

1 Study on Pollutants Formation under Knocking Combustion 2 Conditions using an Optical Single Cylinder SI Research Engine

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12 Abstract

13 The aim of this experimental study is to investigate the pollutants formation and cyclic
14 emission variability under knocking combustion conditions. A great number of studies
15 extensively describe the phenomenon of knock and its combustion characteristics as well as
16 the effect of knock on engine performance; however the impact of knocking combustion on
17 pollutants formation and how it affects cyclic emission variability has not been previously
18 explored. In this study, an optical single cylinder SI research engine and fast response analyzers
19 were employed to experimentally correlate knocking combustion characteristics with cyclic
20 resolved emissions from cycle to cycle. High-speed natural light photography imaging and
21 simultaneous in-cylinder pressure measurements were obtained from the optical research
22 engine to interpret emissions formation under knocking combustion. The test protocol included
23 the investigation of the effect of various engine parameters such as ignition timing and mixture
24 air/fuel ratio on knocking combustion and pollutant formation. Results showed that at
25 stoichiometric conditions by advancing spark timing from MBT to knock intensity equal to 6
26 bar, instantaneous NO and HC emissions are increased by up to 60% compared to the MBT
27 operating conditions. A further increase of knock intensity at the limits of pre-ignition region
28 was found to significantly drop NO emissions. Conversely, it was found that when knocking
29 combustion occurs at lean conditions, NO emissions are enhanced as knock intensity is
30 increased.

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33 **Keywords:** knocking combustion, cycle resolved emissions, NO formation, optical research
34 engine, cyclic emission variability

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37 **Highlights**

- 38 • Experimental investigation of knocking combustion and cycle resolved emissions.
- 39 • Effect of knock index on NO formation.
- 40 • Utilization of instantaneous flame images to interpret emissions formation.
- 41 • Effect of knock and heavy knock conditions on cyclic emission variability.

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45 **Nomenclature**

Acronyms

ATDC	After Top Dead Centre	imep	Indicated mean effective pressure
Bmep	break mean effective pressure	KI	Knock Intensity
BTDC	Before Top Dead Centre	MBT	Maximum Breaking Torque
CCV	Cyclic Combustion Variability	NO	Nitric Oxide
CEV	Cyclic Emission Variability	SI	Spark Ignition
COV	Coefficient of Variation	TDC	Top Dead Centre
HC	Hydrocarbons	λ	Air/fuel equivalence ratio

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50 **1 Introduction**

51 Gasoline engine technology has entered one of the most exciting periods in its long history:
52 downsizing, hybridization and stricter emission standards determine the future of SI engines
53 [1]. Advanced engine requirements for high power density and low fuel consumption can be
54 achieved through high boost, direct injection, engine start&stop [2] and lean burn operation.
55 Implementation of this technology in SI engines increases the potential possibility that under
56 certain operating conditions auto-ignition or pre-ignition can occur [3]. Knock not only limits
57 engine thermal efficiency but it also affects the formed emissions during combustion. As
58 pollutants formation is directly linked to the combustion process, it is critical to understand the
59 effect of abnormal combustion cycles on emissions performance and variability. To this end,
60 meeting fuel economy requirements and future emission standards in high-efficiency SI
61 engines requires a well understanding of knock and its effect on engine emissions.

62 Knock is as old as SI engine itself [4] and takes its name from the metallic ‘pinging’ noise that
63 auto-ignition (spontaneous combustion) creates before the piston reaches TDC. Knock can be
64 divided into two main groups: light to medium knock and super knock. Light to medium knock
65 limits compression ratio and as a consequent the engine thermal efficiency due to the end-gas
66 auto-ignition. Auto-ignition is the fast discharge of chemical energy contained in the end-gas,
67 which is the final fraction of the air-fuel mixture that enters the cylinder but without inclusion
68 into the flame front reaction [5], [6]. On the other hand, super knock limits raising the boost
69 pressure and the engine power density due to detonation, also known as pre-ignition [7], [8].
70 Pre-ignition occurs earlier to auto-ignition and leads to a fast and violent combustion that can
71 potentially damage the engine. Apart of the great number of studies on knocking combustion,
72 the correlation between knock intensity, heat transfer, fuel chemistry, pressure oscillations and
73 oil droplets is not well understood [3]. Nowadays, the main research focuses on super knock
74 due to the high boost technology applied in high power density downsized engines, which
75 usually occurs under low speed and high load engine operating conditions.

76 Fuel and cylinder charge properties as well as engine calibration can affect combustion
77 characteristics and simultaneously affect the formed emissions. Methods for suppressing
78 engine knock and controlling emissions involve the optimization of those parameters.
79 Conventional suppression methods of engine knock include control strategies for retarding
80 spark timing [9], raising fuel octane number by using additives [10], [11] and enriching mixture
81 [12] when knock occurs. Recent studies correlated the effect of cooled EGR with the reduction
82 of knocked cycles and fuel consumption. Diana et al. presented a knock free operation of a

83 stoichiometric SI engine at full load conditions with a compression ratio of 12.5 by using
84 cooled EGR [5]. Same trend was also observed in another experimental study where it was
85 shown that the resistance to knock is strongly increased by cooled EGR [13]. It was also found
86 that utilization of EGR can significantly reduce emissions by up to 90% [5], [14], [15], while
87 HC emissions increase across the EGR range [16], [17]. Air-fuel ratio can also affect engine
88 knock limit. Although leaner mixtures benefit fuel consumption, retarded combustion is
89 required to avoid knock [6], while over-fuelling increases the knock limits of the engine [18].
90 In another study, it is reported that the EGR and the lean burn operation exhibit lower average
91 knock indexes. Due to the longer combustion duration by utilizing EGR and lean burn, heat
92 transfer is enhanced and end-gas temperature is decreased [19]. Conversely, another
93 experimental work using a single cylinder research engine that was supplied with ON 75
94 proved that lean mixtures have the earliest onset of knock, and the highest knock intensity [20].
95 Furthermore it was noted that lean mixtures are particularly sensitive to the charge heating
96 during compression. Overall, this research implies that excess air at high loads does not
97 suppress knock.

98 More than 700 research studies exist in literature on the research area of engine knock [3]. The
99 main research studies that deal with engine knock can be categorized on knock detection,
100 numerical simulation, optical diagnostics, theoretical studies, engine optimization and fuel/oil
101 properties. Although knocking combustion can significantly affect formed emissions, the effect
102 of knocking combustion on pollutants formation is at an even earlier research stage and there
103 is a significant lack of studies in this research field.

104 Pollutants formation during engine combustion is correlated both with mixture properties such
105 as air/fuel ratio, residual gas fraction and fuel properties and with the combustion type. At
106 normal combustion conditions (deflagration), NO_x formation is primarily controlled by oxygen
107 availability under lean or rich conditions while within the stoichiometric window formed NO_x
108 concentration is correlated with the combustion burn rate [21]. Under no knocking combustion,
109 previous studies showed that as in-cylinder peak pressure is increased, NO_x emissions are
110 proportionally increased [21]–[23]. However under knocking combustion, the emissions
111 formation mechanism can significantly change. As knock intensity is increased, residence time
112 of the residual gases in the burned zone is significantly decreased and peak temperature can be
113 enhanced. On the one hand, under super knock conditions combustion duration is decreased to
114 less than 2° CA which means that combustion is almost isochoric, post-combustion residence
115 time is significantly lower but peak temperature and pressure are much higher than in normal

116 SI combustion. Such a type of combustion presents many similarities with HCCI combustion
117 that is known for the ultra-low NO_x emissions and the relatively higher CO and HC emissions
118 [24]. On the other hand, under light knock conditions NO_x concentration that is formed in the
119 post-flame zone during normal combustion is expected to be increased due to the high
120 temperatures of end gas auto-ignition. However, the above described trends have not been
121 explored in literature and more research is required to well understand the relationship between
122 pollutants formation and knock index.

123 A great number of research studies investigate the main mechanisms of pollutants formation,
124 described in detailed elsewhere [25]. The most well-known NO_x formation mechanism is the
125 thermal one, co-called as extended Zeldovich mechanism which is responsible for the majority
126 of the formed NO in the post flame gas zone [26], [27]. Apart from the thermal mechanism,
127 the prompt NO mechanism [28] can be significant at stoichiometric and richer mixtures [29],
128 [30], the N₂H mechanism becomes important at slightly rich conditions [31] and finally the
129 N₂O chemical pathway appears at slightly lean conditions [26], [32]. Regarding carbon
130 monoxide, CO formation is mainly kinetically controlled by water gas shift reaction [33].
131 Finally, hydrocarbons (HC) are the consequence of incomplete combustion of hydrocarbon
132 fuel [34]. In most studies, simplified chemical mechanisms are utilized to predict pollutants
133 formation [29], [35]. Recently, Karvountzis et al. [36], [37] proposed the use of a detailed
134 chemical kinetics model to predict pollutants formation in an SI engine, which operates in the
135 post-combustion zone. The latter is the most accurate state-of-the art emission model existing
136 in literature, as the validation against experimental cycle resolved emission values for both NO
137 and CO emissions under various engine operating conditions showed errors less than 10% and
138 compared to simplified emissions models improvements were higher than 50% [38]. However
139 the accuracy of this emission model under knocking conditions has not been explored, due to
140 the lack of experimental data.

141 Although the relationships between combustion characteristics and pollutant formation under
142 normal combustion have been explored in the past, the effect of knocking combustion on
143 pollutants formation is not well understood. Few studies in the past presented an engine model
144 that can predict knock limit and NO_x emissions [39], [40], [41]; however those models do not
145 present the pollutant formation under knocking combustion conditions. The only known
146 relationship is that knock results to an increase in CO and HC emissions due to incomplete
147 combustion [42]. Furthermore, there is a lack of experimental data at this research field, as
148 there are no experimental studies presenting the correlations between knock index and

149 emissions performance on a cycle to cycle base. Simultaneously, the effect of pressure
150 oscillations and hot spots (occurring during knocking combustion) on pollutants formation is
151 also unknown. In the past, fast response analyzers were successfully employed to measure
152 cyclic emission variability under normal combustion conditions [43]. Optical diagnostics have
153 been also utilized to deeper understand the end gas auto-ignition mechanism and explore the
154 detonation limits at pre-ignitive cycles [7]. However, as authors are aware, a study that employs
155 both fast response analyzers to detect emissions from cycle to cycle and optical diagnostics to
156 correlate combustion characteristics with cycle resolved emissions doesn't not exist in
157 literature.

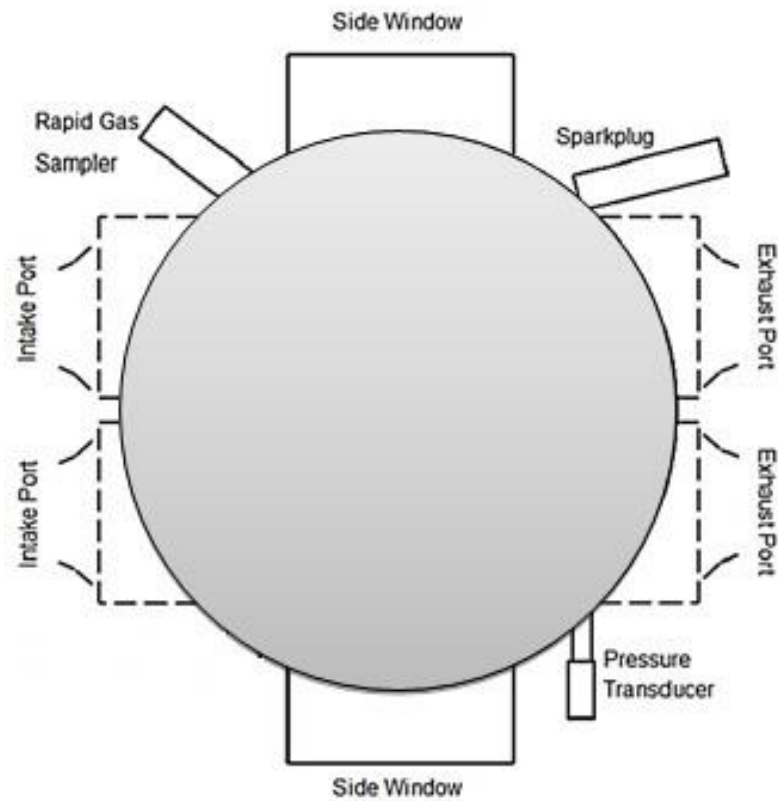
158 This experimental work studies the correlation between pollutants formation and knock index,
159 primarily NO and HC, under various air-fuel ratio and spark ignition timings using an optical
160 single cylinder SI engine. Fast response analyzers were employed to measure the cycle resolved
161 NO and HC emissions. Images of the visible light from combustion heat were captured through
162 an overhead window using a high speed camera. The aim of this study is to give insights
163 between the type of combustion (deflagration, end gas auto-ignition and detonation) and the
164 formed emissions and determine by which extent emissions are increased under knock. The
165 output of this study can be applicable to new engine design requirements for more efficient and
166 less pollute SI engines. To the best knowledge of the authors, this is a unique study of its kind.

167 **2 Experimental Setup**

168 **2.1 Optical Engine**

169 A customized single cylinder research engine with a distinct optical arrangement was employed
170 in this study [18], [44], [45]. The basic engine characteristics of the engine are presented in
171 **Table 1**. The bottom-end of the engine is based on a commercial Lister-Petter TSI with a
172 combined full-bore overhead access and a semi-traditional poppet-valve valvetrain. Due to the
173 full-bore overhead optical access, the glass of the engine head was designed to withstand peak
174 combustion pressures up to 150bar. The engine incorporates a flat piston crown, two inlet ports,
175 and originally was designed with two exhaust ports. As the purpose of this study is focused on
176 knocking combustion, one of the exhaust valves was deactivated in order to assist end-gas
177 autoignition, by increasing residual gas fraction [46]. A schematic presentation of the optical
178 cylinder head is illustrated in **Figure 1**. The recessed side mounted poppet valves guaranteed
179 valve overlap without piston clash and to maintain a compression ratio of 8.4:1 [45]. Last but

180 not least, the research engine was coupled to an eddy-current dynamometer with a maximum
 181 power absorption/supply of 10kW.



182
 183 **Figure 1:** Schematic presentation of the optical engine cylinder head [18].

184 **Table 1:** Engine characteristics of the optical single cylinder research engine.

Parameter (unit)	Value
Number of Cylinders (-)	1
Compression Ratio (-)	8.4:1
Stroke (mm)	89
Bore (mm)	95
Displacement (cc)	631
Con-rod Length (mm)	165.16
Valve Lift (mm)	5
Inlet Valve Openings/Closing (°BTDC)	375/145
Exhaust Valve opening/Closing (°ATDC)	120/350

185 The engine fuel supply was regulated by a Bosch EV6 PFI fuel injector operating at 3 bar rail
 186 pressure. The PFI injector had a 2-hole pattern forming a dual plume spray pattern targeted
 187 toward the intake valves. The injection timing was fixed at 400° BTDC firing under all
 188 operating conditions. The fuel used in these tests is PRF75, as a result of blending isooctane
 189 and n-heptane (provided by a chemical supplier) on a volumetric basis in small batches
 190 immediately prior to each testing session. The chemical properties of the reference fuels are
 191 provided in **Table 2**. The ignition system consisted of an NGK ER9EH 8mm spark plug
 192 supplied by a Bosch P100T ignition coil.

193 **Table 2:** Fuel properties

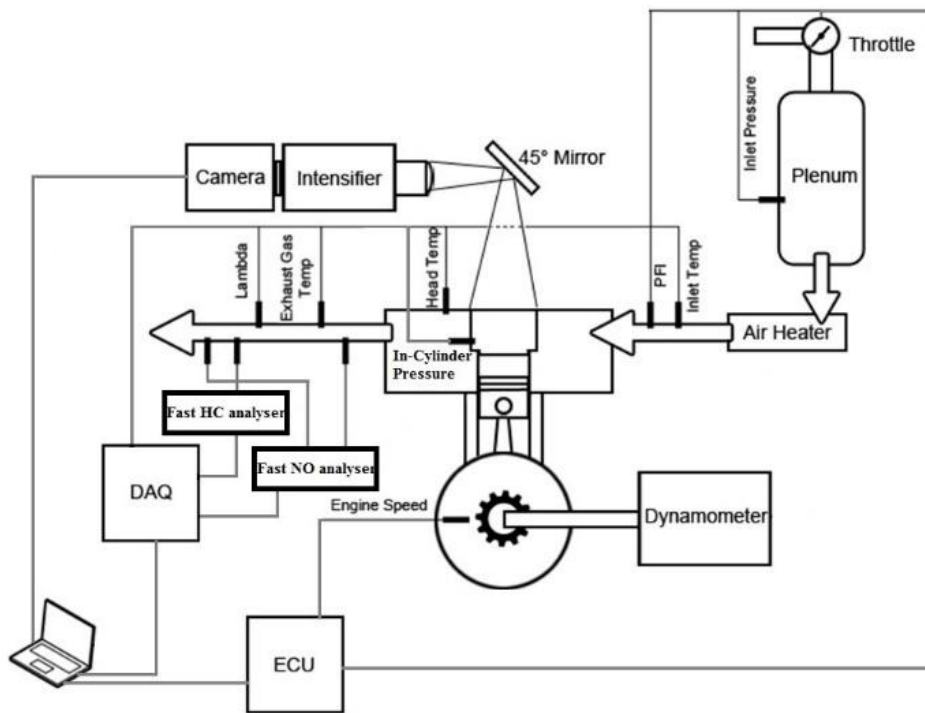
Property	Iso-Octane	n-Heptane
Chemical Formula	C8H18	C7H16
Boiling point at 1 atm (°c)	99.2	98.4
Enthalpy of vaporisation at 298.15 K (MJ/Kmol)	35.14	36.63
Density at 25°C (Kg/m ³)	690.4	681.5
Latent Heat of Vaporisation(kJ/kg)	308	318
Reid Vapour Pressure (bar)	0.52	0.12
Oxygen Content by Weight (%)	0	0
Volumetric Energy Content (MJ/l)	30.6	30.48
RON (MON)	100 (100)	0 (0)

194

195 **2.2 Experimental Configuration and Measurements**

196 Experiments were conducted using the experimental setup schematically illustrated in **Figure**
 197 **2**, while the main specifications of the relevant components are presented in **Table 3**. The test
 198 protocol included the recording of high frequency data, low frequency data and natural light
 199 photography data. The high frequency data were recorded in a National Instruments (NI) data
 200 acquisition card and included the in-cylinder pressure, encoder crankangle signal, exhaust
 201 temperature and exhaust NO and HC emissions recordings from the fast response analyzers.
 202 The low sampling frequency data comprised ECU derived signals, including air/fuel ratio value
 203 (λ sensor), ignition timing, throttle position, inlet air pressure and temperature and coolant
 204 temperature. Recording also included the high frequency photography data of the combustion

205 evolution. Finally, the three (3) set of data are stored in a computer as it is illustrated in **Figure**
206 **2**.



207
208 **Figure 2:** Schematic illustration of the experimental configuration.

209
210 An AVL GH14DK pressure transducer was implemented on the side of the exhaust valves to
211 measure cylinder pressure (**Figure 1**). It was manufactured to fit this particular handmade
212 engine cylinder head and its position was at the region where autoignition usually takes place.
213 It has to be mentioned that when knock occurs, pressure distribution across the combustion
214 chamber is not uniform and the location of the transducer can affect the recordings [47]. The
215 signal from the transducer was fed to an AVL Flexifem charge amplifier. The error in the
216 cylinder pressure measurement was less than $\pm 1\%$ full scale reading (FSO). The exhaust gas
217 temperature was measured with a K-type thermocouple connected to the relevant transducer,
218 with maximum error of $\pm 0.75\%$ of reading. The response time of the thermocouple was low
219 (0.1sec); therefore the thermocouple was utilized to measure averaged temperature per cycle
220 rather than monitoring exhaust temperature profile. The total experimental rig is presented in
221 **Figure 3**.

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Table 3: Main specifications of measurement equipment.

In-cylinder Pressure Sensor: AVL GH14DK	
Pressure range	0-300 bar
Natural Frequency	~ 170 kHz
Linearity	$\leq \pm 0.3\%$ full scale output (FSO)
Sensitivity Drift	$\leq \pm 1\%$
Pressure Sensor Amplifier: AVL Flexifem INDI	
Linearity	$\leq \pm 0.5\%$ full scale output (FSO)
NO fast response analyzer: Cambustion CLD500	
Response time	NO: 2ms, NOx: 8ms
Linearity	$\leq \pm 1\%$ full scale output (FSO)
HC fast response analyzer: Cambustion HFR400	
Response time	HC(C1): 4ms
Linearity	$\leq \pm 1\%$ full scale output (FSO)
Natural Light Photography: Memrecam fx-6000	
Image Resolution	512 × 384 pixels.
Frame Speed	6000 (fps)

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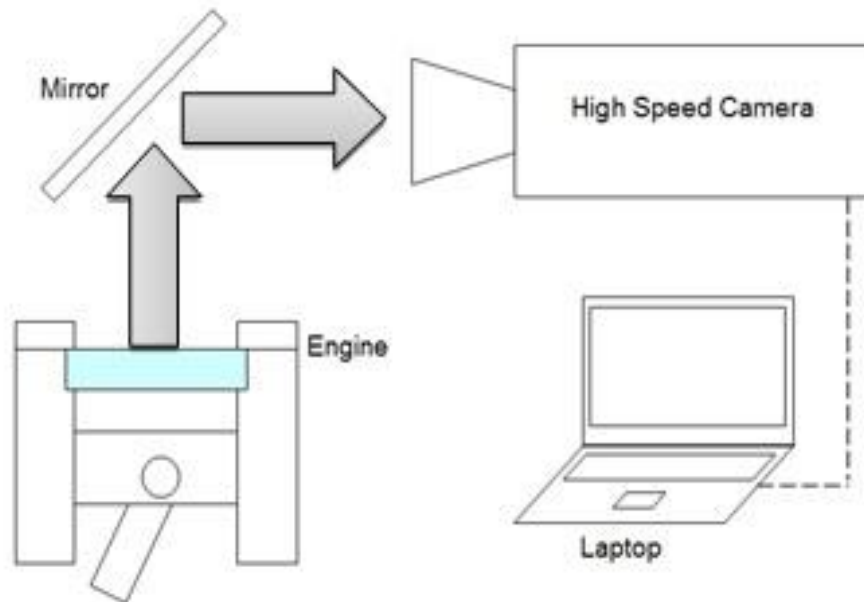


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228

Figure 3: The experimental test rig.

229 High frequency cycle resolved exhaust emissions measurements were conducted using two fast
230 response analyzers from Cambustion Ltd. The Cambustion CLD500 analyzer was employed
231 for the cycle resolved NO emissions. From the two available sampling heads of this analyzer,
232 one was used and installed directly downstream of the exhaust valve of the cylinder, while the
233 second probe was installed downstream enough to the exhaust gases to get an average value of
234 NO emissions. The sampling response time of NO emissions was in the order of 2 ms (**Table**
235 **3**). Simultaneously, Cambustion HFR400 analyser was employed for HC measurement. The
236 only used sampling head was installed downstream of the exhaust valves and its sampling time
237 was about 4 ms. Signals from both heads (3 in total) were directed to the NI data acquisition
238 card.



239

240

Figure 4: Schematic of experimental setup for combustion imaging

241 Images of the visible light from combustion heat were captured through an overhead window
242 as shown in **Figure 4**. The camera was capable of imaging at 6000 frames per second (fps) with
243 a resolution of 512 x 384 pixels. All cycles presented in this paper were imaged at 6000fps
244 with an exposure time of 167 μ s. The internal memory of the camera allowed for a total of
245 10,000 frames to be recorded before the data were stored in a hard drive (laptop). At 1200rpm
246 this allowed for 16 cycles to be recorded in a single test. Due to the large variation in intensity
247 of the light emission from combustion between cycles, the gain was adjusted for each cycle to
248 improve the clarity of the images.

249 The reason that in this study an optical engine has been employed is to qualitatively explain
 250 the cyclic resolved emission values under various knocking conditions by utilizing optical data.
 251 Realistic results from commercial engines may quantitatively change, as explained elsewhere
 252 [44].

253 **2.3 Engine Test Protocol**

254 A fixed reference point was obtained by running the engine under normal non-knocking part-
 255 load operation until the cylinder head metal temperature reached 88°C. At this temperature
 256 knock was induced by resetting the spark timing. After capturing the data, the engine was
 257 stopped and allowed to cool down before the process repeated. This process kept the measured
 258 wall temperatures within a small range (<5°C peak-to-peak variation), which was considered
 259 necessary when considering knock in a qualitative manner with an engine setup lacking water
 260 cooling in the head. The thermodynamic results were averaged over three sets of 100 cycles
 261 for each test condition. The sump oil temperature remained moderately low throughout testing
 262 (~40°C). **Table 4** shows the engine test conditions.

263 **Table 4:** Engine operating conditions.

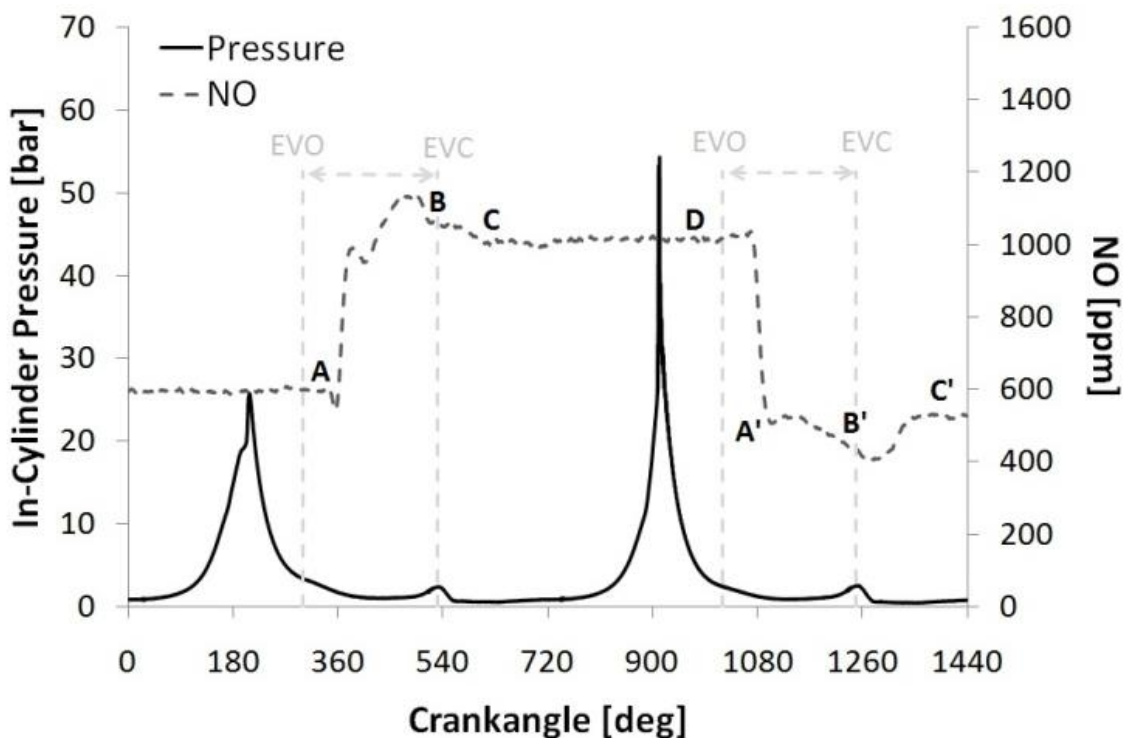
Parameter (unit)	Value
Engine Speed (RPM)	1200±5
Relative AFR (λ)	1±0.01
Inlet Pressure (bar)	0.9±0.02
Inlet Air Temperature (°C)	66±2
Exhaust Bridge Temperature (°C)	130±2
Head Temperature (°C)	88±1

264

265 **2.4 Data Processing**

266 An example of processing the in-cylinder pressure of two consecutive cycles with KI index
 267 0.76 bar (light knock cycle) and 15.1 bar (super knock cycle) respectively versus NO
 268 concentration is given with reference to **Figure 5**. During the valve-closed part of the current
 269 cycle, the analyzer measures the NO level of the gas remained in the exhaust manifold from
 270 the previous cycle. When exhaust valve opens (EVO) a portion of the (in-cylinder) gas
 271 violently exits the cylinder (blow-down) and clears the exhaust manifold from the previous

272 cycle gas. However, a delay between EVO and analyzer response (point A in **Figure 5**) is
 273 observed, attributed to the distance between the valve outlet and the sampling probe, as well as
 274 to the instrument response time [23]. After the exhaust valve closes (EVC), the analyzer signal
 275 exhibits a slight fluctuation (area B-C in **Figure 5**), indicating a variation of NO concentration
 276 in the cylinder gas. The NO concentration may vary from cycle to cycle due to the combustion
 277 process. During the closed part of the next cycle, the analyzer signal can be considered constant
 278 (part C-D in **Figure 5**) and corresponds to the NO level of the current cycle. This average value
 279 is taken as the NO emissions amplitude of the current cycle. Last but not least, **Figure 5** also
 280 shows that the level of NO (C-D area) after a light knock cycle and after a super knock cycle
 281 (C' point) can significantly vary. The deeper understanding of this observation is within the
 282 aim of this study. A similar procedure was followed to detect HC concentration at each
 283 combustion cycle, taking into account the variations in signal delay, due to the different
 284 positioning of the sampling probes for NO and HC species. More details on the exact process
 285 per pollutant can be found in open literature [21], [23], [48], [49].



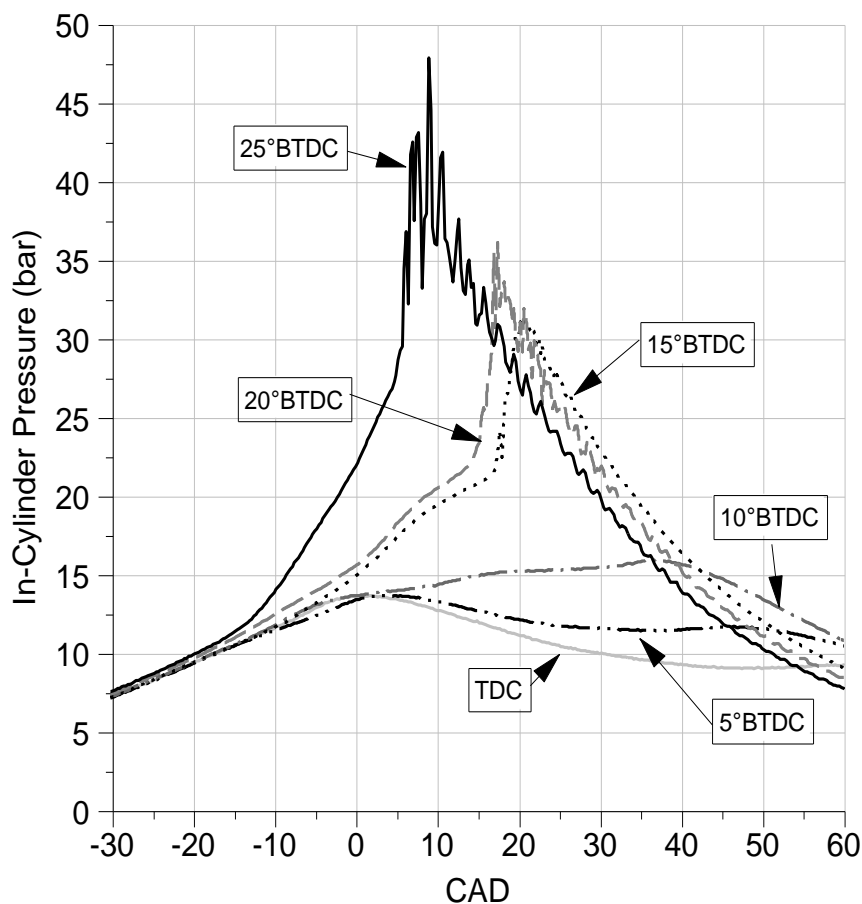
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287 **Figure 5:** Schematic illustration of the fast NO signal in reference to in-cylinder pressure for two consecutive
 288 cycles with KI=0.76 bar and 15.1 bar respectively.

289 **3 Results and Discussion**

290 **3.1 Effect of Spark Ignition Timing**

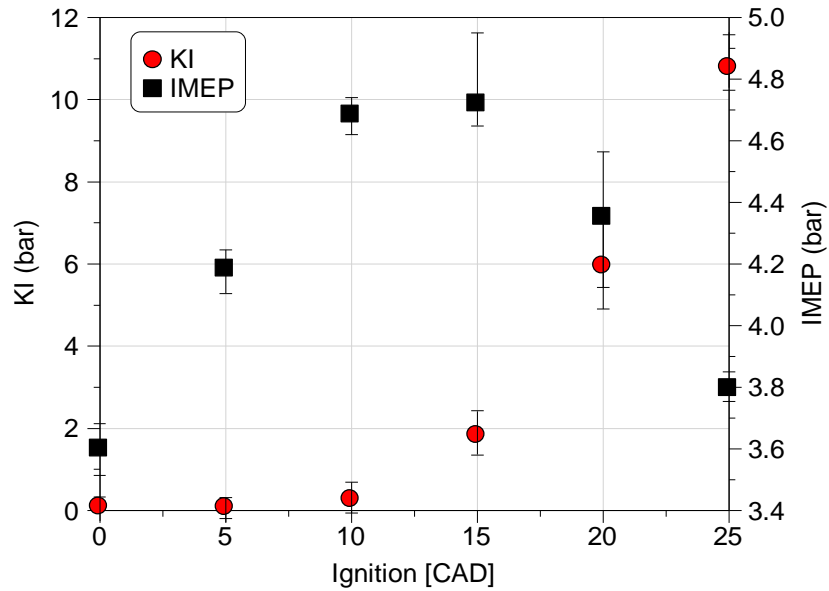
291 The phenomenon of knock is controllable by the spark advance as advancing or retarding the
292 spark timing can increase or decrease the knock severity or intensity respectively [47].
293 Although knock varies substantially from cycle to cycle and doesn't occur at each combustion
294 cycle, an average combustion cycle can present the 'mean' picture of knock intensity. Various
295 spark timings lead to different heat release rate histories, which can be linked to end-gas
296 pressure and temperature conditions that can cause autoignition. The latter can be observed as
297 a rapid increase in the pressure trace accompanied by fluctuations which amplitude varies with
298 time.



299 **Figure 6:** In-cylinder pressure traces for six (6) different ignition timings. Advanced ignition leads to heavy
300 knock.
301

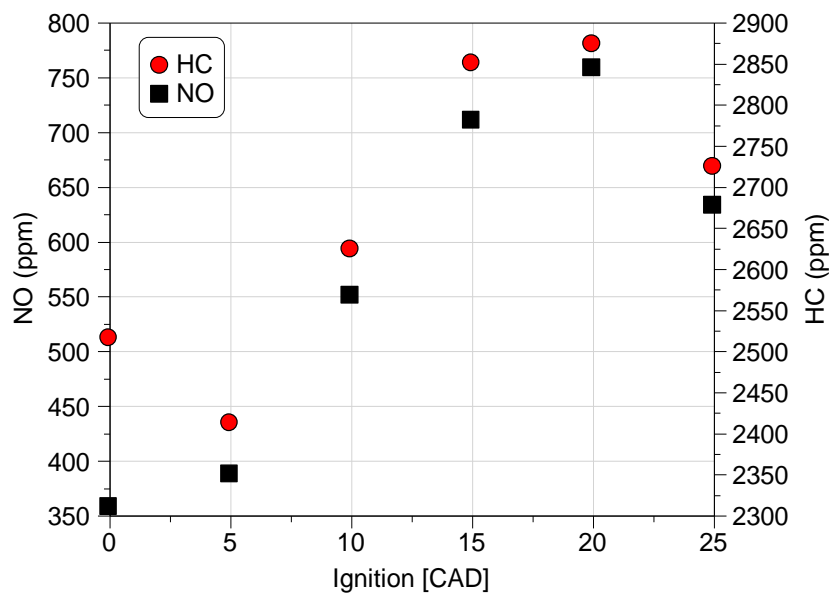
302 **Figure 6** shows six (6) different combustion cycles where the range of knock intensity varies.
303 The illustrated pressure traces represent the average imep cycle of the measured 300 cycles at
304 each spark timing condition. It is observed that as ignition timing shifts from TDC to 25°

305 BTDC, the magnitude of peak combustion pressure and the amplitude of pressure fluctuations
 306 are impressively increased. In fact, the peak in-cylinder pressure when ignition timing occurs
 307 at TDC compared to the ignition timing occurs at 25° BTDC is more than three (3) times higher.
 308 Furthermore, it is revealed that knock intensity increases exponentially as knock occurs closer
 309 to top center, earlier in the combustion process.



310

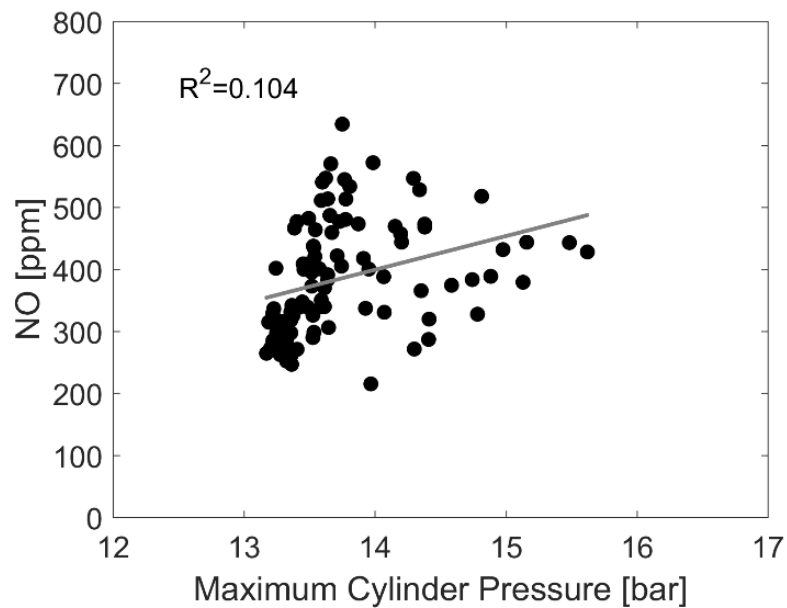
311 **Figure 7:** Impact of spark ignition timing on IMEP and KI under stoichiometric conditions and wide open
 312 throttle conditions.



313

314 **Figure 8:** Impact of spark timing on NO and HC emissions, considering mean value.

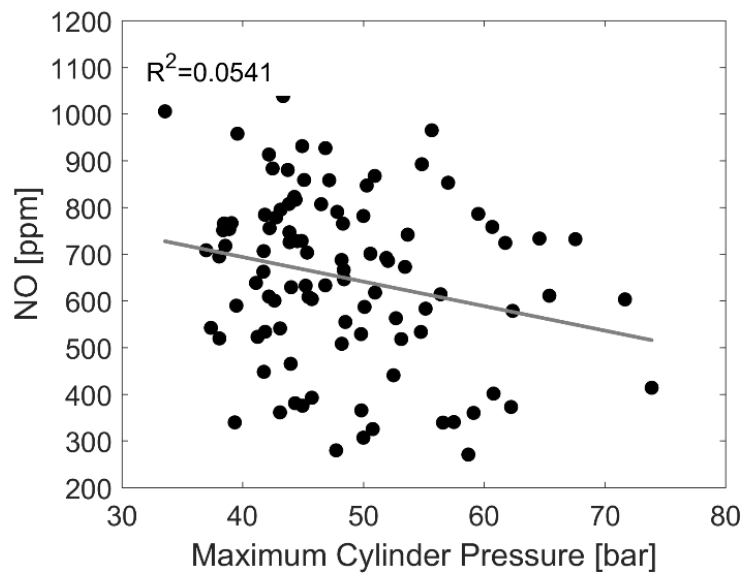
315 Pressure traces substantially vary from cycle-to-cycle; therefore mean values of imep and KI
 316 as well as the variability of these indexes can explain the transition from normal combustion to
 317 heavy knock by advancing spark timing. **Figure 7** schematically presents the relationship
 318 between both KI and imep against spark timing. MBT is achieved at spark timing close to 10°
 319 BTDC, where the mean value of imep is maximized and the COV of imep is minimized. Further
 320 spark advance leads to higher imep variability, the mean value of imep drops and KI is
 321 exponentially increased. At 15° BTDC spark timing, KI is equal to 2 bar and can be classified
 322 into a medium knock case while further spark advance leads to heavy knock cycles.



323
 324 **Figure 9:** Relationship between maximum cylinder pressure and NO formed emissions under normal
 325 combustion conditions (spark timing at 5° BTDC).

326 Cycle to cycle variability is recognized as the main reason of cyclic emission variability;
 327 however the impact of knocking combustion on pollutants formation has not been previous
 328 investigated extensively. The averaged and variation range of the emission values for 300
 329 combustion cycles as well as the relationship between NO and HC emissions against spark
 330 timing are illustrated in **Figure 8**. HC are increased against spark timing due to incomplete
 331 combustion as KI is increased. However, under heavy knock conditions mean HC are slightly
 332 decreased as pre-ignition appears and combustion characteristics change. Regarding NO, it was
 333 found that engine-out NO are enhanced versus spark timing which is continued until heavy
 334 knock conditions at spark timing 20° BTDC and then average formed NO is decreased.
 335 Previous studies on cyclic NO variability presented that MBT is related with the maximum
 336 mean NO value and the minimum COV_{NO} value [43], while the effect of knocking combustion

337 in this relationship is not usually considered. The current tested experimental case clearly
338 presents that knock can further increase mean NO exhaust emissions by up to 36%, while
339 considering NO variability, instantaneously this increment can reach up to 60%. A further
340 analysis to better understand the deeper reason of this trend is needed and followed in this
341 study.

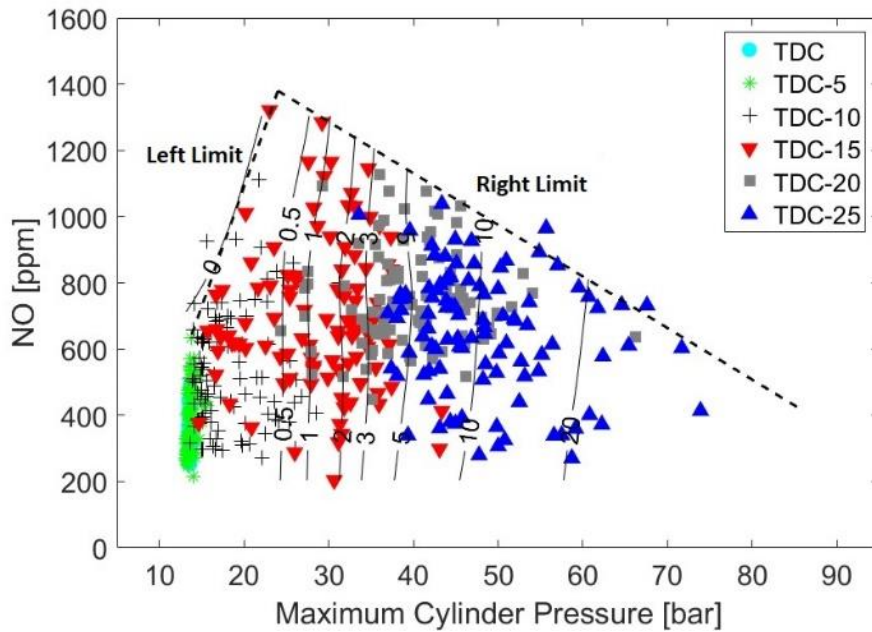


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343 **Figure 10:** Relationship between maximum cylinder pressure and NO formed emissions under heavy knock
344 conditions (spark timing at 25° BTDC).

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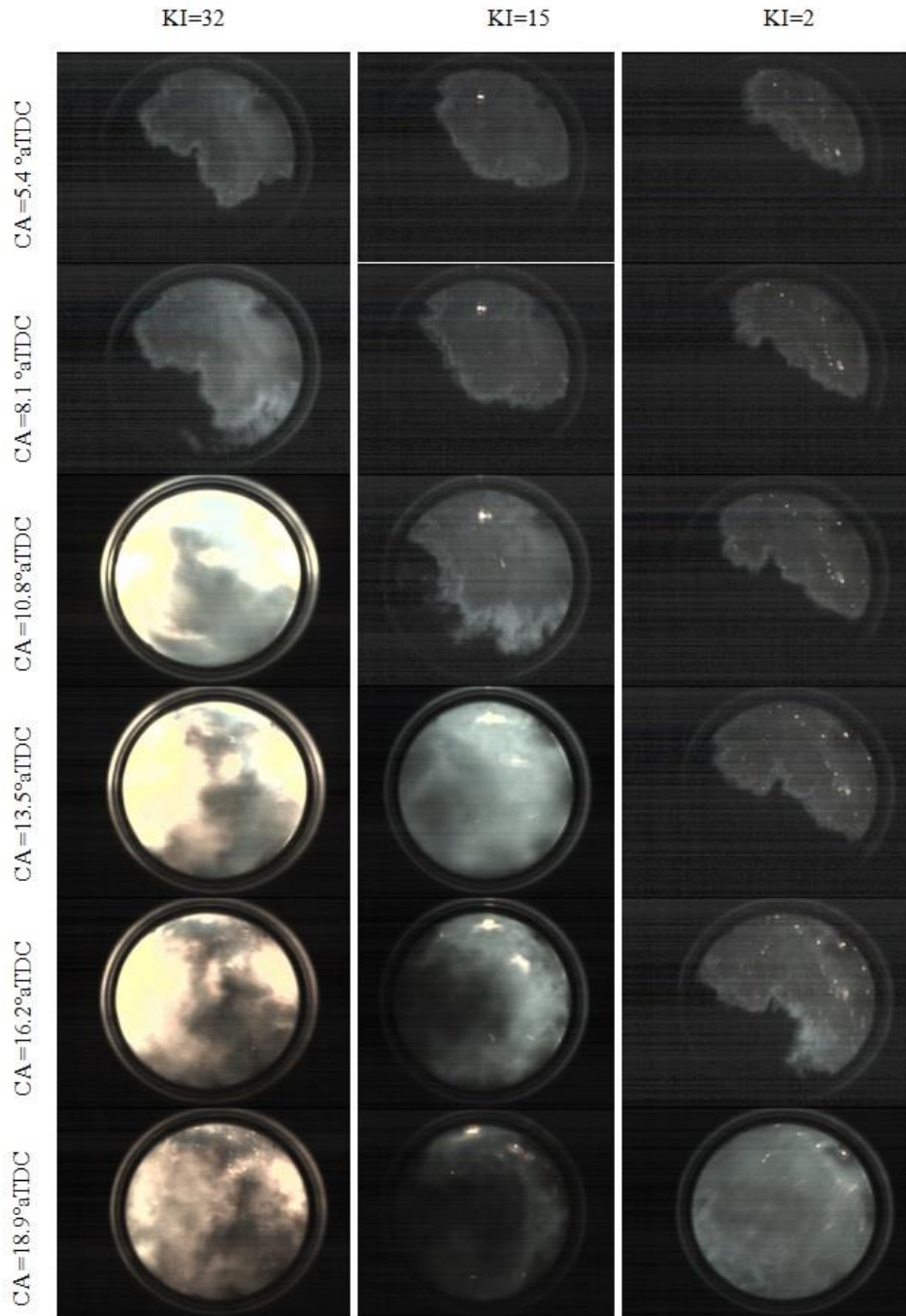
346 In addition to NO emissions, **Figure 8** presents the relationship between HC emissions and
347 spark timing. HC emissions mean value is increased as spark ignition timing is advanced apart
348 from the TDC ignition timing point, as this point seems to represent a very late combustion,
349 very slow heat release rate that declares incomplete combustion takes place. In general, HC
350 emissions present similar trend to NO emissions against spark timing. Under knocking
351 conditions (spark timing exceeds 10° BTDC), HC emissions are enhanced by up to 10% while
352 under heavy knock conditions a slight drop compared to the peak HC emissions is observed.



353

354 **Figure 11:** Relationship between maximum cylinder pressure and NO formation for various KI conditions
 355 (contour lines) as a result of various ignition timing conditions under stoichiometric conditions.

356 Nitric oxide is mainly formed at high temperatures, through the well-known extended
 357 Zeldovich thermal mechanism [26]. Peak combustion temperature and residence time at high
 358 temperature conditions are the two primary reasons on nitrogen oxidation. **Figure 9** represents
 359 the relationship between maximum cylinder pressure and NO emissions for 100 consecutive
 360 cycles under normal combustion conditions (ignition timing 5° BTDC). The trend of these
 361 points is found close to linear, validating similar observations from previous studies [21], [43],
 362 [50]. In fact, deviations from this linear correlation can be related with the cyclic dispersion of
 363 mixture parameters such as residual gas fraction, fuel trapped mass or air-fuel ratio at each
 364 combustion cycle. This linear trend clearly shows that as maximum cylinder pressure is
 365 increased NO formation is enhanced. However a similar analysis of the data under heavy knock
 366 conditions (ignition timing 25° BTDC) showed the opposite linear trend; higher maximum
 367 cylinder pressure leads to lower NO emissions (**Figure 10**). Furthermore, the dispersion of the
 368 points is at much higher range compared to the case of normal combustion conditions. The
 369 latter is resulted from the stochastic behaviour of knocking combustion conversely to the more
 370 robust normal combustion.



371

372

Figure 12: Comparison of various KI conditions.

373 NO variability is highly related to the combustion rate, as approved elsewhere [38]. **Figure 11**
 374 illustrates the relationship between maximum cylinder pressure and NO emissions for various
 375 spark timing conditions. It is observed that the area where points occur is restricted by a 'left'
 376 and 'right' limit that both form a triangular region. The third axis of this plot represents the
 377 knock intensity which is illustrated as contour lines on the same figure. The 'left' limit of this
 378 plot is well-matched with the KI equal to zero contour line. In fact, it describes the observed

379 trend found at **Figure 9**; higher maximum cylinder pressure leads to higher NO emissions under
380 normal SI combustion conditions and it is the limit of NO formation under deflagration
381 conditions. Moving to the right part of **Figure 11**, maximum cylinder pressure increases as end-
382 gas auto-ignition starts to occur. Under knocking combustion condition, it is observed that the
383 variation between maximum and minimum NO emissions at higher maximum cylinder
384 pressure is decreased and reaches a narrow window area at extreme peak in-cylinder pressures.
385 The latter forms the right region limit which is hard to explain from recorded thermodynamic
386 data. Therefore natural light photography data were employed to better understand this trend.

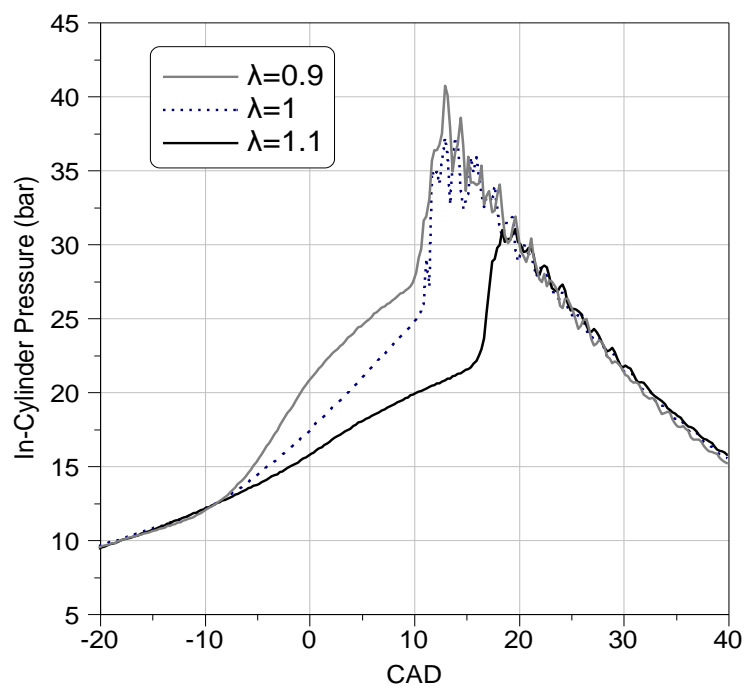
387 Set out in **Figure 12** are flame images from three (3) different combustion cycles under various
388 knock intensity conditions; namely light knock, medium knock and heavy knock. It can be seen
389 that for KI=2, auto-ignition is observed at the late phase of the combustion process. Burned
390 zone occurs for long time, enough for the post-flame kinetics to form a substantial amount of
391 NO emissions. On the opposite site, at heavy knock cycles, auto-ignition occurs much earlier
392 and respectively burned zone also occurs less, NO residence time is decreased and although
393 peak temperature is higher final formed NO emissions are significantly lower to normal
394 combustion case. Summarizing, optical data present that higher knock intensity can be
395 correlated with higher in-cylinder pressure while pressure waves affect the residence time in
396 the post flame region.

397 The observation of **Figure 12** explains the ‘right’ limit region on **Figure 11**. NO formation
398 depends on oxygen availability, peak temperature and the residence time of the mixture at high
399 temperature conditions. In stoichiometric mixtures and under knocking conditions there is a
400 competition between maximum cylinder temperature and residence time of combustion
401 products in the burned region. As KI is increased, knock occurs earlier during the combustion
402 process which means that residence time can potentially decrease although peak temperature
403 and pressure are significantly enhanced. The latter affects the kinetic rate of NO formation and
404 lead to lower emissions. In this study was found that combustion cycles with KI higher than 6
405 present a drop on NO emissions.

406 **3.2 Effect of Air/Fuel Equivalence Ratio**

407 Combustion evolution and knock onset are affected by mixture composition and oxygen
408 availability, while fluctuations of air/fuel ratio is an important source of CCV [51]. Pollutants
409 formation is also expected to be affected by the nature of the combustion and the oxygen
410 availability.

411 The effect of oxygen availability on knock onset and pressure evolution is illustrated on **Figure**
412 **13** that shows the in-cylinder pressure traces for three different mixtures: slightly rich, slightly
413 lean and (almost) stoichiometric. The three (3) cycles correspond to identical ignition timing
414 (20° BTDC), engine load ($imep \sim 4.4$ bar) but different knock intensity conditions. It is observed
415 that slightly rich mixture presents a faster burn rate and reaches end-gas auto-ignition limit
416 closer to TDC, as due to the smaller cylinder volume of the unburned region, the unburned
417 temperature and pressure are relatively high at this crank angle. On the other hand, slightly lean
418 mixture is characterized by a slower burn rate and compared to the stoichiometric combustion
419 cycle, the onset of knock at lean conditions appears with 5° CA delay.



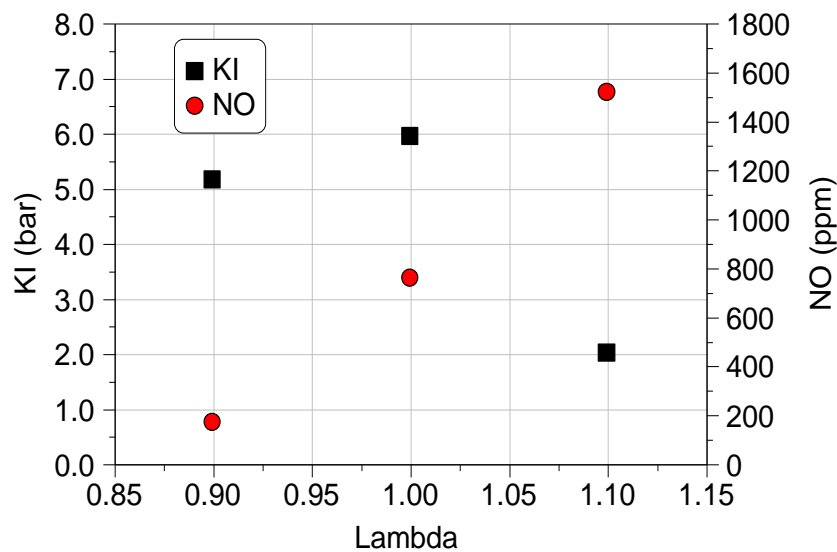
420

421 **Figure 13:** In-cylinder pressure traces for three (3) different air/fuel equivalence ratios and similar ignition
422 timings ($TDC-20^\circ$) and $imep$. Equivalence ratio significantly affects knock onset and peak in-cylinder pressure.

423 The knock resistance of lean mixtures has been investigated in the past by Gruden and Hahn
424 [52]. In their study, a production engine was converted to a lean burn engine. Researchers
425 explored the effect of many parameters on engine economy including: high compression ratio,
426 optimization of ignition timing and layout of the combustion chamber shape with intensive
427 charge turbulence. They found that compression ratio can be increased with lean operation,
428 implying that lean mixtures are more knock resistant. However, the operating conditions under
429 which this trend is valid is not clearly stated. Considering the results of **Figure 13**, a possible

430 reason could be the slower burn rate that leads to auto-ignition when piston expands and
431 consequently end gas temperature and pressure are relatively low.

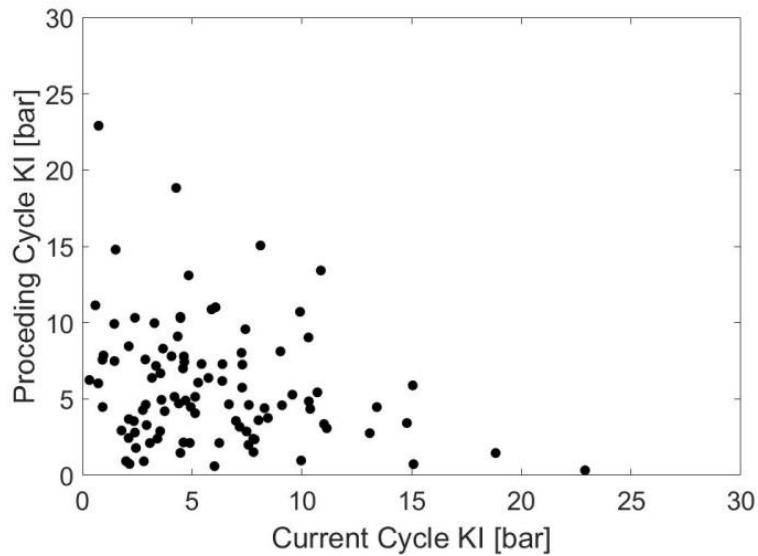
432 In order to better understand the effect of air/fuel equivalence ratio on knock intensity and NO
433 emissions, the 20° BTDC ignition point was selected from stoichiometric data previously
434 presented and experiments were performed for various air/fuel equivalence ratios. **Figure 14**
435 shows that maximum KI is observed at close to stoichiometric conditions, while under slightly
436 lean conditions KI drops impressively. Conversely to previous studies where it was found that
437 lean mixtures increase the COV of imep and cyclic combustion variability is much higher,
438 knocking combustion lean mixtures reduce cyclic variability as KI drops. The effect of air/fuel
439 equivalence ratio on NO formation under knocking combustion is also explored. It was found
440 that maximum NO emissions are enhanced under lean conditions due to the excess of oxygen
441 and the peak temperature conditions that occur under slightly lean conditions. Compared to
442 normal combustion lean operating ($\lambda \sim 1.1$) conditions, it was found that NO can be up to 3
443 times higher under autoignition conditions.



444
445 **Figure 14:** Effect of air/fuel ratio (λ) on average knock intensity and NO emissions for similar ignition
446 timings (TDC-20) and engine load (imep~4.4 bar).

447 Cyclic combustion variability consists of both stochastic and deterministic phenomena [22].
448 Fluctuations of the gas mixture motion and turbulence and variation of the quantity and spatial
449 distribution of the fuel are related with the stochastic aspect of cyclic dispersion. Leaner and
450 more dilute mixture conditions are related to the deterministic aspect of cyclic variability [53]

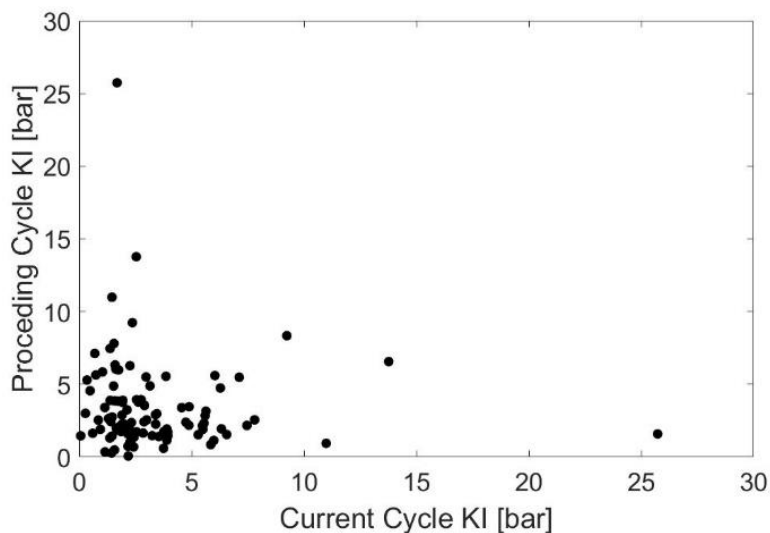
451 and can also affect the amplitude of knock intensity under knocking conditions. The latter is
452 further discussed in this study.



453

454 **Figure 15:** KI return map for ignition timing TDC-20 and stoichiometric air/fuel ratio conditions.

455 The return map is identified as an easy and fast way to characterize the nature of the variability
456 of any index and it includes the plot of the current value against the previous or next cycle
457 value of the same index. A boomerang-shaped pattern declares the deterministic aspect of
458 variability while a noisy spot point shows the stochastic feature of the variability.

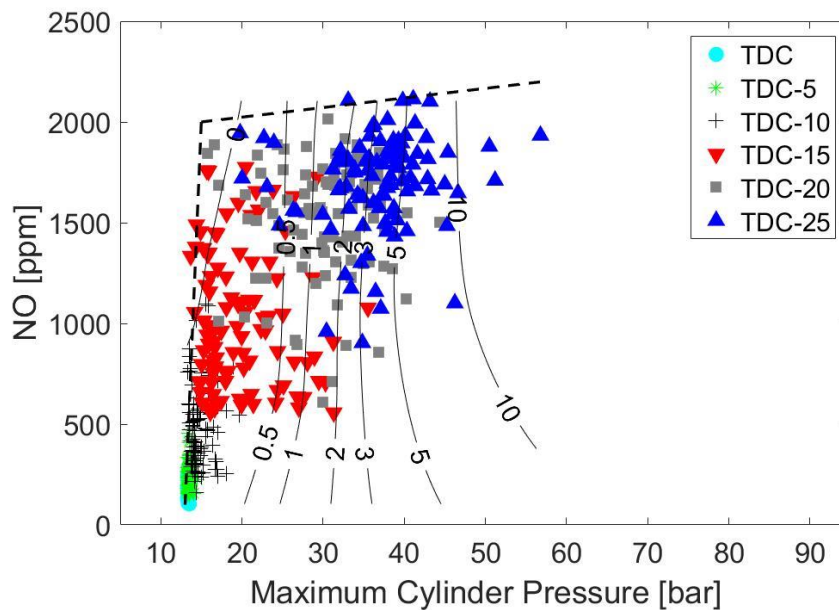


459

460 **Figure 16:** KI return map for ignition timing TDC-20 and slightly rich air/fuel ratio conditions.

461 **Figure 15** and **Figure 16** show the KI return map for stoichiometric and rich operating
462 conditions respectively. It is observed that under stoichiometric conditions KI presents a

463 boomerang-shaped pattern (**Figure 15**), while the scatter of data under rich conditions has been
 464 decreased in an almost noisy spot (**Figure 16**). This strong indication proves the deterministic
 465 character of knock intensity can significantly be reduced under rich conditions. The reason can
 466 be the well-known cooling effect of rich mixtures, that decreases the end-gas temperature and
 467 pressure and finally the knock intensity is reduced. It has to be noted that the small impact of
 468 mixture air/fuel equivalence ratio on average engine load (imep), which differs by 2% between
 469 the stoichiometric and rich mixtures, slightly affects the residual gas fraction, which is a strong
 470 deterministic combustion parameter.

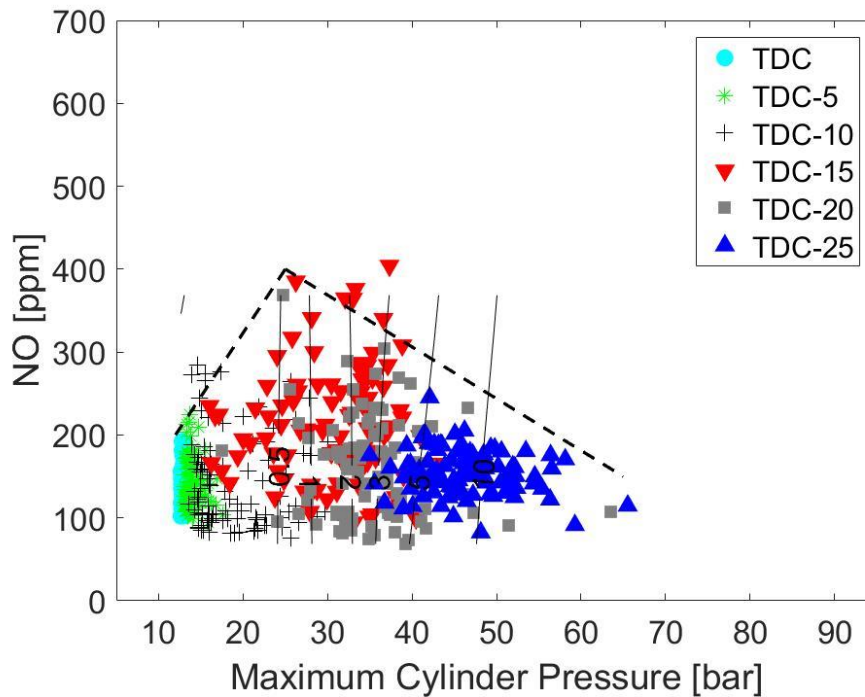


471

472 **Figure 17:** Relationship between maximum cylinder pressure and NO formation for various KI conditions
 473 (contour lines) as a result of various ignition timing conditions under slightly lean conditions ($\lambda \sim 1.1$).

474

475 Nitric oxide formation is related with peak combustion temperature, mixture residence time at
 476 high temperature and oxygen availability [43]. A recent study proved that under normal
 477 combustion conditions, as a result of cyclic emission variability, fast burn rate cycles present
 478 peak formed NO emissions under slightly lean conditions while slow burn rate cycles present
 479 peak NO emissions closer to equivalent air/fuel ratio at unity [21].



480

481 **Figure 18:** Relationship between maximum cylinder pressure and NO formation for various KI conditions
 482 (contour lines) as a result of various ignition timing conditions under slightly rich conditions ($\lambda \sim 0.9$).

483 Under knocking combustion conditions, where peak temperatures are observed, oxygen
 484 availability seems to be the most important parameter for NO formation. **Figure 17** illustrates
 485 the relationship between maximum in-cylinder pressure and NO formation for slight lean
 486 mixtures and various KI conditions, which are presented as contour lines in the plot. Similar to
 487 stoichiometric conditions presented before, the scatter area of the data form a triangular. The
 488 left limit matches with the KI=0 isoline; under normal combustion conditions NO is
 489 proportional to maximum in-cylinder pressure. Compared to stoichiometric conditions, the rate
 490 is much faster due to the excess of oxygen.

491 Although the ‘left’ limit at **Figure 17** is similar to the trend found at **Figure 11**, the ‘right’ limit
 492 line is significantly different to stoichiometric conditions. The only parameter that alters
 493 between those figures is oxygen availability. The competitive relationship between peak
 494 temperature and residence time that was found under stoichiometric conditions is not appeared
 495 under slightly lean conditions. The excess oxygen enhances post flame NO kinetics which are
 496 further benefit from higher peak temperatures in high knock intensity combustion cycles. The
 497 general trend shows that under high KI values, NO emissions are clearly increased with the
 498 scatter of the data being also decreased, which means that the average value of NO follows an
 499 important increment.

500 On the opposite site, **Figure 18** presents the relationship between maximum in-cylinder
501 pressure and NO formation for slight rich mixtures and various KI conditions. The trends are
502 identical to the previous discussed under stoichiometric conditions at **Figure 11**, presenting the
503 competition between residence time and peak temperature for various KI conditions.

504 **4 Conclusions**

505 This study explores pollutants formation under knocking combustion conditions using an
506 optical single cylinder SI engine. A novel experimental setup has been utilized including fast
507 response analyzers for NO and HC emissions, natural light photography and in-cylinder
508 pressure recordings. The effect of two engine operating parameters were explored such as
509 spark ignition timing and air/fuel equivalence ratio.

510 The effect of ignition timing on pollutants formation under various knock index conditions has
511 been explored. It was found that as spark timing is advanced and knock intensity is increased,
512 both NO and HC emissions are enhanced. Up to knock intensity equal to 6 bar and under
513 stoichiometric conditions, it was found that instantaneous NO emissions are increased by up to
514 60% compared to the MBT operating conditions. A further increase of knock intensity at the
515 limits of pre-ignition region was found to significantly drop NO emissions. Simultaneously HC
516 emissions were found to increase at the region of light and medium knock where the peak of
517 HC emissions was observed, while at heavier knock region HC emissions drop.

518 The effect of air/fuel equivalence ratio on pollutants formation under knocking combustion has
519 been also investigated in this study. It was found that leaner mixtures present the onset of knock
520 later compared to richer mixtures due to the slower deflagration rate. When knock occurs, the
521 formed NO in lean mixtures are higher than in stoichiometric or rich mixtures due to the oxygen
522 availability. Last but not least, it was found that under lean conditions NO emissions are
523 enhanced as knock intensity is increased while under stoichiometric or slightly rich operating
524 conditions it was found that NO are decreased for knock intensity higher than 6 bar.

525

526

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