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# AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF FUEL SELECTION FOR A GASOLINE MULTI-MODE, SPARK IGNITED – COMPRESSION IGNITION ENGINE

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AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF FUEL SELECTION FOR A GASOLINE MULTI-  
MODE, SPARK IGNITED – COMPRESSION IGNITION ENGINE

By:

Zachary J. Stanchina

A THESIS

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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## List of Abbreviations

GCI – Gasoline Compression Ignition

GDCI – Gasoline Direct Compression Ignition

SI – Spark Ignited

SCRE – Single Cylinder Research Engine

CR – Compression Ratio

LTC – Low-Temperature Combustion

RPM – Revolutions per Minute

CAD – Crank Angle Degrees

aTDC – After Top Dead Center

TDC – Top Dead Center

IAT – Intake Air Temperature

IMEP<sub>g</sub> – Indicated mean effective pressure, gross

IMEP<sub>n</sub> – Indicated mean effective pressure, net

BMEP – Brake mean effective pressure

CA10 - Location of 10% of the burned fuel mass

CA50 – Location of 50% of the burned fuel mass

CA90 – Location of 90% of the burned fuel mass

BD10-90 – Burn Duration, time in crank angle from CA10 – CA90

COV – Coefficient of variation

AFR – Air-Fuel Ratio

EGR – Exhaust Gas Recirculation

EGT – Exhaust Gas Temperature

FRP – Fuel Rail Pressure

AHR – Apparent Heat Release

MFB – Mass Fraction Burned

MPRR – Maximum Pressure Rise Rate

ITE – Indicated Thermal Efficiency  
BTE – Brake Thermal Efficiency  
BSFC – Brake Specific Fuel Consumption  
LFE – Laminar Flow Element  
DOE – Department of Energy  
MTU – Michigan Technological University  
WMI – WM International Engineering  
P66 – Phillips 66  
EPA – Environmental Protection Agency  
CARB – California Air Resource Board  
CAFE – Corporate Average Fuel Economy  
HATCI – Hyundai America Technical Center Inc.  
NI – National Instruments  
PID – Proportional Integral Derivative  
OEM – Original Equipment Manufacturer  
LD – Light-Duty  
CRDI – Common Rail Direct Injection  
CVVD – Continuously Variable Valve Duration  
SOI – Start of Injection  
IMOP – Intake Maximum Open Position, centered around TDC Gas Exchange  
EMOP - Exhaust Maximum Open Position, centered around TDC Gas Exchange  
GE – Gas Exchange  
RON – Research Octane Number  
MON – Motored Octane Number  
AKI – Anti-Knock Index,  $(R+M)/2$   
E10 – 10% Ethanol, by volume  
IB51 gas – 51.2% Iso-butanol + 48.8% Phillips 66 RON 60, by volume  
Eth36 gas – 36.6% Ethanol + 63.4% Phillips 66 RON 60, by volume

P66 IB25 gas – 25% Iso-butanol + 75% Phillips 66 RON 60, by volume

Halterman IB25 gas – 25% Iso-Butanol + 75% Phillips 66 RON60, by volume

THC – Total Hydrocarbons

UHC – Unburned Hydrocarbons

NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> – Nitric Oxide, Nitrogen Dioxide, (NO + NO<sub>2</sub>)

CO<sub>2</sub> – Carbon Dioxide

ATS – After Treatment System

FID – Flame Ionization detector

ECHO – Engine Controller High-Speed Oversight

CAS – Combustion Analysis System

°C – Degrees Celsius

## Abstract

In this study of fuels of different reactivities and their performance in a low-temperature combustion (LTC) engine. The engine was a 2.2L CRDI engine code D4HB provided by industry partner Hyundai America Technical Center inc. (HATCI). The engine was instrumented with in-cylinder pressure sensors allowing for monitoring of the combustion process.

First, the engine was operated with standard US pump grade gasoline, Research Octane number (RON) 91 E10, to find initial operation conditions as well as control points of stable operation for daily checks on system conditions.

Tested were 8 different fuel blends, the four base blends were provided by Phillips 66 (P66) with a RON value ranging from 60 to 91, and three other variations of these fuels were formulated by splash blending alcohols, iso-butanol, and ethanol, with the RON60 fuel and the final blend, was US RON91 E10 pump gasoline. Using these 8 fuels, the low load performance was analyzed allowing a selection of one of the fuels to be made to proceed with experimentation.

To study the low load performance of each fuel, the load was decreased until combustion became too unstable to continue. This was done at 1500 rpm with all of the fuels. At 1200 rpm, the same methodology was applied, though all of the fuels were not tested, only the fuels which showed promise at 1500 rpm. Meaning that the lowest targeted load was achieved without any aid to the combustion process other than advancing combustion, increasing intake air temperature (IAT) for example was not done to maintain consistency across all fuels. The same methodology was applied at 800 rpm based upon the 1200 rpm results to see the ability of the engine to idle with the given fuel.

It was found that fuel with a RON of 80 showed good low load performance while allowing for high load performance to be maintained. A blend of 25% Iso-Butanol and 75% RON 60 equated to a RON of 80 and showed good low load performance and showed peak indicated thermal efficiency (ITE) numbers of 46% at 17 bar indicated mean effective pressure (IMEP) and 2200 rpm.



# 1 Introduction

This chapter's purpose is to give background information on what is being studied and to explain the goals and objectives of this research, where the research fits into the world of internal combustion engines, and how it could specifically provide a pathway forward for internal combustion engines. For the past few decades, the Environment Protection Agency (EPA) and California Air Resources Board (CARB) have developed new regulations regarding emissions from internal combustion engines. EPA CO<sub>2</sub> regulations are a decrease of 28.3% fleet-wide for model years 2023-2026, [1]. The new corporate average fuel economy (CAFE) standards required fleet fuel efficiency increases of 8% per year for model years 2024-2025 with 2026 having a 10% increase, [2]. The need to fulfill or exceed these requirements is the motivation for this research and the continued development of advanced combustion methods.

## 1.1 Background

Funding for this research was provided by the US Department of Energy (DOE). The program is part of the Co-Optima initiative, which focused on the co-optimization of fuels and engines. Modern light-duty engines are becoming limited by fuels. Focusing on developing fuels along with the engine can unlock potential for improvement in efficiency [3].

## 1.2 Goals and Objectives

Co-Optima findings showed that Multi-Mode approaches to engine operation can lead to an additional 9-14% fuel economy gains [4]. Goals specific to our portion of the project were to first choose a fuel that allowed for operating in compression ignition over the widest range and for good low load SI operation in a high compression ratio engine. The challenge was that properties favorable to one combustion mode are not to the other. Choosing a fuel with a high RON can limit the low load ability of the engine in a compression ignition mode while a fuel with a high RON will allow the engine to operate in SI mode at a higher load without having large amounts of combustion knock.

Figure 1.1 has a targeted speed load map displaying the operating mode at a speed load point as well as the challenges which will be encountered. Our studies focused on the lower speed and load region where mode switching is required. This is the region that will be heavily influenced by the fuel properties.

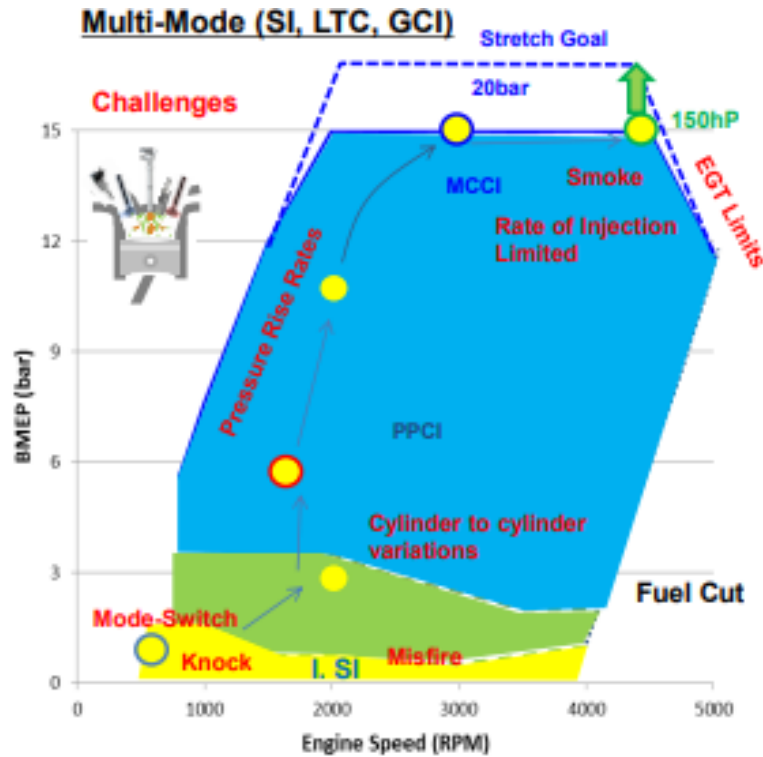


Figure 1.1. Speed Load map for targeted multi-mode operating [5]

To meet the goal of fuels selection for this portion of the project the following objectives were developed

1. Map out the low load operation of the provided fuels in GCI mode: Operate the 2.2L engine at low speed, low load where GCI operation is limited by fuel reactivity.
2. Choose a fuel that allows for successful low load operation without the assistance of elevated inlet air temperatures greater than the baseline 55°C.
3. Experimentally verify the fuel selection was successful in choosing a fuel that did not limit the operation at higher loads while enabling operation at low loads.

### 1.3 Thesis Overview

This thesis discusses the experimental study which was conducted to explore the low load operation of a GCI engine with fuels of different reactivities. Chapter 2 contains the literature review of materials relevant to this thesis. Procedures for the experiments as well as the engine setup and instrumentation are discussed in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 contains the results of the experiments Chapter 5 is the summary and conclusions which were drawn as well as suggestions for future work. Appendices contain descriptions of instrumentation and supporting systems and information on the engine operation and experimentation which was conducted for this thesis.

## 2 Literature Review

When operating an engine in compression ignition mode there are some distinct advantages regardless of the fuel the engine is being operated with. One of them is the increase in efficiency shown by the following Otto cycle ideal cycle relationship.

$$\eta = 1 - \left( \frac{1}{r_c^{\gamma-1}} \right)$$

An increase in compression ratio ( $r_c$ ) will yield an increase in efficiency ( $\eta$ ). There is also a beneficial effect from increasing the ratio of specific heats of the working fluid ( $\gamma$ ) due to excess air being present as well as late injection of the fuel meaning that only air is being compressed during the first part of the compression stroke along with residuals. Each of these parameters will be affected positively when working with a compression ignition engine. They tend to operate at higher compression ratios as well as lean of stoichiometric. The lean operation will yield a higher ratio of specific heats due to the increase in the air which has a higher ratio of specific heats than fuel and combustion products. From an engine out emissions perspective, the lean operation would be desirable if combustion remains stable, Figure 2.1 [6]. As the figure shows, the leaner the operation the lower the engine out NO<sub>x</sub> will be. This is due to the decreased combustion temperatures when operating lean of stoichiometric causing the decrease in NO. An issue faced at light loads where CI engines operate lean is an excess of unburned hydrocarbons, (UNHC). This is due to the very lean conditions as well as flames being quenched due to low temperatures especially at the periphery, causing incomplete combustion. This is described by Heywood when describing diesel combustion and the formation of UNHC emissions. He also describes that at light loads, homogenous charge compression ignition (HCCI) engines and other lean-burn engines, can have very lean combustion that results in incomplete burns and misfires as well, leading to high engine-out CO and UNHC emissions. As discussed by in Heywood, chapter 10.7.2 where advanced combustion concepts are discusses, [6].

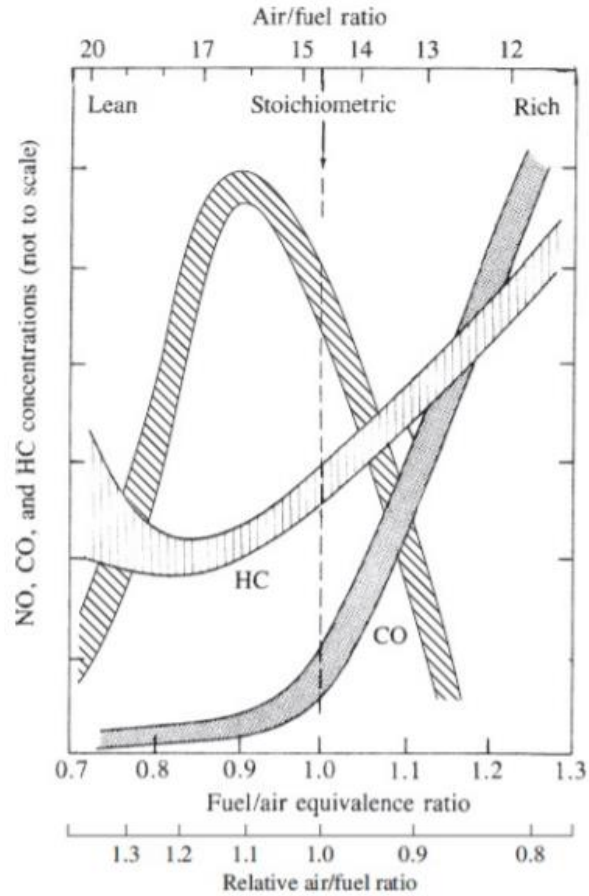


Figure 2.1. Emissions trends with equivalence ratio [6]

The effect of in-cylinder temperature on the formation of emissions such as NO<sub>x</sub> and soot can be seen in Figure 2.2. The operation of engines lean of stoichiometric locally and globally,  $\phi < 1$  benefits from decreases in particulate matter (PM). Using gasoline, a fuel with relatively high resistance to auto-ignition when compared to diesel benefits from the local mixture being able to mix thoroughly, allowing the charge to be slightly less stratified. Meaning that there is a lesser change of locally rich zones producing high amounts of PM as well as UHC.

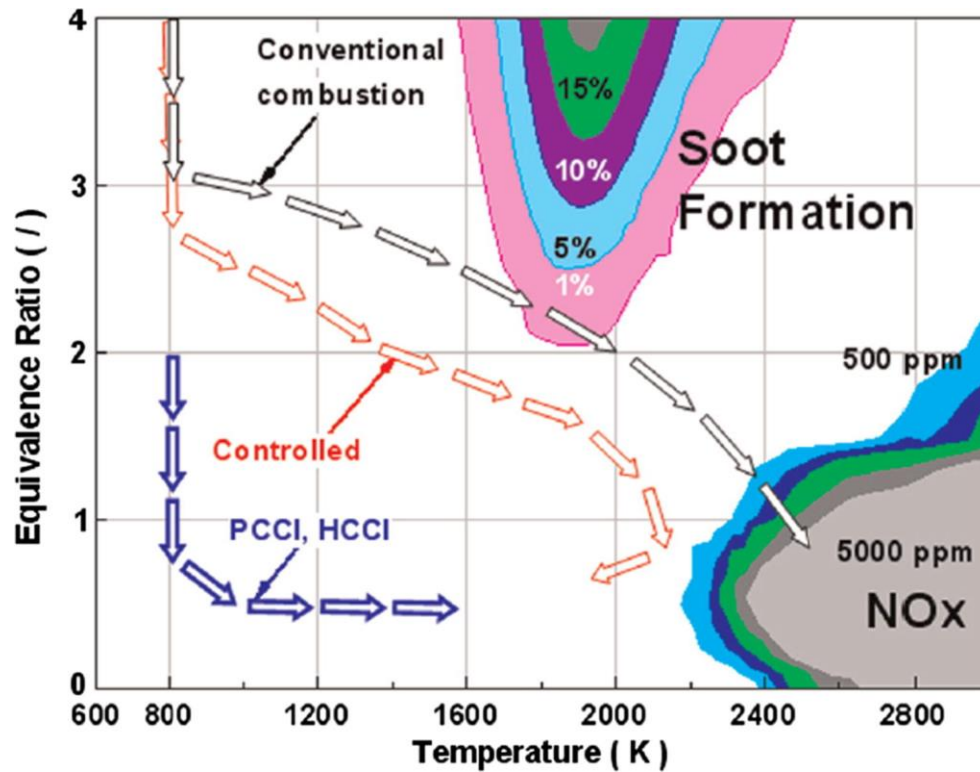


Figure 2.2. Phi - T Diagram of soot and NOx formation [7] , note y-axis label should be  $\phi$  for equivalence ratio

## 2.1 Advantages of GCI

Utilizing gasoline in a compression ignition (GCI) application requires some hurdles to be overcome though not without benefit. When operating an engine in GCI mode a fuel of lower RON is desirable because of the increased tendency to auto-ignite. When making fuels with lower RON, the refining process can be simplified by removing the isomerization and catalytic reforming units. There is not only an increase in BTE at the engine point in the life cycle of the fuel but also a benefit from an energy perspective at the refining level [8].

When operating an engine with gasoline in a compression ignition mode there is a longer ignition delay due to the increased resistance to auto-ignition over diesel fuel. This increase in ignition delay leads to more premixed combustion resulting in decreased emissions of PM and decreased combustion temperatures resulting in decreased production of NOx. With the use of high quantities of exhaust gas recirculation (EGR), the ignition delay can be increased even further which can also cause a decrease in NOx and PM emissions at given operating conditions. EGR can control these aspects as well as lead to a decrease in indicated specific fuel consumption (ISFC) as shown by Hanson, Splitter, and Reitz in their studies of GCI in a 2.44-liter single-cylinder engine [9]. The reduction in PM emissions is quite critical to analyze. PM emissions tend to be the

Achilles heel of a conventional diesel engine. There is a significant benefit when using gasoline as a fuel to combat this issue due to the increased ignition delay [10]. Extensive studies have been done by many parties on this topic and it has proven to be one worth pursuing due to the benefits associated with it, though there are inherent cost and control complexity increases.

Another opportunity for improvement is through the use of a multi-injection strategy, which increases control complexity and cost but opens another door for potential benefits. It would allow for potential decreases in indicated CO<sub>2</sub> emissions when compared to the same engine operating on diesel. The decrease in specific CO<sub>2</sub> emissions is also accompanied by an increase in thermal efficiency and a decrease in specific fuel consumption [11].

Engineers at Delphi Technologies developed a fully functioning GCI engine model over years of research and development. Results from the studies conducted at Delphi, funded by the US Department of Energy, demonstrate significant improvements in brake specific fuel consumption (BSFC) over competitive SI engines as well as matching and in some cases surpassing those of production CI engines [12].

## **2.2 GCI Technologies**

The idea of using gasoline in a diesel engine is not a new one but one which has only recently been attainable due to the complexity of the controls systems required as well as the desire to improve engine efficiency. This has happened through the development of fuel injection systems such as those carried out at Delphi Technologies. Delphi has developed multiple generations of its GCI engine concept which they call GDCI (gasoline direct compression ignition). The series of progression can be noted from the beginning of the single-cylinder development [11, 13, 14].

Following the development done with the single-cylinder research engine (SCRE), a 1.8 l four-cylinder engine was designed based on the results of the SCRE experiments. A compression ratio of 15:1 was used along with an advanced boost system [15]. The boost system was a large step in the development of the GCI engine. Being that they operate in a low-temperature combustion regime, which allows operation lean of stoichiometric, there is a low exhaust enthalpy when compared to a stoichiometric SI engine. The exhaust enthalpy is what drives the turbocharger and without the turbocharger, there is no way to achieve the boost levels required to achieve the desired in-cylinder conditions to have GCI combustion at low load. There were extensive simulations performed with both turbochargers and superchargers along with combinations of each. Due to the low exhaust enthalpy, a system comprised of both a supercharger and a turbocharger was chosen. This allows for the difference in exhaust enthalpy to be accounted for in crankshaft work associated with driving the supercharger [12, 15].

Further development by Delphi Technologies showed improved performance from a tailpipe emissions perspective. The Generation 3 engine outfitted with a custom active

after-treatment system (ATS) showed that it was possible to operate a catalyst with the low exhaust temperatures exhibited with low-temperature combustion [16]. The use of exhaust gas rebreathing was a large contributor to being able to meet catalyst light-off temperatures at low loads [16, 17, 18]. Rebreathing is a process in which the exhaust valve is opened in the intake stroke allowing hot exhaust gases to be scavenged into the cylinder. This technique aids in increasing gas temperatures in a situation where the gas temperatures need to be increased but there is no need for increased fuel consumption. The same increase in exhaust temperature could be achieved by increased fueling and retarding combustion. When combustion is retarded, to an increasing extent, more of the fuel energy leaves through the exhaust instead of being changed work by the pistons acting on the crankshaft, via the crank-slider mechanism, causing a decrease in thermal efficiency. Utilizing the waste heat in the exhaust by rebreathing the exhaust gases into the engine during the intake stroke allows the high-efficiency lean-burn tactics to be employed allowing combustion phasing to remain optimal while maintaining proper exhaust gas temperatures for an effective after-treatment operation [19].

## 2.3 Pathway Forward

The current GCI technology still faces some issues, even with all the upsides. One issue is the highly complicated boosting system required at low loads when operating with conventional gasoline-like fuel; this issue stems from the lack of exhaust enthalpy to drive the turbocharger. The lack of enthalpy means that something else would have to be done to increase the temperature at TDC such as intake air heating. To combat this, some interesting paths are being explored within this programs' development; one is operating the engine in multiple combustion modes throughout the speed load map as well as investigating multiple fuels with increased reactivities. This will allow issues like low exhaust enthalpy to be combated by operating in an SI mode closer to stoichiometric allowing for catalyst light-off as well as cold-start ability to be maintained. At other light to medium loads, there would also possibly be benefits in using other modes such as HCCI and at part loads using PPCI. This would lead to many benefits aside from thermal efficiency, the ability to control downstream exhaust gas temperature to maintain catalyst conversion efficiency would allow for tailpipe emissions to be minimized.

Interesting simulations were carried out by Delphi Technologies following the development of their GCI engine. A diffusion burn combustion strategy was used at high loads which allowed a load of 25 bar BMEP to be reached while maintaining low BSFC numbers of less than 210g/kWh (40% BTE) throughout most of the speed load range [17]. This shows that there is potential for advancement in the technology with the addition of a transient mode-switching capable controller as well as a capable calibration.

The initiative of which this research is a part of is the US Department of Energy Co-Optima program [3]. The goals of the co-optima program are to simultaneously optimize fuels and engines to improve fuel economy and performance. The coordinated approach to developing fuels and engines together allows for another degree of freedom when

developing the combustion system and the fuel. When the combustion system is developed, the fuel is usually a constraint, but with the co-optima program, multiple fuels are being developed and tested. The fuels are being formulated to display the distinct characteristics needed to achieve stable engine operation in these advanced combustion modes. If stable, transient combustion is achieved it may prove to be a way forward in meeting future ultra-low emissions targets.

Co-Optima findings show that a 10% gain in fuel economy can be found in current light-duty (LD), turbocharged SI engines by utilizing current advanced engine technology along with sustainable fuels produced from domestic, renewable, non-petroleum resources. Current advanced LD engine performance is reaching fuel constraints and Co-Optima has found opportunity for a 10% increase in fuel economy with an additional 14% attributed to the utilization of multi-mode engine technologies [4].

Current state of the art LD engines and their BTE's are shown in Table 2.1, showing where the HATCI GCI-01 stands in terms of performance. GCI-01 is at the top in terms of BTE, being essentially a retrofitted production Diesel engine, additions of advanced technologies such as Continuously Variable Valve Duration (CVVD) and specialized fuel system will drive peak BMEP as well as BTE of the second generation of HATCI GCI engines.

Table 2.1. Current state of the art light-duty engines

<b>Engine:</b>	<b>BMEP (bar)</b>	<b>BTE (%)</b>	<b>Induction</b>	<b>Reference</b>
<b>Mazda e Skyactiv-X</b>	14.1	40-42%	Supercharged	Estimated
<b>Delphi Gen3x</b>	25.0	43%	Turbocharged	[17]
<b>Toyota Dynamic Force</b>	11.3	41%	Naturally Aspirated	[20]
<b>HATCI GCI-01</b>	20.0	42%	Turbocharged	



### 3 Experimental Setup and Procedures

Contained in the following chapter is a detailed description of the experimental setup and procedures used to collect and analyze the data which is presented in Chapter four of this document.

#### 3.1 Experimental Setup

For the studies performed in both GCI mode and lean-burn spark-ignited mode, a modified Hyundai 2.2L Diesel engine was used. The engine was outfitted with a common rail direct injection system with a high-pressure Bosch CP4 pump capable of injection pressures > 1000 bar with gasoline. The injectors were able to operate at a minimum of 270 bar injection pressure, Bosch 2.2 The cylinder head was modified to include spark plugs that were inserted between the intake valves. There was an adapter machined to allow the use of port fuel injection as well which was placed between the intake manifold and the cylinder head. Cylinder head design modifications were performed by HATCI.

Table 3.1. Engine Characteristics table

Bore (mm)	84.5
Stroke (mm)	96
Connecting Rod Length (mm)	145
Compression ratio (-)	16.0
Displacement (l)	2.2

##### 3.1.1 Engine Controller and Combustion Feedback system

To control the engine a PI Innovo M670 was used in conjunction with an Engine Controller Highspeed Oversight unit (ECHO). The M670 was programmed by WM International Engineering<sup>1</sup>, and support was continued throughout the project. In conjunction with this program, the ECHO was developed by WMI to provide real-time combustion feedback, next cycle control modifications to the start of injection (SOI) and injection quantity were able to be done on a cylinder-to-cylinder basis. These controls allowed the controller to maintain a constant CA50 across all cylinders as well as balance IMEP if necessary.

#### 3.2 Test Bed Layout

For our testbed at MTU's APS LABS, the Light Duty Engine test cell was used. This cell is equipped with an 8000 rpm, 460 HP AC dynamometer, allowing for motoring of the engine as well as constant speed control. For the testing performed, speed control was used.

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<sup>1</sup> Engine Controls specialists [25]

The test cell is isolated from the control desk with closed-circuit cameras allowing for observation of engine operation. The engines are fitted on rolling carts with bulkhead connections for electrical components as well as plumbing of liquids, Figure 3.1. This allows engines to be moved in and out of the test cell when not in operation and work to be performed in build bays. With this, time can be used more efficiently because the test cell is not occupied by an idle engine as well as any work being done to the project-specific cart can be carried out in a well-lit, and tool-equipped area.

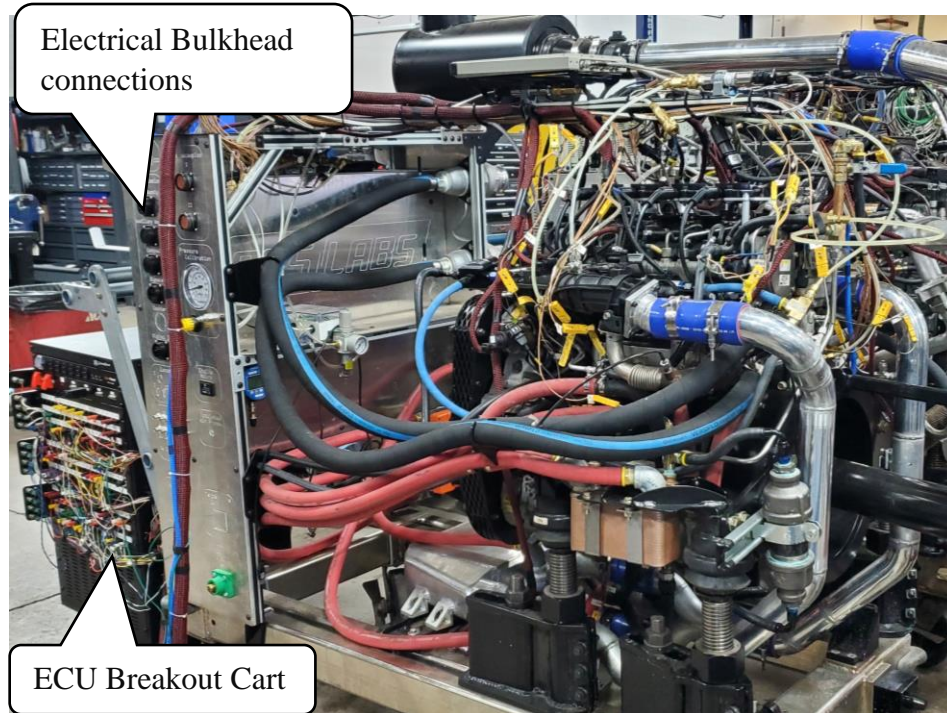


Figure 3.1. Engine Cart, showing the extensive amount of plumbing, wiring, and fixturing required to operate and monitor the systems of this engine

### 3.3 Data Acquisition Systems

The testbed employed four different systems to acquire data on the operation of the engine as listed in Table 3.2 with their corresponding functions.

Table 3.2. Data acquisition systems and purpose

<b>Data Acquisition System</b>	<b>Data Type</b>	<b>Trigger Type, Sample Rate</b>
<b>NI PXI Chassis, NI Veristand</b>	Test cell monitors, thermocouples, pressure transducers, temperature control	Time-based, 10 Hz
<b>AND CAS</b>	Cylinder pressure, MAP, exhaust pressure, injection, and coil trigger traces	0.1° crank angle via an optical encoder and AND SODEP interpolation
<b>PI Snoop</b>	ECU parameters	Time-based, 10 Hz
<b>Horiba</b>	5 gas emissions data	Time-based, 1 Hz

## 3.4 Instrumentation

The engine, as well as the test cell, were instrumented for the measurement of temperatures and pressures throughout the system to monitor the engine operation. These signals were monitored in real-time on the control screen by an NI PXI chassis, Veristand developed user interface which allows for user control of the system by switching digital signals on and off and varying analog outputs through the use of a proportional integral and derivative (PID) control loop with feedback from one of the temperatures or pressure in the system.

### 3.4.1 Combustion Analysis

Real-time combustion analysis was performed using AND Redline CASII, Appendix 7A.3. Table 3.3 lists the signals which were being inputted to the CAS chassis as well as the sensor model and the sample rate of the signal.

Table 3.3. CAS Input Instruments and model description

Signal	Sensor Model	Sample Rate	Signal	Accuracy
Cylinder 1-4 Pressure	AVL GP15DK	0.1°CA	Analog	$\leq \pm 0.3\%$
MAP	OMEGA: MMA100V10P5D1T3A3	0.1°CA	Analog	0.08%
Exhaust Pressure	OMEGA: MMA100V10P5D1T4A3	0.1°CA	Analog	0.08%
DI Injection Trace	Fluke: 80I-110S	0.1°CA	Analog	-
PFI Injection Trace	Fluke: 80I-110S	0.1°CA	Analog	-
Ignition coil trigger signal	Signal tap	0.1°CA	Digital	-
Fuel Mass Flowrate	Micromotion: CFMS010M323N2BAEC ZZ	0.1°CA	Analog	0.1%
Crank Angle	BEI:	1.0°CA	Digital	-

### 3.4.2 Test Cell Instrumentation

Temperatures were monitored via K-type thermocouples instrumented throughout the engine system. Air mass flow rate was measured with a laminar flow element (LFE) and compensated for humidity changes in the ambient air. Instrument descriptions and models are listed in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4. Test cell instrumentation

Signal	Instrument	Model
Air Mass flowrate	Laminar Flow Element	Z50MC2-4
Temperature	Thermocouple	K-type
Fuel Mass Flowrate	MicroMotion Coriolis Meter	CFMS010M323N2BAECZZ

### 3.4.3 Intake Temperature Management

Gasoline Compression Ignition is highly dependent on the temperature at IVC. To control this, the temperature of the air charge needs to be closely controlled. To regulate this temperature, a system consisting of two liquid to air heat exchangers in parallel was used as shown in Figure 3.2. One of them contains a metered flow of building water through the heat exchanger for cooling and the other heat exchanger was filled with hot coolant at a controlled temperature from the system described in the charge air heater portion of Appendix 7G.2. The engine controller utilized the temperature sensor portion of the MAP sensor as feedback to meter the airflow through the two heat exchangers.

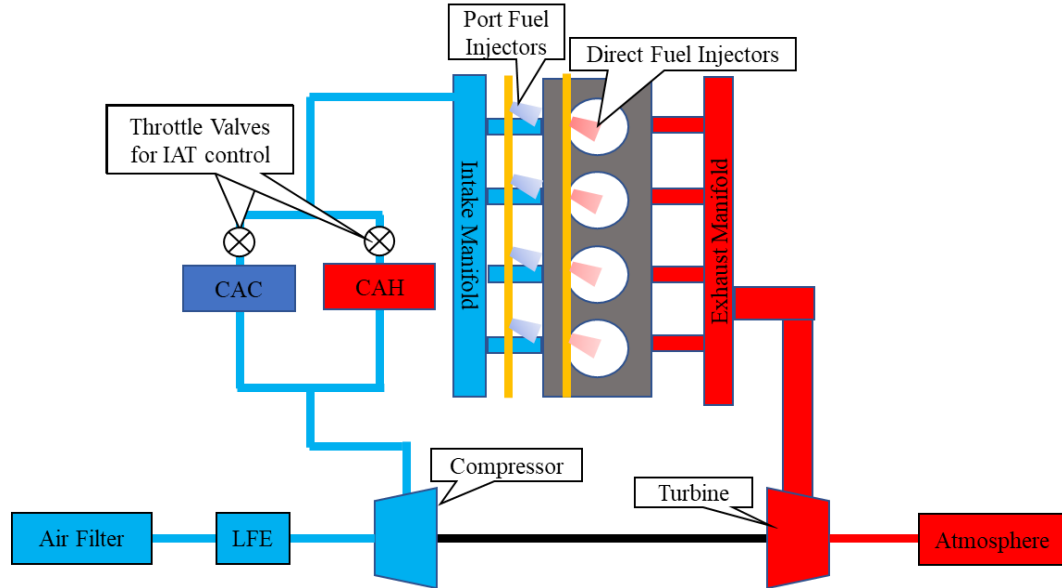


Figure 3.2. Intake Temperature Management System

### 3.4.4 Emissions Measurement

Emissions were measured with a Horiba 5 gas analyzer described in Appendix 7B.1. Emissions samples were drawn through a heated filter and a heated sample line from the turbine outlet of the engine. To sample the exhaust, steady-state operation was achieved. Following this, there was a sample drawn from the exhaust. Before recording the data, it was ensured that each of the exhaust constituents being analyzed was at steady state ensuring that the data accurately reflected the current operating condition.

## 3.5 Test Conditions

Part of the experiments were conducted to see the low load operation ability of the engine, to achieve this, the tests at 800, 1200, and 1500 rpm were conducted by starting at a medium load and decreasing load incrementally. Defining the low load limit was done by finding the minimum load which the COV of IMEPg was less than 3% for loads greater than 2 bar IMEPg, for loads below 2 bar IMEPg, the standard deviation of IMEPg needed to be less than 15 kPa to be deemed a stable operating point. Other experiments were also conducted in spark-ignited (SI) mode to find the upper load limit of SI. To do this with a high compression ratio and high reactivity fuels, a lean burn technique was used where the AFR was kept at the lean limit. The metric of coefficient of variation COV was used to determine the lean limit with a threshold of 3%. Upper load limit of SI was found to exceed the range needed for investigation. 4.6 bar BMEP was easily achieved with SI. This was chosen as the highest load for SI because GCI operation was stable well below this load and was more efficient 45% for GCI compared to 38% for SI with the same RON91 E10 fuel and the same load of 80 Nm and IAT of 55°C. Mode switching could happen between 2.0 and 2.3 bar BMEP.

Following the low load experiments, higher load experiments were conducted to find the peak efficiency of the engine with the selected fuel. They were conducted based on results obtained from [21]. These results were obtained on a sister engine at Hyundai America Technical Center Inc (HATCI). Results from the baseline GCI tests were compared to the results with iso-butanol 25% and 75% RON 60, (IB25 gas).

### 3.5.1 Fuel Specifications

Neat fuels were tested as received from P66. RON91 E10 was purchased already mixed from the pump. Other alcohol blends were splash blended by weighing the amount of each fuel added to the tank and calculating the volume of the fuel based on the densities in Table 3.5 to reach the desired mixture ratio by volume. Once the selection of the IB25 gas was done, additional RON 60 was ordered from Halterman to continue testing. Quantities of the P66 fuels were low so they were consumed by the initial low load testing leaving none for medium-high load mapping operations. Each fuel was dosed with 200 PPM of fuel lubricant from BG Products, XX-6RX for lubrication of the diesel fuel system.

Research from Co-Optima found blend stocks that would reduce the lifecycle carbon emissions when combining them with base gasolines up to 30%, [4]. From these blend stocks, ethanol and iso-butanol were chosen and blended with the base RON 60 to achieve a RON of 94. After testing was completed with the IB51 and E36 gas, it was decided to try a lower iso-butanol concentration, making the IB25 gas.

Table 3.5. The fuel specification table for the 8 different fuels tested, 2 batches of the IB25 gas from different suppliers

Fuel	RON	Cetane (#)	Alcohol	Alcohol (%Vol.)	Supplier	LHV (Mj/kg)	Density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> ) @ 25°C
<b>RON 60</b>	58.1	29.8	-	0	P66	44.4	694.9
<b>RON 70</b>	69.3	24.9	-	0	P66	44.2	706.7
<b>RON 80</b>	78.8	22.1	-	0	P66	44.5	680.0
<b>RON 91</b>	89.4	18.8	-	0	P66	43.9	712.9
<b>RON 91 E10</b>	91.0	-	Ethanol	10	Shell	42.4	716.4
<b>IB51 gas</b>	94.0	20.6	Iso-Butanol	51.2	P66	37.7	747.7
<b>Eth 36 gas</b>	93.4	20.5	Ethanol	36.6	P66	37.9	728.2
<b>IB25 gas</b>	77.8	-	Iso-Butanol	25	P66	40.9	720.7
<b>IB25 gas</b>	77.8	-	Iso-Butanol	25	Halterman	41.45	736.3

### 3.5.2 Compression Ignition

Experiments were conducted at multiple conditions to see the effect of fuel reactivity on combustion in GCI mode. For all the tests in GCI mode where operation was possible,

the IAT was held at a constant 55°C. Operation was tested at five engine speeds, 800, 1200, 1500, 2000, and 2200 rpm. At each one of these speeds, there were load sweeps done.

GCI was studied along with different fuels and their abilities to aid in GCI operation over a wider speed-load regime. The focus of this study was the low load range and the ability of the fuel's reactivity to lower the low load operation range.

#### ***3.5.2.1 Fuel Reactivity***

For the studies regarding the reactivity of the fuel, there was a common technique employed for each of the fuels. Due to the small quantity of fuel, a coordinated approach to the experiments was needed to minimize test time allowing for the most points to be run, filling in the speed load map.

A common point of 1500 rpm, 80Nm, 4.6 bar BMEP with an IAT of 55°C and a CA50 of 10° after top dead center, (aTDC) was chosen. This allowed for a comparison of metrics across each fuel showing the effects on combustion at a common, stable point. At 80 Nm a sweep of combustion phasing was done as well from a CA50 of 12°aTDC to 7°aTDC to demonstrate the effect of combustion phasing on performance.

The effect of the reactivity of the fuel on the low load operation range was found by finding the minimum load at which the engine could stably operate. This was done at three speeds, 800, 1200, and 1500 rpm. The load was swept down until combustion became unstable or a low load limit was reached, 15 Nm or 0.9 bar BMEP.

#### ***3.5.2.2 Medium-High load efficiency***

Testing points where the highest efficiency was expected to occur was done with the fuels selected based upon fuel reactivity testing for the low load performance of GCI. These tests were conducted at 2000 and 2200 rpm based upon the results in [21] where the entire speed load map was tested allowing our test matrix to only encompass the targeted region. This was beneficial due to the relatively small quantity of P66 fuel for the testing.

The testing occurred at 2000 and 2200 rpm with four load points of 10, 12, 14, and 15 bar BMEP which encompassed the region where the peak engine efficiency is expected.

### **3.5.3 Spark Ignited**

Spark ignited combustion was planned to be used at low loads where the operation of the engine in compression ignition is not possible. When operating in a spark-ignited mode, the counteracting effects of the fuels with properties favorable to compression ignition on spark-ignited operation are demonstrated.

### 3.5.3.1 Fuel Reactivity

When operating in spark-ignited mode, the lean operating limit was found. To allow for mode switching, there needed to be overlap in the operating range of the two modes. To find out the size of this overlap region in terms of load and where it existed, the lean operating limit was found for each fuel at 1500 rpm. The methodology for these experiments was to start near stoichiometric,  $\lambda \sim 1.1$ , and record data at increments of 0.05  $\lambda$ . Knowing that each fuel operated well below the 4.6 bar BMEP point, it was chosen as the high load needed to be reached to allow for a large enough overlap region to allow for mode switching and hysteresis in the switch.

Fuel injection for the SI mode testing was all done for the through the PFI injectors for the successful points. To choose the injection pressure it was swept from 3.3 bar up to 5 bar at a constant load, speed, IAT, and CA50. Through these experiments, the lean limit was not able to be found with the higher injection pressure near 5 bar. Due to the nature of the intake ports, being a diesel cylinder head with ports designed to induce swirl, higher injection pressures led to increased wall wetting. Wall wetting was believed to cause significantly increased combustion knock due to the fuel not vaporizing and liquid fuel entering the cylinder resulting in locally rich zones prone to knock.



## 4 GCI Operation Results

### 4.1 Fuel Reactivity Effects on Combustion

Three test programs with the fuels from Table 3.5 were conducted. The first was conducted to determine the fuel's impact and effects on low load operation and their ability to extend GCI operation loads below 3 bar BMEP. This was conducted at three engine speeds including 800 rpm representing idle and 1200 and 1500 rpm. The second test program was conducted at medium loads from 3 to 7 bar BMEP at 1200 and 1500 rpm. The third test program was conducted at 2000 rpm from 7 to 10 bar BMEP. These explored the upper region of medium loads at a slightly higher speed. The third and final test program explored loads from 10-15 bar BMEP at speeds of 2000 and 2200 rpm. Discussion of the results of these three test programs is in the next three subsections.

The apparent heat release (AHR) traces for each fuel show the results for cylinder 2 of the engine in this chapter. Cylinder 2 was chosen to be analyzed because it was found to be representative of the engine average of all four cylinders. The cylinders all perform nearly the same with the use of the CA50 control. The trigger signal for the injectors is also plotted to show where the pilot and main injections are taking place relative to the AHR. For each test point, the pilot SOI and pilot quantity were held constant unless the pressure-rise rate (PRR). Under conditions where the PRR was above the threshold of 10 bar/°CA, the SOI of the pilot injection was retarded. The impact of the pilot SOI was greater than that of pilot quantity when regulating MPRR.

#### 4.1.1 Low Load

Low load testing was conducted at 800, 1200, and 1500 RPM with GCI operation. The primary constraint for low load GCI operation is combustion stability and for this, the standard deviation of IMEP<sub>g</sub> was considered with a threshold of 15 kPa for loads below 1 bar BMEP. For loads greater than 1 bar BMEP COV of IMEP<sub>g</sub> was used with a threshold of 3% as well as maximum pressure rise rate, (MPRR) with a limit of 10 bar/°CA.

The load ranges tested for each fuel are shown in Figure 4.1. Stable low load operation at 800 rpm for the RON 60, 70, and 80 fuels was achieved; whereas the other fuels with lower reactivities were not tested at the idle condition because they would not operate at such a low load without elevated MAP or IAT. Horizontal black bars in Figure 4.1 highlight the load points which will be examined in this subsection. At 800 rpm, the lowest load operated at is not the load that will be looked at because the RON 80 was not able to operate at that point, 10 Nm or 0.6 bar BMEP. To compare all three fuels at tested at this speed, the second lowest load is examined, 15 Nm or 0.86 bar BMEP.

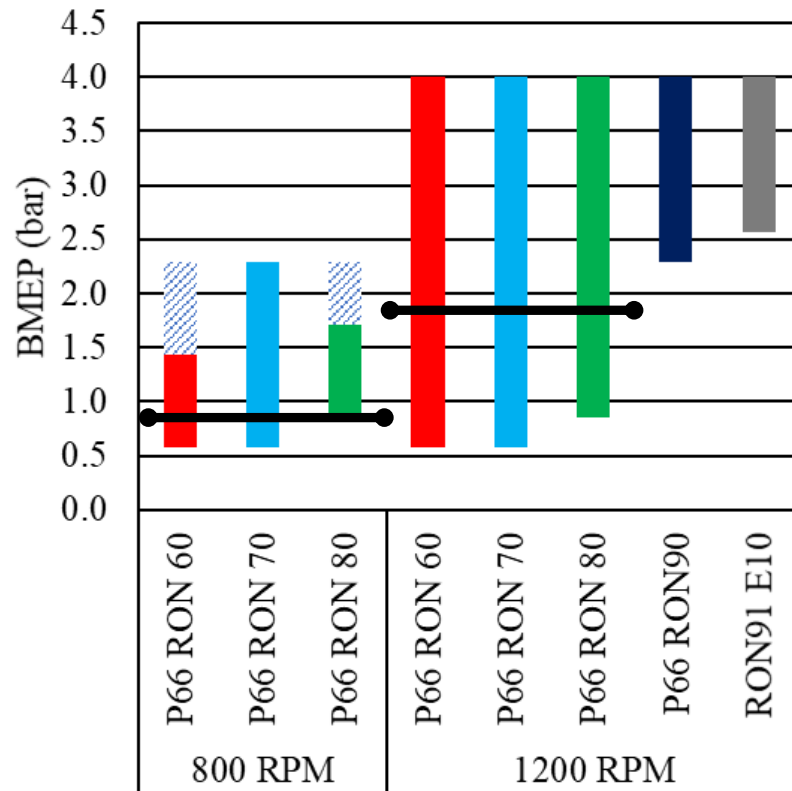


Figure 4.1. Low load operation test points for each fuel. Solid horizontal black lines signify the loads which are looked at in-depth in the following sections. (Solid vertical bars signify tests were carried out at these regions, hashed bars mean operation was assumed but not tested for that load)

With the use of higher reactivity fuels, stable low load operation was able to be achieved at 800 rpm and 15 Nm. From Figure 4.2 the advancement of the first portions of combustion can be observed. As the reactivity of the fuel increases this portion advances because the ignition delay becomes shorter meaning that if fuel is injected at the same time, combustion will begin earlier.

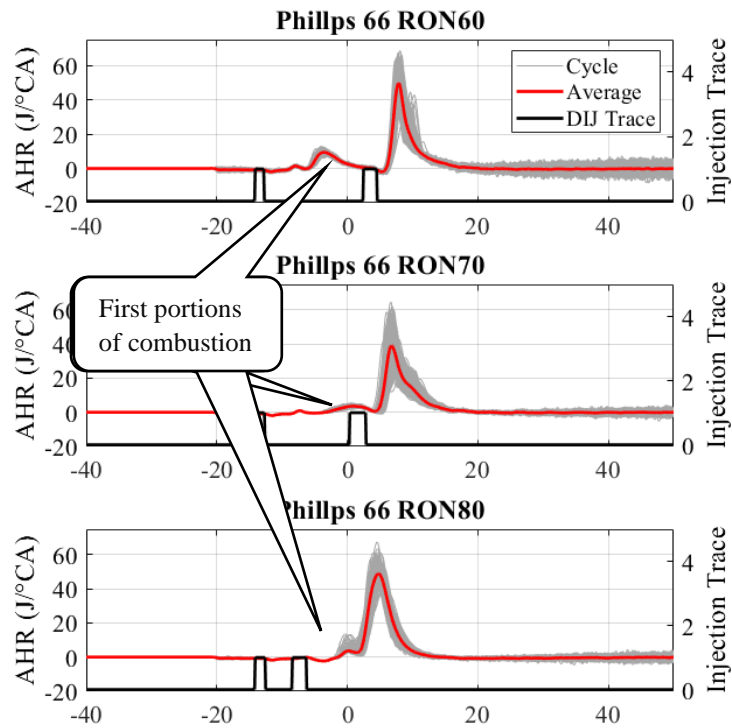


Figure 4.2. GCI operation at the idle condition (800 RPM 15N-m) with the high reactivity fuels

Table 4.1 contains the main controlled parameters for engine operation for this 800 rpm, 0.85 bar BMEP points. IAT was held constant as well as MAP, injection pressure, and pilot SOI. Main injection quantity was used to control load and main SOI was used to maintain a constant CA50 between fuels.

When operating at an idle condition with the pilot amount and SOI held constant, the effect of reactivity of the fuel is evident in the trend of main SOI to maintain constant CA50, Table 4.1. The fuel with the lowest RON, RON 60 has the latest main SOI with nearly constant CA50, Table 4.2. This trend demonstrates the effect of fuel RON on the reactivity of the fuel which is affecting the ignition delay, the time it takes the fuel to combustion after injection.

Table 4.1. Controlled parameters for 800 RPM, 0.85 bar BMEP tests

Parameter	RON80	RON70	RON60
IAT (°C)	55	55	55
MAP (kPa)	104	104	104
Injection Pressure (bar)	260	260	260
Pilot SOI (°aTDC)	-15	-15	-15
Pilot/Main (fraction)	0.38	0.5	0.38
Main SOI (°aTDC)*	-9.1	0.3	1.2
* Main SOI was varied to phase combustion			
** Main Quantity was varied to control load			

At idle, keeping the standard deviation of IMEP<sub>g</sub> below 15 kPa was able to be achieved. Table 4.2 shows the STD of IMEP<sub>g</sub> for the different fuels which were capable of sustaining combustion at idle. RON 80 required an advanced CA50 to sustain operation, even with the advanced CA50 the COV was still greater than 5%. Although this was the case, the gross indicated thermal efficiency, (gross ITE), was still the highest of the fuels.

Table 4.2. Combustion characteristics from 800 RPM 0.85 bar BMEP idle condition

Fuel	IMEPg (bar)	Gross ITE (%)	CA50 (°aTDC)	STD <sub>IMEP</sub> (kPa)	BD 10-90% (°CA)	MPPR (bar/°CA)
RON60	2.2	30.6	8.3	8	13.6	2.8
RON70	1.9	35.4	8.0	10	7.4	2.4
RON80	2.2	37.3	5.2	8	5.4	3.3

The extended burn duration of the higher reactivity fuels appears to cause a reduction in gross indicated thermal efficiency (ITE), Table 4.4. This is not necessarily the trend one would expect when increasing the reactivity of the fuel. Due to the fueling strategy used, constant pilot quantity, the combustion happened in two stages with the higher reactivity fuels. This was caused by the shorter ignition delay of the fuel meaning that the pilot had enough time to ignite and burn before the main injection occurred Figure 4.3.

Operation at low load causes large differences in the AHR of the fuel depending on the reactivity and its effect on ignition delay as well as mixing. Figure 4.3 shows the differences in AHR as reactivity increases and time allowed for mixing changes, there are two distinct peaks in heat release. This is a portion where changing the pilot timing would have possibly allowed for an efficiency increase. This was not done, for the fuel studies we tried to eliminate all the changes in independent variables possible. This allowed for the effect of the fuels to be isolated and eliminated the possibility that a change in an independent parameter changed the effect of the fuel on combustion.

Table 4.3 displays the controller parameters for tests performed at 1200 rpm and 1.7 bar BMEP. The IAT, MAP, injection pressure, and pilot SOI were held constant. The change

in pilot/main fraction for RON60 was done to maintain load by adjusting the main quantity. The increase in the quantity of fuel to maintain load can be attributed to the early combustion portion which occurred before TDC, Figure 4.3.

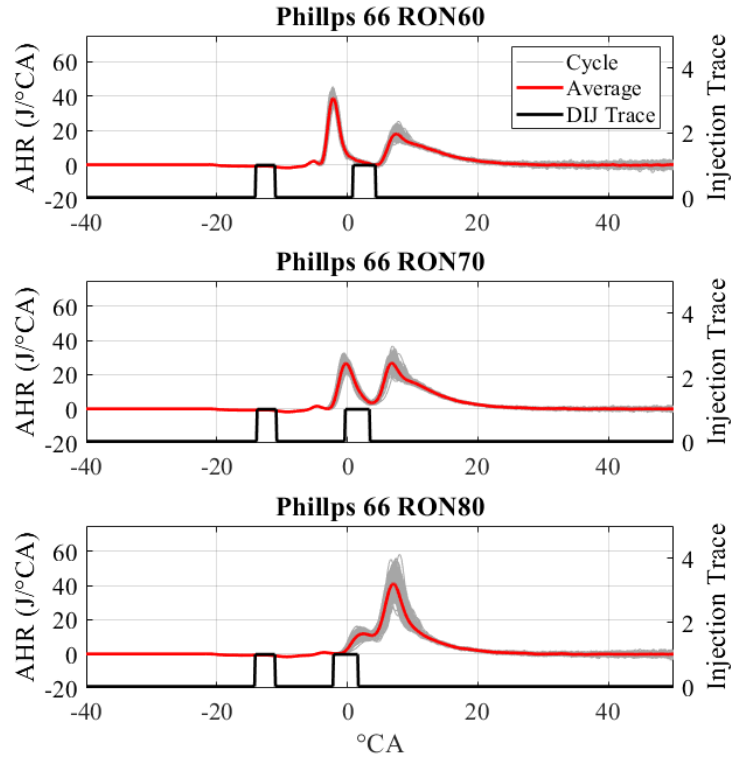


Figure 4.3. 1200 rpm 1.7 bar BMEP low load operation AHR characteristics

Table 4.3. Controlled Parameters for 1200 rpm 1.7 bar BMEP tests

Parameter	RON80	RON70	RON60
IAT (°C)	55	55	55
MAP (kPa)	120	120	120
Injection Pressure (bar)	260	260	260
Pilot SOI (°aTDC)	-15	-15	-15
Pilot/Main (fraction)	0.43	0.43	0.30
Main SOI (°aTDC)	-2.4	-1.1	1.6
* Main SOI was varied to phase combustion			
** Main Quantity was varied to control load			

When operating with a lower reactivity fuel the ignition delay is increased. This also leads to a shorter burn duration which is contributed to by the increased in-cylinder mixing. Combustion characteristics listed in Table 4.4 for the 1200 rpm 1.7 bar BMEP points show this effect is that the gross ITE is increased by 2.8%. This could be due to the

decreased in-cylinder surface area because a larger portion of the combustion is happening when the piston is higher in the cylinder. Eliminating some surface area for heat transfer to occur, meaning more of the fuel work is converted to usable work.

Table 4.4. Combustion characteristics for the three high reactivity fuels which allowed for GCI operation at 1.7 bar BMEP and 1200 RPM

<b>Fuel</b>	<b>IMEPg (bar)</b>	<b>Gross ITE (%)</b>	<b>CA50 (°aTDC)</b>	<b>COV (%)</b>	<b>BD 10-90% (°CA)</b>	<b>MPPR (bar/°CA)</b>
<b>RON60</b>	3.4	41.2	8.1	2.4	18.8	4.8
<b>RON70</b>	3.4	43.6	7.6	2.4	14.8	2.5
<b>RON80</b>	3.5	44.0	7.6	2.5	9.6	2.3

To compare each of the fuels at a low load, 3 bar BMEP was chosen to analyze because each of the Phillips 66 fuels as well as the baseline pump gasoline operated with good stability defined by the COV of IMEP<sub>g</sub> being below 3%, Table 4.5. The AHR curves shown in Figure 4.4 and Figure 4.5, demonstrate the effect of the different fuels on ignition delay and the rate of heat release. As increasing RON, the peak heat release rate increases as well as the early portion of heat release caused by the pilot injection igniting before the main moves toward the main heat release. When conducting these experiments there were parameters controlled, listed along with their corresponding values for each fuel, in Table 4.5. IAT, MAP, and injection pressure were held constant for each fuel. Pilot SOI was retarded for the RON 91 E10 fuel to decrease combustion noise for that fuel. The pilot/main fraction was held near 0.20 for each fuel and the main SOI was used to maintain a constant CA50 across all fuels.

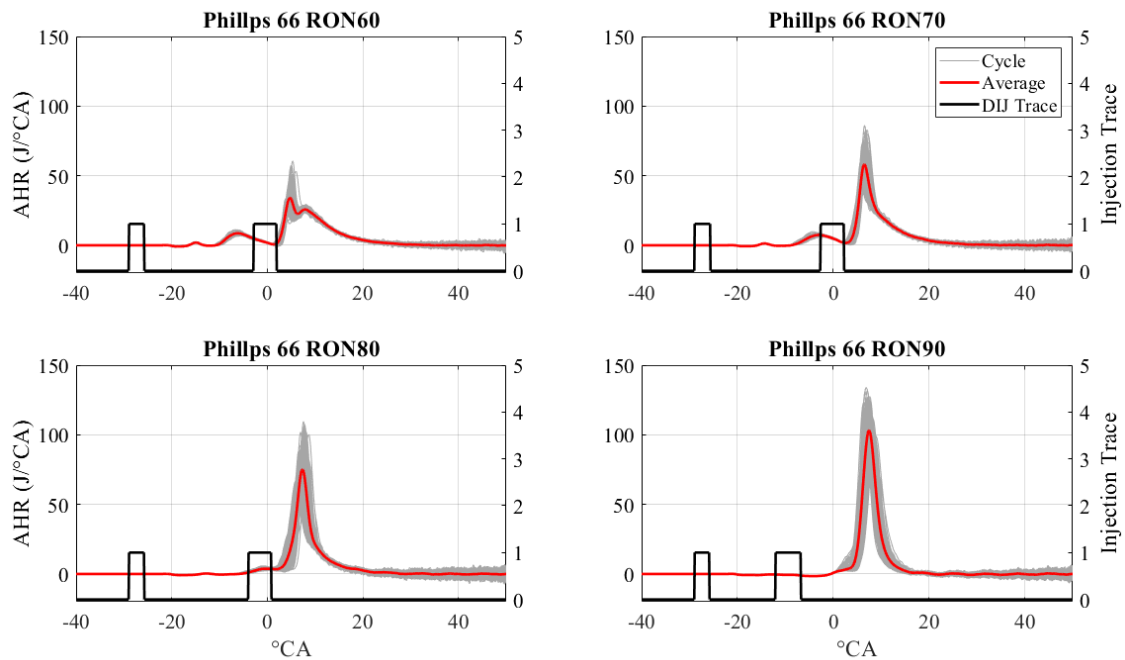


Figure 4.4. AHR comparison for the Phillips 66 fuels tested at 1200 RPM, 3 bar BMEP

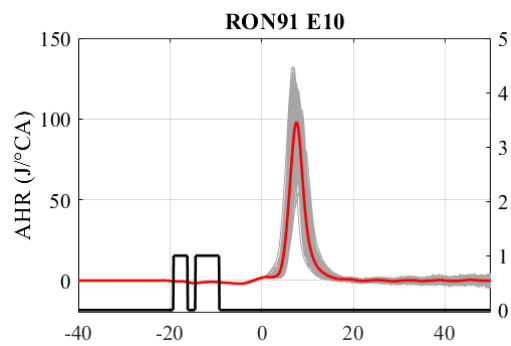


Figure 4.5. RON91 E10 fuel at 1200 rpm, 3 bar BMEP

Table 4.5. Controlled Parameters for 1200 RPM 3 bar BMEP tests

Parameter	RON91 E10	RON91	RON80	RON70	RON60
IAT (°C)	55	55	55	55	55
MAP (kPa)	125	125	125	125	125
Injection Pressure (bar)	260	260	260	260	260
Pilot SOI (°aTDC)	-20	-30	-30	-30	-30
Pilot/Main (fraction)	0.21	0.18	0.21	0.21	0.21
Main SOI (°aTDC)	-13.7	-11.9	-4.3	-3.3	-3.4
* Main SOI was varied to phase combustion					
** Main Quantity was varied to control load					

At 3 bar BMEP and 1200 rpm, five fuels were tested, the effect of the reactivity on the combustion characteristics examined in Table 4.6 shows that each fuel performs well at this load, combustion is stable with a COV of  $IMEP_g < 3\%$ , and the MPRR is below the 10 bar/°CA limit. Significant differences are shown in the MPRR, where the lower reactivity fuels with short burn durations have the highest pressure rise rates. The effect of fuel reactivity on gross ITE is shown as well. It can be noted that the highest reactivity fuel is 1.8% more efficient than the lowest reactivity fuel. Peak gross ITE occurs at a RON of 80 at 46%. This can be attributed to the heat release happening as one event, without distinct early portions and late portions, as well as the peak rate of heat release not being as high as the lowest reactivity fuels. Lower peak heat release rates point to decreased in-cylinder temperatures which decrease heat transfer.

Table 4.6. Combustion characteristics for 1200 RPM 3 bar BMEP

Fuel	IMEP <sub>g</sub> (bar)	Gross ITE (%)	CA50 (°aTDC)	COV (%)	BD 10-90% (°CA)	MPRR (bar/°CA)
RON60	4.6	44.7	7.5	1.7	20.3	2.3
RON70	4.7	45.4	7.5	1.9	14.5	3.4
RON80	4.6	46.0	7.7	1.8	8.4	4.7
RON91	4.7	41.0	7.7	2.0	4.6	6.7
RON91 E10	4.7	42.9	7.8	1.7	4.6	6.3

#### 4.1.2 Medium Load

Medium load testing was conducted at 1200, and 1500 RPM with GCI operation. The primary constraints for medium load GCI operation are combustion stability and MPRR and for this, the COV of  $IMEP_g$  was considered with a threshold of 3% and the MPRR < 10 bar/°CA.



Each fuel was tested at the medium load points and a load sweep was done from 125 Nm, 7.1 bar BMEP, down, the points which will be examined are around 80 Nm, 4.6 bar BMEP for most of the discussion. The RON 60 from Phillips 66 was not tested at the 100 Nm and 125 Nm points because of the low supply of that blend due to the need to splash blend the biofuel blends. Another condition to be noted is that for the 36.6% Ethanol and the 51.2% Iso-Butanol the IAT had to be raised to 75°C instead of 55°C which is what was used for the rest of the fuels.

Figure 4.6 displays the ranges of medium loads and speeds tested for each fuel. Not all fuels were tested at the lower 1200 RPM speed because of the quantity on hand. The dataset which was gathered at 1500 RPM will be focused on as it has the most comprehensive dataset for this load range.

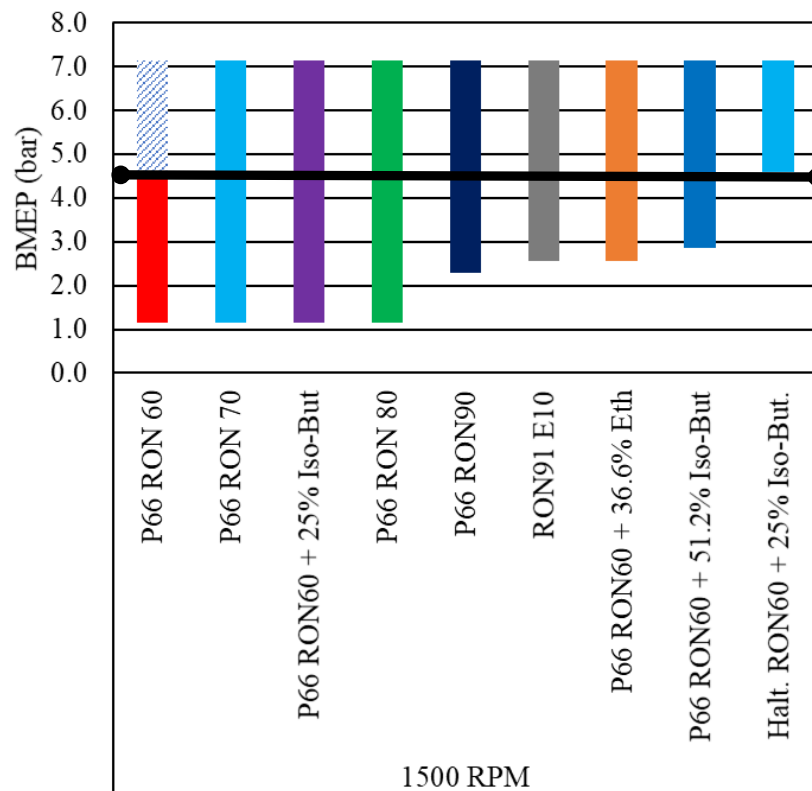


Figure 4.6. Medium load GCI test points. Solid horizontal black lines signify the loads which are looked at in-depth in the following section. (Solid bars signify tests were carried out at these regions, hashed means operation was assumed but not tested for this load)

With the higher RON fuels, the pilot burns simultaneously with the main injection but with the lower RON fuels, the start of the pilot burn is before the main injection has even started. The apparent heat release of the Phillips 66 RON70 and the RON91 E10 baseline are compared in the top row of Figure 4.7. From the overlay of injection trace, it can be

observed that the two fuels have different ignition delays. The differences in apparent heat release can be contributed to the differences in ignition delay, causing variance in the amount of in-cylinder mixing that takes place before combustion begins. The Phillips 66 RON 91 demonstrated similar performance to that of the RON91 E10 baseline at the medium loads, Table 4.7

Figure 4.7 also shows the apparent heat release for the RON80 and RON60 from Phillips 66 in the lower row. A large difference in heat release characteristics can be observed. Ignition delay is decreased drastically with the lower RON. This shorter ignition delay allows for the RON80 and RON60 to operate at lower loads extending the GCI operation regime to lower loads.

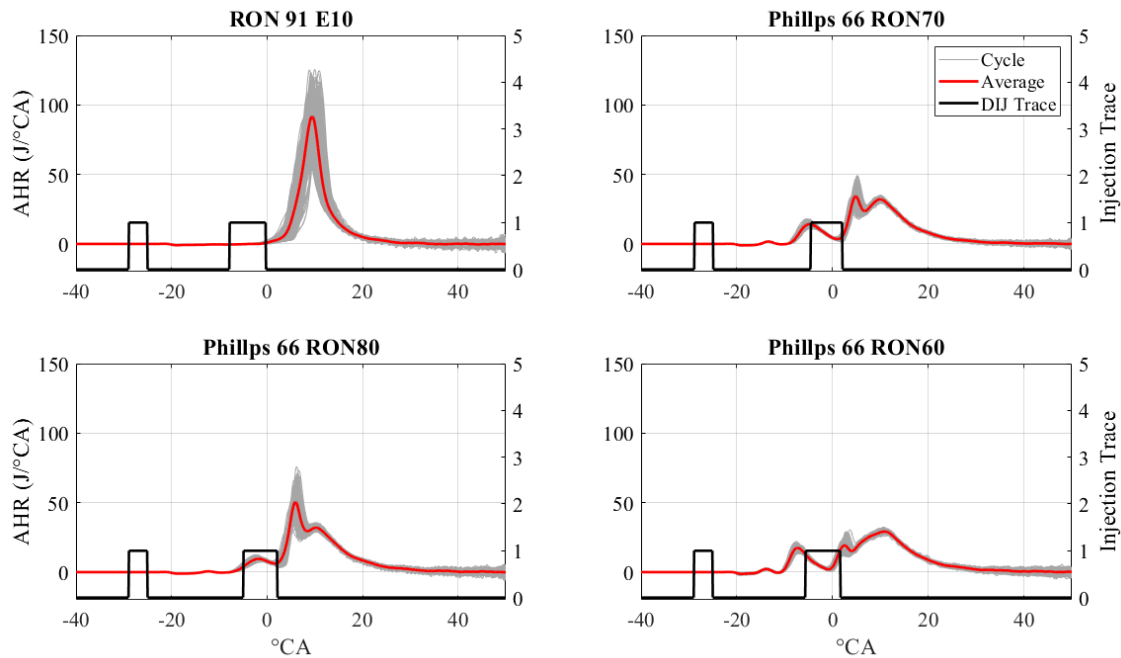


Figure 4.7. AHR Comparison between RON91 E10 Baseline, Phillips 66 RON80, RON70, ad RON60 at 4.6 bar BMEP and 1500 RPM

Table 4.7. Control Parameters for 1500 rpm, 4.6 bar BMEP operation with the following five fuels

Parameter	RON91 E10	RON91	RON80	RON70	RON60
IAT (°C)	55	55	55	55	55
MAP (kPa)	150	150	150	150	150
Injection Pressure (bar)	300	300	300	300	300
Pilot SOI (°aTDC)	-30	-30	-30	-30	-30
Pilot/Main (fraction)	0.19	0.20	0.21	0.23	0.19
Main SOI (°aTDC)	-8.6	-7.1	-5.5	-5.2	-6.3
* Main SOI was varied to phase combustion					
** Main Quantity was varied to control load					

The differences in the combustion characteristics of the fuels in Table 4.8 such as burn duration (10-90%) show that the difference in reactivity influences the combustion significantly. The gross indicated efficiency displays a benefit as the reactivity increases by 2.2% as well. The trend of burn duration increasing as reactivity increases show a strong relationship, increasing from 8.2°CA to 24.1°CA.

Table 4.8. Combustion characteristics for the four fuels at the 1500 RPM 4.6 bar BMEP point

Fuel	IMEP <sub>g</sub> (bar)	Gross ITE (%)	CA50 (°aTDC)	COV (%)	BD 10-90% (°CA)	MPRR (bar/°CA)
RON91 E10	6.8	45.4	9.7	1.2	8.2	5.1
RON80	6.8	47.1	9.1	1.3	15.8	2.7
RON70	6.7	47.6	9.0	1.3	20.9	2.8
RON60	6.8	48.1	9.2	1.2	24.1	3.2

A blend of 25% iso-butanol and 75% Phillips 66 RON 60 was also tested which had a RON value of 77.8. The heat release characteristics are similar to that of the RON 80 from Phillips 66 with similar ignition delay and peak heat release rate, Figure 4.8. This blend also allowed for low load extension when compared to the baseline. Similarities between the heat release of the two fuels are evident in Figure 4.8 where the injection traces also display similar main injection SOIs in Table 4.9 of -5.5 and -6.5°aTDC to achieve similar CA50s.

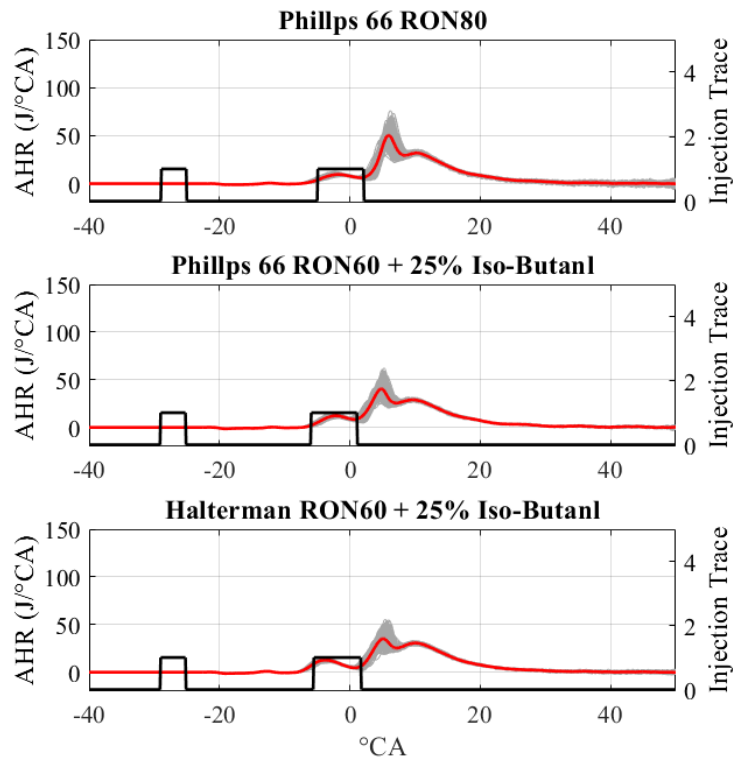


Figure 4.8. Comparison of the AHR characteristics of two fuels with approximately equivalent RONs of 80 at 1500 rpm and 4.6 bar BMEP

When testing the two Iso-Butanol blended fuels, the control parameters all demonstrated similar behaviors at achieve the same operation condition, Table 4.9. There is a discrepancy in the main injection SOI 1°CA, the difference is also apparent in the combustion characteristics of the tests, Table 4.10. The CA50s are  $\pm 1^\circ\text{CA}$  different as well demonstrating the fuels perform similarly.

Table 4.9. Control parameters for two RON80 fuels at 1500 rpm and 4.6 bar BMEP

Parameter	RON80	IB25 Gas P66	IB25 Gas Halt.
IAT (°C)	55	55	55
MAP (kPa)	150	150	150
Injection Pressure (bar)	300	300	300
Pilot SOI (°aTDC)	-30	-30	-30
Pilot/Main (fraction)	0.21	0.21	0.18
Main SOI (°aTDC)	-5.0	-6.0	-5.6
* Main SOI was varied to phase combustion			
** Main Quantity was varied to control load			

Combustion of the two fuels with RON values near 80 demonstrated similar combustion characteristics and performance results at the common 80 4.6 bar BMEP 1500 rpm test point. BD10-90% ranges from 18° to 20.7°CA and Gross ITE ranges from 45.5% to 46.0% in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10. Combustion characteristics of the three RON80 fuels tested at a medium load

<b>Fuel</b>	<b>IMEP<sub>g</sub> (bar)</b>	<b>Gross ITE (%)</b>	<b>CA50 (°aTDC)</b>	<b>COV (%)</b>	<b>BD 10-90% (°CA)</b>	<b>MPRR (bar/°CA)</b>
<b>RON80</b>	6.4	46.0	9.4	1.1	18.0	3.4
<b>IB25 Gas P66</b>	6.1	45.9	8.6	1.1	19.3	3.0
<b>IB25 gas Hant.</b>	6.2	45.5	9.2	1.1	20.7	2.5

A blend with the Phillips 66 RON60 and 51.2% iso-butanol (IB51) by volume was tested as well as a blend with Phillips 66 RON60 and 36.6% ethanol (ETH36). These blends proved to be difficult to operate with, at the base point of 80Nm with a CA50 of 10°aTDC with an IAT of 55°C operation was not possible. To overcome this, the IAT was increased incrementally until the stable operation was achieved at an IAT of 75°C for these fuels. Note, the results shown for IB51 gas and EH36 gas at 1500 rpm were performed at this elevated IAT of 75°C. With the elevated IATs for the IB51 and ETH36, the results were similar to those of the neat RON 91 from Phillips 66 and the RON 91 E10 baseline fuel.

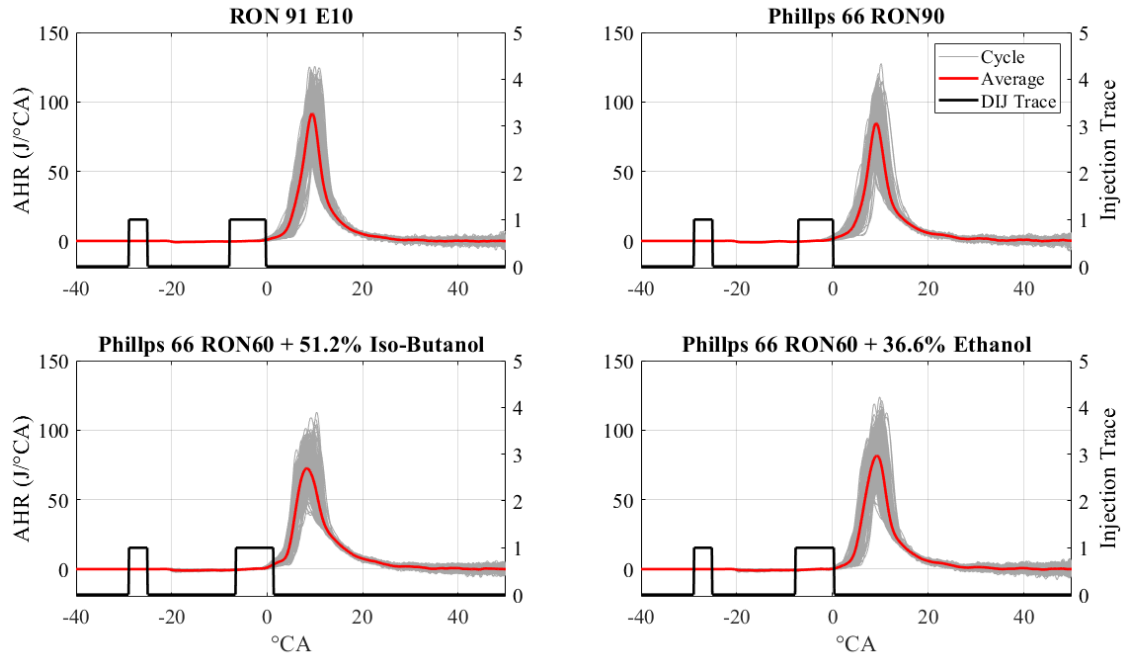


Figure 4.9. Shows the four fuels with RONs 89-94, they all have similar heat release characteristics as well as demonstrated similar low load limits. IAT was raised 20°C for stable operation of the two alcohol blends

The main difference is the elevated IAT for the splash-blended alcohol blends, Table 4.11. The main SOIs are slightly different but the elevated IAT would be expected to decrease ignition delay allowing for SOI to be retarded at a constant combustion phasing.

Table 4.11. Control Parameters for RON 91 fuels at 1500 rpm, 4.6 bar BMEP

Parameter	RON91 E10	RON90	IB51 Gas	ETH 36 gas
IAT (°C)	55	55	75	75
MAP (kPa)	150	150	150	150
Injection Pressure (bar)	300	300	300	300
Pilot SOI (°aTDC)	-30	-30	-30	-30
Pilot/Main (fraction)	0.19	0.2	0.17	0.17
Main SOI (°aTDC)	-8.6	-7.1	-6.1	-6.8
* Main SOI was varied to phase combustion				
** Main Quantity was varied to control load				

A comparison of the combustion metrics and ITE is given in Table 4.12. The differences in the combustion characteristics of the four fuels are minimal regarding the burn duration and ignition delay at this speed-load. Results do show a slight gross ITE benefit for the alcohol blends over the neat fuels, neat fuels having an ITE of 44.4% and IB51 gas ITE of 49.0%.

Table 4.12. Combustion Characteristics of the four RON91 fuels at 1500 rpm, 4.6 bar BMEP point

<b>Fuel</b>	<b>IMEP<sub>g</sub> (bar)</b>	<b>Gross ITE (%)</b>	<b>CA50 (°aTDC)</b>	<b>COV (%)</b>	<b>BD 10- 90% (°CA)</b>	<b>MPRR (bar/°CA)</b>
<b>RON91 E10</b>	6.8	45.4	9.7	1.2	8.2	5.1
<b>RON91</b>	6.7	44.4	9.6	1.3	9.0	4.9
<b>EH37 Gas</b>	6.9	47.7	9.7	2.1	8.1	5.0
<b>IB51 Gas</b>	6.9	49.0	9.6	1.8	10.0	4.3

The medium load testing at 1500 rpm showed that fuel with a RON of 80 allowed for GCI operation to be extended significantly. Furthermore, the two RON 80 fuels that were tested, P66 RON80 and IB25 Gas, both the P66 and Halterman blend, each showed similar results at this speed-load Table 4.10.

### 4.1.3 High Load

Regarding higher load testing, the loads tested were 10 and 15 bar BMEP. At these loads all the fuels were not tested, the supply was limited and at higher speed and load the consumption of fuel per test point is much higher, so the focus was on the fuels which the most potential was seen in the 1500 rpm, medium load testing.

Experiments were conducted with the RON 70, RON 80, IB25 gas, IB51 gas as well as RON 91 E10 pump fuel for 10 bar BMEP at 2000 rpm and 15 bar, 2200 rpm the IB25 gas with the Halterman fuel was used along with the RON 91 E10. The results of these experiments are discussed in the following section.

Figure 4.10 shows the fuels which were tested at the higher loads, based upon the results from the low and medium load testing, it was determined that fuel with a RON of 70 or greater was going to be the fuel to focus on. This and the lack of supply of fuel determined that we would not perform experiments with the RON 60 at these higher loads.

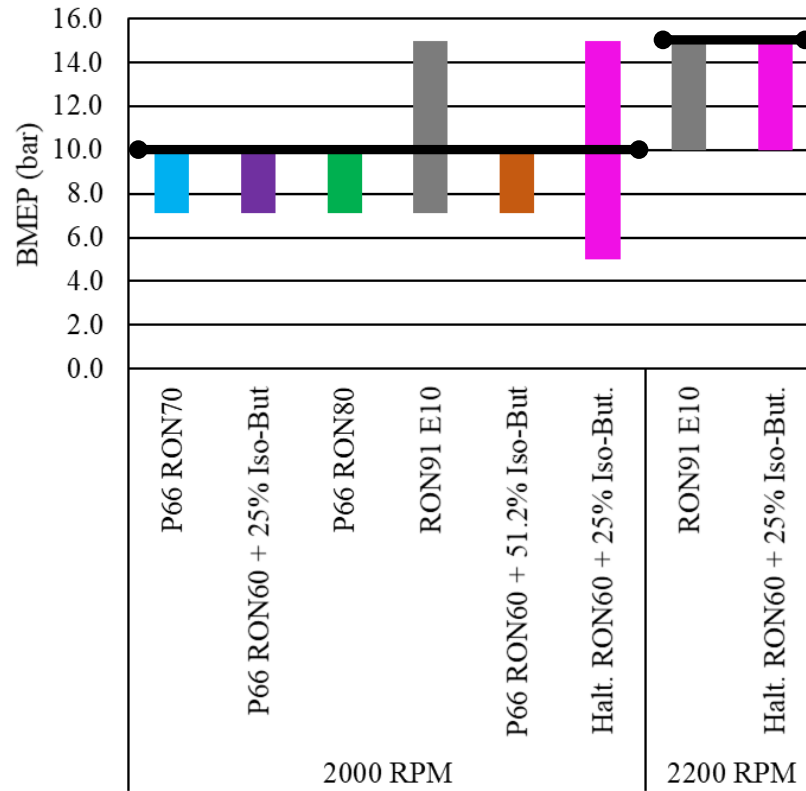


Figure 4.10. Load points tested for the highest load range tested Solid horizontal black lines signify the loads which are examined at in-depth in the following section. (Solid bars signify tests were carried out at these regions, hashed means operation was assumed for this load)

For these experiments, the pilot timing and amount were not able to be held constant because of the effect of the pilot on combustion knock amplitude and pressure rise rates. With the increased amount of fuel overall in the combustion chamber, these parameters could be potentially damaging to the hardware so mitigation with changes to the pilot injection was employed. At the higher load, extended burn duration can be seen in Figure 4.11 for each fuel at the 10 bar 2000 RPM operating point.



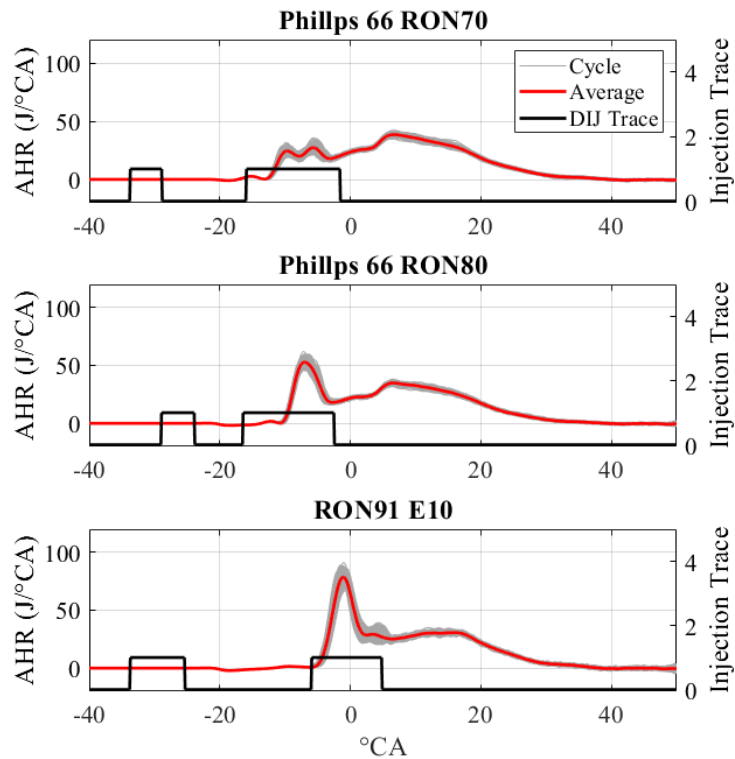


Figure 4.11. 2000 RPM, 10 bar BMEP neat fuels, apparent heat release comparison

During operation with each fuel, although there is a difference in reactivity between them, the trends from the low and medium load testing concerning main SOI are not followed. This is due to the variation in pilot timing and amount, for example in Table 4.13 the fuel which was found to be the lowest reactivity has the latest main SOI as well as the most fuel injected in the pilot, causing the most fuel to be premixed.

Table 4.13. Control parameters for 2000 RPM 10 bar BMEP operation

Parameter	RON91 E10	RON80	RON70
IAT (°C)	55	55	55
MAP (kPa)	220	220	220
Injection Pressure (bar)	350	350	350
Pilot SOI (°aTDC)	-35	-30	-35
Pilot/Main (fraction)	0.38	0.15	0.15
Main SOI (°aTDC)*	-11.6	-17.0	-14.5
* Main SOI was varied to phase combustion			
** Main Quantity was varied to control load			

Table 4.14. Combustion characteristics of neat fuels at 10 bar BMEP

Fuel	IMEP <sub>g</sub> (bar)	Gross ITE (%)	CA50 (°aTDC)	COV (%)	BD 10-90% (°CA)	MPRR (bar/°CA)
<b>RON70</b>	12.2	46.2	8.4	1.5	32.4	5.2
<b>RON80</b>	12.1	46.0	7.4	1.5	31.4	8.2
<b>RON91 E10</b>	12.0	45.9	8.4	1.4	28.2	7.8

The two iso-butanol blends which were tested at 10 bar BMEP both operated well as expected being at an upper-medium load. With the IB51 gas, there was a higher peak heat release rate and from Figure 4.12 it can be seen that the IB51 main portion of heat release starts later than the other two fuels. The two IB25 gas blends have a distinct early portion and then another peak before tailing off.

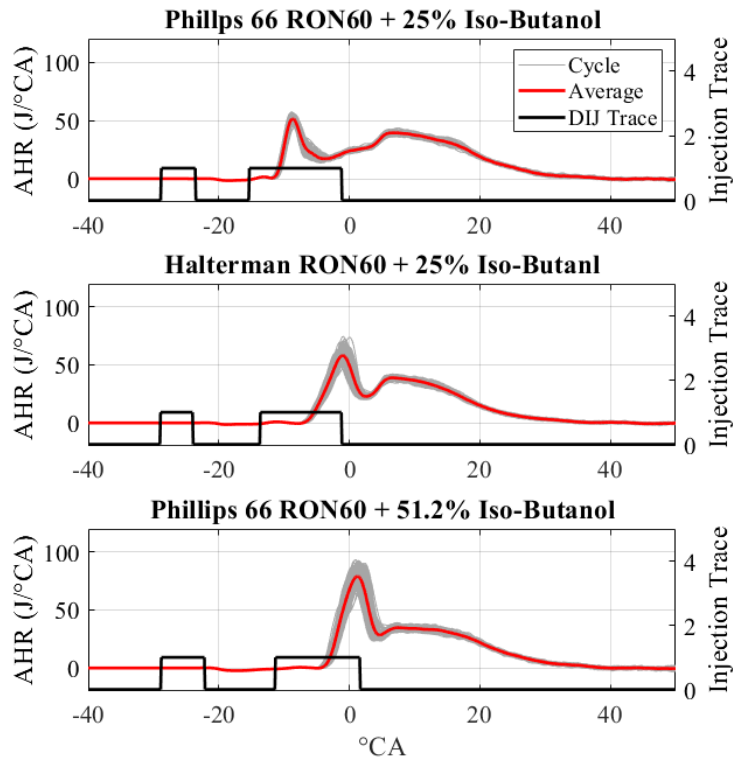


Figure 4.12. 2000 RPM 10 bar BMEP heat release comparison of the three iso-butanol blends tested

See the difference in main injection SOI for the IB51 gas when compared to the IB25 gas in Table 4.15. The effect of the larger amount of fuel in the pilot allowed for a later main injection with similar combustion phasing to the IB25 gas. Note the larger pilot amount allows for more premixing to occur, this resulted in higher heat release rates, Figure 4.12.

Table 4.15. Control Parameters for Iso-Butanol blends at 2000 RPM, 10 bar BMEP

Parameter	IB51 Gas	IB25 Gas P66	IB25 gas Halt.
IAT (°C)	55	55	55
MAP (kPa)	220	220	157
Injection Pressure (bar)	350	350	400
Pilot SOI (°aTDC)	-30	-30	-30
Pilot/Main (fraction)	0.31	0.15	0.2
Main SOI (°aTDC)*	-12.1	-16.0	-14.0
* Main SOI was varied to phase combustion			
** Main Quantity was varied to control load			

Table 4.16 shows combustion with the lower reactivity having a shorter duration, following the trend noted in the low and medium load testing. The Haltermann fuel and Phillips 66 fuel have differences in burn duration which are caused by AFR differences. The Haltermann fuel was tested at a lower AFR than the Phillips 66 fuel at this point, Table 4.15 shows the lower MAP. This was done to minimize pumping losses with that fuel to see if there was a benefit in BTE. The fuels were determined to be similar and able to be used for comparison based on a comparison between the Haltermann fuel and Phillips 66 fuel performance was done at the common point of 80 Nm 1500 rpm with the same AFR as well as injection timings and CA50.

Table 4.16. Combustion characteristics from the iso-butanol blends at 2000 RPM 10 bar BMEP

Fuel	IMEP <sub>g</sub> (bar)	Gross ITE (%)	CA50 (°aTDC)	COV (%)	BD 10-90% (°CA)	MPRR (bar/°CA)
IB51 Gas	12.3	48.0	8.4	0.8	22.3	8.1
IB25 Gas P66	12.6	46.9	7.5	0.8	28.9	7.9
IB25 Gas Halt.	11.0	46.2	7.5	1.0	22.0	6.9

Continued testing was completed with additional fuel sourced from Haltermann which met the RON 60 specifications of the Phillips 66 RON 60 to be blended with Iso-Butanol. This additional fuel allowed for expanded high load testing to be conducted to explore the efficiency of the current system with a fuel that allowed for lower load operations to be carried out.

The highest load tested was 2200 rpm and 15 bar BMEP. At this speed-load point only two of the fuels were tested, the Haltermann IB25 gas and the RON 91 E10. Figure 4.13 shows the difference in the AHR traces between the two fuels. Trends of the fuel with the lower reactivity having the higher peak heat release rate continue with these speed-load points. Peak heat release rates are significantly different for the two fuels with the

Halterman RON 60 peaking at 75 J/°CA whereas the RON 91 E10 peaks at 150 J/°CA, Figure 4.13.

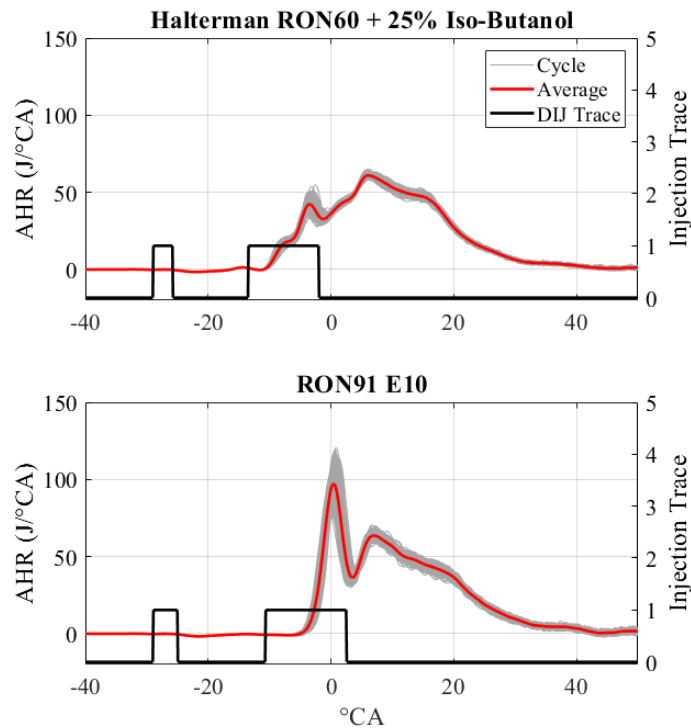


Figure 4.13. 2200 rpm 15 bar BMEP heat release comparison of the Halterman IB25 gas and the RON91 E10 fuel

At these high load points, the injection pressure was found to affect knock and pressure rise rate. To minimize these two parameters the injection pressure was varied between the two fuels, Table 4.17. the control parameters are otherwise similar including the pilot timing and fraction of fuel mass injected.

Table 4.17. Control Parameters for 15 bar BMEP 2200 rpm test points

Parameter	IB25 Gas	RON91 E10
IAT (°C)	55	55
MAP (kPa)	200.9	203.6
Injection Pressure (bar)	800	650
Pilot SOI (°aTDC)	-30	-30
Pilot/Main (fraction)	0.10	0.15
Main SOI (°aTDC)*		
* Main SOI was varied to phase combustion		
** Main Quantity was varied to control load		

When comparing the performance of the two fuels there is a benefit of 0.8% ITE with the IB25 gas over the RON 91 E10 fuel. As well as a benefit of having a MPRR of 6.8 bar/°CA vs the RON 91 E10 fuel having an MPRR exceeding the limit at 10.5 bar/°CA, Table 4.18. Due to the high MPRR, the CA50 could not be advanced to the same point as the IB25 gas coming up 1.9°CA short which could be a contributing factor to the efficiency deficit.

Table 4.18. Combustion characteristics for 15 bar BMEP and 2200 RPM

<b>Fuel</b>	<b>IMEP<sub>g</sub> (bar)</b>	<b>Gross ITE (%)</b>	<b>CA50 (°aTDC)</b>	<b>COV (%)</b>	<b>BD 10-90% (°CA)</b>	<b>MPRR (bar/°CA)</b>
<b>IB25 Gas</b>	17.0	45.6	8.8	0.7	25.5	6.8
<b>RON91 E10</b>	16.8	44.8	10.7	0.8	24.7	10.5

## 4.2 Impacts on Gross Indicated Efficiency

### 4.2.1 Combustion Phasing

To demonstrate the effect of combustion phasing on performance with each fuel in compression ignition mode, at the 1500 rpm 80 Nm common point, a sweep of combustion phasing was done. When varying combustion phasing, the pilot timing and amount were held constant across all fuels and each test point to eliminate the effects of the pilot from the equation. To vary combustion phasing, the main injection timing was used. The timing was varied by the controller to meet targeted combustion phasing with the closed-loop combustion phasing control on an individual cylinder basis.

Figure 4.14 shows the effect of combustion phasing on the gross indicated thermal efficiency. As the results show, there is little effect on the efficiency when sweeping combustion phasing across this range. Combustion phasing was not optimized for this testing so there is still a possibility of some efficiency gains by advancing combustion. There is as difference between fuels, showing that there is a 3.5% increase depending on fuel selection. This trend shows does not appear to follow any trend with RON or reactivity of the fuel. Errors in fuel flow measurements caused by fuel vaporization in the return system caused variance in the ITE values. The tests with IB25 from Halterman does not have this issue, the system was revise multiple times to minimize fuel vaporization. Though there is an increase in peak cylinder pressure as well as maximum pressure rise rate causing an increase in peak cylinder temperature which leads to higher emissions of NO<sub>x</sub>, Figure 4.15 when advancing combustion.

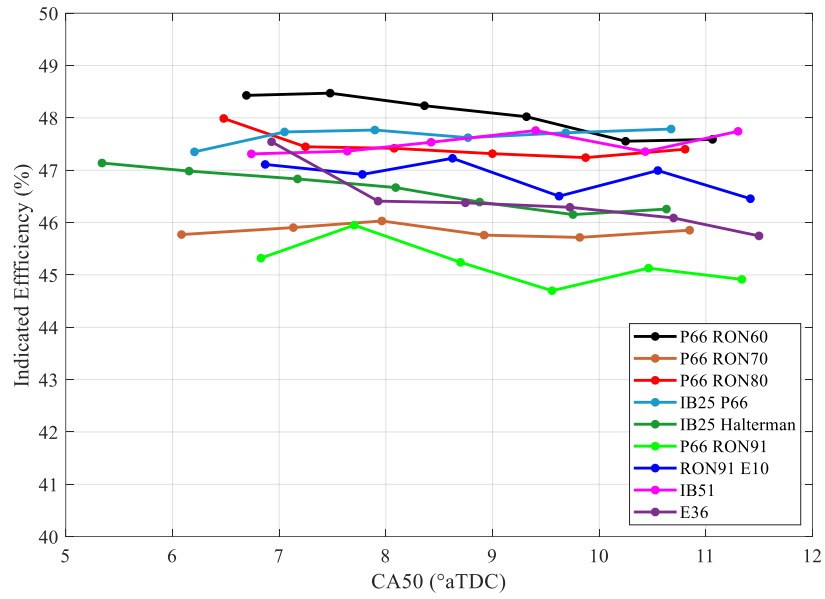


Figure 4.14. The effect of combustion phasing on the gross indicated efficiency at 1500 rpm, 4.6 bar BMEP

Figure 4.15 also shows grouping of the fuels, the fuels with a RON > 90 are higher than the fuels with a RON < 90. This grouping can be attributed to the two-stage heat release that is happening for the fuels with a RON < 90, Figure 4.16.

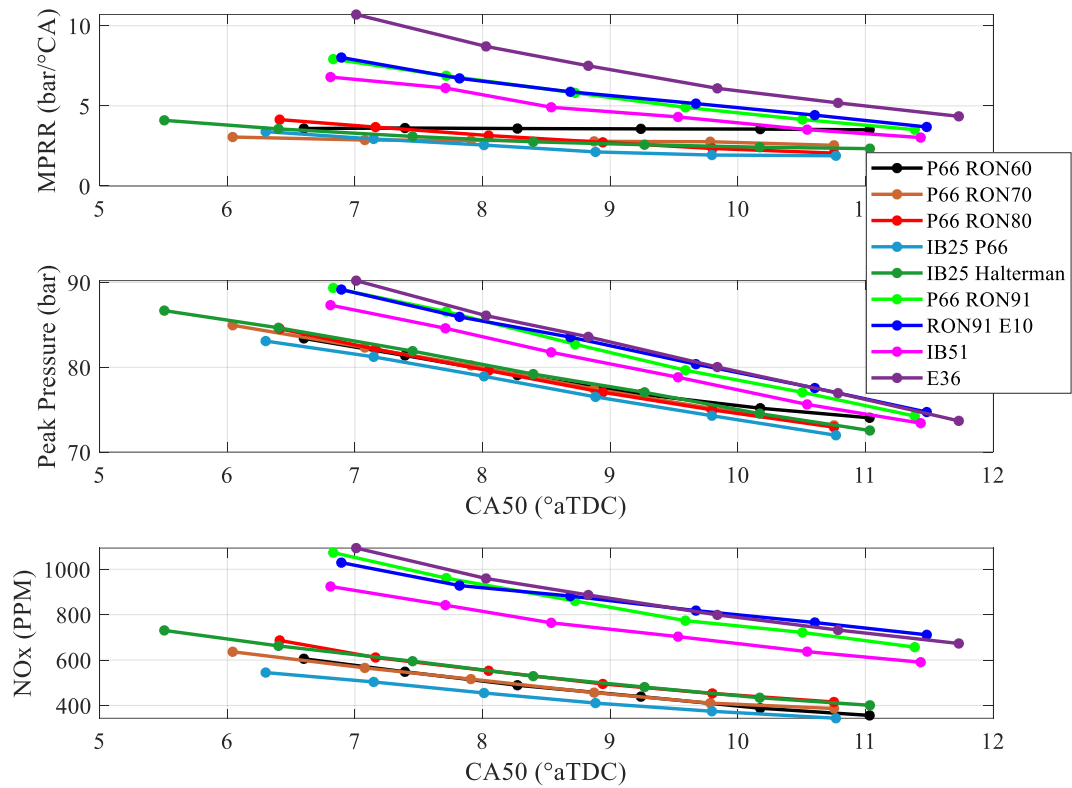


Figure 4.15. Effect on combustion phasing on MPRR and peak cylinder pressure, and NOx concentration at 1500 rpm, 4.6 bar BMEP

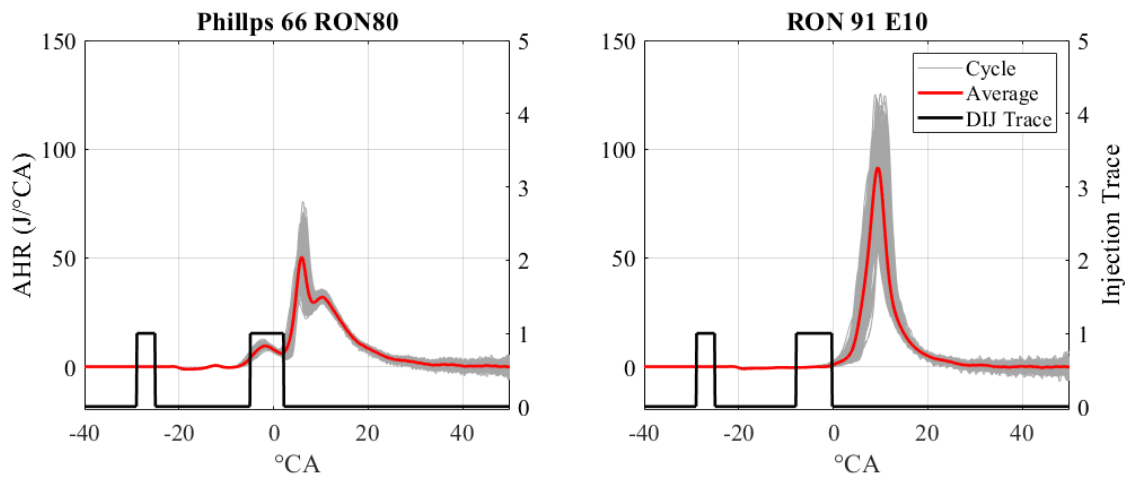


Figure 4.16. Heat release for a fuel with a RON > than 90 and a RON < 90 showing the two-stage heat release with the RON < 90 which is believed to cause the grouping in performance parameters at 1500 rpm, 4.6 bar BMEP

## 4.2.2 Fuel Rail Pressure

Changes in fuel rail pressure (FRP) yielded little change in the AHR for each of the fuels which were tested, Figure 4.17. The injection pressures tested were different for each fuel because of injection pressure on the maximum pressure rise rate, Table 4.19.

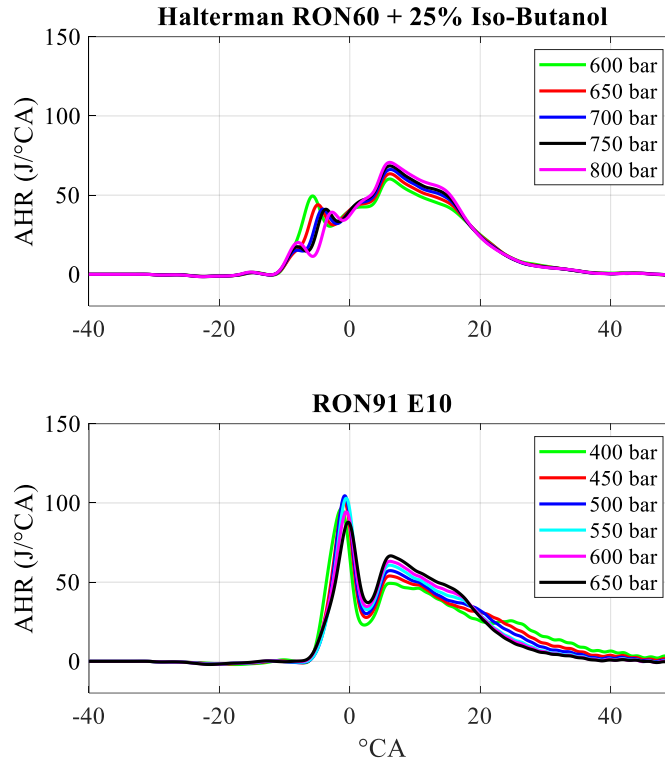


Figure 4.17. AHR Traces for 2000 rpm 15 bar BMEP varying injection pressure

Table 4.19 shows the trend of the maximum pressure rise rate for the IB25 gas showing that the increase in fuel rail pressure causes a decrease in the maximum pressure rise rate. The fuel being injected at a higher pressure decreases the ignition delay causing the charge to have less time to mix. Having less time to mix means that the charge is locally rich where combustion is happening, slowing down the flame kernel because it is propagating as the charge is mixing. For the RON 91 E10 fuel, the trend is not the same, the maximum pressure rise rate remains nearly the same for the range tested. This could be due to the longer ignition delay of the lower reactivity RON 91 E10, this longer ignition delay means that the injection pressure would have to be higher in order to possibly see the benefits. Testing this theory was not possible because of the high MPRR observed with the RON 91 E10. Testing higher pressures was not done to prevent engine damage.

There was a slight benefit in the gross ITE for each of the fuels when increasing fuel rail pressure. Though this benefit was small for the IB25 gas the increase shown was 0.4%. For these tests, the CA50 was held constant when possible. The benefit was more



significant for the RON 91 E10 fuel, showing an increase of 4.3%, the large increase could be attributed to the increase in FRP allowing CA50 to be advanced due to the MPRR decreasing.

The limit encountered was a maximum pressure rise rate of 10 bar/°CA. For the IB25 gas, there was no issue maintaining a combustion phasing of 8°aTDC. The RON 91 E10 fuel did encounter the MPRR limit for all of the experiments. After processing the absolute values of the maximum pressure rise rate were found to exceed the limit of 10 bar/°CA. To prevent damage to the engine combustion was retarded for the first three cases, 400, 450, and 500 bar fuel rail pressure. Realtime monitoring of the maximum pressure rise rate showed to be exceeding the limit even at a slightly retarded CA50. The factors causing this phenomenon are believed to be increased ignition delay allowing for increased mixing and a more homogenous charge rather than the more stratified charge from the increased reactivity fuel. The ignition delay effects are explored in Section 4.4 below.

Table 4.19. Combustion parameters for 2000 RPM 15 bar BMEP

<b>Fuel</b>	<b>IMEP<sub>g</sub> (bar)</b>	<b>Gross ITE (%)</b>	<b>CA50 (°aTDC)</b>	<b>COV (%)</b>	<b>BD 10- 90% (°CA)</b>	<b>FRP (bar)</b>	<b>MPRR (bar/°CA)</b>
<b>IB25 Gas</b>	16.6	45.5	7.5	0.8	25.7	600	7.4
	16.6	45.7	7.8	0.7	24.5	650	6.7
	16.6	45.7	8.0	0.7	23.6	700	6.2
	16.8	45.7	8.0	0.6	23.2	750	6.1
	16.8	45.9	8.3	0.6	22.5	800	5.7
<b>RON91 E10</b>	16.5	42.7	10.1	0.6	32.3	400	11.2
	16.6	44.7	9.4	0.6	29.8	450	11.9
	16.7	45.3	8.8	0.7	25.5	500	12.4
	16.7	47.0	8.3	0.7	23.3	550	12.2
	16.8	47.5	8.3	0.6	22.8	600	11.1
	16.8	47.4	8.4	1.0	22.0	650	10.4

## 4.3 Emissions

When the RON of the fuel changes, there is a clear trend in how the burn duration is affected which was highlighted in Section 4.1. As the burn duration decreases, this means that there is an increase in peak cylinder pressure, increasing peak cylinder temperature. Heywood shows how the production of NO<sub>x</sub> gas is directly related to the temperature of the gases in the cylinder and the relative air-fuel ratio [6]. Trends that represent this were found with the testing of the varying reactivity fuels. Although, this trend is opposite of what is preferential for efficiency to an extent as shown in the tables of combustion parameters in 4.1.

As the RON of the fuel increases the fuel has more time to mix in-cylinder before ignition. When the fuel finally ignites, the burn happens at a much higher rate, shown by the burn durations in the combustion parameter tables listed in 4.1.

NO<sub>x</sub> emissions for these results showed that for a given fuel, as ignition delay increases the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions decrease. Along with this, peak cylinder pressure, and maximum pressure rise rate decrease, Figure 4.18.

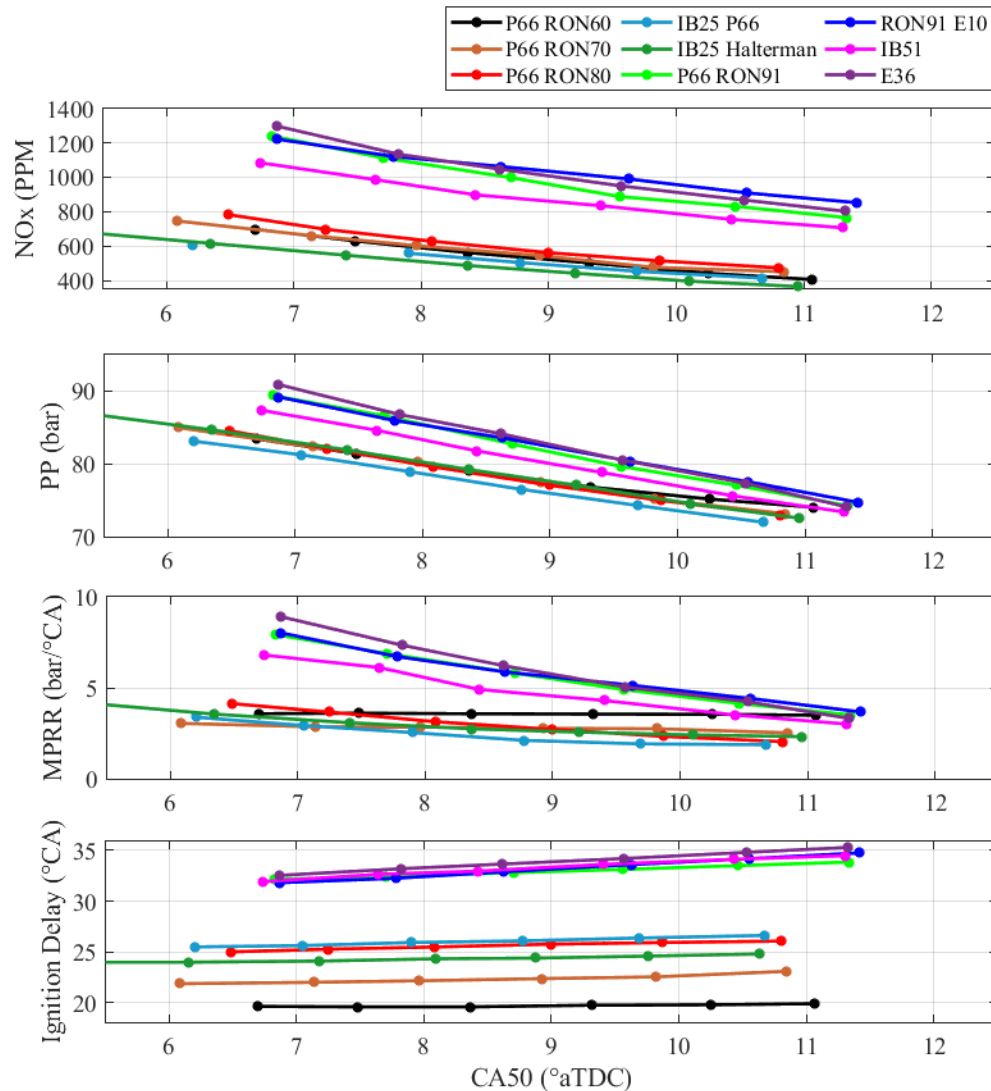


Figure 4.18. NO<sub>x</sub> emissions at a 4.6 bar BMEP, 1500 rpm over a CA50 sweep

Figure 4.19 shows the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions vs the RON of the fuels tested. Three different speed load conditions are shown, and it can be noted that as the RON of the fuel increases so does the NO<sub>x</sub> production for 4.6 and 7.1 bar BMEP. Being that NO<sub>x</sub> production is highly temperature-dependent, this trend makes sense in that as the peak cylinder

pressure increases, the in-cylinder temperature increases increasing NO<sub>x</sub> production. Along with that, the higher RON results in a more mixing allowing more combustion to happen around stoich, resulting in higher temperatures. The difference between the 80 RON fuel and the 91 RON fuels is more prominent than the difference in the 60, 70, and 80 RON fuels at each test point. For the 10 bar BMEP test point, the higher RON fuels, RON > 90 show the lowest NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, this can be attributed to the increased pilot amount resulting in more pre-mixed combustion, Figure 4.11. The AHR shown demonstrates the increased amount of premixed combustion due to a larger pilot injection. The other two loads were more of a diesel like combustion, resulting in the traditional relationship between NO<sub>x</sub> and cylinder pressure being the main driving factor in NO<sub>x</sub> production.

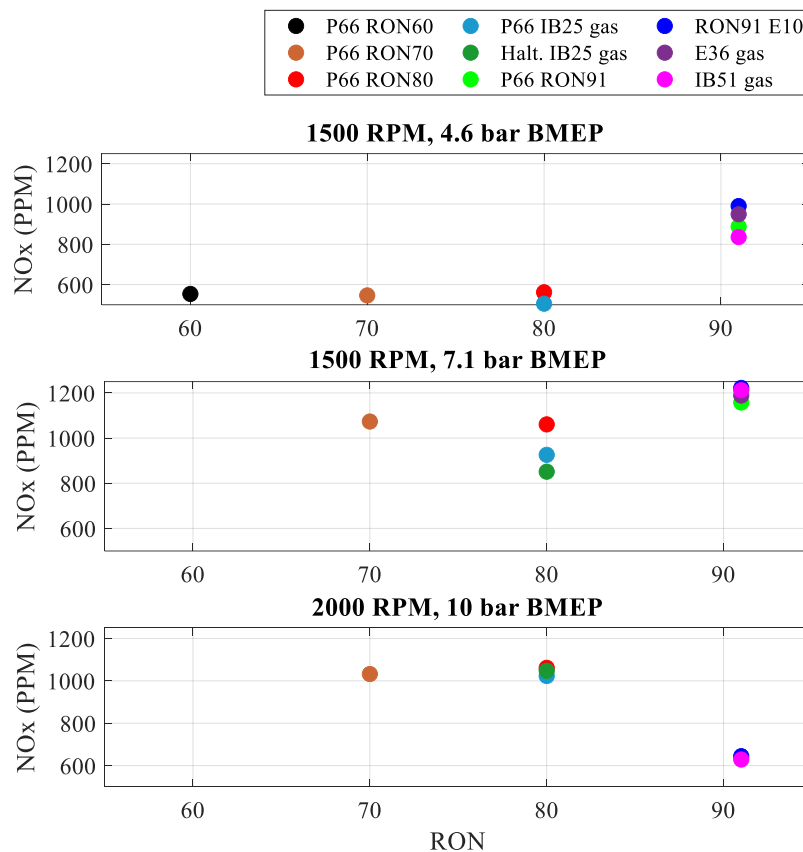


Figure 4.19. NO<sub>x</sub> concentration at three speed load points for each fuel

Figure 4.20 demonstrates the trends of the carbon monoxide production relative to the RON of the fuel being used in GCI mode at multiple loads. As the RON of the fuel decreases there is an evident trend in decreasing carbon monoxide production. These results show that there is a benefit to operating in compression-ignition mode with a fuel with a lower RON value. This causes the fuel to have less time to mix which prevents

zones of mixtures so lean that combustion becomes incomplete. When the fuel has less time to mix the fuel stays localized to a smaller region of the combustion chamber resulting in a mixture that is locally closer to stoichiometric allowing for more complete combustion. Figure 4.20 also shows the benefit of operation with a low carbon fuel, and alcohol blend. Resulting in lower CO emissions at the same speed-load point.

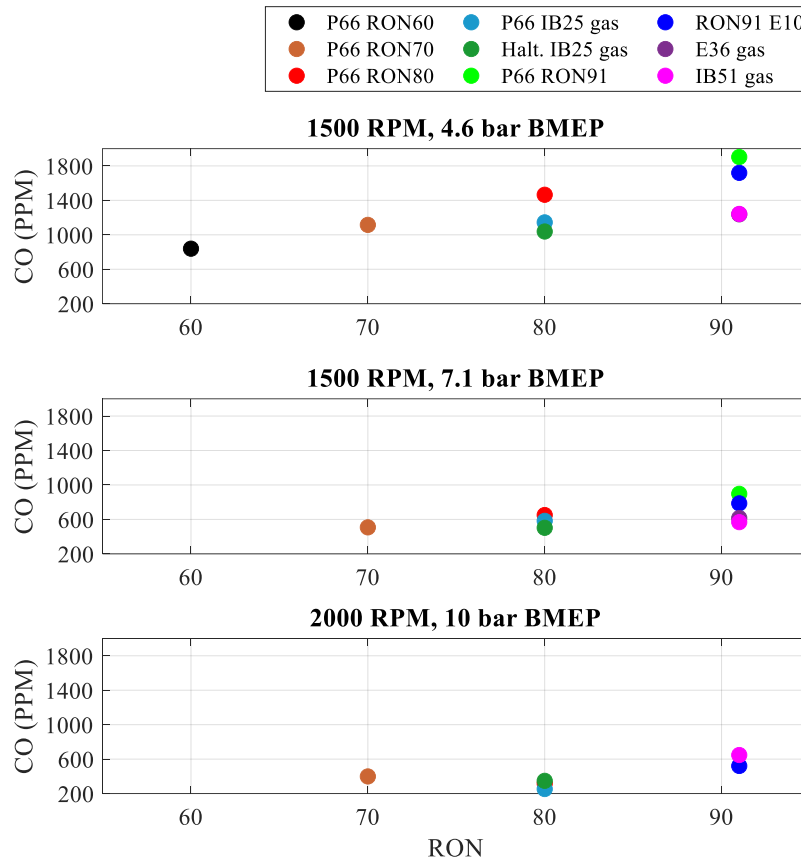


Figure 4.20. Carbon Monoxide concentration at three speed load points for each fuel tested at that point

The third emission that is being targeted to minimize is the total hydrocarbons (THC). Figure 4.21 displays the trend of the THC emissions on a C1 basis. These measurements show the same trend as the CO did in the prior figure, the fuels with a RON greater than about 80 show a significant increase in hydrocarbons as well as a fuel with a RON less than 80 showing a slightly lesser increase. The presence of hydrocarbons is indicative of the same combustion characteristics as CO, poorer than ideal combustion quality. Having a fuel with a slightly higher reactivity will allow the engine out hydrocarbons to be significantly lower.

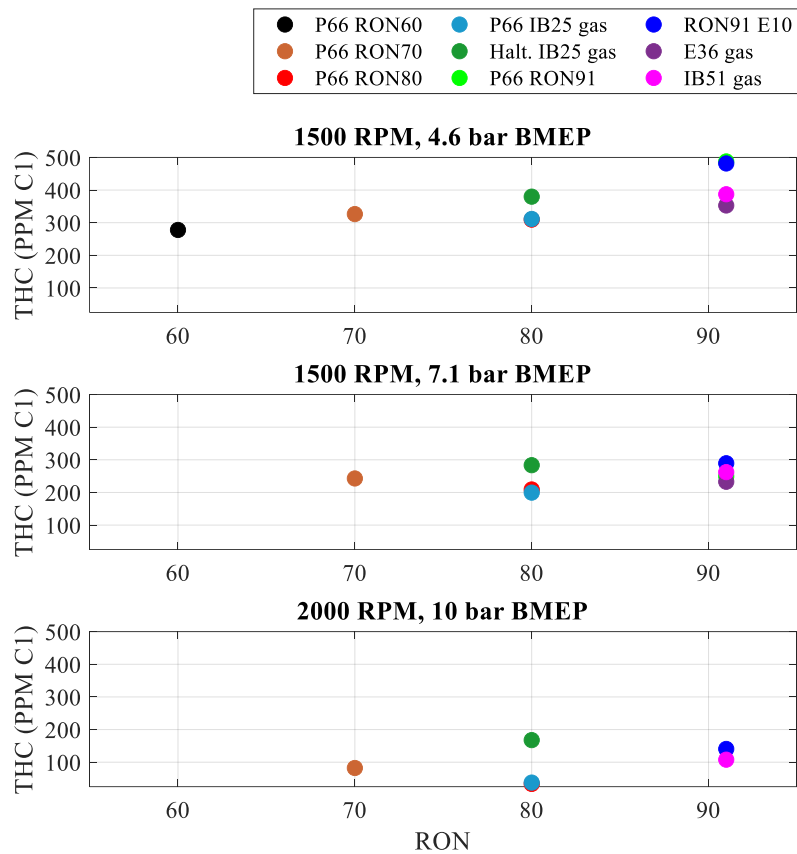


Figure 4.21. Total Hydrocarbons C1 at three speed load points for each fuel

CO<sub>2</sub> emissions benefit slightly as well at the low loads at 80 and 91 RON, Figure 4.22. The addition of more Iso-Butanol in the IB51 gas showed a greater decrease in CO<sub>2</sub> when compared to the IB 25 gas at 80 RON compared to the neat fuel.

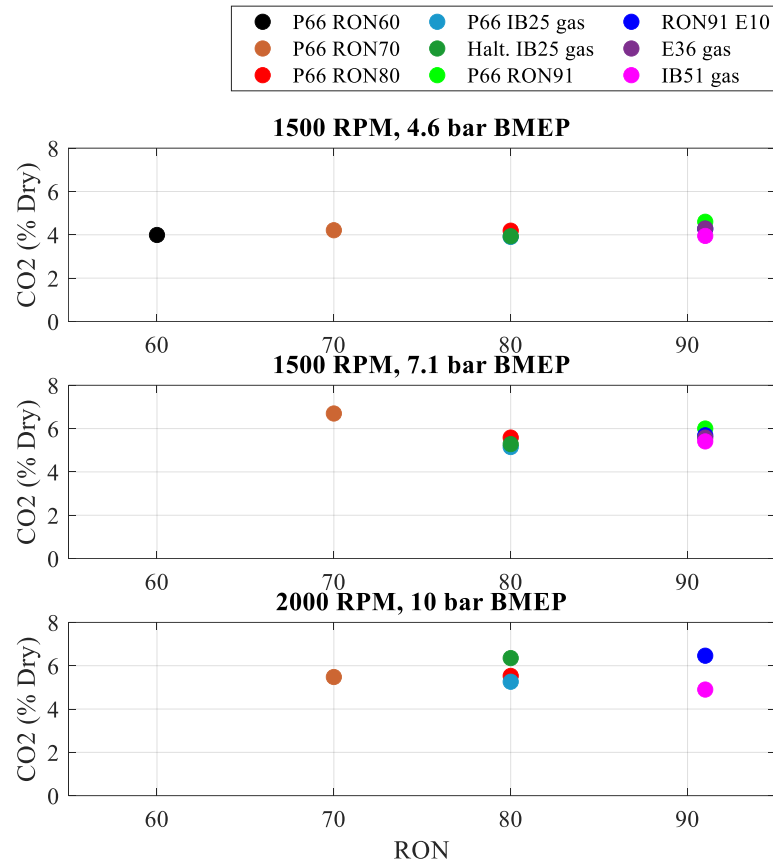


Figure 4.22 CO<sub>2</sub> concentration for each fuel tested at three speed load points

Based upon the results of section 4.1 on fuel reactivity and the effect it has on GCI combustion, fuels with a RON of 80 yield the best performance in GCI. They allow for extended low-load operation without a large deficit in top-end performance by long burn durations causing high exhaust gas temperature (EGT). These results are shown as well in Figure 4.23. There is a clear benefit at the lower loads when it comes to CO emissions when comparing the IB25 gas to the neat RON 80 from Phillips 66.

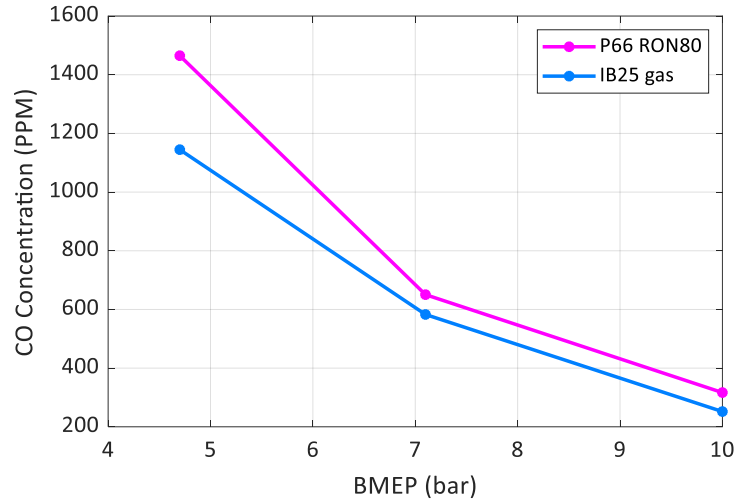


Figure 4.23. RON 80 neat and P66 RON 60 + 25% Iso-Butanol Carbon Monoxide emissions

## 4.4 Ignition Delay

A major part of this work was influenced by the effects of ignition delay on the charge mixture within the cylinder. Changing the reactivity of the fuel displayed changes in the ignition delay which influenced other combustion metrics to variable degrees. The effect of combustion phasing on ignition delay is small when compared to the effect of fuel reactivity, as shown in Figure 4.24 and. Quantifying the ignition delay was done in two different ways, referencing the CA00 to be at the pilot (SOI), Figure 4.24, and referencing the CA00 to the start of the main injection, Figure 4.25. They both yield a similar trend when comparing the effects of the fuels at the same test point, meaning that with each method the fuel with the longest ignition delay remains the longest as does the shortest. The difference between the methods is displayed in the effect of combustion phasing.

With the CA50s being constant across all fuels for a given test point, as you change what is considered the beginning of combustion and there is a difference in the ignition delay change between fuels. For example, when examining Figure 4.24 it can be noted that as the end of ignition delay changes from CA02 in the top figure to CA10 in the bottom figure the difference between each fuel becomes less. This is an observation that makes the first figure seem like it would be the logical choice because of the difference being the largest. An issue with this is that the error associated with calculating the CA02 vs the error when calculating the CA10 is significantly different. The CA02 measurement is much more susceptible to small variations in combustion or errors in measurement of pressure or the relationship between pressure and crank angle. For this reason, the choice was made to examine all three figures to verify trends, as well as show relative differences between each fuel.

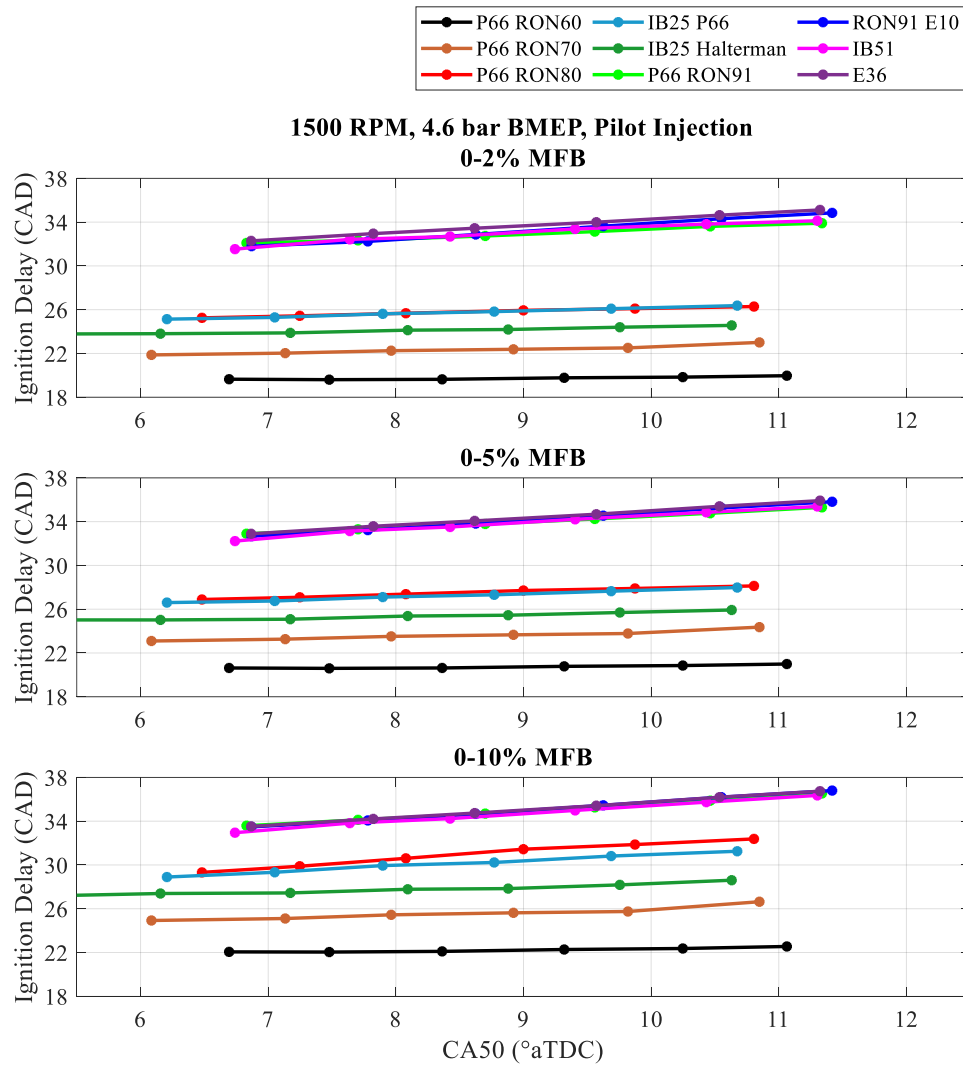


Figure 4.24. Ignition Delay referenced to the start of the Pilot Injection for 80Nm and 1500 RPM for each fuel tested

Figure 4.25 shows ignition delay calculated based on the main injection SOI. The negative values indicated that combustion started before the start of the main injection SOI occurred. This is what would be expected of the higher reactivity fuels based upon the reactivity studies in 4.1 where the higher reactivity fuels were shown to have a two-stage combustion process if the pilot SOI was held constant as well as the CA50. An interesting trend is that as the CA50 increases, the ignition delay decreases. This trend is deceiving because the main injection timing was being used to change CA50. Meaning that if the CA02 point for instance was after the start of the main injection if CA50 is retarded, then the start of the main injection moves towards the CA02 point making the ignition delay appear to be shorter. Due to this relationship, using the main injection



timing yields results that are misleading if the CA50 is changing between test points for a given fuel. This relationship means that Pilot Injection timing is better reference to use in this case given the testing strategy, keeping the pilot constant and adjusting the main quantity and timing to achieve load an CA50.

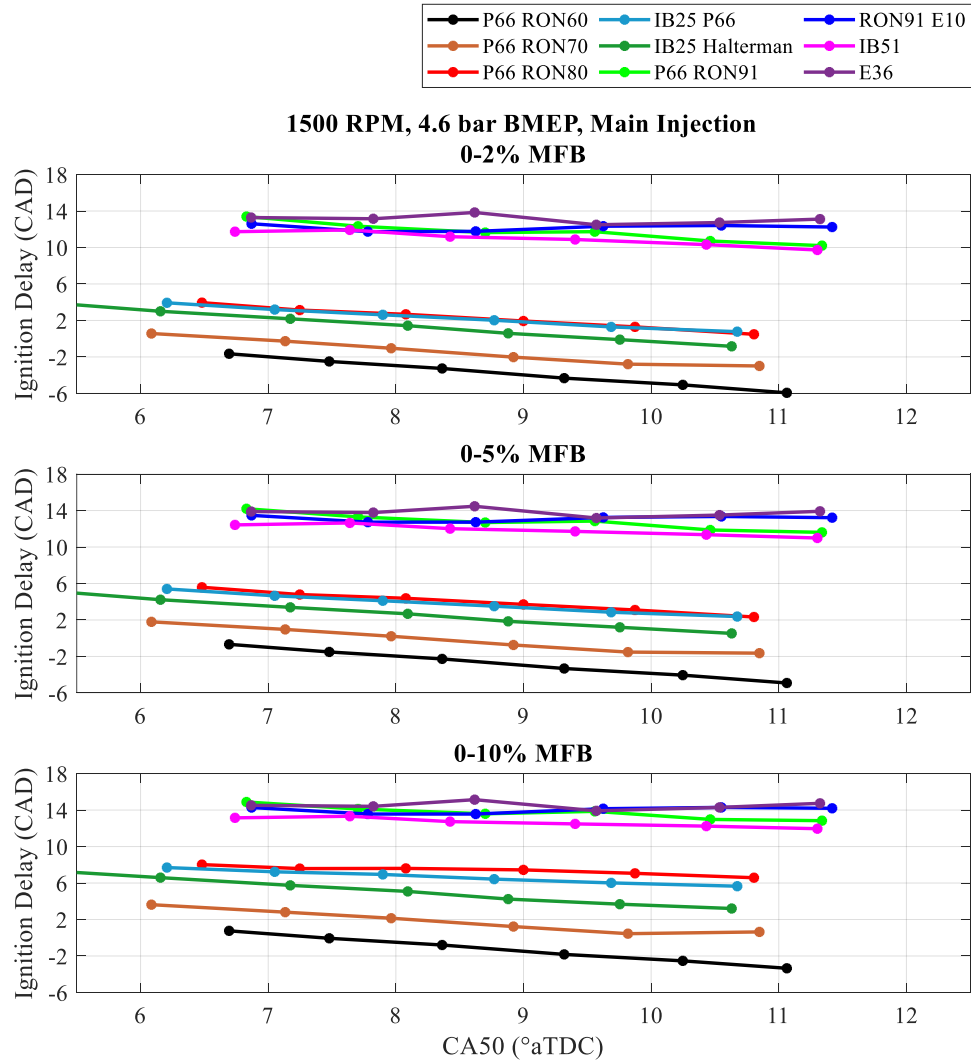


Figure 4.25. Ignition Delay referenced to the start of the Main Injection for 80Nm and 1500 RPM for each fuel tested

As described in the previous paragraphs, Figure 4.26 shows the effect that the main injection has on the CA02 for RON 80 at 1500 rpm and 4.6 bar BMEP. The diamond markers on the mass fraction burned traces represent the CA02 position and the square waves represent injection traces. The colors are consistent for each test, i.e. black traces and diamond is for the CA50 of 12°aTDC case. The main injection does not affect the

CA02 position substantially because the fuel from the pilot injection has already started burning. This would mean that the earliest position, i.e. CA02 vs CA10, will represent the ignition delay the best because it is going to be least influenced by the main injection and should be relatively constant if the pilot injection SOI is held constant while the main injection SOI is varied to change CA50.

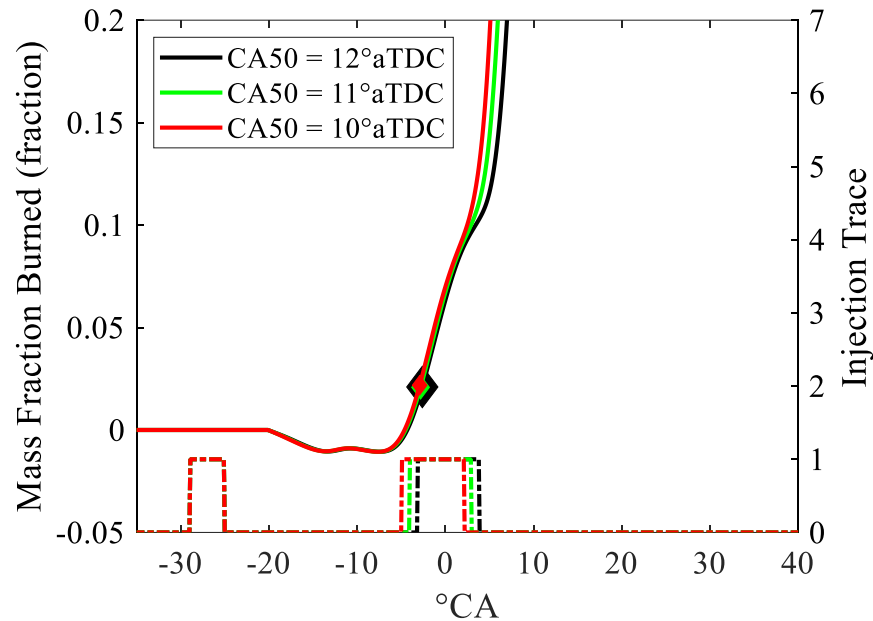


Figure 4.26. Mass Fraction Burned with CA02 plotted with diamond markers as well as the DI injection traces for 1500 RPM 4.6 bar BMEP, P66 RON 80 fuel

The effects of the ignition delay can be both beneficial and detrimental to the performance of the engine. The increased ignition delay of the lower reactivity fuels causes increased pressure rise rates which are detrimental to engine durability as well as causing the highest peak cylinder pressures resulting in the highest NO<sub>x</sub> production. Fuels with the lowest reactivity showed lower ITE in section 4.1.1 at the low loads. The highest ITE was at 80 RON, showing that the higher RON can result in higher ITE at the detriment of low load operation.

## 5 SI Operation Results

SI operation testing was only performed with RON91 E10 to compare to the baseline fuel for the GCI testing. Limited supply of the Phillips 66 fuels prevented testing them in SI mode. Operation was tested at three different IATs of 35, 45, and 55°C. Elevated temperatures for the load levels was tested to examine the ability of the fuel to operate at similar conditions to GCI, allowing for mode switching. Operation was successful from 30 Nm up to 80 Nm at lambda 1.5. Figure 5.1 shows the difference in ITE of between GCI and SI. Switching to GCI at the lowest possible load is significantly beneficial to ITE. IAT for SI was tested at the same IAT as GCI to enable mode switching. Changing IAT during the mode switch would be difficult to do quickly so being able to operate the engine at the same IAT in both combustion modes will allow the mode switch to happen quickly without misfires in GCI while the intake warms up.

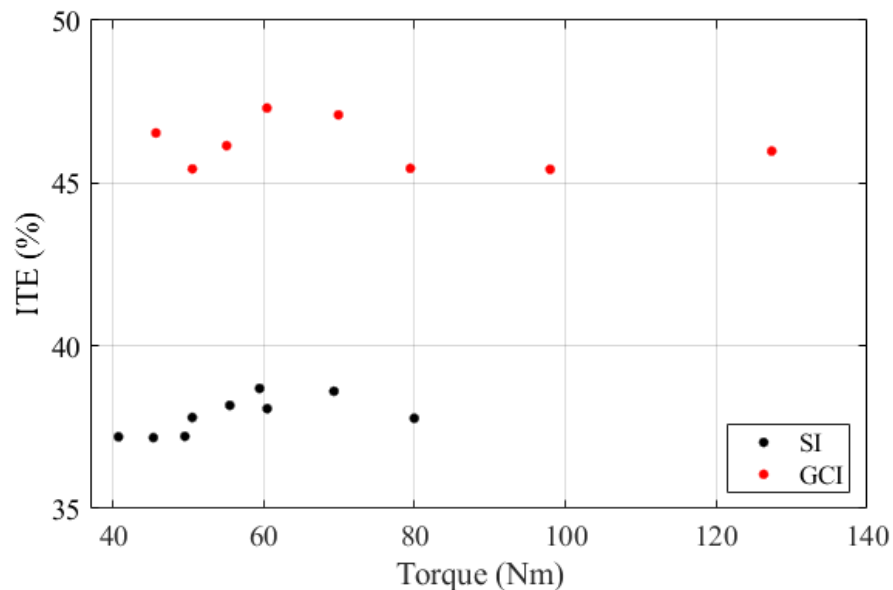


Figure 5.1. ITE comparison of SI vs GCI over a load sweep at 55°C IAT

SI testing completed showed that an overlap in combustion modes of 35 Nm exists between SI and GCI for a given fuel, as well as switching to GCI mode at the lowest possible load will be beneficial to ITE. Extending GCI operation all the way down to idle would not be necessary in a hybrid application due to the ability to upload the combustion engine to the maximum efficiency point for most of its operation.

## 6 Summary and Conclusions

A literature review was conducted to determine the current state of GCI engines. It was found that Delphi was at the cutting edge of this work. The matrix of test points was developed to test the limitations of each fuel in a consistent, controlled manner. Operating at the common testing condition for each fuel allowed for performance metrics such as ITE to be compared across each fuel. The ability of higher reactivity fuels to extend low load operation showed promising results, demonstrating that fuel with a RON of 80 performed the best, yielding high efficiency at low loads which allows low load extension while maintaining the high load performance of a low reactivity fuel, section 4.1.3.

Based upon the results presented from this study, it can be noted that there is potential for overall increased engine efficiency and decreased engine out emissions with the use of fuels with higher reactivity, lower RON, than that of conventional US pump gasoline.

1. Consistent, stable, low load operation was achieved with GCI
2. Fuels with a RON value <80 showed significant low load expansion for GCI compared to the RON 91 E10 baseline
3. Gross ITE of 37% was achieved at 2 bar IMEP, 800 rpm with RON 80
4. RON 80 fuel showed the highest ITE up to 3 bar IMEP, 1200 rpm
5. RON 80 fuel along with IB25 gas showed little difference in ITE at medium-high loads
6. RON 80 fuel showed a lower MPRR at 15 bar BMEP, than the baseline RON 91 E10
7. Increased injection pressure decreased MPRR, especially at high loads
8. Decreasing RON caused NO<sub>x</sub> to decrease, lower MPRR, lower maximum temperature, lower NO<sub>x</sub> production
9. Fuels with a RON of 80 showed lowest CO and THC emissions, highest combustion efficiency, higher RON fuels resulted in too much mixing, causing incomplete combustion near the periphery. Fuels with RON less than 80 did not mix well enough, resulting in locally rich combustion
10. Ignition delay trends follow the trend of CO and THC emissions, the steep change from 80 to greater than 90 RON is shown in Figure 4.24
11. SI and GCI operation have an overlap of  $\geq 35$  Nm allowing seamless mode switching

### 6.1 Future Work

Future work for this includes mapping more of the speed load map with the IB25 gas selected. Additional work could be done with optimization and calibration of control maps such as optimization of boost and inlet temperature control as well as applying the use of Exhaust Gas Recirculation, (EGR) to the combustion system to help extend low load as well as assist with control of combustion temperature and emissions formation

control. Continued controls development is needed to optimize the use of the closed-loop combustion control. CA50 control by changing main injection timing works well to maintain combustion stability while IMEP balancing showed to be less effective in the current configuration. IMEP balancing was not used for any of these tests because of the issues faced.

Increased capability with the valve timing will allow for performance to be optimized. Having the ability to change the effective compression ratio will allow for low load expansion as well as using valve overlap to allow hot residuals to remain in the cylinder allowing for GCI at lower loads with lower reactivity fuels without heating the intake air.

Continued testing with the IB25 gas selected to map out the complete operation map would allow for BSFC maps to be generated for comparison to other engines. Based on the collected test data the minimum BSFC region is quite large. Little difference in ITE was seen at 2000 and 2200 rpm testing from 10-15 bar BMEP, 4.1.3.

Determine upper load limit, highest load tested was 15 bar BMEP, promise was seen for significantly higher load operation with the IB25 gas. MPRR was not near the limit with the higher reactivity fuel. Higher speed of 4000 rpm would allow for a comparison to examine the EGT limitations of the higher reactivity fuel and to examine if there is a significant limitation induced compared to the baseline RON 91 E10 fuel.

Determining an effective after-treatment solution for the system to meet tailpipe emissions targets is also required to be able to operate with the unique low exhaust temperature characteristics of GCI as well as lean SI. Opportunity for decreased engine out emissions with optimization of engine tuning also shows potential for improvements.

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## A Cylinder Pressure instrumentation

### A.1 Piezo Electric Pressure Transducers

For cylinder pressure transducers AVL GP15DK transducers were used. These transducers have the following specifications collected from the AVL specifications sheet, [22], Table A.1. The transducers were mounted between the exhaust valves perpendicular to the fire deck.

Table A.1. AVL GP15DK cylinder pressure transducer specification

<b>Specifications:</b>	
Pressure range	0-500 bar
Sensitivity, (Nominal)	10 pC/bar
Calibration ranges	0-80 bar 0-150 bar 0-300 bar
Natural Frequency	170 kHz
Load change drift	7 mbar/ms
Linearity	$\leq \pm 0.3\%$

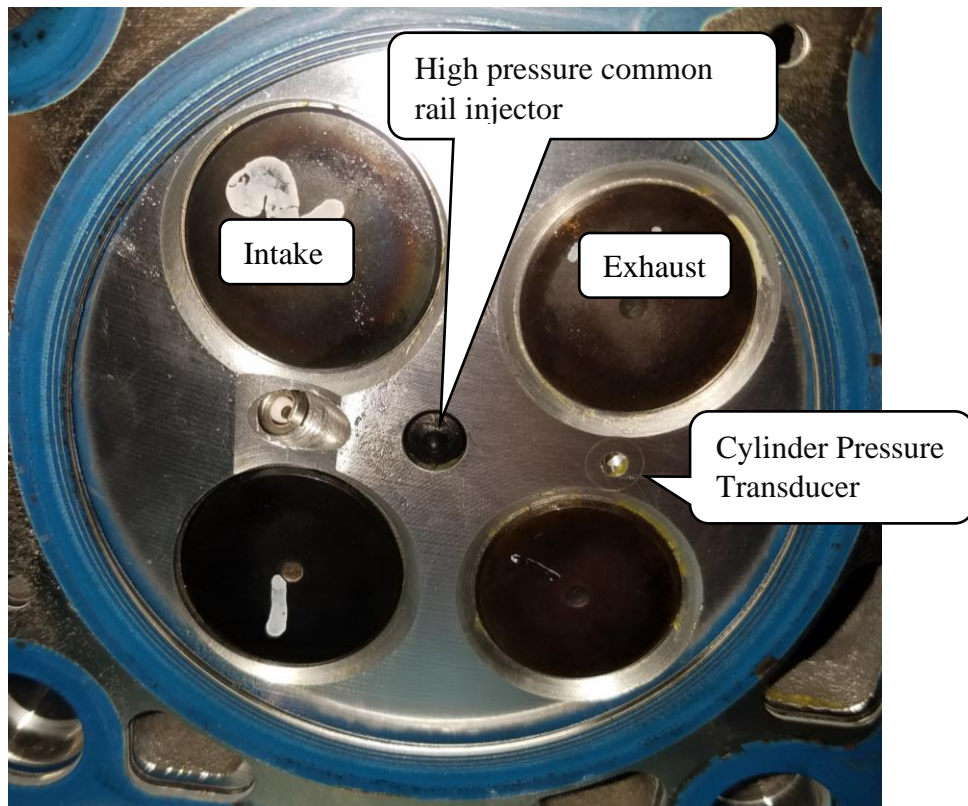


Figure A.1. Cylinder Head instrumented with pressure transducer and an added spark plug

## A.2 BEI Optical Encoder

360 PPR BEI optical encoder model: XH20DB-37-SS-360-ABZC-28V/V-SM18 was used to phase cylinder pressure with crank angle pictured in Figure A.2.



Figure A.2. BEI Optical Encoder

## A.3 AND CAS

CAS was the combustion analyzer used to interpret the cylinder pressure. CAS was also used to log other signals such as MAP and Exhaust pressure relative to crank angle. The charge amplifier used was a DSP 1108 with a cutoff frequency of 50kHz and a medium time constant.

## B Emissions Analysis

### B.1 Horiba 5 gas analyzer

The Horiba model MEXA-1600D 5-Gas bench was utilized to measure dry exhaust gas emissions from the engine. The measurements were taken downstream of the turbocharger through a heated sample line, into a heated filter, and then another heated line to the bench. Table B.1 lists the exhaust gas constituents measured and the methods used for detection. Note that NO<sub>2</sub> is not measured directly but is converted to NO and then measured with the same chemiluminescence method used to measure the NO.

Table B.1. Horiba 5-Gas Bench Analyzer Detection methods

Exhaust Gas Constituent	Detection Method
O <sub>2</sub>	Magneto-Pneumatic detection
CO <sub>2</sub>	Non-dispersive infrared
CO	Non-dispersive infrared
NO	Chemiluminescence
NO <sub>2</sub>	NO <sub>2</sub> to NO converter, Chemiluminescence
Total Hydrocarbons	Flame Ionization (FID)

### B.2 Cummins OEM NOx Sensor

Cummins model 5293295RX NO<sub>x</sub> sensor was in the exhaust stream and read via CAN to NI Veristand. This sensor reads out O<sub>2</sub> concentration as well as NO<sub>x</sub>. These values numbers were used to compare with the Horiba 5 gas bench and followed closely, especially for the NO<sub>x</sub> Figure B.1.

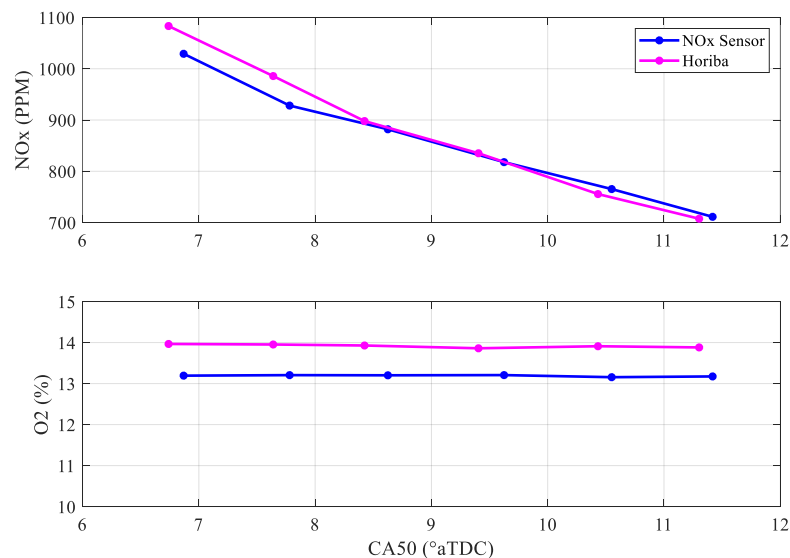


Figure B.1. NO<sub>x</sub> sensor and Horiba Comparison across a CA50 Sweep for RON 91 E10 at 1500 rpm, 4.6 bar BMEP

## C Control Point Repeatability

### C.1 Motoring Control Points

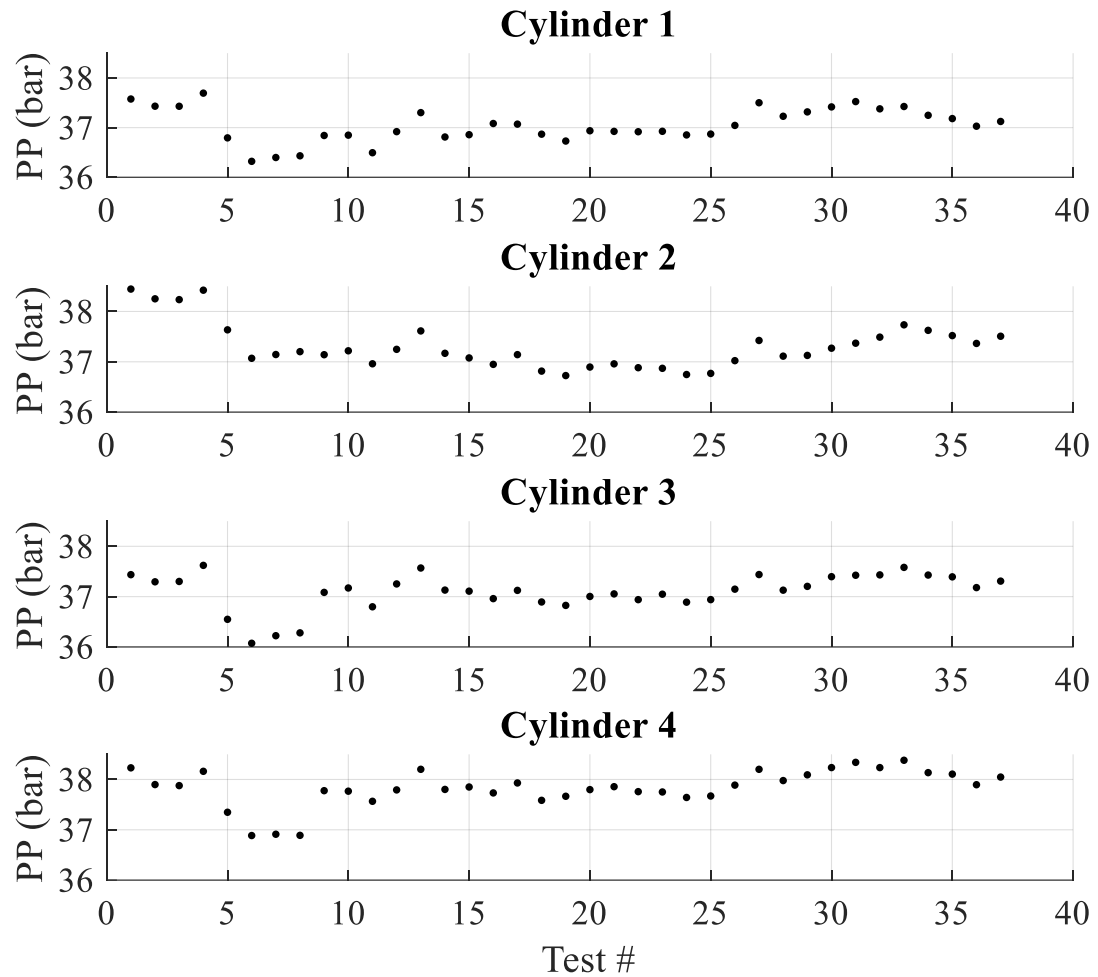


Figure C.1. Motoring Peak Cylinder pressure control point, 1500 rpm, 95 kPa MAP

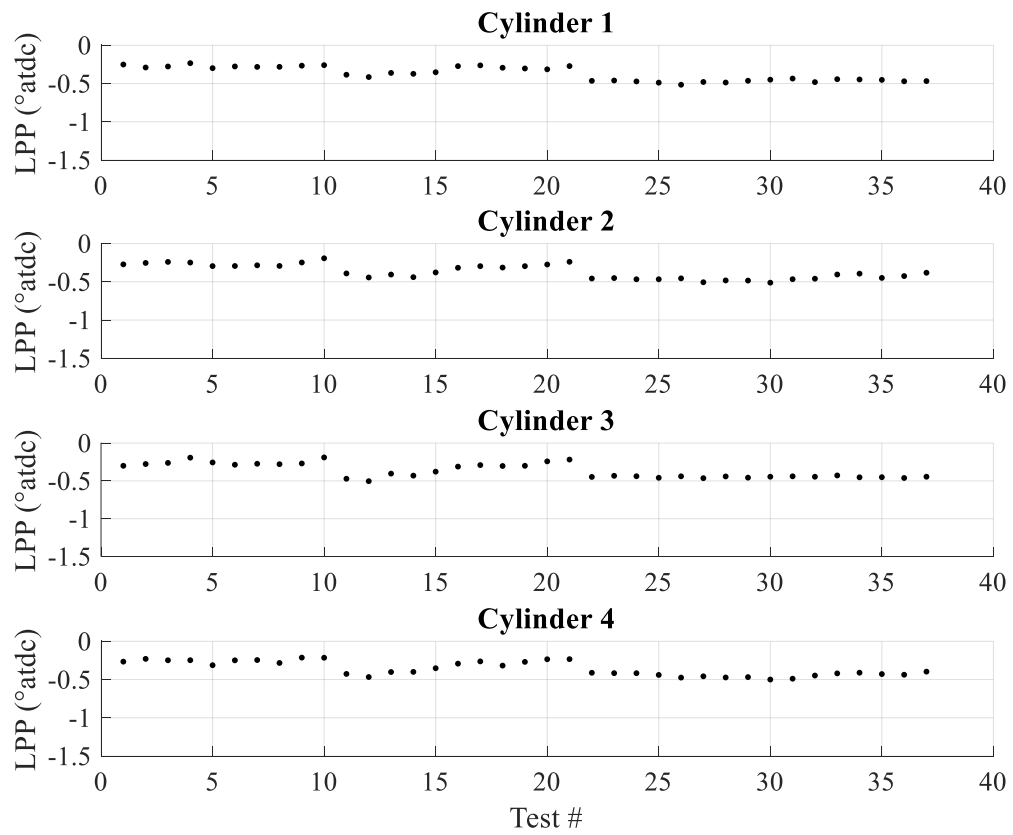


Figure C.2. Location of peak cylinder pressure, 1500 rpm, 95 kPa MAP control point

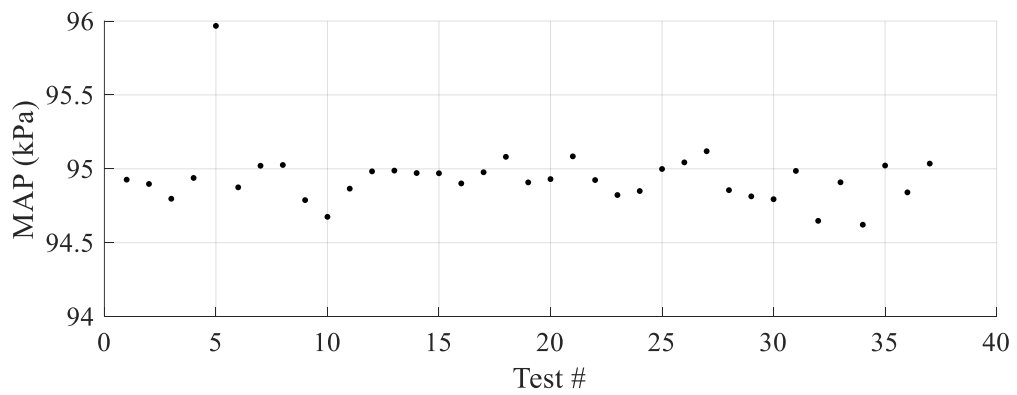


Figure C.3. MAP at 1500 rpm, 95 kPa MAP control point

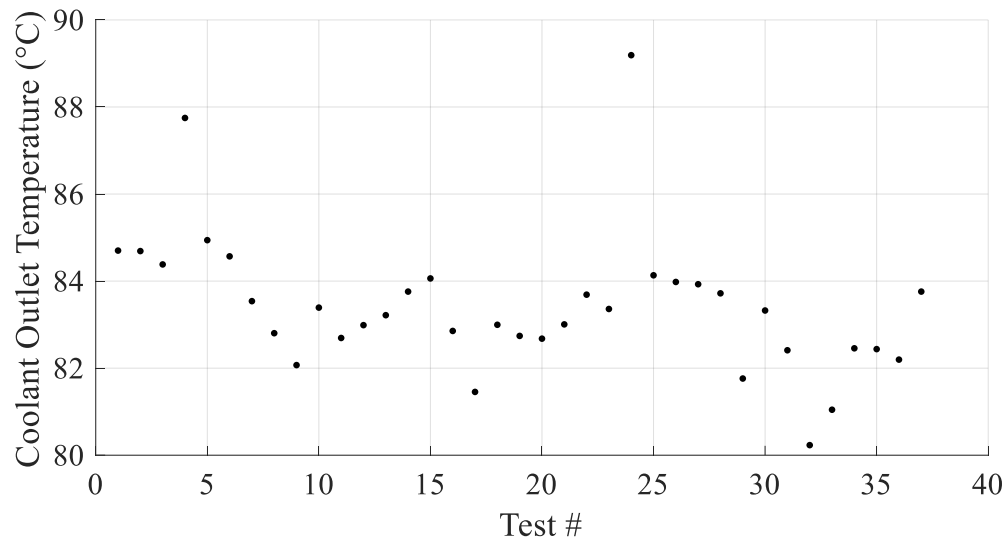


Figure C.4. Coolant outlet temperature at 1500 rpm 95 kPa MAP control point

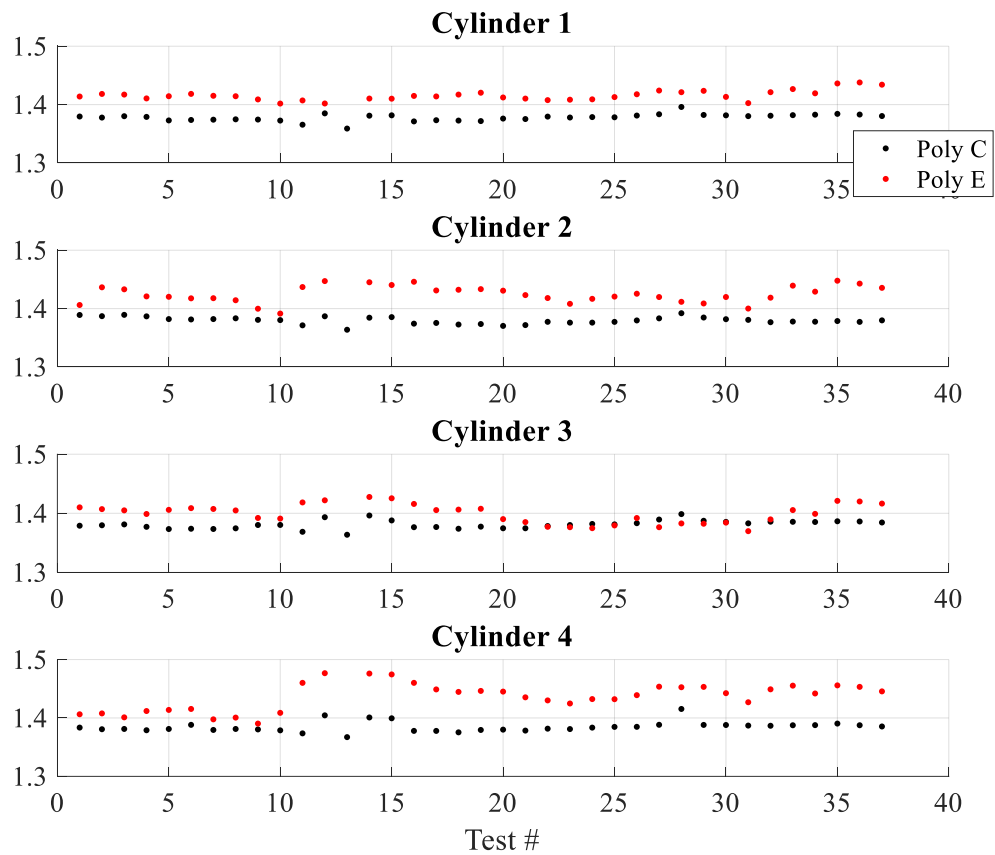


Figure C.5. Polytropic for each cylinder at 1500 rpm, 95 kPa MAP control point

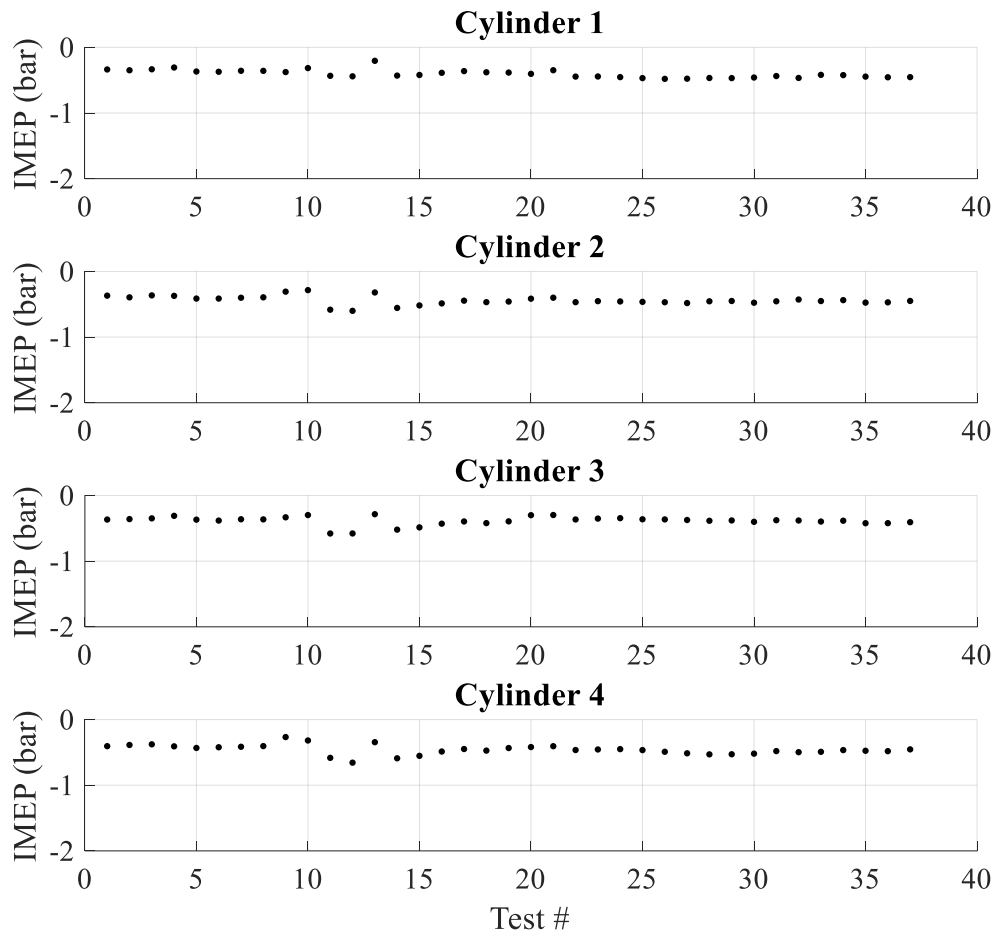


Figure C.6. Motoring IMEPg at 1500 rpm, 95 kPa motoring control point

## C.2 Firing Control Points

Firing control points shown in this chapter are from the RON91 E10 test days only to show the repeatability of measurements across the entire project. Each test day the motoring control point was done the same and the firing point was done at the same conditions but with the test fuel for that given day.

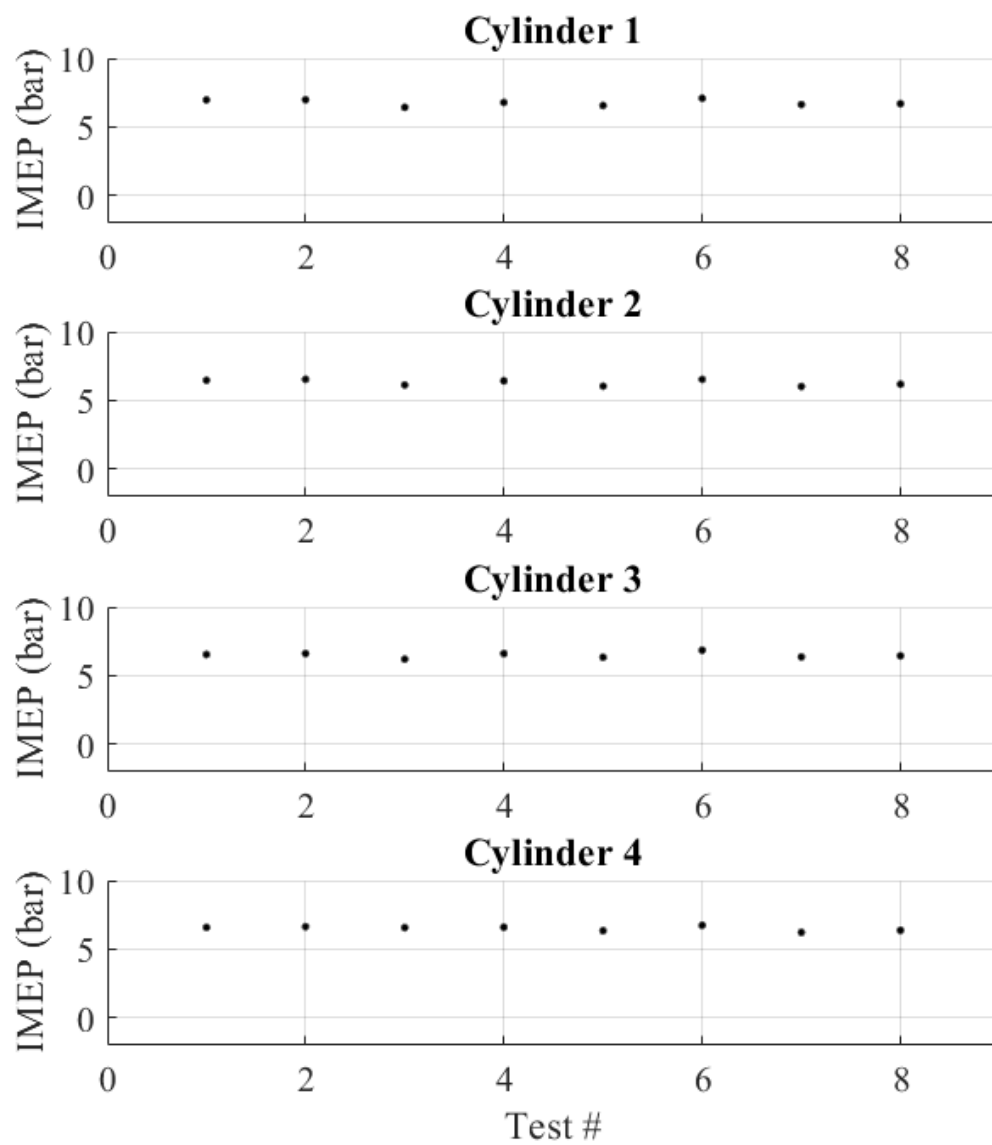


Figure C.7. Firing control point IMEPg for RON 91 E10



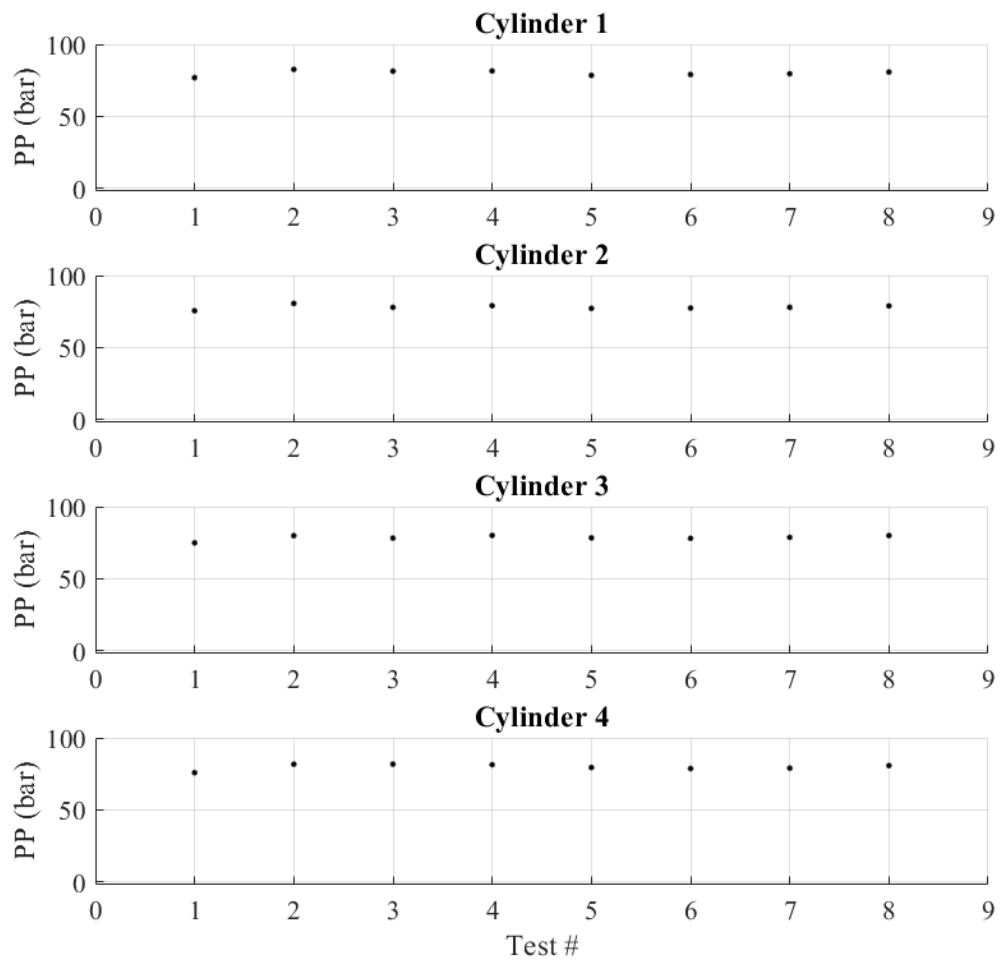


Figure C.8. Peak Pressure for firing control point

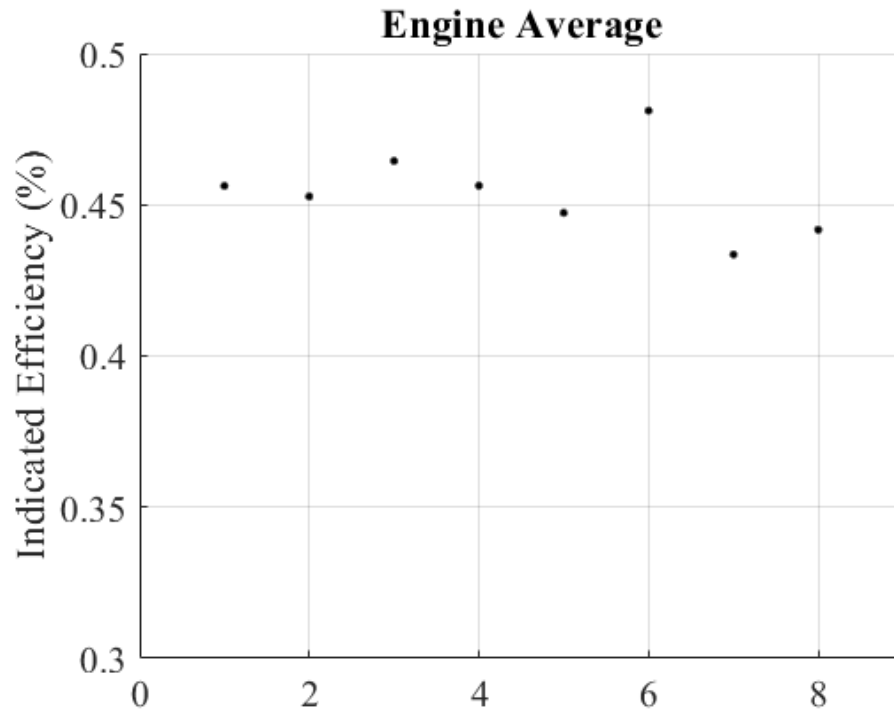


Figure C.9. ITE for firing control point

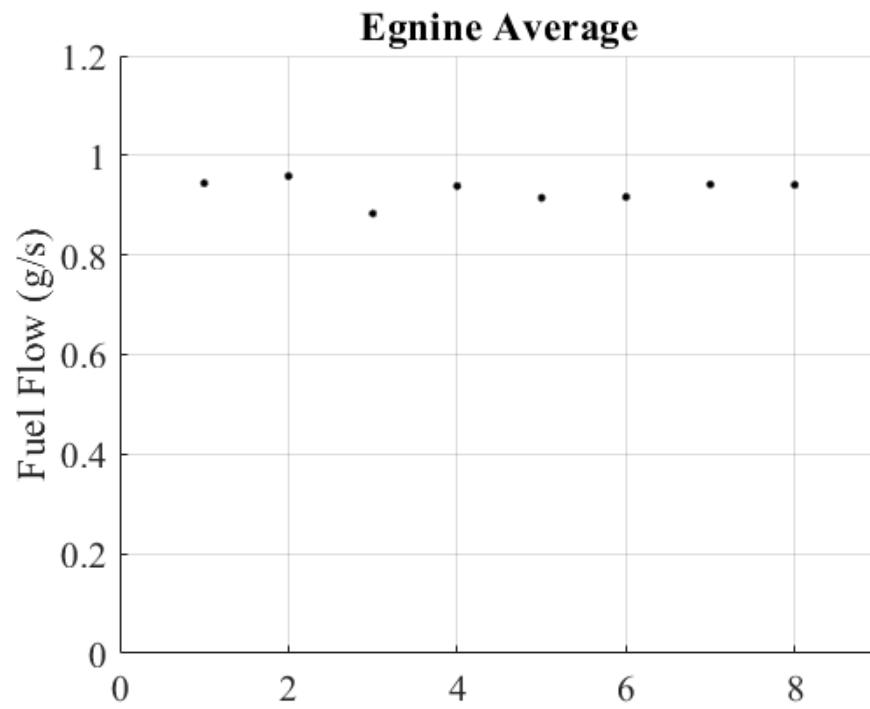


Figure C.10. For firing control point

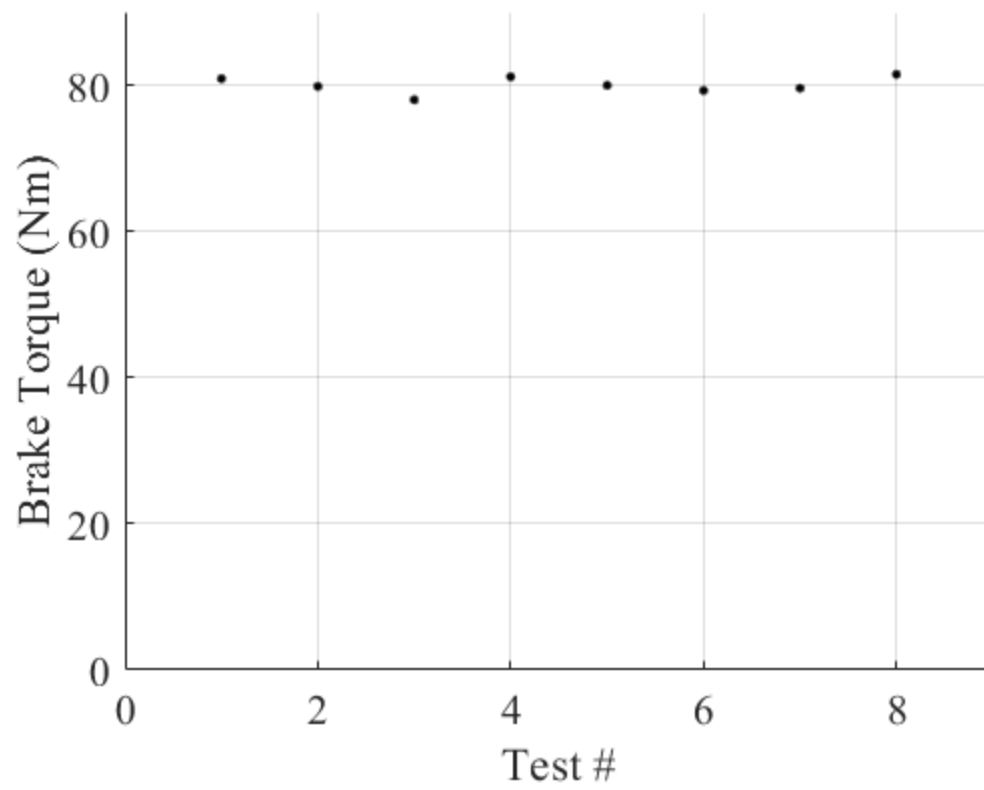


Figure C.11. Brake Torque for firing control point

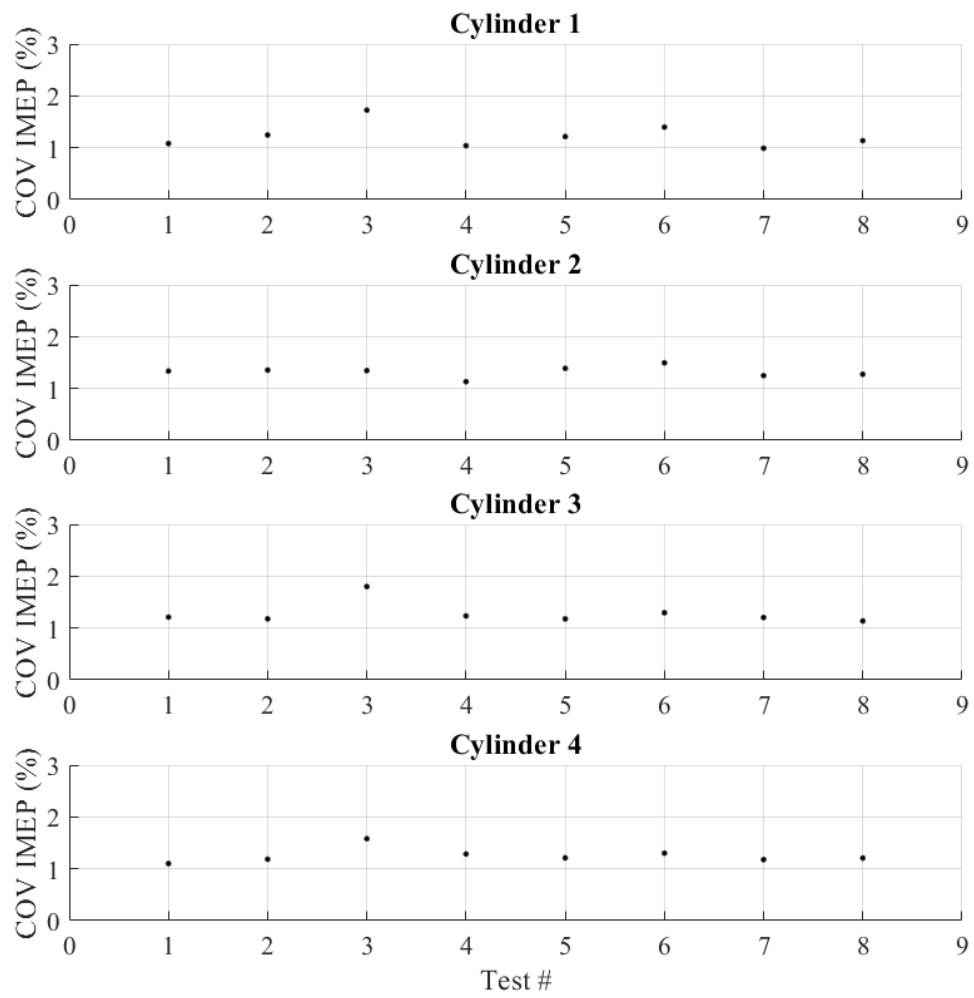


Figure C.12. COV of IMEP for firing control point

## D Heat Release Analysis Calculations

### D.1 Cylinder Pressure Referencing

Due to the lack of sensitivity of the cylinder pressure transducers, a dual referencing method had to be used to reference the cylinder pressure. This meant that the cylinder pressure was pegged during the intake stroke and the exhaust stroke to the MAP and the turbine inlet pressure at the corresponding angular positions, Figure D.1, choosing a location early in the exhaust stroke and late in the intake stroke, points were chosen from those two windows. With these two reference points for each cycle, a spline interpolation was used between each of the consecutive points. Resulting in a continuous reference pressure vector, the same length as the pressure vector. Taking the difference between the two resulted in an offset which was applied to the raw pressure signal.

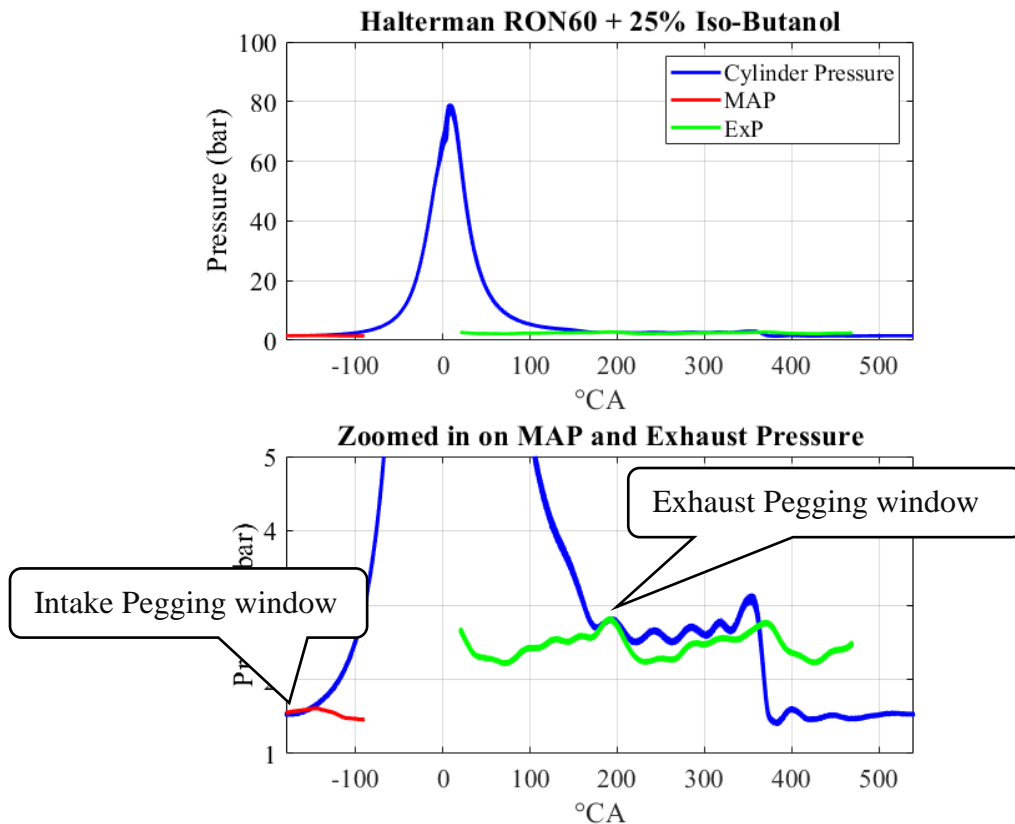


Figure D.1. Dual Cylinder pressure pegging illustration

### D.2 Pressure and Heat Release Analysis

Heat release analysis was done with the relationship found in [6] Eq. 10.6 where the ratio of specific heats was found during compression and expansion and transitioned from compression to expansion centered around TDC over a 10 CAD window.

$$\frac{dQ_n}{d\theta} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1} * p \left( \frac{dV}{d\theta} \right) + \frac{1}{\gamma-1} * V \left( \frac{dp}{d\theta} \right) \quad \text{Equation D.1}$$

## **E Hydra SCRE Spark Ignited, knock limit experiments**

To mimic the spark ignited performance of the high compression ratio multi-cylinder engine the piston in the Riccardo Hydra single-cylinder research engine (SCRE) at MTU was changed to raise the compression ratio to 15.3:1. The purpose of the testing on the SCRE was to determine the upper load range of the Phillips 66 blended fuels in spark-ignited mode at lambda 1.

Engine specifications of the MTU SCRE are shown in Table E.1. The engine is under square with a longer stroke than the diameter of the bore. Valve timing was independently controlled, and the intake and exhaust camshafts could be advanced and retarded as needed. They each have  $\sim 60^\circ\text{CA}$  of authority.

Table E.1. MTU SCRE Engine Specifications

<b>Attribute</b>	<b>unit</b>	<b>Value</b>
<b>Bore</b>	mm	86.0
<b>Stroke</b>	mm	94.6
<b>Connecting Rod Length</b>	mm	153.0
<b>Compression Ratio</b>	-	15.3

For the experiments conducted on the SCRE the testbed was configured as shown in Figure E.1. Direct fuel injection during the intake stroke was used for the fuel delivery and the injection pressure was 100 bar. Cam phasing was held at the maximum volumetric efficiency point, the exhaust camshaft centerline was at  $-110^\circ\text{aTDC}$  gas exchange and the intake was at  $130^\circ\text{aTDC}$  gas exchange. This is a late intake valve closing configuration with the intake valve closing  $\sim 90^\circ\text{bTDC}$ .

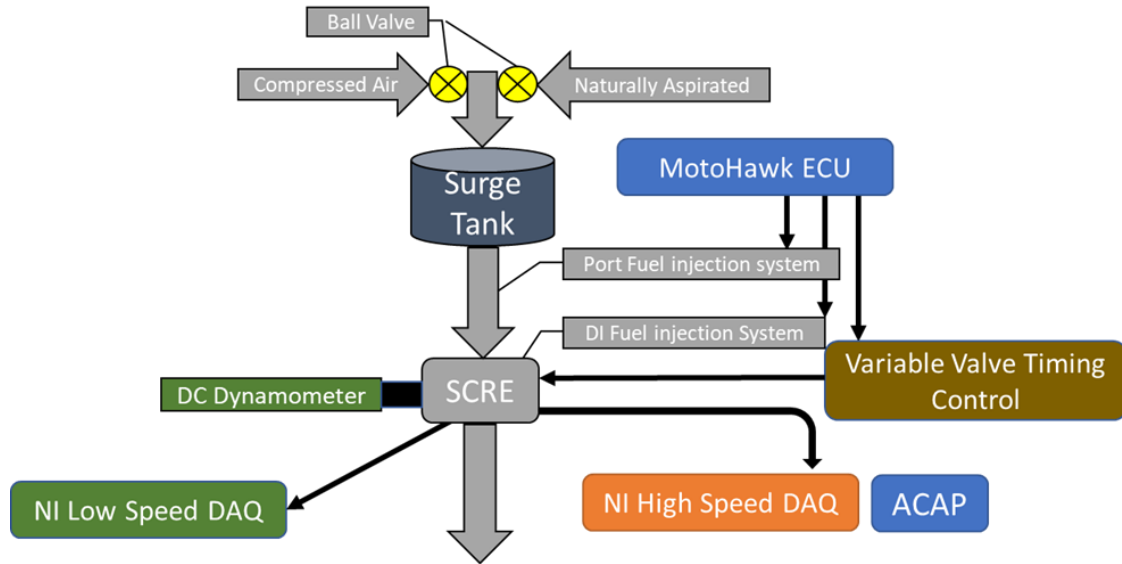


Figure E.1. MTU SCRE Testbed configuration

## E.1 Test Matrix

The test matrix for these experiments included two engine speeds, 1500 and 2000 rpm. At each speed, three loads were tested, 3.3, 4, and 5 bar NMEP. To determine the combustion phasing limits, an MBT CA50 location of 8°aTDC was used and the knock limit of 150 kPa pk-pk in the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile. There were 600 cycles recorded at each point to ensure accurate knock statistics. Injection of the fuel was done with a Bosch gasoline direct injector at a pressure of 100 bar. The intake air temperature was atmospheric, ~25°C.

## E.2 Test Results

### E.2.1 Knock limit Determination

To determine what knock level should be used as a limit for advancing combustion so testing was required. When measuring knock levels on this engine, an NI high-speed data acquisition system was used to log the cylinder pressure and apply a bandpass filter. Once the pressure is filtered, the peak-peak amplitude of that cycle can be measured. Throughout the previous 100 cycles, statistical analysis was applied to find the 95<sup>th</sup> peak-peak amplitude of the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile of knock. As mentioned in [23], knock is a stochastic phenomenon that needs to be analyzed as such. There can be high knocking cycles that will not impact the average knock level but could still be damaging to the engine.

Determining the knock limit required experiments to be carried out at varying knock levels. As the knock level increases, the rate at which it increases is exponential. Figure E.2 shows the exponential fit over the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile knock amplitude of 600 cycle data sets recorded at each spark advance. The solid black horizontal line shows the 150 kPa



peak to peak knock level on each plot. Four different speed load points were tested and a common knock limit of 150 kPa peak to peak was chosen. As it can be seen, at that level, the amount of increase in knock increases quickly as the spark is advanced further. The knock was audible at these levels as well, it is common to see higher amplitudes reached on other engines but due to the one-off nature of this engine and to avoid damage to the engine this level was used as the limit.

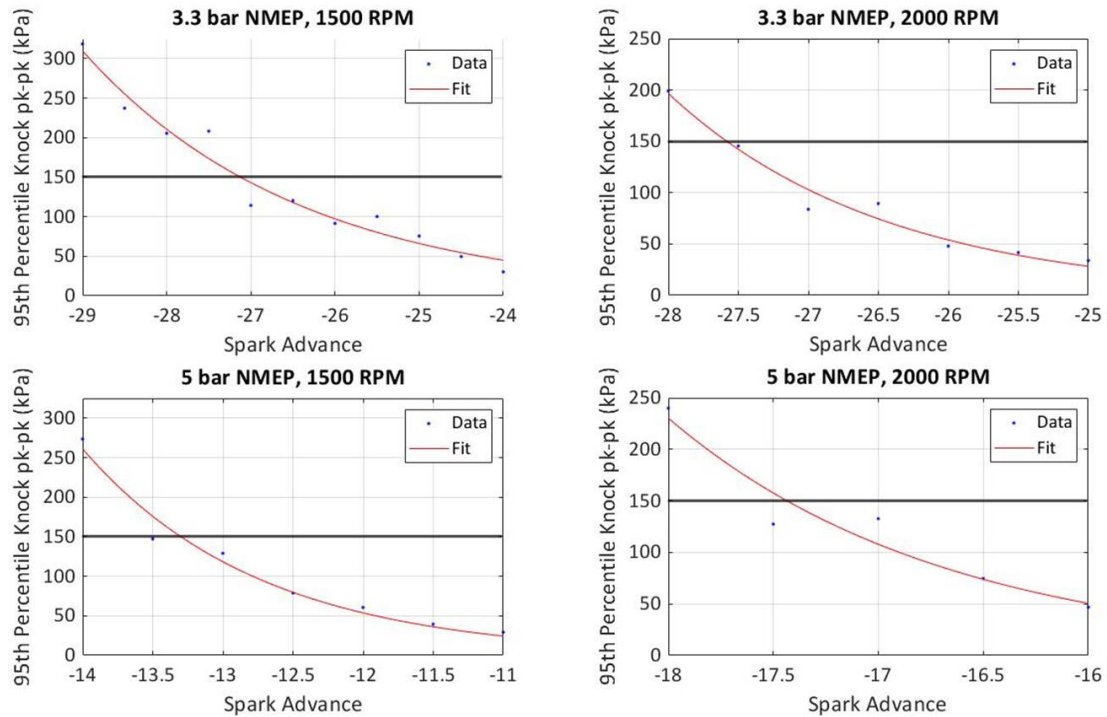


Figure E.2. Knock limit determination, knock levels over a spark sweep

## E.2.2 Fuel Reactivity Effects

Testing was successfully done on three different fuels with different RONs of 70, 80, and 90. A RON60 blend was tried but the operation was unsuccessful, with high knock levels and combustion stability problems. Figure E.3 displays the results from the experiments at each speed and each load. As load increases, combustion becomes more knock limited as expected. Even at the lowest load, the RON70 was relatively knock limited with the standard valve timing shown in the top row of Figure E.3. At the highest load, 5 bar NMEP, the RON70 knock limited combustion phasing was at  $>26^{\circ}$ aTDC, far from the  $8^{\circ}$ aTDC that was being used as MBT. Showing a severe deficit in efficiency due to combustion being so retarded.

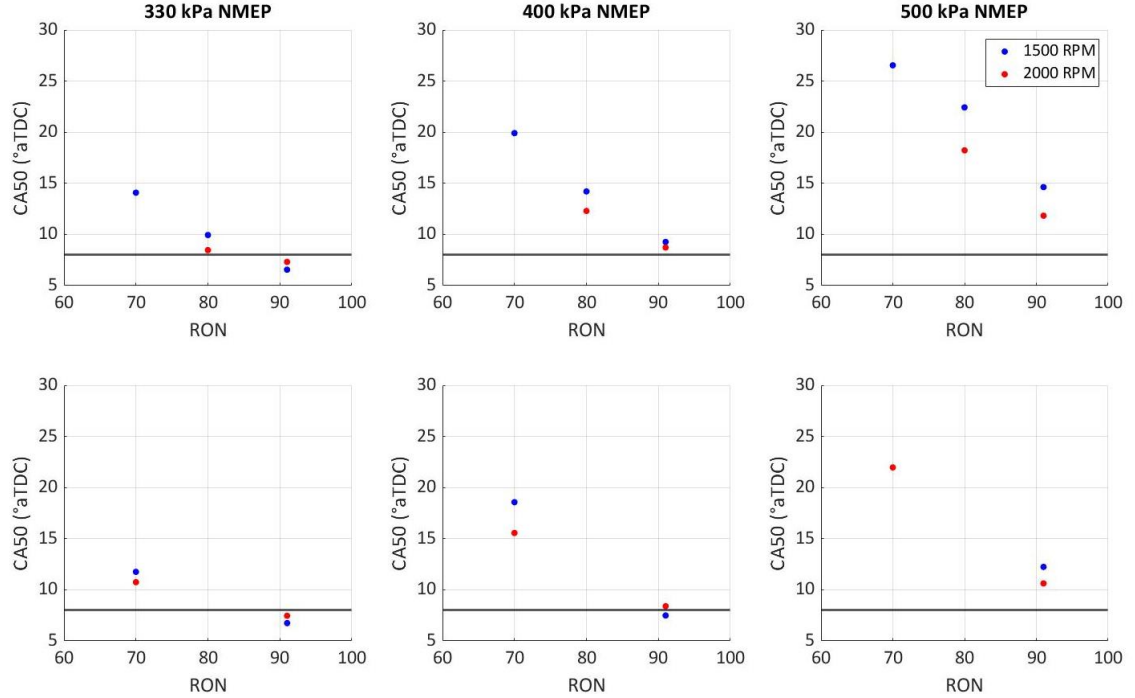


Figure E.3. Fuel Effects on combustion phasing, top row: IMOP of 130° aTDC GE, bottom row: IMEP of 140° aTDC GE

The results of the experiments are continued in Figure E.4, the COV of IMEPg for the RON 70 is greater than 5%. The RON80 yields combustion with a COV of less than 5% for each of the loads. These experiments were intended to assist in choosing a fuel desirable for the multi-mode engine. A desirable fuel will have the highest reactivity possible allowing for SI mode to extend to a medium load. This will allow for the combustion mode transition to be at a load that is easily operated at in each combustion mode.

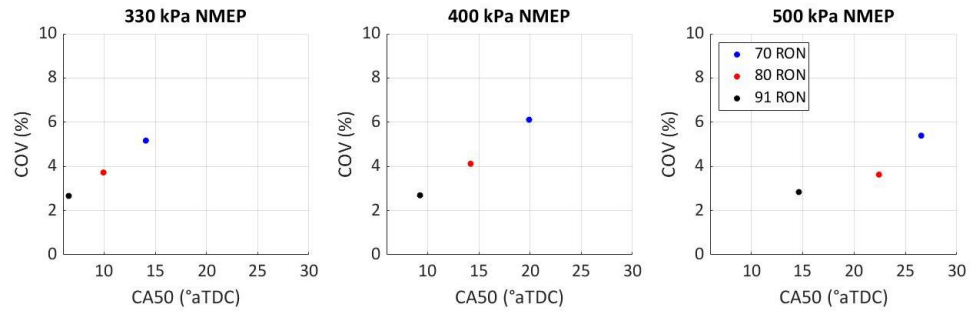


Figure E.4. Fuel effect on COV of IMEPg at 1500 rpm and IMOP of 130° aTDC GE

These experiments yielded results that showed that the RON 80 would be the best fuel based on these results. The results showed that the RON 80 did not impact the upper limit of SI mode greatly and it should yield an easy transition to compression ignition at 5 bar NMEP.

## F Fuel System

To maintain the high-pressure diesel injection system along with supplying the port fuel injection system, the fuel system was complex in comparison to normal systems. Mass flow measurements also were required to be made to the lump sum of fuel supplied to the system to know what the fuel consumption rate was.

### F.1 Fuel System Schematic

The system consisted of two 12 VDC inline fuel pumps, the first pump was to draw the fuel from the tank. This pump drew the fuel from the cell and pushed it through a fuel pressure regulator set at 1 bar. Once the fuel passed through the regulator it entered a micro-motion Coriolis flow meter where the mass flow measurements were made. This is pressure is what the fuel returns to when relieved from the common rail shown in Figure F.1. The fuel returning from the common rail and from the pressure regulator before the high-pressure fuel pump was cooled to 20°C to prevent valorization. When relieving gasoline from a high pressure of 250-350 bar to 1 bar, there is a lot of heat in the fuel from the work being done on it in the high-pressure pump. This causes instant fuel vaporization in the fuel lines. The vapor bubbles in the lines have a much lower density than the liquid fuel resulting in errors in the mass flow measurement. This system was revised multiple times with different accumulators added, temperatures varied etc. to minimize the error in the measurement.

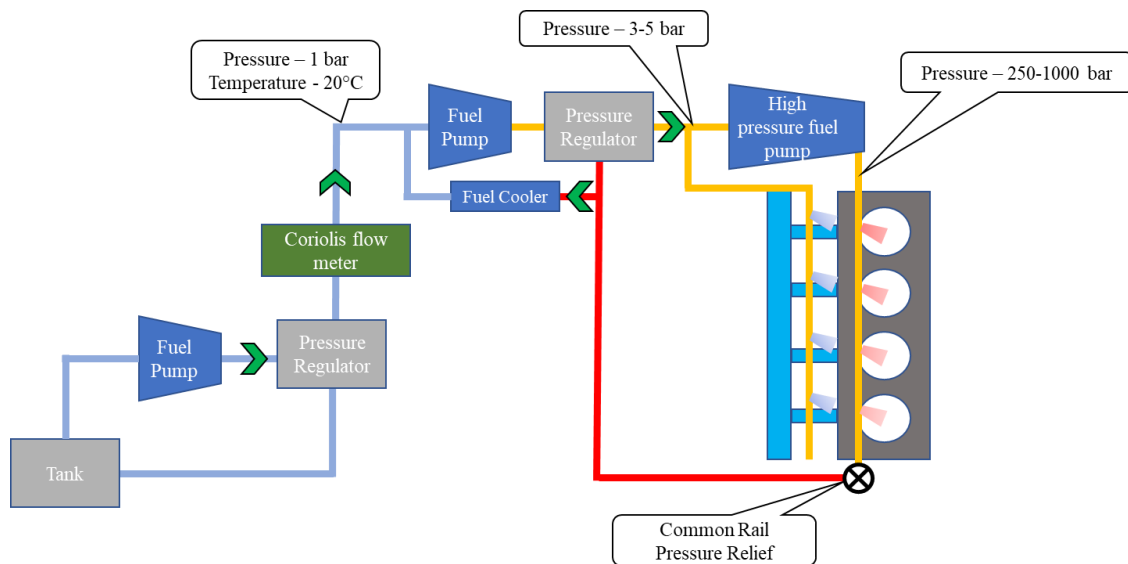


Figure F.1. Fuel system schematic

## G Engine Conditioning system

### G.1 Engine Coolant Pre-Heater

For preheating of the engine coolant, a 10kW Tempco immersion heater was inserted into the cooling system shown in Figure G.1 **Error! Reference source not found.** To Circulate the coolant while the engine was not spinning a circulation pump for a boiler system in a home was used. A double-acting pneumatic ball valve was installed to direct the coolant through the circulation pump when the engine water pump is not in use. This also can be used if an engine does not have a water pump, ie and SCRE.

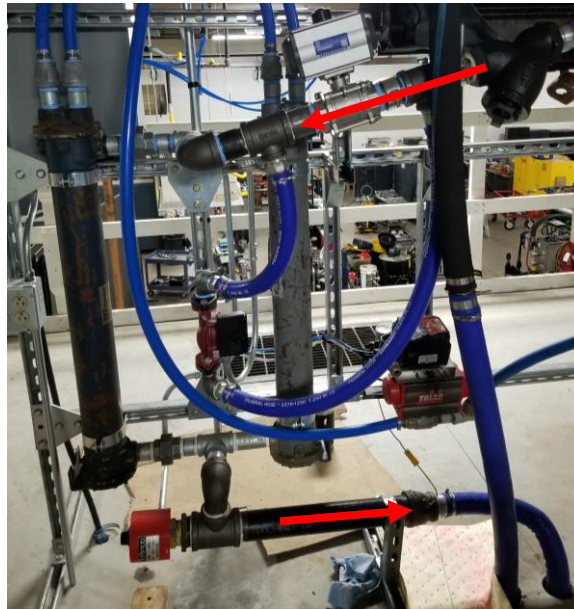


Figure G.1. Engine coolant pre-heater and circulation system configuration

To heat the coolant there is one relay, shown in the electrical panel in Figure G.2, that controls both the air solenoid valve and the circulation pump. A 12VDC digital signal is sent from a relay in the test cell control cabinet to the 12 VDC solid-state relay which in turn electrifies the 120 VAC single phase circulation pump and solenoid valve simultaneously. This configuration ensures the pump is on if the valve is shut. For control of the 480VAC 3-phase immersion heater, a Watlow SCR heater controller was used. This modulates the 3-phase electricity sinusoidal waves based on a 4-20mA duty cycle input. For example, if 25% is requested then for every 4 sine waves, the heater is on for one and off for 3. To disable the 480 VAC to the heater there is a contactor with overload protection. This contactor has a 120 VAC coil which is actuated by the other solid-state relay in the same fashion as the circulation system described previously. In the circuit to the coil, the built-in thermal switch in the heater is, allowing for the contactor to be disabled if the heater overheats the coolant in the event the pump is unable to circulate the coolant for some reason.

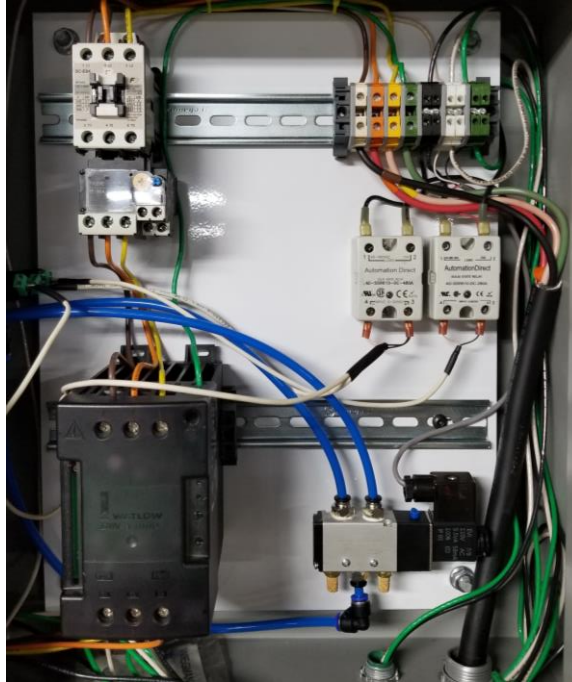


Figure G.2. Engine coolant pre-heater and circulation system electrical panel

## **G.2 Oil and Charge air heater cart**

The oil and charge air heater cart consists of two immersion heaters and two pumps. To control the 480 VAC immersion heaters there are Watlow SCR controllers like the engine coolant pre-heater. The electrical control for the two heaters is the same as the coolant pre-heater with a contactor and solid-state relays along with the thermal switches in the heaters preventing over-temperature situations, Figure G.3.



Figure G.3. Oil and charge air conditioning cart electrical configuration

The cart consists of a 5-gallon aluminum tank for the charge air heating portion. The tank contains the immersion heater and has a 1.1 bar radiator cap to allow for pressurization to be able to reach liquid temperatures above boiling shown in Figure G.4. A circulation pump for an in-home boiler system is used in the system as well to circulate the coolant used as a working fluid to transfer the heat from the electric heater to the heat exchanger in the intake.

The oil pre-heating system consists of a Moroso dry sump pump driven by a 3hp AC electric motor. One stage of the pump is used to circulate the engine oil from the engine cart and through the 2.5" diameter pipe containing the immersion heater. From the immersion heater, the oil enters an oil filter before returning to the engine cart Figure G.4.





Figure G.4. Oil and charge air heater cart

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