Experimental Study on Entrainment Characteristics of High-Pressure Methane Free Jet
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ABSTRACT: Entrainment occurs during the high-pressure gas jet process, which is crucial for a natural gas direct injection engine. This study presents an experimental investigation on the high-pressure methane jet from one single-hole injector and proposes a method to obtain the entrainment mass flow rate based on kinetic energy conservation. The entrainment is related to three variables, i.e., spring plate moving distance $\Delta x$, gas jet mass at the nozzle outlet $m_n$, and gas jet velocity $u_t$. A spring-set test rig is built to measure the spring plate moving distance $\Delta x$ and the schlieren method is adopted to test the gas jet velocity $u_t$ based on a constant-volume bomb (CVB) optical test rig; finally, the weight method is used to obtain the methane gas jet mass at the nozzle outlet $m_n$. This combined measuring method is verified to be valid in the near field to the nozzle. The results show that the methane jet mass flow rate gradually increases along the jet direction and has a two-zone entrainment process. Zone I: near field ($Lr < 10$), the methane jet mass flow rate linearly increases up to the maximum; in the nozzle exit field ($Lr < 1$), it is conserved, and no entrainment occurs. Zone II: far field ($Lr \geq 10$), the jet mass flow rate maintains the maximum, and the entrainment becomes saturated with a saturation value larger than the initial value at the nozzle outlet. The entrainment rate experiences three stages, linearly increasing in stage I and early stage II but not in late stage II and stage III. The methane injection pressure causes great effects on the mass flow rate and entrainment. As the injection pressure increases, the methane jet mass flow rate increases linearly, but the entrainment rate decreases.

1. INTRODUCTION
As a low-carbon clean gas fuel, natural gas (NG) is an efficient and clean alternative fuel for many power devices and has been widely applied in practical industries such as power plants, vehicle, and marine engines. As for NG applications in internal combustion engines, generally, there are two typical modes for gas fuel supply: one is the direct injection and the other is inlet port injection. For a natural gas direct injection engine, the high-pressure gas fuel directly jets from a tiny nozzle into the engine combustion chamber. Direct injection in cylinder is to inject high-pressure natural gas into the cylinder fluid from a small aperture. Due to the great difference between the NG flow pressure and the environmental air pressure, the natural gas jet has a high speed at the nozzle outlet. The high jet velocity of the natural gas flow induces vortexes due to the great velocity difference between the natural gas jet and the static surrounding air. These vortexes have a direct influence on the energy transfer and air–fuel mixing through their physical processes such as deformation, entrainment, and merging. The NG jet process decides the formation of the combustible mixture and the explosion limits of the air–fuel mixture and finally the ignition and the flame stability. Zhao et al. conducted optical experimental research of high-pressure gas fuel jets, and the results show that the gas concentration distribution is uneven along the axial direction. Hamzeloo et al. used a large-eddy model to investigate the mixing characteristics of hydrogen and methane jets and found that a high nozzle pressure ratio (NPR) causes great effects on the near-nozzle gas jet structure and tip vortices, and they also reported that a higher NPR results in a locally richer mixture. During the gas fuel jet process, the natural gas jet sucks some surrounding air, and this phenomenon is named entrainment. The entrainment of surrounding air results in the spatial evolution of gas jet parameters, such as temperature, velocity, and species concentration distributions, which affects the local air–fuel ratio in the cylinder and determines the accurate fuel control and low emission of the engine. Therefore, it is important and necessary to investigate the entrainment.
characteristics of a high-pressure natural gas jet for optimizing the air–fuel mixing process of natural gas direct injection engines.9

The structure of the gas jet under laminar conditions is well characterized. However, as for the high-pressure natural gas jet, it is a turbulent gas flow with a high Reynolds number. The turbulent methane gas jet may experience dilution in a small volume, and the mixture is not even but forms a stratification.10 As the high-pressure natural gas jet continuously penetrates forward along the jet direction, entrainment occurs and enlarges the size of the jet to form a jet cone, but the gas jet velocity and kinetic energy continue to decrease and the mass flow increases. The high-pressure NG has its own characteristics. Sakellarakis et al.11 conducted both experimental and numerical simulation research studies of high-pressure methane jets, and the results confirmed the hyperbolic decay of axial fuel concentration and the Gaussian shape of traverse concentration profiles in the self-similar region of the jets. Cheng et al.12 investigated the turbulent plasma jet and reported that the mass flow rate of the ambient air entrained into the turbulent plasma jet is comparatively large and almost directly proportional to the mass flow rate at the jet inlet. Jiang et al.13 used schlieren to observe the high-pressure natural gas jet characteristics and reported that increasing the NG injection pressure from 3 to 5 MPa enhanced NG jet tip penetration and NG jet volume but decreased the jet cone angle. Moreover, the high-pressure natural gas jet induces shock waves due to its great pressure ratio between the pressure at the nozzle inlet and the surrounding air pressure.14 Shock waves cause the flow close to the nozzle outlet to be more complex. Cossali et al.15 studied the entrainment characteristics of an impulsively started gas jet by means of two-dimensional visualizations and laser Doppler velocimetry and found that early in the near field, the jet volume becomes larger and the transient jet entrainment differs significantly from the mechanism responsible for entrainment in the quasi-steady part of the jet. Our previous work16 revealed that the high-pressure methane jet experiences a dynamic process and that the gas jet after the nozzle outlet is a transient gas jet. Thus, as for the high-pressure transient methane jet, the entrainment has its own characteristics. The entrainment of the high-pressure gas jet is important for the flow patterns in combustion chambers, furnaces, chemical reactors, etc. Therefore, it is important to investigate in detail the law that governs the gas entrainment into a turbulent jet.

Many scholars have carried out a lot of research on the entrainment of a high-pressure gas jet, and the change of mass flow rate in the process of high-pressure gas jet injection is the key content of jet entrainment. It is a useful method to adopt a numerical model to simulate the gas jet flow. Ouellette et al.17 adopted the multidimensional simulation based on the k-ε turbulence model to evaluate the turbulent transient natural gas injections, and the results showed that the direct injection of natural gas induces the underexpansions of natural gas and the gas fuel flow choking at the exit of the nozzle, which may have great influences on the entrainment. Wang et al.18 performed a modeling study to reveal the special features of the entrainment of ambient air into subsonic laminar and turbulent argon plasma jets and found that the presence of the substrate significantly enhances the mass flow rate of the ambient air entrainment. Dong et al.19 studied the jet development process with different inlet pressures, and the structural evolution of Mach disk pointed out that the high-pressure gas jet pressure leads to the formation of insufficient expansion of gas jet at the nozzle outlet, resulting in a larger near-field angle of jet to promote the spatial distribution and entrainment phenomenon of gas jet; they also calculated the mass flow rate at the nozzle outlet and found that the larger the orifice diameter, the larger is the initial mass flow rate. Deng et al.20 modeled the high-pressure injection process of hydrogen in argon and nitrogen atmospheres based on the RANS method to study the influence of pressure and shock wave on the entrainment characteristics of hydrogen jet and reported that the jet penetration presents three-stage changes due to the presence of Mach disk, and the entrainment ability of the jet increases with the increase of the nozzle pressure ratio (NPR) at the beginning stage of the jet, but the trend is opposite later. Abraham21 theoretically deduced a relation for the total mass entrained in a transient gas jet to study the entrainment characteristics of constant-density and variable-density gas jets and found that that the total mass entrained has a cubic dependence on the axial penetration. The above results suggest that the entrainment needs more precise quantitative predictions for practical applications.

There are also many experimental studies to test the entrainment of high-pressure gas jets. Ricou et al.22 measured the axial mass flow rate (entrainment) in the turbulent jet as the gases (air, propane, carbon dioxide, and hydrogen) jet into a semiclosed chamber by measuring the mass flow rate of the background air entering the jet boundary. Wang et al.23 directly measured the mass flow rate of the ambient gas entrained into the turbulent plasma jet using the so-called “porous-wall chamber” technique similar to the Ricou method. However, for this method, the gas jet pressure is not too high, and the nozzle diameter is about 0.5 in, which is not suitable for a high-pressure natural gas jet in the DI engine. Furthermore, the introduction of the background air would change the jet boundary and affect the measurement results. Azad et al.24 used a hot-wire anemometer to measure both the velocity decay rate and entrainment rate of air jets with different nozzle shapes. For the natural gas direct injection engine, the above two methods are not suitable for measuring the mass flow of the high-pressure natural gas jet along the jet axial direction because of its small size, complex flow, instantaneous jet, small cross section in the jet axis direction, and uneven distribution of the mass flow in the cross section. Wang et al.25 calculated the volume of high-pressure methane jet through schlieren photos on the constant-volume bomb device and obtained the change of air quality sucked by methane jet. However, this method did not consider the incompressibility of a high-pressure methane jet, and during the process of high-pressure methane jet injection, the specific volume is constantly changing.26 Thus, the entrainment of a high-pressure methane jet cannot be accurately obtained solely based on schlieren images. Tomita et al.27 applied a path line method utilizing a CCD random shutter camera and a two-component laser Doppler velocity meter (LDV) to observe the jet configuration and the entrainment process and reported that the path line method for estimating the air mass entrainment has good agreement with the values obtained using LDV. Karr et al.28 and Gilles et al.29 defined the jet boundary, respectively, using laser-induced fluorescence (LIF) and particle image velocimetry (PIV) technology in the constant-volume vessel to calculate entrainment in gaseous fuel jets. However, the accuracy of the test results is affected by the following feature of the tracer particles, and this method is
restricted by the LIF and PIV devices. The above literature introduces different methods to measure the entrainment of the gas jet, but the above measurement methods have disadvantages for measuring the entrainment of the high-pressure gas jet. These methods are not suitable for testing the entrainment of the high-pressure methane jet. It is necessary to find an effective test method to accurately obtain the variation in the entrainment of jet mass flow.

For the high-pressure methane gas jet for the NG engine, generally, the nozzle is small (about a tenth of a millimeter to several millimeters), and the gas jet velocity is nearly sonic due to the great pressure difference; thus, it is difficult to utilize a sensor to directly measure the entrainment. Few research studies are reported to effectively measure the entrainment of a high-pressure gas jet. Based on the conservation law of kinetic energy, this paper proposes a new experimental method to measure the entrainment of high-pressure methane gas jet from a tiny single-hole cylindrical nozzle. This work designs the gas jet test rig to examine the high-pressure methane jet and conducts experiments under various operating conditions. The entrainment mass of the methane jet is derived based on the test results based on the kinetic energy conservation.

2. HIGH-PRESSURE GAS JET AND ENTRAINMENT PROCESS

2.1. Gas Free Jet Process. A large number of research results have been obtained on the variation of velocity, kinetic energy, and mass flow of high-pressure gas jet. Figure 1 shows

![Figure 1. Schematic diagram of a gas jet.](image)

Moreover, with an increase in the $x$-value of the axial coordinate, the central velocity keeps the initial velocity for a certain time and then decreases gradually. During the gas jet penetration process, the surrounding air is continuously sucked, which makes the boundary of the jet wider, and the mass flow rate increases. Although the mass flow rate increases gradually, it is not enough to offset the decrease of the gas jet velocity, and so the kinetic energy of the gas jet decreases with the increase of $x$. The changes of the gas jet central velocity, the mass flow rate, and the kinetic energy are shown in Figure 1. The jet region where the center velocity keeps the initial velocity $u_0$ just at the nozzle outlet is called the jet core region, marked as region I. The jet section from the nozzle hole to the end of the core region is called the initial region. In the initial region, the mass flow rate increases continuously. The jet after the initial region is called the main region. Region II locates after region I. In region II, the jet entrainment occurs, and the gas fuel jet and the sucked surrounding air mix together. Thus, region II is called the mixing region. Along the direction of the jet, the entrainment of the surrounding air continuously occurs during the gas jet process. For the microcontrol volume ABCD, the air entrainment mass is $dm_a$, and the entrainment mass at position $S$ is the sum of the original gas jet mass $m_n$ and the air entrainment along the $x$-axis, i.e.,

$$m_n = m_a + \int_0^{x_0} dm_a \, dx.$$

For the high-pressure gas jet, the velocity at the nozzle may reach sonic speeds, and the shock wave tends to appear in the initial section. Therefore, the flow characteristics in this section (near field) are quite complex, which causes great influence on the jet parameters such as the jet mass flow rate and jet kinetic energy. Moreover, the entrainment process and feature of the high-pressure methane jet also have their own characteristics.

2.2. Gas Jet Impact Process. In this work, the high-pressure methane gas directly impacts on a plate-spring test device. This plate-spring is an elastic system that may move together with the methane gas jet by the gas impingement force. When the high-pressure methane gas jet impacts on an elastic body, there is energy transfer between the gas jet and the elastic body. Figure 2 shows the gas turbulent jet impingement process of the control volume ABCD with an elastic plate-spring E. Plate E locates at the position $x_0 = S_0$. The high-pressure gas jets from the nozzle outlet and moves toward plate E. At time $t_0$, the gas turbulent jet front ABCD almost reaches plate E, and the control volume has a kinetic energy of $e_0$. Then, very soon after $t_0$, at time $t_1$, the control volume comes in contact with plate E; the ABCD has an energy of $e_0$, while plate E locates at $S_1$. At the moment the gas jet just meets plate E, the plate E does not move, and thus, $x_0 = x_1 = S_0 = S_1$. After that, at time $t_2$, the gas jet acts on plate E and pushes it to move to $S_2$ and the spring is compressed $x_2$; then, plate E begins to move at a speed of $u_0$. Plate E moves in a short time (from $t_2$ to $t_3$) to compress the spring further, which is the exact gas jet impingement period and has a velocity $u_0$.

The energy per unit mass of the control volume $e$ can be expressed as

$$e = e_0 + gz + \frac{u^2}{2},$$

where $e_0$ is the internal energy per unit mass, $g$ is the gravitational acceleration, $z$ is the height of the central mass of the control volume, and $u$ is the velocity.
Here, this gas jet impingement model ignores the change of internal energy and the gravity effect, and then the energy of the control volume is just the kinetic energy, i.e.,
\[ e = \frac{u^2}{2} \]  
(2)

Due to the infinite short impingement period (\( t_1 \) to \( t_3 \)), we assume that this process is adiabatic and there is no heat exchange between the control body ABCD and the environment; thus, the energy of the control volume ABCD is conserved during the infinite short impingement period. Equation 3 gives the energy conserved.

\[ \rho \frac{V_1 u_1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \rho \frac{V_2}{2} u_2^2 = \omega \]  
(3)

where \( \rho \) is the density, \( V \) is the volume, and \( \omega \) is the work.

For the infinite short impingement process, it is assumed that this gas jet impingement process is a rigid collision, and there is no compression. For this hypothesis, the control volume will spread to the edge along the plate, and it has no deformation to absorb any kinetic energy. Based on the above analysis, the density, volume, and center of gravity may remain the same during the process. According to the energy conservation law, the kinetic energy of the control volume is converted into the energy of the test plate-spring system. It is believed that after the control volume impacts on the test plate, it attaches to the test plate and moves with the plate at the same speed. Thus, the gas jet control volume (with a mass of \( m_1 \)), the plate (with a mass of \( m_2 \)), and the spring (with a mass of \( m_3 \)) move forward at the same speed, and the correlations in this movement are as shown in eq 4.

\[ \frac{1}{2} m_1 u_1^2 - \frac{1}{2} m_2 u_2^2 = \frac{1}{2} m_3 u_3^2 + \frac{1}{2} k \Delta x^2 \]  
(4)

where \( k \) represents the spring elastic potential energy, \( \Delta x \) represents the compression of the spring and is also the displacement of the test plate, and \( m_1, m_2, \) and \( m_3 \) respectively, represent the mass of the gas jet control volume, the plate, and the spring. The left side of the equation is the gas jet kinetic energy \( E_{\text{gas}} \) and the right side is the kinetic energy of the spring plate device \( E_{\text{spring}} \).

From eq 4, the gas jet mass \( m_1 \) may be derived as follows.

\[ m_1 = \frac{1}{2} m_2 u_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_2 u_3^2 + \frac{1}{2} k \Delta x^2 = \frac{E_{\text{spring}}}{\frac{1}{2} u_1^2 - \frac{1}{2} u_2^2} = \frac{2E_{\text{gas}}}{u_1^2 - u_2^2} \]  
(5)

For a high-pressure methane gas jet, the injection pressure is high and the nozzle diameter is small, and thus, the gas velocity at the nozzle outlet can reach sonic speeds and the Reynolds number is high.\(^{16} \) When the fluid density is uniform, the Reynolds number is high, and the distance \( x \) is much larger than the diameter of the nozzle orifice, the mass flow rate \( m \) is proportional to the distance \( x \). More precisely, the jet mass flow rate may be described by the following equation\(^{22} \)

\[ \frac{m_1}{x M_{\text{jett}}^{1/2} \rho_{\text{air}}^{1/2}} = K_1 \]  
(6)

where \( M \) stands for the excess momentum flux of the gas jet, \( \rho_{\text{air}} \) is the density of the surrounding air, and \( K_1 \) is a numerical constant. For the methane gas jet, consideration of Newton’s second law of motion shows that since the static pressure of the flow is uniform, the jet momentum flux \( M \) is conserved, and it is independent of \( x \). Thus, we obtain

\[ M = M_{\text{nozzle}} = \frac{1}{4} \pi d_{\text{nozzle}}^2 \rho_{\text{CH}_4} u_{\text{CH}_4}^2 \]  
(7)

where \( d_{\text{nozzle}} \) is the nozzle diameter and \( \rho_{\text{CH}_4} \) and \( u_{\text{CH}_4} \) are, respectively, the methane density and velocity just at the nozzle outlet.

We obtain eq 8 based on both eqs 6 and 7.

\[ m_1 = K_1 x M_{\text{jett}}^{1/2} \rho_{\text{air}}^{1/2} = \frac{\sqrt{\rho_{\text{air}} \rho_{\text{CH}_4}}}{2} K d_{\text{nozzle}}^2 \rho_{\text{CH}_4}^2 \]  
(8)

For a gas jet from a given structure nozzle, the gas injection pressure and the back pressure of the environment air are constant, which means that the jet velocity at the nozzle outlet is also constant. In addition, the surrounding air density is
constant. Thus, the gas jet mass flow rate is proportional to \( x \), i.e., \( m_1 \propto x \).

The gas jet mass at position \( S \) \( m_i \) is the sum of the gas jet mass at the nozzle outlet and the entrainment mass \( m_e \), as described in eq 9.

\[
m_i = m_n + m_e = \frac{2E_{\text{gas}}}{u_1^2 - u_2^2}
\]

(9)

Combining both eqs 5 and 9, the entrainment can be derived by eq 10.

\[
m_e = m_i - m_n = \frac{2E_{\text{gas}}}{u_1^2 - u_2^2} - m_n = \frac{2E_{\text{spring}}}{u_1^2 - u_2^2} - m_n
\]

(10)

In eq 10, the energy of the spring plate set is described by \( \frac{1}{2}m_2u_2^2 + \frac{1}{6}m_2u_2^2 + \frac{1}{2}k\Delta x^2 \). Thus, eq 10 is converted to eq 10a, which represents the entrainment.

\[
m_e = \frac{2}{u_1^2 - u_2^2} \left( \frac{m_2u_2^2}{2} + \frac{m_2u_2^2}{6} + \frac{kVx^2}{2} \right) - m_n
\]

(10a)

For this test system, once the plate-spring test device is certain, there are several given constants, such as \( m_2, m_2, \) and \( k \). In addition, the spring energy is proportional to the spring plate moving distance \( \Delta x \), which can be tested with a distance sensor, and then the plate speed \( u_2 \) is also deduced by derivation of the distance \( \Delta x \), i.e., \( u_2 = \frac{d\Delta x}{dt} \). Thus, in 10a, there are three variables, i.e., the spring plate moving distance \( \Delta x \), the gas jet mass at the nozzle outlet \( m_n \), and the gas jet velocity \( u_1 \), as described in eq 11.

\[
m_e = f(Vx, u_1, m_n)
\]

(11)

According to 10a and 11, the entrainment of gas jet depends on these three parameters, which have practical physical meanings. The spring plate moving distance \( \Delta x \) represents the impingement force or energy of the gas jet at a certain position \( S \) along the jet direction, which forces the spring to move. \( u_1 \) is exactly the gas jet velocity at a certain position \( S \) along the jet direction, which indicates the jet kinetic energy of the gas jet. The gas jet mass at the nozzle outlet \( m_n \) is just the source mass of the gas jet, which directly decides the total jet energy. These parameters represent the kinetic energy of both the jet source and the local position along the jet direction, which directly affects the entrainment. Once these three parameters (i.e., \( \Delta x, m_n, \) and \( u_1 \)) are tested, the air entrainment can be deduced based on the equation. As a result, in this work, we propose an experimental method to test the gas jet velocity and the gas jet mass just at the nozzle outlet.

2.3. Entrainment Rate. Because of entrainment, the methane gas jet mass flow rate \( m_1 \) increases and exceeds the initial gas mass flow rate at the nozzle outlet \( m_1 \). The ratio \( m_1/m_1 \) stands for the entrainment capacity of the gas jet. This entrainment rate \( m_1/m_1 \) may be deduced by assuming that the gas jet is of uniform density. For the methane gas jet at the nozzle outlet, the mass flow rate is defined by the following equation

\[
m_n = \frac{1}{4} \pi d_{\text{nozzle}}^2 \rho_{\text{CH}_4} u_{\text{CH}_4}
\]

(12)

where \( d_{\text{nozzle}} \) is the nozzle diameter and \( \rho_{\text{CH}_4} \) and \( u_{\text{CH}_4} \) are, respectively, the methane density and velocity just at the nozzle outlet.

The ratio is deduced by combining eqs 13–15.

\[
\frac{m_1}{m_n} = \frac{\frac{1}{4} \pi d_{\text{nozzle}}^2 \rho_{\text{CH}_4} u_{\text{CH}_4}}{\frac{1}{4} \pi d_{\text{nozzle}}^2 \rho_{\text{CH}_4} u_{\text{CH}_4}} = \frac{2K_1 x}{\sqrt{\pi} d_{\text{nozzle}} \sqrt{\rho_{\text{CH}_4}}}
\]

(13)

In addition, according to the equation of state of an ideal gas, the density ratio is the proportion of pressure ratio NPR.

\[
\frac{m_1}{m_n} = \frac{\frac{1}{4} \pi d_{\text{nozzle}}^2 \rho_{\text{CH}_4} u_{\text{CH}_4}}{\frac{1}{4} \pi d_{\text{nozzle}}^2 \rho_{\text{CH}_4} u_{\text{CH}_4}} = \frac{2K_1 x}{\sqrt{\pi} d_{\text{nozzle}} \sqrt{P_{\text{CH}_4}}}
\]

(14)

Equation 16 reveals that the entrainment rate \( m_1/m_1 \) has a relation with the parameters such as \( Lr \) and NPR, i.e.,
3. EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH

As stated in the analysis in Section 2, it is necessary to test the two important parameters of the gas jet, one is the gas jet velocity and the other is gas jet mass at the nozzle outlet. In this work, we first build an optical test rig based on a constant-volume bomb (CVB) system to visually observe the gas jet process and test the gas jet penetration distance. The gas jet velocity of the gas jet front is just the derivation of the gas penetration. Moreover, we also design the test device to detect the high-pressure gas injector features such as the jet mass flow rate. Finally, we build a plate-spring test rig to measure the gas jet impingement kinetic energy. According to all of the above experimental results, based on eqs 10a and 11, the entrainment can be deduced.

\[
\frac{m_1}{m_n} \propto Lr \sqrt{\text{NPR}} \tag{15}
\]

3.1. Optical Test of Methane Gas Jet Penetration. To meter the gas jet velocity \(u_1\), this work adopts the schlieren method to test the methane gas penetrate velocity. An optical constant-volume bomb (CVB) test rig, as shown in Figure 3, is designed to observe the high-pressure gas turbulent jet under the condition of varied injection pressure \(p_{\text{injection}}\) and back pressure \(p_b\). The CVB system, made of steel, is a cuboid with an inner cylindrical bore with a total volume of 13 L. The size of the CVB cuboid is length \(\times\) width \(\times\) height = 330 mm \(\times\) 300 mm \(\times\) 300 mm. A high-pressure single-hole injector with a diameter of 1 mm locates on the top center of the CVB.

During the experiments, the CVB cylinder is first filled with air of back pressure \(p_b\) from an air tank, and the high-pressure air jet test begins after a 5 min standing of the total CVB test rig. A series of optical test devices including a schlieren system and a high-speed camera are used to observe the high-pressure methane gas injection process. The methane gas injection timing is triggered by an electronic control unit (ECU) developed by the authors and set to be synchronous with the camera. More details of the CVB test rig and the postprocessing method of the optical test images are illustrated in the authors’ published literature\(^{16}\) in detail. The injection pressure \(p_{\text{injection}}\) is adjusted ranging from 0.1 to 30 MPa, while the back pressure \(p_b\) is controlled ranging from 0.1 to 5 MPa.

3.2. Test of Methane Gas Jet at the Nozzle Outlet. To meter the gas jet mass at the nozzle outlet \(m_n\), this work uses the weight method to measure the methane gas jet mass of the single-hole gas injector. Figure 4 shows the gas injection mass test schematic diagram. The high-pressure gas injector is mounted on the top of a water tank. There is a small pipe extending from the lower part of the water tank, and the water is adjusted to be just at the outlet of the pipe without any drop out. The upper part of the water tank is full of air sealed between the tank head and water. As the high-pressure methane gas jets into the sealed space, these gases can push water to move out of the pipe, and the discharged water from the pipe is collected by the metering cylinder.

For this test, the methane gas jet mass is deduced based on the discharged water mass. According to this test method, the
methane gas injection volume \( V_{\text{CH4}} \) is equal to the discharge water volume \( V_{\text{water}} \) as shown in eq 16.

\[
V_{\text{CH4}} = V_{\text{water}} = \frac{m_{\text{water}}}{\rho_{\text{water}}} \tag{16}
\]

where \( m_{\text{water}} \) is the water mass and \( \rho_{\text{water}} \) is the water density. The density of the methane \( \rho_{\text{CH4}} \) changes as the hydrogen gas pressure \( P_{\text{CH4}} \) varies. The relationship between the air density and the air pressure is defined by the gas state equation (eq 17).

\[
\rho_{\text{CH4}} = \frac{P_{\text{CH4}}}{zRT_{\text{CH4}}} = \frac{P_{\text{in}}}{zRT_0} \tag{17}
\]

where \( T_{\text{CH4}} \) is the methane temperature (here, equal to the environmental temperature \( T_0 \)), \( R \) is the conventional gas constant, and \( z \) is the real gas compression coefficient. Both \( R \) and \( z \) are constants.

The methane injection mass \( m_n \) is defined by eq 18.

\[
m_n = \rho_{\text{CH4}} V_{\text{CH4}} \tag{18}
\]

Thus, the gas jet mass at the nozzle outlet \( m_n \) is derived.

### 3.3. Testing of Gas Jet Kinetic Energy

To measure the kinetic energy of methane gas jet, a plate-spring elastic test system is designed, as shown in Figure 5. The gas jet kinetic energy test system mainly contains four parts: the high-pressure gas supply system, the measuring device, the electronic injection unit, and the data acquisition system. The high-pressure booster pump supplies the gas injector with high-pressure methane for gas jet testing. The injection timing. The high-pressure methane directly impacts on the plate-displacement device. The plate-spring system is important for this test. First, to support the gas impact, it should be light enough to easily move as the gas jet impacts on it even if the gas jet has a small impact energy. In this test, the plate is plastic and it is light with a weight of 0.253 kg. In addition, to ensure the gas jet is totally impacting on the plate, the plate should be large enough. This plate has a larger diameter of 80 mm, 80 times the injector nozzle, which has a far larger area than the gas jet cover area to receive almost all of the jet gas. Moreover, the spring is designed to have suitable stiffness, not too hard or soft. Here, the spring is designed to have a stiffness of 5038.2 N/m. The spring seat is fixed, and it adheres to the testing plate. Thus, both the plate and the spring form an elastic device located in the vertical direction of the methane gas jet, and the plate is set to be located at different initial positions along the jet direction, i.e., with varied initial distances \( x_0 \).

As the gas jets and directly impacts on the plate, the elastic plate-spring set moves together at the same speed by the force of the high-pressure methane gas jet. The optical displacement sensor records the movement of the plate. For each test condition, the test repeats three times, and the average value is taken to ensure the accuracy of the test results. All of the data are transferred to the computer for further postprocessing by the data acquisition system.

The test apparatus for the optical test of methane gas jet penetration is illustrated in our previously published literature. Those test devices used in tests of both the gas jet at the nozzle outlet and the gas jet kinetic energy are described in Table 1. For each kind of experiment, the gas jet is tested under varied operating conditions. Table 2 presents the details of the gas injector and the gas jet operation conditions.

### Table 1. Test Apparatus

| type       | specification              |
|------------|----------------------------|
| displacement sensor | \( \mu-e \) optoNCDT 1700-50 |
| pressure gauge | R04.4311                  |
| electronic scale | RMPUT                     |
| air pump | W0.9/8                     |
| gas booster pump | OLF-2530                 |

| Table 2. Test Device Specifications and Operating Conditions

| type       | specification              |
|------------|----------------------------|
| test device | injector single-hole nozzle, nozzle diameter: \( d_{\text{nozzle}} = 1 \) mm |
| plate      | diameter: 80 mm, mass: \( m_0 = 0.253 \) kg |
| spring     | stiffness: \( k = 5038.2 \) N/m, mass: \( m_s = 0.373 \) kg |
| test condition | test gas environment temperature 288 K |
| injection pressure | 5 MPa, 10 MPa, 15 MPa, 20 MPa, 25 MPa |
| ambient pressure | 0.1 MPa |
| injection time pulse | 18 ms |
| position \( S \) | 0.2 mm, 0.5 mm, 0.8 mm, 1 mm, 1.5 mm, 2 mm, 3 mm, 4 mm, 5 mm, 8 mm, 10 mm, 12 mm, 15 mm, 20 mm, 25 mm |

### 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To illustrate the gas jet performance, here two nondimensional parameters are introduced. The relative position \( L_r \) is the ratio between the initial position of the test plate \( x_0 \) to the injector nozzle diameter \( d_{\text{nozzle}} \) i.e., \( L_r = x_0/d_{\text{nozzle}} \). The nozzle pressure ratio NPR is the gas injection pressure \( P_{\text{injection}} \) to the ambient pressure \( P_0 \) i.e., \( \text{NPR} = P_{\text{injection}}/P_0 \).

The gas injector begins to release the high-pressure gas and finally stops the injection by ECU controlling signals. The injection pulse is a key parameter for the injection control, and it affects the injection duration. This work conducts experi-

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ments under the condition of varied injection pulse. Figure 6 shows the plate displacement under conditions of a constant-pressure ratio (NPR = 150) while injection pulse varies. When the injection pulse increases, the plate moving distance $\Delta x$ increases. As the injection pulse is small, the differences of $\Delta x$ among different injection pulse are great, and there are fluctuations. However, as the injection pulse is above 8 ms, the differences of $\Delta x$ become smaller, and these curves tend to be stable. Once the injection pulse increases up to 18 ms, these curves of the moving distance $\Delta x$ almost coincide with each other, which means that the injection pulse has little influence on the plate moving distance $\Delta x$. Thus, in this work, the injection pulse is set to 14 ms for all of the experiments.

Figure 7 shows the methane gas jet penetration results of the CVB optical test. Figure 7a shows the images of methane jet based on the image process program described in the literature and the methane gas jet tip penetration distance $S$ can be gained. Based on the tip penetration $S$, the methane jet velocity $u_1$ is deduced, as shown in Figure 7b, under the condition of different NPRs.

It shows that the methane gas jet velocity rapidly decreases as the gas jets from the nozzle outlet ($L_r = 0$), and it tends to be constant as $L_r \geq 10$. This reveals that the methane gas jet has a two-stage feature. The gas jet penetration velocity curve demonstrates both the deceleration in stage I and relatively constant velocity in stage II. During stage I, the gas penetration velocity decreases sharply, which means that this is an unstable stage due to the varying gas penetration velocity. During stage II, the gas penetration velocity tends to be constant so that it is a stable stage. Furthermore, the gas jet velocity increases with the increase in the NPR.

The methane gas jet kinetic energy performance can be metered based on the spring plate moving distance $\Delta x$ tested using a distance sensor. Here, we present one example (i.e., NPR = 150, $L_r = 10$) of the investigation results.

Figure 8 shows the plate moving distance $\Delta x$ under the condition of NPR = 150 and $L_r = 10$. It reveals that the plate moving process is divided into three stages.

![Figure 6. Effect of injection pulse.](image-url)

![Figure 7. Methane jet penetration characteristics.](image-url)
Stage I, the idle stage: During the first stage, the plate moving distance $\Delta x$ is almost zero, and thus, the plate remains stable without any movement. This stage is the first $t_1$ when the methane gas jet exactly impacts on the plate, as described in Figure 2.

Stage II, the rising stage: After stage I, the plate moving distance $\Delta x$ begins to increase, and the increasing tendency is nearly linear. This stage is the time $t_2$ in Figure 2 when the plate begins to move by the action of the methane gas impingement.

Stage III, the fluctuation stage: After stage II, the plate moving distance $\Delta x$ continues increasing, but this curve has a fluctuation feature; this process is stage III (time $t_3$). During stage III, the methane gas jet impacts on the plate to push it forward. On the contrary, the methane gas jet begins to be compressed, and the shape of the methane gas jet front changes. Thus, not all of the kinetic energies of the gas jet transfer directly to the plate-spring system to push it forward during stage III due to the gas compression.

According to the above analysis, it shows that the gas jet impact process in stage III is quite different from stages II and I, and it has a fluctuation behavior. The monotone increasing behavior in stage II conforms to the energy conservation law. As a result, the kinetic energy conservation equations (eqs 3 and 9) are valid only during stage I and stage II but not stage III. Therefore, the data in stage II should get more attention.

We focus on the monotone increasing behavior of stage II. Figure 9 shows the details of the plate moving distance $\Delta x$ during stage II in Figure 8. It reveals this linear movement of the spring plate caused by the high-pressure methane gas jet, and it also gives the linear fitting formula of this movement. Thus, the slope of the linear displacement curve is exactly the plate moving speed $u_2$ since the definition of the speed is the
Figure 10. Spring plate moving speed $u_2$ along the jet direction after the nozzle.

Figure 11. Methane jet kinetic energy $E_{gas}$ along the jet direction.

Figure 12. Methane jet mass flow rate and entrainment.
derivation of the displacement. For this operating condition, we obtain $u_2 = 22.484$ mm/s.

Similarly, the plate moving speed $u_1$ under varied conditions may be deduced by the experimental results of the plate moving displacement. For each methane gas jet pressure (or NPR), we test the spring plate displacement under the condition of different initial positions of the test plate $x_0$ (or $Lr$). Thus, the corresponding plate moving speed $u_1$ may be obtained. Figure 10 shows the plate moving speed $u_1$ against $Lr$ under the condition of different NPRs. The results show that the plate moving speed $u_1$ has a downward trend as soon as the methane jets out of the injector. Moreover, it declines more for a small $Lr$ than for a large $Lr$. It sharply decreases as $Lr < 10$, which is the field close to the nozzle, and tends to slowly change after $Lr > 10$ (far field to the nozzle), which means a two-stage behavior of the plate moving speed $u_1$. In addition, for different NPRs, this two-stage behavior occurs.

As the plate moving speed $u_1$ and the plate moving distance $\Delta x$ are acquired, the kinetic energy of the spring plate device $E_{spring}$ (i.e., $E_{spring} = \frac{1}{2}m_1u_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}m_2u_2^2 + \frac{1}{2}k\Delta x^2$) can be deduced. The given constants such as the plate mass $m_1$, the spring mass $m_2$, and the spring stiffness $k$ are listed in Table 2. Thus, the kinetic energy of the spring plate device $E_{spring}$ may be deduced based on these data. In addition, the kinetic energy of the total system during stage II is conserved. Thus, the kinetic energy of the gas jet $E_{gas}$ is equal to the kinetic energy of the plate-spring device $E_{spring}$ (i.e., $E_{gas} = E_{spring}$).

Figure 11 presents the kinetic energy of the gas jet $E_{gas}$ under the condition of different $Lr$ values while NPR = 150. The results show that the gas jet kinetic energy decreases as soon as the methane jets out of the injector. It sharply declines as $Lr < 10$, which is the field close to the nozzle, and tends to slowly change after $Lr > 10$ (far field to the nozzle). In addition, this methane gas jet kinetic energy $E_{gas}$ has a similar developing tendency as the spring plate moving speed $u_1$.

Once the gas jet kinetic energy $E_{gas}$, the methane gas jet velocity $u_1$, and the spring plate moving speed $u_2$ have been gained, the mass of the methane gas jet flow $m_1$ may be deduced based on eq 5. In addition, the entrainment can be deduced based on eq 10 after both $m_1$ and $m_n$ (i.e., the mass at the nozzle outlet deduced according to the test method in Section 3.2) are derived.

Figure 12 shows the methane gas jet mass flow rate and the entrainment along the jet direction under the condition of different $Lr$ values while NPR=150. Thus, the entrainment of the methane gas jet along the jet direction may be deduced based on this method. Figure 12 reveals the fact that both the methane gas jet mass flow rate and the entrainment have a totally upward trend. Both first rapidly increase, especially in the field close to the nozzle ($Lr < 10$), while both remain stable in the far field ($Lr ≥ 10$), which also indicates a two-stage behavior. The turning points (i.e., $Lr = 10$ marked by a red dashed line) of these two stages for both the methane gas jet mass flow rate and the entrainment coincide with that of the plate moving speed in Figure 10. This increase of the mass flow rate is induced by the gas jet entrainment. The methane gas jet velocity decreases along the jet direction, and most of the energy is transferred to the surrounding fluid. The more the methane gas jet velocity decreases, the more surrounding fluid is sucked into the jet under the suction of the longitudinal vortex, which means entrainment occurs. This entrainment causes an increase in the gas jet mass. In addition, at the very beginning of the jet, the area very close to the nozzle outlet, i.e., $Lr < 1$, marked in the red area, the entrainment tends to be negative. This red nozzle near field is a no-entrainment zone. This no-entrainment phenomenon may be caused by the shock waves due to the high-pressure methane gas jet from a tiny nozzle. Our previous work demonstrates that the high-pressure methane jet reaches its sonic speed at the nozzle outlet and induces shock waves. This shock wave structure enclosed a supersonic gas flow region wherein it is assumed that no entrainment occurs. As there is no entrainment in this zone, the mass flux at the nozzle exit is conserved throughout this region. This no-entrainment phenomenon demonstrates that the total jet mass flow is almost constant in the no-entrainment zone marked by a red dashed circle in Figure 12.

Similarly, the methane gas jet performance under the condition of varied pressure ratios NPR are acquired, and Figure 13 shows the methane gas jet kinetic energy $E_{gas}$ per unit time for different NPRs. It shows that all of the methane gas jet kinetic energy curves tend to decline with the increase

![Methane gas jet kinetic energy along the jet direction.](image-url)
in $Lr$. In addition, they have a greater decline slope as $Lr < 10$ (near field) and become almost stable as $Lr > 10$ (far field). Moreover, the higher the jet pressure (great NPR), the greater the gas jet kinetic energy.

Figure 14 shows the results of the methane gas jet mass flow rate. Figure 14a is the jet mass flow rate along the jet direction under the condition of varied NPRs. These curves have a general upward trend along the jet direction. At the nozzle outlet, i.e., $Lr = 0$, the methane gas flow rate is derived by the experiments described in Section 3.2, and the results at the nozzle outlet are marked in red. The methane gas jet mass flow rate gradually increases along the jet direction. Moreover, it reveals that the methane gas jet mass flow rate has a two-zone feature. In zone I, $Lr < 10$ (near field), the methane jet mass flow rate curves sharply rise and then reach the maximum as $Lr$ increases. In zone II, $Lr \geq 10$ (far field), the curves remain constant at the maximum. The mass flow rate reaches its maximum and becomes stable in zone II, and the value is larger than the initial methane jet mass flow rate (red one). This increasing gas jet mass flow rate is due to the entrainment of the gas jet along the jet direction. The surrounding air is drawn inward toward the gas jet, and the total gas mass flow rate increases. Moreover, the entrainment ability of the gas jet tends to reach saturation in zone II. Figure 14b reveals that the jet mass flow rate increases linearly with the increase in NPR (injection pressure). The difference between the maximum mass flow rate and the initial one becomes larger as the NPR (jet pressure) increases. The average maximum mass flow rate is marked by the red dotted line, which is exactly the mass flow rate saturation line. Furthermore, the results also reveal that in zone I, the mass flow rate continues increasing, which means that entrainment occurs; however, it becomes stable in zone II, which means the gas jet does not suck the air anymore, i.e., the entrainment is saturated. Therefore, the characteristics in zone I are more important for the entrainment since most entrainment occurs in this zone.
As shown in the curves in Figure 14, in zone I, the mass flow rate has a linear relation to \( L_r \). Figure 15 shows the fitting curves of the test data as \( L_r \leq 10 \). It shows that the fitting curve is linear. The methane gas jet mass flow rate increases linearly with the increase in \( L_r \) in zone I. As the injection pressure (or NPR) increases, the slope of the fitting line becomes larger. It is worth noting that the interception points of the lines and the vertical axis are exactly the mass flow rate of \( L_r = 0 \), i.e., the mass flow rate at the nozzle outlet.

Figure 15 shows the comparison between the intercepts of the fitting lines and the test results. It shows that the fitting values are close to the test values, especially for the high pressure (NPR). Therefore, it also demonstrates the accuracy of deduced gas jet mass flow rate based on the kinetic energy method.

Figure 16 presents the relationship between the entrainment rate and \( L_r \) (NPR)\(^{1/2}\). It shows that the \( m_1/m_n \) curves are not linear for all conditions. The \( m_1/m_n \) curves experience three stages. The curves coincide with each other at the very beginning (stage I), and then they rise and develop (stage II); however, finally, all curves tend to coincide again to a constant and become stable (stage III). During stage III, all curves tend to coincide with each other to become a constant, and \( m_1/m_n \) is then dependent on \( L_r \) (NPR)\(^{1/2}\) without a linear feature anymore. Figure 17 reveals that the \( m_1/m_n \) curves have a linear feature in stage I and early stage II but not in late stage II and stage III. This is because the linear relation of eq 17 is deduced based on assuming that the gas jet density is uniform. For the gas jet with a small \( L_r \) (close to the nozzle outlet), the gas jet has relatively great jet energy and jet velocity to maintain the uniform density in the gas jet cover area. As the gas jet penetrates forward along the jet direction with a large \( L_r \) (far to the nozzle), the gas jet energy and jet velocity decay due to the surrounding air resistance. In addition, the gas jet draws the surrounding air into the gas jet. Thus, the density of the jet cannot be uniform then.

Stage I is very small and occurs just at the near field very close to the nozzle outlet. During stage I, these curves are linear and almost vertical with a high slope, which indicates a high entrainment velocity. During stage II, the methane gas jet has different entrainment capacities under the condition of varied NPRs (injection pressure). It should be noted that \( m_1/m_n \) shows a linear feature against \( L_r \) (NPR)\(^{1/2}\), which demonstrates the relation in eq 17. Moreover, the entrainment rate is higher for a lower NPR, and it has a greater slope, as shown in Figure 18.

In Figure 18, the horizon abscissa is the NPR (represents the injection pressure), and the vertical one is the slope of the \( m_1/m_n \) curve in Figure 17, i.e., \( \frac{d(n)}{d(L_r/NPR)} \). The gas jet entrainment capacity tends to decrease as the NPR increases. Once the NPR increases sufficiently high, the curves tend to be close together with the same slope. Therefore, for a given nozzle size, it is not useful for increasing gas jet entrainment capacity only by increasing the gas jet pressure.

5. CONCLUSIONS

This paper presents an experimental method to measure the entrainment mass of a gas jet according to the principle of kinetic energy conservation. The entrainment of methane gas jet is related to three variables, i.e., spring plate moving distance \( \Delta x \), gas jet mass at the nozzle outlet \( m_n \) and gas jet velocity \( u_1 \). This measuring method is verified to be valid in the near field to the nozzle.
The methane gas jet mass flow rate gradually increases along the jet direction. The entrainment process of the high-pressure methane gas jet has a two-zone feature. In zone I, near field ($Lr < 10$), the methane jet mass flow rate linearly increases with the increase in $Lr$ and then reaches the maximum. Furthermore, in the nozzle exit field ($Lr < 1$), no entrainment takes place and the mass flow rate is conserved. In zone II, far field ($Lr \geq 10$), the jet mass flow rate reaches the maximum and the entrainment becomes saturated with a saturation value larger than the initial one at the nozzle outlet.

The entrainment rate $m_1/m_n$ experiences three stages. The curves coincide with each other at the very beginning (stage I), and then they rise and develop (stage II), but at last, all curves tend to coincide again to a constant and become stable (stage III). The $m_1/m_n$ has a linear feature against $Lr \times \text{(NPR)}^{1/2}$ in stage I and early stage II but not in late stage II and stage III.

The methane injection pressure causes great effects on the mass flow rate and entrainment. As injection pressure increases, the methane jet mass flow rate increases linearly, but the entrainment rate decreases. The gas jet entrainment capacity tends to decrease as the pressure increases. Once the injection pressure increases sufficiently high, the $m_1/m_n$ curves tend to be close together with the same slope. Therefore, for a given nozzle size, it is not useful for increasing gas jet entrainment capacity only by increasing the gas jet pressure.

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![Figure 17. Entrainment rate for methane jet.](image1)

![Figure 18. Effect of injection pressure on entrainment rate.](image2)

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Notes
The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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NOMENCLATURE

- $d_{\text{nozzle}}$: nozzle diameter
- $E_{\text{gas}}$: gas jet kinetic energy
- $k$: spring elastic coefficient
- $m$: mass flow rate
- $m_e$: entrainment mass flow rate
- $m_{\text{water}}$: water mass
- $p_b$: back pressure
- $R$: conventional gas constant
- $T_{\text{ch4}}$: methane temperature
- $u_2$: plate moving velocity
- $V_{\text{CH4}}$: methane gas jet volume
- $w$: work
- $\Delta x$: spring plate displacement
- $z$: real gas compression coefficient
- $\rho_{\text{ch4}}$: density of the methane
- $e$: kinetic energy
- $E_{\text{spring}}$: spring plate kinetic energy
- $L_r$: relative position ratio
- $m_{\text{gj}}$: gas jet mass flow rate
- $m_{\text{nozzle}}$: mass flow rate at nozzle outlet
- NPR: nozzle pressure ratio
- $p_{\text{injection}}$: jet pressure
- $S$: gas jet tip penetration
- $u_1$: gas jet velocity
- $u_{\text{nozzle}}$: jet velocity at nozzle outlet
- $V_{\text{water}}$: discharge water volume
- $x$: position along the jet direction
- $x_0$: spring plate initial position
- $\rho$: density
- $\rho_{\text{water}}$: water density

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