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Influence of composite after-treatment catalyst on particle-bound polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons–vapor-phase emitted from modern advanced GDI engines

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Abstract

With mutagenic and carcinogenic potential polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) generated from engine source which have contributed to a substantial share of air toxic, so in order to characterize and eliminate the PAHs emissions of commercial engine fuelled, an experimental study has been carried out on a V6 gasoline engine working in spark-ignition (SI) and homogeneous charge compression ignition (HCCI) equipped with smart three-way catalyst converter (TWC). The particle phase and gas phase of PAHs in engine exhaust, downstream and upstream the catalyst were collected by stainless-steel cartridges containing XAD-2 resin to capture PAHs species. The vapour phase and particulate bound PAHs compounds observed with two and three rings to exist almost entirely in the gas phase, on the other hands, five or more fused rings are predominantly adsorbed on soot particles, the intermediate – 4 ring PAHs exist in the two PAHs phases, naphthalene is the most abundant polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon that was detected in the exhaust vapour- phase on both engine modes. The prototype catalytic converter eliminates most of the polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons species in both PAHs phases, particle phase and gas phase, except for NAP species. A prototype catalyst showed higher efficient conversion on PAHs particulate-bound phase than vapor phase for both engine modes. However, when hydrogen was added upstream of the catalyst, the catalyst conversion efficiency in reducing naphthalene was increased by approximately 20%.

Keywords: Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons; Emissions control systems; HCCI/SI engine; Three-way catalytic converter.

1. Introduction

Multi-ring organic species are called “Polycyclic Aromatic Compounds” (PAC). Within this wide range, there are species containing heteroatoms (S, N, and O) as well as those containing only carbon and hydrogen which is identified mainly in automotive emissions and automotive fuels. Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) are comprised of carbon and hydrogen atoms in two or more aromatic rings [1]. They are a group of ubiquitous persistent organic pollutants possessing carcinogenic, mutagenic, and immune-toxic properties [2]. PAHs are currently unregulated pollutants in automotive exhaust emissions, they are emitted to the atmosphere either in the vapor phase or associated with fine particles. They occur in the atmosphere due to emissions from gasoline and diesel-powered vehicles and other sources such as coal, biomass, gas, and oil combustion [3–5]. PAHs thermally very stable and therefore PAH is abundant molecules in the combustion zone. Therefore, they are always formed in combustion processes and are attributed to unburned, paralyzed, or partially oxidized fuel and lubricant oil that are transferred from the gas phase to the particulate phase by adsorption and condensation on to the existing particles or by nucleation of new particles when the exhaust cools [2]. Despite the extensive work and literature relating to the area of automotive PAHs emissions, there has been a surprising lack of definitive investigations into the link between fuels PAHs content and measured PAHs emissions. There has also been a limited amount of work investigating total PAHs emissions, i.e. particulate bound plus vapor phase emissions. Most research has, instead, concentrated on particulate bound PAHs. The nature of gasoline emissions, i.e. predominantly vapor, and the collection systems used, means that results given are closer to “totals”, or “total targeted PM and vapor phase” PAHs. However, in a real engine, there is always some level of inhomogeneity which leads to some level of PM emissions. That PM emissions from a DI HCCI engine lie between emissions from diesel and SI engines and therefore, may not be negligible. The influence of air/fuel ratio (λ) on engine

lean operation and on the emission of specific pollutants is not very well established. PM emissions are related to air-to-fuel ratio. When the air-to-fuel ratio is increased, PM diameter shifted towards smaller diameters [6]. Certain individual polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) have been classified by the International Agency for Research on Cancer as carcinogenic to animals and probably carcinogenic to humans. Evidence for the carcinogenicity of some other PAHs is equivocal; for others, there is no evidence of carcinogenic potential, whilst many others have not so far been tested. PAHs have attracted much attention in the studies on air pollution recently because some of them are highly carcinogenic or mutagenic. In particular, benzo (a) pyrene has been identified as a highly carcinogenic. The occurrence of PAHs in the urban air has caused particular concern because of the continuous nature of the exposure and the size of the population at risk [7-9].

Homogeneous Charge Compression Ignition (HCCI) engines are being investigated widely because they can provide both high diesel-like efficiencies and ultra-low NO_x and particulate emissions. A specific case of HCCI is gasoline-fuelled HCCI. It is attractive due to the simplicity of implementing such a technology into existing SI engines as well as the existing fueling infrastructure. However, gasoline is a complicated mixture of many different hydrocarbons which results in rather poor auto-ignition properties, there are several technical challenges that must be overcome before this promising technology is commercially viable. One significant challenge is that HCCI engines produce emissions of unburned hydrocarbon (HC), oxygenated hydrocarbons (OHC), and carbon monoxide (CO) and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon PAH_s. Aldehydes are mainly produced by industrial processes and combustion sources including automobile engines, the direct release of aldehydes come from internal combustion engines. Incomplete combustion of fuels and atmospheric oxidation of organic compounds are the major sources of carbonyl compounds, these pollutants have multiple sources, but motor exhaust gas is considered as one of the most important [10-12]. The gas

contains specific pollutants such as alcohols and carbonyl compounds in gasoline emissions especially in HCCI engines have not been thoroughly investigated. The influence of air/fuel ratio (λ) on engine lean operation and on the emission of specific pollutants is not very well established [13-15]. The scope of such pyro synthesis reactions are very familiar - engines running on both gasoline (molecules typically in the C5 – C10 range) and diesel fuel (molecules typically in the C12 – C24 range) produce emissions ranging from methane (C1) to soot (upwards of a million C atoms per particle). Such reactions easily have the potential to create sufficient PAHs to account for those found in exhaust emissions [16-17]. Thus it is possible that new regulatory requirements might be considered for selected compounds including polycyclic and aldehydes, they continue to receive scientific and regulatory attention as toxic air contaminants, and carcinogens, the international agency for research on cancer (IARC) has classified formaldehyde as known carcinogen to humans [18]. However, regardless of the ability to minimize engine-out HC and CO emissions by altering engine operations or changing engine design. HCCI engines will likely require advanced exhaust emission control device, thus, engine exhaust after-treatment systems are widely considered. Catalyst technology for HC and CO removal is well understood and used in gasoline-fueled automobiles for twenty-five years. Although some oxidation catalysts were introduced much earlier, it was not until the 1980s that the Three-Way-Catalyst (TWC) was developed by which NO_x, CO and HC can be converted simultaneously [19]. Catalytic converters are being widely used in automobile and considered to be the most effective technique in reducing harmful emissions from internal combustion engines. It is evidenced that future emission regulations (i.e. CO₂ limits) will see encourage HCCI and lean (i.e. O₂ presence) engine operation in addition to stoichiometric SI. A suitable exhaust after-treatment system would be required in order to reduce HC, CO, NO_x and possibly PM emissions within allowable limits of the SI/HCCI dual mode engine. The current exhaust gas 3-way catalytic converters are

ineffective in reducing NO_x (and maybe certain hydrocarbons) under lean or HCCI engine operation conditions where the exhaust temperature is lower [20-23].

This paper describes the concentration of 16 individual PAHs in semi-volatile gas phase and in PM generated by a V6 SI/HCCI engine, PAH concentrations will be identified and quantified downstream and upstream the smart treatment catalyst. The commercial gasoline fuel was used in this investigation, in order to understand the emissions gases emitted from the HCCI engine and compare it to SI engines. It has also been an important aim of this study to see whether a prototype catalyst has the potential to reduce specifically naphthalene, acenaphthylene, acenaphthene, and fluorene emissions together with the other polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons compounds. Analysis for both HCCI/SI engine modes, under lean and stoichiometric engine operation has been carried out. Emission measurements and PAHs analysis of the exhaust gases in the vapor phase and particulate-bound from HCCI/SI engine operation have been carried out at five engine conditions. The variables studied were engine load effect under HCCI stoichiometric operation, air to fuel ratio, HCCI and SI combustion modes under the same load, and hydrogen addition upstream of the catalyst.

2. Experimental

2.1 Engine

The multi-cylinder engine used for this research is the Jaguar AJV6 direct injection research engine having swept volume of 3 L with the specification given in Table (1). The engine Figure (1) used in this work has been described in a previous publication [24-27]. A positive displacement supercharger is connected to the engine to be used when needed, but throughout this research natural aspiration was implemented. The engine is equipped with cam profile switching mechanism to switch between profiles required for SI and HCCI. The variable cam timing systems give the possibility of changing the cam timing of the intake and exhaust cams

within a range of 60 crank angle degrees. Negative valve overlap was used to increase the amount of exhaust gas retained in the cylinder to achieve HCCI combustion. The engine is connected to an EC38 eddy current dynamometer. A DSPACE-based system coupled to a computer using MATLAB/SIMULINK software is used to control the engine parameters during operation and to record engine data.

The HCCI mode starting procedure involves a warming-up period when the engine was operated in SI mode first until the crankcase lubricant and coolant temperatures reached 90°C. In HCCI mode the engine was operated with the throttle wide open. The temperature of the intake air was controlled by a thermal management system. Fuel flow was measured by an AVL controls gravimetric meter, and fuel direct injection pulse width is adjusted by the engine management system to maintain the required value of air/ fuel ratio (Table 2).

2.2 Catalyst

The prototype 3-zone monolith catalyst (supplied by Johnson Matthey) (Figure 1) was connected to the actual engine exhaust manifold [27]. The first zone was designed to reduce HC and NO_x under lean and stoichiometric engine conditions at high temperatures >400°C, the second zone was designed to reduce NO_x by reaction with hydrocarbon under lean engine operation in the temperature range of 250°C – 400°C. Both zones contain non-precious metal catalyst supported on alumina or zeolite. The third catalyst zone (Pt-based) was designed to control part of the exhaust hydrocarbons and CO at temperatures below 300°C. Diluter tunnel was used to trap the PAHs bounded to PM and a stainless steel cartridge was used to trap the vapor-phase PAHs.

2.3 Fuel

Standard unleaded gasoline of RON 95 was used in this study which composed of H/C = 1.86; composition (saturated = 48.26%, olefins = 16.2%, napthenes = 3.66%, aromatic = 30.2%). Clarifying the hydrocarbon components in conventional gasoline fuel is considered to be the key step in speciating of HCs in the engine exhaust. By using the retention times of some known compounds chromatograms and the NIST library together, the peaks in gasoline chromatograms could be identified. The hydrocarbons in gasoline consist primarily of light aliphatic hydrocarbons (butane, pentane, methyl-pentane, hexane, methyl-hexane, heptane and octane) and aromatic compounds (toluene, xylenes, and trimethyl-benzenes), with smaller amounts of olefinic hydrocarbons (pentenes, hexenes, heptenes, octenes and nonenes). The GC-MS characterization of the main components in the used gasoline fuel is shown in Figure (2).

2.4 Emissions analysis

Horiba MEXA 7100 DEGR (THC, CO, NO_x, CO₂, and O₂) analyzer equipped with the heated line was used to measure total hydrocarbons, carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide NO_x and oxygen.

PAH compounds: There is no standard procedure for measuring specific PAHs compounds species as they are not individually regulated, so both the sampling and measurements method were optimised for the experimental conditions and PAHs study. The PAHs was performed using GC-MS. The retention time for each species was calibrated daily before each set of an experiment by the analysis of 16 PAHs compounds in acetonitrile solvent (PAHs Mixture; Supelco, Bellefonte, PA, USA). The total run time was 50 min for a retention time of the species given in (Table 3), the integrated area of each specific peak in the chronogram was used to calculate the concentration of the associated component. The VG mass-lab software

was used to acquire and integrate the basic GC-MS data. PAH Standards and measured samples were injected into a J & W DB-5 column. The oven temperature was increased from 60°C and fixed for 2 min, and then increased to 300°C at a rate of 10°C/min, held at 300°C for 20 min with a total runtime of about 50 min. The components of the standards sample solution were generally stable under the operation conditions of GC used in these analyses. Complete separations of the standard sample species were obtained. The well-known sampling method used to identify semi-volatile organic species is the trapping of these species on a solid sorbent; different sorbents could be used for this analysis, according to previous study XAD-2 (Supelco) is an excellent trapping media for PAHS, for many applications, though it was selected for trapping and collecting PAHs from engine exhaust emission. The XAD-2 resin was loaded in stainless-steel cartridge to retain the PAHs on the vapor phase; the cartridge is split into three zones, 10 g of XAD-2 resin (50 mm) was inserted between 25 mm and 10 mm quartz wool plugs. Quartz wool is used at the inlet of the cartridge to filter particulate matter that could contaminate the resin, and at the outlet of the cartridge to fix the resin and to prevent escaping the resin to the flow meter [28]. The flow rate of sampling was 1.0 l/min for 30 min and immediately after collecting the sample; the cartridges were soaked in dichloromethane sonic bath to extract the trapped species (3550B methodology of Misonix [29,30]). Ultrasonic Processor-XL was carried out at 20 Hz for 30 min immersed in an ice bath, and then concentrated by rotary evaporation at 20°C, then after extraction samples were purified, using NH₂-C18 column [15]. Acetonitrile was used to elute the PAHs from the clean-up column. The recovery efficiencies for PAH were tested through same experimental procedure applied to the samples. The recovery-efficiency of PAHs varied between 74% and 119%.

2.5 Sampling

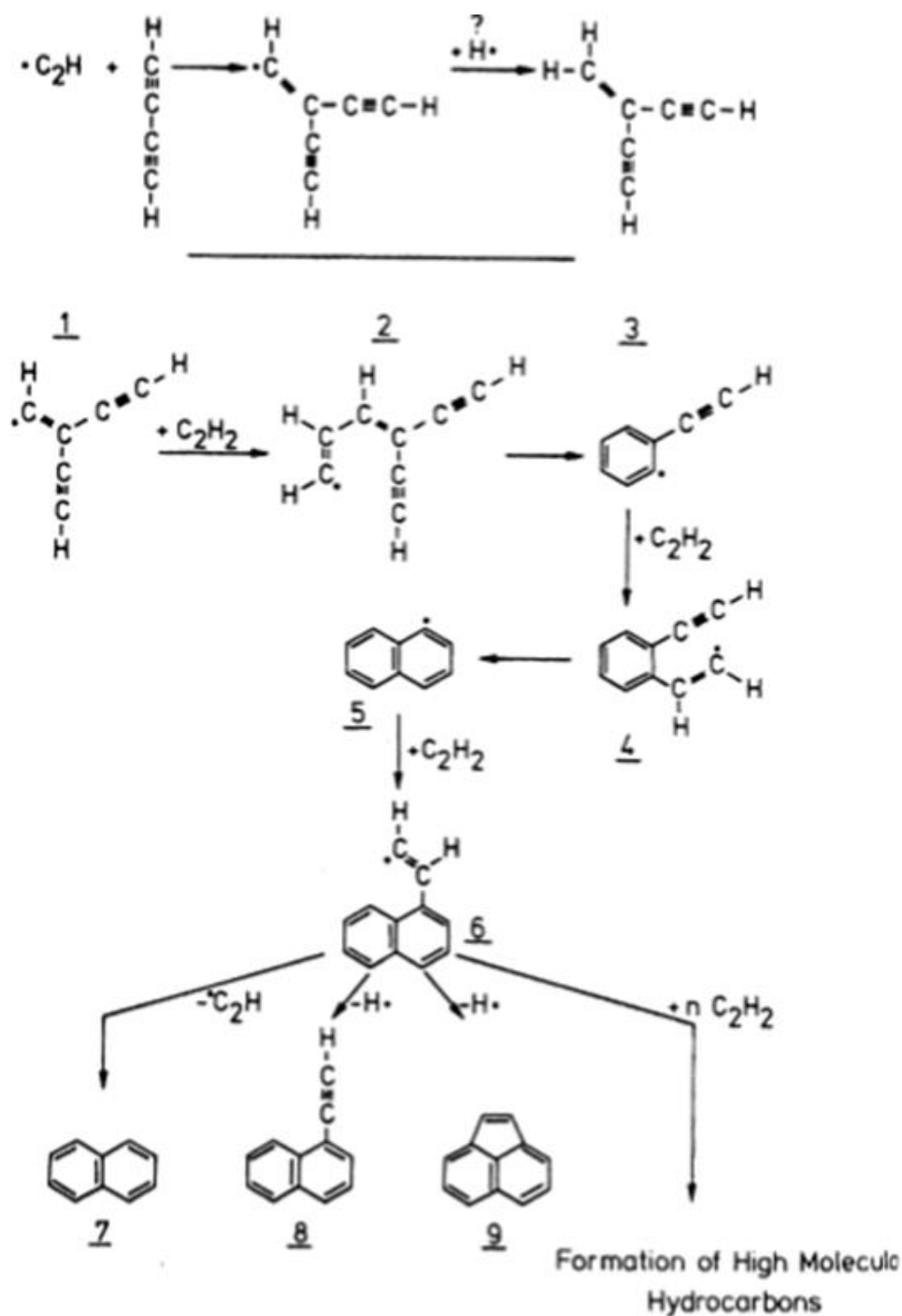
The sampled PAHs underwent a classical Soxhlet extraction, and then the extract concentration was performed using a rotary evaporator and micro-concentration under gentle nitrogen stream before the GC–MS analysis. (PAH Mixture; Supelco, Bellefonte, PA, USA) A standard solution containing 16 EPAPAH compounds in acetonitrile solvent was used to calibrate the GC–MS. Table (2) shows the characteristic parameters and the retention time for the standard 16 PAH compounds. The particulate matter is consisting of soluble and insoluble components; the Soluble Organic Fraction (SOF) presents the proportion of particles that are soluble in commonly used solvents such as dichloromethane. The insoluble part can be evaluated by comparison the weight of the filter before and after the extraction. The sampling rate of the diluted exhaust was 100 l/min and the collection time was 30 and 90 min for SI and HCCI modes respectively. The sampled PAHs underwent a classical Soxhlet extraction, PAHs in filter samples were extracted in dichloromethane and quantified by GC–MS. Filter disks were ultrasonicated in high-grade dichloromethane. The identification and quantification of PAHs were carried out using the same temperature program as in the previously mentioned case of PAH_s analysis with GC–MS method.

3- Results and Discussion

3-1 Engine out PAH species emissions

Experimental work indicates that favorable kinetics and thermodynamics lead to PAHs formation from non-PAH_s; including non-aromatic, fuel components, and a substantial fraction of the exhaust PAH_s could be formed by pyro synthesis. PAH_s are readily created during the partial combustion of non-PAH_s and even non-aromatic hydrocarbons. This can be attributed both to favorable combustion kinetics and to the thermodynamic stability of PAH. Few authors have attempted to correlate fuel composition/PAH levels with those

263 measured in the exhaust or have included any measurement of PAHs in the test fuels used
264 [31, 32]. The thermodynamic stability of PAHs (especially pre-condensed ones) makes them
265 likely products of incomplete combustion (also known as pyrolysis); irrespective of the
266 molecular structure of the fuel (i.e. the fuel need not contain PAHs for there to be PAHs in the
267 flame). This is particularly true under fuel rich conditions such as those found close to the
268 surface of an evaporating fuel droplet in a hot environment. It is also generally believed that
269 PAHs are important intermediates on the route to soot formation [33,34]. A scheme of the
270 chemical pathways suggested a reaction sequence beginning with diacetylene and C_2H
271 forming a branched hydrocarbon radical followed by acetylene attack and ring closure leading
272 to a phenylacetylene radical including the formation of larger polycyclic aromatics [28] as
273 shown by the following mechanism:



274

275 Naphthalene has been studied as it has been reported to be the most abundant PAHs in
 276 polluted urban atmospheres [35]. It has been defined as a hazardous air pollutant by the US
 277 environmental protection agency (EPA) (USEPA (USE environmental Protection Agency),
 278 2000) and classified as possibly carcinogenic to humans by the international agency for
 279 research on cancer (IARC) [36]. In our study in both engine modes HCCI/SI PAHs are
 280 distributed between vapor and particulate phases. Most of the low molecule mass and high

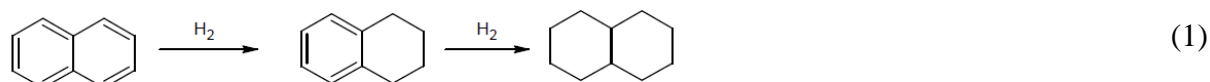
vapor pressure (2,3 rings) PAHs are presented in the vapor phase, On the contrary, 4-ring PAHs having a low vapor pressure were present in the particulate phase (Tables 4 & 5). In SI mode, under the same engine conditions ($\lambda=1$, load, 4bar), see Figures (3 & 4) vapor phases, compounds species with 2-3 cyclic rings (NAP, ACY) presented with high concentration comparing to HCCI mode, naphthalene engine output emissions increased (Table 4). This phenomenon could be attributed to the higher in-cylinder temperature at high load, changing to higher load in HCCI stoichiometric (Table 5) did not have a big impact on 4,5 cyclic rings concentration (e.g. PYR, BAA, BAP and BKF), on the other hand changing to HCCI lean mode Figure (5) increased the species concentrations three times the stoichiometric in some species, this is due to (i) the fact that, the in-cylinder temperature HCCI lean is lower than the stoichiometric mode (ii) the residual gases lift in the cylinder from the previous end stroke. During combustion, gas particles, including those of fuel vapor, are absorbed by the deposits on the walls of the combustion chamber. The amount of absorption is a function of gas pressure, so the maximum occurs during compression and combustion. Later in the cycle, when the exhaust valve opens and cylinder pressure is reduced, the absorption capacity of the deposited material is lowered and gas particles are desorbed back into the cylinder. These particles, including some HC, are then expelled from the cylinder during the exhaust stroke. The total PAHs emissions from SI was about 900 ppm, the corresponding value from HCCI was 820 ppm C1 equivalent (Table 4). The SI mode generated more PAHs species in the vapor phase, as well as the total amounts of PAHs, are higher compared to that produced from HCCI operation mode. NAP is the most abundant polycyclic-aromatic hydrocarbon presented in large quantity in the exhaust vapor phase, the definition of “PAH” is rather loose and what to some may seem like the “creation” of a PAH may, to others, seem more akin to “survival”. For example, either case could be made for fuel naphthalene molecules which undergo pyro synthetic reactions resulting in the formation of phenanthrene, which may then pass to the

exhaust. ACY (Table 4) was the second abundant compound in the vapor phase in both modes. There are some compounds which are not part of the used fuel have been detected in the vapor-phase, these species could be formed as a result of the reaction of the active species that produced from thermal cracking of fuel through Pyro synthetic pathway.

Species with four cyclic rings (FLT) (Table 4) was detected from HCCI lean and SI stoichiometric. PYR is observed mainly in HCCI lean mode and SI engine operation mode. These two compounds believed to be formed through the pyro synthetic pathway and were presented with very low concentration when the engine was operating on HCCI low load.

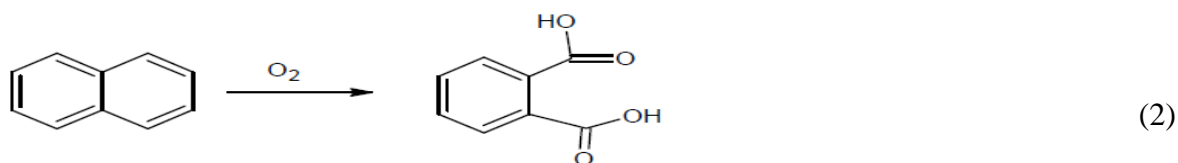
PAHs bounded to particulate phase concentrations compound species with 4 and 5 cyclic ring were detected (e.g. PYR, BAA, CRY, BBF, and BAP) in both modes SI and HCCI (Table 5, Figures 3 & 4). Since these polycyclic-aromatic compounds are not part of the fuel, then they should be formed in the combustion process of the fuel in the combustion chamber. In general emissions of PAH found to be more surviving in vapor phase than bound to particulate phase. Several proposals were made regarding the nature of the formation of PAHs; one of these proposals is the formation of the first aromatic ring under pyrolysis conditions from the reactive olefins and has been studied by various groups [37-39].

The wide majority of the NAP recovered in fuel combustion under certain conditions is formed from other sources than the original NAP found in the fuel (40). The same conclusion is presented about the formation of other aromatic hydrocarbons that were part of the fuel.

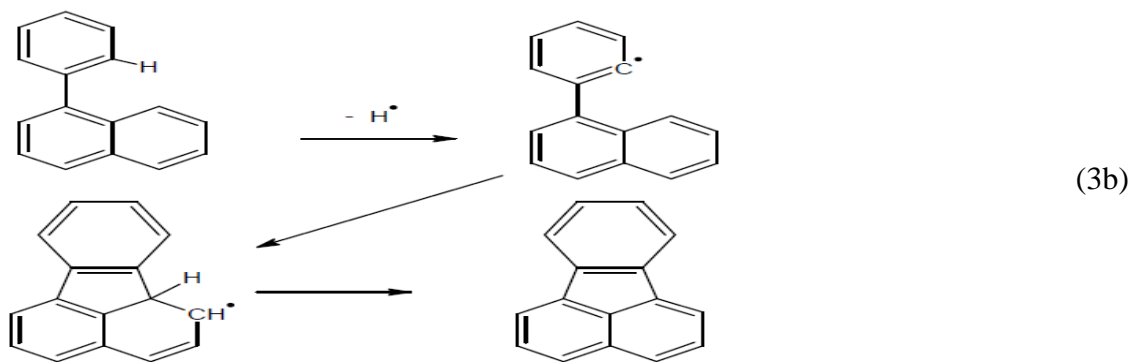
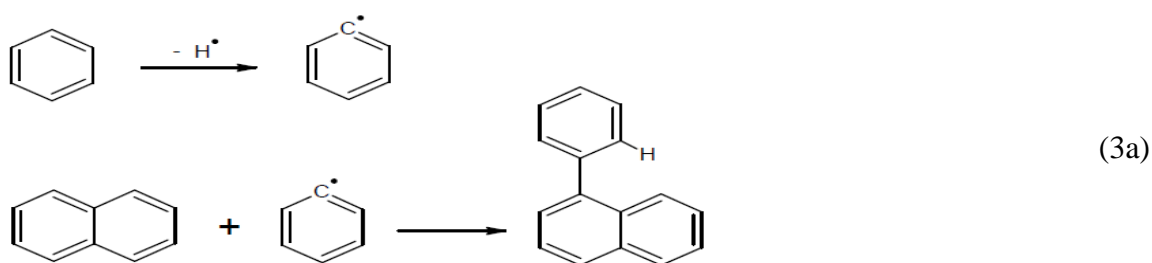


Parallel to aromatics growth is aromatic oxidation, an example is the hydrogenation of NAP. Hydrogen can be formed through many different routes in fuel combustion process, and hence can be involved in the dehydrogenation of aromatics. Eq. (1) is represent the partial (formation of Tetrahydronaphthalene) and complete hydrogenation of NAP (formation of

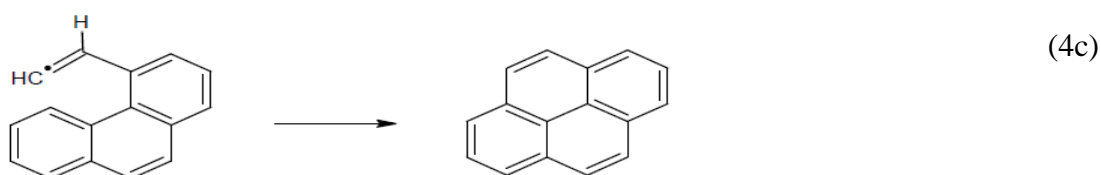
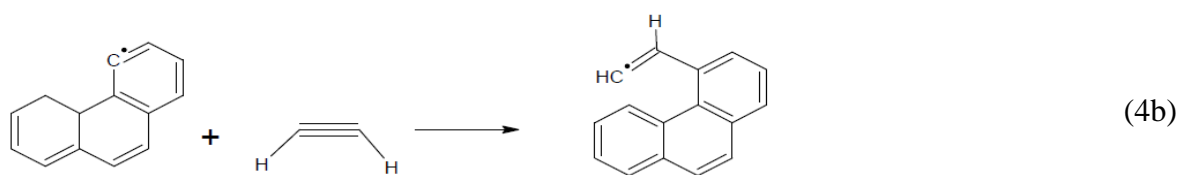
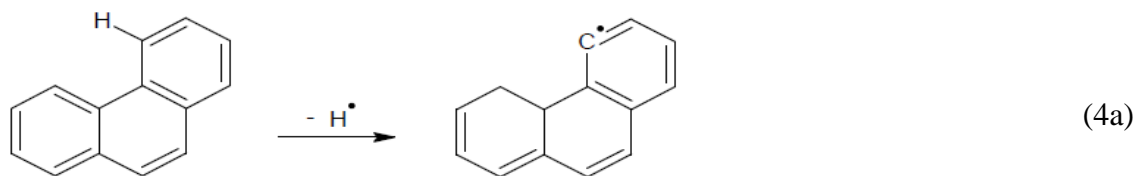
Decahydronaphthalene). Aromatics also can go through oxidation process to form mono- and dicarboxylic acids (reaction 2).



Not many researchers have investigated the formation of these species, but the oxidation and reduction of aromatics are unavoidable in the combustion process. FLT and PYR were not part of the fuel used, but they were traced in the emission of different loads in both engine modes HCCI/SI. The concentrations of these two compounds, as well as the concentration of other aromatics, were higher from SI relative to their emissions from HCCI. FLT formation mechanisms involve the reaction of NAP with a phenyl radical (reaction 3a) followed by cyclization (3b).



Formation of PYR involves hydrogen abstraction from PHE (4a), followed by acetylene addition (4b) and then cyclization (4c).



Since PM nucleation mechanisms depend strongly on the gas and liquid phase fuel concentrations as well as temperature (41-44) so that decreased concentration of both fuel phases combined with decreased in-cylinder temperature results in a sharp decrease in the amount of PM nucleated as the load in HCCI decreased.

As more hot exhaust gas remains in the cylinder, the intake temperature rises and the results in more rapid evaporation of liquid fuel, in contrast with the low consumption of the fuel at low loads in HCCI mode, then less PM.

It has been reported that nano-particles form in three stages during combustion (45). The first stage involves PAH formation and growth that showed and explained above. The second stage is the nucleation of PAHs to form nuclei. The last stage involves the collision of nuclei to form particles.

In this process, Inlet valve timing has been kept constant at IVO = 65°a TDC. During presented tests, the in-cylinder TR content has been firstly increased by advancing the exhaust valve (EVC has been shifted from 86°b TDC to 91°b TDC) and secondly reduced by retarding the exhaust valve (EVC has been shifted from 86°b TDC to 76°b TDC). When the amount of TR has increased, the load and NO_x emissions have reduced. UHC emissions have been almost the same. A reverse trend has been observed when TR content has been reduced; load and NO_x emissions have risen, and UHC emissions have fallen.

3.2. Catalyst conversion efficiency

The identified PAH_s compounds in both phases and their concentrations in the engine – out and tailpipe exhaust at different load levels were shown in Tables (4 & 5) respectively. Three and four cyclic rings were detected in the vapor phase at the meantime five and six cyclic rings were found in the bound to particulate phase. Main compounds species were identified in engine-out emission at low engine load of 3 bar in vapor phase such as NAP. ACY and ACE, while a higher concentration of the same compound species was presented in a higher load of HCCI stoichiometric operation. The catalyst conversion efficiency in SI mode Figure (6) vapor phase reached over 90% efficiency of compounds with three and five cyclic rings (e.g. ACY, ACE, and ANT), and reduced around 80% when five and six cyclic rings compound were involved in the conversions operation. The most abundant compound among the species was NAP which resists the catalyst conversion up to 60%. When switching engine mode to HCCI, under the same engine conditions, catalyst efficiency improved sharply up to 92% for most of the compound species Figure (6), this could be attributed to the three zones of the smart catalyst which covered three ranges of temperature (low, medium, and high temperature). Similar conversion efficiency existed in HCCI lean Figure (6) except for NAP conversion which did not reach 30%, in SI mode stoichiometric most of the species with four

and five cyclic rings were found in high concentration Figure (6). In the bound to particulate phase, the catalyst showed more conversion capability Figure (7), up to 100% efficiency for some compound species such as BAA, BKF, and BAP was found.

3.3 Catalyst performance with H₂ addition, HCCI lean engine operation

The effect of hydrogen has been investigated by injecting approximately 2000 ppm H₂ upstream of the catalyst, in order to improve the catalyst performance in the reduction of harmful HC species such as naphthalene (classified as possibly carcinogenic by IARC) [18]. The comparison is drawn between the same engine operating condition (lean HCCI combustion at 4 bar NMEP) with and without hydrogen addition (Table 4 & 5). From the results it can be observed that hydrogen greatly enhances the catalyst performance 20% more Figure (8 & 9) in reducing naphthalene. There are several likely causes: (i) hydrogen oxidation in the first zone increases the catalyst temperature by (5-20 °C), enhancing the oxidation rate of the aromatic hydrocarbons (i.e. the exothermal effect of hydrogen); (ii) it has been reported earlier that hydrogen oxidation in for example a Pt/Al₂O₃ catalysts, increases the availability of NO₂ that is consequently consumed in the oxidation of the C-containing species [46]; (iii) hydrogenation is another possibility, in which H₂ reacts with the aromatic compounds to form less unsaturated cyclic and aliphatic hydrocarbons that are easier to combust. However, although the hydrogenation reactions are overall exothermic, there is a high activation barrier to overcome.

Conclusions:

(i) Engine-out emissions: air/ fuel ratio (λ) in the vapour phase has a higher impact on species with two and three cyclic rings (e.g. NAP, ACY, and ACE) condensable emissions presented in HCCI lean operation while (λ) has less effect on species with four and five cyclic rings (e.g. PYR, BBF, and BKF). PAH_s species are heavily dependent on engine operation and

combustion mode (i.e. HCCI or SI). PAHS species (e.g. FLU, ACY) concentrations were found to be higher in the SI mode, while PAH_s species such as PYR was mainly found in the exhaust of both engine modes. Analysis showed that the PAH_s species concentration of HCCI lean exhaust contained more of the two cyclic rings species than during HCCI stoichiometric operation (e.g. NAP).

(ii) Post-catalyst emissions: A prototype catalyst showed more efficient conversion on PAHS species with three and four cyclic rings in the exhaust vapor phase and five and six cyclic rings in the bound particulate for both engine modes. During lean operation, regardless of the low exhaust temperature, most of the PAH_s species emissions in the tailpipe exhaust were eliminated except for the Naphthalene, the catalyst conversion was reduced. The catalyst was, therefore, less capable of activating a fused pair of benzene rings than aliphatic or mono-aromatic molecules

(iii) The addition of hydrogen upstream of the catalyst during HCCI lean engine operation substantially enhances the conversion of naphthalene species. This is attributed to an increase in the local temperature as a result of hydrogen oxidation, and due to its reactivity with the aromatic compounds to form molecules that are more readily oxidized by the catalyst.

Therefore, this research work has demonstrated that, through the integration of advanced combustion technologies with novel after treatment systems, it should be possible to achieve notable benefits in fuel economy and in air quality.

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