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Light-Duty Gasoline Hybrid-Electric and Conventional Vehicle Tailpipe Emissions Under Real-World Operating Conditions

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University of Vermont Transportation Research Center

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1. Introduction

1.0 Overview and Introduction

This report summarizes the development of an on-board tailpipe emissions measurement system developed to compare the emissions and performance of two Toyota Camry model year 2010 gasoline-powered light-duty vehicles during real-world driving in Chittenden County, Vermont over multiple seasons. One vehicle, denoted as the "conventional vehicle" or CV, had a regular transmission and drivetrain powered solely the by a 4-stroke gasoline internal combustion engine (ICE). The second Camry vehicle, denoted at "hybrid-electric vehicle" or HEV, was powered by the traditional ICE in addition to the Toyota Synergy DriveR hybrid platform.

To our knowledge the study is the first to compare the emissions and performance of a HEV to its conventional counterpart of the same manufacturer and model design. Thus, the emissions and performance results of this study are important to evaluating the real world, in-use benefits of this HEV technology. Gas-phase and particle number emissions as well as fuel economy performance results are presented here by vehicle specific power (VSP) and MOVES operating model classification schemes to enable comparison to other studies.

1.1 Background on Emissions from Conventional and Hybrid-Electric Light-duty Vehicles

The internal combustion engine (ICE) propelled nearly all of the 190 million on-road, light-duty vehicles in the U.S. fleet in 2010,[\[1\]](#page-69-0) with less than 60,000 vehicles utilizing solely electric motors as the only other prevalent alternative.^{[\[2\]](#page-69-1)} In response to fuel economy standards and in anticipation of stricter emissions regulation, automobile manufacturers, starting in 1999, introduced vehicles that employ conventional ICE systems in combination with various hybrid-electric vehicle (HEV) configurations (series, parallel, and series-parallel). The intended results of HEV technology are fuel savings and emissions reductions, addressing concerns of meeting regulations, energy independence, climate change, and local and regional air quality. Production share of HEVs have increased to over 5% in the first decade of the $21st$ century (**Figure 1-1**) and are expected to continue to increase.^{[\[3\]](#page-69-2)} Annual sales of HEVs have increased almost 40 times since their introduction and the number of models available has also grown dramatically (**Figure 1-1**). [\[4\]](#page-69-3)

Figure 1-1. Hybrid production share increases[\[5\]](#page-69-4) and hybrid make and model sales[\[4\]](#page-69-3) .

The transportation sector, specifically light-duty passenger vehicle use, significantly affects the air quality and energy consumption profiles of the United States. In 2011, the transportation sector accounted for 1,877 million metric tons $CO₂$ equivalent, which totaled 28% of US GHG emissions.^{[\[6\]](#page-69-5)} Increasingly stringent regulations help to limit fuel use and curb emissions from this increasing utilized transportation mode. The hybridization of the fleet will potentially help to meet long-term fuel consumption and tailpipe emission goals, but little is known on how late-model year hybrid-electric vehicles compare with their modern, relatively low emission conventional vehicle counterparts during real-world operation.

1.2 Hybrid-Electric Vehicle Technology

1.2.1 HEV Configuration and Function

Basic operating principles of the HEV include the combination of an ICE with an electric motor to propel the vehicle. In addition, an electric storage device, typically a battery pack, is used to store electric energy produced by the ICE or via regenerative braking. Configurations vary with HEV make and model, but typical designs for most of today's HEVs are categorized as series, parallel or combination series-parallel (**Figure 1-2**). *Series* hybrid designs utilize the electric motor as the mechanical power connection to the drivetrain, illustrated in Frame **A** of **Figure 1-2** by a red arrow, with the ICE either assisting in propulsion or regenerating the batteries during vehicle braking. *Parallel* hybrid drivetrains are connected to both the ICE and electric motor to allow propulsion of the vehicle by contributions of both systems simultaneously, indicated by two red mechanical linkages in Frame **B** of **Figure 1-2**. *Series-parallel* designs (Frame **C**) are a combination of the two, optimizing the advantages of higher speed, highway conditions in parallel mode and stop-andgo, city conditions in series mode. As a result, the series-parallel design generally has an all-electric mode in which it operates and optimizes during operation at low speeds with stop, go, and idle sequences.

Figure 1-2. Common (A) series, (B) parallel, and (C) series-parallel HEV frameworks (adapted from Toyota[\[7\]](#page-69-6)).

1.2.2 Ambient Temperature and HEVs

Designers of HEVs recognize that divergence from optimal operating ambient temperature conditions affects the ability of the HEV battery to maintain its target state-of-charge (SOC) via charging and discharging.^{[\[8\]](#page-69-7)} This consideration is critically important to realizing the potential benefits of HEVs while operating in cold climates, outside the range of optimal temperatures. Decreased capacity of the battery system to maintain SOC during operation outside of the optimal temperature ranges would be expected to affect the reliance of the electrical system to assist the ICE or independently propel the vehicle.

1.3 Tailpipe Emissions Data Collection Practices

Aggregate emissions data, historically collected using laboratory dynamometer tests, may be sufficient for developing local, regional, or national inventories across the fleet of in-use vehicles. However, evaluating the influence of vehicle technology, operating modes, traffic characteristics, or environmental (ambient temperature (T) and relative humidity (RH)) and road features (grade, curvature) on tailpipe emissions requires data collection at high temporal and/or spatial resolution, such as that available with more sophisticated PEMS. A disaggregate emissions data collection approach better informs modal and micro-scale models and is important to understand the impact of specific in-vehicle technologies, driver behavior,^{[\[9,](#page-69-8) [10\]](#page-69-9)} roadway geometry,^{[\[11,](#page-69-10) [12\]](#page-69-11)} driver-traffic interactions,^{[\[13\]](#page-69-12)} innovative traffic management approaches,^{[\[14,](#page-69-13) [15\]](#page-69-14)} or other potential real-world factors.

Portable emission measurement systems (PEMS) have the ability to quantify tailpipe emissions during real-world vehicle use. Most commercially available PEMS have generally been limited to quantifying a selection of gases (NOx, CO, THC, and carbon dioxide (CO2)) and particle *mass* during real-world operation of a single vehicle^{[\[16,](#page-69-15) [17\]](#page-69-16)} without additional consideration of potential human health or environmentally harmful constituents such as mobile source air toxics or ultrafine particles. Tailpipe emissions analysis with Fourier Transform Infrared (FTIR) spectrometry during real-world driving allows for more comprehensive real-world data collection by measurement of speciated exhaust constituents at high temporal resolution.^{[\[18-22\]](#page-69-17)} Particle number emissions data collected by the Engine Exhaust Particle Sizer (EEPS) and the Condensation Particle Counter (CPC) allows for analysis at 1-Hz resolution of both total number (CPC) and size-resolved particle number to obtain second-by-second particle (number) size distributions (EEPS).^{[\[23\]](#page-70-0)}

1.3.1 Scantool Measurement of Vehicle Operating Parameters

Every vehicle manufactured since 1996 is equipped with an on-board diagnostics (OBD) connection, enabling communication with the vehicle computer. Through this OBD connection, specific vehicle parameters can be selected and recorded to a computer on a second-by-second basis. It is possible to record dozens of different parameters, but some of the most important in relation to vehicle emissions include; engine RPM, engine load, vehicle speed and mass air flow (MAF). Recording these parameters simultaneously with emissions data allows relationships to be quantified between emissions and engine operating parameters. Furthermore, when testing emissions from HEVs, the SOC of the batteries, electric motor and generator parameters, and energy flow throughout the vehicle must also be monitored. Ideally, when collecting emissions data, the SOC before and after every run would be identical. This would represent a net energy change(NEC) of 0%. Under laboratory emissions testing protocols for HEVs, if NEC is not less than 1%, a data correction should be applied to avoid artificially skewing the data, as is recommended by the California Air Resources Board^{[\[24\]](#page-70-1)} and SAE J2711.^{[\[25\]](#page-70-2)} The correction is necessary to enable comparisons between tests. As mentioned in other studies however, it is not always possible to apply the recommended correction.^{[\[26\]](#page-70-3)} This is the case with real-world studies, where the objective is to analyze multiple runs conducted under realistic driving conditions.

1.3.2 Vehicle Specific Power

Vehicle Specific Power (VSP) is a measure of the power required of a vehicle to overcome internal and external resistance to propel forward at a given speed and acceleration, normalized by vehicle mass. The kilowatt per ton (kW/ton) computation allows for the power exerted by a vehicle to be summarized into a single parameter. Jimenez $(1999)^{[27]}$ $(1999)^{[27]}$ $(1999)^{[27]}$ first presented the VSP concept and evaluated the feasibility of VSP as an independent vehicle operating parameter for use in modeling emissions. The convention was adopted by the EPA for use as the foundation of the Motor Vehicle Emissions Simulator (MOVES), the regulatory model for mobile source emissions estimation.^{[\[28\]](#page-70-5)} **Figure 1-3** illustrates the principle forces enumerated in the VSP measure, with kinetic, potential, aerodynamic and rolling components all acting on the body in motion.

 \triangle Potential Energy (PE)

Figure 1-3. The basic forces acting on a vehicle in motion, adapted from Jimenez (1999). [\[27\]](#page-70-4)

In the governing equation of VSP (Equation 1), the instantaneous power produced from the engine and/or electric motor of a vehicle is balanced with forces of aerodynamic drag and rolling resistance, multiplied by the velocity of the vehicle, and changes to the potential and kinetic energy of the body in motion.

$$
VSP = \frac{d}{dt}(KE + PE) + F_{Rolling} * v + F_{Aerodynamic} * v
$$

\nwhere: VSP = vehicle specific power (kW/ton)
\nKE = kinetic energy
\nPE = potential energy
\n $F_{Rolling}$ = rolling resistance force
\n $F_{Aerodynamic}$ = aerodynamic drag force
\n v = vehicle speed
\n m = vehicle mass

1.3.3 Factors Affecting Particle- and Gas-Phase Tailpipe Emissions

Evolution of the gasoline vehicle to increase fuel efficiency and optimize power through improvements in engine design and emission control devices has subsequently decreased the average hot stabilized trip emissions from passenger cars considerably. These low emitting vehicles, however, can attribute most of a trip's cumulative emissions to short-duration, high magnitude bursts of unburned fuel, combustion products, and catalysis by-products in the tailpipe.

It's been confirmed that short duration, HEEs contribute substantially to average emissions.^{[\[29\]](#page-70-6)} The mechanisms of tailpipe pollutant formation dictate which pollutants will be present in these HEEs. **Table 1-1** lists the factors influencing gaseous and particulate emissions from light-duty vehicles based on the last 15 years of research. Note that various MSAT's are affected by the parameters differently. **Table 1-1** indicates effects observed by one or more of the gas-phase emissions.

Parameter	Gaseous	Reference	Particulate	Reference
Air/Fuel Ratio		[18, 21]		$[30-34]$
Ambient Temperature		$[35]$		[26, 36, 37]
Vehicle Specific Power		$[27]$		$[27]$
Fuel Composition				[30]
Oil Type				[33, 38]

Table1-1. Parameters influencing emissions from internal combustion engines.

1.4 Gas-phase Vehicle Emissions

Motor vehicle tailpipe emissions contribute significantly to increasing anthropogenic influence on the environment and public health. Although some mobile source, gas-phase pollutants detrimental to human health and/or the environment are regulated under the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS), similar health and environmental welfare concerns exist for many other *unregulated* pollutants emitted by the transportation fleet. The regulated criteria gas-phase pollutants attributed to mobile sources include carbon monoxide (CO), oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) , and total hydrocarbons (THC). Increasing awareness of the climate change potential of greenhouse gases (GHG), the carcinogenic nature of mobile source air toxics (MSATs), and formation of secondary organic aerosol (SOA) due to precursor pollutants has put new emphasis on the *unregulated* emissions from mobile sources. The on-road vehicle fleet was estimated to be responsible for approximately 42% of CO, 29% of THC, 40% of NOx, 16% of volatile organic compounds (VOCs), 1% of sulfur dioxide (SO₂), and 3% of ammonia (NH₃) emissions emitted into the atmosphere in 2010.^{[\[39\]](#page-71-2)} Additionally, the proportion of GHG emissions attributed to transportation activity is estimated to be about 30 percent of the overall GHG budget, with passenger vehicles and light-duty trucks making up about 60 percent of the transportation-related emissions.[\[40\]](#page-71-3)

1.4.1 Gas-Phase Emissions from HEVs

Few studies have examined emissions from hybrid vehicles. Most work to date on characterizing HEVs has been limited primarily to investigation of fuel consumption, criteria pollutant emission rates, and CO_2 emissions during simulated driving cycles on a chassis dynamometer.^{[\[41,](#page-71-4) [42\]](#page-71-5)} A more thorough gas-phase characterization of a single HEV (2000 Toyota Prius) emissions output was conducted on a dynamometer, with Tedlar bag sample evaluation for regulated and unregulated gas constituents.[\[43\]](#page-71-6) Studies focused on extremely low-emitting vehicles (those vehicles meeting strict regulations including ULEV, SULEV, and PZEV) have collected more comprehensive tailpipe emissions data on dynamometer, real-world and test track driving for 2003 Honda Civic hybrid vehicles, but limited reporting to criteria pollutants averaged over 20 and 24 low-emitting vehicles in each study.^{[\[18,](#page-69-17) [19\]](#page-70-12)} The most comprehensive study to report on hybrid vehicle emissions involved dynamometer driving cycle tests conducted on a Toyota Prius and analysis of tailpipe emissions by FTIR.^{[\[44\]](#page-71-7)} The authors reported speciated GHG emissions ($CO₂$, CH₄, and N₂O) and seven other gas-phase constituents (ammonia (NH_3), methanol (CH_3OH), sulfur dioxide (SO_2), formaldehyde (H2CO), CO, NMHC, and NO) for the single hybrid vehicle in laboratory conditions. Of significance was the authors' identification of the need to collect on-board emissions profiles during real-world operation of these vehicles together with spatial information.^{[\[44\]](#page-71-7)}

Results of research on HEV emissions to date find occasional high THC emission events from two models of HEVs (2004 Toyota Prius; 2005 Ford Escape), which was attributed to possible cooling of the catalyst during engine-off operation.^{[\[41\]](#page-71-4)} According to Reyes $(2006)^{[44]}$ $(2006)^{[44]}$ $(2006)^{[44]}$ steadily optimal catalysis temperature ranges may not be attainable for HEVs where the ICE turns off. Because the three-way catalysts (TWC) systems were designed for more stable conditions produced during conventional vehicle (CV) operation, turning the ICE on and off in the HEV may lead to catalyst inefficiencies, and cause relatively high emission events.^{[\[44\]](#page-71-7)}

Of the gas-phase pollutants studied by Christenson $(2007)^{[41]}$ $(2007)^{[41]}$ $(2007)^{[41]}$, it was observed that high power demand correlated with elevated $CO₂$ emission rates and the engine-off function of the HEV was associated with low, background concentrations of $CO₂$. These engine-off events were longer in duration for the Prius and Escape models, as they operate in engine-off at low speeds. At lower ambient temperature, the time in engine-off mode for these two vehicles decreased significantly for urban drive cycles including UDDS (also referred to as LA4), the Unified Cycle Driving Schedule (UCDS also referred to as LA92), and NYCC.^{[\[41\]](#page-71-4)} The temperature dependence of HEV engine cycling behavior is related to the manufacturer's hybrid architecture logic, information that is proprietary.

Elevated cold start emissions $(CO, HC, and CO₂)$ and fuel consumption were demonstrated at low temperatures for five European HEV models, with decreasing emission trends as ambient temperatures increased.^{[\[45\]](#page-71-8)} Investigations of NO_x start emissions had no observable relationship with temperature, unlike the other quantified emissions.^{[\[45\]](#page-71-8)} Of particular interest was the relationship between CO_2 and three sample temperatures (-7, 8, and 23° C) across the hot, stabilized portion of the laboratory sampling: decreasing trends of $CO₂$ emissions were observed with increased temperature.^{[\[45\]](#page-71-8)} This relationship was not corroborated by investigation of the HEV system battery, which did not demonstrate a significant relationship of electric drive operation to temperature.^{[\[45\]](#page-71-8)}

Our previous analyses demonstrated that operation of the HEV in this study was (a) statistically different across seasonal temperatures in terms of battery state-of-charge; and (b) electric drive only propulsion (engine-off operation) in cold/cool temperatures was statistically different than warm/hot temperature operation.^{[\[46\]](#page-71-9)} In addition, emissions models developed for carbon dioxide prediction from the test vehicles indicated that temperature was a significant factor for the CV (11 mg/s decrease in CO_2 for every 1°C increase in temperature) and for the HEV during operation with the ICE on (i.e., excluding electric drive only data, 4 mg/s decrease in CO_2 for every 1^oC increase in temperature).^{[\[46\]](#page-71-9)} It is important to note that these temperature effects were over an order of magnitude less important than the road grade effects on $CO₂$ emissions (CV/HEV increased by 633/535 mg/s $CO₂$ for every 1% increase in road grade).^{[\[46\]](#page-71-9)}

1.5 Particle-Phase Emissions

Airborne particulate matter (PM) – one of the 6 criteria pollutants under the Clean Air Act's NAAQS – has been correlated with many pulmonary and cardiovascular diseases. As a result, the Environmental Protection Agency regulates ambient PM concentrations through two different PM air quality standards; PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$. Both PM_{10} and $PM_{2.5}$ are regulated on the basis of the *mass* of particles per unit volume of air. PM_{10} is associated with particles less than 10 micrometers in median aerodynamic diameter and has a maximum allowable 24-hour mean concentration of 150 μ g/m³.^{[\[47\]](#page-71-10)} The PM_{2.5} standard regulates particles less than 2.5 micrometers in median aerodynamic diameter and sets a maximum allowable annual mean ambient air concentration of 15 μ g/m³ and a 24-hour mean concentration maximum of 35 μ g/m³.^{[\[47\]](#page-71-10)}

Particulate matter exhibits complicated behavior (nucleation, condensation, coagulation, and adsorption), making it difficult to measure and regulate. This is largely why particulate air pollution is regulated based on mass concentration and under the broad size ranges of 10 microns and 2.5 microns.[\[48\]](#page-71-11) However, little correlation exists between particle *number* and particle *mass* in vehicle exhaust. While particles in the nuclei mode make up 90% or more of the total particle number, they may account for only 1-20% of the total particle mass.^{[\[49\]](#page-71-12)} Figure 1-4 displays the number-weighted versus mass-weighted particle distributions for particles in vehicle exhaust.

Figure 1-4. Particle distributions weighted towards: mass (red dashed line), number (blue line) and surface area (dashed green line). The pink line represents the deposition fraction of particles in the alveolar and tracheo-bronchial regions of the human respiratory system (adapted from Kittelson [\[50\]](#page-71-13)).

Figure 1-4 clearly shows that while most particle number in vehicle exhaust is less than 50 nm in diameter, most of the particle mass is between 50 and 1000 nm. Furthermore, particle numbers from combustion make up the majority of airborne particulate matter under the $PM_{2.5}$ regulation^{[\[48\]](#page-71-11)} and most of these particles are less than 100 nanometers (nm) in diameter. The particles falling under the $PM_{2.5}$ regulation are of greatest concern, specifically particles in the ultrafine ($\lt 100 \text{ nm}$) and nanoparticle $(< 50 \text{ nm})$ ranges.^{[\[51-55\]](#page-71-14)} This is because smaller particles have a higher total surface area to volume ratio, facilitating adsorption and potentially increasing their toxicological effects.^{[\[56,](#page-71-15)}] [57\]](#page-72-0)

1.5.1 Vehicle Particle Emissions from On-Road Sources

Diesel vehicles have traditionally been seen as the principal emitters of particulate air pollution, resulting in the focus of early particle emissions research on diesel vehicles. Due to recent advances in technology such as diesel particulate filters and ultra-low sulfur fuels, PM emissions from diesel vehicles have been drastically reduced.^{[\[32\]](#page-70-13)} Also, of the 201.6 million on-road vehicles in the U.S. in 1997, 136.1 million (68%) were passenger cars, 56.8 (26%) million were light-duty trucks and only 8.7 million (6%) were heavy-duty diesel vehicles.^{[\[58\]](#page-72-1)} Based on fuel consumption, approximately 65% of fuel used by mobile sources is gasoline, while 20% is diesel.^{[\[58\]](#page-72-1)} These factors have caused a shift in recent years towards research on particle emissions from spark-ignition vehicles, and in particular, light-duty passenger cars. Particle emissions data from real-world, on-board tailpipe measurement and for newer technologies such as HEVs are limited.^{[\[31\]](#page-70-14)} Furthermore, data on exhaust particle size distributions in relation to real-world, vehicle operating conditions are still poorly understood. This is because the majority of particle emissions studies on light-duty vehicles to date collected data on a dynamometer in idealized lab conditions^{[\[30,](#page-70-8) [34,](#page-70-15) [59-62\]](#page-72-2)}, by the roadside^{[\[63,](#page-72-3) [64\]](#page-72-4)} or using chase vehicles.^{[\[31\]](#page-70-14)} There have been on-board studies conducted^{[\[65,](#page-72-5) [66\]](#page-72-6)} where a vehicle is instrumented, driven on the road network, and exhaust is sampled directly from the tailpipe or in the exhaust plume behind the vehicle, but these studies lacked either particle number measurements altogether^{[\[65\]](#page-72-5)} or high temporal resolution of the particle number distribution.^{[\[66\]](#page-72-6)} Although these studies do allow for significant insight into particle emission levels, they fail to capture how a vehicle is operating – and what the vehicle is subsequently emitting – under realworld conditions at key points in time.

1.5.2 Particle Size Distributions from Spark-Ignition Engines

Many previous studies have looked at particle size distributions from SI engines. Most of these studies either lack high temporal resolution or bin particles based on broad sizing classifications due to limitations in the available instrumentation. Quantifying these real-world particle distributions with high temporal resolution is essential. Particle number distributions may change under different operating parameters. Cold ambient temperatures have been found to increase the number of particles in the nuclei mode^{[\[36,](#page-70-10) [37\]](#page-71-0)} while having little effect on solid particles.^{[\[37\]](#page-71-0)} These increases due to temperature have often been sufficiently small, however, to make a direct correlation to ambient temperature difficult,^{[\[37\]](#page-71-0)} necessitating further study. Roadside measurements have found particle diameter modes to be between 60 and 100 nm during high concentration events $(> 10^6$ particles/cc) and less than 60 nm during lower concentration events ($< 50,000$ particles/cc), which accounted for 80% of the cases studied.^{[\[64\]](#page-72-4)} The smaller sizes during lower concentrations was attributed to few particle interaction effects, such as coagulation and adsorption, whereas higher concentrations encourage particle growth.^{[\[26,](#page-70-3) [64\]](#page-72-4)} Urban ambient traffic measurements were shown to have a primary particle diameter mode between 10 and 20 nm with a second smaller mode around 80 nm.[\[66\]](#page-72-6) Particle numbers were shown to increase under freeway speeds (150 km/h) for diameters between 7 and 200 nm with the greatest increase in concentrations between 10 and 60 nm.[\[66\]](#page-72-6)

1.5.3 Particle Number Emissions from Light-Duty Hybrid-Electric Vehicles

Few studies of particle number emissions from hybrid gasoline-electric light-duty vehicles exist. One laboratory study compared emissions and fuel economy from four different models of lightduty hybrids (two series-parallel hybrids and two parallel hybrids). Reported particle number emission rate patterns were similar to those documented for conventional vehicles: emission rates increased during acceleration events, transient operating events and with increasing vehicle speed.^{[\[26\]](#page-70-3)} Two of the four hybrid vehicles studied by Christenson et al. (2007) had the capability to shut down the ICE for electric-only low power, low speed operation (Toyota Prius and Ford Escape).^{[\[26\]](#page-70-3)} The observed emission patterns differed between CV and HEV because particle emission rates were at ambient background levels during periods of electric-drive-only operation for the HEV.^{[\[26\]](#page-70-3)} Furthermore, the frequency of occurrence of electric-only HEV operating events varied with ambient temperature, as discussed above. Lower ambient temperature (-18˚C) resulted in fewer electric-drive-only operating periods. For example, the Toyota Prius and Ford Explorer ICE operated in electric-only mode during the NYC cycle 66% and 55% of the time, respectively, at 20° C, compared to 20% and 18% at an ambient temperature of -18° C.^{[\[67\]](#page-72-7)} An unexpected result of this study was the magnitude of the HEV particle number emission rate when the engine restarted after the periods of electric-drive-only operation. These emissions could be several orders of magnitude higher than for the one CV studied (SmartCar) and lasted for several seconds.^{[\[26\]](#page-70-3)} Furthermore, HEV particle number emission rates were not higher at lower ambient temperatures, as expected, but the number distributions shifted to larger diameters under the colder test conditions (-18˚C). These larger particles were attributed to increased particle growth via adsorption and condensation at lower ambient temperature.^{[\[26\]](#page-70-3)}

The restarting of the hybrid vehicle's ICE, described as ICE restart, has been shown to cause HEEs. These HEEs typically last between 3-5 seconds,^{[\[26,](#page-70-3) [68\]](#page-72-8)} with peak emission rates reaching at least 3.5 $x10^{10}$ particles/second.^{[\[68\]](#page-72-8)} This ICE restart behavior has also been shown to increase particle number emissions, relative to comparable conventional vehicles, in city environments where a high number of ICE restarts occur.^{[\[68,](#page-72-8) [69\]](#page-72-9)} Furthermore, hybrid ICE restarts shift the number distributions to larger particles. A 10 nm mode is lacking for the hybrid vehicle when ICE restart data are separated from stabilized ICE data.^{[\[69\]](#page-72-9)}

1.5.4 Particle Number Emissions from HEVs: Lessons from The Literature

Previous HEV study results (from both light-duty and heavy-duty vehicles) highlight that percent reductions in exhaust emissions depend strongly on the make and model year of the baseline CV used for comparison. Furthermore, when sampling emissions from HEVs that allow for electriconly propulsion, it is important to use sampling techniques that will accurately quantify the elevated particle emissions associated with each ICE restart.^{[\[26\]](#page-70-3)} These high emission events are not surprising given that typical light-duty vehicle engine cold starts involve fuel-rich operating conditions that result in an increase in emitted unburned fuel, higher particle number emissions^{[\[32\]](#page-70-13)} and the formation of nanoparticles between 30 and 50 nanometers.^{[\[31\]](#page-70-14)} These nanoparticles decrease in number concentration quickly with increased distance from the roadway due to volatilization, coagulation and condensation,^{[\[70\]](#page-72-10)} but in city environments, pedestrians will be exposed to these particles almost immediately after they are emitted. Thus, it is important to collect temporally-and spatially-resolved data on exhaust particle number emissions from HEVs, preferably under realworld driving conditions, and compare these emissions to conventional vehicles of the same manufacturer and model. Only then can the actual real-world benefits of the hybrid-electric technology be quantified.

2. Research Methodology

2.1 TOTEMS and Real-World Measurement Study Design

2.1.1 Study Vehicles

Real-world tailpipe emissions data were collected with the Total On-Board Tailpipe Emissions Measurement System (TOTEMS) on two model year 2010 vehicles: Toyota Camry XLE (Conventional) and Toyota Camry Hybrid (**Figure 2-1**). The Toyota Camry vehicles were comparable in most aspects with identical frames, bodies, model years, emission control devices, and climate control systems. Some aspects of the vehicles differed slightly, like the drag coefficients, overall weight, suggested tire pressure, and fuel capacity. The largest discrepancies between the two test vehicles were the drive train and transmission systems. The Toyota Camry Hybrid employed a Toyota Hybrid Synergy Drive (HSD) system. Toyota's hybrid design included a series of batteries, two electric motors/generators, and a continuously variable transmission. Specifications for each vehicle were compiled in **Table 2-1** and emissions specifications are in Appendix I.

Figure 2-1. The Toyota Camry 2010 model year test vehicles with the XLE (left) and hybrid (right) packages.

For propulsion of the vehicles, the conventional vehicle employed a 2.5-liter Otto cycle engine^{[\[8\]](#page-69-7)} with a six speed automatic transmission rated at $22/32$ (city/highway) or 26 combined mile per gallon fuel economy. The Camry hybrid was rated at 33/34 (city/highway) or 34 combined fuel economy with a slightly smaller engine at 2.4-liters and, dissimilar to the conventional cycle, ran on the Atkinson cycle^{[\[8\]](#page-69-7)} Phase II emission ratings were applied to the 2010 vehicles, with the conventional designated an Ultra-Low Emission Vehicle II (ULEV II) rating and the hybrid assigned an Advanced Technology Partial Zero Emission Vehicle (AT-PZEV) rating.^{[\[71,](#page-72-11) [72\]](#page-72-12)} The AT-PZEV rating complies with Super Ultra Low Emission Vehicle II (SULEV II) emission standards with the additional benefits of a PZEV for employing technologies eliminating evaporative emissions and AT- for electric motor propulsion.

The Camry vehicles operated new, identical emission control devices including three-way catalysts and heated oxygen and air-to-fuel sensors. Though many newer MY vehicles employ electrically heated catalysts, the Toyota vehicles instead invest energy to precise stoichiometric control through heated oxygen and air-to-fuel sensors.^{[\[73\]](#page-72-13)} Toyota specified electric heating at 100% heater duty ratio during cold start, 0% to 100% during driving, 0% during high speed driving, and 40% to 50% during idle. [\[74\]](#page-72-14) Advances in Variable Valve Timing-intelligent (VVT-i) provided highly precise control of combustion stoichiometry in both vehicles. The technology controls timing of the intake and exhaust valves, fine tuning the engine out air-to-fuel ratio with feedback from the sensitive oxygen and air-to-fuel sensors. An optimal exhaust mix reaches the catalyst for further oxidation of carbon monoxide and hydrocarbons and reduction of oxides of nitrogen.

2.1.2 Sampling Runs and Data Collection Phases

Data were collected on a single vehicle over a number of replicates and then switched to the other vehicle, targeting the same season for each of the vehicles. This resulted in 75 sampling runs attempted, 32 in the conventional vehicle and 43 in the hybrid vehicle, identified by run numbers 5 through 79. Sampling techniques and equipment employed in this body of work were previously used on a Toyota Sienna minivan, responsible for sampling run identifiers 1 through 4, as part of a proof-of-concept study conducted before the Camry test vehicles were acquired (see [\[75\]](#page-72-15) for more information). A single sampling run constituted nine phases of data collection as outlined in **Table 2-2**.

Phase			
Number l		Shorthand Phase Identification	Description
	IB 1	Pre-Run Instrument Blank	Pre-sampling emissions instrumentation zero
	TB 1	Pre-Run Tunnel Blank	Pre-sampling ambient background measurement with vehicle off
	WARM	Warm-Up Driving	Journey to gas station and engine warm-up
	OUT	Outbound Phase	Stabilized data collection: Burlington city loop to Richmond via I-89
	PARK	Park-and-Ride	Idle at Richmond Park-and-Ride for at least one minute
6	IN	Inbound Phase	Stabilized data collection: Richmond to Burlington via state and local roads
	POST	Post Route Travel	Votey Hall to gas station and back
8	TB 1	Post-Run Tunnel Blank	Post-sampling ambient background measurement with vehicle off
	IB 1		Post-Run Instrument Blank Post-sampling emissions instrumentation zero

Table 2-2. Sampling Run Data Collection Phases

The *instrument* and *tunnel* blank phases both before and after a sampling run fulfilled quality assurance and quality control measures for all sampling events, discussed in further detail in **Section 2.4** of this document. The *warm-up* phase of data collection included the cold start of the vehicle, the journey to the gas station to fill the gasoline tank, and driving a short, 2.5 mile loop to allow the vehicle's engine to sufficiently warm-up and reach stabilized operation. Data collection was initiated on all instruments before or during the *warm-up* phase, as to have everything running continuously when the vehicle passed the run starting location of Votey Hall on the University of Vermont campus. The *outbound* phase of data collection was conducted from Votey Hall, through downtown Burlington (*city*), and out to Richmond via Interstate 89 (*highway*). An idle event lasting at least one minute took place at the *park-andride* facility in Richmond. Stabilized data collection was continued on an *inbound* route back to Burlington through Richmond and Williston via state and local roads (*arterial*). A short *post*-*run* trip to and from the gas station followed the sample route completion at Votey Hall and allowed for data collection to cease and instrument data to be saved.

2.1.3 Driving Route

A fixed 32-mile route in Chittenden County (**Figure 2-2**) included various facility types (urban arterial, rural arterial, interstate highway, state highway), traffic conditions, and terrain (road grade shown by color indication). The route depicted in **Figure 2-2** encompasses the hot-stabilized emissions data collection during *outbound* and *inbound* run phases, described above. The primary goal of the route selection was to reflect real-world driving over a variety of facility types with hilly terrain. The turn-by-turn directions for the route are included in **Appendix C**.

Figure 2-2. Thirty-two mile driving route including facilities outbound through downtown Burlington, VT and southbound Interstate 89 to Richmond, VT, and facilities inbound over rural and suburban arterials and collectors. Varying terrain represented by broad range of road grades (color indicated) along different facility types.

2.1.4 Sampling Schedule

To collect comparable data between the two vehicles over a broad range of temperatures and humidity, sampling continued from February 2010 to September 2011. Average run temperatures ranged from -13 $^{\circ}$ C to 40 $^{\circ}$ C with relative humidity ranging from 19% to 90%, with comparable ranges for each vehicle type illustrated in **Figure 2-3**. Seasonal temperature classes were defined by the quartiles of the temperature distribution for all runs: cold ($\leq 5^{\circ}C$), cool ($5 \leq T < 22^{\circ}$ C), warm ($22 \leq T < 29^{\circ}$ C), and hot ($T \leq 29^{\circ}$ C). All data for a test run were binned to one of four temperature classes based on the mean run ambient air temperature for later analysis by season. A complete tabulated summary of all sampling runs is included in **Appendix A**.

Sampling was conducted at varying times of day to capture the different traffic congestion levels and traffic patterns during peak and off-peak times throughout the daylight hours. Sample time of day (**Figure 2-4**) ranged from 8:00 AM to 8:00 PM with sufficient data across the range to account for variability due to traffic fluctuations. TOTEMS was only deployed in the vehicles with dry road conditions as a safety precaution for both researchers and instrumentation.

Figure 2-3. Ambient temperature and relative humidity for all sampling runs from the 18 month study with sampling run number identifiers. Orange squares indicate mean HEV ambient conditions and blue circles indicate mean CV ambient conditions, with error bars representing the standard deviation during the sampling run. Dashed horizontal lines indicate the temperature bin delineations for each season.

2.1.5 Total On-Board Tailpipe Emissions Measurement System (TOTEMS)

TOTEMS, a suite of 30 on-board components, collected real-time, second-by-second parameters characterizing the vehicle's gas-phase and particle number emissions, exhaust characteristics (flow rate and temperature), vehicle operation, spatial location, ambient conditions, road network features, and traffic environment during real-world driving. An exhaustive list of TOTEMS components in **Table 2-3**, an associated diagram of sample and data transfer through the system (**Figure 2-5**), and a series of photographs depicting the actual implementation in the equipped vehicles in **Figure 2-6** illustrate the setup of TOTEMS for sampling.

Figure 2-4. Data collection time of day for the full sampling campaign across 75 sampling runs.

TOTEMS Power Supply

TOTEMS utilized two Lifeline GPL-8DA absorbent glass mat lead-acid batteries, with 12-volt and 255 Amp-hour ratings, as the power supply separate from the vehicle batteries. The configuration prevented artificial loading of the engine during sampling. Power delivered by the two batteries was passed through the Vector 2500-watt power inverter. A GoPower automatic transfer switch (ATS) allowed for an uninterrupted transition from grid power to

on-board power, conserving batteries for use only while the vehicle was driving the route. Additionally, a small 12-volt Optima battery powered the differential pressure transducers and their DAQCard connector block directly.

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Figure 2-5. Diagram of TOTEMS instrumentation during onboard data collection numbered according to Table 2-3. Note the power supply system is not shown here. Photo credits in numerical order include: http://www.mksinst.com/, http://www.skcinc.com/pumps.asp, http://www.tsi.com/, Scott Quinn (UVM URA), http://www.omega.com/, https://techinfo.toyota.com/, http://www.garmin.com/, http://www.onsetcomp.com/, http://www.usa.canon.com/, http://www.dell.com/, http://www.ni.com/.

Figure 2-6. TOTEMS equipped vehicle with associated components numbered according to Table 2-3

2.1.6 Exhaust Characteristics and Sample Transfer Lines

A custom-built tailpipe adapter, **Figure 2-7** with flow directed from right to left, extended the factory tailpipe of the testing vehicle to facilitate collection of emissions samples and characterization of exhaust temperature and flow rate in the tailpipe. Four ports on the tailpipe adapter accommodated (a) a pitot tube connected to four differential pressure transducers, (b) a line to the static pressure sensor, (c) a thermocouple, and (d) a sampling probe connected to a heated line for transfer of continuous samples from the tailpipe adapter to the emission analyzers.

Figure 2-7. Tailpipe adapter with three of the four sampling ports shown (static pressure port located on the near side of the tailpipe adapter 90° from the thermocouple port; missing here to facilitate the cutaway view). Drawing Credit: Scott Quinn.

The pitot tube and series of four differential pressure transducers were used to derive exhaust flow rate. Each of the four Omega PX-277 differential pressure transducers were adjusted to account for a specific range of the flow regime experienced at the tailpipe of these light-duty vehicles. The differential pressure voltage signals were recorded using the secondary Labview connector block (L2) and data acquisition card (DAQCard-6024E). Calibrations of the pitot tube were conducted each time TOTEMS was transferred to a different vehicle to account for any changes in configuration of the pitot tube. Calibration assays are presented in more detail in **Section 2.6** of this document and in **Appendix D**.

A static pressure sensor verified that samples were collected from the tailpipe near ambient pressures. The port for the static pressure was positioned 90° from the thermocouple connector. A line from the tailpipe port was connected to an Omega PX181-030G5V static pressure transducer. The signal voltage was collected by the primary Labview connector block (L1) and interpreted using a DAQCard-6024E.

An Omega Type J thermocouple measured exhaust temperature at the end of the tailpipe. The voltage signal from the thermocouple was collected and recorded with the primary connector block (L1) and data acquisition card, as with the static pressure sensor. For occurrences of the tailpipe thermocouple malfunctioning, an estimated exhaust temperature was computed as outlined in **Section 2.6** of this document.

The sampling probe was a 3/8" outer diameter perforated stainless steel tube that spanned the 1-13/16" inner diameter of the tailpipe adapter perpendicular to flow. To continuously transport a heated exhaust sample to the emissions analyzer instruments inside the vehicle, the sampling probe was connected to a 3/8"-diameter flexible, smooth, thin-walled, stainless steel heated line. The custom manufactured heated line (Atmoseal Model: IGH-120-S-6/X-G13) was strung through a hole in the bottom of the spare wheel well in the trunk of the testing vehicle. The 10-foot length of the stainless steel insulated line was heated with a control box at 191°C to deliver the sample at constant conditions to the emissions instrumentation.

2.1.7 Recording Vehicle Operating Parameters

Toyota Techstream**®** software in combination with a Drew Technologies Mongoose scantool communicated with the vehicle engine control unit (ECU) to measure engine and vehicle operating parameters. Parameter selection was based on information explaining the state of the vehicle's operation at a given second, with focus on the parameters with known or proposed causality to emission output. General operating parameters were selected for both vehicle systems where available, including the parameters displayed in non-italicized text in Table 2-4. Parameters specific to either the HEV or the CV are tabulated as italicized text in Table 2-4. Fuel injection volume, air-to-fuel (A/F) ratio, and mass air flow (MAF) were selected for the conventional vehicle, due to known relationships between air and fuel composition in the engine and resulting emissions. Catalyst temperature was selected for the conventional vehicle as a pertinent factor in efficiency of the emission control devices and resulting emissions. Need for a comprehensive measure of the hybrid system operation led to the selection of the additional hybrid parameters (italicized in Table 2-4) to compute the hybrid system contribution to the ICE during operation. Limitations in the Techstream software prevented simultaneous collection of engine operating parameters from the ECU (i.e., catalyst temperature and air-to-fuel ratio) and HEV control parameters (battery SOC and regenerative braking).

Spatial Location

Two Global Positioning System (GPS) receivers collected spatial data on the latitudinal and longitudinal position of the vehicle along the driving route. Roof-mounted Garmin GPS16- HVS and Geostats Geologger DL04 V2.4 antennas were linked to Fugawi software and a Geologger data acquisition unit, respectively. Each unit collected second-by-second latitude, longitude, and speed.

Acceleration

Instantaneous accelerations along three axes were collected with a Crossbow CXLO2LF3 accelerometer. The accelerometer provided an independent measure of acceleration experienced in the vehicle, as opposed to derived accelerations from scantool and GPS measured velocities. The primary Labview (L1) connector block and data acquisition card recorded raw Crossbow acceleration signals, along with the thermocouple temperatures and static pressure.

Ambient Conditions

Onset HOBO U23-001 loggers positioned on the roof of the vehicle and inside the cabin of the vehicle measured temperature and relative humidity. The purpose of the exterior logger was to collect ambient conditions over the driving route. TOTEMS instrumentation performance may be influenced by temperature; therefore, the interior logger monitored the temperature and relative humidity that TOTEMS instruments experienced within the vehicle.

Table 2-4. Conventional and Hybrid Electric Operation Parameters from Scantool

2.1.8 Road Grade

Road grade was a significant road network feature to be considered in this analysis. Grade was collected for the driving route by the Vermont Agency of Transportation using an Automatic Road Analyzer (ARAN) vehicle in the Fall of 2009. The vehicle collected grade and GPS location every 10 meters to provide a spatially resolved road grade data set. The ARAN vehicle employed integrated gyroscopes measuring attitude of the vehicle in space, sonar based sensors measuring vehicle orientation in reference to the road surface, GPS units measuring spatial location, and a camera collecting pictures at each measurement location to derive pitch, roll, heading, cross-fall, grade, latitude, longitude, and graphic route chronology. The ARAN data were joined to the 1-hertz TOTEMS data via the nearest GPS position.

2.2 Particle Number Emissions Measurement

2.2.1 Particle Number Instrumentation Operating Principles.

Two particle measurement instruments were used in the study because of limitations associated with each. Particle Number Distributions were counted $(t + 20\%$ accuracy in concentration) and sized $(\pm 10\%$ accuracy in particle diameter) with the TSI, Inc. (Shoreview, Minnesota) Model 3090 Engine Exhaust Particle Sizer Spectrometer (EEPS). A 1 micrometer cut cyclone is placed on the inlet of the EEPS to remove large particles above the detectable range of 5.6 to 562 nanometers. The EEPS operates to separate particles in a polydisperse aerosol using the theory of electrical mobility (TSI, 2006). As particles flow into the instrument, they pass through a positively charged ion cloud which applies a positive charge to the particles to (a) remove any excessive negative charge on the particles, and (b) reduce the potential for overcharging by the subsequent negative charger. The particles then flow through a negatively charged electron cloud – which applies a predictable charge based on particle size – and then enter the electrometer column. In this column, there are 24 electrometer rings, 22 of which actively detect particles while the upper two act as spacers at the top of the column. A reverse differential mobility analyzer (DMA) is placed as a central rod in the column. The DMA deflects the particles outward towards the 22 active rings. The active rings measure the discharged current (in fempto amps) across 32 different particle diameter channels (channel widths are provided in Table F.1 in Appendix F and are equally spaced on a log scale). The diameter midpoint of each channel is the reported particle size. The EEPS can record particle number distribution data at a rate of 10 Hertz, but values were recorded here at a 1 Hertz rate. The 1 Hertz measurements represent discrete average of the ten measurements within a given second^{[\[76\]](#page-72-16)}. The EEPS samples at 10 lpm with 8 lpm traveling through the electrometer column. Two liters per minute are removed at the top-center of the electrometer column as extraction flow because the charging is less uniform here.

A TSI, Inc. (Shoreview, Minnesota) Model 3025A Ultrafine Condensation Particle Counter (UCPC) was used in parallel with the EEPS to count the total particles in vehicle exhaust every second. The UCPC was used partly because of accuracy limitations of the EEPS, but also to validate the EEPS concentration and to compare results to previous on-board studies. The UCPC samples at a flowrate of 1.5 Lpm and counts all the particles in the diameter range of 3 to 3000 nanometers at a 1 Hz rate.

The UCPC counts particles by first sending the aerosol through a 37° C saturator filled with butanol-laden air. The butanol condenses at 10˚C onto the particles in the condenser chamber, growing them to a light-scattering detectable size. After the aerosol passes through the condenser chamber, it passes through an optical laser detector, using light scattering to count the particles.

The limitations of the EEPS necessitated the addition of the UCPC to the TOTEMS system. The EEPS has limited accuracy $(\pm 20\%)$, which further deteriorates at low concentrations, but the EEPS is capable of sizing particles $(\pm 10\%)$ at a 1 Hz rate. Additionally, the EEPS has very high maximum reported detection limits (RDL), making it ideal for sampling particle number emissions from vehicles. The EEPS RDLs are variable, depending on the particle size and averaging time selected. The selected time averaging interval (0.1 Hz, 1 Hz or 10 Hz) affects the RDLs for minimum concentrations, but the maximum concentration RDLs remain constant for each channel regardless of averaging interval. Specific detection limits are not provided by TSI, but are instead plotted for reference in the **Appendix F** [\[76\]](#page-72-16) . The minimum and maximum channel limits form a linear line on a log-log axis plot and are equally spaced. The maximum concentration limits are $10⁷$ #/cc at channel 1 (channel midpoint: 6.04 nm) and 10⁵ #/cc for channel 32 (channel midpoint: 523 nm). At the 1 Hz averaging rate, the minimum detection limits are approximately 130 #/cc for channel 1 and 30 #/cc in channel 32. The EEPS is also sensitive to road vibrations, further limiting its accuracy for low concentrations. The UCPC has no minimum detection limit, but does have a maximum limit of 99,900 #/cc. Even with dilution, this is often exceeded while sampling vehicle emissions. Furthermore, the UCPC only provides total particle counts and does not perform particle sizing. It does however, provide much greater accuracy (detection efficiency of 90% at and above 5 nanometers) and is not sensitive to road vibrations. Because the EEPS and UCPC total

particle number concentrations track well together^{[\[23\]](#page-70-0)}, UCPC data at the maximum limit can be extrapolated to the higher concentrations based on EEPS data (more detail is provided in the Appendix F).

2.2.2 Particle Sample Transfer and Dilution

The raw exhaust sample transported by the heated line into the vehicles was split between the gas- and particle-phase instrumentation. Prior to introduction into the particle emissions instrumentation, the raw sample was diluted with a two-stage dilution system. The firststage dilution is performed by a Matter Engineering MD19-2E Rotating Disk Mini-Diluter. The MD19-2E included a peristaltic pump that draws raw exhaust through the heated line at 1 lpm. The raw exhaust was diluted using a 10-cavity disk, and the potentiometer – which controls the rotation rate of the disk – was set to 100% (minimum dilution). The dilution air heating element was set to 80˚C to prevent condensation during dilution. A first-stage dilution factor (total volume/exhaust volume) of 15.23 was therefore used, and was determined using the following equation^{[\[77\]](#page-72-17)}:

$$
DF = \frac{X \cdot CF}{pot\%}
$$

2

where: $X =$ instrument specific calibration factor (1523 for 10-cavity disk)^{[\[78\]](#page-73-0)} $CF = temperature correction factor (1.00 for a setting of 80°C)$ pot% = the MD19-2E potentiometer setting (100 was used)

The Air Supply Evaporation Tube (ASET 15-1) – specifically designed to work alongside the MD19-2E to supply first-stage and second-stage dilution in one self-contained device – provided second-stage dilution for the vehicle exhaust. The ASET, which is necessary to overcome the maximum flow rate output limit of 5 lpm for the MD19-2E, draws first-stage diluted exhaust from the MD19-2E at 1.5 lpm into the evaporation tube set to 50˚C (to minimize thermophoretic losses). At the end of the evaporation tube is a cell where the second-stage dilution occurs. The potentiometer on the ASET was set to 7.1, meaning the second-stage dilution ratio was 1:7.1 (it's a one-to-one correlation between potentiometer setting and dilution factor). The second-stage dilution ratio of 1:7.1 was determined by the flow rates required by the instruments connected to the dilution system. Therefore, the total dilution ratio for the raw exhaust was 15.23 (first stage) times 7.1 (second stage), for the total of 1:108 (1 part raw exhaust to 108 parts dilution air).

From the outlet of the ASET, the diluted exhaust traveled through a 76 centimeter long section of 0.64 centimeter silicone conductive tubing (TSI, Inc.), which connected to a stainless steel Swagelok fitting. From this Swagelok fitting, the exhaust was split, first to the EEPS at 10.0 lpm, then to the UCPC at 1.5 lpm. The length of silicone conductive tubing (134 centimeters from Swagelok fitting to instrument) carrying the exhaust to the EEPS and UCPC was the same length to minimize artifacts from diffusive losses.

2.2.3 Particle Data Recording

The Dell Optiplex GX620 with a Pentium D central processing unit was used to record all particle-related emissions data used in the analysis. The EEPS data was recorded to the computer using TSI EEPS version 3.1.0 software, and the UCPC data was recorded to the PC using TSI AIM version 5.2.0 software.

2.2.4 Particle Instrumentation Vibration Mounts

Anti-vibration platforms were constructed for both the EEPS and UCPC to minimize inaccuracy and instrument error resulting from vibration while driving. The instrument platform for the UCPC uses 6 natural rubber mounts, and because the UCPC is influenced little by vibrations, these mounts serve to help minimize instrument malfunctions that could result from being jostled. The EEPS is mounted on 10 silicone gel mounts, which reduced electrometer noise caused by driving by 64%. The noise reduction was quantified by driving the route with the HEPA filter on the inlet of the EEPS over multiple runs (meaning electrometer noise was the result of electrometer particle counts). Two runs were performed without the platform and two runs were performed with the platform. The percent reduction was then quantified using Equation 3 on the total particle counts.

% Reduction =
$$
\left[\frac{no_{platform} - platform}{no_{platform}} \right] * 100
$$

3

2.3 Gas-Phase Emissions

A commercially available Fourier transform infrared spectrometer analyzed tailpipe samples for gas-phase pollutants from the test vehicles. The MKS MultiGas 2030 high-speed analyzer, designed for fuel combustion applications, specifically for diesel and gasoline engines, was used for both qualitative and quantitative gas-phase emissions data collection.

2.3.1 FTIR Operating Principles

Growing applications for quantitative methods with IR spectroscopy have developed recently with the desire to differentiate and quantify constituents in atmospheric or more complex samples.^{[\[79\]](#page-73-1)} In infrared spectroscopy, compounds have a distinctive set of absorption features in the infrared portion of the electromagnetic spectrum resulting from the vibrational or rotational frequency of the molecule. As molecules become more complex, their vibrations depend on the interactions of many charge center which limits the ability to identify the unique absorption of the molecule and estimate its concentration.^{[\[79\]](#page-73-1)} Further complexity occurs in a mixture of compounds such as vehicle exhaust, where analytes may be identified, but difficult to quantify because the absorption at a given wavelength may be attributed to multiple constituents. [\[79\]](#page-73-1)

In Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR), the principles of infrared spectroscopy are applied to a unique method in which all of the frequencies across a range of IR are simultaneously detected. The advantages of FTIR over other infrared devices include improved throughput, known as the Jacquinot advantage, and multiplex design, known as the Fellgett advantage.^{[\[80\]](#page-73-2)} In traditional dispersive instruments, a narrow wavenumber range interacts with the sample, effectively limiting the light intensity reaching the detector. Although some of these instruments scan through a wide range of wavenumbers, the temporal resolution is limited, as single observations for a given wavenumber only exist for a small portion of the full sampling time.^{[\[80\]](#page-73-2)}

In FTIR, an infrared source produces radiation directed into an interferometer, where the beam is split, reflected, and recombined. Splitting the beam allows approximately half of the signal to be reflected on a fixed mirror and half on a moving mirror. The position of the moving mirror is known precisely, and as it translates produces a signal that has a varying phase pattern. The signal reflected on the moving mirror is then recombined with the signal reflected from the fixed mirror, producing a modulated signal with peaks and troughs altered based on the interference of the two beams. In-phase signals constructively interfere, increasing the magnitude of peaks and troughs, whereas out-of-phase signals destructively interfere, canceling the recombined signals out. The interferometer produces a modulated signal ranging from completely constructive to completely destructive interferences between the two signals, referred to as an interferogram. It is this signal that is passed through a gas sample. A detector captures the resulting range of infrared frequencies simultaneously. The signal reaching the detector is encoded with the absorption of compounds in the sample across the wide range of frequencies in the modulated signal. The Fourier transform is used to decode the summation of signals, which contains all of the intensity information across the wavenumber range of interest. The transform produces a single beam spectrum, indicating transmittance across the wavenumber region.

The signal passed through the gas cell is compared to a reference signal with nitrogen (N_2 and other homonuclear molecules non-detectable in the IR spectrum) in the gas cell. The comparison allows for conversion to absorbance of the particular gas compound of interest. Gas concentrations are quantified by comparison of the absorbance fingerprint to internal calibration curves of individual gas absorbance and concentration. Spectral regions used to quantify gases are selected to avoid interferences between gases with similar spectral identities.

2.3.2 MultiGas 2030 HS Gas Analyzer

A commercially available FTIR, the MKS MultiGas 2030 High-Speed Gas Analyzer, was used to collect near second-by-second spectral data from the tailpipe samples and quantify a large selection of gas-phase pollutants. The MKS unit operates with an infrared source of silicon carbide at 1200°C passed into the 200-milliliter (mL) volume gas cell through potassium bromide (KBr) windows and along the 5.11-meter path length reflected on goldplated mirrors. A liquid nitrogen cooled mercury cadmium telluride detector interprets the signal after it has passed through the gas mixture.

In this application, the MKS MultiGas simultaneously quantified 30 gas-phase constituents, (31 data columns with CO reported in both parts-per-million and percent measures, see **Table 2-5**). Calibration curves internal to the MultiGas 2000 software (and reported in **Appendix E**) were referenced to convert the Fourier transformed absorbance of each compound in the IR spectra to a volumetric concentration by the Beer-Lambert Law

Classical Least Squares (CLS) method. The resulting compound quantification was reported at near one-second (0.98 seconds) temporal resolution.

	rumutants	FUITING	Structure	rumutants		rumura	Suucture
Gases Greenhouse	Methane	CH ₄			Ethane	C_2H_6	
	Carbon Dioxide	CO ₂	0 ⁰	Alkanes	Propane	C_3H_8	
	Nitrous Oxide	N_2O	$N = N$		Octane	C_8H_{18}	
Ambient Air Standards National Quality	Carbon Monoxide	CO	$o = c^*$		IsoOctane	C_8H_{18}	
	Nitric Oxide	NO	N [*] =0	Alkenes	Ethylene	C_2H_4	
	Nitrogen Dioxide	NO ₂	$o \ll_{\sf N} \ll 0$		Propylene	C_3H_6	
	Sulfur Dioxide	SO ₂	$^{\circ}$ s \approx s $^{\circ}$		2-Methylpropene	C_4H_8	
Mobile Source Air Toxics	Formaldehyde	CH ₂ O		Allene	1,2-Propadiene	C_3H_4	
	Acetaldehyde	C_2H_4O	۰٥	Alkynes	Acetylene	C_2H_2	
	Acrolein	C_3H_4O	о		Propyne	C_3H_4	
	1,3-Butadiene	C_4H_6			Toluene	C_7H_8	
	Benzene	C_6H_6		Arom atics	m-Xylene	C_8H_{10}	
Alcohols	Methanol	CH ₄ O			1,2,4-Trimethylbenzene	C_9H_{12}	
	Ethanol	C_2H_6O	OH		1,3,5-Trimethylbenzene	C_9H_{12}	
Misc	Water	H ₂ O	HÍ		Ammonia	NH ₃	

Table 2-5. Gas-phase Constituents Analyzed by FTIR Method with Associated Structures -4.4 and -4.4 and -4.4

2.3.3 Gas-Phase Sample Handling

Condensed water and particulate present in the gas cell would interfere significantly with FTIR analysis. Maintaining high temperature samples (analyzed at 191°C) prevents water vapor from condensing in the gas cell, protecting the KBr windows from pitting and other damage. Particles could interfere with the signal passing through the gas cell either by remaining suspended and interfering with the signal as it passes through the sample cell or by accumulating on the sensitive sample cell mirrors and disrupting the reflection of the signal. To remove particles of concern from raw exhaust samples, a 2.0-micron particulate filter (Fiberfilm Pall Teflo Filters, United Filtration Systems T60A20-47) in-line with a 0.1 micron cartridge filter (Disposable Filter Elements, United Filtration Systems 12-57-50S21- R) was positioned at the inlet of the FTIR. The stainless steel filter housings were insulated with high heat insulation foam to ensure minimal heat loss as the filtered sample was transferred into the instrument from a heated line, delivering continuous exhaust samples
from the tailpipe of the vehicle. The filters were exchanged for new filters each time TOTEMS was transferred to a different vehicle.

A personal sampling pump, the SKC Leland Legacy, drew tailpipe emission samples through the FTIR instrument at an adjustable 5 to 15 liters per minute on a self-contained battery pack. A set rate of 13-liters per minute, with considerations of tubing and filter resistances, achieved a flow rate of 12-liters per minute through the FTIR. Flow through the instrument was independently verified with a TSI digital flow meter. The sample had a one-second cell residence time as a result of the chosen flow rate and the known sample cell volume of 200 mL. A series of two water condensate traps, Nalgene bottles wrapped in ice packs, were positioned at the pump inlet to cool and condense the analyzed exhaust sample, preventing water damage to the pump.

2.3.4 Gas Species Quantification

The MKS MultiGas instrument quantification method was determined by the manufacturer according to spectra data collected in the Signature Project 2 Proof of Concept with the 1999 Toyota Sienna minivan and checked against preliminary data from the 2010 Toyota Camry conventional vehicle. The selected 31 gases provided a robust method of compounds expected in the exhaust sample. Quantification regions were assigned to each compound in the infrared spectra where there are features resulting from the absorbance of that species, commonly referred to as an IR fingerprint. Interferences between compounds in a selected quantification region were rectified by selection of narrower analysis bands, a process known as picket-fencing. Most of the compounds in the method were cross-checked for interference with H_2O and CO_2 , as they are broad absorbers and notorious interferences in infrared analysis. The final analysis bands selected for each gas are represented in **Figure 2-8** with lower and upper bounds of each analysis band plotted. Additionally, algorithms used to analyze the spectra accounted for compounds absorbing in overlapping ranges, or "crosstalk" between compounds. It was important that the analysis bands were verified and that crosstalk, which can be quantified as residual in the MG2000 software, was minimized for each compound. It is reasonable to have residuals less than 0.005 absorbance units.

Figure 2-8. MKS MultiGas lower and upper wavenumbers for analysis bands selected from the quantification regions.

The analysis bands were selected from regions depicted in the calibration files of each of the analytes in the quantification method and reported in **Appendix E**.

Specifications of the FTIR were checked before and after each sampling run to make certain of consistent instrument behavior over the course of the study. Before the background was commenced for each run, the instrument monitor, peak analysis, and signal-to-noise functions verified instrument specifications. The instrument monitor assured a dry sample cell void of any contaminant signal and the health of the interferogram. Peak analysis data were tabulated as a check of the laser frequency and a water peak with a trace amount of water in the sample cell (fullwidth half-height (FWHH), frequency, peak absorbance units). Additionally, the signal-to-noise analyzer measured the noise of the signal over a selection of wavenumber ranges across the pertinent spectra (1000 to 1100 cm⁻¹, 2100 to 2200 cm⁻¹, and 2900 to 3000 cm⁻¹). The specifications checks were conducted in reverse order following a run to account for any drift that may have occurred during the run. Potential for damage to the sensitive components in the FTIR was highest during sampling, making post-run specification checks a means of documenting any potential compromise to the instrument while sampling exhaust. The specification check data for each run are tabulated and included in the **Appendix E**.

2.4 TOTEMS Quality Assurance and Quality Control (QA/QC) Procedures

2.4.1 Instrument and Tunnel Blanks

QA/QC procedures ensured that the TOTEMS instrumentation was consistently and accurately measuring parameters from day-to-day, both before and after each of the sampling runs. Additionally, the procedures established background measures on the instruments to ensure analysis was only of contributions by the vehicle. The QA/QC measures included acquisition of:

(1) A *background*, or zero quantity for all gas- and particle-phase constituents. For the FTIR, this required the sample cell and inlet/outlet to be void of detectable constituents (nitrogen). This background series of spectra were referenced throughout the data collection period. For the EEPS, this required a zeroing of the electrometer rings while on clean air (HEPA) to ensure any residual particulate or charges were accounted for in any new measurements. Zeroing the electrometers reduced noise and artificial particle counts caused by electrical noise and mechanical vibrations. During the 45 second zeroing period, particle counts were assumed to be only instrument noise. From the data collected during the zeroing period, the EEPS calculated offsets independently for each electrometer and applies the offsets to every data point when sampling.

(2) A ten-minute *instrument blank* data collection period with the FTIR sample cell and inlet/outlet void of detectable constituents (nitrogen) and the EEPS and CPC on inlet HEPA air to assess the noise of each of the instruments.

(3) A ten-minute *tunnel blank* data collection period with the emissions instrumentation plumbed into the TOTEMS system, drawing samples through the tailpipe adapter but with the vehicle off, to quantify an ambient background measure of any trace contaminants in the system and assess the noise of the instruments with sample flow. This required the FTIR and SKC pump to running draw sample through the gas-phase system and the EEPS and CPC running in conjunction with the dilution system (MD-19/ASET) set at the proper settings.

These procedures were conducted in reverse order following each run.

2.4.2 Detection Limits and Blank Correction

A detection limit for each of the particle number size bins, total particle number measurements, and gas constituents accounted for the noise of the tailpipe sample measurements. Detection limits (DL) were calculated as a background measurement by the average of the tunnel blank data (pre- and post- run for the gas-phase measurements; pretunnel only for the particle measurements) plus three times the standard deviation of the tunnel blank data for a given sampling run as outlined in Equation 4.

$$
DL_i = \overline{TB_i} + 3 * \sigma_{TB_i}
$$

4

where: TB_i = mean of pre- or pre- and post-run tunnel blank data for given run i $\sigma_{T\!B_i}^{\phantom i}$ = standard deviation of tunnel blank data for given run i

Subtracting the detection limit from the gas- or particle-phase measured concentrations accounted for the noise in the measurement and any ambient background presence of a pollutant, effectively excluding instrument noise and background measures from any further analysis. This blank correction was applied to all raw emissions concentrations before calculating emission rates (outlined in Section 2.6).

Given that the EEPS channels each have a different acceptable electrometer noise level, blank correction was applied on a channel-by-channel basis. **Error! Reference source not found. Figure 2-9** shows an example of the noise that was subtracted from the particle number concentrations from one run as a function of particle diameter.

Figure 2-9. Run 7 EEPS noise correction showing the mean tunnel blank plus 3σ from each run subtracted off the EEPS raw data. "Mean of noise" is the calculated mean of the Run 7 tunnel blank (μ), "standard deviation" is the standard deviation of the tunnel blank (σ), and "subtracted noise" is μ + 3σ, which is subtracted from the 1 Hz EEPS run data.

2.5 TOTEMS Data Compilation and Post-Processing Methods

2.5.1 Time Alignment of Sub-Second Data

Alignment of data according to the time stamp was the first step in preparation for analysis. Data from the scantool and FTIR were recorded with sub-second time stamps, requiring adjustment to match the one-hertz data from all of the other TOTEMS instruments. The FTIR data were generated at a 0.98 second interval and reported to millisecond precision. To align the gas-phase data with the other instrument parameters, each record was rounded to the closest whole second and multiple records for a single time stamp were discretely averaged. Scantool parameters were recorded at inconsistent time intervals, ranging typically from 3 to 60 Hz intervals. These data were handled in the same fashion, rounded to the closest whole second with multiple records for a common time stamp discretely averaged. Aggregated scantool and FTIR data were then time-stamp aligned with all other data recorded with second-by-second resolution.

2.5.2 Lag Adjustment

Time-resolved vehicle emissions data posed a unique challenge in terms of aligning instantaneous vehicle operation parameters with associated emission events. Although data from each of the instruments was compiled by the second-by-second time stamp associated with each recorded measurement, additional consideration of the lag associated with a given parameter due to sample transfer or signal processing must be accounted for to make associations between parameters. For instance, a simple time stamp alignment would inaccurately associate engine functions (i.e. fuel injection or engine speed) with gas-phase tailpipe exhaust analysis. Lag adjustments were necessary due to two general considerations: (1) physical lag due to flow of a sample volume from the engine through the vehicle's exhaust system (engine to tailpipe) and from the tailpipe to each of the analysis instruments (tailpipe to instrument); and (2) computational or instrument response lag to account for the delay between an event and the time stamp assigned to the event within a data file.

Though lag adjustments existed in two forms, alignment for each instrument was treated as a single lag adjustment value for a given run phase (inbound and outbound). Lags were applied sequentially to different data subsets as **Table 2-6** identifies the stationary instrument (*Instrument A*) and the lag-adjusted instrument (*Instrument B*) with the corresponding parameters used for each step of lag adjustment. Pearson's correlations were calculated between Parameters A and B while varying the lag adjustments (i.e. t+1, t+2, etc.) on Parameter B in Matlab 7.10.0. The optimal Pearson's correlation coefficient between each set of *Parameters A* and *B* by run phase determined the corresponding lag adjustment ultimately assigned to *Instrument B*.

Table 2-6. Lag Adjustments by Pearson's Correlation (* indicates parameters that are defined in Section 2.6)

Additional considerations of lag adjustment for the GPS units were determined through observation. Time stamp alignment of the Garmin and Geologger GPS units resulted in latitude and longitude locations typically less than 5 meters of one another, but speed from the two units consistently demonstrated Geologger speed preceding the Garmin by one second, likely due to the method of speed calculation by each unit. The Garmin speed was therefore lag-adjusted for the entire data set by one second ahead. Adjusted speed data from both GPS units was aligned with the Scantool speed, as outlined in **Table 2-6**, with the final lag adjustment determined by the GPS device speed with the best correlation coefficient.

The relative humidity and temperature sensors were joined to the primary Labview (L1) device based on their assigned time stamp before Labview was adjusted to other instruments. These units were launched via the onboard computer prior to logging run data and were assumed to have consistent readings during sampling, not requiring a fast response rate to rapid changes.

Lag adjustments actually applied to the raw data for each instrument combination, run, and phase were tabulated and are found in their entirety in **Appendix G**.

2.5.3 Grade Join

The spatially resolved ARAN data were spline fit to 1-meter resolution and used to develop a distance traveled value for the whole data collection route (not including warm-up or post-run driving). Temporally-resolved GPS data were assigned a distance traveled value based on the location, and filled for missing location gaps of up to 15 second duration using a speed-based interpolation. GPS data were filtered by a 25-meter buffer surrounding the route to ensure that the GPS information used in the join was actually on the driving course, using ArcGIS. Distance along the route assignments were the means by which ARAN road grade was joined to the temporally resolved data set, with priority for distance traveled from measured locations for each GPS unit over distance along the route at interpolated locations. Recommended grade from the 1-meter resolution data set was assigned for over 95% of the data set. Data that were collected off route due to detours or before or after the designated sampling run locations were not assigned a distance along the route or a recommended grade.

2.5.4 Valid Data for Analysis

A subset of the acquired data set was suitable for analysis. Data were omitted from analysis if there were known errors in the data collected (e.g. the FTIR pump failed or the heated line was turned off). Data were also omitted if more than 15% of a parameter was missing from the data set for a given outbound or inbound run phase. Results of this data validation procedure are enumerated in **Section 3.1** and further detailed in **Appendix A**.

2.6 Calculated Parameters

2.6.1 Exhaust Flow Rate

As TOTEMS sampled a small portion of the total tailpipe emissions output, it was critical to have a measure of the total flow rate at the tailpipe to calculate the total contribution of the vehicle's tailpipe pollutants to the atmosphere. Sampled compound concentrations (in percent or parts per million) measured by the FTIR were converted into an emission rate (grams per second) primarily by multiplying by the measured exhaust flow rate (liters per minute) for a given second of sampling, along with a few other conversion factors discussed in the next section. The pitot tube and four differential pressure sensors were calibrated in the laboratory each time TOTEMS was transferred from one vehicle to the other.

An apparatus for pitot tube calibration purposes was assembled of a large blower, lengths of mock tailpipe (steel and PVC), and a Sierra 620S flow meter. The tailpipe adapter was placed in line with the blower and the Sierra flow meter was connected to the tailpipe adapter with the pitot tube, pressure transducers, thermocouple, and sampling probe, with the exception of the heated line connection, which was capped during the calibration. The primary Labview (L1) connector block and data acquisition card assembly collected the Sierra flow meter raw voltage signal that was subsequently converted to flow in units of liters per minute (lpm) based on the factory calibration.

In the calibration setup, a combination of the blower potentiometer and the overflow valve were adjusted starting from a low flow setting through the tailpipe adapter and increased incrementally every sixty seconds to cover flow rates between zero and 4000 lpm (the upper bound of the Sierra as calibrated). An example raw signal from April 21, 2011 with increasing flow rate steps is shown in **Figure 2-10**.

Figure 2-10. Typical pitot tube calibration sequence with raw voltage signal from the Sierra flow meter as the blower was adjusted to change flow through the mock tailpipe and TOTEMS tailpipe adapter during a calibration procedure on April 21, 2011.

Data compiled for all eight of the calibrations included flow rate plateau data, but excluded data transitions between flow rate settings over the study period to remove the influence of the Sierra flow meter response time. The raw Sierra signal was converted to a flow rate by a regression of the calibration included originally with the instrument.

Flow rate measures for each calibration step were regressed over the corresponding differential pressure signals measured from the pitot tube transducers using a square fit and forcing through zero intercept. Four calibration curves resulted (see **Appendix D** for detail) and were applied across all sampling runs, with additional conditions to select the sensor of appropriate flow range. Each of the pressure transducers was tuned to a specific range of the flow regime, with the fourth sensor the most sensitive and the first sensor the least sensitive. If the most sensitive sensor signal was reported within its usage range, it was selected for calculation of the exhaust flow rate; otherwise the next most sensitive was checked, and so on, until one of the four signals was selected. Final regressions, associated voltage usage ranges, and R-squared values were combined in the exhaust flow rate $(Q_{Exhaust})$ equation presented in Equation 5 and the complete analysis is included in **Appendix D**.

$$
QExhaust = \begin{cases} \sqrt{83609.257 * (DiffP4-5)} & \text{if } 0.4 \leq (DiffP4-5) < 4.6 \quad (R^2 = 0.87) \\ & \sqrt{394516.8 * DiffP3} & \text{if } 0.4 \leq DiffP3 < 9.6 \quad (R^2 = 0.98) \\ & \sqrt{2129720.5 * DiffP2} & \text{if } 0.4 \leq DiffP2 < 9.6 \quad (R^2 = 0.94) \\ & \sqrt{14499240 * DiffP1} & \text{if } 0.4 \leq DiffP1 < 9.6 \quad (R^2 = 0.70) \end{cases}
$$

5

For a selection of sampling runs, the differential pressure sensors became unreliable. This was due to a low voltage on the battery providing power to the Labview device. The exhaust flow rate data for these runs (19, 23, 24, 25, 26, and 27) were estimated using an empirical relationship developed between engine speed (rpm) and exhaust flow rate. This equation was also applied to one run where the differential pressure sensors were not functional for the outbound section of data collection (run 74 phase 4). Equation 6 was used to calculate the estimated chosen flow for these instances as opposed to calculating the chosen flow rate from one of the differential pressure sensors (as in Equation 5).

Estimated
$$
Q_{E\text{chaus}}[pm] = -219.2309 + 0.7634308 * RPM + 0.0003573 * (RPM - 947.284)^2
$$

where: Estimated $Q_{Exhaust}$ = estimated chosen exhaust flow rate based on empirical RPM relationship

RPM = Scantool measured engine speed (rpm)

Exhaust flow rate was adjusted for temperature at the tailpipe adapter, as collected by the Type J Thermocouple. Erroneous signals from the tailpipe thermocouple affected about 12% of the sampling runs. Data became unreliable in part due to electrical interferences of the raw thermocouple signal, fixed by isolating the probe from the tailpipe adapter with a Teflon ferrule, and in part due to wear on the exposed tip thermocouple open to tailpipe exhaust and the environment, requiring more frequent replacement than originally anticipated. These erroneous data were recovered with an estimation of the exhaust temperature according to Equations 7 and 8 for the HEV and CV, respectively. These equations were derived based on scantool measurements and thermocouple data.

$$
T_{Exhuast} = 0.02531 * RPM_{ICE} + 0.12429 * RPM_{Electric} - 8.02726 * v - 0.06836 * Load_{ICE} + 100.7577
$$

where: RPM_{ICE} = internal combustion engine speed (rpm) RPMElectric Motor = electric motor speed (rpm) $v =$ vehicle speed (kph) Load_{ICE} = internal combustion engine load $(\%)$

where: $v =$ vehicle speed (kph) $T_{\text{Eshaust}} = 1.18298 * v + 0.02821 * RPM_{\text{ICE}} + 92.5954$

 $RPM_{ICE} = engine speed (rpm)$

Calculation of the temperature-compensated flow rate was necessary as the flow of a fluid through a pipe, in this case the exhaust system of the vehicle and the tailpipe adapter, is sensitive to temperature. Adjusting for temperature at the tailpipe was a function of the selected flow rate from Q_{Exhaust} resulting from one of the four differential pressure sensors (or the estimated QExhaust for select runs from *[6](#page-43-0)*) and the temperature either measured by

8

the thermocouple or estimated by Equations 7 or 8. The flow rate to be used in further calculations was derived as shown in Equation 9.

$$
Q_{TC} = Q_{Exhaust} * \left[\frac{T_{Exhaust} + 273.15}{298.15} \right]
$$

where: Q_{TC} = temperature compensated tailpipe flow rate (lpm) $Q_{Exhaust} = tailpipe flow rate chosen from the four differential pressure sensors$

(lpm)

 T_{Exhaust} = tailpipe exhaust temperature (°C)

2.6.2 Emission Rates

A method commonly used to report emissions from vehicles is by the emission rate of a specific pollutant or an aggregation of pollutants (i.e. grams per second of total hydrocarbons, THC). A rate of mass pollutant emitted from a vehicle over time or distance is a convenient metric to assess a vehicle's atmospheric pollutant contribution over a driving cycle or route.

Raw data from the FTIR were reported as volumetric concentrations in parts per million (ppm) or percent (%) for each individual gas. To account for the small volume sampled from the total tailpipe flow, concentration measures were converted to emission rates. Emission rates were reported on a mass per time basis as the data were collected on a second-by-second basis. The other typical convention is to report emission factors, mass of pollutant per unit distance. Additionally, emission rates or factors allow for ease of comparison with literature values. The general formula for calculating emission rates (Equation 10) was applied to all 1-hertz data after alignment of pitot data with scantool RPM (see **Table 2-6**).

$$
ER_i\left[\frac{g}{s}\right] = \frac{C_i\left[\% \text{ or }ppm\right] * MW_i\left[\frac{g}{mol}\right] * Q_{TC}\left[\frac{L}{min}\right] * P_{FTIR}\left[\text{atm}\right]}{R\left[\frac{L \cdot atm}{mol \cdot K}\right] * (T_{FTIR}\left[\text{°C}\right] + 273.15)\left[K\right] * V\left[\% \text{ or }ppm\right] * 60\left[\frac{sec}{mm}\right]}
$$

where: C_i = detection limit corrected volumetric concentration of gas i (% or ppm) MW_i = molecular weight of compound i (g/mol) Q_{TC} = temperature compensated exhaust flow rate measured at the tailpipe P_{FTIR} = exhaust sample pressure at sampling point reported by FTIR (atm)

 $R =$ universal gas constant = 0.0821 (L.atm/mol.K)

 T_{FTR} = exhaust sample temperature at sampling point reported by FTIR ($^{\circ}$ C) V = volumetric conversion constant $(10^2 \, \text{(*)})$ and $10^6 \, \text{(ppm)}$ for equivalent

liters)

(lpm)

Raw data from the EEPS and UCPC were converted from particle number concentrations to emission rates in a similar manner to the gas-phase pollutants. Relative to the recorded particle number concentrations (#/cc), emission rates (#/second) account for exhaust flow rate to provide the total particle number emissions on a second-by-second basis. Equation 11 was used to calculate the emission rate for every second of data.

$$
ER_i\left[\frac{4}{3}\right] = C_i\left[\frac{4}{3}\right] * Q_{TC}\left[\frac{1}{\min}\right] * \left[\frac{1000cc}{1L}\right] * \left[\frac{1 \min}{60 \sec}\right] * DF
$$

where: ER_i = emission rate in #/second for channel i (or total particle number) C_i = UCPC concentration

 Q_{TC} = temperature-corrected exhaust flow rate in lpm

DF = exhaust dilution factor of 108

2.6.3 Vehicle Specific Power

35 *DF* A measure of power exerted by a vehicle to overcome aerodynamic and rolling resistances and increase kinetic and potential energy, normalized by the mass of the vehicle, was computed as vehicle specific power (VSP). As previously discussed, the MOVES model uses VSP and speed to bin data according to operating modes, but utilizes a simplified version of the VSP equation due to limits in the data available to build a robust EPA modeling tool, primarily lacking sample sets with road grade terms. Jimenez (1999)[\[27\]](#page-70-0) defined VSP and presented typical values for many of the vehicle parameters, including coefficients for internal resistances and rolling resistance, which are reflected in the equations used for this analysis. With vehicle specific information and road grade information in this comprehensive data set, a detailed approach may be used to calculate VSP, with the general and derived calculations presented in Equations 12 and 13, respectively.

$$
VSP = VSP_{Kinetic} + VSP_{Potential} + VSP_{RollingResistan \, ce} + VSP_{Drag}
$$

$$
VSP = 1.1(v * a) + g\left(\frac{\text{grade}}{100} * v\right) + 0.13244 * v + \frac{1}{2}\rho_a \frac{C_b * A}{m}(v^3)
$$

where: VSP = vehicle specific power (kW/ton) $v =$ vehicle speed (m/s) a = vehicle acceleration (m/s^2) (from Crossbow or Scantool) $grade = road grade (%)$ ρ_a = air density (kg/m³) C_D = coefficient of drag (unitless) $A =$ vehicle cross-sectional area $(m²)$ m = vehicle mass (kg)

Most of the VSP inputs were measured directly or referenced specific vehicle parameters provided by the manufacturer, with the exception of estimated vehicle mass and derivations for acceleration and air density. Two acceleration derivations were explored; one used acceleration from the x-axis of the Crossbow accelerometer (Equation 14), the other a derivation of speed as measured by the Scantool (Equation 15). Scantool derived acceleration was used for the purposes presented here.

a c c_ce, $l_a = a$ c c 1.5

where: $\text{accel}_{\text{Crossbow}} = \text{acceleration (m/s²)}$ acc_x = raw acceleration signal in the x-axis (V)

$$
accel_{\text{Scantool}} = \frac{v(t+1) - v(t)}{\Delta t}
$$

where: $accel_{\text{Scantool}} = acceleration (m/s^2)$
 $v = vehicle speed (m/s)$
 $t = time$

The measure of air density included in the calculation of VSP was considered temperature dependent and calculated based upon measures from the relative humidity and temperature logger on the exterior of the vehicle. Air density was calculated according to Equation 16 on a second-by-second basis due to slight temperature fluctuations during the course of a sampling run.

$$
\rho_a = \frac{P_a}{R_a * T_a} = \frac{352.977}{T_{Exterior} + 273.15}
$$

where: ρ_a = Air density (kg/m³) P_a = Atmospheric pressure (1.01325*10⁵ N/m²) R_a = Gas constant for air (287.058 N.m/kg.K) T_a = Ambient air temperature (K) T_{Exterior} = Temperature collected by Onset logger (°C) with conversion to K

Actual vehicle mass was also needed to compute VSP. Although TOTEMS did not artificially load the engine for supply of power, TOTEMS loaded the vehicle with additional mass of the equipment and personnel in the vehicle. The added mass on the system resulting from driver, passenger, and instrumentation added to the curb weight of the vehicle provided by Toyota specifications. Distribution of the additional weight included front seat passengers, equipment in the back seat, and a full trunk load, as detailed in **Table 2-7**. Here, "phase" refers to two phases of data collection, each with a different passenger, for sampling runs 5 through 21 (Phase A) and 22 through 79 (Phase B). It was assumed that the average of the passenger weights from each phase could be used in the calculation of the totals for TOTEMS+personnel+ vehicle curb weight, tabulated **Table 2-8**, because the personnel weight represented less than 10% of the total calculated mass of the vehicle. The total average mass for each of the vehicles was used in calculation of VSP.

Table 2-7. Distribution of Weight in Vehicles due to TOTEMS Equipment and Personnel

14

15

16

Weight Distribution											
Component	Weight (kg)	Weight (lbs)									
Front Seats											
K. Sentoff	62.1	138									
M.Robinson (Phase A)	71.6	159									
M. Conger (Phase B)	85.5	190									
Total Phase A (Runs 5-21)	133.7	297.0									
Total Phase B (Runs 22-79)	147.6	328.0									
Back Seats											
EEPS	32	70									
CPC	11	25									
PC (on-board)	21.8	48									
FTIR laptop	2.72	6									
EEPS vibration mount	5.0	11.2									
CPC vibration mount	1.5	3.4									
2 Lifeline Batteries	143	316									
Inverter	5.45	12									
Yellow Top Battery	27.18	59.8									
Total	249.7	551.4									
	Trunk										
FTIR	50	110									
Legacy Pump	1	2.2									
ASET 15-1/MD 19-2E	17.5	38.6									
Differential Pressure Box	1.8	4									
Labview Box	0.9										
Heated Line	1.4	3.1									
Total	72.6	159.9									

Table 2-8. Total Curb Weight, TOTEMS, and Personnel Mass for VSP Calculation

2.6.4 HEV Electric Drive Only Designation and Fuel Consumption

Electric drive only (EDO) was identified by a binary value (engine on = 0; engine off = 1) where engine speed was less than 775 RPM, the threshold established as the transition between the two engine states. The engine-off, or EDO, state of the HEV was determined for every record of the data set. In order to calculate a percentage EDO, the data had to be binned into categories, such as % EDO by run, VSP bin, OpMode, etc.

Instantaneous fuel consumption rates and fuel economy were calculated by the carbon balance method using Equations 17 and 18. These methods of determining fuel consumption rates and fuel economy were adapted from the code of federal regulations.^{[\[81,](#page-73-0) [82\]](#page-73-1)}

$$
Field\ Consortium\left(\frac{sal}{s}\right) = \frac{0.273*ER_{CO_2} + 0.429*ER_{CO} + 0.817*ER_{C_3H_8}}{2421}
$$

Field Economy(*mpg*) =
$$
\frac{2421* v * \frac{1}{3600} * 0.621}{0.273*ER_{\omega_2} + 0.429*ER_{\omega} + 0.817*ER_{C_3H_8}}
$$

\nWhere: ER_{CO2} = carbon dioxide emission rates (g/s)
\nER_{CO} = carbon monoxide emission rates (g/s)
\nER_{CH3H8} = propane emission rates (g/s)
\nv = vehicle speed (kph)

2.6.5 Additional Gas-Phase Constituents

Aggregations of gas-phase emissions as measured by the FTIR were used to summarize the tailpipe emissions profile of each vehicle. Equations 19 through 25 enumerate these calculations.

Full Consumption
$$
\binom{8\pi}{s'}
$$
 = $\frac{0.273 - 21.00}{0.475 + 21.000} + 0.942 + 21.000 + 0.917 + 21.001$
\n*Field Economy*(*mpg*) = $\frac{2421 \text{ s} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{O} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{O} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{O} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{s}}}{\text{ER}_{\text{CO}} = \text{carbon } \text{uncoise} \cdot \text{m} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{s}} \text{ER}_{\text{CO}} = \text{exchon } \text{uncoise} \cdot \text{m} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{R} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{s} \cdot \text{R} \cdot \text{s} \cdot$

3. Results

3.1 TOTEMS Data Subset For Analysis

Results presented in the following sections are from a subset of the full 75 run dataset because not all data from all runs met the QA/QC criteria. Data were included in the data analysis subset if at least 85% of the instrument data (indicated by a check mark in **Table 3-1**) for the given run section (outbound and inbound data were treated separately for QA purposes) were available for: scantool vehicle operating parameters, gas-phase emission rates (exhaust temperatures, tailpipe flow rate, and gas-phase concentrations), particle number emission rates (EEPS particle number distributions and tailpipe flow rate), location (latitude, longitude, and associated road grade), and ambient temperature. Run section was selected as the natural break for treatment of the data because any outbound section data collection issues were addressed at the Phase 6 Park-and-Ride facility location between the outbound and inbound sections of the run. The outbound portion of the run included operation on *city* and *highway* facility types, where the inbound portion of sampling was comprised of rural and suburban *arterials*. Detailed information on data collection issues for each run can be found in **Appendix A.**

The total number of 1 Hz sample records for each of the sampling run sections (Outbound or Inbound) included in the data analysis subset are indicated in **Table 3-2** for each vehicle type. **Table 3-2** also shows that the average number of records by section for each sampling run for the CV and HEV vehicles was quite similar. The main difference in the dataset between the two vehicle types was the larger number of tests run with the HEV; there were 38% more records for the HEV compared to the CV due to the larger number of runs attempted. The breakdown of runs by ambient temperature "season" (Cold, Cool, Warm, Hot) shown in **Table 3-2** indicates that there were at least 3 replicate runs of each vehicle in each season. Although there were more sampling runs conducted with the HEV in total, vehicle activity across these runs was expected to be equivalent and the total number of 1Hz records should therefore not impact average run data interpretation by vehicle type.

In addition to omitting erroneous or missing data sections from analysis, the QA/QC data was evaluated to ensure that gas- and particle-phase emissions were detectable for analysis. It is important to note that tailpipe pollutant concentrations for these two new, low-emitting vehicles were often near or at the conservative detection limits set by the pre- and post-tunnel blank data. This was particularly true for the HEV in electric drive only (EDO) operation, where pollutant concentrations would drop to background (or tunnel blank) values. The instrument detection limits defined by the TB data are available in **Appendix B.**

3.2 Vehicle Activity Comparison of CV and HEV

Comparison of the emissions between the two vehicle types depends on ensuring that both vehicles experienced the same range and frequency of driving activity over the test program. Here, the CV and HEV vehicle operating data are compared in terms of temporal patterns and distributions of speed and acceleration, VSP, MOVES OpMode, and measured fuel economy. Data are compared for each of the three facility types along the driving route: City, Arterial and Highway (recall that ramps are included in Highway classification, in agreement with MOVES). Furthermore, for the HEV only, data are summarized for the frequency of electric drive only (EDO) operation by facility type. (EDO operation was defined in Section 2.6.4).

Run No	Vehicle Type	Outbound	Scantool	Gas-Phase	Particulate	Location	Temperature	Inbound	Scantool	Gas-Phase	Particulate	Location	Temperature	Run No	Vehicle Type	Outbound	Scantool	Gas-Phase	Particulate	Location	Temperature	Inbound	Scantool	Gas-Phase	Particulate	Location	Temperature
5	CV	Q	✓			✓	✓		✓		\checkmark	✓	✓	43	HEV	\circ	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	I	✓	✓	✓	✓	\checkmark
6	$\overline{\rm CV}$		✓	✓	✓		✓	I	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	✓	✓	44	HEV	$\mathbf Q$	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓	\checkmark		✓	\checkmark
$\overline{7}$	$\overline{\text{CV}}$		✓			✓	✓	I	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	✓	✓	$\overline{45}$	HEV	$\mathbf Q$		✓		✓	✓		\checkmark	✓		\checkmark	$\overline{\checkmark}$
8	$\overline{\text{CV}}$	O	✓	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓			\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	46	HEV	$\mathbf{\mathsf{Q}}$		✓		✓	✓		✓	✓		✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$
$\overline{9}$	$\overline{\text{CV}}$			\checkmark	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	$\overline{47}$	HEV	$\mathbf Q$		✓		✓	✓		✓	✓		\checkmark	$\overline{\checkmark}$
$\overline{10}$	$\overline{\text{CV}}$		✓		\checkmark	✓	✓		\checkmark		\checkmark	✓	✓	48	HEV	\circ	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓					✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$
11	$\overline{\text{CV}}$		✓		\checkmark	✓	✓		\checkmark		\checkmark	✓	✓	49	HEV	\overline{O}	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			\checkmark	✓		$\overline{\checkmark}$
$\overline{12}$	$\overline{\text{CV}}$	Ω	✓	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	✓	✓	$\overline{50}$	HEV	$\overline{\mathbf{Q}}$		\checkmark	✓		✓	I	✓	\checkmark	✓	\checkmark	$\overline{\checkmark}$
13	HEV	Ω	✓	✓		✓	√	I	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	$\overline{51}$	HEV	\overline{O}	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	I	✓	✓	✓	✓	\checkmark
14	HEV	Ω	✓	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓	I	\checkmark	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓	$\overline{52}$	HEV	\mathcal{O}	✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$	✓	\checkmark	✓		\checkmark	\checkmark	✓		$\overline{\checkmark}$
15	HEV	\overline{O}	✓	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓		\checkmark			✓	✓	$\overline{53}$	HEV	\overline{O}	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	I	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	\checkmark
16	HEV	\mathcal{O}	✓	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓	I	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	✓	54	CV	\mathcal{O}	✓	✓	✓	√	✓			٧	✓		$\overline{\checkmark}$
$\overline{17}$	HEV	\mathcal{O}	✓	✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$	✓	✓	I	\checkmark	$\overline{\checkmark}$	\checkmark	✓	✓	$\overline{55}$	CV	Ω	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$	Ι	✓	\checkmark	$\overline{\checkmark}$	\checkmark	$\overline{\checkmark}$
18	HEV	\mathcal{O}	✓	$\tilde{\checkmark}$	\checkmark		✓	I	\checkmark	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	56	CV	\circ	$\tilde{\checkmark}$	✓	✓	✓	✓	1	\checkmark	✓	✓	\checkmark	$\overline{\checkmark}$
$\overline{19}$	HEV		✓		\checkmark	✓	✓	I	\checkmark	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	$\overline{57}$	CV	\mathcal{O}	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		\checkmark			\checkmark	\checkmark
20	HEV	\mathcal{O}	✓	\checkmark	$\overline{\checkmark}$	✓	✓	I	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	✓	58	$\overline{\text{CV}}$	\circ	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$	I	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$
$\overline{21}$	HEV	\mathcal{O}	✓	✓	\checkmark ✓		✓	I	✓	\checkmark ✓	✓	✓	✓ ✓	59	$\overline{\text{CV}}$	Ω	✓	✓ ✓	✓ ✓		✓ ✓	I	✓ ✓		✓ ✓	✓	\checkmark \checkmark
$\overline{22}$	HEV		✓ ✓	✓	✓	✓	✓ ✓		\checkmark \checkmark	\checkmark	✓ \checkmark	✓	\checkmark	60	CV CV	Ω	✓	✓	✓	✓ ✓	✓	I	\checkmark	\checkmark ✓	✓	✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$
23 $\overline{24}$	HEV HEV	\circ	✓	✓ ✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓		✓	61 62	CV	\circ	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓ ✓	\checkmark
25	HEV	Ω	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	Ι	\checkmark	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	63	CV	$\mathbf{\Omega}$		✓	✓	✓	✓	Ι Ι	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	\checkmark
26	HEV	\mathcal{O}	✓	✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$		✓	I	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	$\overline{\checkmark}$	✓	64	$\overline{\text{CV}}$	\mathcal{O}	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	✓	\checkmark
$\overline{27}$	HEV	Ω	✓	✓	\checkmark	✓	\checkmark	I	\checkmark	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	65	$\overline{\text{CV}}$	\overline{O}	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	I	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$
$\overline{28}$	HEV		✓		\checkmark		✓		\checkmark		\checkmark	✓	✓	66	$\overline{\text{CV}}$	\overline{O}	✓	✓	✓	\checkmark	$\overline{\checkmark}$	1	\checkmark	\checkmark	✓	✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$
29	HEV		✓		\checkmark		✓				✓	✓	✓	67	$\overline{\text{CV}}$	⊠		\checkmark	✓	\checkmark	✓		\checkmark	\checkmark	✓		$\overline{\checkmark}$
$\overline{30}$	HEV		✓		\checkmark	✓	✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	68	HEV	\circ	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	I	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$
$\overline{31}$	CV		✓			✓			✓		\checkmark	✓	✓	$\overline{69}$	HEV	\mathcal{O}	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	I	\checkmark	\checkmark	✓	✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$
$\overline{32}$	$\overline{\text{CV}}$		✓		√	✓	✓		√		✓	✓	✓	$\overline{70}$	HEV	\overline{O}		✓	✓	✓	✓	I	✓	✓	✓		$\overline{\checkmark}$
$\overline{33}$	$\overline{\text{CV}}$		✓		✓	✓	✓		\checkmark		\checkmark	✓	✓	$\overline{71}$	HEV	\overline{O}	$\bar{\checkmark}$	$\overline{\checkmark}$	✓	\checkmark	✓	I	$\overline{\checkmark}$	✓	✓	✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$
34	CV		✓			✓	✓	I	✓	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓	72	HEV	\circ	✓	\checkmark	✓	\checkmark	✓	I	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	✓
$\overline{35}$	$\overline{\text{CV}}$	\mathcal{O}	✓	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓	I	\checkmark	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓	$\overline{73}$	HEV	\mathcal{O}		✓	✓	✓	✓	I	✓	\checkmark	✓		$\overline{\checkmark}$
36	$\overline{\text{CV}}$	Ω	✓	✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$	✓	$\overline{\checkmark}$	I	\checkmark	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	$\overline{74}$	HEV	\circ	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓		\checkmark	✓	✓		$\overline{\checkmark}$
37	CV	\mathcal{O}	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	I	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	✓	75	HEV	$\mathbf{\mathcal{Q}}$			✓		✓	1	✓	✓	✓	✓	\checkmark
38	$\overline{\text{CV}}$	\mathcal{O}	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	I	\checkmark	✓	✓	✓	✓	76	HEV	\mathcal{O}	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	I	✓	\checkmark	✓	\checkmark	$\overline{\checkmark}$
39	CV	Ω	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓							77	HEV	\overline{O}	✓	✓	✓	\checkmark	✓	I	\checkmark	\checkmark	✓	\checkmark	\checkmark
40	$\overline{\rm CV}$	\mathcal{O}	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	I	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	78	HEV						✓	I	✓	✓	✓		\checkmark
41	HEV		✓			✓	✓		✓			✓	✓	79	HE			✓					✓				✓
42	HEV	O	✓	✓	\checkmark	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		data are valid					run phase omitted						aggressive driving	
														I	Inbound			\mathcal{O}		Outbound							

Table 3-1. Run Section Data Evaluation for Data Analysis Subset Delineation*

*** A slash indicates that either the outbound (O) or inbound (I) section data for that run were omitted from analysis for the reasons given in Appendix A. Runs 67 and 79 are marked with "X" to indicate that driver was instructed to drive more aggressively for these runs only.**

Table 3-2. Number of Records and Number of Runs in the Valid Data Analysis Subset by Vehicle Type

Vehicle Activity Patterns

Overall, the speed, acceleration, road grade, and VSP activity was consistent between individual sampling runs across the route. Typical activity for two example runs, one for each vehicle type, are shown in **Figure 3-1**. The outbound section was characterized by lower mean speed, stop-andgo driving in the city initially, followed by ~65 mph travel on the highway. After a stop at the Parkand-Ride, the inbound section included transient driving at intermediate speeds on arterial roads with less frequent stops than the city (**Figure 3-1**). Road grade associated with distance along the route only varied by small margins between runs depending on the timing of the vehicle passing a particular location.

Figure 3-1. Second-by-second vehicle activity for example runs from each vehicle type (Runs 18 and 40) across the full route by distance travelled. The dashed vertical lines delineate between the city, highway, and arterial facility types along the sampling route.

Each of the three facility types along the route provided different ranges of vehicle operation, as demonstrated by the magnitude of mean vehicle speed, calculated load, engine speed, and VSP shown in **Table 3-3**. Mean vehicle speed and VSP were generally consistent between the two vehicles for a given facility type (**Figure 3-1** and **Table 3-3**, as expected for a single driver operating the two vehicles on a designated driving route. Small, if any, discrepancies between the vehicles for these parameters were due to real-world factors such as traffic, constrained driving due to car-following, pedestrian activity, signalization, etc. Differences between vehicles for engine parameters (load and RPM, **Table 3-3**) can be attributed to the performance of the hybrid platform, primarily enabling ICE-assist and electric drive only operation to varying degrees for each facility type. For example, the very low mean engine speed on city and arterial sections of the route reflects the relatively high percent of operating time in EDO operation under low load driving.

Table 3-3. Mean Vehicle Activity Parameters for CV and HEV across the Test Route's Three Facility Types (± Standard Deviation)

Parameter	Vehicle		City			Arterial		Highway				
Speed (kph)	CV	23.5	$\qquad \qquad +$	16.4	47.0	$+$	20.9	101.7	$\! +$	17.4		
	HEV	22.7	$^{+}$	17.2	46.1	$^{+}$	21.3	99.2	$^{+}$	20.1		
Load $(\%)$	CV	43.2	$\qquad \qquad +$	17.9	48.3	$+$	21.2	61.9	$+$	25.2		
	HEV	30.2	$^{+}$	35.2	39.8	\pm	36.2	65.8	\pm	23.7		
Engine Speed	CV	1301.7	$\qquad \qquad +$	489.9	1480.5	$\qquad \qquad +$	491.3	2093.0	$\! +$	396.3		
(RPM)	HEV	626.5	$^{+}$	797.0	886.2	$^{+}$	889.5	1832.3	$\qquad \qquad +$	802.2		
VSP (kW/ton)	CV	1.4	$+$	6.7	2.6	\pm	8.3	8.3	$^{+}$	11.7		
	HEV	1.4	$^{+}$	6.9	2.5	$^{+}$	7.8	7.4	$^{+}$	10.2		

Characteristic vehicle activity by facility type is demonstrated by the box plots of speed, acceleration, and road grade by VSP encountered on the route (**Figure 3-2**). Low, moderate and high speed driving were characteristic of city, arterial, and highway facility types, respectively. Wider ranges of acceleration typical of stop-and-go operation were measured for city driving than for arterial or highway driving where more activity was likely occurring at target speeds set by speed limits of 45 and 65 mph, respectively. The range of road grade was largest for the arterial portion of the route.

Figure 3-2. Speed, acceleration, and road grade across VSP bins, where the box represents the median, white space between whiskers is the interquartile range, and the whiskers represent 1.5 times the interquartile range.

Vehicle Specific Power and Operating Mode Comparison

Vehicle specific power not only increased on average across facility types (**Table 3-3**), but the distribution of data across the range of VSP experienced on the route changed by facility type (**Figure 3-3**). City and arterial driving show a near normal distribution centered at 0 kW/ton, characteristic of the stop-and-go, acceleration/deceleration, uphill/downhill nature of the driving on these facilities. Each had a significant amount of activity $(>10\%)$ at 0 kW/ton representing the higher frequency of idle operation on these two facilities compared to highway driving. Highway activity was chiefly at higher speeds, allowing the kinetic term of the VSP equation to dominate and skewing the VSP distribution to the right of 0 kW/ton. Although the distribution changed across facility types, the distributions were generally comparable (within 2% for each VSP class) between vehicle types (compare orange bars vs. blue line in **Figure 3-3**).

Figure 3-3. Histograms of VSP (±**1 kW/ton increments) for each vehicle type, separated by facility type.**

Because MOVES operating modes are defined by three vehicle speed categories as well as VSP, activity differences between the three facility types are more evident in the operating mode (OpMode) distributions (**Figure 3-4**). Again, on a given facility type, the OpMode distributions for the two vehicles were comparable (within 5% for any given OpMode), as expected for a single driver on a designated driving route. Variability in the OpMode distributions between vehicles was likely due to uncontrolled real-world driving factors outside of the control of the driver. These factors chiefly included signal timing and traffic congestion.

Figure 3-4. Frequency distribution of vehicle activity by MOVES OpMode across all three facility types for each vehicle type. Vertical dashed lines indicate the three MOVES speed categories.

HEV Electric Drive Only (EDO) Operation

Given that vehicle activity, defined either by VSP or OpMode distribution, was equivalent for the two test vehicles, differences in fuel consumption and emissions could be attributed to the functionality of the hybrid-electric vehicle platform. Electric drive only (EDO) operation was responsible for the most significant differences in engine operation between the two vehicle types. The frequency of EDO also changed with the facility type: greater reliance on EDO operation occurred for low speed city driving than for arterial or highway driving. The time spent in EDO operation on the arterial section of the route was surprisingly high, only about 15% less than the city $(-60%)$. The measured 4-5% EDO operation for the HEV on the highway generally occurred on the on- and off-ramps of the route.

The HEV's mean time spent in EDO operation changed across facility types, but also changed across the range of VSP within each facility (**Figure 3-5**). At low VSP (< 0 kW/ton), the likelihood of EDO operation was higher for city and arterial driving than for highway, as expected. For the highway, ICE-off activity never surpassed 40% and most of the EDO activity was attributed to on/off ramp driving. For city and arterial driving, the HEV repeatedly operated on EDO propulsion over 50% of the time for all negative VSP operating points, consistent with downhill and deceleration driving modes. With increasing positive VSP, the frequency of ICEoff operation fell from greater than 90% to 0% between 0 kW/ton and 9-12 kW/ton, depending on facility type. Thus, when driving conditions demanded the HEV operate at $VSP > 12$ kW/ton, the load on the vehicle was too great for the Hybrid Synergy Drive**®** technology to allow the ICE to shutdown. This VSP maximum for EDO operation agrees with the Mode 7 (10 to 13 kW/ton) reported by Zhai and Frey (2011) for a model year 2001 Toyota Prius.^{[\[83\]](#page-73-2)} It should be noted that there were few data records in some of the high negative VSP classes (i.e., $VSP < -25$ kW/ton) and this contributed to the large error bars in **Figure 3-5**.

Figure 3-5. Percent time the HEV operated with the ICE off in EDO propulsion mode across the VSP bins for each facility type. Points and error bars represent the mean ± standard error across all valid run data.

Low speed $(\leq 25 \text{ mph})$ operation dominated the city driving, moderate speed (25 to 50 mph) the arterial driving, and high speed $(50+$ mph) the highway driving, as expected given the speed limits, signalization, congestion, and other limitations of these three facility types. As expected, the frequency of the idle (OpMode 1) and braking (OpMode 0) modes decreased from city to arterial to highway. The highest frequency of EDO propulsion for the HEV occurred during idling and braking OpModes, but considerable EDO operation also occurred in OpModes with VSP less than 9 kW/ton (i.e., up to OpMode 14 at low speeds and up to OpMode 24 at moderate speeds; **Figure 3-6**). The large error bars in **Figure 3-6** for highway operation were due to the limited activity experienced in the lower speed modes (OpModes $= 12, 13$) on this facility type.

Figure 3-6. Percent time EDO propulsion for HEV across all MOVES Operating Modes by facility type. Mean ± standard error represented by the point and error bars for a given OpMode.

Vehicle Operation and Ambient Temperature

Although driver-dictated vehicle activities (e.g. target speed, acceleration rates, overall VSP, OpMode frequencies) were not expected to change based on season, the operation of each vehicle to meet the driver's demands was expected to have some response to ambient conditions. Data were collected only in dry weather to isolate the effects of temperature and relative humidity on the vehicle operation, fuel economy and emissions for each vehicle. Inclement weather (resulting in wet or snow-covered roads), particularly for cold seasonal temperatures, would be expected to significantly change vehicle activity (e.g. low speeds on highway during snow squalls) and thus invalidate inter-seasonal comparisons between the two vehicles.

Temperature effects on EDO propulsion were highest during operation in the city, where the median EDO changed by about 11% between cold and cool temperatures. **Figure 3-7A** demonstrates the high variability introduced in EDO operation under cold ambient temperature conditions, particularly for city driving, with a 23% interquartile range (i.e., spanning from 40% to 63% in **Figure 3-7A**). This variability indicates that, under cold temperature operation, it may be more difficult to predict the EDO propulsion during city driving with certainty. For other driving conditions, EDO% by temperature class spanned a maximum of 12%, indicating that the all-electric operation was more consistent (**Figure 3-7A**).

Battery state of charge (SOC, **Figure 3-7B**), a parameter indicating the performance of the HEV electrical energy storage system, trended with ambient temperature and facility type. State of charge consistently decreased as temperature increased across each facility type. This trend was in contrast to EDO%, which tended to peak with warm temperatures for city driving, decreased slightly with increasing temperature for arterial driving, and remained within 3% EDO for highway driving (**Figure 3-7A**).

Figure 3-7. Boxplots of (A) Electric Drive Only HEV operation (across average EDO per run) and (B) battery state of charge by facility type and ambient temperature bin. Note: boxplots represent the interquartile range and whiskers represent 1.5 times the interquartile range.

Fuel Consumption Rates and Fuel Economy

Generally, across the full driving route, the HEV consumed less fuel than the CV across all facility types and temperature conditions as shown in **Table 3-4**. As expected, fuel economy of the HEV followed a trend with VSP that was similar to that for EDO operation: low VSP $(< 0$ kW/ton) was associated with high mile-per-gallon instantaneous fuel economy (FE) that decreased exponentially above 0 kW/ton VSP (**Figure 3-8**). For the HEV, the fuel economy pattern with VSP was consistent across the three facility types, with generally high fuel economy (>80 mpg) for negative VSP, dropping off significantly at VSP greater than zero. At the high end of the VSP distribution (VSP $>$ 20 kW/ton), there was approximately a 10 mpg discrepancy between city and highway facility types, which is significant given that there is more activity in the high VSP bins for highway than city driving. The instantaneous fuel economy of the CV was much lower than that for the HEV for $VSP \leq 0$ kW/ton and the difference between vehicle types diminished from city to highway driving (**Figure 3-8**). The maximum difference in instantaneous fuel economy between CV and HEV was about 50 MPG for city, 30 MPG for arterial and 20 MPG for highway driving and occurred at negative VSP operation (**Figure 3-8**). These trends in FE are likely explained by the % EDO propulsion of the HEV. With increasing positive VSP (VSP >0 kW/ton), the CV's fuel economy showed an exponentially decreasing pattern similar to that observed for the HEV.

The VSP at which the fuel economy for both vehicles was equal varied with facility type. The "cross-over" VSP (at which $CV = HEV$ fuel economy) was 20, 9 and 21 kW/ton for the city, arterial, and highway facility types, respectively (**Figure 3-8**). The lower cross-over VSP for arterial driving may reflect the relatively hilly driving at moderate speeds along the route that may have resulted in battery recharging events to a higher degree than was possible either under highway or city driving. Higher battery recharging would enable more EDO propulsion at higher VSP (in agreement with the **Figure 3-5** data for arterial). More detailed investigation of the HEV's energy status and performance is warranted to better quantify arterial driving behavior.

Figure 3-8. Instantaneous fuel economy for each vehicle type across all VSP bins, where the fuel economy is estimated by the carbon balance method. Points represent the mean and error bars represent the standard error.

As observed for relationships to VSP, the fuel economy pattern with OpMode also followed the EDO pattern of the HEV, with the highest mile-per-gallon achieved in operating modes corresponding to the greatest EDO occurrences (**Figure 3-9**). For both vehicles, fuel economy generally decreased as OpMode (and VSP) increased across each speed regime. The fuel economy of the HEV was typically higher than that for the CV, especially for the low and moderate speed OpModes with VSP less than 6 kW/ton (11-13 and 21-23). For OpModes 11 and 21, where coasting occurred, FE could reach 90 mpg for the HEV, but the maximum CV mean fuel economy was about 60 mpg (coasting at moderate speed or OpMode 21 during arterial driving; see **Figure 3-9**).

The data shown in **Figure 3-8** and **Figure 3-9** indicate that there exist a number of higher power operating regimes where the CV has better instantaneous fuel consumption than the HEV. For city and arterial driving, equivalent fuel economy between the two vehicles occurred at OpModes 24-28. For arterial driving at speeds >50 mph (in OpModes 33-40), the CV had higher (better) mean fuel economy than the HEV. For highway travel, the HEV had better (higher) mean fuel economy at all OpModes <37, but the difference between vehicles decreased with increasing VSP in a speed category. The differences between arterial vs. highway instantaneous fuel economy pattern for the high speed category (speed > 50 mph) OpModes (OpMode>33) may be attributed to the: (i) higher road grade experienced on the arterial portion of the route vs. highway; (ii) higher overall ICE power demand at highway speeds; (iii) HEV battery state-ofcharge recharge/discharge pattern differences by facility type. Further work is needed to quantitatively evaluate the HEV energy performance and its effect on fuel consumption as a function of facility type, road grade and prior operating history.

Figure 3-9. Instantaneous fuel economy estimated by carbon balance across all MOVES OpModes for the two vehicle types. Points and error bars represent the mean ± the standard error for each given OpMode and vehicle type.

The sensitivity of fuel economy to ambient temperature was also evaluated for the two test vehicles (**Figure 3-10**). The highest median mile-per-gallon FE rating was achieved for the HEV during city operation in warm test conditions. Median fuel economy by temperature class was greatest for arterial driving for both vehicle types (**Figure 3-10**). On the highway, the HEV fuel economy was within 5 mpg across the temperature classes, whereas the variation was greater for the CV. Although median fuel economy tended to decrease with increasing temperature for city $(\sim 5 \text{ mg}$ decrease across the temperature range) and arterial $(\sim 10 \text{ mg}$ decrease across the temperature range) driving for the HEV, the CV fuel economy for these two facility types remained fairly constant (within 3 mpg) with temperature. Thus, ambient temperature may affect the fuel use by the HEV differently than it does the CV. Given the relationships between HEV operation (i.e. SOC and EDO) and temperature, this result is not surprising. However, given the large range of FE (e.g. height of boxplot, Figure 3-10) for the HEV during city and arterial driving, it is difficult to decipher a statistically significant relationship between temperature class and fuel economy.

Figure 3-10. Comparison of HEV (orange) and CV (blue) (A) instantaneous fuel consumption rates and (B) instantaneous fuel economy (mpg) as a function of ambient temperature and facility type. Note: box represents interquartile range and whiskers represent 1.5 times the interquartile range.

3.3 Tailpipe Emissions

On average over the entire driving route, the CV mean *gas*-phase tailpipe emission rates were greater than that of the HEV as shown in **Table 3-5**. Mean *particle* number emission rates over the full route, however, were higher for the HEV than the CV. A more disaggregate comparison of tailpipe emissions between the two vehicle types by temperature class, facility and operating mode helped elucidate the quantitative emissions differences between the CV and HEV. The disaggregate comparisons can be used to estimate the benefits of driving the HEV over any composite drive cycle.

3.3.1 CV and HEV Tailpipe Emissions by Facility Type and Ambient Temperature

Comparison of emission rates over the route as a function of temperature and facility type was conducted for a selection of pollutants and aggregate pollutant types (**Figure 3-11**). The variability demonstrated by large standard deviations on the plotted mean emission rates indicate the range of real-world, transient operating conditions experienced within each temperature class. These transient, high emission events have been characterized for the particle number data in more detail elsewhere^{[\[69\]](#page-72-0)}.

From **Figure 3-11** it is evident that the CV (blue) emission rates exceeded those of the HEV (orange) for many of the pollutants across the facility and temperature bins, but not for all scenarios. For instance, cold temperature, highway driving produced higher mean HEV methane $(CH₄)$ and nitrous oxide $(N₂O)$ emissions, as well as large standard deviations. This result

suggests uncharacteristically high emissions of some greenhouse gases for the cold temperature, highway operation of the HEV, but $CO₂$ did not show a similar pattern.

Table 3-5. Full Run HEV and CV Tailpipe Pollutant Emission Rates

Figure 3-11. Mean CV and HEV tailpipe emission rates as a function of facility type and ambient temperature: (A) criteria pollutants, (B) greenhouse gases, (C,D) gas-phase analytes, (E) mobile source air toxics, and (F) particle number. Each bar represents the mean emission rate with the corresponding error bar representing the standard deviation for the given facility type and run ambient temperature class.

		(µg/s unless otherwise indicated)										
		City	Highway									
		CV	HEV	CV	HEV	C_{\rm} V	HEV					
	Pollutant Summations	Mean \pm Std Dev	Mean \pm Std Dev	Mean \pm Std Dev	Mean \pm Std Dev	Mean \pm Std Dev	Mean \pm Std Dev					
Criteria Pollutants	Carbon Monoxide (mg/s)	1.1 ± 25.1	0.4 ± 6.2	2.5 ± 29.1	0.7 ± 16.5	17.4 ± 108.9	4.3 ± 87.4					
	NMHC	782.7 ± 644.3	501.6 ± 666.6	953.2 ± 942.0	787.8 ± 999.9	2023.4 ± 1455.3	1836.9 ± 1548.2					
	NO _x	45.8 ± 135.8	34.8 ± 285.0	72.4 ± 193.1	47.4 ± 453.2	130.1 ± 439.7	79.9 ± 94.7					
	Carbon Dioxide (mg/s)	2999.4 ± 2877.5	1573.8 ± 2621.7	3778.1 ± 4097.3	2536.3 ± 3479.9	8426.8 ± 5896.0	7102.4 ± 5208.2					
Greenhouse Gases	Methane	32.6 ± 91.9	24.6 ± 51.0	38.9 ± 85.8	39.9 ± 93.1	102.4 ± 214.2	87.8 ± 156.1					
	Nitrous Oxide	18.4 ± 48.4	12.0 ± 19.5	20.6 ± 33.3	17.8 ± 28.8	42.4 ± 36.8	42.8 ± 52.8					
Mobile Source AirToxics	Acetaldehyde	171.1 ± 146.1	101.2 ± 130.6	202.9 ± 209.9	164.7 ± 248.7	441.6 ± 371.8	395.7 ± 392.5					
	Acrolein	110.5 ± 99.9	63.7 ± 95.6	132.9 ± 146.3	105.6 ± 162.2	285.1 ± 235.0	237.5 ± 217.8					
	Benzene	467.9 ± 405.0	274.2 ± 362.3	557.2 ± 583.5	446.9 ± 615.2	1218.1 ± 1050.1	1017.9 ± 798.9					
	1,3-Butadiene	65.3 ± 59.0	43.7 ± 59.2	81.0 ± 83.8	66.5 ± 84.9	167.5 ± 146.9	164.2 ± 163.3					
	Formaldehyde	23.4 ± 19.6	12.6 ± 16.6	28.4 ± 28.5	20.0 ± 24.9	58.8 ± 43.0	46.9 ± 36.1					
	Alkanes	367.4 ± 305.2	256.1 ± 379.5	452.8 ± 448.3	404.3 ± 577.0	924.5 ± 646.9	921.9 ± 968.2					
	Alkenes	165.0 ± 139.8	96.4 ± 128.5	195.1 ± 199.5	145.5 ± 180.0	426.6 ± 311.7	355.1 ± 294.2					
	Alkynes	165.4 ± 145.4	93.9 ± 125.2	199.5 ± 208.5	155.3 ± 212.6	454.9 ± 455.6	353.4 ± 288.0					
	Dienes	84.9 ± 75.2	55.2 ± 75.4	105.8 ± 108.6	82.8 ± 104.5	217.4 ± 177.3	206.5 ± 191.2					
	Aromatics	2460.6 ± 2135.7	1350.4 ± 1765.1	2954.7 ± 3002.5	2191.7 ± 2903.2	6553.7 ± 5520.6	5081.5 ± 3903.3					
	Ammonia	51.7 ± 128.3	7.2 ± 51.8	36.6 ± 123.3	10.7 ± 247.5	205.1 ± 730.4	148.3 ± 1575.7					
Particles	Particle Number (EEPS, #/s) 7.0E+09 ± 4.5E+10 1.6E+10 ± 5.3E+10 1.5E+10 ± 8.5E+10 1.7E+10 ± 5.4E+10 3.2E+10 ± 7.5E+10 1.3E+10 ± 2.6E+10											
	Particle Number (CPC, #/s)	$3.2E+09 \pm 2.2E+10$ $1.4E+10 \pm 5.1E+10$ $1.4E+10 \pm 7.4E+10$ $1.4E+10 \pm 5.8E+10$ $2.8E+10 \pm 1.1E+11$ $9.4E+09 \pm 3.9E+10$										

Table 3-6. Comparison of CV and HEV Mean Emission Rates by Facility Type Mean Emission Rates

The relationship of particle number size distribution to ambient temperature and facility type is shown in **Figure 3-12**. HEV particle number emission rate exceeded that of the CV in most conditions across city and arterial driving for most of the measured particle diameters (**Figure 3- 12**). During city driving, the HEV's emission rate for accumulation mode particle diameters (Dp $= 25$ to 80 nm) increased in magnitude with increasing temperature. In contrast, the CV accumulation mode particle emission rate tended to decrease with increasing temperature. These changes in the particle number distribution may have some relation to the change in EDO across the temperature bins. More detailed investigation is needed to elucidate these relationships between particle number distribution and vehicle operating mode.

The relationships between emission rates and disaggregate vehicle activity (VSP or OpMode) may provide more insight into the overall variability captured in the aggregate plots of emission rate by temperature class in **Figure 3-11**.

Figure 3-12. Comparison of HEV and CV mean particle number distributions as a function of facility type and seasonal temperature. Note the log-log axes scales.

3.3.2 Tailpipe Emissions by Activity (VSP and OpMode)

Criteria pollutant, gas-phase emissions (e.g. CO, NMHC, NOx) were generally higher for CV than HEV, particularly for any VSP activity less than 0 kW/ton (**Figure 3-13**). With increasing VSP, the VSP bin at which a pollutant's average HEV emission rate began to exceed that of the CV was referred to as the "cross-over" VSP. This cross-over VSP corresponds to the activity at which the HEV no longer provided a reduction in emissions compared to its conventional vehicle counterpart. The cross-over point varied depending on the pollutant. For instance, there was a consistent "HEV benefit" (i.e., lower emissions from HEV vs. CV) in NOx emissions up to $VSP = 11$ kW/ton (**Figure 3-13**). For activity with VSP greater than 11 kW/ton, the HEV and CV mean VSP-weighted NOx emission rates were roughly equivalent. Particle number had two cross-over points (**Figure 3-13**) that suggest a unique relationship between particle number emissions and VSP to give two positive VSP regimes —one from $0 - 15$ kW/ton where HEV emission rates exceeded that of the CV and the second at >15 kW/ton where the CV emissions were lower than that for the HEV. Little vehicle activity occurred at VSP>31 kW/ton making it difficult to quantitatively interpret the relative emissions between the two vehicles.

Figure 3-13. Comparison HEV and CV carbon dioxide, criteria gas-phase pollutants, and total particle number emission rates as a function of VSP. Note the log y-scale with symbols representing mean emission rates and error bars corresponding to standard error.

Analysis of the emission rates as a function of MOVES operating modes showed that gas-phase, criteria pollutant emission rates from the CV typically exceeded that of the HEV, especially for the idle, braking, and low VSP operating modes (**Figure 3-14**). The cross-over point by OpMode between the CV and HEV also depended on the pollutant. For instance, NOx had two cross-over points – between OpModes 13/14 and 38/39 – but carbon monoxide, did not cross over until OpModes 30 and 40. Particle number emission rates again presented a different scenario from the gas-phase pollutants. For PN, the combination of low speed and low VSP driving was associated with HEV particle number emission rates exceeding that of the CV up until the crossover between OpMode 25 and 27. It is clear from this relationship that operating modes where the HEV was able to make reductions in gas-phase emissions relative to the CV created an anomaly in terms of particle number emissions. We have previously attributed this phenomena to internal combustion engine "restart" events occurring for the HEV during low speed, low VSP operation. [\[84,](#page-73-3) [85\]](#page-73-4)

The complex patterns of mean pollutant emission rate data as a function of VSP and MOVES OpMode suggest that the net "benefits" of driving the HEV will critically depend on driver behavior. In other words,

Figure 3-14. Comparison of HEV and CV carbon dioxide (top left), carbon monoxide (top right), non-methane hydrocarbons (middle left), oxides of nitrogen (middle right), and total particle number (bottom) emission rates as a function of OpMode. Symbols represent the mean, error bars correspond to the standard error, and note the log yscale.

4. Conclusions and Future Work

This report summarizes the techniques used to complete the first successful comparison study of the emissions and performance of a HEV to its CV counterpart of the same make/model. Sufficient replicate runs were collected using the TOTEMS instrumentation package to quantify gas- and particle-phase emission rate and fuel consumption differences as a function of VSP and MOVES operating mode during real-world driving under ambient temperatures between $-13^{\circ}C$ to $40^{\circ}C$, relative humidity ranging from 19% to 90%, and -13.2% to $+11.5\%$ road grade.

Ambient Temperature Effects. Two vehicle performance metrics of the HEV varied with ambient temperature during the run: EDO% and battery SOC%. Relatively high variability was observed in EDO% during cold season operation indicating that it may be more difficult to predict the EDO propulsion during city driving with certainty under cold temperature winter driving.

Fuel consumption. Aggregating all the route data together over all seasons, the HEV fuel economy averaged 48.8 MPG compared to 28.8 for the CV, indicating a distinct advantage for the HEV platform. Instantaneous fuel consumption varied with VSP (or OpMode) as well as facility type and fuel economy advantages for the HEV were most significant for city driving at VSP ranging from approximately -27 to +8 kW/ton. The pattern of fuel consumption differences between the two vehicles as a function of facility and VSP mirrored the VSP trends for HEV EDO propulsion driving proportion.

PN Distributions and Total Particle Number. Unlike the gas-phase pollutants, particle number emissions were higher for HEV than for the CV during low power VSP operation (VSP range 2- 13kW/ton) where the HEV had gas-phase emissions benefits over the CV. Observed changes in the particle number distributions by temperature season may have some relation to the change in EDO% across the temperature bins. More detailed investigation is needed to elucidate the relationships between particle number distribution and vehicle operating mode. Specifically, future work should include detailed analysis of particle number distributions at higher temporal resolution to delineate HEV "restart" emission relationships between gases and particles.

Road grade was not explicitly examined as an explanatory variable in this preliminary set of analyses of the TOTEMS on-board emissions data. Road grade is however a key component in the calculation of VSP and MOVES OpMode. Future work should examine the effect that use of laboratory drive cycles emissions data (where road grade is assumed to equal zero) in mobile source emissions modeling has on the accuracy of such emissions estimates for real-world driving in hilly terrain. The dataset created here for both the CV and HEV can be combined to answer this question.

Gas-phase Emissions by FTIR. In this preliminary study the manufacturer's default analysis methods were employed. Future analysis should include re-analysis of the raw FTIR spectral data to enable development of a refined FTIR analysis method for low-emitting gasoline vehicle exhaust characterization.

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Appendices

Information on TOTEMS instrument setup details, standard operating procedures for data collection and quality assurance/quality control are provided in the following appendices.

Appendix A. Sample Collection & Database Development Detail

<u>YYMMDD_SPECS.docx |FTIR screen shots of specifications pre/post-run | FTIR | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA | NA
NOTE: YELLOW HIGHLIGHTED FILES ARE COLLECTED DATA, BUT WILL NOT BE INCLUDED IN THE DATABASE
- GREEN HIGHLIGHTED</u>

Table A.3. Database Parameters from TOTEMS Instrumentation

(continued on next page)

Table A.3. continued (Page 2 of 4)

Table A.3. continued (page 3 of 4)

Table A.3. continued (page 4 of 4)

uunaanis											
Parameter	Unit	Value	Notation								
Calibration Factor	unitless	1523	x								
Temperature Correction Factor	°C										
Gravitational constant	m/s ²	9.81	g								
Coefficient of Drag: CV	unitless	0.28	Conv C_D								
Coefficient of Drag: HEV	unitless	0.27	Hyb_CD								
Mass of loaded conventional	kg	1996	Conv m								
Mass of loaded hybrid	kg	2136	Hyb m								
cross-sectional area of convention	m ²	2.48	Conv A								
cross-sectional area of hybrid	m ²	2.45	Hyb_A								
Universal Gas Constant	L.atm/mol.K	0.0821	R								
Volumetric Conversion for %		0.1	V PCT								
Volumetric Conversion for ppm			V PPM								

Table A.4. Constants for Database Parameter Calculations Constants

Data Name	Parameter	Unit	$\frac{1}{2}$ Equation	Description
DATE	Date of data collection	YYMMDD		Date the data was collected on in the format YYMMDD
TIME	Time of data collection	HH:MM:SS		Time associated with the adjusted data in the format of HH:MM:SS
VEH_ID	Vehicle used for data collection	N/A	VEH_ID = CV for Conventional Vehicle for Hybrid Vehicle HV	To ID which vehicle was used: CV (conventional vehicle) in cells when conventional used (ID using scan tool data), HV (hybrid vehicle) in cells when hybrid is used (ID using scan tool data).
DRIVER_ID	Vehicle driver's initials	N/A	DRIVER $ID =$ KMS	The initials of the driver for each run; KMS unless otherwise noted
PHASE ID	Phase of run	N/A	$PHASE$ _{ID} = IB_1 for $PHASE_NUM = 1$ TB_1 for $PHASE_NUM = 2$ WARM for $PHASE_NUM = 3$ RUN_OUT for $PHASE_NUM = 4$ PARK for PHASE_NUM = 5 RUN _IN for $PHASE$ _NUM = 6 POST for $PHASE_NUM = 7$ TB 2 for PHASE $NUM = 8$ IB_2 for PHASE_NUM = 9	The phases of the sampling run, in order, include: instrument blank (pre-sampling), tunnel blank (pre-sampling), warm-up driving, outbound sampling, parking at the Richmond Park-and- Ride, inbound sampling, post-sampling driving to gas station, tunnel blank (post-sampling), and instrument blank (post- sampling).
RUN NUM	Run Number	N/A	$RUN NO =$ 5 thru 75	Run number associated with each sampling set; 5 thru 75 for data collection runs on HV and CV
PHASE_NUM	Phase of run	N/A	$PHASE_NO =$ 1 for Pre-Run Instrument Blank 2 for Pre-Run Tunnel Blank 3 for Run Warm-Up 4 for Stablized Outbound Phase Data 5 for Idle at the Richmond Park and Ride 6 for Stabilized Inbound Phase Data 7 for Run Post Route Travel 8 for Post-Run Tunnel Blank 9 for Post-Run Instrument Blank	The phases of the sampling run are numbered one through nine, corresponding to instrument blank (pre-sampling), tunnel blank (pre-sampling), warm-up driving, outbound sampling, parking at the Richmond Park-and-Ride, inbound sampling, post-sampling driving to gas station, tunnel blank (post-sampling), and instrument blank (post-sampling), respectively.
VEH_NO	Vehicle Identification Number	N/A	$VEH_NO =$ for CV -1 $\mathfrak{2}$ for HV	Vehicle identification number for use when character type data may not be feasible.
SOY	seconds of the year	seconds	See soyassign_final.m for algorithm.	Calculated second from 12 midnight, January 1 of 2010, continuous through all future dates and times, accounting for leap year and daylight savings.
			Exhaust Flow Rate Calculated Parameters	
EST_EXHTEMP	Predicted Exhaust Temperature for missing exhaust temperature data	$^{\circ}{\rm C}$	EST_EXHTEMP = 1.18298 * SCN_SPEED + 0.02821 * SCN_RPM + 92.5954 for CV 0.02531 * SCN_RPM + 0.12429 * SCN_MOTORRPM - 8.02728 * SCN_SPEED - 0.06838 * SCN_CALCLOAD + 100.7577 for HEV	
REC EXHTEMP	Recommended Exhaust Temperature for missing exhaust temperature data	$^{\circ}C$	REC_EXHTEMP = EST_EXHTEMP if -40 < LAB1_EXHTEMP < 400 EST_EXHTEMP if [LAB1_EXHTEMP ₁ - LAB1_EXHTEMP ₁₋₁] < -80 EST_EXHTEMP if [LAB1_EXHTEMP _t - LAB1_EXHTEMP _{t-1}] > 80 LAB1 EXHTEMP else	
FLAG_EXHTEMP		N/A	EXHTEMP_FLAG = 1 if REC_EXHTEMP = LABI_EXHTEMP 2 if REC $EXTEMP = PRE$ $EXHTEMP$	
FLOWRATE 4	Differential Pressure Sensor 4	LPM	FLOWRATE 4 = $(83609.257 \cdot (LAB2$ DIFFP4 - 5)) ^{1/2}	Where $m = 83609.257$ and $b = 0$; see PitotCalibrationEquations tab for more information.
FLOWRATE_3	Differential Pressure Sensor 3	LPM	FLOWRATE_3 = $(394516.8 * LAB2$ _DIFFP3) ^{1/2}	Where $m = 394516.8$ and $b = 0$; see PitotCalibrationEquations tab for more information
FLOWRATE 2	Differential Pressure Sensor ₂	LPM	FLOWRATE 2 = $(2129720.5 * LAB2 DIFFP2)^{1/2}$	Where $m = 2129720.5$ and $b = 0$; see PitotCalibrationEquations tab for more information
FLOWRATE_1	Differential Pressure Sensor 1	LPM	FLOWRATE_1 = $(14499240 * LAB2$ _DIFFP1) ^{1/2}	Where $m = 14499240$ and $b = 0$; see PitotCalibrationEquations tab for more information
EST CHOSENFLOW			EST_CHOSENFLOW = $-219.2309 + 0.7634308 * SCN_RPM + 0.0003573 * (SCN_RPM - 947.284)^2$	See EST_CHOSENFLOW tab for regression information.
CHOSEN_FLOW	Tailpipe Flow Rate selection based on the usage range of each of the Differential Pressure Sensors	LPM	CHOSEN_FLOW = EST_CHOSENFLOW if RUN_NO = 19, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 74 PHASE 4 only FLOWRATE_4 if $0.4 \leq$ (LAB2 DIFFP4 - 5) < 4.6 FLOWRATE_3 if $0.4 \le$ LAB2 DIFFP3 < 9.6 FLOWRATE_2 if $0.4 \le$ LAB2 DIFFP2 < 9.6 FLOWRATE_1 if $0.4 \le$ LAB2 DIFFP1 < 9.6 FLOWRATE_4 if $0 \leq$ (LAB2 DIFFP4 - 5) < 0.4	Flowrate calculated from one of the four differential pressure sensors, selected based on the usage ranges for each sensor. If the uppermost condition is not met, the conditional moves to the next uppermost condition and so on. The final condition is a consideration for extrapolation beyond the usage range of the most sensitive sensor.
FLAG_FLOW	Flag for Chosen Flow	N/A	FLOW_FLAG = 1 if CHOSEN_FLOW = FLOWRATE_1 2 if CHOSEN_FLOW = FLOWRATE_2 3 if CHOSEN_FLOW = FLOWRATE_3 4 if CHOSEN_FLOW = FLOWRATE_4 5 if CHOSEN_FLOW = FLOWRATE_4 && LAB2_DIFFP4 < 0.4 6 if CHOSEN_FLOW = EST_CHOSENFLOW	Indicates the input for the final flow calculation
TC_FLOW	Temperature compensated exhaust flow rate	LPM	$TC_FLOW = CHOSEN_FLOW * ((REC_EXHTEMP + 273.15) / 298.15))$	Calculated_Flow is the calculated flow from the pressure sensors: EXH_TEMP is the Temperature from the Type J thermocouple in Kelvins

Table A.5. Calculated Parameters Descriptions (Page 1 of 4)

Table A.5. Calculated Parameters Descriptions (p. 4 of 4)

Appendix B. QA/QC Data

The raw blanks data were plotted by pollutant and run number. Due to the size of the QA/QC data files listed below, those interested in viewing the QA/QC data should contact Dr. Britt A. Holmén at britt.holmen@uvm.edu and request copies of the files listed in Table B.1. Each file contains individual Instrument Blank (IB) and Tunnel Blank (TB) raw data.

Table B.1 Instrument and Tunnel Blank Raw Data Filenames

FtirQaBoxplot_CompareQaPhases.PDF FtirQaBoxplot_CompareAllRuns.PDF PnQaTimeSeries_All.PDF PnQaBoxplotFixed_All.PDF PnQaBoxplot_All.PDF

The computed instrument detection limits (IDLs) are found in ascii files listed in Table B.2.

Table B.2 Instrument Detection Limit Filenames

FtirDL_AllIB_JUN14_Final.txt FtirDL_AllTB_JUN14_Final.txt FtirDL_PreTB_JUN14_Final.txt CpcDL_AllIB_JUN14_Final.txt CpcDL_AllTB_JUN14_Final.txt CpcDL_PreTB_JUN14_Final.txt EepsDL_AllIB_JUN14_Final.txt EepsDL_AllTB_JUN14_Final.txt EepsDL_PreTB_JUN14_Final.txt FtirDL_AllIB_22SEP12_Final.txt FtirDL_AllTB_22SEP12_Final.txt FtirDL_PreTB_22SEP12_Final.txt CpcDL_AllIB_22SEP12_Final.txt CpcDL_PreTB_22SEP12_Final.txt EepsDL_AllIB_22SEP12_Final.txt EepsDL_AllTB_22SEP12_Final.txt EepsDL_PreTB_22SEP12_Final.txt CpcDL_AllTB_22SEP12_Final.txt

Appendix C. Daily Emissions Test Logsheets

Turn-by-turn driving route information is found on the TOTEMS Data Collection Logsheet (**Table C.2**).

Table C.1. Daily Sampling Logsheet

Table C.2. Passenger Notes Logsheet by Route Turn Sequence

Signature Project 2 -- TOTEMS Data Collection **RUN: ____________** Date: ___

Initials: ____________

Appendix D. Tailpipe Flow Rate and Pitot Tube Apparatus

Figure D.3 Pitot calibration data from March 5, 2010.

Figure D.4 Pitot calibration data from July 28, 2010.

Figure D.5 Pitot calibration data from July 30, 2010.

Figure D.6 Pitot calibration data from August 9, 2010.

Figure D.7 Pitot calibration data from September 13, 2010.

Figure D.8 Pitot calibration data from November 19, 2010.

Figure D.9 Pitot calibration data from April 21, 2011.

Figure D.10 Pitot calibration data from August 2, 2011.

Figure D.11 Pitot calibration data from September 13, 2011.

Figure D.12 Evaluation and development of global pitot tube calibration equations.

Figure D.13 Estimated chosen flow calculation to estimate tailpipe flow rate when not available from pitot tube and differential pressure transducers, according to engine speed (RPM).

Appendix E. MKS Inc. Multigas FTIR Instrumentation Details

In FTIR, an infrared source produces radiation directed into an interferometer, where the beam is split, reflected, and recombined. Splitting the beam allows approximately half of the signal to be reflected on a fixed mirror and half on a moving mirror. The position of the moving mirror is known precisely, and as it translates produces a signal that has a varying phase pattern. The signal reflected on the moving mirror is then recombined with the signal reflected from the fixed mirror, producing a modulated signal with peaks and troughs altered based on the interference of the two beams. In-phase signals constructively interfere, increasing the magnitude of peaks and troughs, whereas out-of-phase signals destructively interfere, canceling the recombined signals out. The interferometer produces a modulated signal ranging from completely constructive to completely destructive interferences between the two signals, referred to as an interferogram. It is this signal that is passed through a gas sample. A detector captures the resulting range of infrared frequencies simultaneously. The signal reaching the detector is encoded with the absorption of compounds in the sample across the wide range of frequencies in the modulated signal. The Fourier transform is used to decode the summation of signals, which contains all of the intensity information across the wavenumber range of interest. The transform produces a single beam spectrum, indicating transmittance across the wavenumber region.

Details of MKS MultiGas 2030 High-Speed Gas Analyzer (FTIR)

The FTIR used in this study was the MKS MultiGas 2030 HS unit, with specifications according to **Table E.1**. **Figure E.1** is a photograph of the internal components of the MKS MultiGas interferometer to highlight critical components of the unit. The silicon carbide source of radiation was housed next to **A**, maintaining a temperature of 1200 °C. Infrared radiation traveled along the line from **A** to **B**, the beamsplitter, where fifty percent transmitted along the path towards the static mirror, **C**, and the other portion reflected towards the moving mirror, **D**. The two paths recombined, at **E**, forming the modulated signal, and followed the path out of the interferometer housing towards the optics housing. The He-Ne laser source, **F (Figure 3.1)**, followed a path around the outside of the interferometer housing before following a path similar to the infrared radiation path. The wavelength of the He-Ne laser in the MKS unit is known precisely at 15798.2 cm-1 and the broad wavelength range for the infrared radiation is measured in reference to this signal.

Table E.1 Specifications of the MultiGas 2030 HS

Inside the optics housing, the modulated signal was reflected up and through the first KBr window of the sample cell, occurring behind the liquid nitrogen dewar, **F**. The modulated signal passed into the 200 mL volume gas sample cell through potassium bromide (KBr) windows and reflected between gold-plated mirrors to achieve a 5.11-meter path length. The gas cell contained the complex sample delivered from the tailpipe and maintained at 191°C through the heated inlet and gas cell components of the instrument, as the gas calibrations are specific to standards measured at 191°C. The resulting partially absorbed, modulated signal was directed down towards the detector, **G**, indicated by the flow path. The mercury cadmium telluride (MCT) detector was cooled by liquid nitrogen stored in the dewar, **F**, at a temperature of 77 K. A wavenumber resolution of 0.5 cm-1 was selected to scan the infrared spectra at a rate of approximately 5 scans per second, with the average of each second recorded to an individual spectral file.

Figure E.1 Internal components of the MKS MultiGas Michelson interferometer. See text for identification of components labeled A-F.

Figure E.2 Optics housing of MKS MultiGas instrument showing the detector (G) and liquid nitrogen dewar (F).

FTIR Emissions Check with Certified Emissions Mix from AirGas

A certified emissions mix was used periodically to check that the instrument was functioning properly. On average the quantification of the emissions mix contents was no more than 5% different than the certification.

Emissions Mix		Carbon	Carbon Dioxide		Nitic Oxide (ppm)					
Assays	Monoxide $(\%)$			$(\%)$			Propane (ppm)			
$Mar-10$	7.48	$+0.26$	11.86	$+0.18$	3195.17	$+40.38$	3213.16	$+29.22$		
$Mar-10$	7.92	$+0.15$	12.12.	$+0.09$	3172.39	$+16.69$	3186.68	$+20.07$		
$Jun-10$	7.77	$+ 0.33$	12.01	$+$ 0.21	3142.17	$+62.42$	3180.17	$+40.42$		
$Oct-10$	7.85	$+ 0.04$	12.04	$+0.03$	3159.75	$+9.02$	3219.68	$+21.29$		
$Sep-11$	7.66	0.17 $+$	11.96	012 $+$	3225.27	20.59 $+$	3264.58	$+$ 25 17		
Target										
Certification	8.04	$+2\%$	12.22.	$+$ 2%	3030	2% $+$	3230	2% $+$		
$(\pm \text{Error Margin})$										
Average %		$-4%$	$-2%$		5%		-1%			
Difference										

Table E.2. FTIR Emissions Mix Check

In addition to checking the certified mix quantification, daily pre- and post-sampling checks of the FTIR against specifications were conducted for proper alignment, full width half height water trace, phase angle, laser frequency, signal to noise ratios, etc.

Table E.3 Mean Percentage of Non-Detects Across Sampling Runs for the Gas-Phase Emissions (with Standard Deviations)

	Pre-Run Specification Checks								Post-Run Specification Checks								
	Phase	Igram	Igram		Phi A	Calc. Laser			Phase	Igram	Igram		Phi A	Calc. Laser			
Run#	Angle	Max	Min	DC Level	pp(V)	Freq.	FWHH	Freq.	Angle	Max	Min	DC Level	pp(V)	Freq.	FWHH	Freq.	
	86.82	5.17	-0.85	3.15		15798.27	0.47	3920.09	87.53	5.18	-0.8	3.15		15798.28	0.4826	3920.09	
	86.82	5.23	-0.79	3.2		15798.28	0.4857	3920.09	87.53	5.19	-0.74	3.17		15798.28	0.4797	3920.09	
	87.53	5.23 5.17	-0.78 -0.4	3.21		15798.29 15798.29	0.4779	3920.09	87.53	5.16	-0.67	3.15		15798.26 15798.26	0.479	3920.09	
	86.82	5.13	-0.28	3.2 3.19		15798.29	0.4721 0.4781	3920.09 3920.09	88.24	5.14 5.14	-0.26 -0.43	3.19 3.17		15798.28	0.4806 0.4807	3920.09 3920.09	
10	88.24	5.08	-0.81	3.07		15798.28	0.4776	3920.09	88.94	5.08	-0.85	3.05		15798.29	0.4805	3920.09	
11	88.24	5.17	-0.8	3.15		15798.28	0.4801	3920.09	88.24	5.14	-0.86	3.12		15798.29	0.4833	3920.09	
12	89.65	4.98	-0.82	3.03		15798.29	0.4758	3920.09	88.94	5.39	-0.68	3.35		15798.29	0.4809	3920.09	
13	89.65	4.9	-0.52	3.06		15798.3	0.4771	3920.09	89.65	4.98	-0.41	3.04		15798.29	0.4754	3920.09	
14	89.65	4.99	-0.37	3.05		15798.28	0.4786	3920.09	90.35	$\overline{}$	-0.57	3.03		15798.29	0.476	3920.09	
15	89.65	4.98	-0.27	3.07		15798.28	0.4777	3920.09	89.65	5	-0.58	3.03		15798.26	0.4775	3920.09	
16	90.35	4.93	-0.32	3.03		15798.28	0.4774	3920.09	90.35	4.95	-0.52			15798.33	0.4798	3920.09	
17	90.35	4.96	-0.45	3.02		15798.28	0.4755	3920.09	90.35	4.93	-0.38	3.01		15798.27	0.4777	3920.09	
18	91.06	5.04	-0.42	3.1		15798.28	0.4759	3920.09	91.06	5.03	-0.53	3.08		15798.28	0.4785	3920.09	
19	100.94	5.16	-0.34	3.24	3.92	15798.18	0.4814	3920.09						15798.28	0.4881	3920.09	
20 21	98.12 100.24	5.28 5.33	-0.15 -0.4	3.35 3.36		15798.18 15798.24	0.4829 0.4832	3920.09 3920.09	103.06	5.19	-0.19	3.29		15798.31 15798.24	0.4883 0.4835	3920.09 3920.09	
$\overline{22}$	100.94	5.18	-0.27	3.35		15798.19	0.4824	3920.09	101.6	5.04	-0.45	3.21		15798.35	0.4771	3920.09	
23	98.12	5.18	-0.14	3.28		15798.3	0.4823	3920.09	100.94	5.06	-0.5	3.1		15798.32	0.4872	3920.09	
24	98.12	5.16	-0.18	3.3		15798.26	0.4864	3920.09	100.24	5.04	-0.01	3.22		15798.33	0.4815	3920.09	
25	98.12	5.25	-0.05	3.34		15798.34	0.4786	3920.09	101.65	5.03	-0.51	3.16		15798.3	0.4891	3920.09	
26	100.94	5.15	-0.15	3.27		15798.2	0.4877	3920.09	104.47	4.95	-0.57	3.09		15798.3	0.4701	3920.09	
$\overline{27}$	97.41	5.17	-0.17	3.3		15798.2	0.4833	3920.09	100.94	5.05	-0.6	3.14		15798.32	0.4835	3920.09	
28																	
29																	
30																	
31																	
32																	
33			-0.09														
34 $\overline{35}$	93.88 93.18	5.62 5.33	-0.16	3.41 3.22	7.8 7.92	15798.14 15798.08	0.481 0.4831	3920.09 3920.09	94.59	5.55 5.67	-0.31 -0.04	3.32 3.45	7.69 7.92	15798.2 15798.26	0.4717 0.4807	3920.09 3920.09	
36	92.47	5.66	-0.03	3.46	8.08	15798.1	0.495	3920.	95.29	5.7	-0.22	3.45	7.84	15798.26	0.4813	3920.09	
37	93.88	5.74	0.02	3.52	8.04	15798.18	0.4816	3920.09	93.18	5.59	0.22	3.41	7.96	15798.26	0.4811	3920.09	
38	91.06	5.39	0.6	3.43	7.57	15798.04	0.487	3920.09	95.29	5.5	0.02	3.41	8.27	15798.29	0.4809	3920.09	
39	92.47	5.52	0.12	3.47	8.35	15798.06	0.4894	3920.09	93.17	5.45	-0.02	3.35	8.43	15798.23	0.4808	3920.09	
40	92.47	5.53	0.08	3.46	8.43	15798.18	0.4775	3920.09	94.59	5.49	-0.35	3.26	8.28	15798.26	0.4769	3920.09	
41	92.47	5.49	0.16	3.46	8.39	15798.15	0.4809	3920.09	93.88	5.68	-0.01	3.45	8.35	15798.28	0.4841	3920.09	
42	92.47	5.47	0.18	3.41	8.47	15798.14	0.4822	3920.09	93.88	5.41	-0.17	3.24	8.47	15798.26	0.4729	3920.09	
43	93.88	5.59	-0.05	3.44	8.47	15798.14	0.4825	3920.09	93.88	5.37	0.12	3.26	8.43	15798.26	0.4809	3920.09	
44	93.18	5.48	0.36	3.44	8.04	15798.11	0.4857	3920.09	92.47	5.24	0.42	3.23	8	15798.26	0.4751	3920.09	
45	91.06	5.27	1.12	3.39	7.18	15797.99	0.489	3920.09	93.18	5.17	0.57	3.24	7.57	15798.3	0.4714	3920.09	
46	91.06	5.31	0.95	3.42	7.49	15798.24	0.4815	3920.09	93.88	5.35	0.28	3.36	8	15798.29	0.479	3920.09	
47 48	92.47 92.47	5.41 5.5	0.95	3.49	7.45 8	15798.19	0.4804	3920.09	94.59	5.39	0.06	3.32	8.28	15798.28	0.4804	3920.09	
49	92.47	5.56	0.28 -0.09	3.47 3.4	8.2	15798.1 15798.19	0.4822 0.4813	3920.09 3920.09	93.88 95.29	5.39 5.44	0.06 0.06	3.34 3.35	7.8 8.16	15798.27 15798.21	0.4802 0.477	3920.09 3920.09	
50	93.88	5.6	-0.09	3.42	8.16	15798.19	0.4827	3920.09	96	5.61	-0.28	3.39	7.96	15798.22	0.4852	3920.09	
51	93.88	5.61	-0.06	3.4	8.16	15798.16	0.4812	3920.09	94.59	5.52	-0.32	3.3	8	15798.24	0.4835	3920.09	
52	93.88	5.48	0.47	3.42	7.56	15798.21	0.477	3920.09	93.88	5.53	-0.1	3.36	8.08	15798.25	0.4805	3920.09	
53	93.18	5.47	0.57	3.4	7.45	15798.21	0.4781	3920.09	93.88	5.49	-0.08	3.37	8.12	15798.26	0.4786	3920.09	
54	93.88	5.41	-0.09	3.31	7.88	15798.21	0.4819	3920.09	96	5.45	-0.23	3.24	7.92	15798.28	0.4804	3920.09	
55	93.88	5.27	-0.05	3.18	7.7	15798.12	0.4884	3920.09	95.29	5.38	-0.37	3.16	7.73	15798.26	0.4823	3920.09	
56	95.29	5.49	-0.2	3.33	7.88	15798.15	0.4847	3920.09	94.59	5.1	0.34	3.18	7.65	15798.28	0.4862	3920.09	
57	93.88	5.37	-0.08	3.2	7.45	15798.2	0.4817	3920.09	95.29	5.26	-0.4	3.07	7.61	15798.28	0.4729	3920.09	
58	93.88	5.47	-0.09	3.37	7.57	15798.17	0.4789	3920.09	96	5.23	0.22	3.24	7.33	15798.28	0.479	3920.09	
59 60	94.59 93.18	5.47 5.55	0.25 0.23	3.33 3.4	7.41 7.61	15798.11 15798.15	0.4868 0.4862	3920.09 3920.09	96 96	5.2 5.17	29 0.17	3.24 3.22	7.33 7.65	15798.29 15798.28	0.4829 0.4773	3920.09 3920.09	
61	93.88	5.3	0.07	3.2	7.53	15798.12	0.4885	3920.09	95.29	5.08	0.24	3.15	7.25	15798.27	0.4879	3920.09	
62	94.58	5.54	-0.01	3.35	7.29	15798.16	0.4822	3920.09	96	5.16	0.31	3.25	7.96	15798.29	0.4788	3920.09	
63	93.88	5.44	0.23	3.32	7.53	15798.19	0.4752	3920.09	96	5.07	0.18	3.16	7.41	15798.3	0.4822	3920.09	
64	94.59	5.34	0.15	3.26	7.65	15798.18	0.4832	3920.09	96	5.08	0.24	3.16	7.41	15798.29	0.4861	3920.09	
65	94.59	5.51	0.25	3.36	7.45	15798.19	0.4803	3920.09	96.71	5.07	0.29	3.15	7.02	15798.28	0.4789	3920.09	
66	94.59	5.45	-0.02	3.28	7.33	15798.18	0.4776	3920.09	96.71	5.04	0.25	3.14	7.18	15798.34	0.4809	3920.09	
67	95.29	5.51	0.01	3.33	7.29	15798.24	0.4798	3920.09	96	5.03	0.33	3.15	7.25	15798.3	0.4794	3920.09	
68	93.18	5.32	$\boldsymbol{0}$	3.28	7.57	15798.22	0.484	3920.09	96.71	5.16	0.32	3.23	6.9	15798.26	0.4773	3920.09	
69	93.88	5.39	-0.21	3.23	7.25	15798.22	0.4733	3920.09	94.59	5.07	0.46	3.19	6.98	15798.26	0.48	3920.09	
70	93.18	5.39	-0.25	3.22	7.14	15798.21	0.4781	3920.09	96	5.1	0.21	3.18	7.2c	15798.3	0.4782	3920.09	
71	93.18	5.48	-0.05	3.3	7.14	15798.17	0.488	3920.09	96	5.12	0.34	3.23	7.29	15798.29	0.4813	3920.09	
72	94.59	5.52	-0.12	3.34	7.1	15798.18	0.4738	3920.09	96	5.1	0.16	3.17	6.86	15798.28	0.4848	3920.09	
73 74	93.18	5.53	0.01	3.34	7.22	15798.19	0.4729	3920.09	96	5.12	0.23	3.21	7.06	15798.27	0.4819	3920.09	
75	93.88 94.59	5.55 5.4	0.17 -0.2	3.39 3.22	7.18 7.02	15798.13 15798.18	0.4789 0.4806	3920.09 3920.09	96 96	5.08 4.98	0.28 0.15	3.2 3.08	6.98 7.29	15798.3 15798.24	0.4807 0.4861	3920.09 3920.09	
76	93.18	5.44	-0.15	3.27	7.14	15798.18	0.4821	3920.09	95.29	5.07	0.32	3.18	6.98	15798.27	0.4786	3920.09	
77	93.18	5.36	-0.22	3.22	7.1	15798.2	0.4849	3920.09	95.29	5.05	0.27	3.17	7.33	15798.26	0.4863	3920.09	
78	93.88	5.5	-0.13	3.32	6.98	15798.21	0.4809	3920.09	95.29	5.06	0.32	3.18	7.14	15798.31	0.4835	3920.09	
79	93.18	5.29	n n	324	6.94	15798.15	0.4865	3920 Uc	96.71	5.02	n ₂	3.13	7.02	15798.28	0.4865	3920.09	

Table E.4 Pre- and Post-Sampling Specification Checks for the FTIR

Appendix F. EEPS Instrument Details

Table F.1 EEPS Channel Diameters Middle of Each Bin (Dp), Lower Bound (DpL) and Upper Bound

Table F.2 Mean Percentage of Non-Detects Across Sampling Runs for the Particle Instruments: EEPS Channels, EEPS Total and CPC Total (with Standard Deviations)

Appendix G. Lag Alignment

Tables G.1 to G.5 document the temporal adjustments made to data from various instruments to achieve a time-aligned dataset for analysis. Lag Phase refers to whether the scantool data was collecting data during the outbound or inbound section of the route. Lag Phase 1 was associated with first Scantool initiation during Phase 4 of data collection and Lag Phase 2 was associated with second Scantool initiation during Phase 6 of data collection.

Table G.1 Lag Adjustment of the FTIR (CO² concentration) to the Scantool (RPM) by Run

	CPC Lag	Pearson's				CPC Lag	Pearson's		
Run No.	Adjustment (seconds)	Correlation Coefficient			Run No.	Adjustment (seconds)	Correlation		
				N_{CPC} N_{EEPS}			Coefficient N _{CPC} N _{EEPS}		
5	3	0.741465		4723 4704	42	-3	0.723777		5055 5066
6	3	0.797514		4387 4364	43	-2	0.890448		5020 5020
7	3	0.920978		4440 4497	44	2	0.210303		5665 5400
8	3	0.869061	73	4641	45	3	0.676349		4695 4693
9	4	0.827139		4536 4525	46	3	0.754119		4877 4866
10	4	0.813395	4657	4682	47	4	0.731065	4727	5274
11	3	0.71031		4879 4907	48	3	0.757548		4868 4866
12	3	0.731335		4556 4597	49	4	0.77783		5647 5399
13	3	0.826768		4376 4392	50	3	0.768218		5751 5765
14	3	0.854351		4082 4135	51	3	0.793741		4799 4843
15	$\overline{2}$	0.867909		4511 4529	52	3	0.680072		5092 5025
16	$\overline{4}$	0.774218		4101 4140	53	$\overline{4}$	0.70516		4951 4833
17	3	0.86378		4094 4117	54	$\overline{2}$	0.819626		4980 4998
18	3	0.894635		4516 4518	55	2	0.953562		4988 4970
19	3	0.813954		4732 4732	56	3	0.725207		5251 5400
20	3	0.895865		4819 4814	57	3	0.88508		4995 5013
21	3	0.857533	4677	4675	58	$\overline{2}$	0.588674		4731 4836
22	3	0.83193		5015 5028	59	3	0.852033		4914 4762
23	$\overline{2}$	0.896184		3893 5361	60	4	0.906191		4658 4696
24	3	0.819203		5553 5400	61	3	0.793877		4919 4937
25	4	0.896659		4560 4560	62	3	0.897996		4826 4821
26	3	0.863834		5400 5400	63	3	0.839707		5006 4950
27	3	0.858965		5225 5166	64	$\overline{\mathbf{4}}$	0.820227		4334 4740
28	$\overline{\mathbf{4}}$	0.838272		4897 4901	65	3	0.797507		5248 5198
29	27	0.990885		4791 4813	66	4	0.771259		4933 4964
30	3	0.825499		4676 4691	67	3	0.862171		4530 4542
31	3	0.894307		5504 5282	68	$\mathbf 0$	NaN		5385 5364
32	$\overline{4}$	0.884678		5354 5359	69	3	0.807297		5202 5201
33	-2	0.853861		4637 4656	70	3	0.799542		4778 4671
34	-2	0.837545		5334 5326	71	2	0.205598		5393 5360
35	3	0.817658		4678 4676	72	0	NaN		5048 5044
36	4	0.826102		4798 4814	73	0	NaN		5332 5321
37	$\overline{2}$	0.641434		4648 4614	74	3	0.884194		5237 5248
38	3	0.6972		4762 5400	75	0	NaN		5966 5937
39	3	0.66195		3729 3744	76	0	NaN		4855 4740
40	-2	0.796818		4548 4542	77	0	NaN		5918 5880
41	-1	0.822676	4868	4857	78	0	NaN		5123 4983
					79	4	0.366815		6219 5400

Table G.2 Lag Adjustment of CPC to the EEPS by Run

Table G.3 Lag Adjustment for EEPS Total Particle Number (and CPC) to the Scantool via RPM (correlation to load also listed)

Table G.4 Lag Adjustment of GPS to Scantool via Speed Measured by Each (Flag here indicates whether best matched data was from Garmin (1), Geologger (2), or not available for either (3))

			Pearson's			Lag Adjustment	Pearson's						Pearson's			Lag Adjustment	Pearson's		
		Lag Adjustment	Correlation			Labview Device 1	Correlation					Lag Adjustment	Correlation			Labview Device	Correlation		
		Labview Device 2	Coefficient			(Crossbow to	Coefficient					Labview Device	Coefficient			1 (Crossbow to	Coefficient		
	Lag	(Tailpipe Flow	(Labview			Scantool	(Labview				Lag	2 (Tailpipe Flow	(Labview			Scantool	(Labview		
Run No.	Phase	Rate to RPM)	Device 2)	$\mathsf{N}_{\mathsf{Flow}}$	N _{RPM}	Acceleration)	Device 1)	Crossbo	N _{Scantoo}	Run No	Phase	Rate to RPM)	Device 2)	N_{Flow}	N_{RPM}	Acceleration)	Device 1)	N _{Crossbo}	N_{Scantoc}
5	$\mathbf 1$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.805957	3574	2469	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	0.823555	3961	2454	42	2	$\overline{2}$	0.923796	2315	2199	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.70621	2332	2193
5	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.822955	1806	1962	3	0.703134	2006	1951	43	$\,1\,$	$\overline{2}$	0.885186	2680	2702	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.827016	2676	2689
6	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.808863	2797	2431	$\overline{2}$	0.767924	3127	2417	43	$\mathbf 2$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.921972	2584	2337	$\mathbf{1}$	0.671585	2646	2332
	$\overline{2}$										$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{2}$			3445	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$			
6		0	0.82029	1998	1832	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.649057	1959	1815	44			0.836367	3505			0.757765	3482	3433
$\overline{7}$	$\,$ 1 $\,$	3	0.812935	4435	2399	5	0.841872	4518	2385	44	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.90564	2310	2262	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.720496	2347	2258
$\overline{7}$	$\overline{2}$	3	0.848521	2025	1964	5	0.744562	2007	1952	45	$\,$ 1 $\,$	$\,1\,$	0.932258	2466	1248	$\,$ 1 $\,$	0.759849	2517	1247
8	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.811205	3020	2517	$\mathbf{1}$	0.782641	3082	2470	45	$\mathbf 2$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.91275	1953	2010	$\mathbf{1}$	0.673317	1965	2009
8	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.764189	2075	1217	$\,1\,$	0.498967	2071	953	46	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf 0$	0.870159	2746	2724	$\mathbf{1}$	0.824872	2773	2723
9	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.750975	3032	1818	$\,1\,$	0.637914	3054	1506	46	$\overline{2}$	0	0.918197	2167	2053	$\,1\,$	0.704598	2170	2052
$\boldsymbol{9}$	$\mathbf 2$	$\pmb{0}$	0.778095	1980	1289	$\,1\,$	0.524121	1994	1001	47	$\mathbf 1$	$\overline{2}$	0.901594	3426	2675	$\mathbf 2$	0.743723	3469	2664
10	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{1}$	0.783247	3269	2552	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.835799	3300	2542	47	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	$\overline{2}$	0.925586	1936	2000	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.678221	1952	1996
10	$\overline{2}$	0	0.803763	2105	2082	$\overline{2}$	0.677169	2098	2078	48	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{\mathbf{z}}$	0.885904	2907	2777	3	0.8156	2878	2776
11	$\mathbf 1$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.782811	3427	2725	$\overline{2}$	0.817003	3473	2707	48	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf 0$	NaN	2022	$\mathbf 0$	$\mathbf 0$	NaN	2051	0
11	$\mathbf 2$	$\overline{1}$	0.776024	2130	2076	$\mathbf{1}$	0.691949	2137	2051	49	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.889485	3251	3081	$\overline{}$	0.778208	3465	3080
12	$\,$ 1	$\pmb{0}$	0.799609	3199	2482	$\,1\,$	0.828024	3229	2465	49	$\mathbf 2$	0	NaN	2251	0	0	NaN	2326	0
12	$\overline{2}$	$\mathsf 0$	0.826764	2060	2013	0	0.703255	2067	2000	50	$\mathbf 1$	0	NaN	2846	$\mathbf 0$	$\bf 0$	NaN	2957	0
13	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{2}$	0.916328	2890	2295	3	0.864091	2995	2292	50	2	45	0.1451	2324	2002	$\bf 0$	0.119298	2537	2000
13	$\mathbf 2$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.934205	2050	2039	$\overline{2}$	0.758513	2087	2034	51	$\mathbf{1}$	$\,1\,$	0.835381	1862	2525	$\overline{2}$	0.820968	2623	2524
14	$\mathbf 1$	$\overline{2}$	0.908995	2790	2148	$\overline{2}$	0.872458	2866	2139	51	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	$\overline{\mathbf{c}}$	0.924504	2203	1924	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.707122	2274	1922
14	$\mathbf 2$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.925019	1954	1919	$\mathbf 2$	0.773729	1959	1915	52	$\overline{1}$	3	0.894537	2837	2522	3	0.806611	2851	2520
15	$\,$ 1 $\,$	$\overline{2}$	0.91754	2897	2245	$\overline{2}$	0.872061	2989	2238	52	$\mathbf 2$	$\overline{\mathbf{3}}$	0.9209	2345	2073	3	0.676321	2426	2072
15	$\mathbf 2$	1	0.93023	2233	2239	1	0.71534	2302	2229	53	$\mathbf 1$	3	0.876022	2663	2590	3	0.808507	2717	2589
												$\overline{2}$							
16	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{2}$	0.902168	2876	2170	$\mathbf{1}$	0.865768	2986	2161	53	$\overline{2}$		0.925855	2142	2129	$\overline{2}$	0.726063	2209	2128
$16\,$	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.917804	1877	1900	$\mathbf{1}$	0.765456	1918	1896	54	$\mathbf 1$	$\overline{2}$	0.674634	2825	2234	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.70585	2791	2233
17	$\mathbf{1}$	\overline{a}	0.919513	3117	2267	3	0.860162	3173	2260	54	$\mathbf 2$	$\overline{2}$	0.618601	2174	934	3	0.637413	2168	933
17	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf 2$	0.920512	1718	1751	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.734745	1808	1743	55	$\mathbf 1$	3	0.698194	2807	2754	3	0.782876	2819	2753
18	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{2}$	0.916486	3296	2579	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.859063	3338	2565	55	$\mathbf 2$	$\mathbf 2$	0.738784	2259	2261	$\mathbf 2$	0.615619	2250	2260
18	$\overline{2}$	$\overline{2}$	0.914637	1814	1896	$\mathbf{1}$	0.737755	1929	1888	56	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.729731	3191	2471	$\overline{2}$	0.798637	3178	2470
19	$\mathbf 1$	0	NaN	3218	2660	$\,1\,$	0.845071	3192	2653	56	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.694408	2367	2274	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.653695	2359	2273
19	$\mathbf 2$	0	NaN		2134 2113	$\,1\,$	0.735722	2130	2109	57	$\overline{1}$	44	0.733355	7984	2440	45	0.78179	8011	2437
20	$\,$ 1	$^{\rm -1}$	0.915735	2721	2640	0	0.845964	2827	2630	57	$\mathbf 2$	44	0.758426	2141	2159	45	0.619375	2151	2159
20	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	-1	0.915179	2027	2150	0	0.736951	2195	2145	58	$\mathbf 1$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.722372	3763	2518	$\mathbf 2$	0.677689	3758	2517
21	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.912867	3065	2441	2	0.844103	3164	2429	58	$\mathbf 2$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.740859	2391	2303	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.639733	2474	2302
21	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf 1$	0.925761	2053	2093	$\,1\,$	0.763475	2191	2087	59	$\,1\,$	19	0.734948	5689	2577	21	0.761691	7579	2575
22	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{2}$	0.93176	3295	2588	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.862613	3567	2579	59	$\mathbf 2$	19	0.781242	2086	2114	21	0.605802	2079	2114
22	$\mathbf 2$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.937995	1825	2201	0	0.76994	2282	2193	60	$\mathbf 1$	9	0.751991	6325	2482	11	0.690701	6540	2481
23	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.750428	4560	2675	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.827471	4635	2666	60	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	9	0.784475	2066	2009	$11\,$	0.668465	2079	2008
23	$\overline{2}$	2	0.667041	2005	1976	3	0.728852	2021	1968	61	$1\,$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.758771	2904	2578	3	0.76943	2912	2577
24	$\mathbf 1$	$\overline{3}$	0.439354	2994	2736	3	0.816728	2982	2726	61	$\mathbf 2$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.791346	2132	1992	$\overline{2}$	0.738102	2149	1991
24	$\mathbf 2$	0	0.882793	2740	1978	$\,1\,$		2739	1970		$\mathbf 1$	$\overline{2}$	0.725876	2763	2551	3	0.792355	2786	2548
		$\overline{2}$					0.708131			62									
25	$\,$ 1		0.56501	2570	2411	$\,1\,$	0.842165	2642	2403	62	$\mathbf 2$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.762168	2127	2059	$\mathbf 2$	0.46318	2127	2058
25	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	$\overline{2}$	0.495146	2999	2011	1	0.703929	2999	2004	63	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.724193	2824	1340	1	0.768208	2842	1339
26	$\mathbf{1}$	4	0.008558	2976	2910	$\overline{2}$	0.78635	3001	2902	63	$\mathbf 2$	0	0.785405	2181	2120	$\,1\,$	0.676025	2194	2117
26	$\overline{2}$	$\overline{3}$	0.195124	2685	2018	$\overline{2}$	0.705832	2686	2009	64	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.750854	2649	2663	3	0.725054	2638	2661
27	$\mathbf{1}$	4	0.051358	2583	2824	$\mathbf 2$	0.832019	2605	2814	64	$\overline{2}$	0	0.769464	2146	2043	$\mathbf 2$	0.595673	2164	2043
27	$\overline{2}$	3	0.152724	2513	2043	$\overline{2}$	0.740719	2469	2037	65	$\mathbf 1$	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.736312	3066	2940	3	0.778384	3076	2939
28	$\,$ 1	$\overline{2}$	0.932822	2642	2583	$\overline{2}$	0.796673	2728	2562	65	$\mathbf 2$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.749332	2218	2155	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.66932	2225	2154
28	$\mathbf 2$	$\overline{2}$	0.930785	2089	2008	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.702284	2279	1998	66	$\mathbf 1$	29	0.708616	5324	2850	30	0.74339	8049	2849
29	$\,$ 1	$\mathbf{1}$	0.926981	2806	2766	$\mathbf{1}$	0.811986	2851	2747	66	$\mathbf 2$	28	0.77035	1988	1955	29	0.535254	1996	1954
29	$\mathbf 2$	$\overline{1}$	0.930221	2669	1882	$\,1\,$	0.67401	2897	1865	67	$\mathbf{1}$	\overline{a}	0.808008	4483	2389	5	0.813226	4310	2387
30	$\,$ 1 $\,$	$\overline{2}$	0.925515	2456	2535	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.784672	2539	2513	67	2	4	0.774834	2077	2066	5	0.684071	2072	2066
30	$\overline{2}$	1	0.936765	2132	2109	$\mathbf{1}$	0.659421	2412	2093	68	$\,1\,$	$\overline{2}$	0.916914	3038	3238	13	0.193747	3225	3236
31	$\mathbf{1}$	0	NaN	$\mathbf{0}$	2994	0	NaN	$\pmb{0}$	2980	68	2	$\overline{2}$	0.928478	1750	1966	-16	0.147313	1990	1965
31	$\overline{2}$	12	0.70198	2260	1944	13	0.637975	2330	1935	69	$1\,$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.915417	2995	3051	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.824545	3099	3050
32	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{}$	0.650304	2977	2997	3	0.766513	3088	2978	69	$\overline{}$	1	0.905935	1987	2140	$\overline{}$	0.715697	2139	2139
32	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.722105	2358	2088	3	0.641481	2397	2079	70	$\,1\,$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.911221	2819	2595	$\mathbf 2$	0.858252	2963	2593
33	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.701523	2179	2440	$\overline{2}$	0.766936	2313	2348	70	$\mathbf 2$	$\overline{2}$	0.924157	1783	2130	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.73349	2081	2130
33	$\mathbf 2$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.72497	2138	2050	$\overline{2}$	0.631594	2130	2038	71	$\mathbf 1$	$\overline{2}$	0.912824	3081	3092	$\mathbf 2$	0.815735	3155	3090
34	$\,$ 1	$\mathbf 0$	0.697718	2981	3134	$\mathbf{1}$	0.743661	3070	3125	71	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	3	0.935165	2001	2212	3	0.740686	2197	2212
34	$\mathbf 2$	0	0.674559	2074	2058	$\mathbf{1}$	0.595489	2122	2052	72	$\mathbf{1}$	$\overline{2}$	0.924806	2742	2716	3	0.808174	2898	2715
35	$\,$ 1 $\,$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.748724	2686	2691	$\mathbf 2$	0.752576	2701	2684	$72\,$	$\mathbf 2$	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.935057	1949	2193	3	0.706796	2251	2192
35	$\mathbf 2$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.755147	2178	1961	$\overline{2}$	0.647562	2162	1958	73	$\mathbf 1$	$\mathbf{1}$	0.939149	2010	2669	$\,1\,$	0.843178	3005	2667
		1			2634 2662		0.783159	1935	2655				0.91219	2069	2267			2285	
36	$\mathbf{1}$		0.734361							73	$\overline{\mathbf{c}}$						0.705772		2267
36	$\overline{2}$	$^{\circ}$	0.766642	2145	2063	$\mathbf{1}$	0.680317	2158	2059	74	$\mathbf{1}$	$\mathbf 0$	NaN	21	3105	3	0.809951	3188	3103
37	$\mathbf 1$	$\,$ 1	0.756259	2675	2505	$\mathbf{1}$	0.756396	2692	2499	74	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	$\overline{2}$	0.925763	1849	2266	3	0.721679	2124	2266
37	$\mathbf 2$	$\,1\,$	0.76147		2089 1946	$\mathbf 2$	0.672916	2232	1943	75	$\,1\,$	0	NaN	3545	0	$\pmb{0}$	NaN	3671	0
38	$\mathbf 1$	$\mathbf 0$	0.703396		2560 2204	$\mathbf 2$	0.748358	2639	2199	75	$\overline{2}$	$\mathsf 3$	0.922257	2219	2001	$\sqrt{4}$	0.72196	2379	2000
38	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf 0$	0.763	2788	2123	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.637537	5714	2119	76	$1\,$	$\mathbf 2$	0.919294	2652	2563	$\mathbf 2$	0.825215	2795	2562
39	$\mathbf{1}$	$\,$ 1	0.750244	2947	2868	$\overline{2}$	0.758639	2964	2860	76	$\overline{2}$	3	0.921378	1854	1987	$\mathbf 2$	0.689774	2025	1986
39	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf 1$	0.840249	794	800	$\overline{2}$	0.514004	783	799	77	$\,$ 1 $\,$	4	0.908175	3188	2868	5	0.804804	3322	2867
40	$\,$ 1	$\mathbf 0$	0.718323		2529 2469	$\mathbf 2$	0.766986	2519	2465	77	$\mathbf 2$	5	0.898696	2455	2269	5	0.711161	2615	2268
40	$\overline{2}$	$\mathbf 0$	0.78927		2153 2026	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.650485	2124	2021	78	$\,$ 1 $\,$	$\mathbf 2$	0.909122	2656	2529	3	0.802212	2792	2528
41	1	$\mathbf 2$	0.891193		2625 2586	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.807131	2617	2579	78	$\mathbf 2$	$\overline{\mathbf{2}}$	0.924015	2035	2184	3	0.69801	2260	2183
41	$\overline{2}$	$\,$ 1 $\,$	0.924343	2292	2098	$\mathbf{1}$	0.700174	2296	2094	79	$1\,$	6	0.861762	3045	2855	6	0.855728	2917	2852
42	$\overline{1}$	$\overline{}$	0.896773 2694 2696			$\overline{}$	0.834223	2725	2690	79	$\overline{2}$	6	0.5624	2574 2599		$\mathbf 0$	NaN	$\mathbf{0}$	2599

Table G.5 Lag Adjustment of the Labview Devices to the Scantool

Figure H.1 Overview of Database Framework on HolmenGroup Share Drive

Appendix I. Model Year 2010 Toyota Camry Vehicle Emissions Ratings

