

1 Experimental Studies of the Effect of Ethanol Auxiliary Fuelled in Turbulent Jet

2 Igniter in an Optical Engine

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4 **Abstract:**

5 Due to emission legislations, searching for alternative and sustainable energy sources to improve air quality and
6 reduce emissions. It is believed that ethanol can replace fossil. Ethanol can be used in spark-ignition (SI) engines
7 as a pure or blended fuel. Ethanol has 2.6 times higher latent heat of vaporization (HOV) than conventional
8 gasoline per unit of mass and 4.2 times higher latent heat of vaporization for a stoichiometric mixture. Thus
9 leads to reduce the charge temperature and exhaust emissions such as NO_x. Ethanol shows faster combustion
10 compared to gasoline due to higher laminar flame speed, and extending MBT operation range.

11 Turbulent Jet Ignition (TJI) is an advanced ignition system that replaced standard spark ignition in combustion
12 engines. Turbulent Jet Ignition offers very fast burn rates compared to spark plug ignition due to the ignition
13 system producing multiple ignition sites that consume the main charge rapidly. The pre-chamber combustion
14 produces high energy ignition system to ignite the main chamber mixture. Therefore, TJI allows for increased
15 levels of dilution. However, previous experimental studies highlighted the effect of gasoline fuel in pre-chamber
16 ignition but this work investigates optically the effect of ethanol as well as gasoline fuel in the combustion
17 process in a single cylinder optical engine. Additionally, this paper focuses on the effect of injection fuel, spark
18 timing and injection timing in jet formation for both fuels. The results show that increasing the fuel injected in
19 the pre-chamber, the pre-chamber pressure rises faster to a higher peak value and produces greater pressure
20 differential between the pre and main chamber. Increasing pre-chamber pressure causes the jets to travel
21 deeper into the main chamber and the ignition sites become bigger. The injection timing has less effect on
22 combustion stability. However, as the injection timing and spark timing were advanced, the combustion became
23 unstable. Ethanol shows more combustion stability compared to gasoline. This is because ethanol had the fastest
24 flame speed and appeared to exhibit less cyclic variation.

25 **1. Introduction:**

26 Increasing concerns on the environmental issues due to engines emissions have led most nations to propose
27 even more constraints for both engines and fuels. In order to ease environmental stress, particularly cutting
28 greenhouse emissions, and confront the rising energy demand, it should to search for alternative and sustainable
29 energy sources to improve the fuel supply chain. Great efforts are dedicated to improve the combustion process
30 to reduce the fuel consumption and exhaust emissions. It is believed that biofuels can offer a viable short- to
31 mid-term solution [1]. Among many biofuels, ethanol is currently most promising alternative fuel for internal
32 combustion engines [2]. It offers many advantages over other fossil fuels due to the lower combustion
33 temperature resulting in reduced NO_x emissions. Moreover, ethanol has higher RON and MON than gasoline
34 which increase the knock resistance at higher loads and improves combustion phasing. Additionally, ethanol has

35 2.6 times higher latent heat of vaporization (HOV) than conventional gasoline per unit of mass and 4.2 times
 36 higher latent heat of vaporization for a stoichiometric mixture [3]. This reduces the charge temperature and may
 37 increase volumetric efficiency. For example, In the United States, addition of ethanol in gasoline has been
 38 promoted by tax incentives to try to replicate the biofuel success in Brazil [4, 5].

39 However, the major challenges facing spark ignition engines are the slow flame propagation speed and unstable
 40 combustion under lean condition which affects to decrease the engine power output and increase the fuel
 41 consumption [6]. To overcome all these negatives, the ignition was enhanced to increase the ignition energy by
 42 using pre-chamber ignition system. Pre-chamber is the most successful technology that can be used to burn
 43 lean/ ultra-lean mixture. The pre-chamber design and concept have been developed for several years [7, 8, 9,
 44 10, 11, 12]. The jet ignition system works to inject a chemical radicals with high turbulent jet to initiate lean fuel
 45 mixtures in the main chamber. Then, these radicals travel to the main chamber through an orifice or orifices,
 46 igniting the main chamber air-fuel charge. With jet ignition, pre-chamber is able to ignite the main chamber with
 47 further lean $\lambda > 1.4$.

48 The pre-chamber technology was discovered in the beginning the twentieth of century with two stroke Ricardo
 49 Dolphin engines by Harry. He implemented an extra intake valve to increase the inlet air [13]. Another significant
 50 aspect of lean combustion is the torch cell engine where this idea was developed from an axillary valve. In torch
 51 cell engine needed to have an auxiliary pre-chamber fuelling system. The pre-chamber contains a spark plug and
 52 is filled with air during compression stroke [14]. Jet igniter is a part of the divided chamber stratified charge
 53 concept. Jet igniters contain much smaller orifice(s) connecting the main chamber and pre-chamber combustion
 54 cavities. The smaller orifice/ orifices creates a flame jet that penetrates deeper into the main charge. As mention
 55 before, pre-chamber injects high reactive radicals where jet ignition chemical kinetics control the combustion
 56 characteristics. In 1950s, the jet ignition system was presented by Nikolai [12]. Then, this idea was evolved by
 57 Gussak where he used small pre-chamber size [15]. Table 1 summarize the development in jet ignition system
 58 with a small pre-chamber.

59 Table 1. Literature review of jet ignition studies with small pre-chamber volumes (< 3% clearance volume).

Date	Jet Ignition System	Done by
End 1970	Jet Plume Injection and Combustion (JPIC)	Oppenheim et al. [16].
1984	Swirl Chamber Spark Plug	Reinhard Latsh [17].
1992	Hydrogen Assisted Jet Ignition (HAJI)	H.C. Watson et al. [18].
1993	Pulsed Jet Combustion	Warsaw [19].
1993	Hydrogen Flame Jet Ignition (HFJI)	Toyota College [20].
1999	Self-Ignition Triggered by Radical Injection (APIR)	University of Orleans [21].
1999	BPI- Bowl Pre-Chamber Ignition	University of karlsruhe and Multitorch [22]
2003	Pulse Jet Igniter (PJI)	Najt et al. [23]

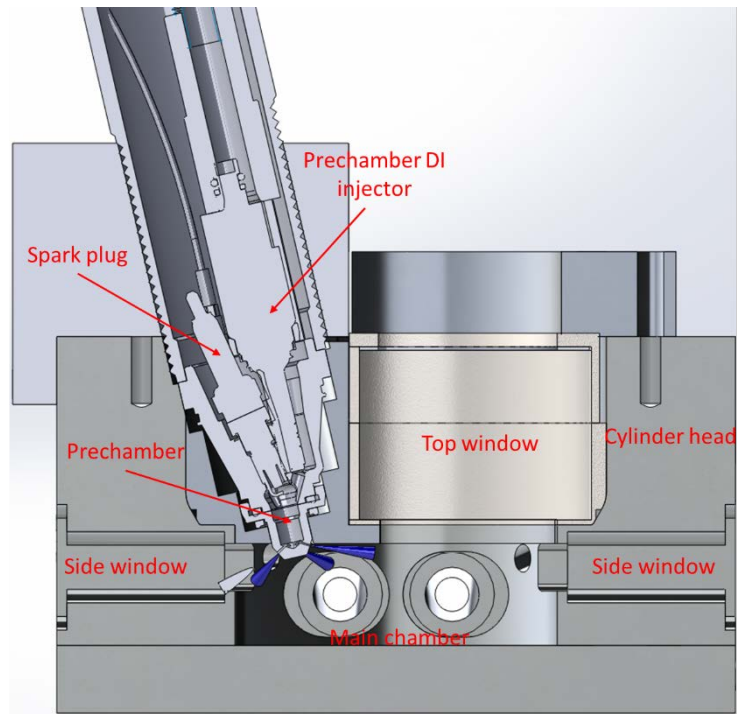
2005	Homogenous Combustion jet Ignition (HCJI).	Robert Bosch. [24]
2007	IAV Pre-Chamber Spark Plug with Pilot Injection.	IAV GmbH and Multitorch [25].
2009	Turbulent Jet Ignition (TJI).	Mahle Powertrain [7].

60 The current work aims at deepening the knowledge of the effects the ignition enhancement in combustion
61 process by comparing normal spark plug (SI) with turbulent jet ignition (TJI). Also, the effect of ethanol will be
62 evaluated in both ignition system under different air-fuel ratios. Differences in engine performance, heat release
63 and combustion and flame propagation are compared and benchmarked with results of conventional gasoline,
64 by simultaneous in-cylinder pressure measurements and high-speed flame chemiluminescence imaging.
65 However, the previous studies were focused on turbulent jet ignition system that fuelled by gasoline with
66 thermodynamic and imaging analysis. In this work the possibility of alternative fuels was evaluated based on
67 criteria for example lean limit and effects on combustion parameters with deep study by using ICCD imaging
68 technique to gain further understanding of the pre-chamber combustion event and jet formation. This is because
69 the jet ignition system is different from normal spark combustion as will be explained later.

70 During this project, pre-chamber that utilizes Mahle Jet Ignition (MJI) which was patented by MAHLE Powertrain,
71 was used. The pre-chamber volume is very small relative to previous pre-chamber to reduce heat loss. Further,
72 a small pre-chamber surface emits fewer hydrocarbon (HC) emissions due to the reduced crevice volume and
73 combustion surface area. The pre-chamber is connecting to the main chamber by 6 orifices. The pre-chamber
74 concept based on [9] have the following aspects;

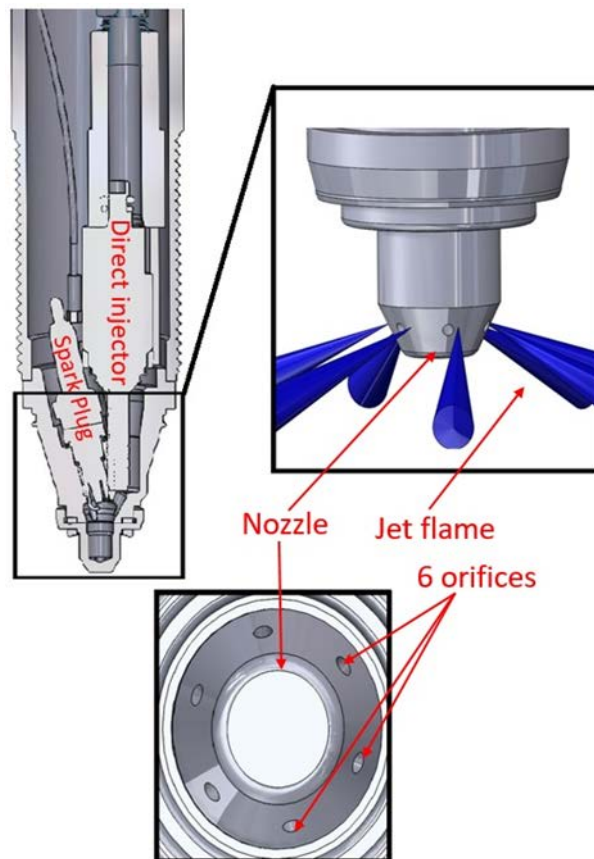
- 75 • Small pre-chamber volume (< 5% of main chamber volume at TDC).
- 76 • Multiple-orifices nozzle connecting pre-chamber to main chamber.
- 77 • Small orifice diameter to promote flame quenching.
- 78 • Separate fuelling strategies for pre-chamber and main chamber.

79 Figure 1 and 2 display computer design images of the pre-chamber installed in the optical engine. By using small
80 orifice diameter, it helps to quench the injected flame from pre-chamber to main chamber. In addition, the
81 quenching flame enters the main chamber with high turbulent that allows to goes deeper into the main charge
82 and to fully burn main chamber charge. Also, turbulence ensures the interaction between radicals and main
83 chamber charge. Both chambers fuelled with two separate fuel systems, main chamber was fired with PFI
84 injector, while the pre-chamber was fuelled by DI injector. The benefit of the fuelling pre-chamber with DI
85 injector is to allow precise and de-coupled control over the mixture in both chambers. Multi-orifices gives more
86 charge distribution in the main chamber. Thus, pre-chamber produces full combustion. Further review of pre-
87 chamber design has been documented [26, 27, 28].



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89 Figure 1. Sectioned view of the MJJ unit installed in the optical engine

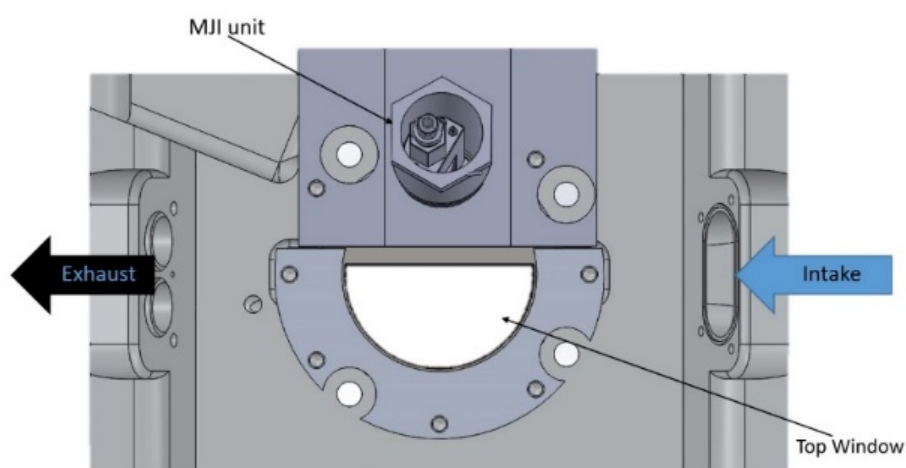


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91 Figure 2. Design image shows the MJJ pre-chamber and nozzle inside.

92 **2. Experimental Setup:**

93 In this study a customized single cylinder optical engine was used with its cylinder head modified for the MTJ
 94 installation. The bottom-end of the engine is based on a commercial Lister Petter TS1 with a modified flat piston
 95 crown. Both intake and exhaust valves are located on the sides so that a full view of the combustion chamber
 96 can be realised by the installation of an optical window at the top. As shown in Figure 3, in order to fit the MJJ
 97 unit, the cylinder head was modified by splitting the top of the cylinder head into two parts. The MTJ unit was
 98 installed in one side and a half circular window on the other side for the optical access from the top. Two optical
 99 windows flushes mounted at the top of the cylinder block can be used to gain the optical access from the side.
 100 The quartz windows are designed to withstand peak in-cylinder pressures up to 150 bar.



101

102 Figure 3. Schematic view of cylinder head

103 The basic geometry of the engine is provided in Table 2. The engine has one inlet and two exhaust valves. To
 104 maintain realistic valve durations and overlap, the side mounted poppet valves are recessed into special
 105 cylindrical pockets within the chamber side walls.

106 Table 2. Basic engine geometry

Parameter	Value (unit)
Displacement	631 cc
Cylinder	1
Bore	95 mm
Stroke	89 mm
Compression Ratio	8.4:1
Exhaust valve	140/370 ($^{\circ}$ aTDC)
Valve overlap	25 (CA)
Inlet valve opening/closing	345/575 ($^{\circ}$ aTDC)

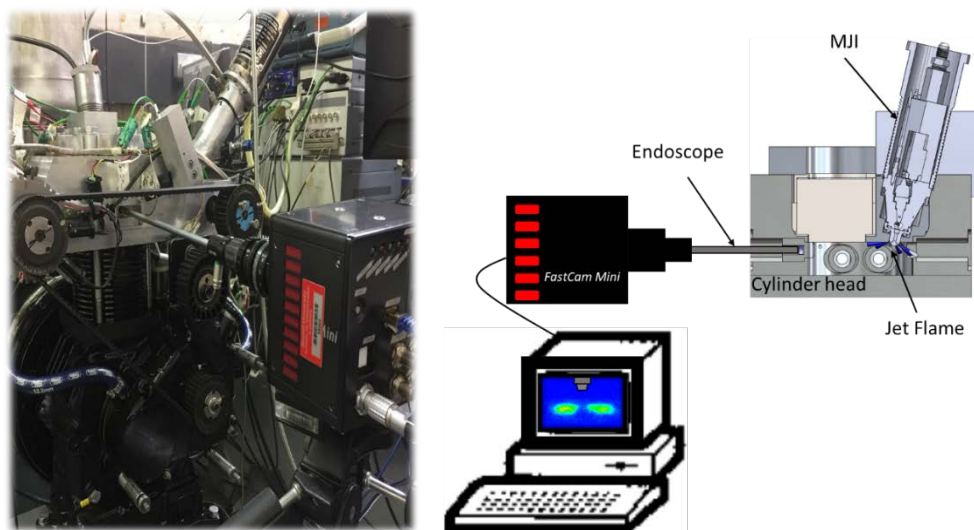
Valve lift	5 mm
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108 The ignition system in the main chamber comprises of an NGK ER9EH 8mm spark plug and a Bosch P100T ignition
109 coil. The engine is coupled to a 10kW DC motor dynamometer via a flexible coupling. The fuel in the main
110 chamber is supplied from a 5.0 litre fuel tank at 3 bar gauge pressure and injected into the intake port by a Bosch
111 EV6 Port fuel injector installed in front of the intake valve. A filter was fitted between the fuel tank and the pump
112 to remove the majority of particles from fuel. The in-cylinder and pre-chamber pressure weres measured by an
113 AVL piezoelectric pressure transducer (GH14DK) and charge amplifier and its output was recorded and digitised
114 by a high-speed USB type LabVIEW data-logging card (DAQ) at four samples per crank angle degree via a digital
115 shaft encoder that connected to the intake camshaft. To determine the overall air/fuel ratio, a Bosch LSU 4.2
116 UEGO sensor (Universal Exhaust Gas Oxygen sensor) was fitted to the exhaust pipe. The UEGO sensor was
117 connected to an ETAS LA4 lambda meter. The intake plenum absolute pressure was recorded by a Gems 1200
118 series CVD sensor. The intake and exhaust temperatures were measured by k-type thermocouples which were
119 fitted downstream of the inlet air heater and in the exhaust ports, respectively. The heat release analysis was
120 performed using an in-house MATLAB program on the averaged cylinder pressure over 300 cycles, recorded in
121 discrete 100 cycle batches. The ignition system for MJJ uses the same NGK ER9EH 8mm spark plug and Bosch
122 P100T ignition coil. Fuel injection into the pre-chamber is achieved by a small DI injector at 70 bar from a high
123 pressure air driven diaphragm pump.

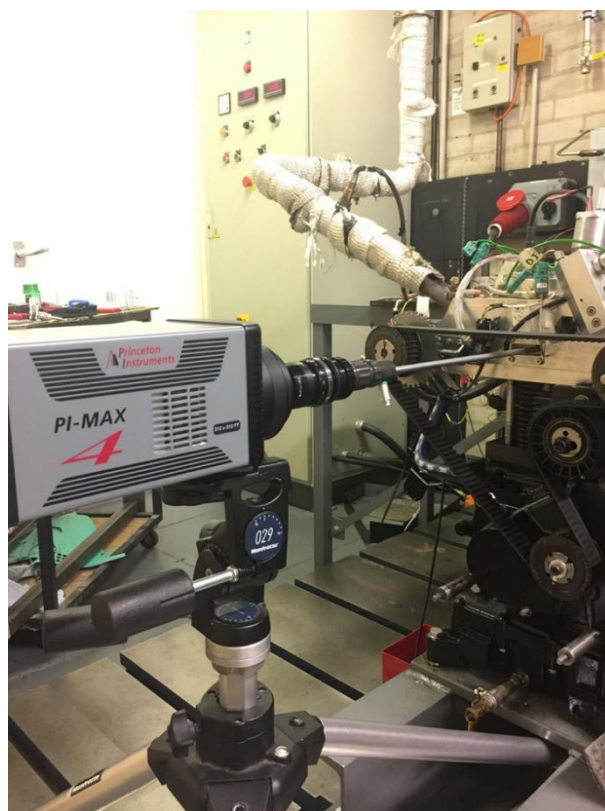
124 **3. Optical measurement**

125 High-speed imaging was used to study the ignition and combustion processes in the cylinder between the main
126 chamber spark ignition and pre-chamber ignition. To obtain the ignition and combustion image, an endoscopic
127 probe was used, as shown in Figure 4. The sapphire window was fixed in place via an adapter and sealed with
128 gasket to prevent the gas leakage. The ICCD camera had an array size of 1024 x 1024 pixels with a pixel size of
129 13 x 13 μm and 16-bit dynamic range at a digitization rate of 10 MHz (figure 5). On the other hand, the high
130 speed camera was used to capture the combustion and that also gives the opportunity to study the combustion
131 process. The frame rate was set at 4500 fps with resolution 1024 x 992. The synchronization of the ICCD and
132 high speed camera with the engine was driven by the trigger signal at a given crank angle through a delay
133 generator. The intensifier-gate delay was set at 31 ns, and width of 0.81 μs at 1200 rpm for imaging technique
134 in order to have a good accuracy.



135

136 Figure 4. Picture and schematic of high speed imaging setup



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138 Figure 5. Picture of ICCD imaging setup

139 **4. EXPERIMENTAL TEST CONDITIONS**

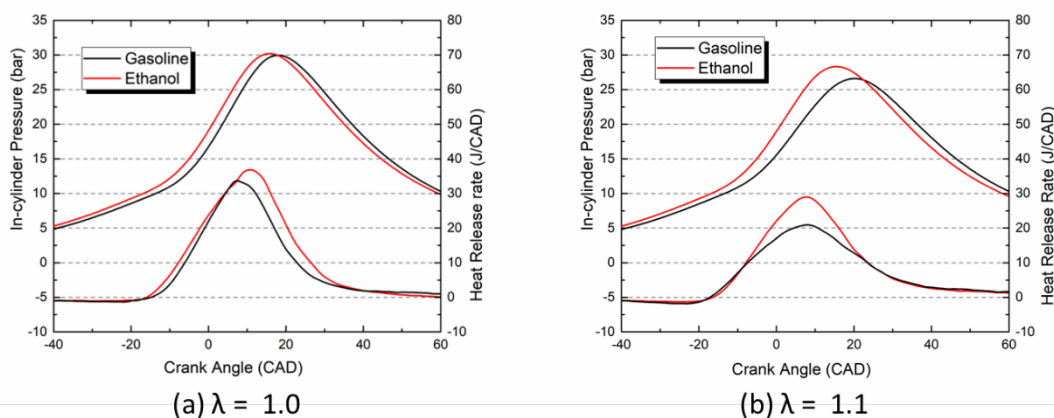
140 All experiments were carried out at 1200 rpm and wide-open-throttle (WOT) with gasoline or ethanol. The spark
 141 timing was fixed at 22 °CA bTDC for the main chamber ignition and 10 °CA bTDC for the pre-chamber ignition,
 142 which produced similar pressure traces at baseline engine operation at different air/fuel ratios. To increase λ
 143 (the relative air-fuel ratio), the fuel amount was reduced while the inlet air pressure was fixed at 1 bar. The

144 upper limit of the coefficient of variation of the IMEP (COV_{IMEP}) is defined as $\leq 5\%$. The fuel injection duration in
 145 the in pre-chamber was fixed at 50°CA before the spark discharge to allow the mixture formation to take place.
 146 The pre-chamber injection fuel was set to 0.3 mg/pulse for both fuels. Based on the calculated mean gas
 147 temperature, the pre-chamber air mass was calculated and then the lambda values of pre-chamber mixture
 148 were estimated to be 0.78, and 1.09 for gasoline and ethanol, respectively. It was estimated that the
 149 thermodynamic state within the pre-chamber at the time of injection was about 5 bar and 550 K. The pre-
 150 chamber volume was 1000 mm^3 which is 1.27 % of the main chamber volume at TDC.

151 **5. Results and Discussion**

152 **5.1 Thermodynamic results**

153 Figure 6 shows the in-cylinder pressure traces and heat release rate for gasoline and ethanol under
 154 stoichiometric and lean condition ($\lambda = 1.1$) with spark ignition in the main chamber at a fixed spark timing of 22°CA
 155 $^\circ\text{CA}$ bTDC. As shown, ethanol produces higher peak cylinder pressure at an earlier crank angles at the same
 156 spark timing in both cases. The largest difference in maximum cylinder pressure between ethanol and gasoline
 157 occurs under stoichiometric condition, with 31.4 bar for ethanol and 29.1bar for gasoline. This is caused by the
 158 relatively faster burning rate of ethanol [29], as well as the higher energy input of ethanol in the cylinder. The
 159 lower heating values and the stoichiometric AFR of gasoline, and ethanol are 41.087 and 28.865 MJ/kg, 14.421
 160 and 8.953, respectively. Under constant throttle (constant volumetric air flow rate) the input energy contained
 161 in a stoichiometric mixture of one kilogram of intake air and fuel are 2.92 and 3 MJ for gasoline and ethanol,
 162 respectively. As expected cylinder pressures and heat release rates drop slightly with leaner mixtures.

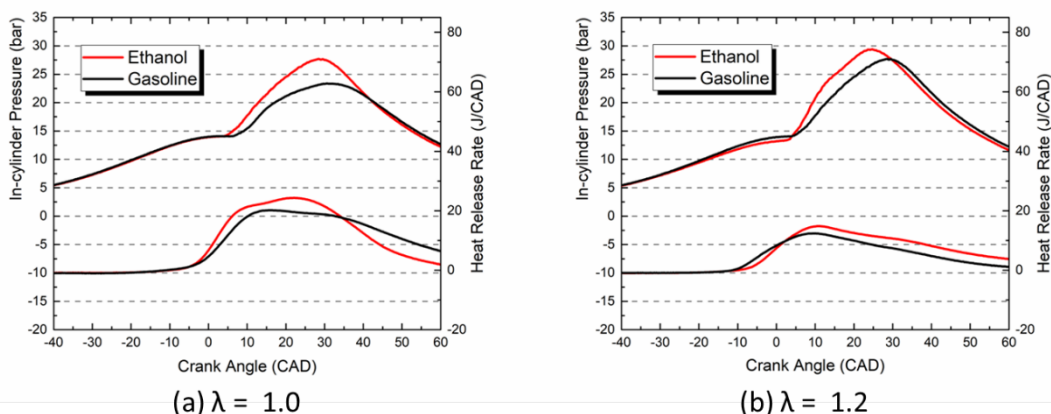


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164 Figure 6. In-cylinder pressure and heat release rate curves for the main chamber spark ignition at 22°CA bTDC

165 Figure 7 shows in-cylinder pressure and heat release rate with gasoline and ethanol under fixed spark timing 10°CA
 166 $^\circ\text{CA}$ bTDC in the unfuelled pre-chamber. The corresponding net IMEP of each fuel under different relative air/fuel
 167 ratios are shown in Figure 8. During the test, different air/fuel ratios were achieved by adjusting the fuel injection
 168 duration under constant throttle opening. Therefore, the highest IMEPs were obtained at lambda 1.0 with
 169 Ethanol for both ignition systems.

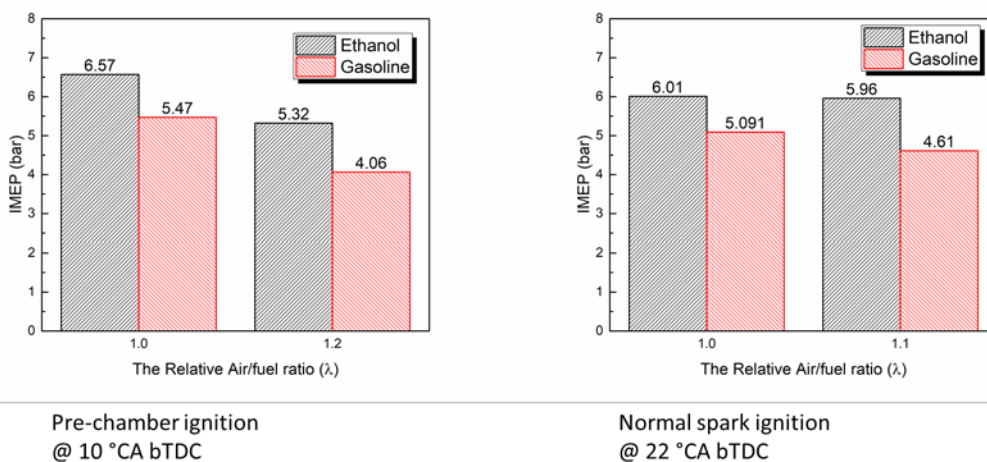
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172 Figure 7. In-cylinder pressure and heat release rate at fixed spark timing 10 °CA bTDC

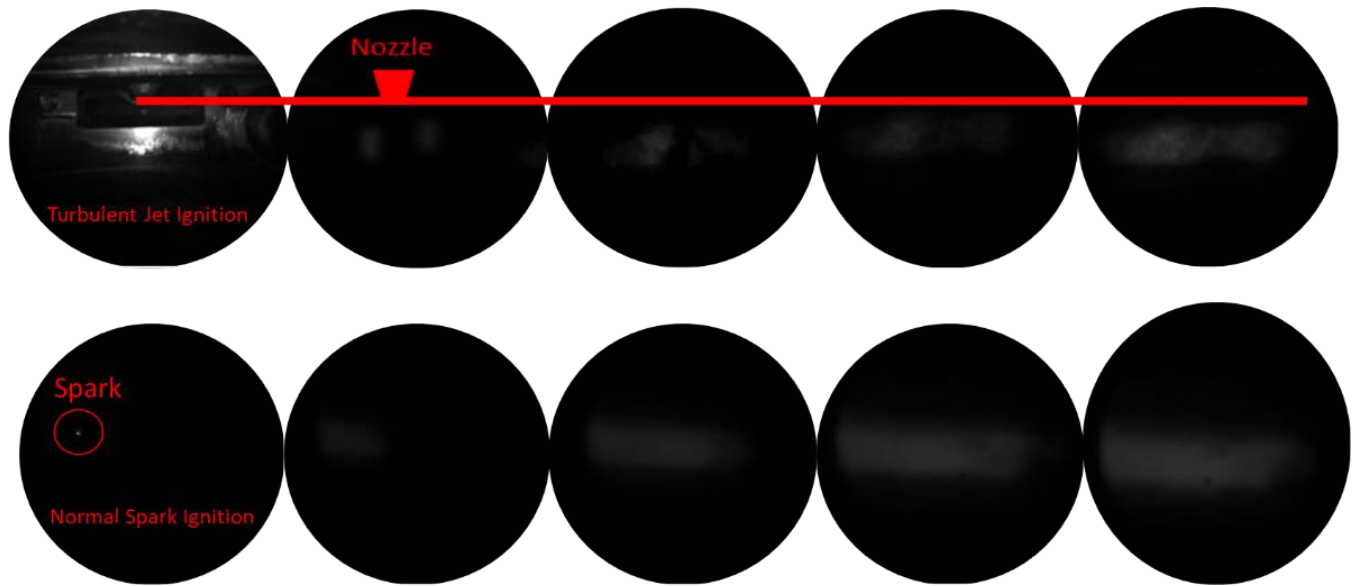
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175 Figure 8. Effect of fuel on IMEP variation with lambda with unfueled pre-chamber.

176 Figure 9 is illustrated the differences between the two ignition systems by the high-speed images of the ignition
 177 and flame propagation in the main chamber. The first visible site of combustion was located near the spark plug
 178 with ignition in the main chamber while the initial combustion appeared in more regions with greater intensity
 179 by turbulent jet ignition from the pre-chamber.



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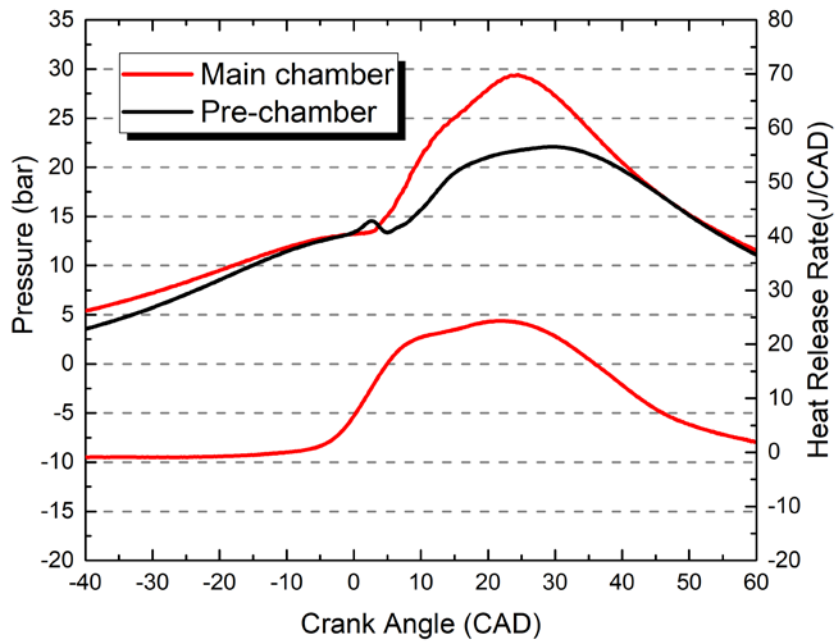
181 Figure 9. Shows the comparison between normal spark ignition and jet ignition system.

182 5.2 Optical result:

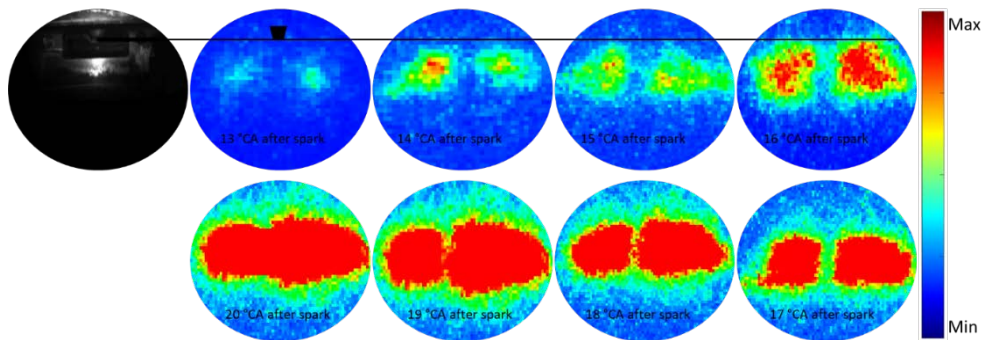
183 However, this report is discussed the differences between normal spark ignition and pre-chamber ignition
 184 system but this work aim to study the effect of injected radicals from pre-chamber to main chamber. In order to
 185 explain the ignition process and understand flame propagation characteristics during the combustion, an ICCD
 186 camera (*Pimax4*, Princeton) coupled with endoscope was used in place of the high speed video camera. Figure
 187 10 and 11 show the pre-chamber and main chamber pressure and the corresponding combustion images of
 188 ethanol and gasoline at fixed spark timing of 10 °CA bTDC in the pre-chamber at lambda 1.0 and 1.2. In this case,
 189 the main chamber charge was fire with unfuelled pre-chamber. This was realized by replacing the pre-chamber
 190 injector with dummy injector. The pre-chamber is fed a pre-mixed stoichiometric/ slightly rich mixture from the
 191 main chamber due to the piston motion and subsequent flow interaction between both combustion volumes.
 192 The in-cylinder pressure traces of both the main and pre-chambers and the corresponding combustion images
 193 of lambda 1 for both fuel as shown in figure 10. Interestingly, pre-chamber pressure becomes slightly higher
 194 than main chamber pressure when spark plug at pre-chamber ignites the air/fuel mixture where it return back
 195 from main chamber to pre-chamber volume during combustion stroke. Then, the combustion continues across
 196 the pre-chamber and leads to increase the pre-chamber pressure. The ICCD camera was able to record the
 197 injected products from pre-chamber through nozzle orifices. These products were first appear at 13 °CA and 14
 198 °CA for ethanol and gasoline, respectively. There was a delayed of the first appearance of injected products
 199 compare with fuelled pre-chamber. This is may be due to the effect of pre-chamber fuel to increase the pre-
 200 chamber pressure which leads to accelerate the injected radicals to leave the pre-chamber volume faster. By
 201 measuring the jet travel distance from the nozzle orifice outlet to main chamber, the light emissions appear at
 202 distance 14.4 mm for ethanol fuel while it appear at distance 14.21 for gasoline fuel.

203 Figure 11 shows the in-cylinder pressure traces of both the main and pre-chambers and the corresponding
 204 combustion images of lambda 1.2 for ethanol and gasoline. It can clearly notice that the combustion become

205 slower for both fuels. As the main combustion effects the pre-chamber combustion, the pre-chamber
 206 combustion become slower and that effects to delay the first appear of the visible chemiluminescence sites in
 207 the main chamber to 14 °CA for ethanol and 16 °CA for gasoline. Also, it can notice that the injected jet travel
 208 shorter compare to lambda 1.0 where the jet travel distance reduce to 13.85 and 13.23 for ethanol and gasoline,
 209 respectively.



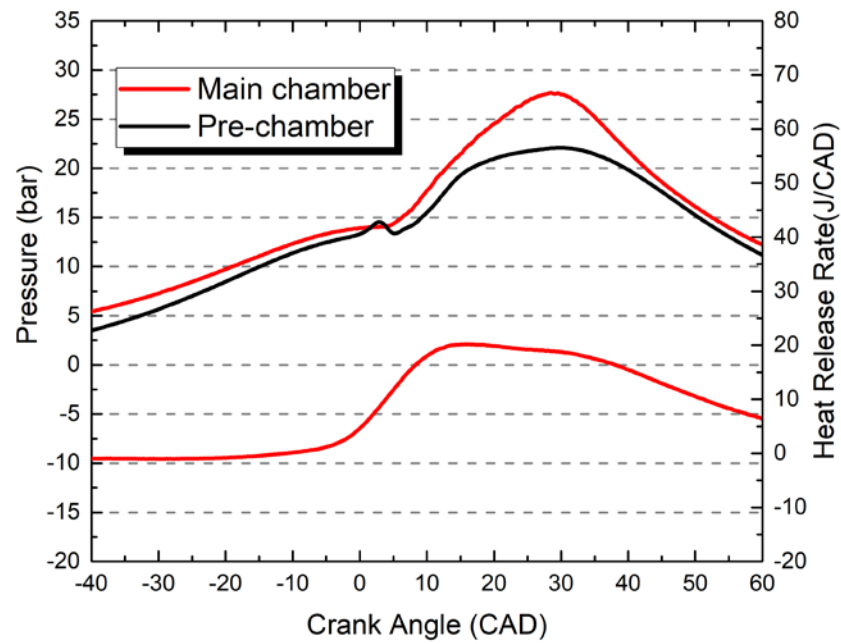
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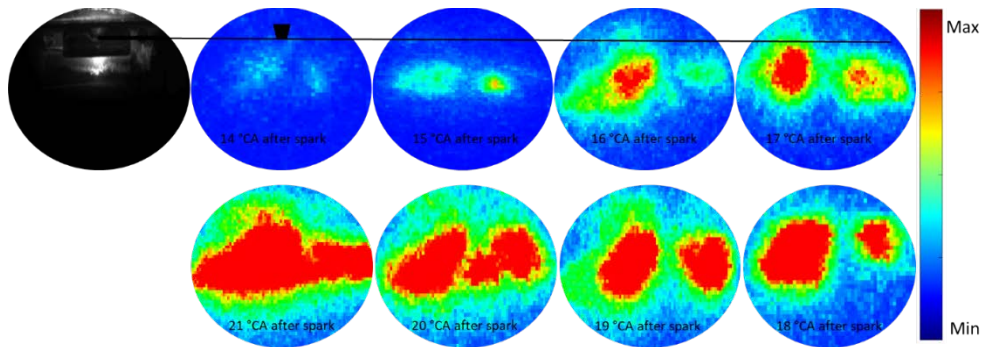
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(a) Ethanol Fuel



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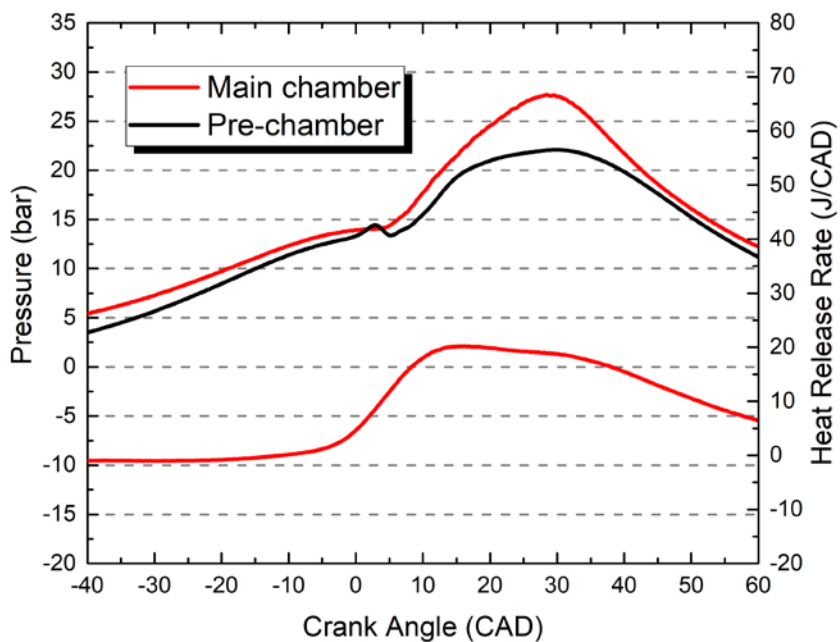
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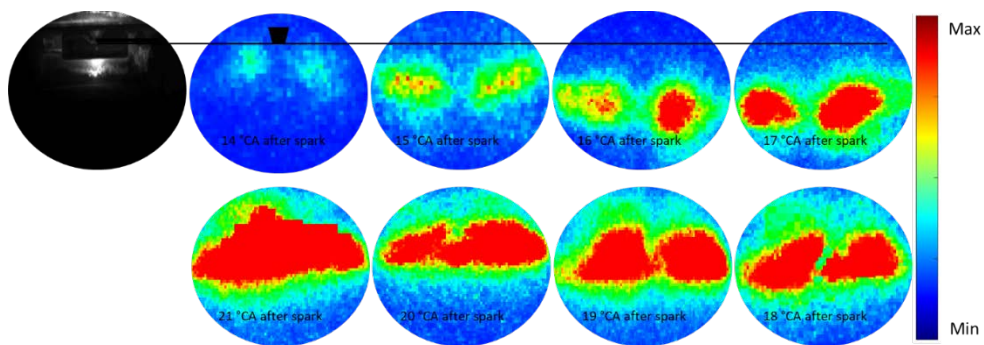
(b) Gasoline Fuel

216 Figure 10. Pre-chamber and main chamber pressures and ICCD images of ignition sites in the main chamber at

217 fixed spark timing 10 °CA bTDC and $\lambda = 1.0$.



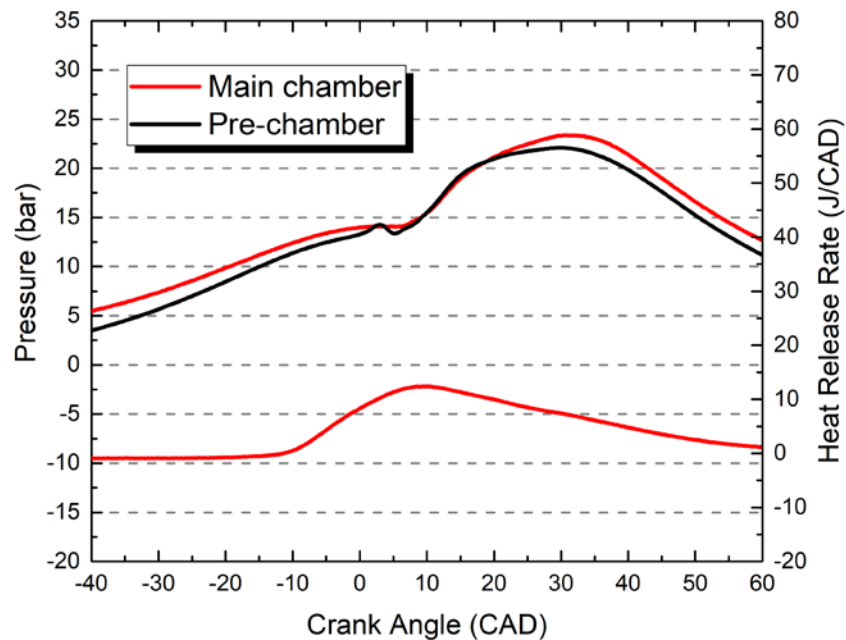
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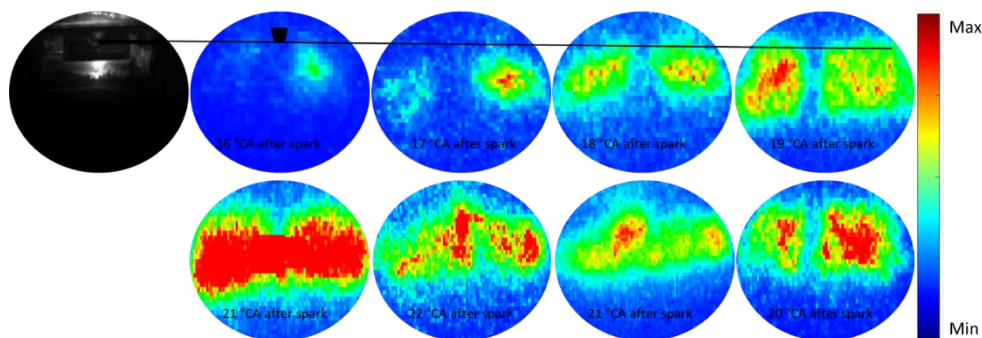
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(a) Ethanol Fuel



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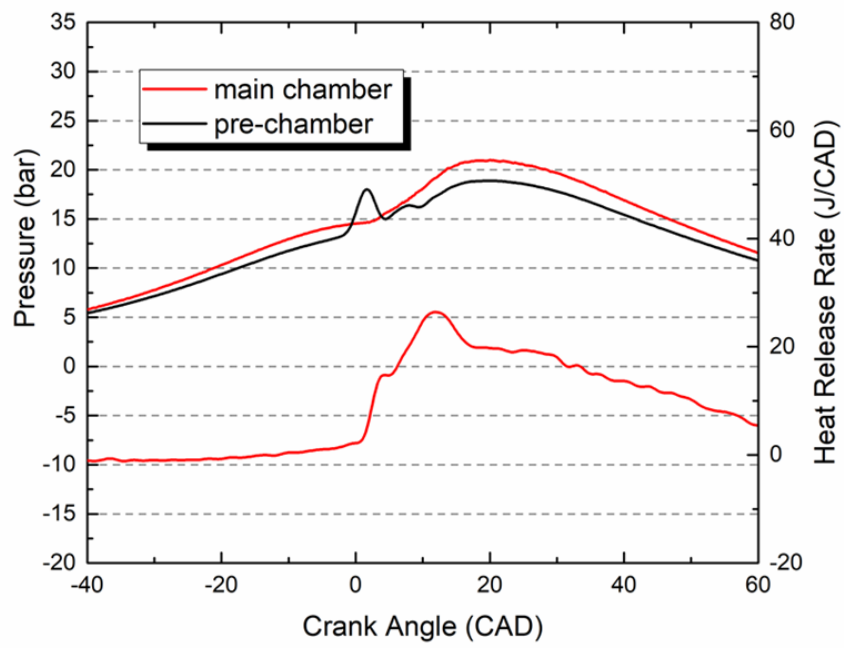
(b) Gasoline Fuel

224 Figure 11. Pre-chamber and main chamber pressures and ICCD images of ignition sites in the main chamber at
 225 fixed spark timing 10 °CA bTDC and $\lambda = 1.2$.

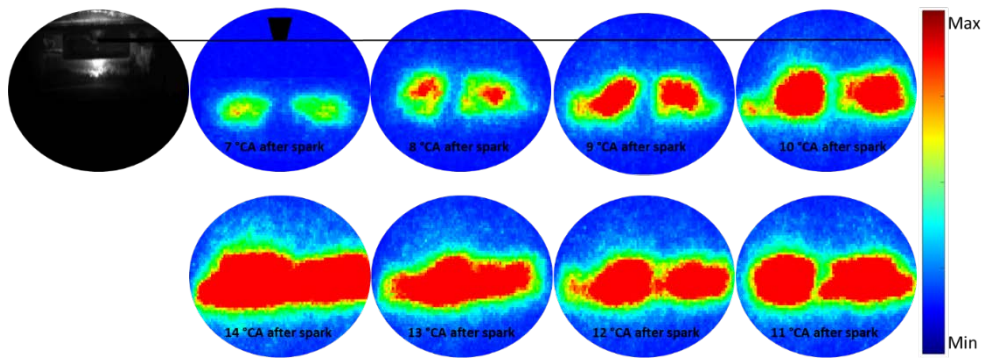
226 Next, to reach further lean, fuelled pre-chamber was used. In case of fuelled pre-chamber, the spark timing was
 227 fixed at 10 °CA bTDC, start of injection at 50 °CA bTDC and injection fuel 0.3 mg/pulse for both fuels. To have
 228 more reliable comparison, lambda of 1.4 was chosen in order to ensure stable, repeatable combustion in the
 229 optical engine [12]. The images were obtained for different fuel quantities of 0.3, 0.5 to 0.7 mg/pulse in the pre-
 230 chamber. The pre-chamber pressure is acquired by using an AVL GH14D pressure transducer. Figure 12 shows
 231 the in-cylinder pressure traces of both the main and pre-chambers and the corresponding combustion images
 232 of ethanol. Note that pre-chamber pressure becomes higher than main chamber pressure when spark plug at
 233 pre-chamber ignites the air/fuel mixture then combustion continues across the pre-chamber. Because of the
 234 increased pre-chamber pressure, the pre-chamber products are injected to main chamber through the nozzle
 235 orifices and then captured by the ICCD camera. At fuel injection 0.7 mg/pulse, the visible chemiluminescence
 236 sites in the main chamber first appear at 7 °CA after spark ignition and they are delayed to 9 °CA, 11 °CA after

237 spark ignition as the injection duration of ethanol in the pre-chamber was reduced to 0.5 and 0.3 mg/pulse,
238 respectively, which are approximately 2 CAD after pre-chamber pressure rose. The delayed and detached
239 appearance of the light emission sites away from the nozzle clearly demonstrates that these jets were quenched
240 when leaving the orifices. The light emission sites in the first image are coloured in green based on the light
241 intensity and are produced by the hot partially burned jets. The jets first occurs approximately at the point of
242 peak pre-chamber pressure. In the next few frames, the light intensity in the middle region turns into red as the
243 higher temperature combustion occurs and the high temperature region in red expands as the flame fronts
244 continue outward from the jet ignition sites. In addition to their delayed appearance in the main chamber, the
245 location of the first light emission sites become closer to the exit of the pre-chamber when the fuel injected in
246 the pre-chamber is reduced. Measured by the distance from the nozzle orifice outlet, the first light emission
247 sites are reduced from 22.34 to 16.56 and 14.6 mm as the fuel injection in the pre-chamber is reduced from 0.7
248 mg/pulse, to 0.5 mg/pulse and 0.3 mg/pulse. Also, it is notice that the jet formation size seems decreased. These
249 results can be explained by the greater pressure rise in the pre-chamber which is caused by the more heat
250 released with increasing fuel in the pre-chamber. The larger pressure differential between the pre-chamber and
251 main chamber with more fuel in the pre-chamber results in the jets emanating the nozzle orifices at higher speed
252 and travelled more distance before they are reignited in the main chamber. However, the higher temperature
253 of the jets produced by the burning of more fuel in the pre-chamber reduces the ignition delay of the jets in the
254 main chamber.

255 For the same reason, similar results are obtained with pre-chamber fuelled with gasoline. The visible jets first
256 appear at 9 °CA after spark with the fuel injection of 0.7 mg/pulse, and is delayed to 11, 12 °CA after spark for
257 fuel injection of 0.5 and 0.3 mg/pulse, as shown in figure 13. They are about 2 °CA later than those of the ethanol
258 operation. The location of the first visible jets are 20.05, 15.51 and 14.31 for fuel injection 0.7, 0.5 and 0.3
259 mg/pulse, respectively. They are slightly shorter than those of the ethanol, because the pre-chamber pressure
260 is lower than that of ethanol by 2 bar.



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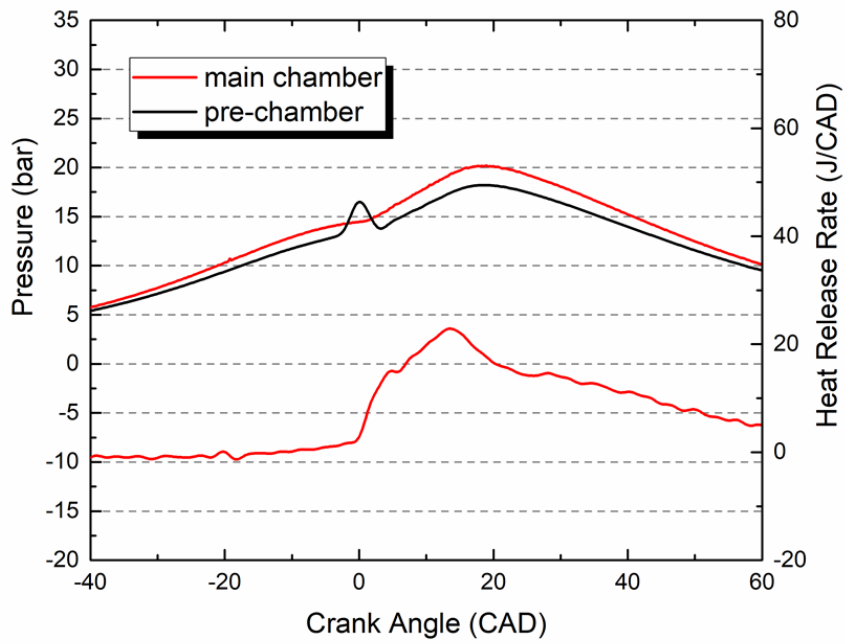


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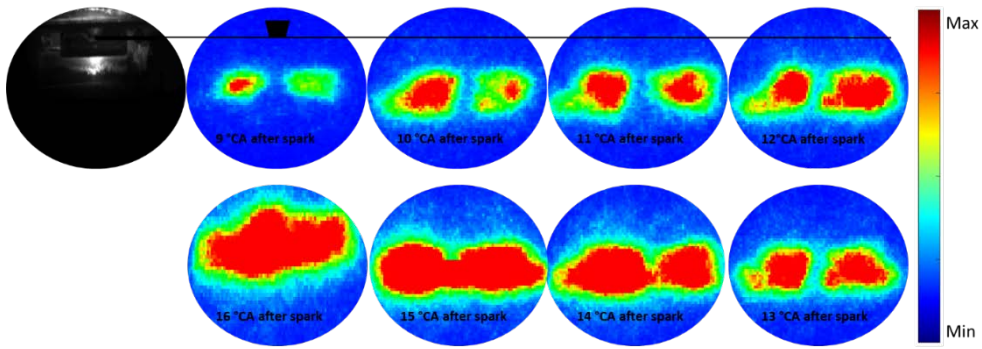
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(a) fuel injection 0.7 mg/pulse



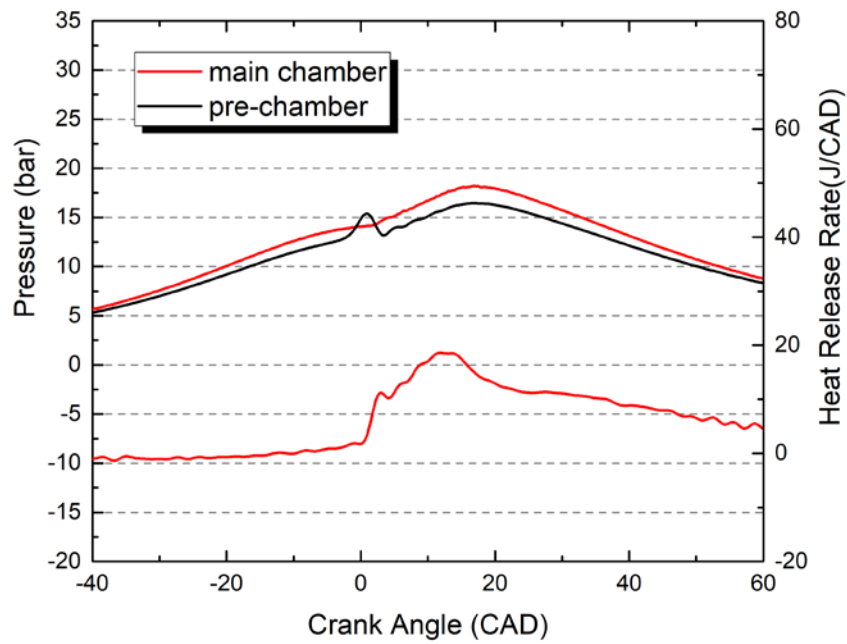
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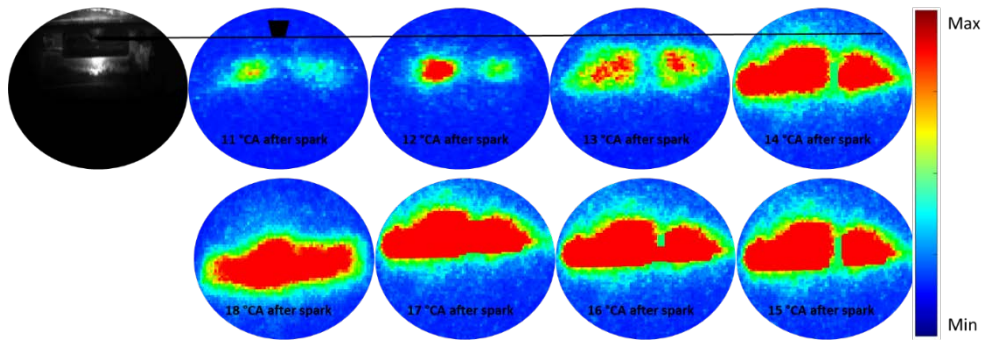
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(b) fuel injection 0.5 mg/pulse



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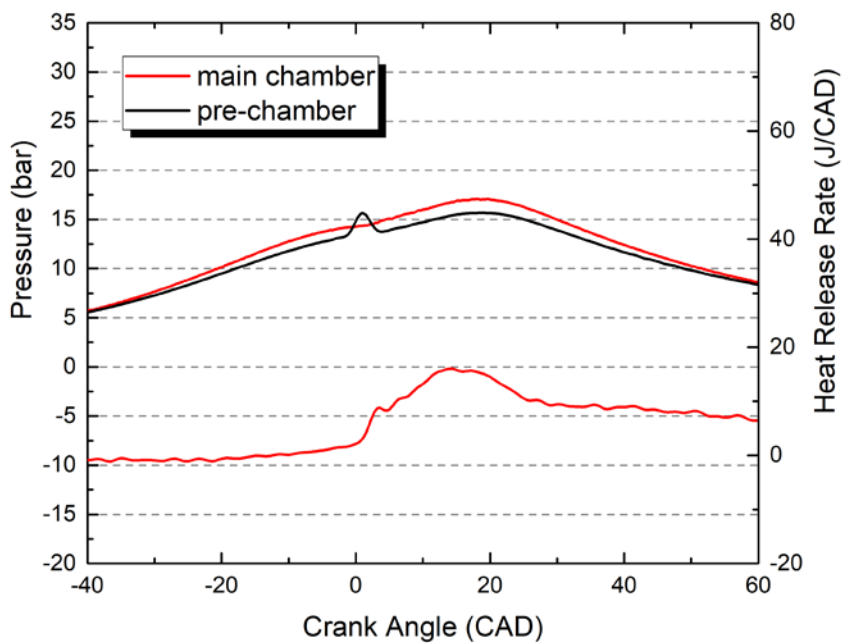
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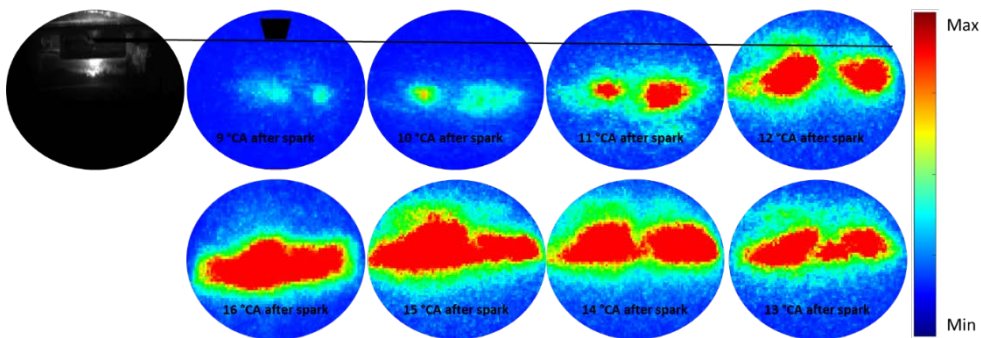
(c) fuel injection 0.3 mg/pulse

271 Figure 12. Pre-chamber and main chamber pressure and ICCD images of ignition sites in the main chamber at
 272 fixed injection timing 50 °CA bTDC and spark timing 10 °CA bTDC fuelled by ethanol under fuel injection duration
 273 is 0.3, 0.5 and 0.7 mg/pulse.

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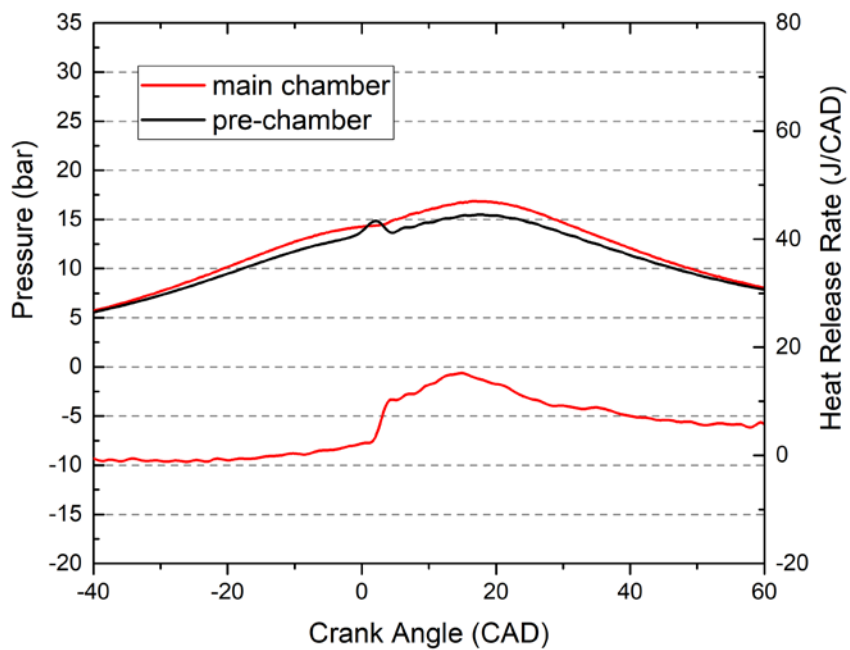
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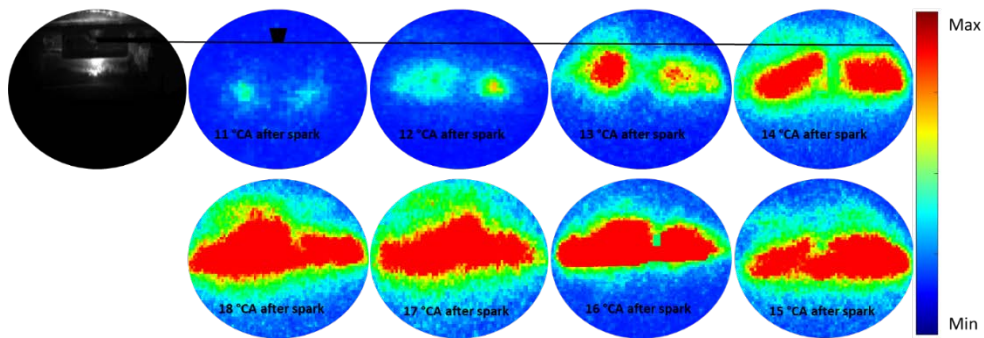
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(a) fuel injection 0.7 mg/pulse



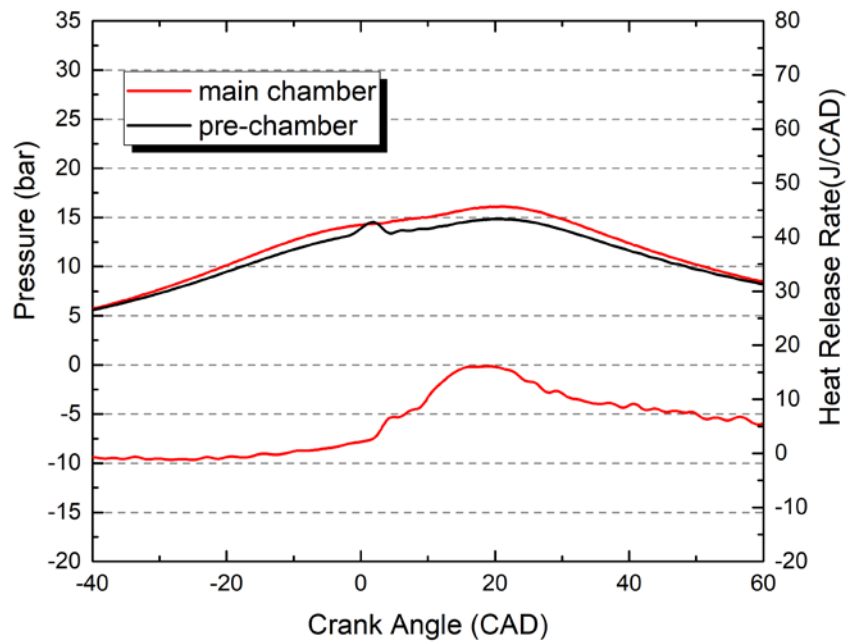
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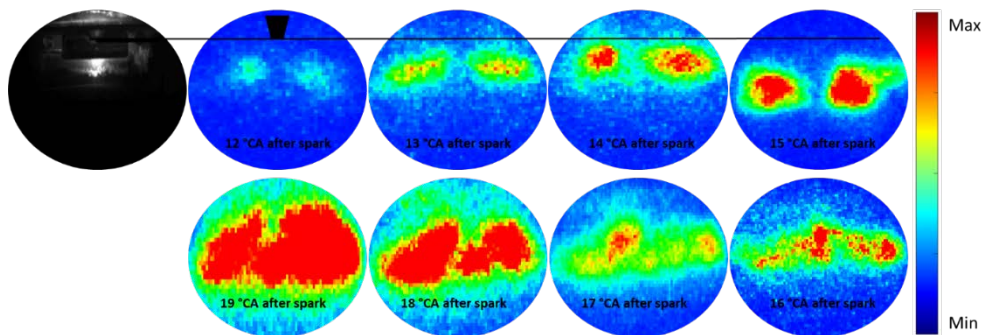
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(b) fuel injection 0.5 mg/pulse



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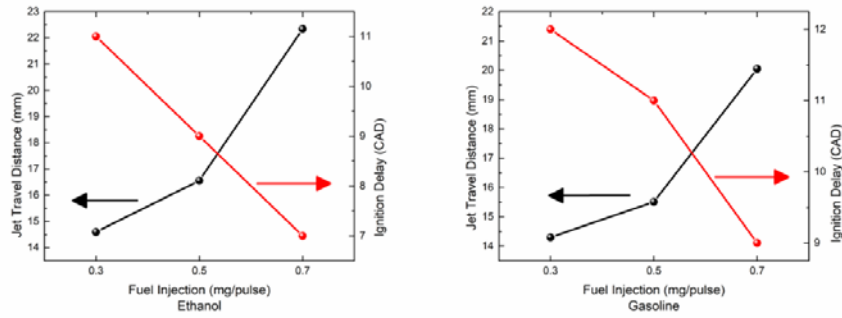
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(c) fuel injection 0.3 mg/pulse

284 Figure 13. Pre-chamber and main chamber pressures and ICCD images of ignition sites in the main chamber at
 285 fixed injection timing 50 °CA bTDC and spark timing 10 °CA bTDC fuelled by gasoline under fuel injection duration
 286 is 0.3, 0.5 and 0.7 mg/pulse.

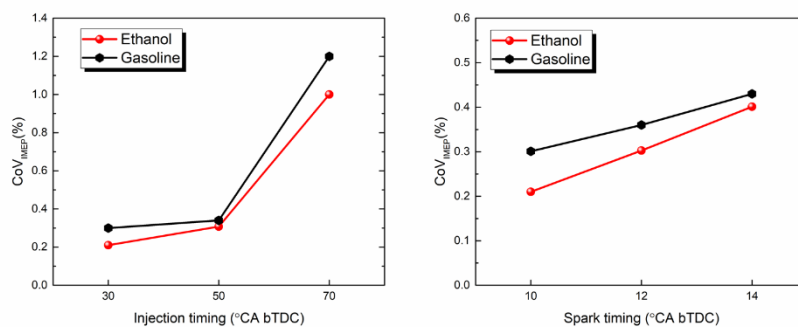
287 Figure 14 shows the jet travel distance and injection delay for both fuel at fixed injection timing 50 °CA bTDC
 288 and spark timing 10 °CA bTDC under different fuel injection duration is 0.3, 0.5 and 0.7 mg/pulse. The figure
 289 illustrates the effect of fuel type and fuel injection at injected pre-chamber products. Ethanol fuel at different
 290 fuel injection duration shows that it has great effect on injected products compare to gasoline. Moreover, at
 291 fuel injection duration 0.7 mg/pulse the injected radicals travel deeper and the jet flame appear faster.



292

293 Figure 14. Shows the jet travel distance and ignition delay for both fuel at different fuel injections 0.3, 0.5 and
 294 0.7 mg/pulse.

295 Additionally, the effect of injection timing and spark timing in the pre-chamber are studied. The fuel injection
 296 was fixed at 0.3 mg/pulse, spark timing at 10 °CA bTDC while the start of pre-chamber injection was changed to
 297 30, 50 and 70 °CA bTDC. The results show that the injection timing has less effect on combustion stability as
 298 shown in figure 15. However, as the injection timing was advanced to 70 °CA bTDC, the combustion became
 299 unstable. Based on the combustion stability, the start of injection at 50 °CA bTDC is an optimal for both fuels.
 300 The results indicate that the actual mixture strength at the time of the pre-chamber spark ignition varied with
 301 the pre-chamber injection, which could be caused by the interaction of the air flow into the pre-chamber. Fuel
 302 injected too early in the pre-chamber was likely to become more diluted at the time of spark ignition by the
 303 incoming air. Whereas very late injection in the pre-chamber may not be able to produce a near stoichiometric
 304 mixture at the point of spark discharge. Finally, the effect of spark timing in the fuelled pre-chamber was
 305 investigated by fixing the injection at 50 °CA bTDC, fuel injection 0.3 mg/pulse for both fuels as shown in figure
 306 15. It was noticed that as the spark timing advanced the combustion become unstable. However, ethanol shows
 307 more combustion stability under all spark timing compared to gasoline. This is because ethanol had the fastest
 308 flame speed and ethanol appeared to exhibit less cyclic variation.



309

310 Figure 15. The effect of pre-chamber fuel injection timing and spark timing for ethanol and gasoline.

311 6. Conclusions

312 In this study, effects of pre-chamber ignition with or without gasoline or ethanol were investigated by means of
 313 in-cylinder pressure and high speed optical at a constant engine speed of 1200 rpm and wide open throttle. High

314 speed and ICCD cameras were used to capture the ignition and combustion processes in the combustion
315 chamber.

316 The results show that, at the fixed spark timing of 10 °CA bTDC and injection at 50 °CA bTDC in the pre-chamber,
317 increasing the fuel injected in the pre-chamber from 0.3, to 0.5 and 0.7 mg/pulse, the pre-chamber pressure
318 rises faster to a higher peak value, producing greater pressure differential between the pre and main chamber
319 and faster turbulent jets of partially burned products at higher temperature. The increasing in the pre-chamber
320 pressure causes the jets to travel deeper into the main chamber and the ignition sites become bigger, though
321 the ignition delay of the main chamber combustion becomes shorter as the temperature of jets is higher. The
322 turbulent ignition jets of ethanol are characterised with greater momentum than gasoline due to the faster
323 combustion speed of ethanol and higher energy input. In comparison, the pre-chamber fuel injection timing has
324 less effect. However, it was noticed that at injection timing of 70 °CA bTDC the combustion becomes unstable.
325 It was noticed that as the spark timing advanced the combustion become unstable.

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