O<sub>2</sub>. Eqs. (1-2) applied for 5 of these species are indicated by Eqs. (5-9). Since the mass fraction of all the species must sum to unity, one of the mass fractions can be determined as one minus the sum of the remaining mass fractions, Eq. (10). To minimize the numerical error, the 6<sup>th</sup> specie must be the one with the overall largest mass fraction, in this case N<sub>2</sub>. The procedure employed to model the chemical reactions proposed by Duo *et al.* [26] is similar and thus not repeated again.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho f_{NH_{i}}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}}(\rho u_{i}f_{NH_{i}}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}}\left(\frac{\mu_{i}}{\sigma_{i}}\frac{\partial f_{NH_{i}}}{\partial x_{i}}\right) + M_{NH_{i}}\left(-k_{i}C_{NH_{i}}C_{NO} - k_{2}C_{NH_{i}}C_{O_{i}}\right)$$
(5)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho f_{NO}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}}(\rho u_{i}f_{NO}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}}\left(\frac{\mu_{i}}{\sigma_{\xi}}\frac{\partial f_{NO}}{\partial x_{i}}\right) + M_{NO}\left(-k_{i}C_{NH_{i}}C_{NO} + k_{z}C_{NH_{i}}C_{O_{z}}\right)$$
(6)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho f_{H_i 0}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(\rho u_i f_{H_i 0}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(\frac{\mu_i}{\sigma_s} \frac{\partial f_{H_i 0}}{\partial x_i}\right) + M_{H_i 0}(k_i C_{NH_i} C_{N0} + k_s C_{NH_i} C_{0_s})$$
(7)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho f_{H}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}}(\rho u_{i}f_{H}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}}\left(\frac{\mu_{i}}{\sigma_{\xi}}\frac{\partial f_{H}}{\partial x_{i}}\right) + M_{H}(k_{i}C_{NH_{i}}C_{NO} + k_{2}C_{NH_{i}}C_{O_{i}})$$
(8)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho f_{o_1}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}(\rho u_i f_{o_1}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left( \frac{\mu_i}{\sigma_i} \frac{\partial f_{o_1}}{\partial x_i} \right) + M_{o_1}(-k_z C_{NH_i} C_{o_1})$$
(9)

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} f_{k} = 1$$
 (10)

In addition to Eqs. (5-10), a fluid dynamics problem also requires the field equations of conservation of mass, momentum and energy, Eqs. (11-13) respectively.

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (\rho u_i) = 0$$
(11)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho u_{i}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{j}}(\rho u_{i}u_{j}) = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x_{i}} + \frac{\partial \tau_{ij}}{\partial x_{j}} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{j}}(-\rho u_{i}u_{j})$$
(12)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho H) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}}(\rho u_{i}H) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{i}}\left[\left(\frac{\mu}{\sigma} + \frac{\mu_{i}}{\sigma_{k}}\right)\frac{\partial H}{\partial x_{i}}\right] + S_{rad}$$
(13)

In the equations above, *H* is the enthalpy,  $\mu$  the viscosity,  $\sigma_h$  the turbulent Prandtl number,  $\sigma$  the Prandtl number and  $\tau_{ij}$  the stress tensor. The term  $(-\rho u_i u_j)$  represents the Reynolds stresses, modelled by the *k*- $\varepsilon$  turbulence model.  $S_{rad}$  is a source term to include the radiation heat transfer, computed by the *P1* model.

The simulations carried out in the present work were performed using the open CFD software OpenFOAM. Using C++, an own OpenFOAM solver was programmed. Pressure-velocity coupling was achieved using the PISO (Pressure Implicit with Splitting of Operators) algorithm because it is recommended for transient calculations. A second order scheme was chosen to discretize the continuity, momentum, energy, and mass fraction equations. The time derivatives were discretized through a first order fully implicit scheme with a constant time step of 0.0005 s. Extensive convergence checks were taken in order to confirm that the computed results are independent of the time step and grid size. Concerning the turbulence model, the standard k- $\varepsilon$  was selected for its robustness, economy and reasonable accuracy for a wide range of turbulent flows.

# 2.3 EXPERIMENTAL VALIDATION

The reliability of the CFD model to predict  $NO_x$  reduction was checked by comparison with experimental results developed by Ostberg *et al.* [28]. These authors

employed flue gas from a natural gas burner with a water-cooled probe to adjust the temperature. This gas was injected in a tubular reactor 5000 mm in length and 50 mm in diameter, shown in Figure 1. The flue gas composition during the experiments was 550 ppm<sub>vol</sub> NO,  $73.4\%_{vol}$  N<sub>2</sub>,  $15.1\%_{vol}$  H<sub>2</sub>O,  $8\%_{vol}$  CO<sub>2</sub>,  $3.4\%_{vol}$  O<sub>2</sub> and the flow 940 nl/min. 1 nl/min injection of ammonia in crossflow was applied 1250 mm downstream from the inlet.



Figure 1. Experimental setup of Ostberg et al. [28].

The computational mesh employed to simulate the experiments of Ostberg *et al.* [28] is shown in Figure 2. It has 315,000 tetrahedral elements, refined in the zone close to the NH<sub>3</sub> inlet due to its small diameter. By virtue of the symmetry, only half of the domain was computed.



Figure 2. Computational mesh.

The results of NO relative change against temperature are indicated in Figure 3. This figure shows the experimental measurements and the numerical results using the models of Brouwer et al. [25] and Duo et al. [26], which provided errors of 9.6% and 16.3% respectively. As can be seen, both numerical models and the experimental measurements indicate the existence of a narrow temperature interval in which the NO reduction is efficient. If the temperature is too high, ammonia itself oxidizes to NO instead of reacting with NO. On the contrary, below the optimal temperature the reduction reactions are too slow and unreacted ammonia is emitted through the outlet. Despite some discrepancies, both numerical models are able to reproduce the main trends evidenced experimentally. The kinetic model of Duo et al. [26] is less accurate than that of Brouwer et al. [25], specially at high temperatures. The reason is that Duo *et al.* [26] employed a limited number of experimental data, involving the concentrations 507 ppm<sub>vol</sub> NO, 830 ppm<sub>vol</sub> NH<sub>3</sub> and 4.1%<sub>vol</sub> O<sub>2</sub>. For this reason, the model of Brouwer *et al.* [25] was employed in the simulation of the MAN 7S50MC marine engine, described in the following section.



Figure 3. Comparison between numerical and experimental results.

#### **3.** CASE STUDIED

Once validated, the model of Browner *et al.* [25] was employed to simulate  $NO_x$  reduction in the MAN 7S50MC. This is a two-stroke, low speed, marine diesel engine with 7 cylinders, 50 cm bore, 191 cm stroke, 375028 cm<sup>3</sup> cylinder displacement volume and 127 rpm speed. Each cylinder has 16 intake ports on the cylinder liner close to the bottom dead center and one exhaust valve in the cylinder head. Figure 4 shows a photograph of the engine analyzed in the present work.



Figure 4. Engine studied in the present work.

Figure 5 shows the cylinder head. As can be seen, a direct injection is produced by two fuel injectors located near the outer edge of the combustion chamber. The direction of the injections is indicated in the plan view of Figure 6. More details about this engine can be consulted in previous works [11, 29].

The combustion process of this engine was numerically simulated and validated with experimental results elsewhere [11]. This previous work employed the open CFD software OpenFOAM and obtained the following pollutant emissions: 118 ppmvol of CO, 472 ppmvol of HC and 887 ppm<sub>vol</sub> of NO<sub>x</sub>. In the present work, NO<sub>x</sub> reduction by ammonia injection, i.e., Eqs. (5-10) were added to this previous model to simulate the combustion process with ammonia injection. To this end, ammonia was injected by two injectors. These were located next to the fuel injectors in order to facilitate the fuel-ammonia mixing. Figure 7 shows the grid at the start of the simulation, 20° before TDC (top dead center), and at TDC. As all cylinders are identical, only one of them was simulated. Only the combustion chamber (see Figure 1) was simulated. The inlet ports and exhaust valve remain closed during the entire simulation. The CFD simulation was carried out from 20° before TDC to the exhaust valve opening, 120° after TDC.



Figure 5. Cylinder head. Adapted from MAN B&W [30].



Figure 6. Direction of the fuel injections.



Figure 7. Computational mesh at 20 and TDC crankshaft angles.

## 4. **RESULTS**

As indicated in Figure 3,  $NO_x$  reduction is very sensible to temperature. For this reason, it is very important to select the appropriate instant of start of ammonia injection. Figure 8 indicates the  $NO_x$  relative change values against the start of ammonia injection. An injection temperature of 1200K and an ammonia to fuel ratio of 2% were employed. As can be seen, if the injection occurs too soon there is a deficient  $NO_x$ reduction because the temperature around the injectors is too high. On the contrary, late injections also promote a deficient  $NO_x$  reduction due to the low temperature around the injectors. The optimum  $NO_x$  reduction is obtained at 69.8° crankshaft angle at start of injection.



Figure 8.  $NO_x$  reduction against start of ammonia injection. Injection temperature = 1200K, ammonia to fuel ratio = 2%.

The temperature at which ammonia is injected is also very important. Figure 9 shows the  $NO_x$  relative change against this parameter. A start of injection of 69.8° and an ammonia to fuel ratio of 2% were employed. As in the previous case, low and high temperatures promote a deficient  $NO_x$  reduction. The optimal value is 1243 K.



Figure 9.  $NO_x$  reduction against the injection temperature. Start of injection = 69.8° crankshaft angle, ammonia to fuel ratio = 2%.

In order to quantify the ammonia reduction capabilities, Figure 10 indicates the NO<sub>x</sub> relative change against the ammonia to fuel ratio using the optimum values of temperature and start of injection, i.e., 1243 K and 69.8° respectively. Besides, CO and HC emissions were included. These results were compared with the water addition procedure obtained in the previous paper [11], against the water to fuel ratio, given by Eq. (14). In this case, water was simulated as a water-fuel emulsion instead a pure water injection, thus employing the same temperature and start of injection of the fuel, 408K and -2° respectively. It is important to mention that practical applications do not reach 100% water to fuel ratios. This value was analyzed simply to indicate the capability of water addition to reduce NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. Unfortunately, the results indicated in Figure 10 were not validated experimentally. Nevertheless, it was verified that the influence of water addition agrees with other experimental data obtained elsewhere [31].

Water to fuel ratio (%) = 
$$\frac{\text{mass of water}}{\text{mass of fuel}} 100$$
 (14)

As can be seen in Figure 10,  $NO_x$  reduction using ammonia drastically increases with increasing the ammonia to fuel ratio and reaches nearly 60% (41.6% relative change) at a 3.1% ratio. Beyond this,  $NO_x$  tends to increase slightly due to ammonia oxidation. Concerning  $NO_x$  reduction using water, an asymptotic tendency is obtained. Besides, the amount of water needed is much higher than that of ammonia.

Another conclusion obtained from Figure 10 is that water addition has a much more important effect on CO and HC emissions. On the contrary, ammonia injection has a negligible effect on these pollutants. The reason is that the principle of actuation of water is very different to that of ammonia. The purpose of water addition is to lower the combustion temperature and thus reduce NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. Figure 11 shows the temperature field at TDC, without water addition and with a 50% water to fuel ratio. The maximum temperature is lowered 78 K using 50% water addition. This temperature reduction is caused by the increase in the specific heat capacity of the cylinder gases (water has higher specific heat capacity than air) and reduced oxygen concentration. Due to the lower temperatures, water addition promotes an incomplete combustion and thus increments of CO and HC emissions. On the other hand, the purpose of ammonia injection is to react with NO<sub>x</sub> without reduce the combustion temperature. For this reason, the influence on CO and HC emissions is negligible.



Figure 10. Relative change in pollutants using ammonia (start of injection =  $69.8^{\circ}$  crankshaft angle, injection temperature = 1243K) and water (start of injection =  $-2^{\circ}$  crankshaft angle, injection temperature = 408K).



Figure 11. Temperature field (K) at TDC, without water injection and with 50% water injection.

# 5. CONCLUSIONS

The present paper proposed a CFD model to simulate  $NO_x$  reduction by ammonia injection in the MAN 7S50MC marine engine. The strongest motivation was given by the current legislation, for which the most important pollutant from marine diesel engines that must be reduced is  $NO_x$ .

Results obtained using ammonia were compared to those using water addition. It was verified that ammonia can reduce a higher amount of NO<sub>x</sub> with a negligible effect on both HC and CO emissions. Water addition is less efficient to reduce NOx and besides increase HC and CO incomplete combustion. emissions due to an Nevertheless, the main disadvantage of ammonia injection is that it needs a very accurate control system due to the strong dependence on the injection temperature, injection instant and ammonia to fuel ratio. Another disadvantage of this procedure is that ammonia is toxic and an accidental ammonia leak from the tank could cause deaths. There are other NO<sub>x</sub> reducing agents such as urea, cyanuric acid, etc, but these are too expensive.

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