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1 **Fuel consumption and exhaust emissions of diesel vehicles in**  
2 **worldwide harmonized light vehicles test cycles and their sensitivities**  
3 **to eco-driving factors**

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14 **Abstract:** Large amounts of fossil fuels are consumed by motor vehicles annually, and hazardous  
15 exhaust emissions from the motor vehicles have caused serious problems to environment and  
16 human health. Eco-driving can effectively improve the fuel economy and decrease the exhaust  
17 emissions, which makes it vital to analyze the fuel consumption and exhaust emissions at given  
18 driving cycle, and investigate their sensitivities to eco-driving factors. In this paper, the fuel  
19 consumption and exhaust emissions of a Euro-6 compliant light-duty diesel vehicle were tested in  
20 Worldwide Harmonized Light Vehicles Test Cycles on a chassis dynamometer; further, the  
21 sensitivities of the eco-driving factors that influence the fuel economy and exhaust emissions were  
22 analyzed using validated vehicle model. For the vehicle model simulation, the effect of the coolant  
23 temperature on fuel consumption and exhaust emission only considered its effect on lubricating oil  
24 viscosity. The results showed that vehicle acceleration and velocity dominates the fuel consumption  
25 rates in Worldwide Harmonized Light Vehicles Test Cycles, where more than 50% of the exhaust  
26 emissions was emitted in the first 300 seconds; also, fuel economy and exhaust emission factors  
27 showed a significant dependency on the road grade, coolant temperature, vehicle velocity and mass.  
28 For the driver-controllable factors, high vehicle velocity and low road grade (via route-choice) were  
29 recommended to achieve low fuel consumption and exhaust emissions.

30 **Keywords:** Diesel vehicles; Fuel consumption; exhaust emissions; sensitivities; eco-driving factors

## 31 **1. Introduction**

32 Toxic exhaust emissions from automotive vehicles have drawn much attention due to their negative  
33 effects on human health and environment [1]; also, plenty of fossil fuel is consumed by vehicles.  
34 Hao et. al [2] investigated the energy consumption and greenhouse gas emission from passenger  
35 vehicles, and the results showed that the greenhouse gas emission from passenger vehicles  
36 accounted for ~5% of the national total carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) emission in 2014, and the percentage

37 was increasing these years. Restrict CO<sub>2</sub> emission standard was legislated, with the purpose of  
38 achieving 95 g/km CO<sub>2</sub> emission factor in 2020. In addition, Worldwide Harmonized Light Vehicles  
39 Test Cycles (WLTC) were used to test the vehicle emissions in laboratory level to overcome the  
40 issues in the New European Driving Cycle (NEDC), which be consisted of four repeated urban  
41 driving cycles (UDC) and one Extra-Urban driving cycle (EUDC) [3]. The WLTC for a class 3  
42 vehicle (power/weight ratio >34) was divided in four parts based on vehicle velocity, such as low,  
43 medium, high, and extra-high vehicle velocity, which represented real world vehicle operations on  
44 urban and extra-urban roads, motorways, and freeways, respectively. As shown in reference [4],  
45 NEDC was far from the real driving due to its low acceleration, constant cruising velocity and many  
46 idle events. The fuel consumption produced under NEDC was 12%~30% lower than the real driving  
47 conditions [5], and the differences of the CO<sub>2</sub> emission between NEDC and WLTC ranged from 4.7  
48 g/km to 29.2 g/km by testing 20 vehicles [3]. In addition, the cold start CO<sub>2</sub> emission in WLTC was  
49 ~14% higher than that of NEDC [6]. Ko et.al [7] compared the nitrogen oxide (NO<sub>x</sub>) emission  
50 characteristics of a Euro 6-compliant diesel passenger car over NEDC and WLTC. The results  
51 showed that the NO<sub>x</sub> conversion rate was higher for NEDC than that of WLTC due to better thermal  
52 conditions. The implementations of WLTC resulted of a huge challenge for diesel vehicle emission  
53 control, especially for NO<sub>x</sub> emission. As indicated in reference [8], diesel cars for sale in Korea  
54 were selected, and the exhaust was tested under WLTC, NO<sub>x</sub> emission from part of the vehicles  
55 exceeded Euro 6 limitation although lean NO<sub>x</sub> trap (LNT) after-treatment was installed on the  
56 vehicles.

57 Exhaust emissions and fuel consumption decreased greatly after adopting advanced technologies in  
58 engine levels, Table 1 summarizes the technologies decreasing engine emissions and fuel  
59 consumption. Meantime, they were further improved in vehicle level by improving maneuvers [9],

60 adopting lightweight materials [10], and optimizing vehicle bodies [11]. Reference [12] reviewed  
61 the catalyst thermal management during engine cold start and warm up to decrease the exhaust  
62 emissions and drop fuel penalty. Biodiesel fuel [13] was a practical approach to decrease the  
63 exhaust emissions due to its higher oxygen and lower sulphur content, also, it alleviated the  
64 dependence of the automotive market on the fossil fuels. Organic Rankine cycle (ORC) [14] was an  
65 effective method to enhance the overall thermal efficiency by recycling the waste heat from exhaust  
66 and coolant, and the maximum heat recovery efficiency was 8.5%; the energy power output  
67 increased by 10.63% in reference [15]. Electric pumps of coolant [16] and lubricating oil [17] were  
68 used to increase the coolant and oil temperature aiming at dropping the friction loss caused by the  
69 huge oil viscosity. As tested by Chanfreau et al. [18], it reduced 2%~5% fuel consumption, 10%  
70 tailpipe hydrocarbon (HC) and 20% carbon monoxide (CO) emissions by increasing the coolant  
71 temperature from 90 °C to 110 °C. The smoke emission also reduced drastically from 1.14 Filter  
72 Smoke Number (FSN) to 0.068 FSN when the coolant temperature increased from 45 °C to 90 °C  
73 [19], which implied that fuel films may be a major source of PM emission under cold operating  
74 conditions. Mohammad et.al [20] showed that ~25% energy was lost in lubricating oil under -20 °C  
75 atmosphere temperature, which directly resulted from high viscosity.

76 Table 1 Technologies used for decreasing exhaust emissions and fuel consumption in engine levels

Technologies	Ref.
Emulsion + anti-oxidant additive	Ref. [21]
High-pressure methanol steam reforming	Ref. [22]
Fuel injection strategies	Ref. [23]
Non-thermal plasma	Ref. [24]
Emulsion of nerium oleander biofuel	Ref. [25]
Spark timing	Ref. [26]
Catalyst thermal management	Ref. [12]

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Organic rankine cycle	Ref. [27]
Double swirl combustion system	Ref. [28]
Fuel injection timing	Ref. [29]
Cerium oxide nano additive	Ref. [30]
Diesel oxidation catalyst (DOC)	Ref. [31]
High pressure common rail	Ref. [32]
Turbocharger	Ref. [33]
Diesel particulate matter (DPF)	Ref. [34]
Diesel + water + surfactant	Ref. [35]
Selective catalytic reduction (SCR)	Ref. [36]

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77 Although the technologies in engine and vehicle levels had improved significantly for reducing the  
78 fuel consumption and emissions, the fuel economy and exhaust emission factors of the vehicles  
79 were greatly dependant on drivers, weather, road and traffic conditions. The further improvement of  
80 the fuel economy and exhaust emissions should be focused on eco-driving, from the points of the  
81 driver behaviors and route-choice, which were human-controllable factors. Reference [37] showed  
82 that the vehicles should be avoided the frequent acceleration and deceleration to enhance the fuel  
83 economy. Mensing et. al [38] optimized the vehicle trajectories for eco-driving, and the potential  
84 gains in fuel economy were discussed. The theory improvement of the fuel economy was ~34% for  
85 a free flow urban setting in eco-driving, while the value decreased by 16%~54% after considering  
86 the safe driving. In addition, 47% fuel consumption drop was achieved by predicting the cruise  
87 control after driving through a sequence of 9 traffic lights to avoid long time stops at the traffic  
88 lights [39]. While the technology needed the communications between the vehicles and traffic lights,  
89 meantime, safe following distance should be ensured. Saboohi et. al [40] also performed the  
90 eco-driving by adjusting the vehicle speed and gear shift timing, from which the potential of fuel  
91 saving was ~1.5L/100 km. In eco-driving, drivers also played an extremely important effect on fuel  
92 economy and exhaust emissions, which made driver trainings an necessity. In reference [41], 203

93 drivers were monitored in a real world setting of Australia after five training interventions that 4.6%  
94 fuel consumption drop was achieved compared with pre-training. Wang et. al [42] quantitatively  
95 investigated the effects of vehicle parameters on fuel consumption of a heavy-duty vehicle. The fuel  
96 consumption decreased by 8% when the vehicle weight decreased by 20% at given conditions.  
97 Meantime, 10% aerodynamic drag reduction had an effect of reducing 7% rolling resistance  
98 reduction, and it was indicated that it may be more cost effective to reduce aerodynamic drag  
99 coefficient or rolling resistance coefficient to reduce fuel consumption. It was shown by the  
100 reference [43] that the rolling resistance accounted for up to 20% of fuel consumption from cars,  
101 and 30%~40% from trucks. Also, 10% reduction in rolling resistance for passenger cars would  
102 brought about 1%~2% improvement for fuel economy.

103 Eco-driving could effectively decrease the fuel consumption, however, to the authors' knowledge,  
104 majority of the eco-driving investigations were only focused on improving the vehicle fuel  
105 economy or decreasing exhaust emissions. In fact, the eco-driving included both the fuel economy  
106 improvement and exhaust emission decrease; a compromise should be made in some cases. In this  
107 paper, exhaust emissions and fuel consumption rates of a diesel vehicle were tested in WLTC  
108 through chassis dynamometers. Meantime, the sensitivities of the fuel economy and exhaust  
109 emission factors to the eco-driving factors were investigated, e.g. drag coefficient, road grade, wind  
110 velocity, gear shift perfection, coolant temperature, rolling resistance coefficient, vehicle velocity  
111 and mass. Further, the principles for eco-driving were given, taken the fuel economy and emission  
112 factors into consideration.

## 113 **2. Materials and Methods**

114 Table 2 shows the specifications of the tested diesel vehicle, whose power was a four cylinder,  
115 turbocharged, direct injection engine. The max power output and torque were 103 kW and 325 N·m,

116 respectively. The test of fuel consumption and exhaust emissions in WLTC was based on the chassis  
117 dynamometer experiments. The sensitivity analysis of the eco-driving factors to the fuel economy  
118 and exhaust emission factors were conducted using the validated diesel vehicle model.

119 Table 2 Specifications of the diesel vehicle

Specifications	Value
Vehicle mass	1505 kg
Maximum speed	170 km·h <sup>-1</sup>
Gear number	6
Fuel	Diesel
Engine type	In-line, four cylinder, four stroke
Intake type	Turbocharged intercooler
Fuel injection type	Direct injection
Engine max power/ kW	103 kW @ 4000 rpm
Engine max torque/ N·m	325 N·m @ 1500 rpm
Stroke/ mm	80.4
Bore/ mm	79.1
Compression ratio	16.5
Emission regulation	Euro 6

## 120 2.1 Experimental section

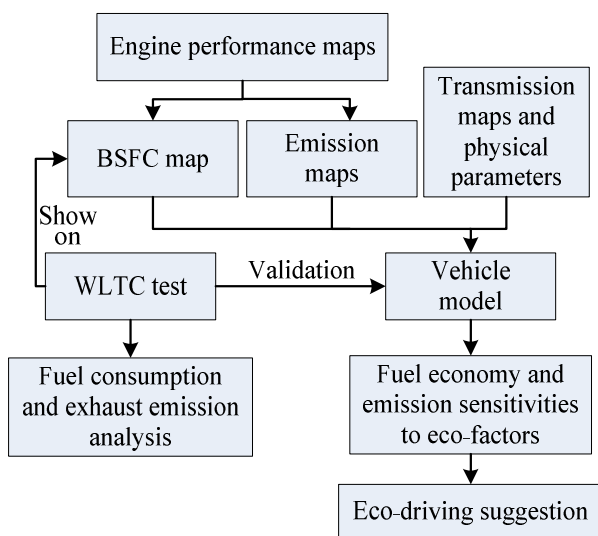
121 The demonstrated vehicle was tested in a temperature and humidity controllable atmosphere after  
122 being soaked for at least 12 hours over WLTC. Regular emissions (CO, HC, NO<sub>x</sub>, and soot) were  
123 measured using a constant volume sampling system connecting with a emission analyzer (HORIBA  
124 MEXA-7000). The performances of the engine, e.g. brake specific fuel consumption (BSFC),



125 gaseous and soot emissions vs. engine speed and load which were basic input parameters of the  
126 diesel vehicle model, were tested in a engine test bench.

## 127 2.2 Simulation section

128 The diesel vehicle model was setup using a commercial software, and validated point by point over  
129 WLTC. The eco-driving factors, which were investigated in this paper, were drag coefficient, road  
130 grade, wind velocity, gear shift perfection, coolant temperature, rolling resistance coefficient,  
131 vehicle velocity and mass. The single variable method, where all the parameters were kept the same  
132 except for the target ones, was adopted to investigate the sensitivities of the target factors to the fuel  
133 economy and exhaust emission. The flowchart of the method using in the paper is shown in Figure  
134 1.



135

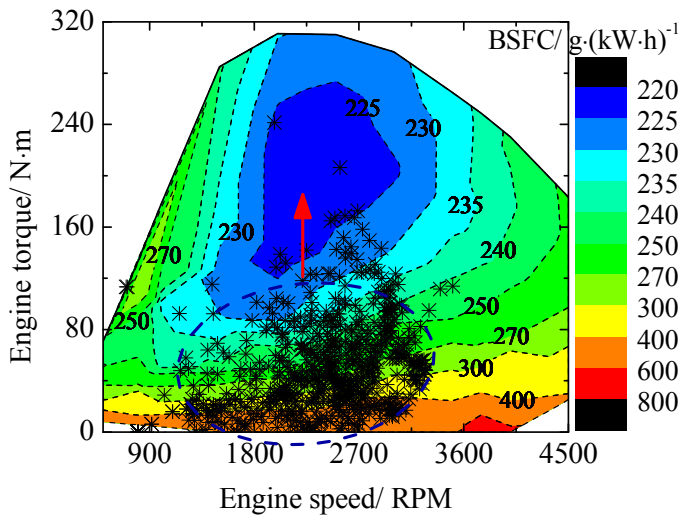
136 Figure 1 Flowchart of the method used in the research

## 137 3. Results and discussions

138 This section includes the following three parts: 1) test the fuel consumption and exhaust emissions  
139 in WLTC, where the emissions during cold start were addressed; 2) sensitivities of the fuel economy  
140 and exhaust emissions to eco-driving factors, which were investigated using simulation method; 3)  
141 the choice of vehicle operation for eco-driving, which was researched based on the results of section  
142 3.2.

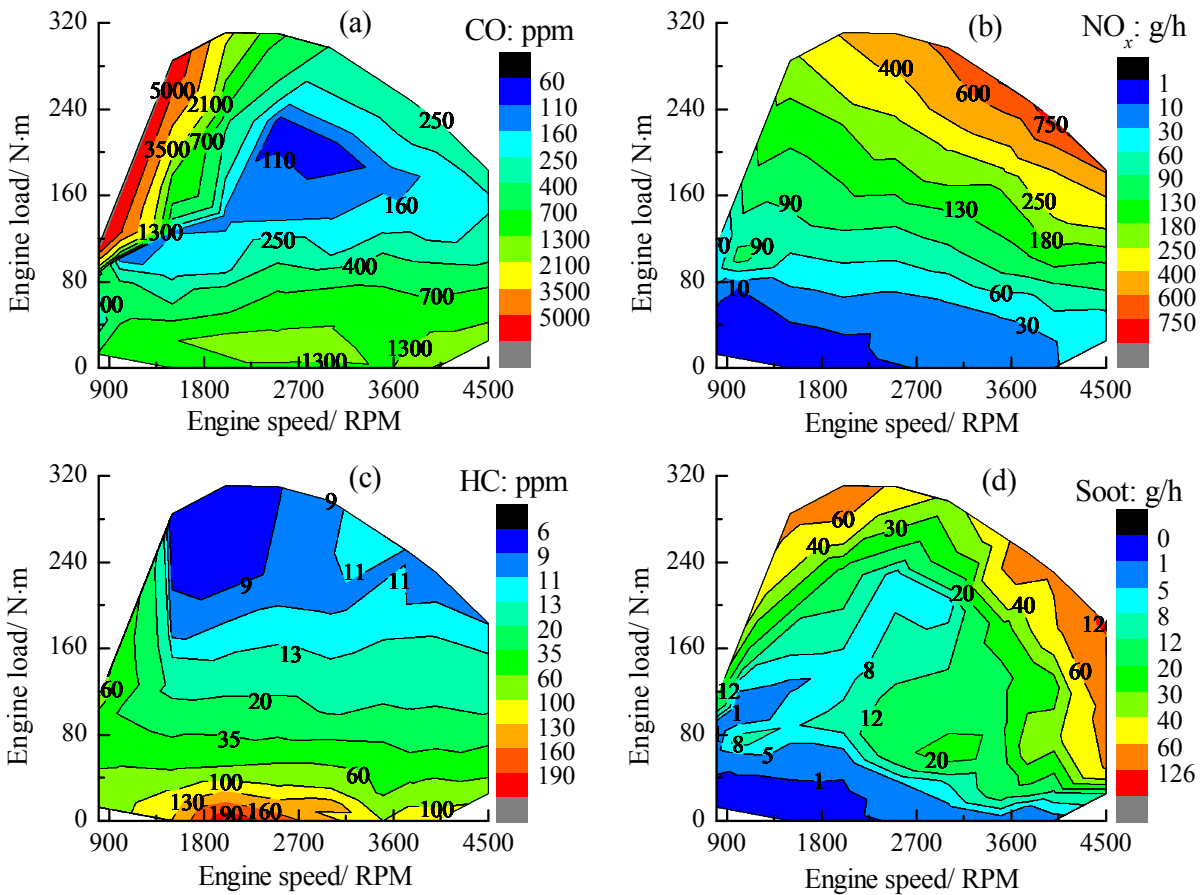
### 143 **3.1 Test results of the fuel consumption and exhaust emissions**

144 Figure 2 shows the locations of the engine operation points on BSFC map, which was obtained  
145 from the test data of the engine test bench. The minimum BSFC was  $\sim 225 \text{ g}/(\text{kW}\cdot\text{h})^{-1}$ , being in the  
146 range of 1500 RPM  $\sim$  2500 RPM, and high engine loads. The engine operation points in WLTC  
147 were mainly located at low engine load regions, which would cause poor brake thermal efficiency  
148 in the engine level. Under the conditions of the same engine power output, shifts of the engine  
149 operation points to lower engine speed and higher engine load would result of lower fuel  
150 consumptions. However, the movement of the engine operation points was enslaved to the vehicle  
151 conditions, e.g. transmission system, vehicle velocity, road grade and cargo mass. Figure 3 shows  
152 the maps of CO, HC, NO<sub>x</sub>, and soot emissions. The emissions were greatly dependant on the engine  
153 operation conditions, and the maximum emission concentration was thousands of times higher than  
154 the minimum value. The optimal engine points for CO and HC emissions were located in the region  
155 of medium engine speed and high engine load, however, they were under the low engine speed and  
156 load for NO<sub>x</sub> and soot emissions. There should be some balance among different emissions in  
157 eco-driving. The NO<sub>x</sub> emission is still a huge challenge to meet stricter emission regulations, so that  
158 more attentions should be focused on NO<sub>x</sub>. Driver trainings were suggested to achieve the  
159 eco-driving, where the engine was avoided operating at the “red zone”.



160

161 Figure 2 The locations of engine operation points on brake specific fuel consumption map

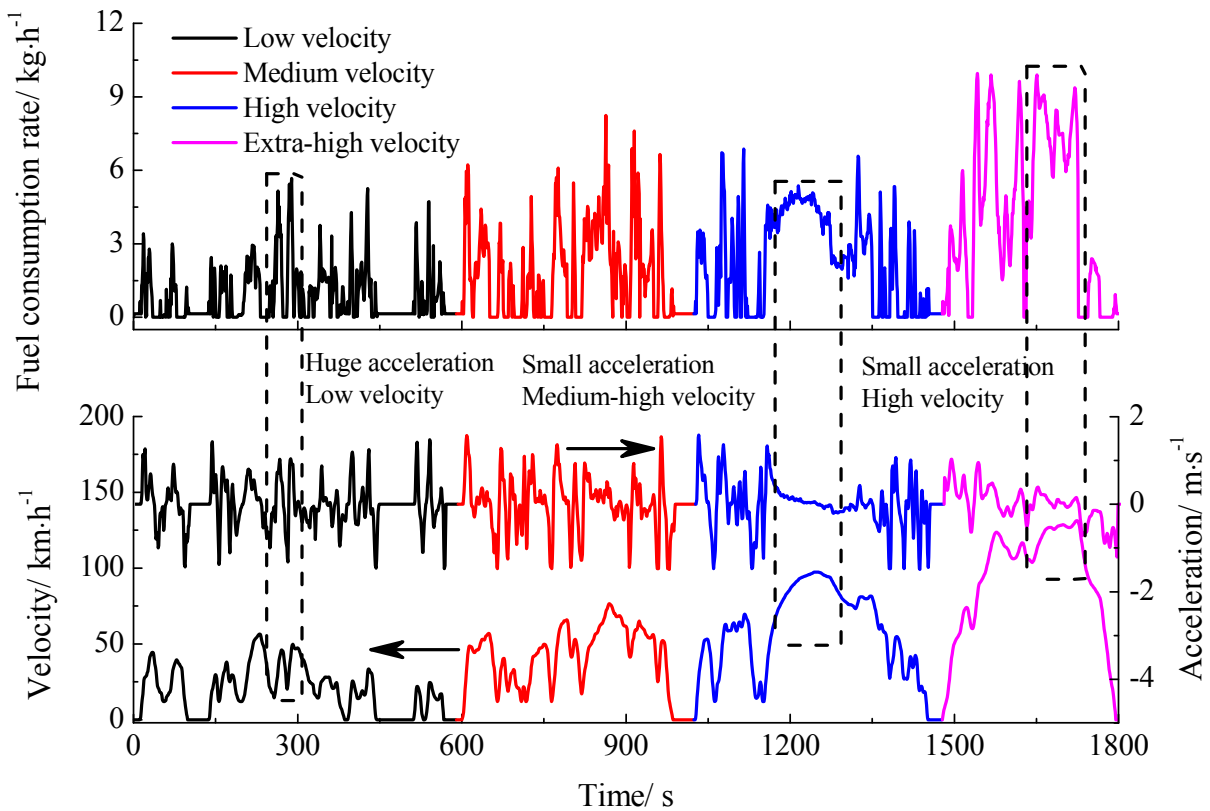


162

163 Figure 3 The emission maps of the diesel engine: (a) carbon monoxide; (b) nitrogen oxide; (c)  
 164 hydrocarbon; (d) soot

165 Figure 4 shows the fuel consumption rate in WLTC. The fuel consumption rate was dominated by  
 166 vehicle speed and acceleration. Huge fuel consumption rate was observed in extra-high vehicle  
 167 speed zone, where huge aerodynamic drag caused the decrease of brake thermal efficiency. Ma et.

168 al [44] investigated the fuel consumption under different driving styles, that the fuel consumption in  
169 the acceleration process accounted for 56.5% of the overall fuel consumption, and the value of  
170 deceleration process was less than 5.7%. The vehicle was recommended to avoid frequent  
171 acceleration and deceleration, and to operate at medium-high vehicle velocity conditions in  
172 eco-driving, whose effort could be achieved by predicting the traffic conditions [45], training the  
173 drivers [46] and choosing the routes [47]. Additionally, the fuel consumption was at a medium level  
174 around 1300 s, caused by small vehicle acceleration despite of high vehicle velocity. The cold start  
175 and warm up process were taken into consideration in WLTC, which lowered vehicle fuel economy.  
176 The warm status of the engine could be reflected by coolant and lubricating oil temperature.  
177 Reference [48] indicated that the fuel consumption decreased by ~8% and ~14% if the lubricating  
178 oil temperature increased by 4 °C and 10 °C, respectively, in the first 6 minutes from cold start. In  
179 addition, the fuel economy improvement could research ~7% during a 22°C cold start NEDC, as  
180 indicated by Will et. al [49]. The low fuel economy was mainly caused by poor in-cylinder  
181 combustion, much heat loss and high viscosity of lubricating oil. Reference [20] indicated that the  
182 energy loss caused by viscosity reached 25% if the engine operated under -20 °C atmosphere. For  
183 the daily short distance journey, the warm up process accounted for a huge percentage of the whole  
184 duration, where the fuel economy had a huge space for improvement.

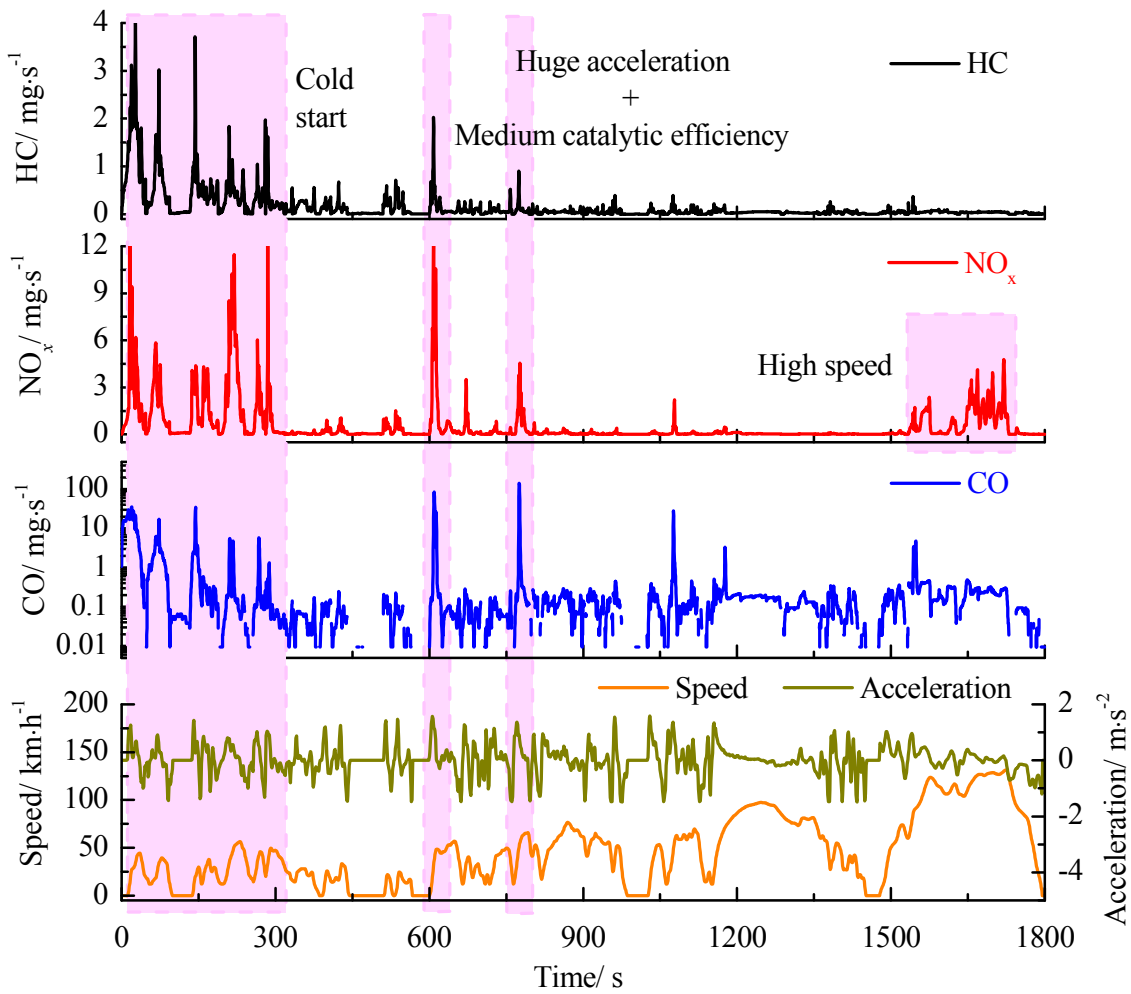


185

186 Figure 4 The fuel consumption rate in worldwide harmonized light vehicles test cycles

187 Figure 5 shows the pipe out gaseous exhaust emissions tested in WLTC, which included the cold  
 188 start and warm up process. It should be noted that part of the points were missed for CO emission  
 189 due to the use of logarithmic coordinates, where CO mass flow rate was zero, resulting from the  
 190 perfect catalyst performance and fuel cut-off. The peak values in the exhaust emission profiles were  
 191 mainly caused by the acceleration process. Table 3 summarizes the accumulative exhaust emissions  
 192 at different periods in WLTC, and comparisons were made with other published results. The  
 193 emissions of Euro 5-complaint diesel vehicle were much higher than Euro 6-complaint vehicles,  
 194 among which the authors' vehicle showed the best performance. It was evident that CO, HC and  
 195 NO<sub>x</sub> flow rates in the first 300 s were hundreds of times higher than normal conditions. The  
 196 maximum values reached 4 mg/s, 12 mg/s and 20 mg/s for HC, NO<sub>x</sub> and CO, whose accumulative  
 197 emissions in the first 300 s accounted for 63.2%, 55.4% and 56.05% of the total emissions in WLTC,  
 198 respectively. Such high exhaust emissions were mainly caused by poor in-cylinder combustion and

199 low catalytic efficiency of diesel oxidation catalyst (DOC) and selective catalyst reduction (SCR).  
200 The results specifically indicated that more attentions should be focused on the cold start emissions  
201 from which much lower emissions standard could be reached. In a given driving cycle, with a total  
202 duration of ~1200 s, the exhaust temperature was below the catalyst light-off value for over 200 s  
203 [50]. Up to 80% of the accumulative CO and HC emissions were emitted during this period, which  
204 was less than 20% of the total duration of the cycle [51]. Reference [12] summarized the influence  
205 of the cold start and warm up on the exhaust emissions, and potential measures to decrease  
206 emissions in the period were reviewed. After the engine and catalyst were fully warmed up, the  
207 exhaust emissions decreased significantly that the accumulative pipe out emissions were 6.3 mg and  
208 32.1 mg for HC and CO, respectively in the range of 1600 s~1800 s, where the NO<sub>x</sub> emission was  
209 still with a high value of 165.5 mg, which resulted from the high in-cylinder combustion  
210 temperature. In order to further decrease the pipe out emissions to meet more stricter emission  
211 regulations, many technologies [12] were employed to decrease the cold start and warm up  
212 emissions. Lower HC and CO emissions were more accessible to meet lower emission limits,  
213 however, NO<sub>x</sub> emission was still a challenge. The reference [52] also indicated that the warm up  
214 process also induced high NH<sub>3</sub> emission in WLTC, and increased potentials of the secondary  
215 particulate matter (PM) emission. As for the diesel PM, the mass reduction reached 90% after using  
216 diesel particulate filter (DPF), which showed a limited dependence on the engine operation  
217 conditions. However, PM number emission, being closely related to exhaust temperature [53], was  
218 much higher for the cold start than warmed conditions, which was mainly caused by HC  
219 condensation. The detailed analysis of PM number emission will be reported in further researches.



220

221 Figure 5 The diesel vehicle emissions in worldwide harmonized light vehicles test cycles

222 Table 3 Accumulative gaseous exhaust emissions in worldwide harmonized light vehicles test

223 cycles

	Emission factors/ mg·km <sup>-1</sup>						
	0 s ~300 s	300 s~1600 s	1600 s~1800 s	Authors'	Ref. [54]	Ref. [55]	Ref. [7]
				Euro 6	Euro 5	Euro 6	Euro 6
HC/ mg	163.0	88.6	6.3	11.08	~125	~9	~50
NO <sub>x</sub> / mg	561.4	286.1	165.5	43.54	~63	~205	~92
CO/ mg	816.1	607.8	32.1	62.58	~405	~220	~90

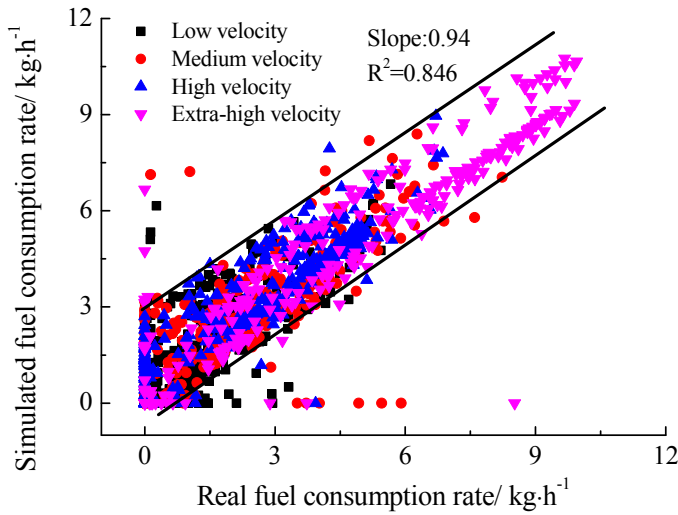
224 **3.2 Sensitivities of the fuel economy and exhaust emissions to eco-driving factors**

225 This part of work was done by vehicle simulations under WLTC. Figure 6 shows the validations of

226 the simulation model. The correlation ( $R^2$ ) between 1800 test data and the simulation results was

227 0.846, which indicated the high precision of the vehicle model. Majorities of the vehicle operation

228 points were located between the two dark lines, only a couple of points were out of the scope, which  
 229 was caused by the fluctuations during testing or failing to capture the details in the driving cycle for  
 230 the simulation model. Extra-high velocity points had the best correlations. The boundary conditions  
 231 used to validate the vehicle model were shown in Table 4.



232

233 Figure 6 Simulation model validation using testing data

234 Table 4 The boundary conditions of the vehicle model used for the validation

Target factors	Value
Drag coefficient	0.31
Grade/ %	0
Mass/ kg	1500
Rolling resistance coefficient	0.012
Wind speed/ m·s <sup>-1</sup>	0
Average vehicle speed/ m·s <sup>-1</sup>	18.75
Coolant temperature/ °C	100
Gear shift perfection/ %	75

235 Table 5 shows the case definitions of different combinations of eco-driving factors. These values  
 236 covered the commonly used ranges of daily vehicle driving. The gear shift perfection meant how



237 much was the vehicle velocity timing, where the gear was shifted, similar to the optimal value. The  
 238 single variable method was adopted that the other factors were kept the same as Table 4, except for  
 239 the target ones. The boundary conditions of these cases were based on Table 4.

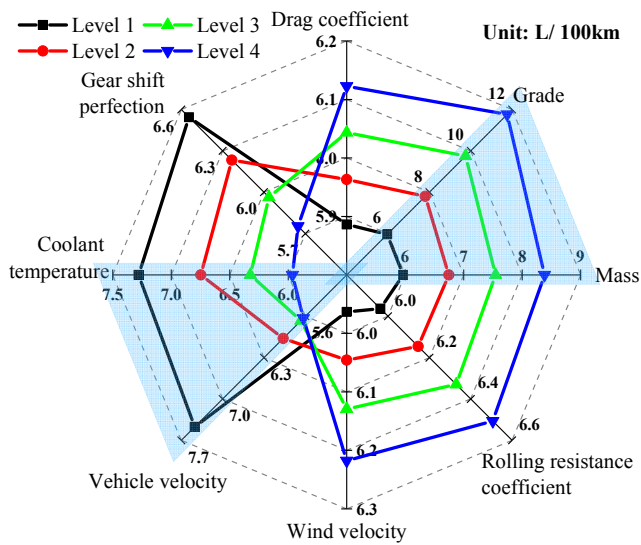
240 Table 5 The case definitions

Target factors	Factor levels			
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
Drag coefficient	0.29	<b>0.31</b>	0.33	0.35
Road grade/ %	<b>0</b>	2	4	6
Mass/ kg	<b>1500</b>	2000	2500	3000
Rolling resistance coefficient	0.011	<b>0.012</b>	0.013	0.014
Wind velocity/ $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$	<b>0</b>	3	6	9
Average vehicle velocity/ $\text{m}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$	<b>18.75</b>	39.40	56.55	91.88
Coolant temperature/ $^{\circ}\text{C}$	40	60	80	<b>100</b>
Gear shift perfection/ %	25	50	<b>75</b>	100

241 Figure 7 shows the sensitivities of the targeted factors on the vehicle fuel economy. The gear shift  
 242 perfection, drag coefficient, rolling resistance coefficient and wind velocity had a smaller effect on  
 243 the fuel economy, meantime, the fuel economy almost linearly decreased with these values. Zaabar  
 244 and Chatti [56] pointed that the effect of road roughness (related to rolling resistance coefficient) on  
 245 fuel consumption increased by  $\sim 1.75$  for the van,  $\sim 1.70$  for articulated truck,  $\sim 1.60$  for medium car,  
 246  $\sim 1.35$  for sport utility vehicle, and  $\sim 1.15$  for the light vehicle. The value was similar with the  
 247 authors' results (light vehicle). It still made a contribution to improve the vehicle fuel economy by  
 248 decreasing the tire rolling resistance despite of relative small effect. It should be noted that the  
 249 effect of the wind velocity would sharply increased if the wind velocity was above a threshold,

250 which was similar to the vehicle velocity. The fuel consumption factor was almost doubled when  
251 the road grade increased from 0% to 6%, although the engine operation points moved to higher load  
252 regions (higher brake thermal efficiency), where BSFC was at a low level, as the indication of the  
253 arrow in Figure 2. The reference [57] indicated that the vehicle fuel economy under the flat route  
254 was better than that of the hilly routes by 15% to 20% in the real world driving. It was demonstrated  
255 by the comparisons of the fuel consumption under two different routes, but the same start point and  
256 destination. The average road grade was ~4% for the uphill sections. The fuel consumption factor  
257 was high when the velocity was low, and it changed little when the velocity reached 60 km/h, which  
258 was in the region of the optimal fuel economy. As for the coolant temperature, the fuel consumption  
259 factor decreased by ~25% when the temperature increased from 40 °C to 100 °C, which was in the  
260 range of the daily driving. Much fuel penalty was caused by the cold start and warm up process in  
261 the daily short distance journey. The poor fuel economy under low coolant temperature conditions  
262 was mainly caused by poor in-cylinder combustion, plenty of heat loss through coolant, and much  
263 friction loss, which resulted of a low brake thermal efficiency. Reference [58] indicated that the  
264 reduction of the brake thermal efficiency caused by the cold start was ~30%. Coolant and  
265 lubricating oil heating, heat storage materials, electric pumps of coolant and lubricating oil were  
266 used to improve the in-cylinder combustion, and decrease the friction loss by dropping the  
267 lubricating oil viscosity [24]. The gear shift perfection, vehicle velocity, road grade and rolling  
268 resistance coefficient (route-choice) were human-controllable factors, from which the fuel economy  
269 could reach the optimal value. As for the driver behaviors, the fuel consumption factor increased up  
270 to 40% for aggressive behavior compared with normal driving in reference [59]; additionally, the  
271 driver behavior caused 45% fuel reduction in reference [60]. Road-surface characteristic, e.g.  
272 rolling resistance coefficient, affected the vehicle fuel consumption factor by up to 7% [61], which

273 was much smaller than the road grade.



274

275 Figure 7 The sensitivities of the targeted factors to fuel economy

276 As indicated Section 3.1, the cold start and warm up process presented a significant effect on the  
277 gaseous exhaust emissions, which was mainly caused by the inefficiency of diesel after-treatments.

278 The catalytic efficiency of after-treatments would keep at a high level and the variability was small,

279 as long as the catalyst temperature reached the light-off value. Under that conditions, the pipe out  
280 emissions were mainly dependant on the emission formations in cylinders. Figures 8~10 show the

281 gaseous emission factors, HC, CO and NO<sub>x</sub>, respectively. The effects of the target factors on CO

282 and HC emissions were opposite to the fuel economy generally. The related factors, leading the

283 engine operation conditions to shift to higher engine load regions, would cause lower CO and HC

284 emission factors generally. The CO emission factor decreased by ~80% when the average vehicle

285 velocity increased from 18.75 km/h to 91.88 km/h. The radar net shapes of the emission factors

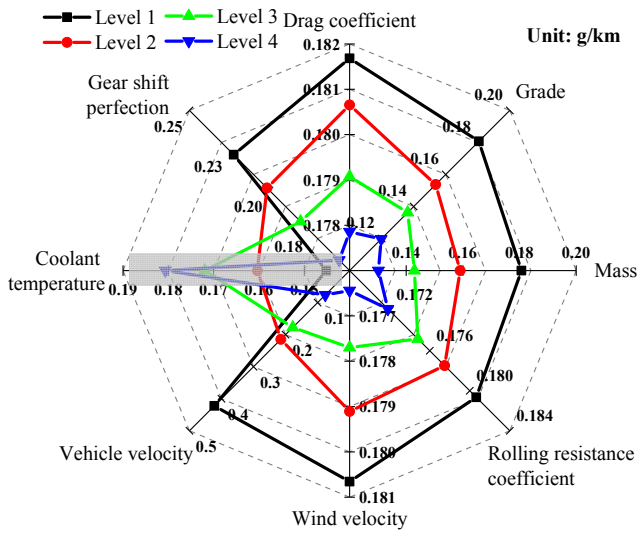
286 were similar for HC and CO. With the value increasing of these factors, except for coolant

287 temperature, the engine load increased, resulting of higher in-cylinder temperature. As for the effect

288 of the coolant temperature, only the viscosity was considered rather than the in-cylinder combustion

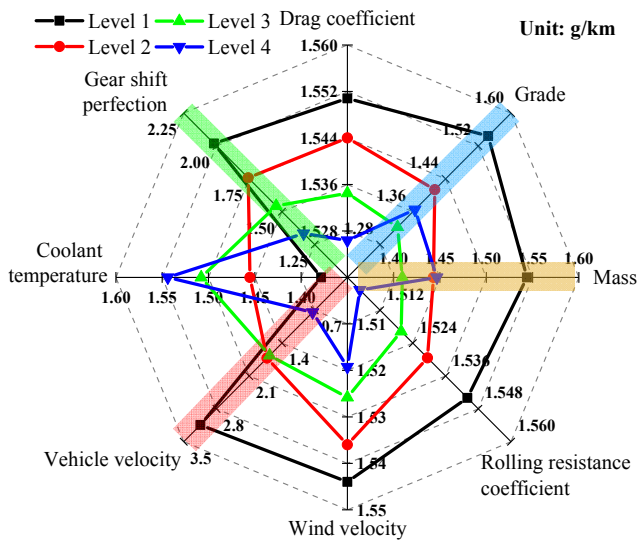
289 and heat loss. So the effect of the coolant temperature was opposite to other factors. If the

290 in-cylinder combustion condition was taken into consideration, the situation would change.



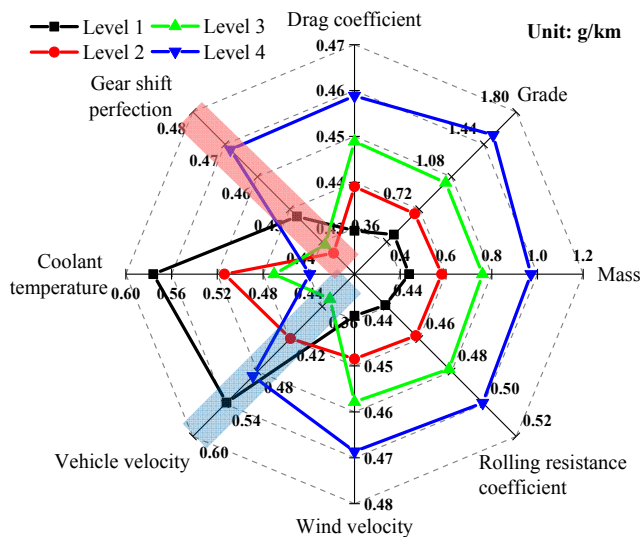
291

292 Figure 8 The sensitivities of the eco-driving factors to hydrocarbon emission factor



293

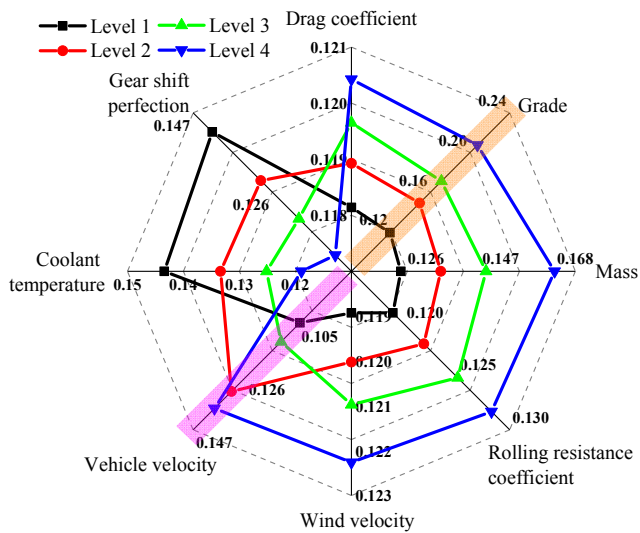
294 Figure 9 The sensitivities of the eco-driving to carbon monoxide emission factor



295

296 Figure 10 The sensitivities of the eco-driving to nitrogen oxide emission factor

297 The NO<sub>x</sub> emission was still a challenge for conventional vehicles to meet stricter emission  
 298 regulations despite many technologies were adopted. The overall tendency of the NO<sub>x</sub> emission  
 299 sensitivities to eco-driving factors were similar to the fuel consumption factor, more fuel injection  
 300 meant higher in-cylinder combustion temperature, with the results of more NO<sub>x</sub> formation. NO<sub>x</sub>  
 301 emission factor was extremely sensitive to vehicle velocity, road grade, and vehicle mass, whose  
 302 huger values meant higher engine power output necessity. Figure 11 shows the sensitivities of the  
 303 targeted factors on soot emission factor. In this figure, only the dry soot was considered; in fact, the  
 304 particle mass emission showed closely related to the exhaust temperature and HC emission, which  
 305 could condense and adsorb on particle surfaces. Drag coefficient and wind velocity could be  
 306 neglected since the effect was less than 3% in the given range. DPF presented a perfect performance  
 307 on the particle mass control. Recently, the focus had been paid on the particle number, which was  
 308 clearly clarified in Euro 6 emission regulation.

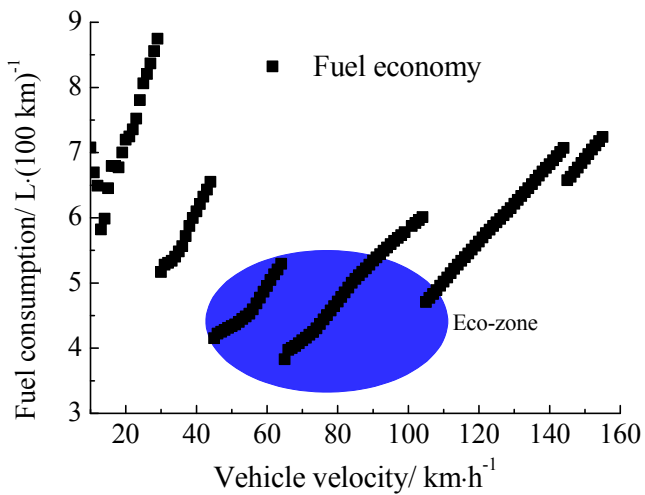


309

310 Figure 11 The sensitivities of the eco-driving to soot emission factor

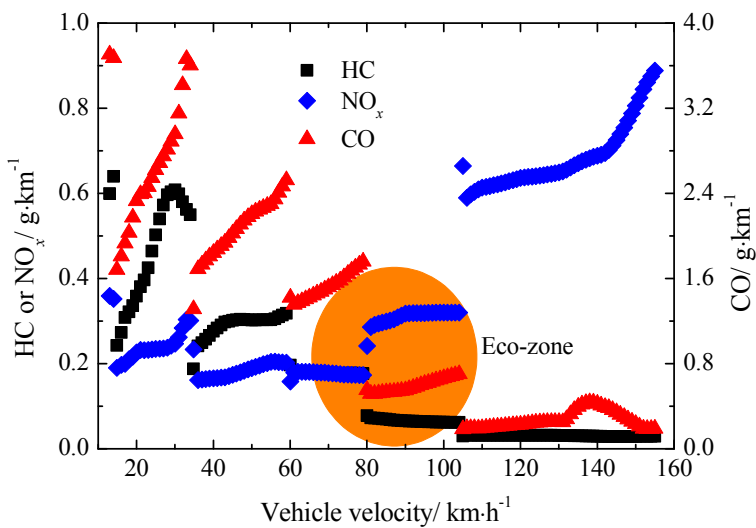
### 311 3.3 The choice of vehicle operation for eco-driving

312 Most of the reported papers about the eco-driving were only focused on improving the fuel  
 313 economy or decreasing emission factors, however, balances between the fuel economy and exhaust  
 314 emissions were necessary. In this part, the choice of the optimal vehicle operation regions for  
 315 eco-driving was analyzed from the points of fuel economy and exhaust emissions. Figures 12 and  
 316 13 show the fuel economy and gaseous emissions verse vehicle velocity. The optimal fuel economy  
 317 zone was in the range of 40 km/h~110 km/h. The overall tendency of the fuel economy verse  
 318 vehicle velocity was the same as the literature [40]. Higher gears were recommended to improve the  
 319 fuel economy under the conditions of sufficient torque output and comfort. HC and CO emission  
 320 factors decreased with vehicle velocity, however, it increased generally for NO<sub>x</sub>. The overall  
 321 emission factor tendency was similar to the reference [59]. The optimal velocity region for exhaust  
 322 emissions, under the compromise of the NO<sub>x</sub> emission with HC and CO emission factors, was 70  
 323 km/h~110 km/h, which was covered by the optimal fuel economy region. This made the  
 324 foundations for the driver instructions to achieve the eco-driving. The decrease of the exhaust  
 325 emissions was significant after applying the eco-driving rules [62].



326

327 Figure 12 Fuel economy vs. vehicle velocity



328

329 Figure 13 Gaseous emission factors vs. vehicle speed

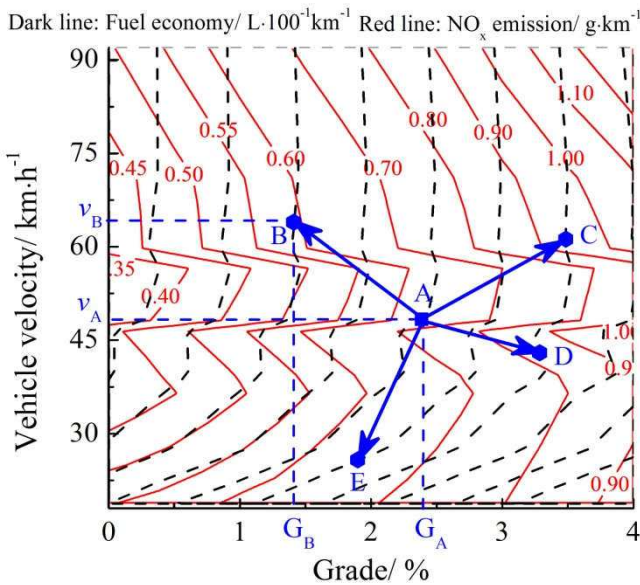
330 As indicated in Section 3.2, vehicle velocity and road grade presented the most significant effect on  
 331 fuel economy and exhaust emissions. Also, the vehicle velocity and routes were human-controllable  
 332 factors in eco-driving. Figures 14 and 15 show the fuel economy and emission factor maps as the  
 333 function of the vehicle velocity and road grade. The vehicle velocity was an average value, which  
 334 was obtained under different period combinations of low, medium, high and extra-high velocity  
 335 zones in WLTC. The points A, B, C, D and E were referred to different routes chosen by the drivers.  
 336 Fuel consumption factor almost linearly increased with the road grade. The fuel economy could be  
 337 improved by avoiding running on the roads with huge grades, which may prolong the journey  
 338 distance inevitably. In order to ensure arriving the destination punctually, the vehicle velocity

339 should be increased to compensate the prolonged distance, as the direction from point A to point B  
 340 in Figure 14. For eco-driving, it must be satisfied with the equations 1 and 2,

341  $s_A \cdot f_A \geq s_B \cdot f_B$  (1)

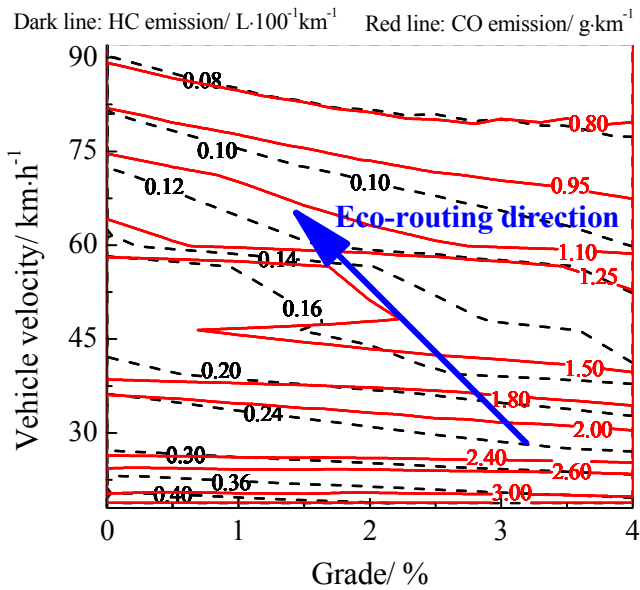
342  $s_A \cdot v_B \geq s_B \cdot v_A$  (2)

343 where,  $s_A$  and  $s_B$  were the distances of the journey when choosing route A and route B, respectively;  
 344  $v_A$  and  $v_B$  were the average velocity in route A and route B, respectively;  $f_A$  and  $f_B$  were the fuel  
 345 consumption factors when choosing route A and route B, respectively. However, some compromise  
 346 between the fuel economy and the journey duration could be made in some cases, where the  
 347 limitation of the equation 2 would be faded. The  $\text{NO}_x$  emission was still a issue for meeting stricter  
 348 emission regulations that higher vehicle velocity with a lower road grade would be helpful. As for  
 349 the CO and HC emissions, the eco-driving direction was consistent with the fuel economy. In the  
 350 future work, multiple external factors would be taken into consideration to provide the instructions  
 351 for eco-driving. Also, the optimal route choice would be made based on the predictions of fuel  
 352 consumption and exhaust emissions, which would be benefit from the research.



353  
 354 Figure 14 Fuel economy and nitrogen oxide emission vs. vehicle speed and road grade





355

356 Figure 15 Carbon monoxide and hydrocarbon emissions vs. vehicle speed and road grade

357 It should be noted that the suggestions for eco-driving are also suitable for heavy-duty vehicles,  
 358 such as 40 t delivery trucks, which regularly operate on the international mountain motorways with  
 359 variable road grades (e.g. from Turin to Istanbul). In addition, the effect of the eco-driving on fuel  
 360 consumptions of heavy-duty trucks should be huger than light-duty vehicles, because the  
 361 heavy-duty trucks are usually fully loaded, which increases the sensitivities of the fuel consumption  
 362 and exhaust emissions to the eco-driving factors. For the autonomous vehicles, it also makes the  
 363 foundations of decreasing fuel consumption and exhaust emissions that the Electronic Control Unit  
 364 (ECU) automatically controls the engine operation points to work around the optimal zones based  
 365 on the provided suggestions in this paper.

366 **4. Conclusions**

367 Diesel vehicles are widely used due to their excellent fuel economy and durability, while the  
 368 exhaust emissions are still a challenge to meet stricter emission regulations although the emission  
 369 concentrations have reached a low level. In this paper, gaseous regular emissions and fuel  
 370 consumption rates of a diesel vehicle were tested under WLTC, and their sensitivities to the  
 371 eco-driving factors were investigated. The main conclusions were as the following:

372 (1) The engine operation points under WLTC were mainly located at the regions of medium engine  
373 speed and low engine load, which were out of the optimal BSFC zones. Vehicle acceleration and  
374 speed dominated the fuel consumption rates under WLTC.

375 (2) Exhaust emissions in the first 300 s dominated the accumulative emissions of the whole WLTC,  
376 they were 63.2%, 55.4% and 56.05% of the total emissions for HC, NO<sub>x</sub> and CO, respectively. HC  
377 and CO emissions were at a rather low level after the engine was fully warmed up. In the last 200 s  
378 of WLTC, NO<sub>x</sub> emission was much high, results from the high in-cylinder temperature despite of  
379 high catalyst efficiency.

380 (3) The road grade, coolant temperature, vehicle mass and velocity presented the most sensitive to  
381 vehicle fuel economy, whose radar net shapes of their sensitivity was similar to NO<sub>x</sub> and soot  
382 emission factors. The optimal velocity zones of the fuel economy and exhaust emissions were in the  
383 range of 70 km/h~110 km/h. For the eco-driving, a higher velocity and lower road grade were  
384 recommended, and a balance between the fuel economy and driving duration was necessary in some  
385 case.

386

387 Based on this research, the route-choice for eco-driving will be conducted by the predictions of the  
388 fuel consumption at different routes, combined with traffic and geographic information system  
389 (GIS). Meantime, the eco-driving guidance for drivers will be performed by Smartphone app, which  
390 will provide driving suggestions based on traffic and GIS information.

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394 develops and tests a 'global fuel optimizer' for 40 tonne trucks to substantially reduce fuel

395 consumption under real-world conditions while still meeting relevant Euro VI emission standards.  
396 AUTOPILOT brings IoT (Internet of Things) into the automotive world (via real-world use cases)  
397 to transform connected vehicles into highly and fully automated vehicle.

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