

1 Effect of equalising ignition delay on the combustion and soot emission 2 characteristics of model fuel blends

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8 **Abstract:** This paper examines the effect of equalizing ignition delay in a compression ignition engine. Two sets
9 of tests were conducted. A constant injection timing tests with start of fuel injection at 10° CAD BTDC and a
10 constant ignition timing tests while also keeping the 10° CAD BTDC injection and adding ignition improver (2-
11 ethylhexylnitrate -2EHN) to the fuel mixtures. Soot particles were characterised using DMS-500 instrument in
12 terms of mass, size, and number. The experimental results showed that adding 2-EHN to the model fuel blends
13 reduced the soot surface area, soot mass concentration and soot mean size. Replacing 20% (vol) of a C₇-heptane,
14 with 20% of methyl-decanoate (an oxygenated C₁₁ molecule) did not affect the ignition delay or rates of fuel air
15 premixing, the peak in-cylinder pressure and heat release rates. Toluene addition (0 - 22.5% by vol) to heptane
16 increased the mean size of the soot particles generated by only 3% while also resulting in a slight increase in the
17 peak cylinder pressure and peak heat release rates. Blending toluene and methyl-decanoate into heptane without
18 adding- 2EHN increased the premix phase fraction by at least 13%. However, adding 2EHN (400 -1500ppm), the
19 premixed phase fraction decreased by at least 11%.

20 **Key words:** combustion characteristics, soot emission, compression ignition engine, ignition improver, premixed
21 Phase

22

23 **1.0 Introduction**

24 For centuries now, compression engines fuelled with fossil diesel have been effective for power
25 generation and heavy duty road transportation systems [1],[2]. Despite these significant contributions,
26 they still suffer hugely from exhaust particulate emissions which degrade atmospheric air quality due
27 to the toxicity of such particulates [3],[4,5]. Inhalation of particulate contaminated air has led and still
28 leading to the rising global human morbidities and mortalities [6]. To control and reduce particulate
29 emissions and their associated toxicities, there has been substantial body of research in the literature

30 that employed several strategies. Such strategies have evolved from combusting fuels at low
31 temperatures [7] or using diesel particulate filters [8] and to the reduction of toxic particulate precursors
32 [9].

33 In recent days, the use of oxygenated fuels or biofuels have been investigated [10]. For example, Ning
34 et al. [11] examined the effect of adding alcohols (methanol, ethanol and n-butanol) into diesel fuel on
35 the emission and combustion characteristics in a direct injection diesel engine. They operated the engine
36 at maximum speed of 2500rpm and a low indicated mean effective pressure (IMEP) of 0.75MPa. Ning
37 et al. described that adding primary alcohols to diesel fuel did not only increase the combustion duration
38 and ignition delay period but had also reduced particulate emissions. Huang et al. [12] investigated
39 particle emission characteristics of a high-pressure common-rail engine under different EGR conditions.
40 They used pure diesel (D100), 70%diesel30%gasoline, 70%diesel30%n-butanol and
41 70%diesel15%gasoline15%n-butanol for combustion. Their experimental results show that, with
42 increasing EGR ratios, the in-cylinder pressure peak decreases and the heat release is delayed for the
43 combustion of each fuel. In a computational perspective, Huang et al. [13] also developed and validated
44 a new reduced diesel-n-butanol blends mechanism for engine applications. They confirmed that the
45 proposed mechanism can be used to simulate the combustion of diesel or n-butanol-diesel blends in
46 multi-dimensional CFD modelling.

47

48 Chen *et al.* [14] carried out comparative analysis of NO_x emission of biodiesel and diesel. They reported
49 that the biodiesel emitted more NO_x than diesel at low and under low and medium speeds. In a related
50 study, Chen *et al.* [15] studied the effects of blending 20% gasoline and 20%polyoxymethylene dimethyl
51 ethers in diesel, named D80G20 and D80P20 respectively, on the combustion and emission
52 characteristics of a common rail diesel engine. They found that, in comparison to diesel, D80P20 and
53 D80G20 mostly reduced the duration of combustion, improved the brake thermal efficiency, increased
54 the NO_x emission and decreased the soot emissions and the number concentrations of ultrafine particles.
55 In a recent study, Chen *et al.* [16] researched on the performance of a diesel–ethylene glycol (DEG)
56 dual-fuel engine blend, with the blending ratio of ethylene glycol ranging from 0 – 15%. The

57 combustion results showed that combustion process was highly affected by direct injection timing than
58 by port injection timing.

59 Some recent studies have looked at how ignitability of fuels impact exhaust emissions. For example,
60 Erman et al. [1] analysed the influence of cetane number of fuels on the combustion and exhaust
61 emissions of seven fuel molecules in a compression ignition engine at a speed of 1200rpm and IMEP
62 of 4 and 6 bar. They controlled the ignitability naturally using the seven fuels and by adding ignition
63 improver into one fuel (hydrotreated non-dearomatized stream) to alter its ignition properties. Erman
64 et. al reported that by varying the proportions of ignition improver, they observed an extended ignition
65 delay at 6bar IMEP that caused the number of accumulation soot particles to increase.

66 Other studies have investigated the combinations of the two strategies employed by both Ning et al.
67 [11] and Erman et al. [1]. For example, Qian *et al.* [17] proposed the combinations of post injection and
68 the use of dimethyl carbonate (oxygenate) and exhaust gas recirculation (EGR) to produce low soot
69 emissions. Qian *et al.* reported that due to low cetane number, the use of dimethyl carbonate delayed
70 the combustion phase. However, when the cetane number was enhanced by adding an ignition
71 improving additive, they reported that the delay in ignition duration decreased with slight increase in
72 soot.

73 For more accurate predictions of combustion phasing, characteristics of emissions and their chemical
74 kinetics in engines, several combinations of model fuels have been used either computationally in a
75 gasoline homogeneous charge compression ignition (HCCI) engine or experimentally in a diesel engine
76 at high pressure. Classical model fuel blends used to represent gasoline include mixtures of normal, iso
77 and cyclo-paraffins, olefins and aromatics [18]. While in a diesel engine, Pfahl and Adomeit [19] burnt
78 a mixtures of n-decane, methylnaphthalene and di-methylether and Helier *et al.* [20] burnt a mixture
79 of heptane/toluene in a compression ignition engine.

80

81 Despite these research developments, there is still much to be done in understanding how equalising
82 ignition delays of fuels influence their combustion and soot emission processes. It is also imperative to

83 examine whether making the combustion processes better by altering the ignition chemistry will impact
84 the combustion and exhaust soot emissions in a compression ignition engine. More so, investigating the
85 effect of ignition improving additive on the exhaust soot emissions and premixed burn fractions has
86 been rarely carried out. To do this, heptane, toluene and methyl-decanoate were chosen as model fuels
87 in comparison with diesel fuel, since the later has complex composition and its ignition chemistry is
88 holistically intractable. The reason for this selection is in two-fold. Firstly, the cetane number of heptane
89 and diesel fuel are similar. Secondly, the soot chemistry database for both heptane and toluene is
90 significant in the literature [21,22]. Commercial diesel fuel is composed of many aromatics and toluene
91 is a representative of one-ring aromatics. The blends of heptane/toluene have therefore been utilised as
92 model fuels in diesel engines [23,24]. Methyl decanoate on the other hand was selected as biodiesel
93 surrogate.

94 It is therefore the purpose of this paper to achieve the following objectives:

- 95 i) Assess the combustion characteristics of binary and tertiary model fuel blends at both
96 constant injection and constant ignition timings.
- 97 ii) Evaluate the percentage of premixed and diffusion combustion phases from the combustion
98 of heptane/toluene/methyl-decanoate blends.
- 99 iii) Characterise the particulates (using DMS 500 instrument) produced from the combustion
100 of the fuel mixtures in terms of number, size, and mass
- 101 iv) Investigate the effect of ignition improving additive on the exhaust soot emissions and
102 premixed burn fractions of the fuel blends.

103

104 **2.0 Experimental**

105 **2.1 Fuels**

106 The model fuels tested are the reference fossil diesel procured from Halter-mann Carless Ltd and
107 heptane, toluene and methyl-decanoate procured from Sigma Aldrich, both in the United Kingdom.
108 Tables 1 and 2 show the molecular structures and the properties of the model fuels, respectively. It is

109 worth mentioning that the model fuels (heptane and toluene) are not practical fuels but are intended to
 110 give an indication of influence of proportions of aromatic components in diesel fuel.

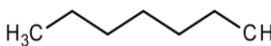
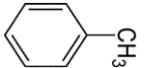
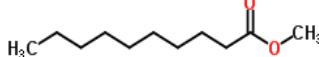
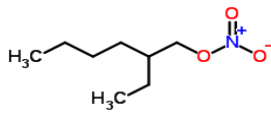
111 In view of the complex composition of the fossil diesel fuel, heptane was used for comparison with the
 112 results of fossil diesel fuel. Heptane has cetane number close to that of the diesel fuel and there is a
 113 significant body of information in the literature on soot chemistry for heptane as well as for toluene
 114 [21], [22]. Aromatics constitute substantial proportion of commercial diesel fuel and toluene is a model
 115 to several of these aromatics; therefore, heptane/toluene blends have been recommended as convenient
 116 model fuels for compression ignition engines [23], [24].

117 The proportions of aromatics in diesel fuel ranged from 15 – 22.5%, and the fossil diesel fuel used in
 118 this work had 22.2 % total aromatics and hence; the idea behind the blending ratio used in this work.

119

120

Table 1: Fuels and Additive [20,25,26]

Fuel and Additive	Structure
Heptane	
Toluene	
Methyl-decanoate	
2 Ethylhexyl nitrate (2-EHN)	

121

122

Table 2: model fuel properties [20,25,26]

Fuel Properties	Diesel	Heptane	Toluene	Methyldecanoate	2-EHN
Assay (%)	-	99	> 99.8 (GC)	> 99	97
Fuel Nomenclature	Diesel	H	T	MD	2-EHN
H/C Ratio	1.771	2.28	1.143	2	2.125
PAH Content (% mass)	3.4	-	-	-	-
Boiling Point (°C)	271.0 ^a	98.3	110.6	224	210.9
Density (g/mL, 20 °C)	0.835	0.684	0.867	0.871	0.963
Cetane Number	52.7	54.4	7.4	51.6	-

Lower heating value (MJ/kg)	43.14	44.5	40.6	36.7	-
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125 **2.2 Experimental Conditions**

126 Table 3 shows fuel blends which were made by volumetrically blending toluene and methyl-decanoate
 127 into heptane. It is noteworthy that 22.5 % (vol.) was the maximum proportion of toluene added into
 128 heptane and this proportion is similar to the mono-aromatics in most conventional diesel fuel [27].
 129 Ignition delays of these fuel blends during combustion were recorded as shown in Table 3. Ignition
 130 delays were equalised by adding to the fuel blends, small quantities (in ppm) of an ignition improver
 131 (2-ethylhexylnitrate -2EHN). The ignition improver was added at ppm levels in order not to change the
 132 bulk fuel composition. The 2-ethylhexylnitrate equalised the ignition delays and only differed by the
 133 resolution of the engine shaft encoder (0.2 CAD) used for measuring engine in-cylinder pressure. The
 134 required dosages of the 2-EHN added to the fuel blends for ignition delay equalisation were established
 135 by iteration method. The iteration method for determining the required dosages of the 2-EHN added to
 136 the model fuel blends to achieve a given ignition delay duration involved adding a known volume (at
 137 ppm level) of 2-EHN to the model fuel blend. The fuel blend was then burn and the ignition delay
 138 duration was noted. The dosage of the 2-EHN added to the model fuels was then either increased or
 139 decreased depending on the ignition duration initially measured. When two readings of the dosages of
 140 2-EHN and their corresponding ignition duration were recorded, the exact dosage of the 2-EHN needed
 141 to achieve a required ignition delay was then found by either lagrangian interpolation or extrapolation
 142 procedures.

143

Table 3: Equalised ignition delay for the model fuel blends

Blend Number	Fuel/ Fuel Blend	Ignition Delay (CAD)	2-EHN Dosage (ppm)	Ignition Delay after addition of 2-EHN (CAD)
0	Diesel start	9.4	-	-
1	100%H	9.4	-	-
2	85%H15%T	9.8	400	9.4

3A	77.5%H22.5%T	10.8	850	9.8
3B			1500	9.4
4	65%H15%T20%MD	9.8	-	-
0	Diesel Finish	9.4	-	-

144

145 All the engine tests were conducted at a constant speed of 1200 rpm, a fixed fuel injection pressure of
 146 450 bar, a uniform IMEP of 7 bar. The constant injection and constant ignition tests were both carried
 147 out at 10 crank-angle-degrees (CAD) before-top-dead-centre (BTDC) with the constant ignition tests
 148 achieved while the ignition delays were equalised by adding 2-EHN to the fuels.

149 **2.3 Experimental Set-up**

150 The engine used was a 4-stroke, single cylinder compression-ignition engine and Table 4 lists the
 151 specifications for the facility. Figure 1 shows the schematic of the engine facility. The in-cylinder gas
 152 pressure was measured using a Kistler 6056A piezoelectric pressure transducer in conjunction with a
 153 Kistler 5018 charge amplifier, 1800 pulse per revolution (ppr) shaft encoder and a digital data
 154 acquisition system. The resolution of the in-cylinder pressure was 0.2 CAD. Detail description of the
 155 experimental set-up can be found in [28].

156

Table 4: Engine Specifications

Description	Specification
Bore	86 mm
Stroke	86 mm
Swept volume	499.56 cm ³
Compression ratio (geometric)	18.3 : 1
Maximum in-cylinder pressure	150 bar
Piston design	Central ω – bowl in piston
Fuel injection pump	Delphi single-cam radial-piston pump
High pressure common rail	Delphi solenoid controlled, 1600 bar max.
Diesel fuel injector	Delphi DFI 1.3 6-hole solenoid valve
Electronic fuel injection system	1 μ s duration control
Crank shaft encoder	1800 ppr, 0.2 CAD resolution
Oil and coolant temperature	80 \pm 2.5 °C

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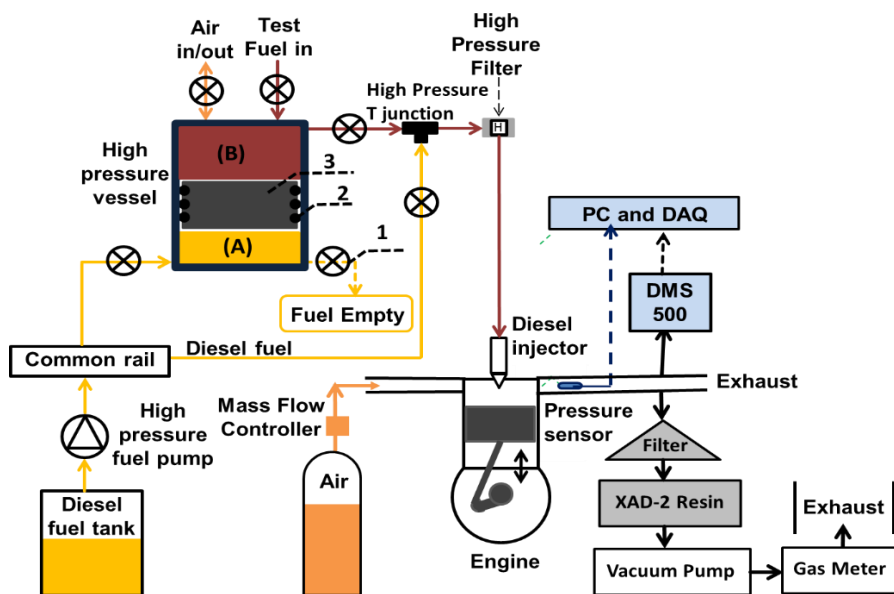


Figure 1: Schematics of the experimental facility

2.4 Sampling of soot particles

Soot particles were sampled from the engine exhaust using a stainless-steel tube (12mm diameter) connected to a vacuum pump. The soot sampling instruments are the DMS-500 and a customised soot sampling system connected to a vacuum pump. The schematics of these instruments are all depicted in Figure 1. The pump maintained a flow rate of 40 L/min through the soot sampling system. The sampling probe was thermally insulated to avoid condensation of water vapor. Detail description of generating and sampling particulates can be found in Dandajeh et al. [9], [29]

Soot particles were sampled on a glass micro fibre filter, its mass (M_s) and the total volume of gas (V_g) that passed through the filter were recorded. The sampling durations for the soot particles generated from the combustion of the model fuels was 15 min at all conditions tested. This duration was chosen after an optimisation exercise to trap enough mass of soot for subsequent Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) analysis to detect polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) on the soot particles [28].

The cumulative volume of gas for each test was measured with the aid of volumetric gas meter. The soot mass measurements (M_s) and calculated soot mass concentration (M_s/V_g) of the test fuels without

176 and with 2-EHN are shown in Tables 5 and 6, respectively. The filter was supported by two stainless
 177 steel wire meshes procured from The Mesh Company, UK to prevent filter damage at the high
 178 temperature, pulsating flow of the engine exhaust conditions. Exhaust soot particles were characterised
 179 using differential mobility spectrometer (DMS-500) instrument in terms real time outputs of mass, size,
 180 and number. To provide baseline data, diesel fuel was also analysed and compared with the results of
 181 the model fuel blends and the average value of two tests is reported here.

182 **Table 5:** Filter soot mass measurements without 2-EHN ignition improver

Fuel	soot mass (M_s) (mg)	soot concentration (M_s/V_g) (mg/m³)	particle mean diameter (D_p) (nm)	soot surface area (μm²/cm³)
100%H	23.0	48.0	176	2720005
85%H15%T	19.3	40.0	178	1865106
77.5%H22.5%T	23.5	45.0	181	2367265
65%H15%T20%MD	6.90	13.7	160	1210826
Reference Diesel	28.7	58.0	177	1846044

183

184

185 **Table 6:** Filter soot mass measurements with 2-EHN ignition improver

Fuel + 2-EHN (ppm)	soot mass (M_s) (mg)	soot concentration (M_s/V_g) (mg/m³)	particle mean diameter (D_p) (nm)	Soot surface area (μm²/cm³)
77.5%H22.5%T + 1500ppm	13.7	28.9	171	1889521
85%H15%T + 400ppm	16.6	34.3	171	1833473
77.5%H22.5%T + 850ppm	14.8	30.8	178	1841702

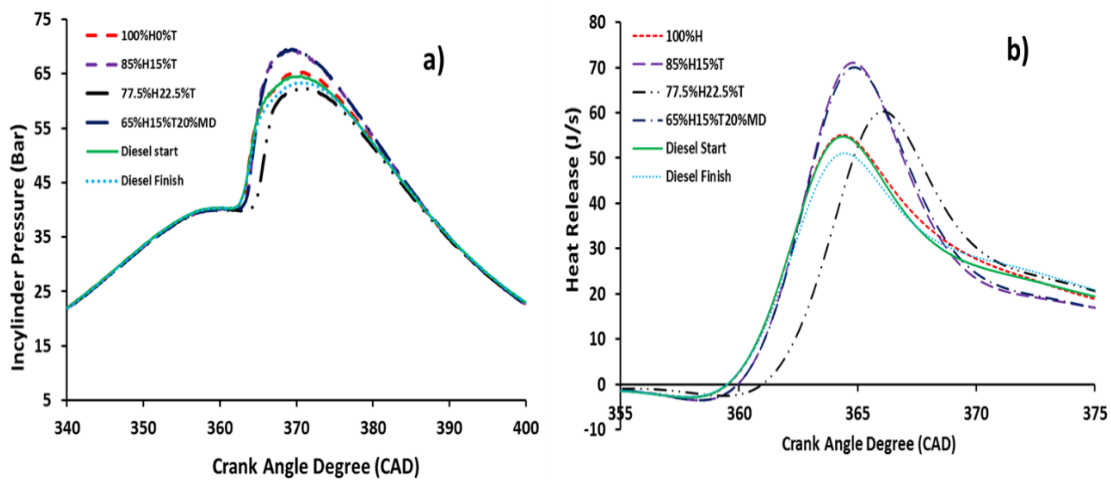
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187 **3.0 Results and Discussion**

188 **3.1 Combustion characterisation at constant injection timing**

189 Figures 2a and b show the profiles of the in-cylinder pressures and apparent heat release rates for the
 190 test fuels respectively at a start of fuel injection (SOI) of 10 CAD before TDC. Table 7 shows an analysis
 191 of the main combustion parameters for the various fuels investigated. It can be seen from Figure 2a that

192 the 85%*H*/15%*T* and 65%*H*15%*T*20%*MD* blends, both having ignition delay (ID) of 9.8 CAD (see
 193 Table 7), showed the highest peak in-cylinder pressure of 69.3 bar relative to the other fuels
 194 investigated. Also visible in Figure 2b, is the identical peak heat release rates (69.8 J/s) of the
 195 85%*H*/15%*T* and 65%*H*15%*T*20%*MD* blends. As one might expect, the identical ignition delay of
 196 these fuels resulted in similar values of peak heat release rate and percentage of premixed fuel burned.
 197 These results suggest that replacing 20% by volume of a *C*₇-heptane, with 20% of methyl-decanoate
 198 (an oxygenated *C*₁₁ molecule) does not affect the duration of ignition delay or rates of fuel air premixing
 199 and, therefore, the peak in-cylinder pressure and peak heat release rates.



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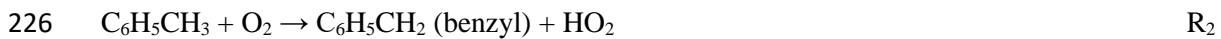
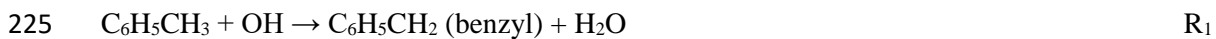
201 **Figure 2:** Profiles of: a) in-cylinder pressure (bar) b) apparent heat release rate (J/s) for the single/binary/tertiary
 202 fuel blends and a reference diesel fuel run in CI engine at speed of 1200 rpm and IMEP of 7 bar.

203 It can also be seen from Figure 2 that the binary mixtures of 77.5%*H*/22.5%*T* exhibited the least in-
 204 cylinder pressure (63.2 bar) and the second highest peak heat release rate (60.3 J/s), which are consistent
 205 with the observation in Table 7 that this mixture had the longest ignition delay of 10.8 CAD. Lower
 206 peak heat release rate of the 77.5%*H*/22.5%*T* blend can be attributed to a start of combustion after TDC,
 207 which resulted in heat release occurring at larger in-cylinder volumes and also at higher rates of heat
 208 transfer to the cylinder walls [20].

209 It is noteworthy that increasing the amount of toluene from 15% to 22.5% in the heptane/toluene mixture
 210 increased the ignition delay by 0.4 CAD due to decrease in reactivity of the mixture with increased
 211 toluene. Toluene has higher density and boiling point than heptane (see Table 2). The increased ignition
 212 delay is consistent with results from previous studies [20,30,31], [32]. For example, Hellier et al. [20]

213 researched binary mixtures of heptane/toluene blends in a direct injection compression ignition engine
214 at toluene levels up to 52% (wt/wt). They reported increased ignition delay by 0.5 CAD due to increase
215 in amount of toluene from 10 to 20% in heptane/toluene blends. Di-Sante [30] also reported increased
216 ignition delay times with increasing volume of toluene in heptane/toluene mixture measured in a rapid
217 compression machine.

218 Observations during the experiments showed consistently that increasing toluene level up to 22.5% into
219 the heptane inhibited the ignition process and this resulted in greater ignition delay. This inhibition of
220 ignition due to toluene addition can be explained using the results of previous studies [32,33]. It was
221 reported that toluene can be oxidised at low temperatures through abstraction of hydrogen atom (H) by
222 either OH radicals or oxygen molecule (O₂) to leave benzyl radicals [32]. These reactions are shown
223 below in R₁ and R₂ respectively. The benzyl radicals react further with oxygen atom (O) to form phenyl
224 radicals in reaction R₃ [33].



229 It may appear therefore that H-abstraction from n-heptane by O₂, shown in reaction R₄, could be the
230 only possible source of OH radicals that was consumed by toluene in R₁. Reaction R₄ is considered to
231 be the first step in radical branching, which is important part of ignition chemistry of long alkyl chains
232 and which marks the start of large increase in heat release and ignition of the air/fuel mixture [34].
233 Inferences from the preceding reactions suggest that toluene can delay the start of combustion by
234 consuming radicals in reaction R₁ which would otherwise be used to propagate the reaction of heptane
235 in the heptane/toluene blend.

236 Returning now to Figure 2, fossil diesel and 100%H (pure heptane) in Figures 2a and b exhibited the
237 same peak in-cylinder pressure and peak heat release rate and identical ignition delay of 9.4 CAD. This

238 result was also reported in previous studies [20] and was expected, since both the reference fossil diesel
 239 fuel and pure heptane have cetane numbers and lower heating values which were way close to each
 240 other (see Table 2). However, the reference diesel, which was run at the end of each daily test schedule,
 241 demonstrated slightly lower in-cylinder pressure and heat release rates; 1.2 bar and 4J/s, respectively,
 242 lower than those of the fossil diesel. These small differences are believed to be largely due to the daily
 243 drift in the engine performance.

244 Taking Figure 2, it is apparent that increasing the volume of toluene in the heptane/toluene mixture
 245 from 0 to 15%, resulted in a slight increase in the peak cylinder pressure and peak heat release rate by
 246 approximately 4 bar and 16 J/s respectively. Additional increase in the proportion of toluene from 15%
 247 to 22.5% in the heptane/toluene mixture, slightly decreased the peak cylinder pressure and peak heat
 248 release rate by approximately 7 bar and 11 J/s respectively. These results are consistent with the
 249 corresponding increase in ignition delay, as the percentage of toluene in the blends was increased, and
 250 are in agreement with the results of previous studies at constant injection timings [20].

251 An increased duration of ignition delay allows more time for fuel and air pre-mixing prior to the start
 252 of combustion and thus, larger premixed burn fraction. Proportions of premixed and diffusion phases
 253 were calculated using equations Eq.1 and Eq.2 below, respectively. Table 7 shows a trend of increasing
 254 proportions of premixed phase and decreasing diffusion phase when the percentage of toluene blended
 255 into heptane was increased. The main reason for this increase is the increasing ignition delay which
 256 allows for greater period for air/fuel mixing to occur and a greater amount of premixed mixture to be
 257 ready for combustion upon ignition. In contrast, higher viscosity and density of toluene, in comparison
 258 with heptane, was reported to decrease the rate of air and fuel mixing for toluene [20], hence, increased
 259 resulting in an increased proportion of premixed burn fraction for heptane.

260 **Table 7:** Proportions of premixed and diffusion phases of fuels without 2-EHN

Fuels with no EHN	ID	CAD_{switch}	CHRR_{switch}	CHRR_{max}	%Premixed	%Diffusion
100%H	9.4	370.8	2628	4325	61	39
85%H15%T	9.8	372.6	2992	4323	69	31

77.5%H22.5%T	10.8	373.2	3096	4360	71	29
65%H15%T20%MD	9.8	372.6	3021	4319	70	30
Diesel Start	9.4	370.2	2503	4394	57	43
Diesel Finish	9.4	370.8	2526	4380	58	44

261

262 Premixed Phase (%) = $\frac{\text{CHRR}_{\text{switch}}}{\text{CHRR}_{\text{max}}} \times 100$ 1

263 Diffusion phase (%) = $\frac{\text{CHRR}_{\text{max}} - \text{CHRR}_{\text{switch}}}{\text{CHRR}_{\text{max}}} \times 100$ 2

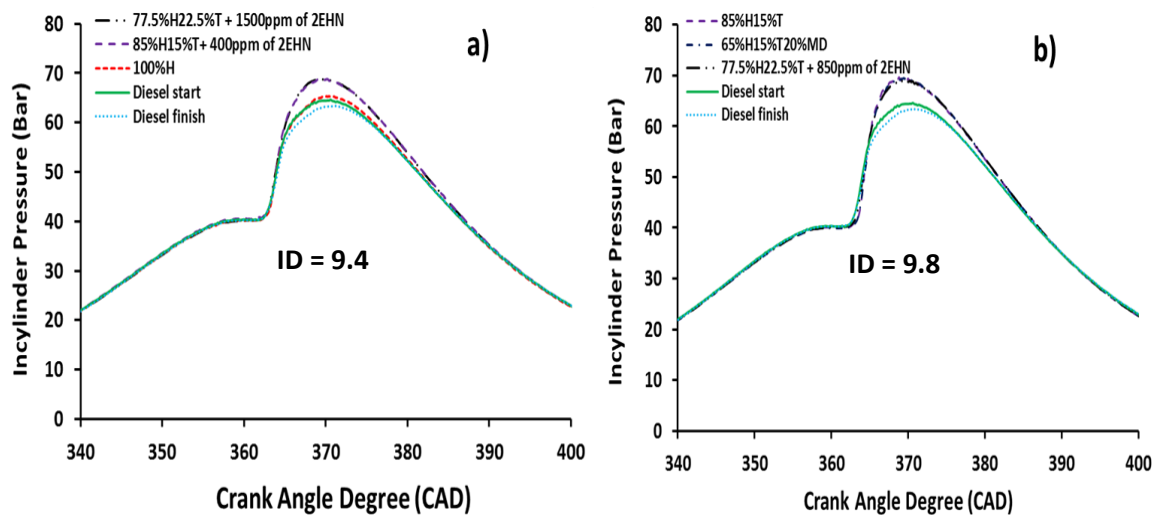
264 Where; $\text{CAD}_{\text{switch}}$ is the crank angle degree at the point of switch from premixed to diffusion phase,
 265 $\text{CHRR}_{\text{switch}}$ is the cumulative heat release rate at the point of switch from premixed to diffusion phase
 266 and CHRR_{max} is the maximum cumulative heat release rate.

267 The proportions of premixed and diffusion phases as enumerated by Eqs 1 and 2 were determined from
 268 the graph of the cumulative heat release rate against crank angle as reported by Heywood [35]. These
 269 equations were developed based on the maximum value of the cumulative heat release rates and the
 270 point at which the premixed and the diffusion phases switch over.

271 3.2 Combustion characteristics at constant ignition timing

272 To isolate the effect of ignition delay with the heptane/toluene mixtures, an ignition improving additive
 273 2-ethylhexyl nitrate (2-EHN) was used to equalise the ignition delays of the various heptane/toluene
 274 blends. Dosages of 2-EHN added to the heptane/toluene mixtures to achieve very nearly the same
 275 ignition delays are shown in Table 3. Equalising ignition delays imply removing the influence of varying
 276 periods of ignition delay allows other effects such as those of the physical properties of the fuels to be
 277 investigated and highlighted. With equalising ignition delay, Hellier et al. [20] also reported the effect
 278 of adiabatic flame temperature on NO_x production using heptane/toluene fuel blends. There are other
 279 effects of equalising ignition delay beyond the scope of this work; especially on the formation and
 280 emission characteristics of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs).

281



282

283 **Figure 3:** Profiles of in-cylinder pressures (bar) at constant ignition delays (ID): a) ID = 9.4 b) ID = 9.8.

284 Figures 3a and b show the profiles of in-cylinder pressure at very nearly constant ignition delays of 9.4
 285 and 9.8 respectively. In Figure 3, Diesel start and Diesel finish mean readings for diesel fuel combustion
 286 at the start and the end of each daily tests respectively. The figures show that equalising the ignition
 287 delay of the heptane/toluene blends resulted in identical peak in-cylinder pressures. For example, the
 288 peak in-cylinder pressure in Figures 3a and b at ignition delays of 9.4 and 9.8 CAD are 69.2 and 68.8
 289 bar respectively. This feature of equal peak in-cylinder pressures (as well as pressure profiles) suggest
 290 that the pressure profile and its peak pressure are influenced primarily by ignition delay and, thereby,
 291 the percentage of premixed combustion, with other fuel properties (such as physical properties) having
 292 only a secondary role.

293 Figures 4a and b show the profiles of heat release rates at very nearly constant ignition delays of 9.4
 294 and 9.8 CAD respectively. As it was observed previously, in the case of in-cylinder pressure, it can also
 295 be seen in Figure 4 that peak heat release rates of the heptane/toluene blends with 2-EHN were also
 296 similar, but this does not seem to apply in the case of fuels with ID of 9.8 CAD.

297 Comparing Figure 2a and Figures 3a and b, it can be observed that, under high load (IMEP of 7bar),
 298 the peak in-cylinder pressure was slightly higher in those fuel mixtures with 2-EHN. This finding was
 299 also observed by Li et al. [36] in methanol/biodiesel blend and was anticipated since 2-EHN could
 300 produce chain initiation/pre-ignition radicals via thermal decomposition [37].

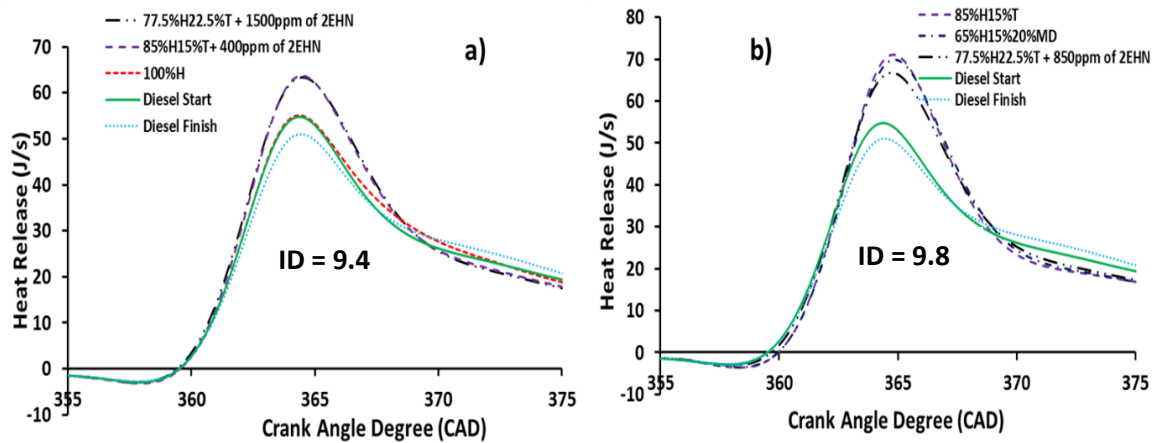


Figure 4: Profiles of heat release rates at constant ignition delays (ID): a) ID = 9.4 b) ID = 9.8

Typically, the C-H and C-C bonds in the heptane/toluene blends have higher bond energies than those of C-O and N-O in the 2-EHN [36]. After addition of 2-EHN to the heptane/toluene blend, the C-O and N-O bonds in the 2-EHN may have dissociated prior to the C-H and C-C bonds in the fuel blend, thereby culminating in earlier ignition reactions with liberation of large amount of energy [38–40].

Table 7 shows that the fuel blends with equal ignition delays exhibited very similar percentages of premixed burnt fraction (within 1% difference). For instance, fuel blends with ID of 9.4 CAD, exhibited a proportion of premixed phase within the range of 61 - 62%, while those with ID of 9.8 CAD showed a proportion of premixed phase within the range of 69 - 70%. Comparing the results of the percentage of premixed phase in Tables 7 and 8, it can be deduced that adding 2-EHN to the fuel blends did not only lower the ignition delay, but also shortened the proportions of premixed burnt fraction. This result agrees well with other earlier works [41].

Table 8: Proportions of premixed and diffusion phases of fuels with 2-EHN

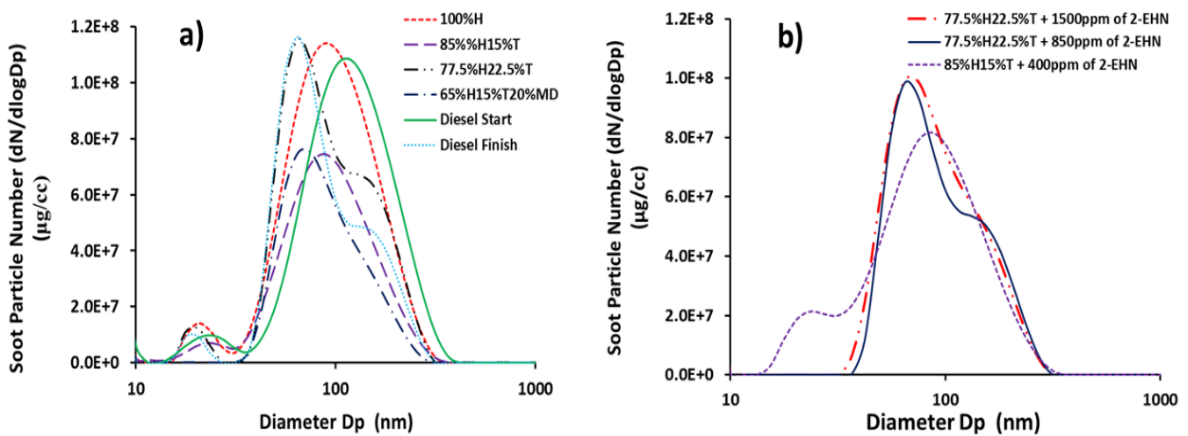
Fuels + 2-EHN (ppm)	ID	CAD _{switch}	CHRR _{switch}	CHRR _{max}	%Premixed	%Diffusion
77.5%H22.5%T + 1500ppm	9.4	370.2	2694	4363	61	39
85%H15%T + 400ppm	9.4	370.2	2724	4367	62	38
100%H	9.4	370.8	2628	4325	61	39
77.5%H22.5%T + 850ppm	9.8	372.8	3013	4335	70	30
85%H15%T	9.8	372.6	2992	4323	69	31

315

316 **3.3 Soot emissions characterisation at constant injection and ignition timings**

317 Figure 5 shows soot particle number concentrations profiles for the model fuel blends as sampled using
 318 the DMS500. Figures 5a and b present soot particle number concentrations for the fuels without 2-EHN
 319 and with 2-EHN, respectively. In Figure 5a, the sizes of the soot particles for the fuel blend ranged from
 320 30 – 360 nm when 2-EHN was not added and, similarly, the soot particle size range was 13 – 316 nm
 321 with 2-EHN in the fuel blends.

322 Tables 5 and 6 show the soot particle mean sizes and surface area normalised by soot volume ($\mu\text{m}^2/\text{cm}^3$)
 323 of test blends with 2-EHN and without 2-EHN respectively. It can be observed from Table 5 that adding
 324 toluene into heptane increased the mean size of the soot particles slightly. From 176 nm for 100%H to
 325 178 nm for 85%H15%T and 181 nm for 77.5%H22.5%T fuel blends. Wei et al. [23] also reported that
 326 in-cylinder soot mean particle sizes increased when toluene was added into heptane in a diesel engine.
 327 The soot particle mass-filter measurements are also shown in Table 5. It is noteworthy here that the
 328 trends in Table 5 of the calculated soot mass concentration from soot-mass filter measurements are like
 329 those of soot mass concentration reported by the DMS 500 measurements.



330

331 **Figure 5:** Distribution of soot particle number concentrations ($\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$) for the fuel blends and reference diesel
 332 fuel a) without 2-EHN b) with 2-EHN

333 Table 5 shows that the calculated soot mass concentration increased from 40 to 45 mg/m^3 when the fuel
 334 blend was changed from 85%H15%T to of 77.5%H22.5%T. It is imperative to note that the soot mass

335 concentration of 100%H was surprisingly 48 mg/m³. This value of soot mass concentration of 100%H
336 was high and need to be used with caution. Furthermore, one can notice in Table 5, reduction of 66%
337 in soot mass concentration , 10% in mean particle size, and 35% in soot surface area, when the 20%
338 (vol) of a heptane (a C₇ molecule) in the blend of 85%H15%T was substituted with 20% (vol) of a
339 methyl-deconoate (a C₁₁ ester molecule). The results of the reduction in these parameters was not
340 surprising since similar studies [42,43] had reported that oxygen bearing fuels produced lower soot
341 particles when burn in diesel engines in comparison to their hydrocarbon counterparts.

342 Pyrolysing 100%H usually generate substantial amount of C₂- C₆ species. Such species include
343 acetylene (C₂H₂) and propargyl radicals (C₃H₃) and are the building block of making the first aromatic
344 ring [44,45] that lead to growth of soot precursors (PAHs) and the soot particles themselves. These
345 findings can be supported using the work of Alexiou and Williams [46], who reported reduction in the
346 soot emissions of toluene by adding heptane in a reflected shock-tube pyrolysis.

347 Toluene generally produce large quantity of soot because of the exponential relationship of its
348 nucleation rate with rising temperature [47]. Additionally, toluene pyrolysis is associated with
349 abundance of C₂ - C₆ radicals including acetylene, propargyl and phenyl radicals [48] and blending it
350 into heptane can be expected to increase the radical pool that provides the soot precursors; hence the
351 subsequent increase in soot yield.

352 Furthermore, the fact that toluene is an abundant source of phenyl-radicals, via de-methylation, could
353 trigger PAH growth by the phenyl-addition and cyclisation (PAC) pathway [49] and consequently
354 accelerate the soot yield of the resulting heptane/toluene blend. Large quantities of acetylene produced
355 while pyrolysing toluene could speed-up the growth of soot precursors (PAHs) and soot surface growth
356 via the well-known hydrogen-abstraction, acetylene-addition mechanism (HACA) [50]. Similarly,
357 Ladommatos et al. [51] reported toluene having higher soot propensity (18.5 times) as compared to
358 heptane in a diffusion flame.

359 Looking closely at Table 6, it can be observed that that adding 850ppm of 2-EHN to 77.5%H22.5%T
360 blend decreased the mean soot particle diameter by 1.7%, soot surface area by 22% and soot mass

361 concentration by 32%. Moreover, increasing the quantity of the 2-EHN from 850 - 1500ppm in
362 77.5%H22.5%T blend further decreased the mean soot particle diameter by 5.5%, soot surface area by
363 20% and soot mass concentration by 36%. It is pertinent to note that the results of soot mass
364 concentration decreasing by adding 2-EHN to the fuel blends is inconsistent with the previous works
365 [40,51]. This is somewhat due to the different experimental conditions from those of the previous works.
366 These works rather reported increased soot mass concentration when while adding ignition improver to
367 fuels.

368 **4.0 Conclusions**

369 Analyses into the experimental combustion and soot emissions characteristics of single/binary/tertiary
370 fuel blends formulated by blending toluene and methyl-decanoate into heptane with ignition improver
371 was investigated. Two sets of tests were conducted. A constant injection timing tests with start of fuel
372 injection at 10° CAD BTDC and a constant ignition timing tests while also keeping the 10° CAD BTDC
373 injection and adding ignition improver (2-ethylhexylnitrate -2EHN) to the fuel mixtures. Soot particles
374 were characterised using DMS-500 instrument in terms of mass, size, and number.

375 The following inferences can be drawn.

376 1) Replacing 20% (vol) of a C₇-heptane, with 20% of methyl-decanoate (an oxygenated C₁₁
377 molecule) was did not affect the duration of ignition delay or rates of fuel air premixing and the
378 peak in-cylinder pressure and peak heat release rates.

379

380 2) Adding 2-ethylhexylnitrate ignition improver to the fuel blends decreased the mean soot
381 particle diameter, soot surface area and, surprisingly, gravimetric filter soot mass concentration

382 3) Toluene addition (0 - 22.5% by vol) to heptane increased the mean size of the soot particles
383 generated by only 3%. Increasing the proportion of toluene into heptane resulted in a slight
384 increase in the peak cylinder pressure and peak heat release rates.

385

386 4) Blending toluene and methyl-decanoate into heptane without adding- 2EHN was to increase
387 the premixed phase by at least 13%. However, by adding 2EHN (400 -1500ppm), the premixed
388 phase decreased by at least 11%.

389

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394

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