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1 **Marine dual fuel engine modelling and parametric investigation of engine settings effect**
2 **on performance-emissions trade-offs**

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21 11 **ABSTRACT**

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25 12 The continuous stringent requirements of the environmental regulations along with the LNG fuel
26 13 penetration and the development of port and bunkering facilities, render the use of the dual fuel
27 14 engines an attractive alternative of the traditional ship propulsion plants based on Diesel engines
28 15 running with HFO for reducing both the plant operating cost and environmental footprint. The present
29 16 study deals with the computational investigation of a large marine dual fuel (DF) engine of the four-
30 17 stroke type for comparing its performance and emissions, in both diesel and gas mode operation by
31 18 using the commercial software GT-ISE. The engine diesel model was initially set up and calibrated to
32 19 adequately represent the engine operation. Subsequently, the engine dual fuel model was further
33 20 developed by considering the injection of two different fuels; methane in the cylinder inlet ports and
34 21 pilot diesel fuel into the engine cylinders. The derived results were analysed for revealing the
35 22 differences of the engine performance and emissions at each operating mode. In addition, the
36 23 turbocharger matching was investigated and discussed to enlighten the turbocharging system
37 24 challenges due to the completely different air–fuel ratio requirements in diesel and gas modes,
38 25 respectively. Finally, parametric simulations were performed for gas mode operation at different loads
39 26 by varying pilot fuel injection timing, inlet valve closing and inlet manifold boost pressure, aiming to
40 27 identify the engine settings that simultaneously reduce CO₂ and NO_x emissions considering the
41 28 air–fuel ratio operation window limitations. The parametric study results are discussed to infer the
42 29 engine optimal settings.

30 **Keywords:** marine dual fuel four-stroke engines; low pressure gas injection, GT-ISE (GT-POWER)
31 simulation; turbocharging system requirements; performance-emissions comparison; parametric
32 investigation; engine optimal settings.

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33 1 INTRODUCTION

34 Marine diesel engines gaseous emissions including CO₂, NO_x, SO_x, HC, CO and PM, have been
35 steadily increasing throughout the last years. As it is reported in Bows–Larkin et al. (2014), shipping
36 accounts for 2-3% of global gaseous emissions. For controlling gaseous emissions and air pollution as
37 well as reducing the environmental impact of the maritime industry, various international and national
38 regulatory bodies such as IMO, EMSA and EPA have adopted a series of regulations for limiting the
39 non-greenhouse gaseous emissions including NO_x and SO_x, as well as the greenhouse gaseous
40 emissions; mainly CO₂ as illustrated in IMO (2014), EMSA (2015) and EPA (2015).

41 Through these amendments of the international regulatory framework, the Energy Efficiency
42 Design Index (EEDI) and the Energy Efficiency Operational Indicator (EEOI) were introduced. Based
43 on the aforementioned, the Ship Energy Efficiency Management Plan (SEEMP) was established. The
44 EEDI was made mandatory for newly built ships on 2013 whilst SEEMP for new and existing vessels
45 on 2011 with the adoption of amendments to MARPOL Annex VI. The expected benefits from the
46 implementation of the above include not only the reduction of the environmental impact of gaseous
47 emissions, but also the reduction of the fuel consumption throughout the ship lifetime leading to
48 minimised operating costs that affect the competitiveness of the shipping companies as it is discussed
49 in Theotokatos & Tzelepis (2015). Furthermore, the price of LNG is also attractive; about 60% of the
50 HFO price (Livanos et al., 2014), although the market is volatile and the fuels prices are affected by
51 various parameters including geopolitical factors.

52 Responding to the imposed regulatory framework, the engine manufacturers e.g. MAN Diesel &
53 Turbo (2012) and Wärtsilä (2015), as well as Classification societies e.g. ABS (2013) performed
54 studies focusing on the gaseous emissions reduction (Jean-Michael, 2012), (Hendrik et al., 2016),
55 (Bouman et al., 2017). In addition, the engine manufacturers have undergone efforts to improve the
56 combustion characteristics, in order to improve the engines efficiency and consequently to reduce the
57 associated fuel consumption, as well as to limit the engines gaseous emissions. Marine engine
58 manufacturers have also developed dual fuel (DF) versions both for the large two-stroke slow speed
59 engines and the small to medium size, four-stroke engines. These engines have the ability to operate

60 on the gas and diesel modes; in the former by using natural gas and pilot diesel fuel, in the latter by
61 burning diesel fuel (HFO or MGO).

62 As it is discussed in Livanos et al. (2014) and Abdelrahman et al. (2016), natural gas (NG) is the
63 greenest fossil fuel that forms a well proven and feasible solution for ships propulsion. Whilst the
64 conventional diesel fuels will remain the main preference for the majority of the existing vessels in
65 the near future, the commercial opportunities of the natural gas are attractive for new-built vessels.
66 The sulphur content of natural gas is almost zero (about 0.004% by mass), which is well below the
67 0.1% limit required for ECAs from 2015, and therefore the SOx emissions of the engines operating in
68 gas mode are very limited (SOx emissions can be reduced up to 90-95% compared with the diesel
69 mode operation at HFO). In addition, the DF four-stroke engines with low pressure admission can
70 achieve up to 85% NOx emissions reduction as they operate in the lean burn combustion concept, the
71 CO₂ emissions can decrease up to 20-25% due to the natural gas lower carbon to hydrogen ratio,
72 whereas the particulate matter (PM) emissions are almost eliminated and there is no visible smoke
73 during engine operation at gas mode.

74 There are two types of four-stroke engines differing in the gas injection; (a) the DF engines which
75 operate at low gas pressure (5-7 bar) where the gas is injected at port and mixes with air during the
76 intake phase (Wärtsilä, 2015) and (b) the gas-diesel (GD) engines which operate at high gas pressure
77 (around 350 bar) where the gas is directly injected into the cylinder during the combustion phase.
78 Both categories can achieve typical brake mean effective pressure (BMEP) of around 25 bar. Typical
79 example of the first type is the Wärtsilä 50DF category whereas Wärtsilä 32 GD and 46 GD are
80 classified under the second type (Jarf & Sutkowski, 2009). Likewise, there are two types of two-
81 stroke DF engines classified by the gas injection and combustion processes concept; the first operates
82 at high gas fuel pressure (around 300-350 bar) in which the gas fuel is injected during the combustion
83 phase and is burnt according to the diffusive combustion concept as described in MAN Diesel &
84 Turbo (2015), whereas the second operates in low gas fuel pressure (around 7 bar) in which the gas
85 fuel is injected into the engine cylinder during the compression phase and burnt based on the
86 premixed combustion concept as explained in Nylund et al. (2013).

87 Previous research efforts on dual fuel engines along with a review of the operation principles and
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2 88 practices are reported in Karim (2015). The research efforts reported in Krishnan et al. (2002),
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4 89 Cordiner et al. (2005), Kavtaradze et al. (2005), Srinivasan et al. (2006), Vasilev (2007), Ozcan et al.
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6 90 (2008), Papagianakis et al. (2010), Pirker et al. (2010), Jarvi (2010), Andre (2013), , Xu et al. (2014),
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8 91 Abagnale et al. (2014), Yousefi et al. (2015), Bo et al. (2015), Li (2016), Qiang et al. (2015),
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10 92 Zhongshu et al. (2015), Banck et al. (2016), Cameretti et al. (2016), Moriyoshi et al. (2016), Shinsuke
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12 93 et al. (2016), Wang et al. (2016), Georgescu et al. (2016) mainly dealt with the investigation of the
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14 94 dual fuel engines emission characteristics, the development of methods for increasing the DF engines
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16 95 efficiency, the optimisation of the pilot fuel injection and gas substitution rate, the extension of the
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18 96 operating range of gas mode and avoiding knocking. Simulation tools of various complexities (0D to
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20 97 3D) (Singh et al., 2004), (Merker et al., 2006), (Coble et al., 2013), (Ritzke et al., 2016), (Theotokatos
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22 98 et al., 2016), (Mavrelou et al., 2018) have been used for investigating the DF engine steady state
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24 99 performance and transient response (Xu et al., 2014), (Shuonan et al., 2014). For analysing marine
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26 100 engines and ship propulsion systems, various model types have been also used as described in
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28 101 Benvenuto et al. (2013), Theotokatos & Tzelepis (2015), Baldi et al. (2015), Cichowicz et al. (2015)
29
30 102 and Mzythras et al. (2018). However, very few studies have been published focusing on marine DF
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32 103 engines investigations. The control during fuel mode transition of a marine DF engine has been
33
34 104 reported in Wang et al. (2015). Nylund (2007), Boeckhoff et al. (2010), Portin (2010), Mohr &
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36 105 Baufeld (2013), Mohand et al. (2013), Menghan et al. (2015), Weifeng et al. (2015) and Sixel et al.
37
38 106 (2016) focused on experimental studies of marine DF engines reported providing details of the engine
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40 107 settings and operation, whereas a computational study of DF engine investigating the alternatives of
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42 108 turbocharging system, compression ratio and variable valve timing is reported in Christen & Brand
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44 109 (2013), where the DF engine combustion was modelled by considering the gas fuel only assuming
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46 110 limited contribution of the pilot fuel. Sixel et al. (2016) combined GT-Power with a developed
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48 111 combustion model and experiments to investigate a marine DF engine operating with either natural
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50 112 gas or methanol.

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58 113 In this respect, the main objective of the present study is to develop a model for a large marine
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60 114 dual-fuel engine of the four-stroke type, considering the engine processes and systems. Based on this,
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115 the investigation of the engine steady state performance and exhaust emissions is carried out at the
116 engine discrete operating modes (diesel/gas). By analysing the derived results, the processes that
117 affect the engine efficiency and gaseous emissions are revealed enabling the elaboration on possible
118 ways to increase the engine efficiency and reduce emissions. In addition, the turbocharger matching
119 along with the waste gate settings are discussed as different requirements are imposed in each
120 operating mode. Finally, the optimisation of the engine settings at the gas mode is investigated based
121 on a parametric study results and taking into account the CO₂ and NO_x emissions reduction along
122 with the engine operational limitations.

123 2 ENGINE MODELLING

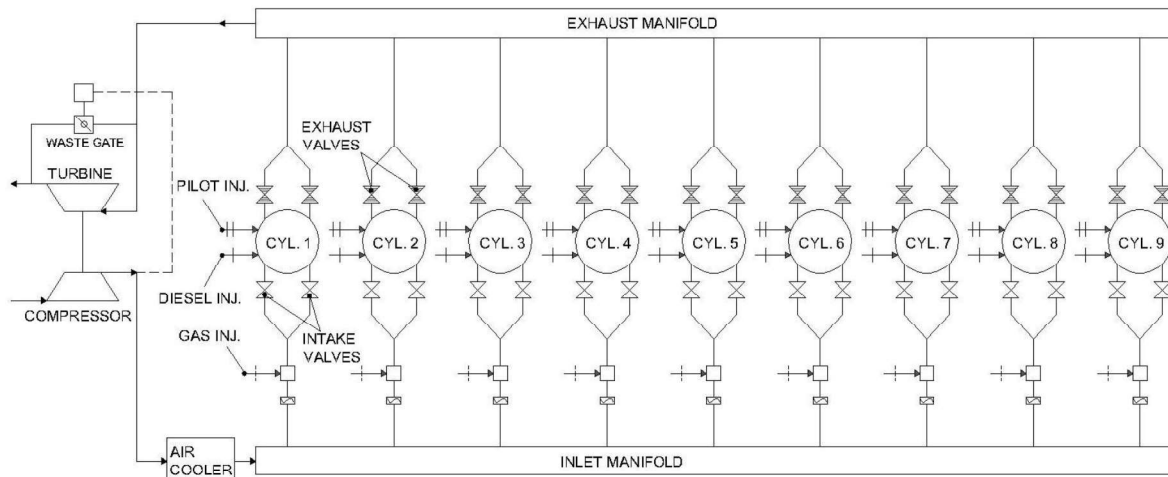
124 2.1 *Investigated engine*

125 The Wärtsilä engine 9L50DF was used for the present study, which is a four-stroke, non-
126 reversible, turbocharged and intercooled DF engine. The engine consists of nine cylinders placed in-
127 line. This type of engine is widely used due to its high power output along with its fuel flexibility, low
128 emission rates, high efficiency and reliability. The engine details are reported in the manufacturer
129 project guide (Wärtsilä, 2015). The main engine characteristics are illustrated in Table 1. The engine
130 layout and components are presented in Figure 1. As it is shown, a waste gate is used to by-pass a part
131 of the exhaust gas from the turbocharger turbine in order to control the engine cylinders air-fuel ratio
132 at the gas operating mode. Each engine cylinder includes a main fuel and a pilot fuel injector. Gas is
133 injected by using solenoid valves at each cylinder inlet port (upstream the intake valves) during the
134 engine induction process.

135 The engine operation at constant speed of 514 r/min was investigated in the present study. Engine
136 operation under these conditions can be found in electric propulsion systems, where engine-electric
137 generator sets are used for producing the ship required electric energy.

138 Table 1 Engine main characteristics

MCR power	kW	8775
MCR speed	r/min	514
BMEP at MCR	bar	20
BSFC at MCR (Diesel mode)	g/kWh	190
BSEC at MCR (gas mode)	kJ/kWh	7300
Bore	mm	500
Stroke	mm	580
No. of cylinders	-	9
Turbocharger units	-	1



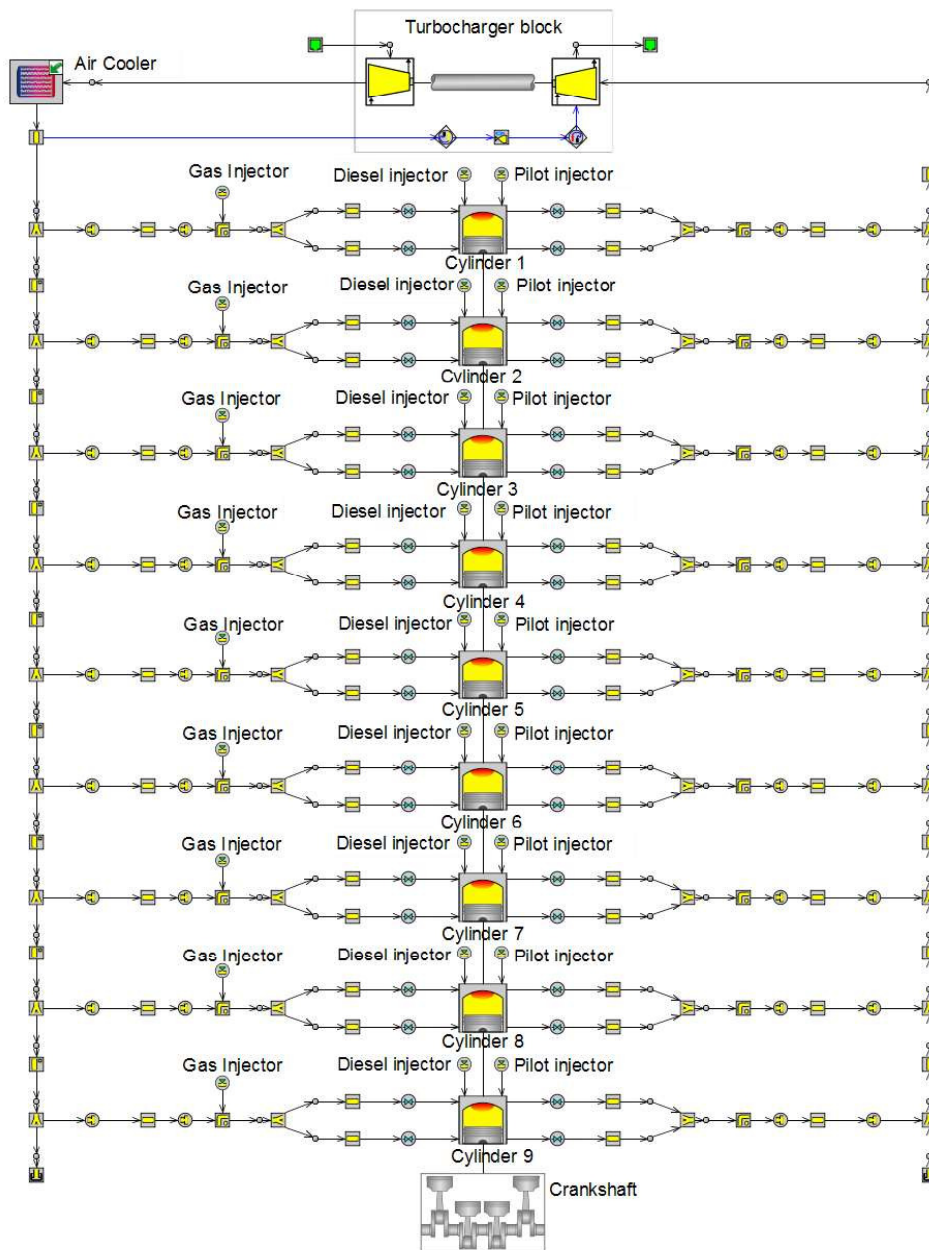
139
140 Figure 1 Engine layout

141 **2.2 Model set-up and calibration**

142 The software used in the present work is GT-ISE /GT-Power (Gamma Technologies, 2016), which
 143 is a widely used 1-D simulation program for engine modelling and analysis. GT-ISE is capable of,
 144 through a sophisticated set of solvers and algorithms, representing the physical processes within a
 145 working engine, to simulate the steady and transient states operation of various engine types. The
 146 main principle of the software is based on the ability of the user to build an accurate engine model in
 147 the software GUI, based on a broad range of items available in the software library. The software
 148 employs 1D gas dynamics to represent the flow in pipes, whereas 0D approach was used for the
 149 simulation of engine cylinders. Thus, it is able to predict the operating parameters of the engine and
 150 its components including pressures, mass flow rates and temperatures. The GT-ISE software is widely
 151 considered as one of the leading tools for these type of engine simulations due to its computational
 152 capabilities, results accuracy and fast execution time. In addition, the offered customisability and the

153 coverage of a wide range of applications were considered advantageous characteristics for selecting
154 the GT-ISE software in the present study.

155 The data required for the modelling stage as input was acquired from the product guide and the
156 manufacturer engine 3D model presented in Wärtisilä (2015). Initially, the model for one-cylinder
157 block was developed and validated for the diesel mode operation and subsequently, the model was
158 extended to cover the dual fuel operation by adding an additional injector for the natural gas
159 connected to the cylinder inlet port. Then the complete engine model including the turbocharger,
160 waste gate and air cooler was developed as shown in Figure 2.



161
162 Figure 2 Engine model in the GT-ISE environment

163 The steps required to set up the engine model are as follows. Initially, the component blocks are
164 selected, which sufficiently represent the engine layout and the appropriate interconnections are
165 established. Then, the input data of all blocks are set. Preliminary calibration of the model constants is
166 performed for a reference point and simulation runs are carried out. Finally, the fine tuning of the
167 model constants is accomplished, so that the required accuracy is obtained.

168 The input data needed to set up the model includes the engine geometric data, the intake and
169 exhaust valves profiles, the compressor and turbine performance maps, the waste gate geometric and
170 control details, the constants of engine sub-models (combustion, heat transfer and friction), the engine
171 operating point (load/speed) and the ambient conditions. Initial conditions are required for the
172 temperature, pressure and composition of the working medium contained in the engine cylinders,
173 pipes and receivers.

174 The Woschni heat transfer model initially presented in Woschni (1967) and extensively employed
175 in various studies as described in Merker et al. (2006) was used to calculate the in-cylinder gas to wall
176 heat transfer coefficient. The heat release rate was simulated according to single Wiebe model
177 reported in Merker et al. (2006) for the engine diesel operating mode, whilst in the case of the gas
178 mode, the multi-Wiebe model was utilised by imposing three different Wiebe curves corresponding to
179 the premixed combustion of approximately half of the pilot fuel, the diffusive combustion of the
180 remaining pilot fuel and the rapid burning of the gaseous fuel as well as the tail combustion of the
181 cylinder residuals respectively. In this respect, the cumulative fuel burning rate for the gas mode is
182 calculated according to the following equation (Gamma Technologies, 2016):

$$x_b(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^3 \left[\left(\frac{FF_i}{\sum_{i=1}^3 FF_i} \right) x_{b,i}(\theta) \right] \quad (1)$$

184 where FF denotes the fraction of fuel per Wiebe Curve; i denotes the Wiebe function; and θ denotes
185 the crank angle (the 1st cylinder TDC at the closed cycle corresponds to 0 degrees CA).

186 The injection delay was estimated for the diesel mode according to the Sitkey equation as described
187 in Merker et al. (2006), whereas the ignition delay for the gas mode was approximated by using the
188 equations and data reported in Christen & Brand (2013) and Sixel et al. (2016).

189 For the simulation of the diesel mode operation, marine gas oil (MGO) was used as the considered
1 fuel type along with the injection timing and injected fuel amount, which were provided as function of
2 190 fuel type along with the injection timing and injected fuel amount, which were provided as function of
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4 191 the engine load. For the gas mode, the amount of injected gaseous fuel per cycle (NG) was calculated
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6 192 by considering the known gas specific energy consumption and the fuel lower heating value. The gas
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8 193 fuel is injected at each cylinder intake port (upstream the inlet valves). The gas injection takes place
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10 194 during the respective cylinder induction process after the exhaust valve closing point, so that all the
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12 195 injected gas is inducted into the engine cylinders. The gas injection duration for each injector was
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14 196 considered to be a function of engine load taking values in the region from 38 to 68 degrees CA (from
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16 197 low to high loads), The engine valves timing was set according to the Miller timing concept in which
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18 198 the intake valves of each cylinder close before bottom dead centre (BDC). This reduces the required
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20 199 compression work and the combustion temperature resulting in higher engine efficiency and lower
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22 200 NOx emissions, however, high boost pressure and as a result, compressor pressure ratio values are
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28 202 For calculating NOx emissions, the Zeldovich model was used, which was calibrated only for
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30 203 100% load operation at diesel and gas modes and subsequently was used to predict the NOx emissions
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32 204 at the other investigated loads. A two-zone cylinder model was employed considering a zone
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34 205 containing the combustion products and an unburned mixture zone. The temperature of the burned gas
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36 206 zone was used for estimating the NOx emissions. However, as the temperature spatial distribution was
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38 207 not calculated by the two-zone model, the NOx model is only capable of identifying trends and
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40 208 therefore, the derived results should be used with the necessary diligence.
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44 209 Finally, the complete engine model with the air cooler, the turbocharger and waste gate was built
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46 210 for the diesel and gas modes. For the gas operating mode, the engine needs to operate within an
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48 211 air-fuel equivalence ratio in the range 2.0 to 2.3 for avoiding knocking and misfiring. This was
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50 212 achieved by controlling the waste gate valve to achieve a target value for boost pressure for each
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52 213 engine load. In GT-ISE, a PI controller was used to adjust the opening of the waste gate valve.
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214 3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

215 The investigated marine DF engine steady state operation at both diesel and gas modes was
 216 examined by performing simulation runs in a load range from 25% to 100% and constant engine
 217 speed at 514 r/min. A set of the derived results including the cylinder maximum (peak) pressure, the
 218 indicated and brake mean effective pressures, the brake specific energy consumption, the brake
 219 efficiency, the turbocharger shaft speed, the boost pressure, the exhaust gas temperature before and
 220 after turbine along with their comparison to the respective available engine measured data from the
 221 engine shop trials is presented in Figure 3. The predicted engine parameters including the air and
 222 exhaust gas mass flow rates, the air–fuel equivalence ratio, the waste gate opening and the maximum
 223 temperature of the burned zone as well as specific NO_x and CO₂ emissions are illustrated in Figure 4.
 224 The normalised cylinder pressure diagrams for the 100% load is shown in Figure 5, whereas the
 225 compressor operating points superimposed on the compressor map are presented in Figure 6. The
 226 percentage errors between the measured and predicted parameters are reported in Table 2.

227 From the plots presented in Figure 3 and the data given in Table 2, it is derived that the obtained
 228 accuracy was adequate (within the range of approximately ±3%). Therefore, it can be concluded that
 229 the developed model can be used to sufficiently represent the engine steady state behaviour.

230 Table 2 Percentage error between the measured and the predicted values

Diesel mode				
Load (%MCR)	P _b	p _{max}	T/C speed	Eff
100	2.60	0.16	0.04	-3.11
85	2.36	-0.60	-0.02	-2.90
75	1.88	0.19	-0.06	-2.43
50	1.14	0.42	-0.79	-1.64
25	1.22	1.77	0.02	-2.22
Gas mode				
Load (%MCR)	P _b	p _{max}	T/C speed	Eff
100	-0.42	0.37	0.75	2.49
85	-1.15	0.33	-0.32	3.43
75	-0.41	0.51	-0.90	2.32
50	1.70	0.42	-0.27	-1.16
25	1.34	0.60	1.14	-0.90

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232 Table 3 Combustion model parameters for 100% load

Diesel mode				
Fuel	m	$\Delta\theta$	SOC	Fraction
MGO	1.25	56	-3	1
Gas mode				
Fuel	m	$\Delta\theta$	SOC	Fraction
Premixed combustion	1.5	15.3	-16.7	0.02
Main combustion	3	56.3	-16.7	0.96
Tail combustion	2	30.0	8.0	0.02

233 Wiebe parameter “a” equals to 6.9 for all curves

234 The combustion models parameters values (as used in equations (1) and (2)) calibrated to simulate
 235 the diesel and gas modes at 100% load are summarised in Table 3. By considering the derived
 236 pressure diagrams (Figure 5), it can be inferred that the diesel mode combustion starts closer to the
 237 cylinder top dead centre (TDC), whereas in the case of the gas mode the pilot injection and
 238 combustion starts earlier to avoid knocking problems. The gas mode operation also results in a longer
 239 ignition delay due to the natural gas presence in the combustion chamber as it is also reported in Liu
 240 & Karim (1997), Christen & Brand (2013) and Sixel et al. (2016). The peak heat release rate of the
 241 dual-fuel combustion is slightly higher and the main combustion ends earlier than that at the diesel
 242 mode. However, lower maximum pressure level is observed in the case of the gas mode, which is
 243 attributed to the engine turbocharger operation at lower speed due to the waste gate valve opening. As
 244 the boost pressure is lower in the case of the gas mode, the cylinder pressure during the compression
 245 process is also lower; however due to the advanced start of combustion and the shorter combustion
 246 duration, the lower maximum pressure and the resultant lower friction, the engine brake power is
 247 retained at the same level as in the diesel mode.

248 Therefore, in terms of the engine power output and mean effective pressures behaviour, it can be
 249 observed that similar values were obtained in each operating mode; the indicated mean effective
 250 pressure of the diesel mode seems to be only slightly greater, however the brake mean effective
 251 pressures in both modes are exactly the same as the difference is compensated by the slightly higher
 252 friction mean effective pressure (due to the greater maximum pressure of the diesel mode).

253 In terms of the air–fuel equivalence ratio (λ), it is observed from Figure 4 that in the gas mode the
 254 engine operates within a narrow λ window with values between 2.0 and 2.3 (2.3 was observed at the

1
2 256 low loads whilst 2.0 was obtained at medium and high loads). For the diesel mode, the obtained
3 values for λ are slightly higher (in the range from 2.5 to 2.9), which means that more air passes
4 257 through the engine cylinders. For the gas operation, the waste gate opening affects (actually reduces)
5 the turbocharger speed, which in turn controls the boost pressure and as a result, the engine air flow
6 258 and λ . The obtained waste gate opening values were estimated in the range from 23% to 35% of the
7 waste gate cross sectional area depending on the engine load.
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13 261 As it can be seen in Figure 3 (turbocharger speed plot), figure 4 (mass flow rates plot) and figure 6
14 (compressor map), the turbocharger speed, pressure ratio and flow rate are considerably reduced in
15 262 the gas mode when the engine operates at high loads. Smaller reductions can be observed at the lower
16 263 loads (25% and 50%). This denotes that the turbocharger matching needs special attention for a DF
17 264 engine compared to the respective process for diesel or gas engines, as in the former case, the
18 265 requirements for the two discrete modes need to be satisfied. Especially for the compressor selection,
19 266 a number of parameters (usually contradictory) have to be considered including targeting operation in
20 267 the high efficiency area and providing adequate margins to avoid the compressor surging and the
21 268 turbocharger overspeed.
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33 270 In terms of the engine efficiency at the two operating modes, it can be observed that the gas mode
34 271 is more efficient at the high loads region obtaining values up to 47% at 100% load. When operating in
35 272 the diesel mode, the engine obtains its highest efficiency at 75% load, whereas the engine efficiency
36 273 only slightly varies in the load region from 70% to 100%. For the gas mode, the efficiency decreases
37 274 at a steeper gradient as the load decreases reaching its lowest value at 25% load; the engine obtains
38 275 much higher efficiency at 25% load when operating at the diesel mode. This is attributed to the
39 276 specific characteristics of diesel and gas operating modes as well as to the opening of the waste gate
40 277 valve that results in lower turbocharger speed and pressure levels for the gas mode. Similar
41 278 conclusions can be derived by analysing the brake specific energy consumption, which is the
42 279 reciprocal of engine brake efficiency. The energy provided by the pilot diesel fuel accounts for 0.3%
43 280 to 2.3% of the totally supplied fuel energy (the values increase with decreasing load).
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58 281 Considering the calculated NO_x and CO₂ emissions shown in Figure 4, the following remarks can
59 282 be noted. The specific NO_x emissions are lower for the case of the gas mode operation; the NO_x
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283 emissions for the diesel mode comply with Tier II limits, whereas the Tier III limit requirements are
284 satisfied for the gas mode. In addition, the lower specific NOx emissions value is obtained at 75%
285 load whilst higher values of the specific NOx emissions are obtained at lower and higher loads. In the
286 case of DF operation, NOx emissions slightly reduce at lower loads due to the premixed combustion
287 of natural gas at greater values of air–fuel ratio.

11 288 The NOx differences between the engine operating modes can be explained by considering the in-
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13 289 cylinder burnt zone temperature plots (Figure 4) in conjunction with the cylinder pressure diagrams
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15 290 (Figure 5) and maximum cylinder pressure (Figure 3). As it can be inferred from these figures, at the
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17 291 diesel mode, the combustion occurs at greater pressure levels and the maximum temperature values of
18
19 292 the burnt zone are greater than the respective values obtained for the gas mode; therefore higher NOx
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21 293 emissions are produced. On average, a reduction of 85% in NOx emissions is obtained when changing
22
23 294 the operating mode from diesel to gas.

26 295 The CO₂ emissions of the gas mode are also reduced (by 25% in average) due to the lower carbon
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28 296 to hydrogen ratio of the natural gas compared to the respective one of diesel fuel. Larger reduction is
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30 297 obtained at the high loads region where the efficiency difference between the gas mode and diesel
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32 298 mode is greater. In summary, it can be concluded that the engine environmental impact is much lower
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34 299 when the engine operates at the gas mode.

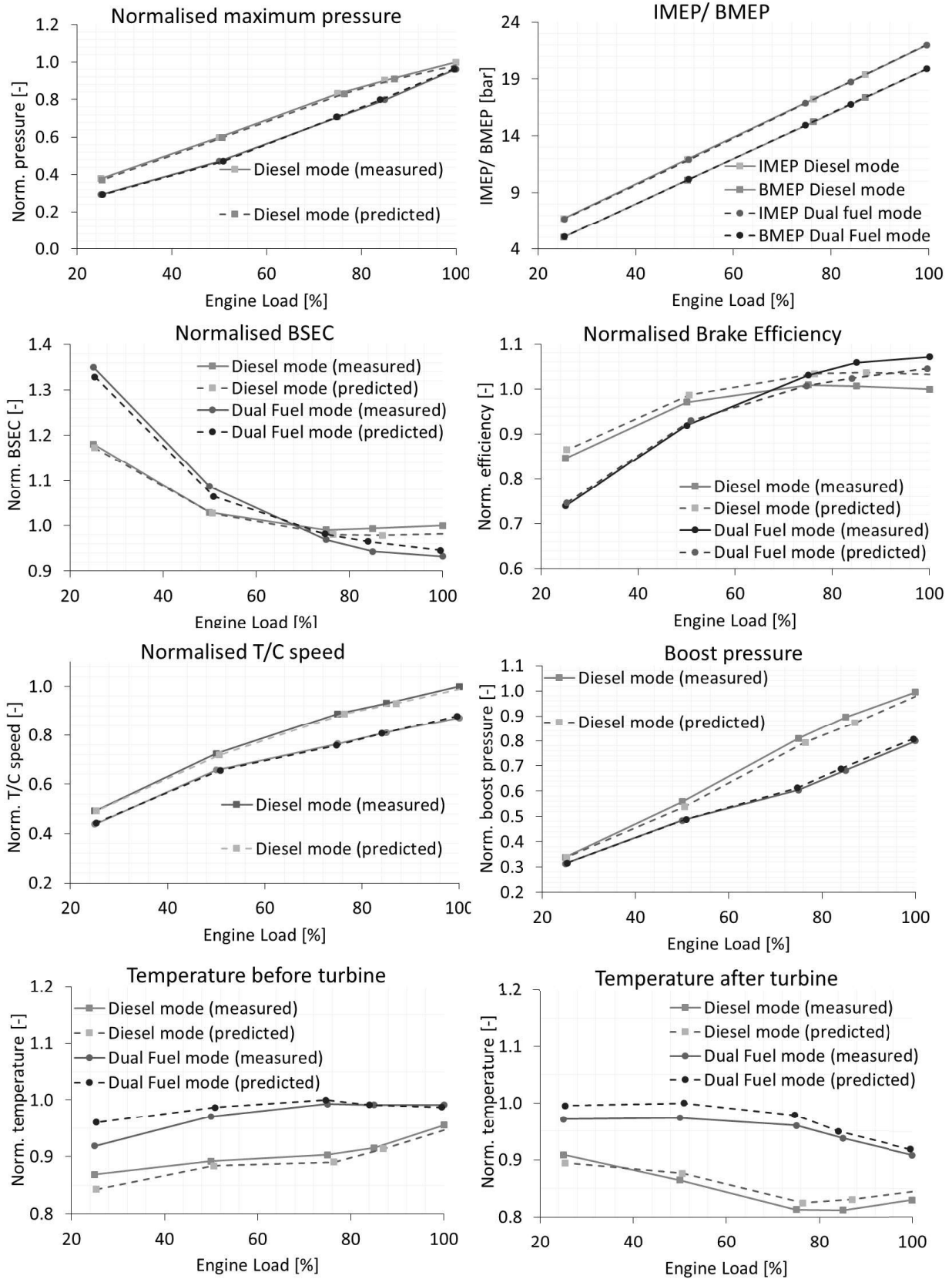


Figure 3 Simulation results and comparison with available experimental data. (The temperature plots were normalised by using the values in K; the pressure plots were normalised by using the pressure absolute values).

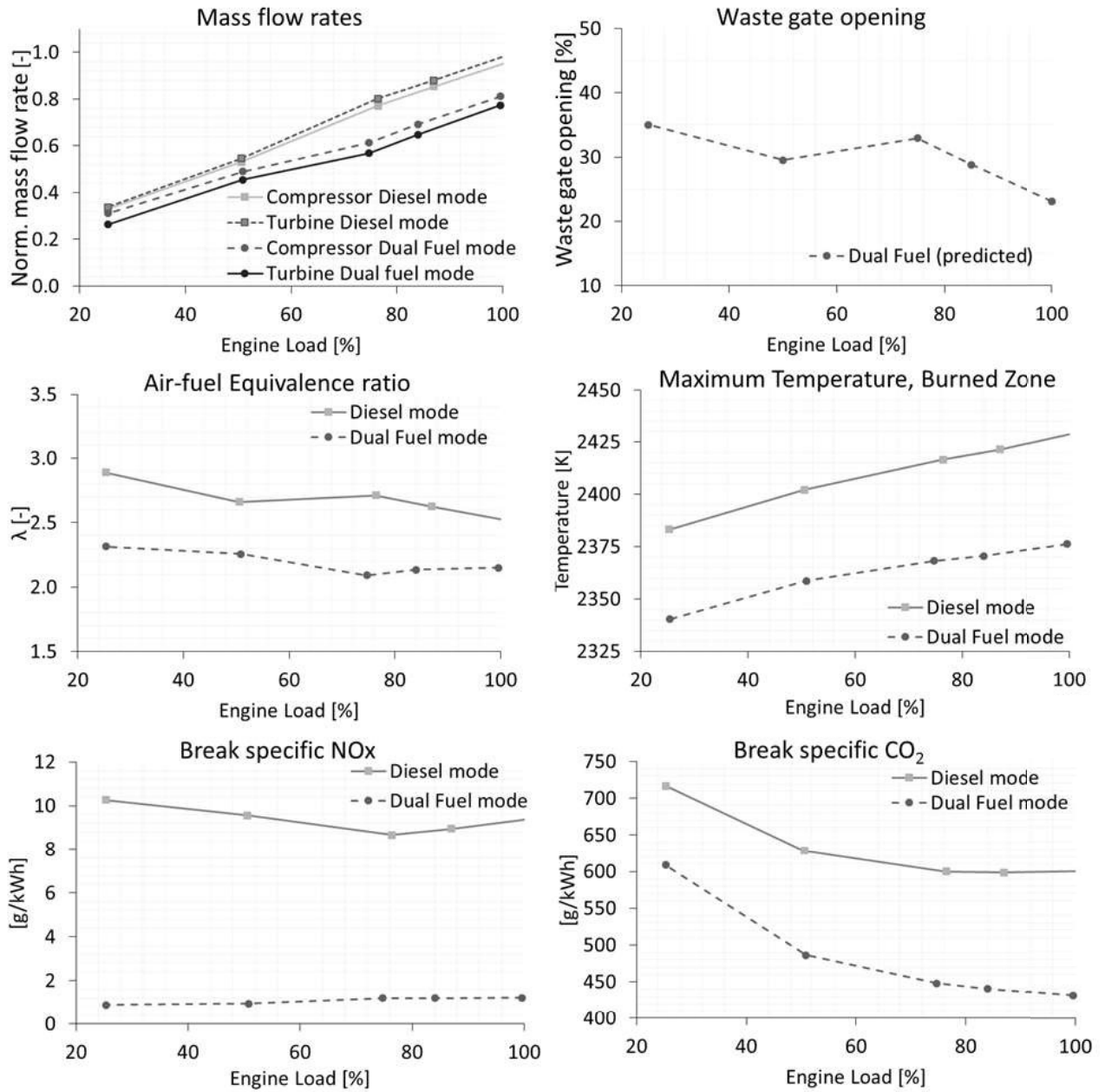


Figure 4 Predicted simulation results

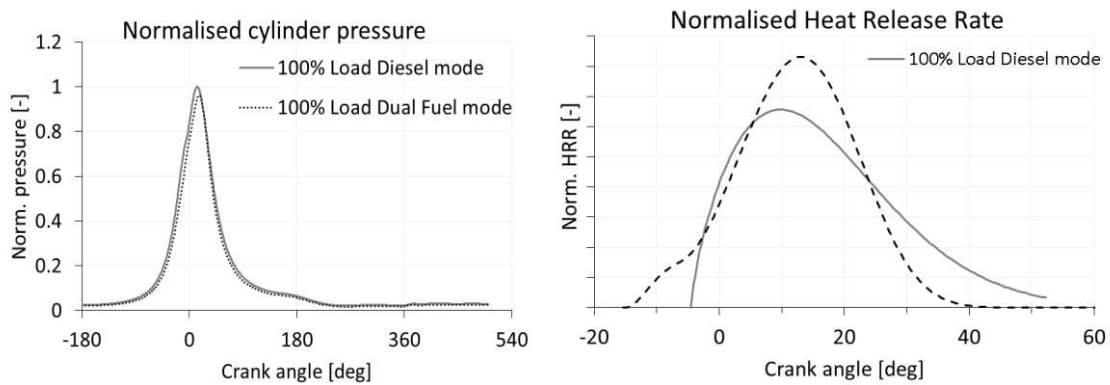


Figure 5 Pressure diagrams and heat release rates for diesel and dual fuel operation at 100% load

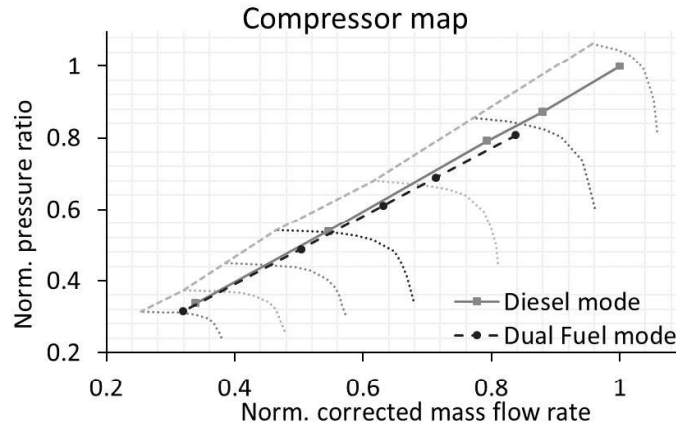


Figure 6 Compressor operating points superimposed on the compressor map for diesel and dual fuel operating modes

Having completed the engine model set up and the simulation of diesel and DF operating modes, a parametric study was performed for optimising the DF engine settings aiming to a simultaneous reduction of the CO₂ and NO_x emissions. It must be noted that the CO₂ emissions are proportional to the engine specific energy consumption and therefore, a decrease of CO₂ emissions correspond to a reduction of BSEC and an increase of the engine brake efficiency. The following parameters were considered: pilot fuel injection timing (-2 and +2 degrees CA from the reference value), inlet manifold boost pressure (-5% and +5% from their reference value) and inlet valve closing (-5 and +5 degrees CA from the reference value). The results derived for 75% load along with the reference points (taken from the previously presented simulation results) are illustrated in Figure 7. It can be inferred from Figure 7 that the simultaneous reduction of CO₂ and NO_x can be obtained by operating the engine in higher values of air-fuel equivalence ratio. However, the considered permissible lambda window from 1.9 to 2.3 (to avoid knocking and misfiring, respectively) resulted in the exclusion of a number of the performed parametric runs points. The used start of injection (at the reference point) provides a compromise between the CO₂ and the NO_x emissions. Retarding the injection results in increased CO₂ emissions and reduced NO_x emissions and vice versa. Therefore, the reference value for the start of injection was only considered for the parametric runs for 50% and 100% loads presented below. As indicated in the bottom plots of Figure 7, the engine operation with increased air-fuel equivalence ratio values can be achieved either by increasing the boost pressure (by closing the waste gate valve that results in higher exhaust gas mass flow through the turbine and therefore, increasing the

1 turbocharger speed or retarding the inlet valve closing that results in more air trapped in the engine
2 cylinder. A greater reduction potential for both CO₂ and NO_x emissions is obtained by increasing the
3 boost pressure as shown in the right-middle plot of Figure 7. The trade-off between the CO₂ and the
4 NO_x emissions as well as with the derived air–fuel equivalence ratio values are presented in Figure 8.
5
6 By excluding the points outside the considered lambda window as well as the points with CO₂ and
7 NO_x emissions higher than the respective reference values, a limited number of points can be
8 identified for a potential engine optimisation. The optimised point can be then selected based on the
9 preferred optimisation criteria. In Table 4, the optimised points are provided for the following cases:
10
11 a) maximum simultaneous reduction of the CO₂ and NO_x emissions and b) maximum CO₂ emissions
12 reduction and NO_x emissions equal or less than the respective reference point value. For the former,
13 point No 2 is the optimised point with 5% greater boost pressure, 5°CA inlet valve closing retard and
14 no change in the pilot injection start, which results in reductions by 0.9% and 6.5% in the CO₂ and
15 NO_x emissions, respectively and an air–fuel equivalence ratio value equal to 2.21. Point No 3 having
16 an additional pilot injection start advance of 2°CA (compared to point No 2) results in slightly greater
17 air–fuel equivalence ratio (2.22) and reductions by 1.6% and 2.8% of the CO₂ and NO_x emissions,
18 respectively. If lower lambda values are needed, point No 1 can be considered with increased boost
19 pressure by 5% compared to the reference point, resulting in lambda equal to 2.09 and reductions by
20 0.6% and 3.8% in the CO₂ and NO_x emissions, respectively.
21
22

23 From the results presented in Figure 7 and Table 4 (the slopes of the respective curves), the
24 relative significance of the three parameters used in the parametric runs can be identified. The inlet
25 manifold boost pressure can be characterised as the main engine parameter for reducing both NO_x and
26 CO₂ emissions, whilst, the inlet valve closing can be considered of lower significance. The pilot fuel
27 injection timing is also a parameter that considerably affects the emissions as shown in Figure 7,
28 however, it exhibits a contradictory influence on the CO₂ and NO_x emissions, as when the one
29 increases, the other decreases and vice versa.
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32 Furthermore, additional parametric runs were performed for 50% and 100% loads considering the
33 reference point pilot start of injection and varying the boost pressure and the inlet valve closing. The
34 derived CO₂-NO_x emissions trade-off and the air–fuel equivalence ratio values are presented in
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357 Figure 9. The permissible air–fuel equivalence ratio window for the case of 50% load was considered
358 to be wider than the one of the 100% load case (from 1.5 to 2.3 versus 2.0 to 2.4, respectively) as
359 indicated in Wärtsilä (2015). The green marks represent points with the same settings as the points 1
360 and 2 at 75% load. As it can be inferred from the analysis of Figure 9 results, there is potential for
361 simultaneously reducing the CO₂ and NO_x emissions. A greater reduction can be obtained in the NO_x
362 emissions (4.4 and 7.2% at 50% load 3.8 and 5.7% at 100% load), whereas the CO₂ emissions
363 reduction is in the range of 0.7 to 0.8%. However, the resulting lambda values are considerably high
364 (2.31 and 2.41) at 50% load, whereas the respective values are 2.17 and 2.28 at 100% load. Therefore,
365 a boost pressure increase less than 5% might be used for the other load points to avoid misfiring, thus
366 resulting in lower emissions reduction.

367 Another important parameter that needs to be considered in the engine optimisation study is the
368 unburnt hydrocarbon emissions and in specific, the methane slip for the DF engines. This was not
369 considered in this study as the 0D models cannot provide accurate results for the HC emissions, which
370 apart from the thermodynamic and thermochemistry parameters are greatly influenced by the
371 combustion chamber design. However, the parametric investigation study presented herein is quite
372 useful in the preliminary stage of the engine design process as it provides insight information for the
373 engine performance and emission parameters trade-offs.

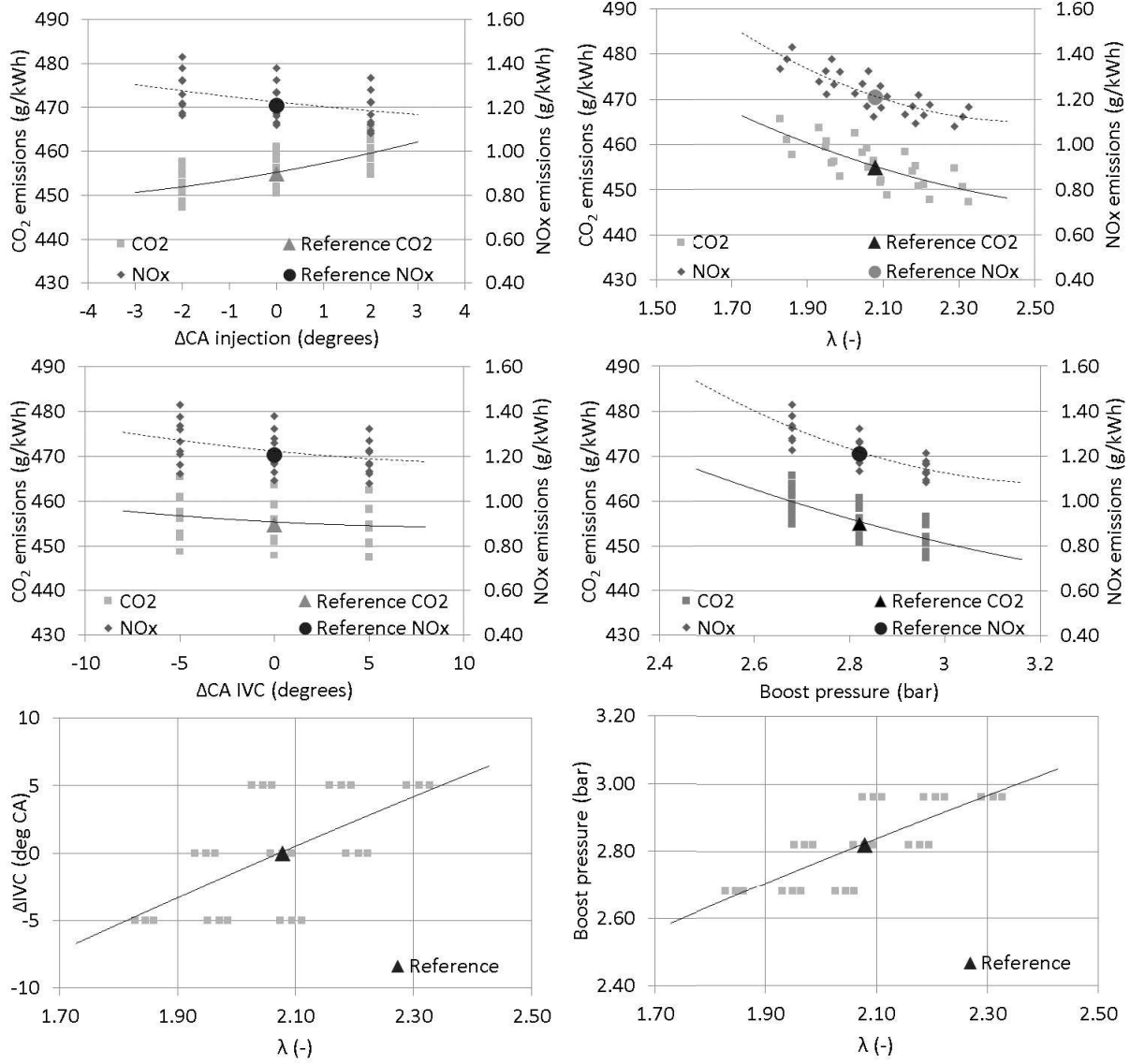
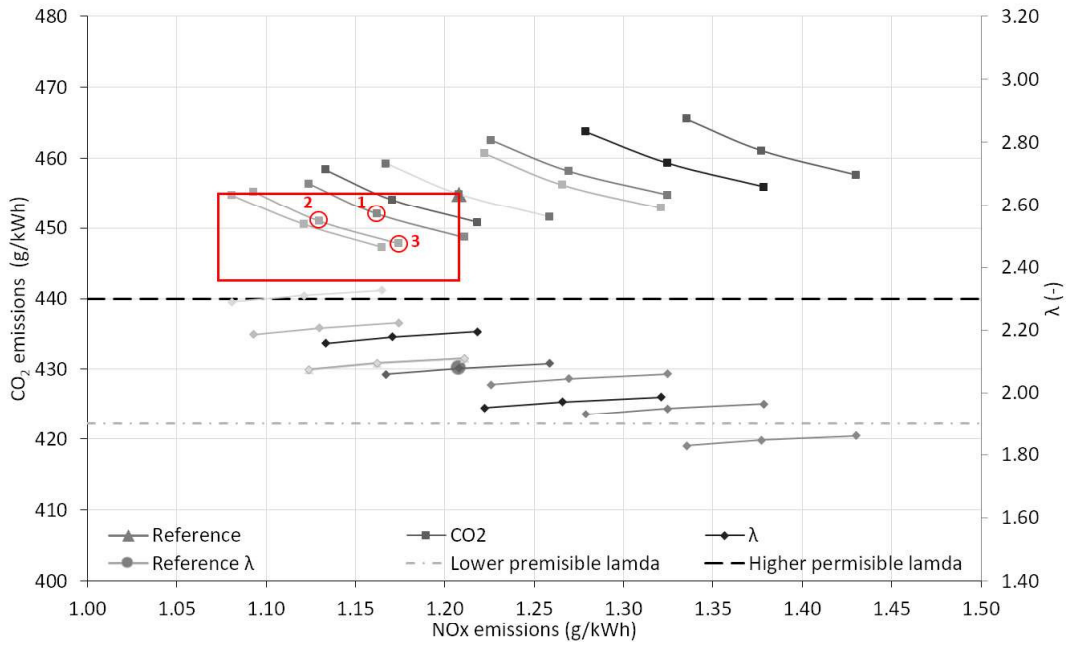


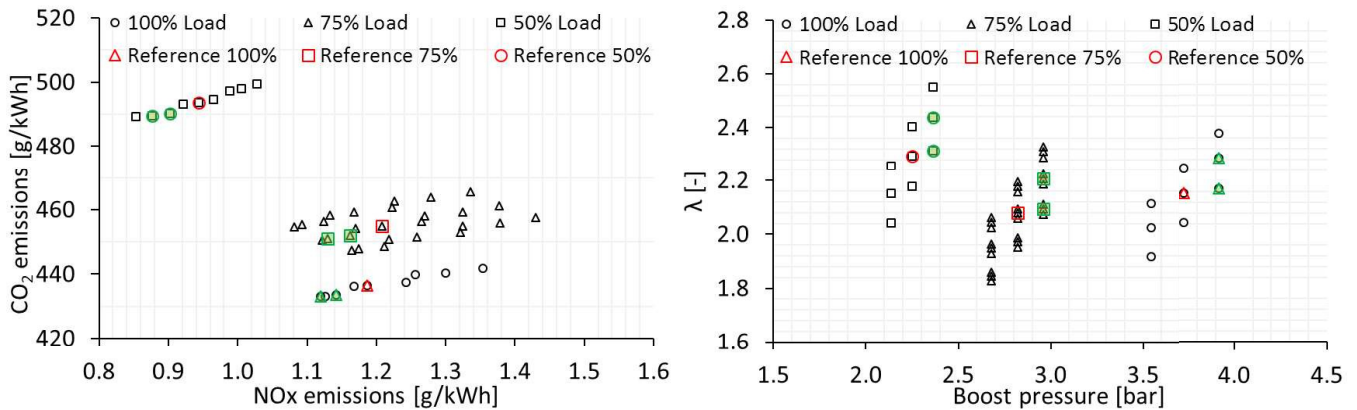
Figure 7 Parametric study results for DF engine operation at 75% load

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377 Figure 8 Parametric study results for DF engine operation at 75% load showing potential for CO₂ and NO_x emissions reduction



379 Figure 9 Parametric study results for DF engine operation at 50% and 100% load

380 Table 4 Optimised points from parametric runs

Load	No.	Δ IVC	Δ Boost pressure	Δ Pilot Injection timing	Lambda	NO _x	CO ₂	Δ NO _x	Δ CO ₂
(%)	(-)	(°CA)	(%)	(°CA)	(-)	(g/kWh)	(g/kWh)	(%)	(%)
50%	-	0	5	0	2.31	0.9	490.3	-4.4	-0.7
	-	5	5	0	2.44	0.88	489.5	-7.2	-0.8
75%	1	0	5	0	2.09	1.16	452	-3.8	-0.6
	2	5	5	0	2.21	1.13	451	-6.5	-0.9
	3	5	5	-2	2.22	1.17	447.8	-2.8	-1.6
100%	-	0	5	0	2.17	1.14	433.6	-3.8	-0.7
	-	5	5	0	2.28	1.12	433	-5.7	-0.8

381 4 CONCLUSIONS

382 In the present study, a marine four-stroke dual fuel engine was investigated by using GT-ISE
383 software in both diesel and gas mode operation. The engine performance and emissions parameters
384 for both modes were compared and discussed. Parametric runs were performed and the results were
385 used for deriving the engine setting that provide a simultaneous reduction of CO₂ and NO_x emissions
386 considering the engine operating limitations. The main findings of the conducted research are
387 summarised as follows:

388 • The developed model can predict with adequate accuracy the engine performance and emissions
389 parameters both for the diesel and DF operation and can be used in the preliminary stage of the engine
390 design process for optimising the engine settings.

391 • The engine in the gas mode operates with almost constant air–fuel equivalence ratio in a narrow
392 window from 2.0 to 2.3, whereas slightly higher values of the air–fuel equivalence ratio are used for
393 the diesel mode corresponding to greater air flow rates. This is obtained by controlling waste gate
394 valve opening (for gas mode) to adjust the engine air flow and therefore the air–fuel ratio. Special
395 attention must be paid during the turbocharger matching process as there are different requirements in
396 each operating mode including avoidance of turbocharger overspeed, providing an adequate
397 compressor surge margin and operating the compressor within its high efficiency area.

398 • In the gas mode, the engine operates at lower receivers and in-cylinder pressure level. However,
399 the mean effective pressure and power output is kept at the diesel mode levels due to the shorter
400 combustion duration and the earlier start of combustion.

401 • The gas mode is more efficient than diesel mode at the high load region; however, less efficient
402 operation was observed at the lower load region.

403 • The NO_x emissions reduced by 85% in average in the gas mode compared with the diesel mode.
404 The diesel mode complies with the Tier II limits, whereas Tier III limits are met when the engine
405 operated in the gas mode.

406 • Increasing the engine boost pressure and/or retarding the Miller timing inlet valve closing can
407 result in NO_x and CO₂ emissions reduction.

1
2 408 • Compared to the reference point settings, the engine NOx and CO₂ emissions can be reduced up
3
4 409 to 6% and 1.6%, respectively by increasing the inlet boost pressure by 5% and/or by retarding the
5
6 410 Miller timing inlet valve closing by 5 degrees CA. However, limitations apply due to air–fuel ratio
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8 411 operation window and the potential hydrocarbon emissions (methane slip) increase.

9 412 • The derived results verify that the CO₂ emissions in the gas mode reduced approximately 25% in
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11 413 average due to the natural gas low carbon to hydrogen ratio. Larger reduction is obtained when the
12
13 414 engine operates at the high load region where the efficiency is greater than that of the diesel mode.

14
15 415 In conclusion, it can be stated that the utilisation of natural gas, which can be stored and handled in
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17 416 liquefied phase (LNG) can provide an attractive and environmentally friendly alternative that should
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19 417 be considered and adopted in the future ship designs. The obtained results can be used as guidance
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21 418 during the design process of the dual fuel engines or when designing a vessel energy management
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23 419 system.
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420 NOMENCLATURE

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2	Eff	Brake efficiency (-)
3	FF	Fuel fraction per Wiebe Curve (-)
4	P_b	Brake power (kW)
5	p_{max}	Maximum cylinder pressure (bar)
6	$x_b(\theta)m$	Burning rate as a function of crank angle
7	ΔIVC	Inlet valve closing difference
8	$\Delta\theta$	Combustion duration (deg CA)
9	θ	Crank angle (0=TDC)
10	λ	Air-fuel equivalence ratio (-)
11	τ	Normalised time used in Wiebe function (-)
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421 ABBREVIATIONS

17		
18		
19	0D	Zero-dimensional
20	1D	One-dimensional
21	3D	Three-dimensional
22	BMEP	Brake Mean Effective Pressure
23	BSEC	Brake Specific Energy Consumption
24	BSFC	Brake Specific Fuel Consumption
25	CA	crank angle
26	CO	Carbon Monoxide
27	CO ₂	Carbon Dioxide
28	DF	Dual Fuel
29	ECA	Emission Control Area
30	ECU	Engine Control Unit
31	EEDI	Energy Efficiency Design Index
32	EEOI	Energy Efficiency Operational Indicator
33	HC	Hydrocarbons
34	HFO	Heavy Fuel Oil
35	IMO	International Maritime Organization
36	LNG	Liquefied Natural Gas
37	MARPOL	International Convention for the Prevention of Marine Pollution
38	MCR	Maximum continuous rating
39	MGO	Marine Gas Oil
40	NG	Natural Gas
41	NO _x	Nitrogen Oxides
42	PM	Particular Matter
43	SEEMP	Ship Energy Efficiency Management Plan
44	SOC	Start of combustion
45	SO _x	Sulphur Oxides
46	TDC	Top Dead Centre
47	T/C	Turbocharger
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