

The chemical dynamics of hydrogen/hydrogen peroxide blends diluted with steam at compression ignition relevant conditions

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Abstract

In the current work, the use of hydrogen peroxide as an additive to hydrogen/air mixtures is proposed and explored computationally, in conditions relevant to compression ignition engines. The hydrogen/hydrogen peroxide blends are supplemented with steam for NO_x emissions reduction purposes.

The objective of the current work is to explore fundamental aspects of the proposed technology, with an emphasis on identifying the key chemical pathways that control the ignition delay time and NO_x emissions, using mathematical tools from the computational singular perturbation (CSP) approach.

The proposed technology demonstrates a noteworthy potential for use in CI engines, since a 10% (per fuel volume) addition of hydrogen peroxide decreases the ignition delay time to 1 ms, while the mass fraction of NO in equilibrium drops by 100%. Reactions $\text{H} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{OH} + \text{O}$ and $\text{H} + \text{O}_2 (+\text{M}) \rightarrow \text{HO}_2 (+\text{M})$ play key roles in the acceleration of the ignition delay time, while the thermal and the NNH mechanisms are identified as the dominant pathways for the production of NO. A further 12% addition of steam (per mixture's volume) induces a two orders of magnitude drop to NO emissions and slightly increases the ignition delay time by 8%. Finally, at sufficiently high steam addition conditions (in the region of 30% and above by mixture's volume), the system exhibits two stage ignition (mainly owed to reaction $\text{HO}_2 + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2$), a phe-

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nomenon that is unique, considering that the initial mixture includes solely hydrogen-based chemical species.

Keywords: additive, CSP, explosive dynamics, diesel engines, hydrogen, NOx

1. Introduction

Both national and international regulations originating from environmental concerns, mandate the decarbonisation of the transport sector for the most advanced economies by 2050. Electrification is meant to play a key role to this direction, however, electric vehicles (EVs) currently face significant challenges that prevent such technology from replacing the internal combustion engines (ICEs) in all different modes of transport. For instance, electrification appears to be a feasible solution for light-duty and non-commercial vehicles but for heavy-goods vehicles (HGVs), ships and airplanes, the replacement of the ICE with electric motor currently is perceived to be unrealistic. Thus, a large share of the transportation sector will need to use ICEs for many years to come [1]. Therefore, there is a need for decarbonisation of ICEs using alternative fuels.

One of the most popular alternative fuels is hydrogen, which can be created from renewable sources, thus, constituting one of the cleanest solutions (if not the cleanest) for use in ICEs. The use of hydrogen in ICEs is not new. In fact, hydrogen ICE (or H₂ICE for short) technology has been continuously developing over the last two centuries, with the first H₂ICE dating back to the 19th century [2]. The focus of this past research has primarily been on the hydrogen usage in spark ignition (SI) engines.

Therefore, there is a particularly rich scientific literature on the use of hydrogen in SI engines, which dates to many decades back. These efforts intensified and became more systematic in the 1970s, after the occurrence of the energy crisis that highlighted the importance of alternatives to fossil fuels. Over these past five decades, hydrogen combustion in SI engines has been investigated extensively both experimentally and computationally, either as a sole fuel or as

an additive, in view of a wide variety of configurations and levels of complexity [3–7].

On the other hand, the available literature for hydrogen usage in compression ignition (CI) engines is more limited [8–12]. Hydrogen use in CI engines has not been particularly attractive because of hydrogen’s large resistance to ignition. As a result, the great benefits of CI against SI engines (i.e., fuel economy, power efficiency, durability and heavy-duty application) fueled with hydrogen have largely remained unexplored.

In fact, hydrogen use in CI engines has been mainly investigated in dual-fuel configurations with only few studies on pure hydrogen operation [11]. The implementation of hydrogen in a single-fuel concept has been proven to be challenging due to the high compression ratios required in order to overcome the high auto-ignition temperature. In dual-fuel operation, (where hydrogen is used along with another more reactive fuel which promotes the ignition of the mixture) hydrogen has been used with carbon-based fuels, such as diesel [13–55], biodiesel [46, 56–60], biodiesel-diesel blends [61, 62], methane-diesel blends [63, 64], methanol-diesel blends [64], biodiesel-natural gas blends [65], diesel-natural gas blends [66], biodiesel-ethanol blends [67], biodiesel-butanol blends [68], natural gas [69, 70], diethyl ether [71], jatropha oil [72, 73], neem oil methyl ester [74], lemon grass oil [75], liquefied petroleum gas [76–79], compressed natural gas [80], biogas [81] and ethanol [82]. Being carbon-based, all these fuel blends produce carbonaceous emissions (e.g., CO_2) directly or indirectly (depending how these fuels are originally produced), thus, cancelling or reducing the efforts for drastic green house gases (GHG) reduction. Limited studies have also been reported with the use of glow plug assist (e.g., [83–88]) enabling the pre-heating of the inlet air, but these studies highlighted the detrimental effect on the system’s performance and efficiency along with a high risk of increased production of NO_x emissions. Thus, it can be concluded that the use of hydrogen in CI engines remains an unresolved problem.

Ideally, in a dual fuel concept, the added fuel, which would enhance the system’s propensity to ignition, would not be carbon-based. One such chemical

substance that has such potential is hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) [89]. Hydrogen peroxide has been used for many decades for propulsion purposes in aerospace applications [90–99]. Moreover, the addition of hydrogen peroxide in fuel/air mixtures for conventional transport-related applications is a well-documented method of effective ignition promotion. Injected as a pure substance or as emulsified fuel into the engine cylinder, hydrogen peroxide has been successfully tested with fuels like n-decane [100], natural gas [101, 102], methane [103–105], diesel [106–112], gasoline [113], n-heptane [114], iso-octane [115], jatropha oil [116], n-butanol [117], ethanol [118, 119], ethanol-diesel [120] and ammonia [121].

Thus, in the current work, the concept of using hydrogen with hydrogen peroxide as an additive for ignition promotion purposes is proposed and tested computationally for the first time to the best of the author’s knowledge. The proposed technology can be supplemented by the addition of steam, with the purpose of NOx emissions reduction which is a well-established method for decreasing emissions. The current work aims to be the first step in developing the proposed technology which can have direct application to CI engines used for HGVs and marine transportation. It is understood though that the successful deployment of the proposed technology must also be supported by the prior appropriate logistics and lifecycle analyses of hydrogen peroxide.

As such, the current work focuses on fundamental aspects of the proposed technology, and aims to explore the effect of hydrogen peroxide addition in hydrogen/air mixtures in the context of homogeneous batch reactor simulations, in view of: (i) the ignition delay time and (ii) NOx emissions. The main focus though will be to analyse the key chemical pathways and the dominant chemical dynamics related to the ignition delay time and NOx emissions as a result of the addition of hydrogen peroxide and steam into hydrogen/air mixtures. Moreover, the conclusions will be extended to a range of initial temperatures, with the purpose of identifying trends in the changes of the pertinent key chemistry, induced by the addition of hydrogen peroxide and steam. The operating conditions that are explored in the current study aim to simulate those in CI engines. Hence, fuel lean ($\phi = 0.4$) hydrogen/air mixtures are used, for initial temperatures

ranging from 800 K to 1,000 K and initial pressures of 40 atm.

90 In order to accomplish the aforementioned goal of identifying the key chemical pathways, mathematical tools from the computational singular perturbation (CSP) method will be used [122]. CSP is one of the most rigorous methods for analysing highly complex multiscale systems of reacting flows, and has been successfully tested in a wide range of applications.

95 The structure of the paper is as follows. Firstly, a brief description of the CSP mathematical tools that are used in the main analysis is provided. For more details on the tools the reader is referred to the cited works and the works therein. The main part of the paper is split into two sections: in the first, the addition of hydrogen peroxide is discussed while in the second, the addition of
100 steam is analysed. In each of these sections the analysis focuses on the ignition delay time and NOx emissions.

2. Methods

In the current study, the widely validated *Aramco 3* reaction mechanism was selected for the description of the hydrogen combustion [123]. The hydrogen
105 mechanism was supplemented with the nitrogen sub-mechanism of *Glarborg et al.* [124]. A comparison of the *Aramco 3* mechanism with other modern widely validated hydrogen mechanisms is provided in the Supplementary material.

Table 1 displays the reactions that are highlighted in the analysis next. The symbols “f” and “b” used next to the reaction numbers, stand for forward
110 and backward, respectively. The reactions listed in Table 1 are those which are identified by the various CSP tools to play a key role either to the control of the ignition delay time or to the production of NOx emissions. These reactions will be discussed in detail next.

Table 1: The most significant reactions to the dynamics of the system in all examined cases [123, 124]. The pair of reactions (13,14) and (19,20) is duplicate with different rate constants, accounting for the high and low temperature regime, respectively. In the following they will be considered as a single reaction and they will be denoted as reactions 13/14 and 19/20.

3.	$\text{H}_2 + \text{OH} \leftrightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{H}$	19/20.	$2\text{HO}_2 \leftrightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O}_2$
5.	$\text{H} + \text{O}_2 \leftrightarrow \text{OH} + \text{O}$	21.	$\text{H} + \text{O}_2 (+\text{M}) \leftrightarrow \text{HO}_2 (+\text{M})$
7.	$\text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \leftrightarrow 2\text{OH}$	63.	$\text{N} + \text{NO} \leftrightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{O}$
9.	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 (+\text{M}) \leftrightarrow 2\text{OH} (+\text{M})$	64.	$\text{NNH} \leftrightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{H}$
11.	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{H} \leftrightarrow \text{H}_2 + \text{HO}_2$	68.	$\text{NNH} + \text{O} \leftrightarrow \text{NH} + \text{NO}$
13/14.	$\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{OH} \leftrightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{HO}_2$	70.	$\text{NNH} + \text{O}_2 \leftrightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{HO}_2$
18.	$\text{HO}_2 + \text{OH} \leftrightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2$	149.	$\text{N}_2\text{O} (+\text{M}) \leftrightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{O} (+\text{M})$
		151.	$\text{N}_2\text{O} + \text{O} \leftrightarrow 2\text{NO}$

In the current work, tools from the computational singular perturbation (CSP) approach are used [122] for identifying the key chemical mechanisms that control the ignition delay time and the NOx emissions. These tools have been already tested successfully in a wide range of different applications in reacting flows. Here only brief descriptions of the mathematical tools will be provided, but for a detailed analysis of the CSP framework and the developed tools, the reader is referred to Refs [125–128]. In the CSP framework, the vector field of the original system of species mass fractions and temperature ordinary differential equations (ODEs) is decomposed into components, typically called modes. Therefore, the original system of Eqs. 1

$$\frac{d\mathbf{z}}{dt} = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z}) = \sum_{k=1}^{2K} \hat{\mathbf{S}}_k R^k, \quad (1)$$

is transformed to

$$\frac{d\mathbf{z}}{dt} = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N+1} \mathbf{a}_i f^i. \quad (2)$$

In the above Eqs. 1-2, \mathbf{z} is a column vector with $(N + 1)$ solution variables including N species mass fractions (\mathbf{y}) and temperature (T), $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z})$ the chemical reaction source term, $\hat{\mathbf{S}}_k$ and R^k are the $(N + 1)$ -dimensional generalized

stoichiometric column vector and the reaction rate, respectively, of the k -th unidirectional reaction of a total of $2K$ irreversible reactions, \mathbf{a}_i is the $(N + 1)$ -dimensional CSP basis column vector and $f^i = \mathbf{b}^i \cdot \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z})$ is the related amplitude, which is produced using the dual basis row vector \mathbf{b}^i ($\mathbf{b}^i \cdot \mathbf{a}_j = \delta_j^i$). Interested in leading order accuracy, the CSP basis vectors \mathbf{a}_i , \mathbf{b}^i can be approximated by the right ($\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i$) and left ($\boldsymbol{\beta}^i$), respectively, eigenvectors of the Jacobian \mathbf{J} of $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z})$. Each one of the CSP modes is described by a timescale (which sets the timeframe of action of the mode) and an amplitude (which determines the impact of that mode to the system's slow evolution). The timescale of each CSP mode is defined as the inverse norm of the associated eigenvalue, i.e., $\tau_i = |\lambda_i|^{-1}$, where $\lambda_i = \boldsymbol{\beta}^i \cdot \mathbf{J} \cdot \boldsymbol{\alpha}_i$. The mathematical tools employed in the analysis next are the following:

- the timescale participation index (TPI), which identifies the reactions mostly related to each mode's timescale [129–132]; thus, for each CSP mode, the TPIs of all reactions are calculated and the largest ones (in absolute value) are selected; when positive, the related reaction favors the explosive character of the mode's timescale, while when negative the associated reaction tends to dissipate the related timescale [133]. This tool will be mainly used to identify the reactions mostly related to the system's fast explosive timescale ($\tau_{e,f}$), i.e., the system's characteristic timescale, which controls the ignition delay time [121, 134–139]. It is noted that the system's characteristic mode must meet the following two conditions: (i) it has to be the fastest of the slow timescales, thus ensuring that the timeframe of action of that mode will be relevant to the system's slow evolution and (ii) its amplitude must be among the largest [133]. These conditions are met for the system's $\tau_{e,f}$ for all cases in the current study. Finally, it is worth noting that TPI reflects the relative importance of each reaction, since it is a quantity scaled against the sum of the absolute values of all TPIs for each mode. The TPI takes values from zero to +1 or -1 and the sum of the absolute values of all TPIs for each mode sum up to 1.

- 150 • the amplitude participation index (API), which measures the relative importance of each reaction to each CSP mode's amplitude (f^i) [140–142]. For the fast (exhausted) modes where by definition $f^i \approx 0$ due to the negligible projection of the vector field to the fast directions in the phase space, API identifies the reactions participating the most to the established equilibria [143, 144]. This tool has also been used for the characterisation of the flame topology, by accounting for the competition between transport and chemistry in the amplitudes of the slow (non-exhausted) modes [145–149]. For the slow modes, a positive API indicates a reaction which tends to increase the amplitude of the related mode, while the opposite applies for the negative API values. Like the TPI, the API takes values from zero to +1 or -1 and the sum of the absolute values of all APIs for each mode sum up to 1.
- 160 • the CSP Pointer (CSP Po), which identifies the variables (species mass fractions or temperature) mostly related to each CSP mode [122, 150]. This tool has been used for: (i) the development of reduced chemical kinetics models by identifying the variables mostly related to exhausted modes [151–153] and (ii) the introduction of an algorithmic method of ignition control, by identifying the variables mostly related to the system's characteristic CSP mode [105, 119, 154–156]. It is noted that by definition, the sum of all CSP Po values for each mode is equal to unity.
- 170 • the slow importance index (I_{slow}^j), which measures the relative importance of each reaction to the production (when positive) or consumption (when negative) of chemical species j (or to the increase/decrease of temperature). The slow importance index (I_{slow}^j) takes values from zero to +1 or -1 and the sum of the absolute values of all slow importance indices for each variable (species or temperature) sum up to 1. This tool has been used for: (i) the development of simplified (skeletal) chemical kinetics mechanisms [157–159] (ii) the characterization of ignition phenomena [160–162] and (iii) determination of the importance of chemical/transport processes

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for both major species and radicals [163, 164]. In the current work it will be used to identify the important reactions related to NO and N₂O. It is noted that the importance index is a scaled quantity, therefore, for the purpose of the current work, the unscaled importance index will also be used, denoted by $I_{slow,unsc}^j$.

All simulations were performed using the Chemkin-Pro program [165], while for the CSP analysis the CSPTk package [166] integrated with the TChem package [167] for thermo-kinetic database management was employed. For the determination of the number of fast modes, the criterion proposed in [168] was employed, along with absolute and relative tolerances of 10^{-8} and 10^{-2} , respectively.

3. Chemical dynamics

The analysis is split into two parts: the addition of H₂O₂ and the addition of H₂O. In the first part, the hydrogen-to-air ratio is kept constant and H₂O₂ is gradually added to the mixture, while in the second part, the fuel-to-air ratio is kept constant (with the fuel being 90%H₂-10%H₂O₂) and the mixture is gradually diluted with H₂O. Through this process, the results are quantified in detail, thus, enabling the determination of trends. In each part, the chemical dynamics is primarily explored at T(0)=900 K, in two aspects, namely the ignition delay time and NOx emissions. The investigation regarding NOx emissions is focused on NO and N₂O; the first is selected because it is the dominant contributor to NOx emissions (as it will also be demonstrated next) while the latter is the third most important greenhouse gas (after carbon dioxide and methane), thus, significantly contributing to global warming [169]. At the end of each sub-part the conclusions are extended to a range of initial temperatures. Although in all presented cases the pressure is kept fixed at 40 atm, the findings are relevant for a range of pressures (± 10 atm) related to the operation of CI engines.

3.1. H_2O_2 addition

205 The hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) addition to the hydrogen/air mixture is performed at $p(0)=40$ atm and $\phi = 0.4$ in the context of homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure batch reactor simulations. The main analysis is performed for mixtures at $T(0)=900$ K but the results are extended to $T(0)=800$ and 1,000 K. These conditions aim to simulate the environment in a compression ignition
 210 engine cylinder at the top dead center. The hydrogen peroxide addition ranges from 0% (100% hydrogen) up to 15% (85% hydrogen) in fuel mole fraction. In order to properly assess the effect of the H_2O_2 addition, the hydrogen-to-air mole fraction ratio was kept constant (as in the pure hydrogen/air case at $\phi = 0.4$), and H_2O_2 was added on the basis of hydrogen’s initial mole fraction. Conceptually, through this method, the hydrogen and air moles added to the combustion
 215 chamber are kept constant, while H_2O_2 is gradually added to the mixture. For clarity, Table 2 includes the initial compositions at the cases analysed in detail next.

Table 2: The initial mole fractions for the cases analysed in detail regarding the H_2O_2 addition.

% H_2O_2	$X_{H_2O_2}$	X_{H_2}	X_{O_2}	X_{N_2}	$X_{H_2}/(X_{O_2} + X_{N_2})$
0	0.000000	0.143836	0.179795	0.676370	0.168
1	0.001436	0.143629	0.179536	0.675398	0.168
5	0.007140	0.142809	0.178511	0.671540	0.168
10	0.014180	0.141796	0.177245	0.666779	0.168

3.1.1. Ignition delay time

220 The addition of H_2O_2 in fuel/air mixtures is a well-documented method of effective ignition promotion [104, 106, 117, 170], but its efficiency has never been tested in hydrogen combustion. Figure 1 shows that a mere 1% of H_2O_2 addition can incur a decrease in the ignition delay time by a factor of 5. With addition of 5% to 10% H_2O_2 the ignition delay time drops to 1-2 ms, which are typical
 225 ignition delay times for CI engines. In fact, Fig. 1 shows that the decrease in

the ignition delay time increases linearly to the H_2O_2 addition, roughly by a factor of 5, regardless the mixture’s initial temperature. However, such huge acceleration of the ignition delay time is not accompanied by an increase in the equilibrium temperature which barely increases by 0.8% with 10% of H_2O_2 addition.

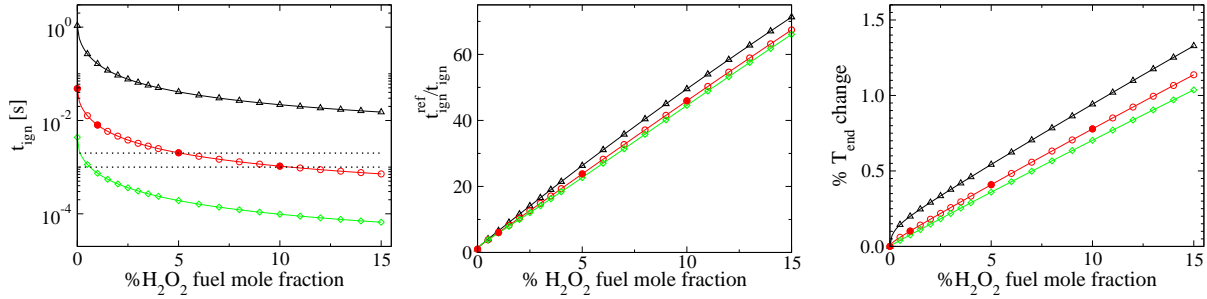


Figure 1: The effect of H_2O_2 addition during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a hydrogen/air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $\phi = 0.4$ (triangles- $T(0)=800$ K, circles- $T(0)=900$ K, diamonds- $T(0)=1,000$ K), on the ignition delay time (left and middle) and the end (equilibrium) temperature (right). The blocked symbols represent the cases analysed in detail next. The dotted lines are placed at $t_{ign}=1$ and 2 ms.

The significant acceleration of the ignition process reflected on the ignition delay time decrease in Fig. 1 suggests an increase on the chemical radicals, which is indeed verified in Fig. 2. The H and OH mass fractions increase remarkably even with as little as 1% of H_2O_2 addition, thus highlighting the increased reactivity induced by the H_2O_2 addition. Moreover, Fig. 2 indicates that the increased reactivity affects the temperature evolution from the early stage of the ignition process, leading to an insignificant temperature increase.

From a dynamics perspective, the quantity that is correlated with the system’s ignition delay time, is the system’s characteristic timescale [142, 156], which for the cases under current study, this is $\tau_{e,f}$. Therefore, the system’s characteristic timescale can be considered as a measure of the system’s reactivity, thus, the faster the characteristic timescale, the more reactive the system. Figure 3 shows in pure hydrogen case, $\tau_{e,f}$ initially decelerates, then for the most part of the process remains roughly constant and at the final stage

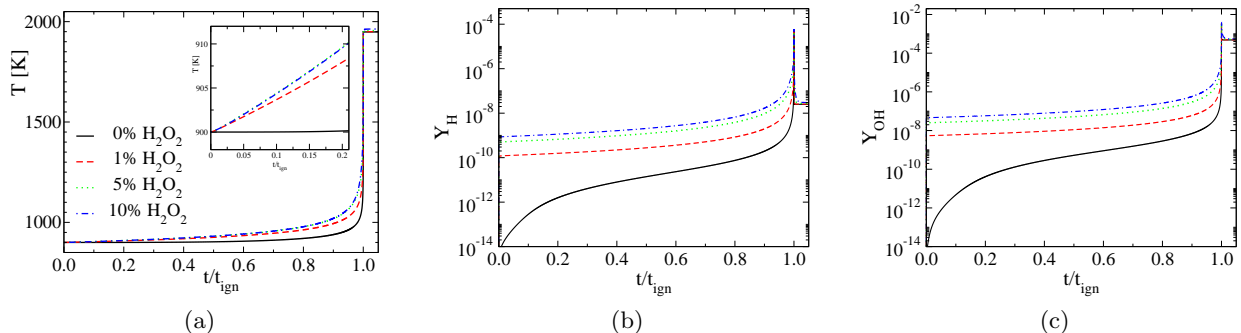


Figure 2: The evolution of temperature (a) and the mass fractions of H (b) and OH (c) as a function of time, scaled against the respective ignition delay times for the various cases of H_2O_2 initial fuel mole fraction, during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a hydrogen/air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

245 of the process it rapidly accelerates and then decelerates, meets a slow explosive timescale ($\tau_{e,s}$) and then they both disappear. The disappearance of $\tau_{e,f}$ (and $\tau_{e,s}$) occurs very close to the point where the system reaches the maximum temperature rate of change, which in the current study it is used to measure the ignition delay time. It is noted that in Fig. 3 $\tau_{e,s}$ has been omitted in order
 250 to avoid any confusion with $\tau_{e,f}$, but it suffices to mention that $\tau_{e,s}$ is order of magnitudes larger than $\tau_{e,f}$ for the most part of the ignition process. Figure 3 shows that with the addition of H_2O_2 , $\tau_{e,f}$ becomes generally faster, as this is indicated by the smaller values $\tau_{e,f}$ reaches for the most part of the process. In fact, Fig. 3 shows that the addition of H_2O_2 induces faster $\tau_{e,f}$ from the very
 255 beginning of the ignition process. Also, the H_2O_2 addition tends to decrease the deceleration $\tau_{e,f}$ experiences at the early part of the process and with 10% H_2O_2 this deceleration is roughly eliminated. As expected, in all cases, $\tau_{e,f}$ reaches the lowest value very close to the ignition delay time ($t/t_{ign} \approx 1$). However, the lowest $\tau_{e,f}$ value is roughly the same for all cases. This is a well documented
 260 finding that relates to the fact that in this region the dominant chemistry and its contribution to $\tau_{e,f}$ remain roughly the same [105, 144, 150, 156].

In order to understand the change in the physics that drives the ignition process due to the addition of H_2O_2 , the TPIs of all reactions related to $\tau_{e,f}$ were

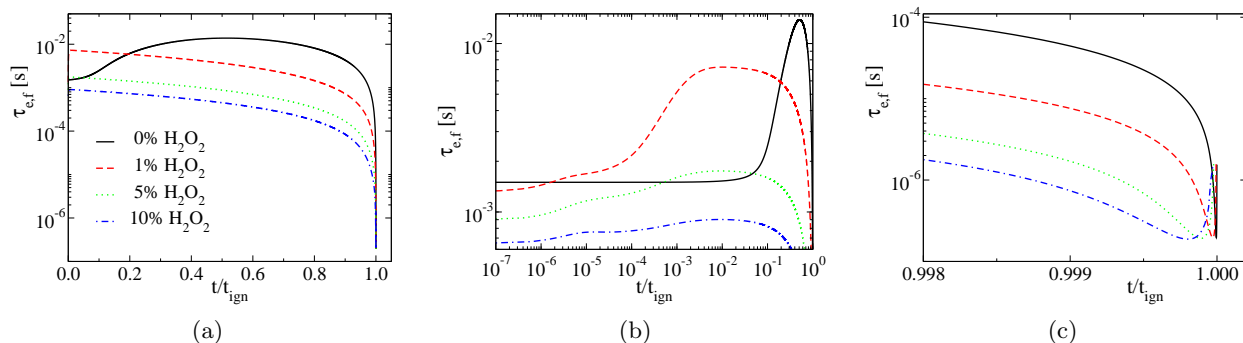


Figure 3: The temporal evolution of the system’s fast explosive timescale $\tau_{e,f}$ as a function of time, scaled against the respective ignition delay times, for the various cases of H_2O_2 ’s initial concentration, during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a hydrogen/air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

calculated. Reactions with large associated TPI values have strong influence on
 265 the ignition delay time: positive TPI values indicate reactions that tend to decrease the ignition delay time while the opposite stands for the reactions associated with negative TPI values.

In the very early part of the ignition process Fig. 4 shows that reaction 9f is an important contributor to $\tau_{e,f}$ in all examined cases, with positive TPI values,
 270 favoring the explosive nature of $\tau_{e,f}$, thus promoting ignition. Although not explicitly shown in Fig. 4, reaction 9f is the main reason that the cases of added H_2O_2 all start with faster $\tau_{e,f}$ at $t = 0$ s. In fact, the relative contribution of 9f to $\tau_{e,f}$ increases with the addition of H_2O_2 , (since the TPI of 9f increases). The increased role of 9f to the system’s dynamics, after the addition of H_2O_2 , is
 275 reasonable since 9f is a chain branching reaction that describes the dissociation of H_2O_2 to two OH radicals.

Figure 4 highlights two additional important differences between the pure hydrogen and H_2O_2 added cases. The first one relates to the decreasing relative contribution of 11b and the latter to the decreasing influence of 19/20f. Both
 280 reactions use HO_2 to produce H_2O_2 . However, 11b accomplishes this using H_2 as a reactant and leads to the production of H radical, so it is essentially a chain branching, while the 19/20f requires another HO_2 mole and leads to the production of O_2 . This explains why 11b has positive TPI and promotes ignition

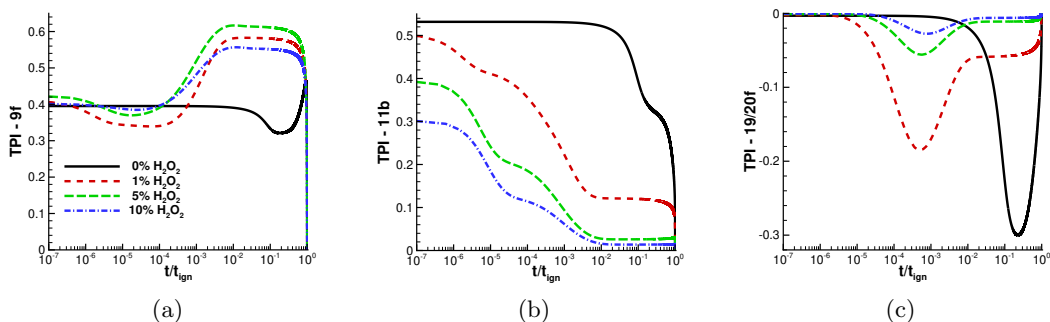


Figure 4: The largest TPIs, for the system’s fast explosive timescale $\tau_{e,f}$ as a function of time, scaled against the respective ignition delay times, for the various cases of H_2O_2 addition, during the early part of the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition process of a hydrogen/air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

while 19/20f has negative TPI and opposes ignition; they are basically competing pathways, but the first is chain carrying that uses the fuel as reactant (which is abundant at this stage of the process), while the latter is a chain termination. With the addition of H_2O_2 in the initial composition, the requirement for H_2O_2 drops, which explains the decreasing relative effect of these two reactions, in a much more rapid manner compared to the pure hydrogen case.

For the largest part of the ignition process (in all cases) reaction 9f remains a major contributor to $\tau_{e,f}$ favoring its explosive character. However, as already explained the influence of 9f increases with the addition of H_2O_2 . This is clearly shown in Fig. 5 which includes the reactions with the largest TPI values. In fact, the set of important reactions remains the same as in the very beginning of the process, i.e., reactions 9f, 11b and 19/20f, with one exception: the contribution of reaction 3f to $\tau_{e,f}$ increases significantly with the addition of H_2O_2 . Reaction 3f is a chain branching reaction and uses OH radicals and the main fuel, i.e., H_2 , to produce H_2O and H radicals. Since the production of OH radicals is strongly favored by 9f with the addition of H_2O_2 as previously explained, it is reasonable that the contribution of 3f increases when H_2O_2 is added to the mixture. It is noted that 3f is an exothermic reaction and the second largest contributor to the temperature rate of change; thus, its enhanced role contributes to the

increased temperature that is reached by the system throughout the process with the addition of H_2O_2 .

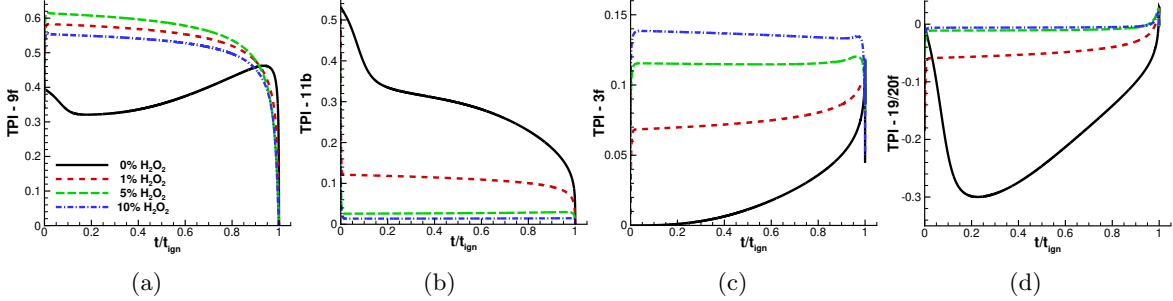


Figure 5: The largest TPIs for the system’s fast explosive timescale $\tau_{e,f}$ as a function of time, scaled against the respective ignition delay times, for the various cases of H_2O_2 ’s initial concentration, during the main part of the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition process of a hydrogen/air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

305 At the late part of the ignition process, Fig. 6 shows that the dominant chemistry becomes roughly the same among the cases under study. In particular, reactions 5f and 21f become the main contributors to $\tau_{e,f}$, which explains the observation from Fig. 3 that at this part of the process, all cases obtain roughly the same minimum $\tau_{e,f}$ value. It is noted that reactions 5f and 21f are

310 competing pathways, the first favors the explosive character of $\tau_{e,f}$ (as it is a chain branching reaction), while the latter favors the dissipative character of $\tau_{e,f}$ and tends to decelerate ignition. The importance of these two reactions at the late ignition stage is well documented in the literature, thus, no further discussion on these is deemed necessary.

315 The system’s chemical dynamics is investigated further in view of the CSP Po tool in order to identify the variables mostly related to the system’s fast explosive mode. Figure 7 shows that H_2O_2 induces a dramatic change to the variables mostly associated with the fast explosive mode. In particular, in the pure hydrogen case, at the early stage of the ignition process, the mass fraction of

320 HO_2 is the most important variable, followed by the mass fraction of H_2O_2 . As the process evolves, the effect of HO_2 drops and that of H_2O_2 increases and

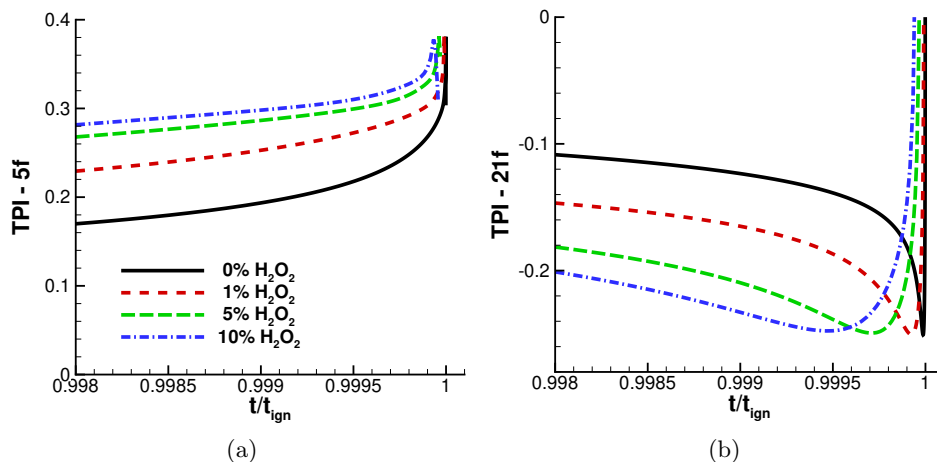


Figure 6: The largest TPIs for the system's fast explosive timescale $\tau_{e,f}$ as a function of time, scaled against the respective ignition delay times, for the various cases of H_2O_2 's initial concentration, during the late part of the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition process of a hydrogen/air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

becomes dominant and it is only at the late stage of the ignition process, temperature becomes dominant. However, with the addition of H_2O_2 , temperature becomes the variable mostly associated with $\tau_{e,f}$ from the very early stage of the ignition process and remains as such until the end. Temperature's high CSP Po value concretely indicates the strong dependence of the system's evolution on temperature which is significantly enhanced by the addition of H_2O_2 .

In order to extend the validity of the drawn conclusions to a range of initial temperatures, the same analysis was performed at $T(0)=800$ K and 1,000 K. The key findings were found to hold for all these examined conditions and this is briefly illustrated in the Supplementary material. The $\tau_{e,f}$ does not show any deceleration at the early part of the ignition process with 10% H_2O_2 at $T(0)=800$ and 1,000 K, similarly to what was reported for the $T(0)=900$ K case. Reaction 9f remains the dominant contributor to $\tau_{e,f}$ for the largest part of the ignition process, although its relative contribution decreases with increasing the initial temperature. Finally, temperature is the variable mostly related to the system's fast explosive mode, with minimal effect of system's initial temperature.

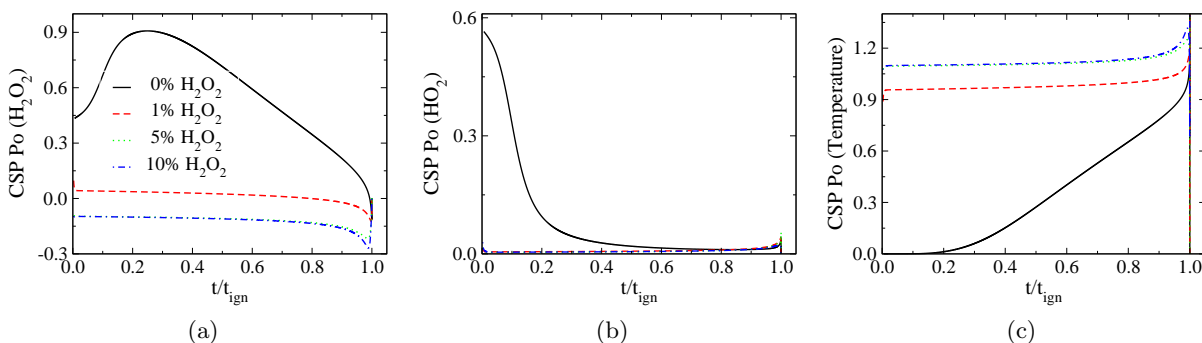


Figure 7: The largest CSP Po for the system's fast explosive timescale $\tau_{e,f}$ as a function of time, scaled against the respective ignition delay times, for the various cases of H_2O_2 's initial concentration, during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a hydrogen/air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

In summary:

- the decrease of the ignition delay time increases linearly with the addition of H_2O_2 by a factor of five due to the increase of the radical pool.
- the system's fast explosive timescale $\tau_{e,f}$ becomes faster with the addition of H_2O_2 from the beginning of the process.
- the system's increased ignitability through the addition of H_2O_2 is attributed to the enhanced effect of reactions 3f, 5f and 9f.

3.1.2. NO_x formation

In this subsection, the effect of H_2O_2 addition on NO_x production is investigated in detail, in view of NO and N_2O . This part of the study is significant for two reasons. Firstly, because to the best of the author's knowledge, such an investigation has not been reported in the literature and secondly, the results reported in the literature regarding the effect of H_2O_2 addition to carbon-based fuels on NO_x production, are mixed. As already explained, H_2O_2 can be added to the fuel as a pure substance or as an additive to emulsified fuel. When added as a pure substance, H_2O_2 was reported to increase NO production in n-decane/air mixtures [100], methane/air mixtures [101, 171], ethanol/air mixtures [118] and

355 iso-octane/air mixtures [115], in HCCI mode operation [101, 115, 118], pre-
 mixed laminar flames [171] and PSR mode [100]. On the other hand, as an
 additive to emulsified fuel, H_2O_2 was reported to reduce NOx with diesel [106–
 109, 111, 116, 120] and methane [104].

In the current work, H_2O_2 is added to the hydrogen/air mixture as a pure
 360 substance and as Fig. 8 reveals, there is a notable decreasing trend in the equi-
 librium values of NO and a small increasing trend of N_2O . In fact the decrease
 in NO is so strong that a 5% H_2O_2 addition can induce a $\sim 100\%$ decrease
 in NO and $<3\%$ increase in N_2O . However, the percentage change of NO in
 equilibrium relative to the pure hydrogen case levels off after $\sim 5\%$ H_2O_2 , as
 365 opposed to N_2O which exhibits a linear increase. The decrease of NO and the
 increase of N_2O as a result of the H_2O_2 addition is insensitive to the mixture’s
 initial temperature in the range of $800\text{ K} < T(0) < 1,000\text{ K}$. Finally, Fig. 8 con-
 firms that the NO_2 production is indeed insignificant compared to NO, although
 there is a decreasing trend of the Y_{NO}/Y_{NO_2} ratio with decreasing the initial
 370 temperature.

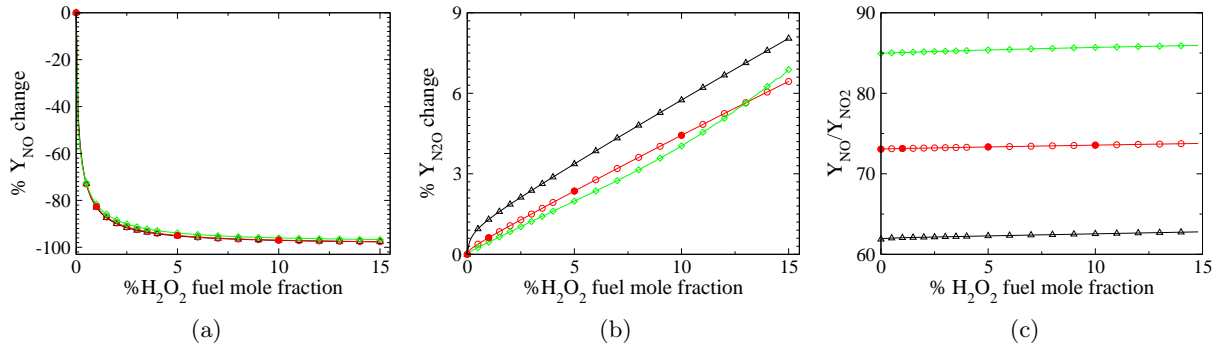


Figure 8: The effect of H_2O_2 addition in the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a hydro-
 gen/air mixture at $p(0)=40\text{ atm}$, $\phi = 0.4$ (triangles- $T(0)=800\text{ K}$, circles- $T(0)=900\text{ K}$, diamonds- $T(0)=1,000\text{ K}$),
 on the equilibrium mass fraction values of NO (a), N_2O (b) and NO_2 (c). The blocked symbols represent the cases
 analysed in detail next. All the equilibrium values displayed in the current figure were obtained at $t = 2 \times t_{ign}$.

Following the same practice as in Refs. [139, 144], the analysis of the NOx
 production will focus on the post-ignition region, as this is the part of the

process where NOx increase. Figure 9 displays the temporal evolution of the mass fractions of NO and H along with temperature. At first sight, it becomes
 375 evident that the mass fraction of NO and temperature, both increase rapidly in the post ignition region in the pure hydrogen case, as opposed to the cases with H₂O₂ addition which exhibit a more mild increase. The temperature's profile in this part of the process, will be discussed more next, because it is a finding of great significance. On the other hand, the mass fraction of H decreases rapidly
 380 in the pure hydrogen case, unlike the H₂O₂ added cases where H is depleted in a more moderate way. In fact, the gradients of NO, H and temperature decrease with the addition of H₂O₂.

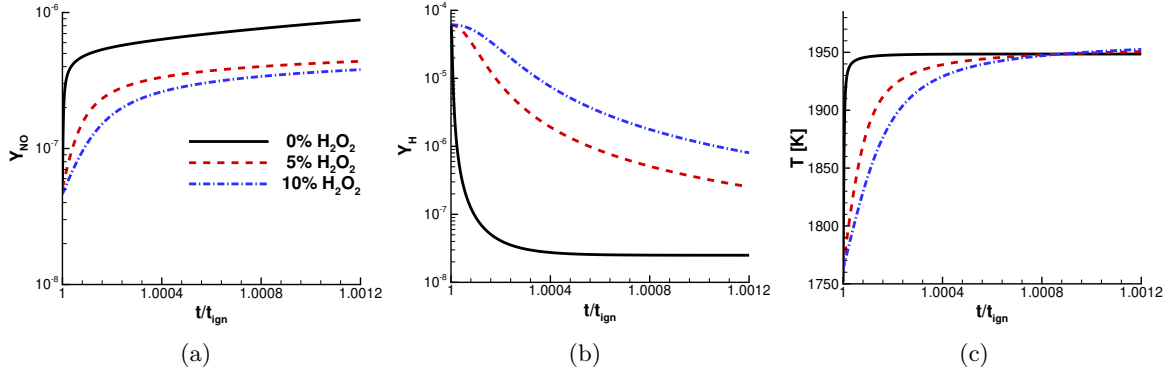


Figure 9: The temporal evolution of Y_{NO} (a), Y_H (b) and temperature (c), for the various cases of H₂O₂ addition, during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a hydrogen/air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

In order to identify the chemical pathways that control the evolution of NO and N₂O, the slow importance index of the CSP theory is used. Starting with
 385 NO, Fig. 10 displays the reactions with the largest slow importance indices for the pure hydrogen case. It becomes evident that the mass fraction of NO is controlled by 2 main mechanisms: the thermal (Zeldovich) mechanism [172] and the NNH mechanism [173]. The former is a well established mechanism, while the latter is controversial [124]. For a detailed discussion about the origin of
 390 this controversy the reader is referred to the review work of [124]. Very briefly, the rate constant of 68f (which is a key reaction in the NNH mechanism) has

so far been determined with indirect experiments which suggest a value close to collision frequency, but these values contradict previous theoretical studies which indicate a much lower rate constant. Figure 10 shows that, in the early post-ignition part where NO exhibits a steep increase, the production of NO is mainly controlled by reactions 68f, 64f, 64b and 70f, the first two favoring its increase while the last two tend to deplete it. All these reactions relate to the NNH mechanism of NO production. Later in the post ignition part, reaction 63b becomes dominant, which is the most important reaction in the thermal NO mechanism. Reactions 3f/b and 7f/b, which are hydrogen related, play secondary (but not insignificant) roles, but shortly afterwards they reach an equilibrium state. Finally, reaction 151f plays a notable role, favoring the production of NO. Reaction 151f, is a well established mechanism of NO production [174] and it is known that its contribution to the NO production is of less significance, especially when compared to the thermal NO mechanism [124].

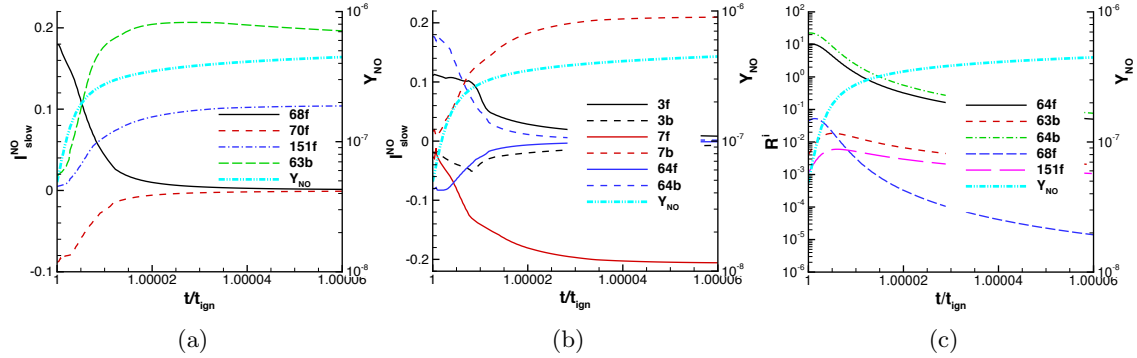


Figure 10: The largest slow Importance Indices for NO (I_{slow}^{NO}) and selected reaction rates (moles/(cm³s)) in the pure hydrogen case, during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a hydrogen/air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $\phi = 0.4$, $T(0)=900$ K.

The description of Fig. 10 regarding the key pathways that control NO production in the pure hydrogen case, can be summarised in Fig. 11. Concretely, NO is produced via the formation of NNH (reactions 64b and 68f, i.e., the NNH mechanism) and directly with oxygen atom reaction with nitrogen (reaction 63b, thermal NO mechanism), the first being dominant early in the post ignition part

while the second dominates later. Obviously, the reactions that compete the formation of NO in the NNH mechanism, i.e., reactions 64f and 70f, have negative importance indices, and they tend to decrease the formation of NO. The aforementioned mechanisms are coupled with hydrogen-related reactions (3f/b and 7f/b), which produce or consume the important O and H radicals.

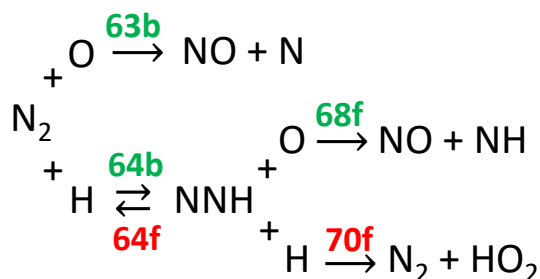


Figure 11: The main chemical pathway that controls the production of NO, in the post-ignition region, during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a hydrogen/air mixture (no additive) at $p(0)=40$ atm, $\phi = 0.4$, $T(0)=900$ K. Reactions in green have positive importance index, thus, favor the increase of NO, while reactions in red have negative importance index, therefore, tend to decrease NO.

Before moving to the discussion of the CSP diagnostics for the cases with the addition of H_2O_2 , the profile of temperature in the part around the ignition delay time is discussed. As it was shown in Fig. 9, H_2O_2 addition leads to a decrease of temperature early in the post-ignition part. This is counterintuitive considering that, as it was shown in Fig. 2, temperature increases faster with the addition of H_2O_2 from the very beginning of the ignition process. Figure 12 displays the temperature evolution for the pure hydrogen and the 10% H_2O_2 cases, in the neighbourhood of the ignition delay time. As it is shown, the addition of H_2O_2 induces a significantly less steep increase of temperature. A budget analysis for the contribution of each reaction to the temperature equation was performed, following the same practice as in Ref. [133], which highlighted that the two most important contributors to the temperature rate of change are reactions 5f and 21f, the former being endothermic, thus tends to decrease temperature, while the latter being exothermic, thus, enhancing temperature increase. These two

430 reactions are competing each other, as they include the same reactants, the only
 exception being that 21f is a third body reaction. Obviously, the contribution
 of 21f is much higher than 5f, since it drives the temperature increase. With the
 addition of H_2O_2 , both reactions are favored, but in a disproportional manner,
 i.e., reaction 5f is favored more than 21f. As a result, reaction 5f acts as a
 435 "thermal scavenger" in this region and limits the temperature increase. This is
 illustrated more clearly in Fig. 12, where the ratio of the contributions of 5f and
 21f to the temperature rate of change, has been plotted for the pure hydrogen
 and the 10% H_2O_2 cases; the ratio is very well correlated to the temperature
 evolution in both cases. Temperature's mild increase with the addition of H_2O_2
 440 will be the key element for the significant impact of the production of NO, as
 it will be shown next.

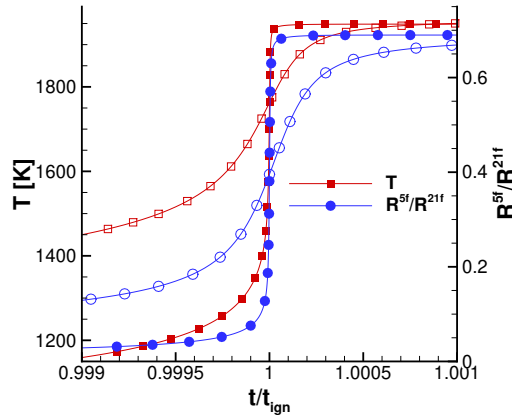


Figure 12: The evolution of temperature and the ratio of the absolute values of the
 terms related to reactions R^{5f} and R^{21f} in the temperature equation, during the homo-
 geneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of hydrogen/air and 90%hydrogen-
 10% H_2O_2 /air mixture (blocked and hollow symbols, respectively) at $p(0)=40$ atm,
 $\phi = 0.4$, $T(0)=900$ K.

In fact, the addition of H_2O_2 does not affect the set of most important re-
 actions for the production of NO. Figure 13 shows that the two mechanisms
 previously described, i.e., the thermal and the NNH mechanisms, remain the
 445 main pathways for NO production after the addition of H_2O_2 . However, signifi-

cant quantitative differences do exist. Firstly, the contributions of the reactions related to the NNH mechanism (reactions 64f, 64b, 68f, 70f), drop in magnitude and the timeframe they are active, is shifted later to the post-ignition area and extended. Secondly, the contribution of reaction 63b (part of the thermal
 450 NO mechanism) also drops in magnitude in the early post-ignition part, where NO experiences the steep increase. Therefore, in overall, it can be concluded that both the thermal and the NNH mechanisms remain the key mechanisms of NO production after the addition of H₂O₂, but their contributions decrease in magnitude due to the decreased temperature in the early post-ignition part.

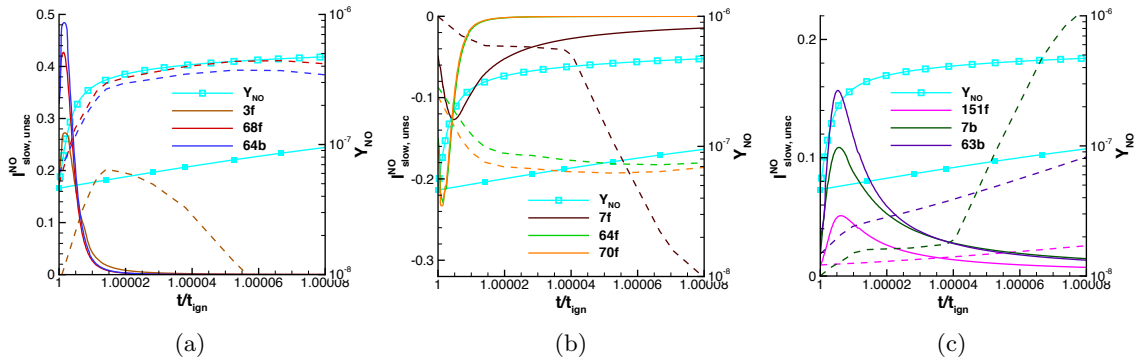


Figure 13: The largest unscaled slow importance indices for NO ($I_{slow,unsc}^{NO}$) for the 0% and 10% H₂O₂ addition cases (solid and dashed lines, respectively), overlaid with the mass fraction of NO (hollow and blocked square symbols for the 0% and 10% H₂O₂ addition cases, respectively), at p(0)=40 atm, $\phi = 0.4$, T(0)=900 K; both cases simulate homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition.

455 In order to extend the validity of the conclusions to a range of initial temperatures, the same analysis was repeated for the cases of T(0)=800 K and 1,000 K and quantitative evidence is provided in the Supplementary material. It was found that even at these conditions, the NNH mechanism remains the key mechanism for NO production in the early post-ignition area, while thermal NO becomes dominant shortly afterwards. An increasing trend of the importance and the rate of reaction 68f, with increasing the initial temperature was observed,
 460 which is related to the higher temperatures reached by the system.

The second NO_x emission pollutant discussed in the current study, is the

N_2O . As it was shown in Fig. 8, unlike NO , N_2O increases monotonically with
 465 the addition of H_2O_2 . This is also shown in Fig. 14 which compares the temporal
 evolution of N_2O in the early post-ignition part for the pure hydrogen case, along
 with the 5% and 10% of H_2O_2 addition. Atomic O is also shown to increase with
 the addition of H_2O_2 . As it will be shown next, O atoms are essential for the
 creation of N_2O . Note, however, that as shown in Fig. 8, the increase induced
 470 on N_2O due to the addition of H_2O_2 , is quite small, therefore, any differences
 in the chemical pathways are expected to be also small.

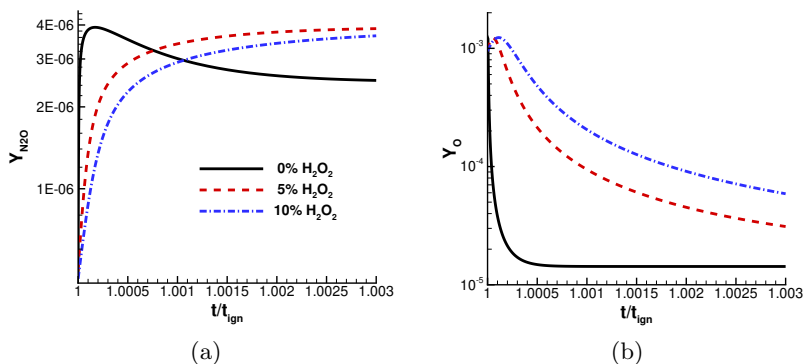


Figure 14: The temporal evolution of Y_{N_2O} (a) and Y_O (b), for the various cases of
 H_2O_2 addition, during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a
 hydrogen/air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

In order to identify the changes in the chemical pathways related to N_2O
 production, the key pertinent chemistry in the no-additive (pure hydrogen) case
 has to be analysed. For this purpose, the largest slow importance indices for
 475 N_2O , in the pure hydrogen case were calculated and are displayed in Fig. 15. It is
 shown that N_2O production is mainly favored by reactions 7b and 149b; the first
 produces O radicals which are used in the second as reactants to react with N_2
 and create N_2O . The reverse of these reactions, i.e., 7f and 149f, both also play
 key role and have insignificant indices. However, they both tend to decrease the
 480 N_2O production, which is reasonable since they compete the reverse pathway.

With the addition of H_2O_2 , the main chemical pathway that controls the

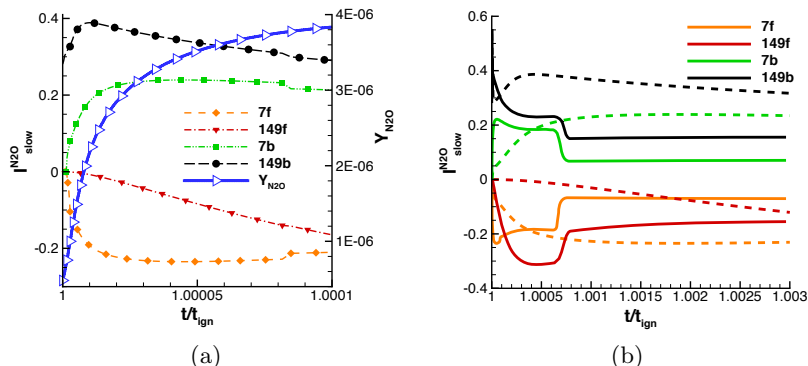


Figure 15: (a) The largest slow importance indices for N_2O ($I_{slow}^{N_2O}$), overlaid with the mass fraction of NO , during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a hydrogen/air mixture (no additive) at $p(0)=40$ atm, $\phi = 0.4$, $T(0)=900$ K. (b) The largest slow Importance Indices for N_2O ($I_{slow}^{N_2O}$) for the 0% and 10% H_2O_2 addition cases (solid and dashed lines, respectively) to the hydrogen/air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $\phi = 0.4$, $T(0)=900$ K; both cases refer to homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition.

N_2O production remains the same, as illustrated in Fig. 15. However, the importance of 149b increases whereas that of the reverse, i.e., 149f drops, resulting in an increased production of N_2O . The enhanced role of 149b, which requires
 485 O radicals, is mainly (but not exclusively) due to reaction 7b, which produces O radicals through the consumption of OH radicals. The increased relative importance of 7b can be attributed to the larger pool of OH radicals, achieved with the addition of H_2O_2 . The increased role of 149b in the production of N_2O is further supported by the profile of the respective reaction rate, which increases
 490 significantly with the addition of H_2O_2 as opposed to the rate of R^{149f} which exhibits only small change. Quantitative evidence for this finding is provided in the Supplementary material.

The conclusions drawn for the H_2O_2 addition regarding the N_2O production at $T(0)=900$ K can be extended to a range of $800 \text{ K} < T(0) < 1,000 \text{ K}$, as demon-
 495 strated in the Figures included in the Supplementary material. In particular, the importance of reaction 149b remains high for both 800 K and 1,000 K at 10% H_2O_2 addition. In fact, the importance of 149b, in view of the importance

index and the reaction rate, increases monotonically with temperature, from 800 K up to 1,000 K.

500 In summary:

- the H_2O_2 has a strong effect on the mass fractions NO and NO_2 , decreasing substantially their production, and a weak effect on N_2O , favoring its increase. Indicatively, a 5% addition of H_2O_2 leads to $\sim 100\%$ decrease of NO and NO_2 and $< 3\%$ increase of N_2O .
- 505 • with the addition of H_2O_2 , the contributions of the competing reactions 5f and 21f to the temperature rate of change become enhanced but the former (which tends to decrease the temperature rate of change) is favored significantly more than the latter (which tends to increase the temperature rate of change), therefore, the temperature exhibits a milder increase in
510 the neighborhood of the ignition delay time.
- the thermal and the NNH mechanisms remain the main pathways for the production of NO after the addition of H_2O_2 , but their effects weaken due to the decreased temperature in the early post-ignition part.
- the increased production of N_2O after the addition of H_2O_2 is associated
515 with the increased production of O radicals and is due to the increased role of reactions 149b and 7b.

3.2. H_2O addition

In this section, the effect of H_2O addition to the mixture is investigated. In order to properly assess the implications on the ignition delay time and NOx
520 emissions, the H_2O_2 initial content is kept constant at 10% (fuel mole fraction) for all mixtures and cases investigated. Like in the previous section, the addition of H_2O will be performed gradually, and the 1-, 3- and 5- H_2O cases reflect the initial mole of H_2O as compared to H_2 . In essence, the 1-, 3- and 5- H_2O cases represent the cases where the initial mole fraction of H_2O was $\times 1$, $\times 3$ and $\times 5$
525 the mole fraction of the main fuel (hydrogen). Similar to the addition of H_2O_2 ,

in the cases of H₂O addition, the ratio of the mole fractions of hydrogen over air is kept fixed. For clarity, Table 3 includes the initial compositions of the cases analysed in detail next.

Table 3: The initial mole fractions for the cases of H₂O addition, analysed in detail.

H ₂ O case	X _{H₂O₂}	X _{H₂}	X _{O₂}	X _{N₂}	X _{H₂O}	X _{H₂} /(X _{O₂} + X _{N₂})	X _{H₂O₂} /X _{H₂}	X _{H₂O} /X _{H₂}
0-	0.014180	0.14180	0.17725	0.66678	0.00000	0.168	0.1	0
1-	0.012419	0.12419	0.15523	0.58397	0.12419	0.168	0.1	1
3-	0.0099479	0.099479	0.12435	0.46779	0.29844	0.168	0.1	3
5-	0.0082971	0.082971	0.10371	0.39016	0.41486	0.168	0.1	5

3.2.1. Ignition delay time

530 Starting the analysis with the effect on the ignition delay time, Fig. 16 displays the variation of the ignition delay time as a function of the initial quantity of H₂O. The addition of H₂O has moderate effect on the system's ignition delay time, but in any case it leads to its increase. This effect becomes more pronounced as the system's initial temperature increases. At T(0)=900
535 K, the addition of ~0.4 mole fraction of H₂O (5-H₂O case) yields an ignition delay time less than 2 ms, which can be considered reasonable for compression ignition engine operation. The ignition delay increase induced by the addition of H₂O is accompanied by a significant decrease of the system's end (equilibrium) temperature, which in the 5-H₂O case it reaches roughly ~25%. Unlike the
540 effect on the ignition delay time which becomes more pronounced as the initial temperature increases, the effect on the end temperature decrease is insensitive to the system's initial temperature.

The analysis next will be performed on the basis of the following 4 cases, that will enable the identification of the trends in the changes of the key chemical
545 pathways, induced by the addition of H₂O: 0-, 1-, 3-, 5-H₂O. Figure 17 displays the temporal evolution of temperature along with selected radicals for the four cases. Firstly, it is verified that the system's end temperature decreases with the addition of H₂O. However, it is counterintuitive that in the pre-ignition part of the process, temperature increases faster with the addition of H₂O. Also, the

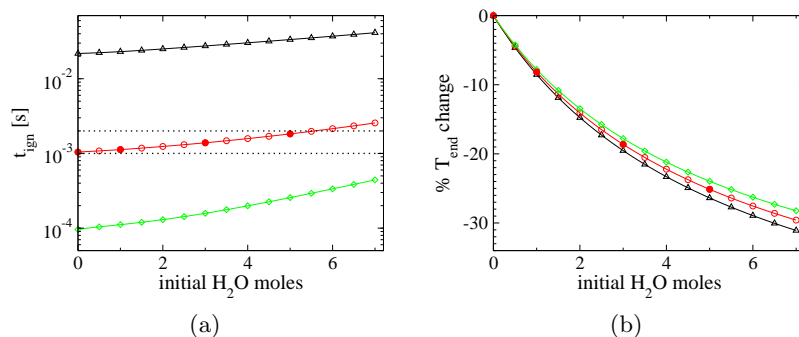


Figure 16: The effect of H_2O addition during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a hydrogen/air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $\phi = 0.4$ (triangles- $T(0)=800$ K, circles- $T(0)=900$ K, diamonds- $T(0)=1,000$ K), on the ignition delay time (a) and the end (equilibrium) temperature (b). The blocked symbols represent the cases analysed in detail next. The dotted lines are placed at $t_{ign}=1$ and 2 ms.

550 addition of H_2O at sufficiently high initial quantities such as in the 3- and 5- H_2O cases, results in the formation of a clear two-stage ignition process. It is noted that the 2-stage ignition depicted in the temperature graphs is also reflected to the respective heat release rate profiles (see relevant graphs in the Supplementary Material). All these findings will be discussed in more detail next. In
 555 addition, the OH and HO_2 radicals increase faster with the addition of H_2O , for the most part of the process; however, at the end of the ignition process and before the occurrence of the inflection point which marks the ignition delay time, their increase is not only halted but in fact for sufficiently high initial concentration of H_2O (e.g., the 3- and 5- H_2O cases), they exhibit a decrease. This
 560 counterintuitive behavior will also be discussed in more detail next, but at this point it becomes clear that it is related to the emergence of the second ignition stage.

The timescale that is the characteristic one and correlated with the ignition delay time in the cases under study is the fast explosive one, i.e., $\tau_{e,f}$. The
 565 evolution of $\tau_{e,f}$ for the four cases of H_2O addition is displayed in Fig. 18. Firstly, it can be seen that at the very beginning of the ignition process, $\tau_{e,f}$ is barely affected by the addition of H_2O . This is important because it is consistent with

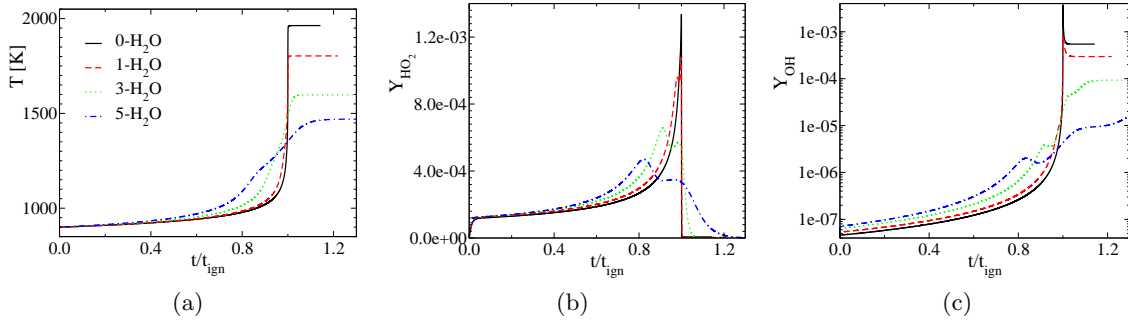


Figure 17: The temporal evolution of temperature (a), $Y_{H_2O_2}$ (b) and Y_{OH} (c), as a function of time, scaled against the respective ignition delay times for the various H_2O addition cases, during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a $90\%H_2-10\%H_2O_2/air$ mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

the final outcome, i.e., the ignition delay time does not increase a lot with the addition of H_2O . In fact, for the most part of the ignition process, $\tau_{e,f}$ is largely
 570 insensitive to the addition of H_2O and accelerates moderately. However, at the end of the ignition process significant differences emerge, which become more pronounced as the H_2O addition increases. In particular, at sufficiently high H_2O addition (e.g., 3- H_2O and 5- H_2O), $\tau_{e,f}$ starts decelerating much earlier than $t/t_{ign} = 1$ and, in fact, there is no steep acceleration of $\tau_{e,f}$ close to the
 575 end of the ignition process, as occurs in the 0- H_2O case.

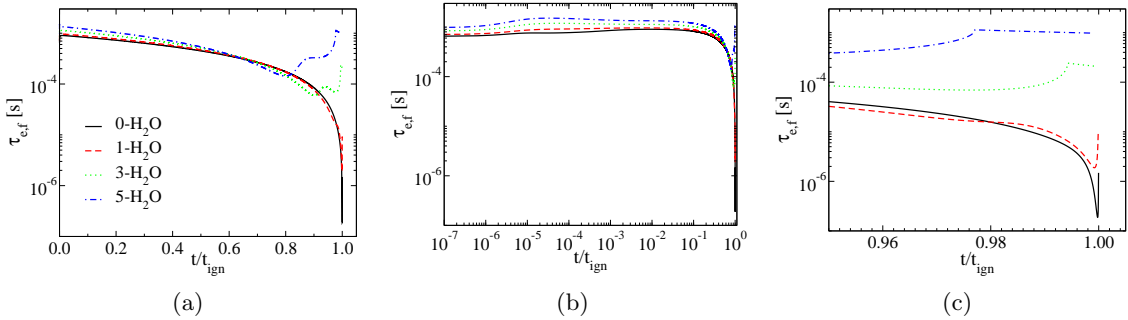


Figure 18: The evolution of the system's fast explosive timescale $\tau_{e,f}$ as a function of time, scaled against the respective ignition delay times, for the various H_2O addition cases, during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a $90\%H_2-10\%H_2O_2/air$ mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

In order to identify the reactions that mostly relate to $\tau_{e,f}$, thus having the largest effect on the ignition delay time control, for the H_2O addition cases, the

TPIs related to $\tau_{e,f}$ were calculated. In the early part of the ignition process where $\tau_{e,f}$ is barely affected by the addition of H_2O , the differences in the TPIs are fairly small, as shown in Fig. 19. Reaction 9f is the dominant one followed by the contribution of 11b which drops fairly fast. Both reaction 9f and 11b favor the explosive character of $\tau_{e,f}$, thus, promote ignition. Reactions 3f and 18f play secondary roles, the first favoring and the second opposing the explosive character of $\tau_{e,f}$. In terms of trends, the addition of H_2O : (i) boosts the role of 9f, as the ignition process progresses and remains the dominant contributor to $\tau_{e,f}$ for the most part of the process, (ii) promotes the role of 11b very briefly, in the very early part of the ignition process, (iii) favors the role of 3f more increasingly as the ignition process evolves and (iv) advances the role of 18f for a brief period of time in the early part of the ignition process. The advanced role of 9f as a result of the the addition of H_2O can be explained by the fact that it is a third body chain branching reaction leading to the formation of the highly reactive OH radical, and the efficiency of H_2O in that reaction is the second largest (with a value of 7.65) and only slightly smaller than that of H_2O_2 (with a value of 7.70). The advancing of that particular reaction due to the addition of H_2O has also been confirmed in the ignition of methane [144]. Reactions 3f and 18f which both exhibit higher TPIs due to the addition of H_2O , both include OH in the reactants, the first in combination with the main fuel (H_2) and the latter with HO_2 .

During the main part of the ignition process, the reactions with the largest contributions to $\tau_{e,f}$ are reactions 9f, 3f and 13/14f, the first two favoring and the last one opposing the explosive character of $\tau_{e,f}$, as it is depicted in Fig. 20. All three increase their contributions with the addition of H_2O . The reason for the increased role of 9f and 3f was previously discussed while for reaction 13/14f, its contribution is slightly advanced because it includes OH radical in the reactants, a species that is promoted due to the increased role of 9f. During this part of the process, the radical pool increases and this increase is enhanced with the addition of H_2O , mainly due to the advanced roles of 9f and 3f.

The last part of the ignition process is probably the most interesting one,

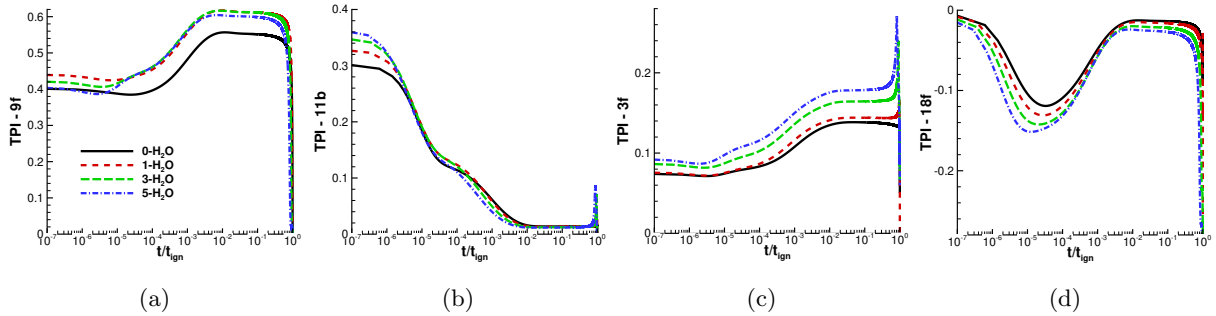


Figure 19: The largest TPIs for the system's fast explosive timescale $\tau_{e,f}$ as a function of time, scaled against the respective ignition delay times, for the various H_2O addition cases, during the early part of the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a $90\%\text{H}_2$ - $10\%\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ /air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

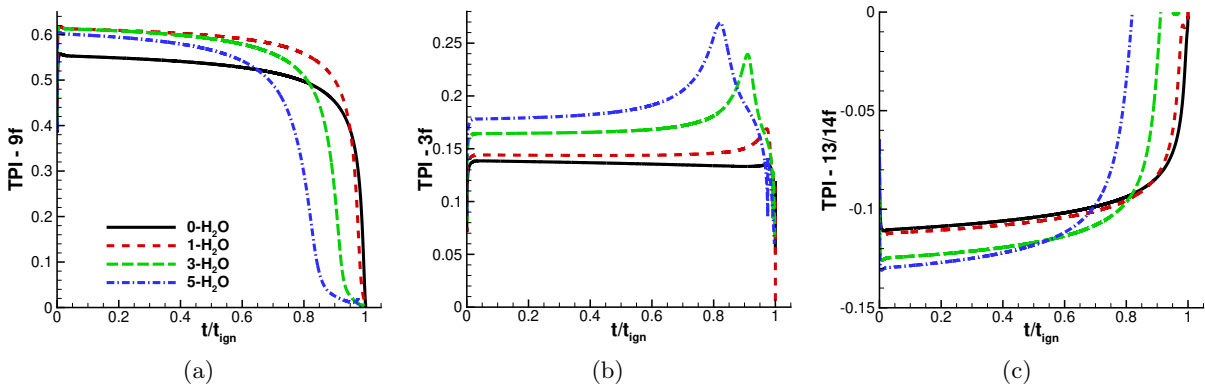


Figure 20: The largest TPIs for the system's fast explosive timescale $\tau_{e,f}$ as a function of time, scaled against the respective ignition delay times, for the various H_2O addition cases, during the main part of the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a $90\%\text{H}_2$ - $10\%\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ /air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

because it is at this part that for sufficiently high H_2O addition the system
 610 exhibits a second ignition stage. In the $0\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ case, the largest contributors to
 $\tau_{e,f}$ were identified (and confirmed in Fig. 21) to be reactions 5f and 21f, the
 former favoring and the latter opposing the explosive character of $\tau_{e,f}$. The
 relative contributions of these two reactions is diminished significantly as the H_2O
 addition increases. In fact, 21f becomes practically insignificant for sufficiently
 615 high H_2O added cases, such as the $3\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ and $5\text{-H}_2\text{O}$ cases. It is reminded that
 reaction 21f is a highly exothermic reaction and as it was shown in the previ-
 ous section, it was the main contributor to the temperature increase in the late

ignition stage. While the contributions of 5f and 21f to $\tau_{e,f}$ decrease dramatically as H_2O is added, the contributions of 3f and most importantly that of 18f increase, the former favoring and the latter opposing the explosive character of $\tau_{e,f}$. All these findings suggest that the second ignition stage that emerges for sufficiently high H_2O added cases is due to primarily the boosted role of 18f and secondarily the decreased contribution of 5f. The combined effect from these two reactions results in the early deceleration of $\tau_{e,f}$ and the emergence of the second ignition stage. Reaction 18f is a chain termination reaction (leads to the formation of H_2O and O_2) which explains its tendency to oppose the explosive character of $\tau_{e,f}$ and decelerate ignition. There is probably not only one reason why this reaction is favored at this part of the process. Firstly, it includes OH as a reactant, which is a species that is particularly favored by the addition of H_2O , mainly through reaction 9f. The second reactant is the HO_2 radical which is also increased due to the addition of H_2O , as it was shown in Fig. 17. Moreover, it is the only reaction with a negative activation energy, therefore, its rate constant is already high when reaching the high temperature regime.

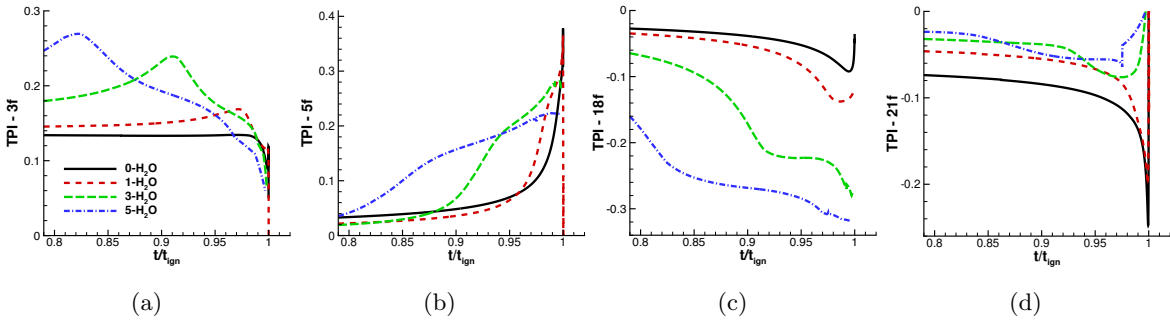


Figure 21: The largest TPIs for the system's fast explosive timescale $\tau_{e,f}$ as a function of time, scaled against the respective ignition delay times, for the various H_2O addition cases, during the late part of the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a 90% H_2 -10% H_2O_2 /air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

In terms of the variables that are mostly related to the system's fast explosive mode, the CSP Po in Fig. 22 highlights the importance of temperature in all H_2O addition cases, which is reasonable considering that the role of reaction 9f remains significant. However, the relation of H_2O_2 to the fast explosive mode

is enhanced with the addition of H_2O , which can be explained by the enhanced roles of reactions 9f and 13/14f, where it is reactant. The key point here is that even after significant addition of H_2O , the system is still strongly controlled by temperature and mainly evolves in a thermal runaway.

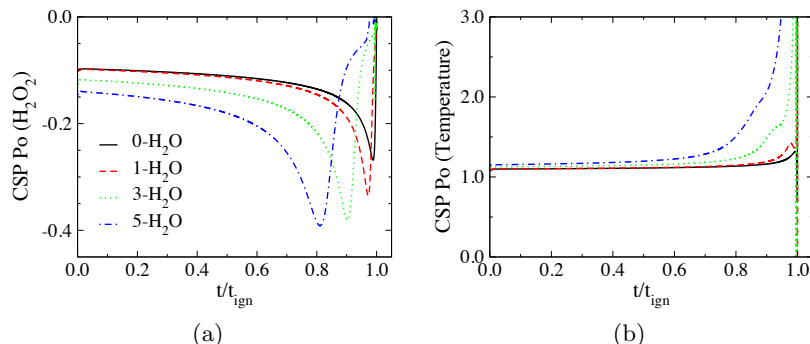


Figure 22: The largest CSP P_o for the system's fast explosive timescale $\tau_{e,f}$ as a function of time, scaled against the respective ignition delay times, for the various H_2O addition cases, during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a 90% H_2 -10% H_2O_2 /air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

To extend the validity of the findings previously reported regarding the effect of H_2O addition on the ignition delay time, the analysis was repeated at $T(0)=800$ K and 1,000 K. Figure 23 reveals that the two stage ignition is enhanced for high initial temperatures and tend to diminish for lower ones. The two stage ignition is reflected on the system's $\tau_{e,f}$ which does not experience a steep acceleration close to the inflection point as it was reported in the 0- H_2O case. Reaction 18f plays a key role opposing the explosive character of $\tau_{e,f}$ and its role is enhanced as the initial temperature increases. This confirms further the correlation between the emergence of second ignition stage and reaction 18f. Finally, temperature remains the variable mostly related to the system's fast explosive mode regardless the initial temperature.

In summary:

- The addition of H_2O has moderate effect on the system's ignition delay time, favoring its increase.

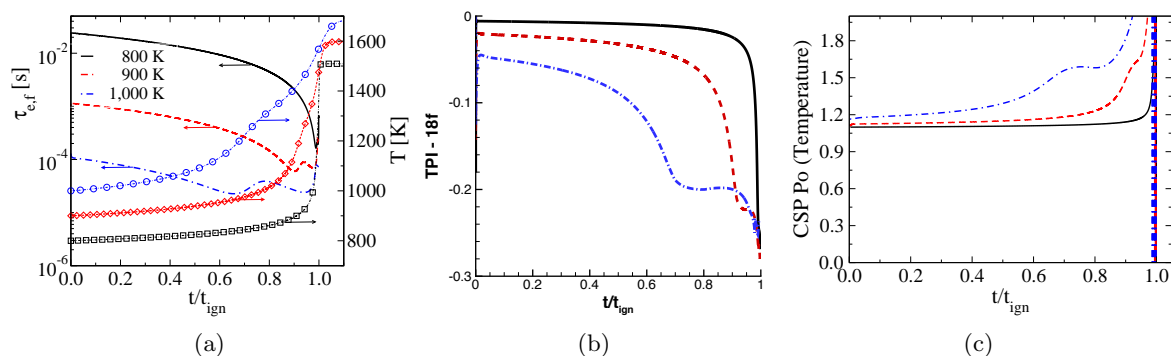


Figure 23: The system's fast explosive timescale $\tau_{e,f}$ (a), the TPI of reaction 18f related to the system's $\tau_{e,f}$ (b) and the CSP Po of temperature related to the system's $\tau_{e,f}$ (c), during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a 90%hydrogen-10%H₂O₂/air mixture, diluted by 30% with H₂O, at $p(0)=40$ atm, $\phi = 0.4$, for $T(0)=800, 900$ and $1,000$ K.

- At conditions of sufficient steam dilution, the system (H₂/H₂O₂/H₂O/air) exhibits a two-stage ignition which is the result primarily of the increased role of reaction 18f and the decreased role of 21f, and secondarily of the decreased role of reaction 5f.
- 660
- The two-stage ignition of H₂/H₂O₂/H₂O/air mixtures is favored with the increase of the initial temperature.

3.2.2. NO_x formation

In the previous subsection (Fig. 16) it was reported that the addition of H₂O induces a substantial decrease on the system's end (equilibrium) temperature. Therefore, it is expected that the production of NO_x emissions, also drops significantly. This is indeed the case, as it is shown in Fig. 24. In fact, the decrease of NO and N₂O is so large that it can be properly assessed only if compared as a ratio against the respective undiluted (0-H₂O) case, rather than percentage change. For instance, in the 1- and 3-H₂O cases, NO decreases by two and four orders of magnitude, respectively, while the N₂O exhibits more moderate decrease (roughly a factor of two and seven, respectively). The spectacular decrease of NO is largely insensitive to the initial temperature for relatively small H₂O addition, but for high H₂O addition it does exhibit some moderate

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675 dependance. On the other hand, the N_2O decrease is generally insensitive to the system's initial temperature.

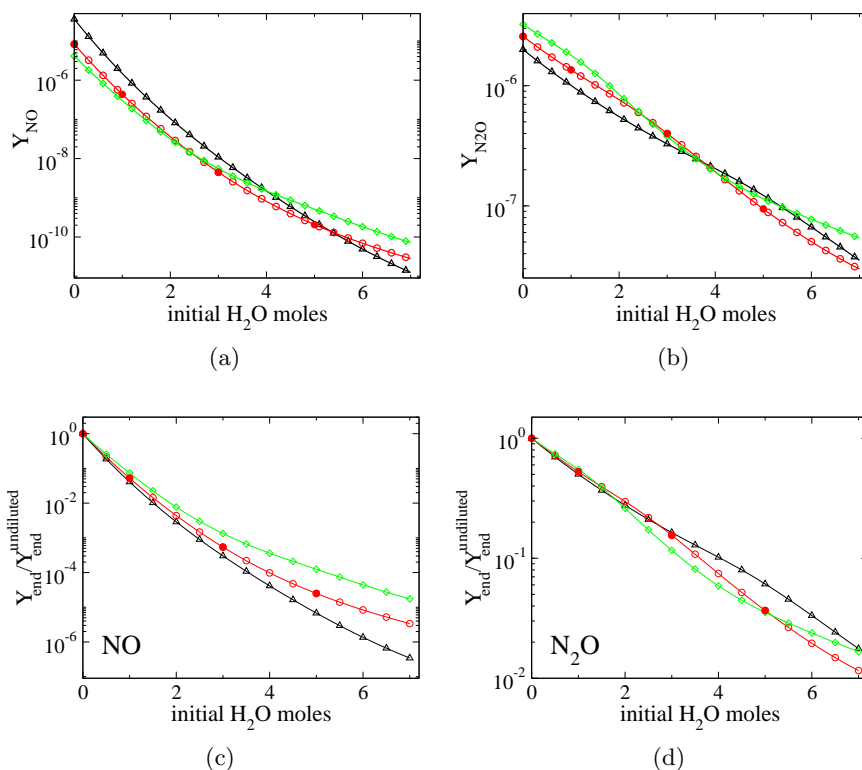


Figure 24: The effect of H₂O addition in the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a 90%H₂-10%H₂O₂/air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $\phi = 0.4$ (triangles- $T(0)=800$ K, circles- $T(0)=900$ K, diamonds- $T(0)=1,000$ K), on the equilibrium mass fraction values of NO (a,c) and N₂O (b,d). The blocked symbols represent the cases analysed in detail next.

To understand the mechanism that affects the production of NO though the addition of H₂O, we focus on the post ignition part of the process. Figure 25 shows that the increase in NO due to H₂O addition, is accompanied by an increase in the remaining H₂, and significant decreases of H radicals and temperature. Note that the decrease in H radicals occurs early in the early part of the post-ignition area, while later this decrease is diminished.

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In order to properly assess the changes in the chemical pathways pertinent

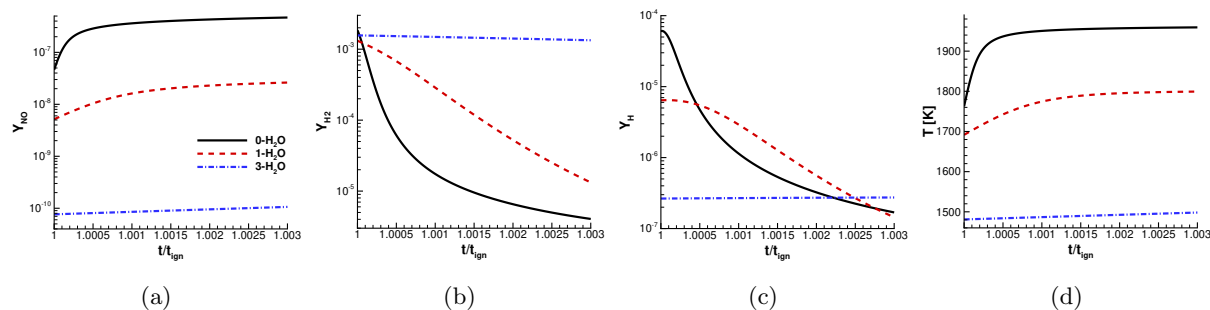


Figure 25: The temporal evolution of Y_{NO} (a), Y_{H_2} (b), Y_H (c) and temperature (d), for the various H_2O addition cases, during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a $90\%H_2$ - $10\%H_2O_2$ /air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

to NO, the unscaled have been used and plotted in Fig. 26. The set of chemical reactions that control the evolution of NO does not change with the addition of H_2O . The first observation that is clear is that reaction 3f experiences a decrease in the associated unscaled importance index, but its decrease is much smaller compared to the rest of the set, therefore, it becomes the largest contributor to the NO, favoring its production. Secondly, the NNH and thermal (Zeldovich) both remain the key mechanisms that drive the formation of NO (reactions 64b-68f-64f-70f and 63b, respectively), the former in the early post ignition part and the latter afterwards, however, their unscaled importance indices drop two orders of magnitude. Finally, reactions 151f, 7f and 7b remain notable contributors especially in the late post-ignition part, but their contributions drop, likewise, roughly two orders of magnitude. Considering that the decrease of the NO mass fraction in the 1- H_2O case is roughly two orders of magnitude (Fig. 25), it becomes perfectly reasonable that the unscaled indices of the most important reactions all drop roughly two orders of magnitude as well.

In view of the CSP modes, the examination of the CSP mode that is mostly related to NO (i.e., the CSP mode that the largest CSP pointer value is related to NO), reveals in Fig. 27 that the related amplitude drops and the associated timescale increases with the addition of H_2O . It is reminded that the timescale

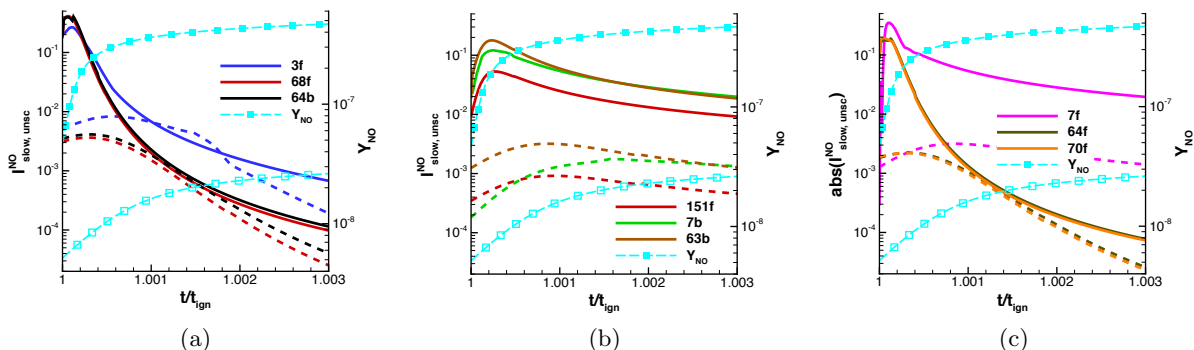


Figure 26: The largest unscaled slow importance indices for NO ($I_{slow,unsc}^{NO}$) for the 0% and 10% H₂O addition cases (solid and dashed lines, respectively), overlaid with the mass fraction of NO (hollow and blocked square symbols for the 0% and 10% H₂O addition cases, respectively), during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a 90%H₂-10%H₂O₂/air mixture at p(0)=40 atm, T(0)=900 K, $\phi = 0.4$. The indices related to reactions 7f, 64f, 70f are negative, therefore, for a more clear illustration, the respective absolute values have been used.

represents the timeframe of action of a particular mode while the amplitude reflects the impact of the mode on the evolution of the system. In the current case, the timescale increase suggests that the particular mode requires more time to act and reach equilibrium, while the amplitude decrease indicates that its impact decreases. Consequently, the mode (in terms of amplitude and timescale) becomes less effective. These results are in agreement with a similar investigation for the effect of H₂O addition in methane/air mixtures [144], where an amplitude decrease and a timescale increase were reported after the addition of H₂O.

The system's decreased temperature that is achieved in the post ignition part of the process is probably the main mechanism that reduces the effect of the key reactions towards the formation of NO. But in fact there is another mechanism that holds. In particular, as it was reported in Ref. [144], the introduction of H₂O, affects the equilibration of the CSP (exhausted) mode that is associated with the O radical. The largest TPIs and APIs for this mode relate to reactions 7f and 7b ($O + H_2O \leftrightarrow 2OH$), as shown in Fig. 28 which displays the CSP diagnostics for the 0- and 1-H₂O addition cases. Therefore, it is reasonable that the CSP Po identifies mostly O and in a much less degree OH, as the variables

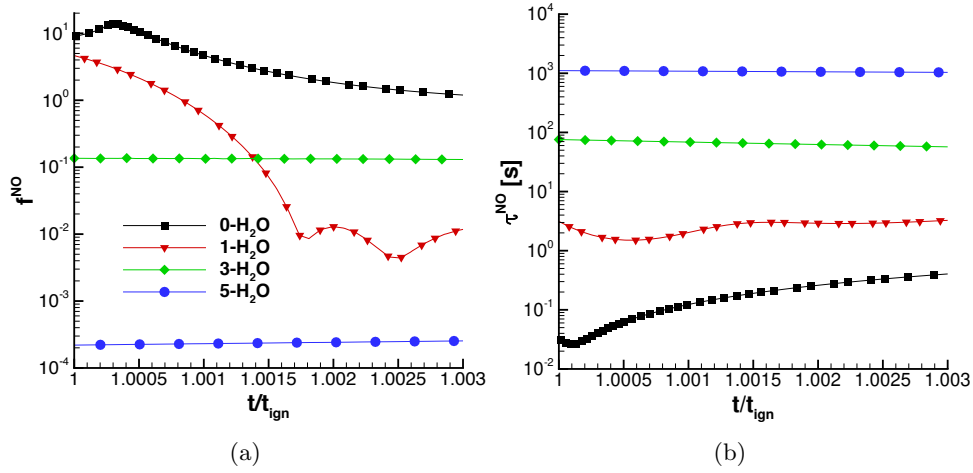


Figure 27: The evolution of the amplitude (a) and the timescale (b) of the CSP mode that relates to the Y_{NO} , for the various H_2O addition cases, during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a 90% H_2 -10% H_2O_2 /air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

720 mostly related to that mode. This mode becomes exhausted because of the equilibration of reaction 7. In Ref. [144] it was explained that in order for the equilibration of reaction 7f-7b to be maintained the O radicals decrease.

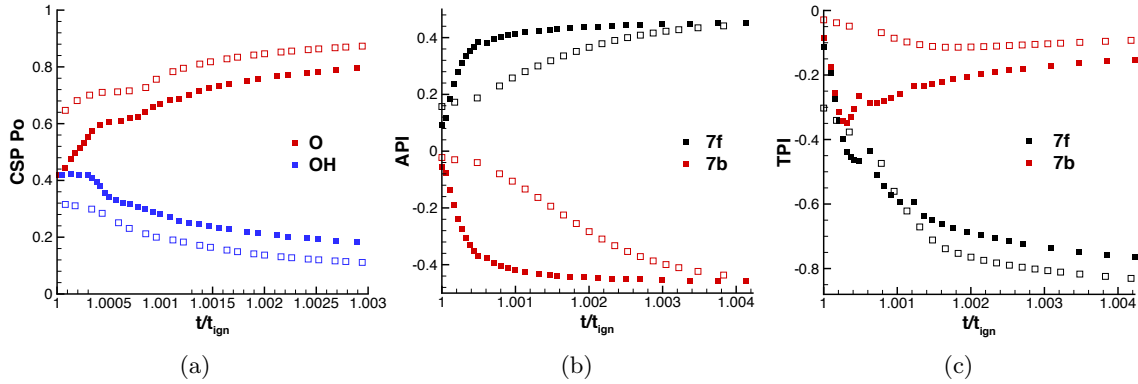


Figure 28: CSP diagnostics of the mode that relates to O in the post ignition area, for the 0% and 10% H_2O addition cases (hollow and blocked symbols, respectively), during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a 90% H_2 -10% H_2O_2 /air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

The key chemical reactions that control the production of N_2O , remain

roughly the same, after the addition of H_2O , as depicted in Fig. 29, with two
725 exceptions: reactions 3f and 5f become more important. In detail, the reaction
pathway 7b-149b continues to be instrumental to the production of N_2O , af-
ter the addition of H_2O and 149b maintains the dominant role. However, its
unscaled index drops roughly by an order of magnitude in the 1- H_2O case. Like-
wise, 7b, experiences a significant reduction of its related unscaled importance
730 index and in fact, its scaled importance index remain very low in the early
post ignition part. Similarly, reactions 7f and 149f which have the largest neg-
ative contributions in both cases, thus tend to decrease N_2O , both experience
significant reductions in their scaled and unscaled importance indices with the
addition of H_2O . In addition, reactions 3f and 5f (both hydrogen related), in-
735 crease significantly their relative importance in the 1- H_2O case, thus, added
up to the set of key reactions that control the evolution of N_2O . It is noted,
however, that although their scaled indices increase after the addition of H_2O ,
their unscaled ones are still smaller or roughly equal to the 0- H_2O case, sug-
gesting that they become important mainly because the absolute importances
740 of the rest drops more than theirs. The key message is that with the addition of
 H_2O , N_2O production drops mainly because the 7b-149b pathway weakens, the
weakening of 7b being more pronounced than 149b, thus other hydrogen-related
reactions (3f and 5f) become more important to fill the gap for the required O
atoms that are essential in 149b.

745 Finally, the examination of the CSP mode related to N_2O in Fig. 30, re-
veals that with H_2O addition the mode's amplitude decreases and the related
timescale increase, in agreement with what was previously reported about NO,
suggesting the related mode becomes less effective. The timescale increase indi-
cates longer time required to reach equilibrium while the decreased amplitude
750 demonstrates the decreased impact of that mode.

In summary:

- steam dilution induces a dramatic decrease to all NO_x emissions and tem-
perature in the post-ignition part.

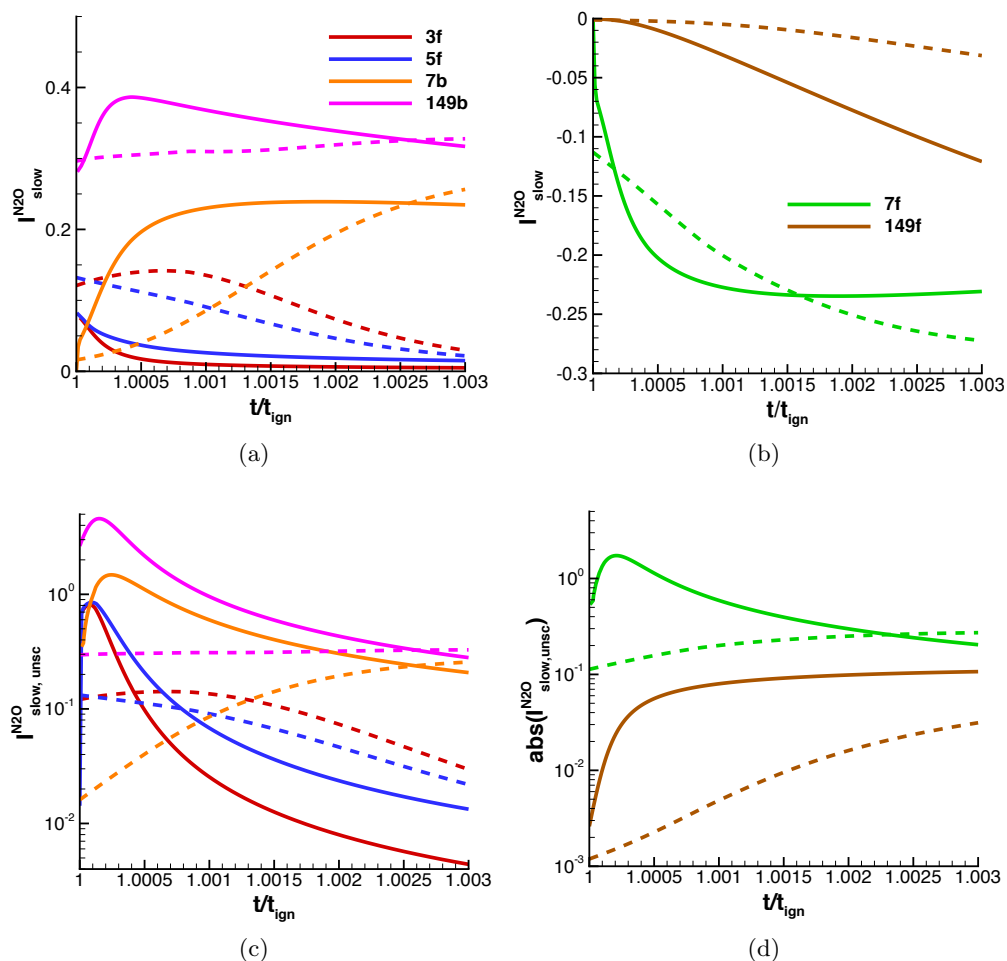


Figure 29: The largest scaled (a,b) and unscaled (c,d) slow Importance Indices for N_2O ($I_{slow}^{N_2O}$) for the 0- and 1- H_2O addition cases (solid and dashed lines, respectively), during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a 90% H_2 -10% H_2O_2 /air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$. The indices related to reactions 7f, 149f are negative, therefore, for a more clear illustration, the absolute values of the unscaled importance indices were used.

- the NNH and thermal mechanisms both remain the key pathways that drive the formation of NO but their impact drops.
- with the addition of steam the timescale of the CSP mode related to

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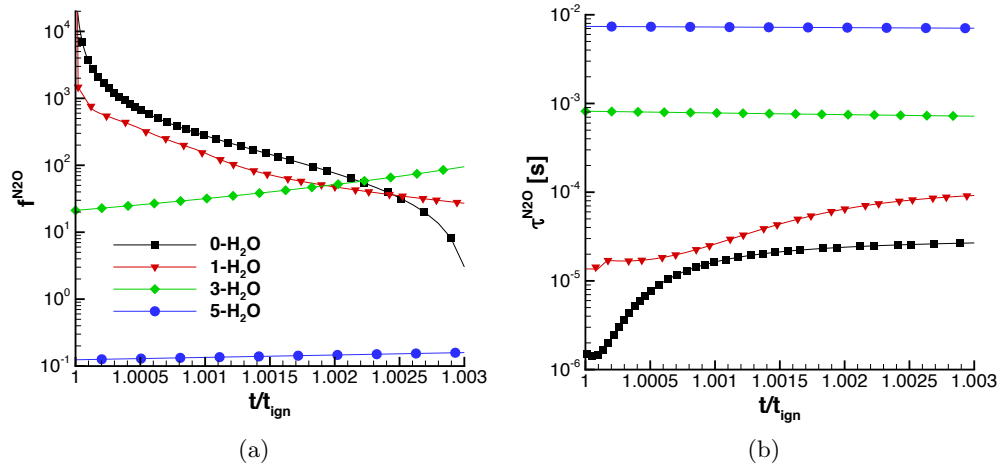


Figure 30: The evolution of the amplitude (a) and the timescale (b) of the CSP mode that relates to the Y_{N_2O} , for the various H_2O addition cases, during the homogeneous adiabatic constant pressure autoignition of a 90% H_2 -10% H_2O_2 /air mixture at $p(0)=40$ atm, $T(0)=900$ K, $\phi = 0.4$.

NO increases while the associated amplitude drops, therefore, the mode becomes less effective.

- 760 • the decreased temperature is one of the two mechanisms that lead to the decreased impact of the NNH and thermal mechanisms for the production of NO , due to the steam dilution. The other relates to the shifting of the equilibration of the CSP (exhausted) mode that is associated with the O radical.
- 765 • the chemical pathway that controls the production of N_2O (reactions 7b and 149b) remains the same after the addition of steam, but its impact decreases.
- with the addition of steam the timescale of the CSP mode related to N_2O increases while the associated amplitude drops, therefore, the mode becomes less effective.

770 **4. Conclusions**

In the current work, the idea of using hydrogen peroxide as an additive in hydrogen/air mixtures was tested with the purpose of sufficiently promoting ignition, thus enabling the use of hydrogen in CI engines without relying on carbon-based fuels. The analysis highlighted that 5-10% H₂O₂ addition can be
775 sufficient to accelerate ignition, achieving ignition delay times relevant to CI conditions. Not only that, but it was also found that the H₂O₂ addition tends to drop NO emissions significantly, reaching ~98% decrease with 10% of H₂O₂ addition. However, a small increase of N₂O emissions was reported.

With respect to the changes in the key chemistry, it was reported that the
780 addition of H₂O₂:

- decreases significantly the importance of reactions 11b (H₂O₂ + H ← H₂ + HO₂) and 19/20f (2HO₂ → H₂O₂ + O₂) in controlling the ignition delay time; reaction 11b promoting and reaction 19/20f opposing ignition.
- increases the effect of reactions 9f (H₂O₂ (+M) → 2OH(+M)) and 3f (H₂ + OH → H₂O + H) in controlling the ignition delay time; both reactions
785 favoring ignition.
- increases the influence of temperature, becoming the key variable that controls the temporal evolution of the system, while that of H₂O₂ drops significantly.
- increases the contributions of reactions 5f (H + O₂ → OH + O) and
790 21f (H + O₂ (+M) → HO₂ (+M)) to the temperature rate of change close to the inflection point (the former tends to decrease and the latter tends to increase temperature's rate of change), but 5f is favored more, thus decelerating the temperature increase. This has a great effect on NO
795 production.
- decreases the influence of the thermal and NNH mechanisms, thus, resulting to lower NO values.

- increases the influence of reaction 149b ($\text{N}_2\text{O} (+\text{M}) \leftrightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{O} (+\text{M})$) due to the increased pool of O radicals, thus leading to higher N_2O values.

800 Next, the addition of steam was tested as an efficient method for further reduction of NO_x emissions. Firstly, it was reported that this approach has small effect on the ignition delay time, which tends to increase as the steam addition and/or initial temperature increase. Thus, up to $\sim 40\%$ H_2O (by volume) addition to a $90\% \text{H}_2$ - $10\% \text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ /air mixture results in ignition delay times which
 805 are relevant to CI engine operation. The small ignition delay time increase is accompanied by a significant reduction of the end (equilibrium) temperature. At sufficiently high steam addition (or/and as the initial temperature increases), a distinct two stage ignition process becomes evident. This unique phenomenon is important because it is the first time that a two stage ignition is reported on
 810 the basis of solely hydrogen based mixtures, with no inclusion of any carbon-based chemical species. The analysis revealed that the 2nd stage is created due to the increased influence of the chain termination reaction 18f ($\text{HO}_2 + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{O}_2$) which tends to stop the ignition process by scavenging the HO_2 and OH radicals. Furthermore, steam addition was reported to induce a spectacular
 815 decrease of NO along with a significant decrease on the N_2O production. The key mechanisms that drive the formation of NO remain the same, i.e., the NNH and thermal (Zeldovich), however, they are significantly weakened when steam is added to the mixture. Also, the CSP mode related to NO was reported to have its amplitude decreased and its timescale increased; these findings explain
 820 further the notable NO decrease. The weakening of the NNH and thermal mechanisms is due to: (i) the decreased temperature reached in the post ignition part and (ii) the decrease of O radicals. Finally, the production of N_2O was reported to be due to the decreasing effect of reactions 7b ($\text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \leftrightarrow 2\text{OH}$) - 149b ($\text{N}_2\text{O} (+\text{M}) \leftrightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{O} (+\text{M})$).

825 In overall, the proposed technology using mixtures of hydrogen/hydrogen peroxide and steam, demonstrated a great potential for use in CI engine conditions. However, further studies are required that will showcase in more detail

the advantages of this technology. Also, the two stage ignition that was reported at sufficiently high steam addition conditions requires further investigation, as
830 it was shown that this phenomenon becomes more pronounced at higher initial temperatures.

5. Acknowledgments

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