



## Evaluation of EDAR vehicle emissions remote sensing technology



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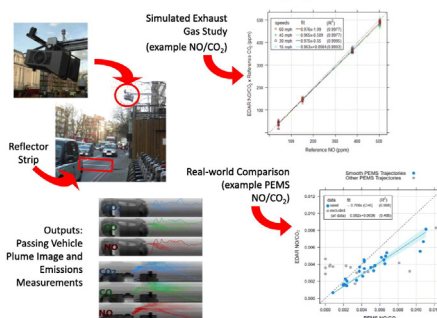
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### HIGHLIGHTS

- EDAR is a new laser-based method for vehicle emissions remote sensing.
- Complementary blind EDAR evaluation trials undertaken in USA and UK
- Simulated exhaust gas tests showed high sensitivity and low drift for EDAR.
- EDAR in good agreement with other real-world emissions measurements

### GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

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### ABSTRACT

Despite much work in recent years, vehicle emissions remain a significant contributor in many areas where air quality standards are under threat. Policy-makers are actively exploring options for next generation vehicle emission control and local fleet management policies, and new monitoring technologies to aid these activities. Therefore, we report here on findings from two separate but complementary blind evaluation studies of one new-to-market real-world monitoring option, HEAT LLC's Emission Detection And Reporting system or EDAR, an above-road open path instrument that uses Differential Absorption LIDAR to provide a highly sensitive and selective measure of passing vehicle emissions.

The first study, by Colorado Department of Public Health and Environment and Eastern Research Group, was a simulated exhaust gas test exercise used to investigate the instrumental accuracy of the EDAR. Here, CO, NO, CH<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub> measurements were found to exhibit high linearity, low bias, and low drift over a wide range of concentrations and vehicle speeds. Instrument accuracy was high (R<sup>2</sup> 0.996 for CO, 0.998 for NO; 0.983 for CH<sub>4</sub>; and 0.976 for C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>) and detection limits were 50 to 100 ppm for CO, 10 to 30 ppm for NO, 15 to 35 ppmC for CH<sub>4</sub>, and, depending on vehicle speed, 100 to 400 ppmC<sub>3</sub> for C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>.

The second study, by the Universities of Birmingham and Leeds and King's College London, used the comparison of EDAR, on-board Portable Emissions Measurement System (PEMS) and car chaser (SNIFFER) system measurements

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collected under real-world conditions to investigate in situ EDAR performance. Given the analytical challenges associated with aligning these very different measurements, the observed agreements (e.g. EDAR versus PEMS  $R^2$  0.92 for CO/CO<sub>2</sub>; 0.97 for NO/CO<sub>2</sub>; ca. 0.82 for NO<sub>2</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub>; and, 0.94 for PM/CO<sub>2</sub>) were all highly encouraging and indicate that EDAR also provides a representative measure of vehicle emissions under real-world conditions.

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## 1. Introduction

Open path optical instruments, spectrophotometers that incorporate separate light sources and analyzers, and measure the absorption of light in ambient air between the two, have been widely used in environment applications since the 1970s. However, at that time source-to-analyzer path lengths were typically of the order of hundreds of meters or more.

The first successful demonstration of an absorption technique as a viable across-road Vehicle Emissions Remote Sensing System (VERSS) was probably by Don Stedman, Gary Bishop and Colleagues at the University of Denver and the Ford Motor Company in the late 1980s (Bishop et al., 1989; Stephens and Cadle, 1991). Their success where others before them had failed reflected their focus on the stabilisation of the instrument reference beam (Burgard et al., 2006a), a step that allowed them both to operate at a path length of ca. 10 m and to account for air disturbance by passing vehicles (an effect that was termed 'shimmering' in some earlier publications on this topic, see e.g. Hoshizaki et al., 1973). That first instrument was a liquid nitrogen cooled non-dispersive infrared (NDIR) that only measured CO and CO<sub>2</sub>, but they actively worked to refine it over the next two decades, removing the need for liquid nitrogen cooling (Burgard et al., 2006a), adding Hydrocarbon (HC), H<sub>2</sub>O and NO channels to their NDIR system (Stedman et al., 1994, 1995; Guenther et al., 1995), integrating an ultraviolet (UV) spectrophotometer (Zhang et al., 1996) and, using that and modifications thereof, providing improved NO measurement (Popp et al., 1999) and additional NO<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> channels (Burgard et al., 2006b). The Denver group and industrial partners, Environmental Systems Products (ESP), also commercialized one variant of their system, known as Fuel Efficiency Automobile Test or FEAT, as the Remote Sensing Device (RSD) series of instruments, and provided some of the earliest comments on across-road particulate measurement (see e.g. Stedman and Bishop, 2002; ESP, 2010).

Other remote sensing systems, typically based on different spectro-metric approaches, have been applied to passing vehicle emissions, see e.g. LIDAR (Moosmüller et al., 2003), TILDAS (Jimenez-Palacios, 1998; Jiménez et al., 1999), and alternative light sources and/or detector system combinations (Jack et al., 1995; Wang et al., 2000; REVEAL, 2002), and several of these have been commercialized as for example the Smog Dog and the REVEAL. However, none of these have been widely adopted. As a result, the Stedman and Bishop FEAT and RSD series of instruments are responsible for the collection of the majority of the remote sensing data currently available (see e.g. Zhang et al., 1995; Sjödin and Andréasson, 2000; McClintock, 2011; Bishop et al., 2012; Chen and Borken-Kleeefeld, 2014). FEAT and RSD systems have also been applied to a wide range of emissions measurement applications, quite literally planes, trains and automobiles. Furthermore, the FEAT is the prototype for the classic across-road design that most other VERSSs adopted, and what most researchers picture when they think of a VERSS.

The sampling strategy does, however, have its limitations (Frey and Eichenberger, 1997; Franco et al., 2013). Emission measurement is based on the absorption of light from a single beam projected across the monitored vehicle lane. This means results are highly sensitive to exhaust position and degree of plume/light beam intersection. Exact absorption coefficient assignment is also subject to some uncertainty, see discussion of path length and plume properties in e.g. Jimenez-Palacios (1998), although arguably some work has been done to address such issues (see e.g. Full and ESP (Environmental Systems Products) Holdings, 2009).

Alternative sampling strategies have been proposed for some hard-to-measure vehicle types, but these typically employ active sampling methods, e.g. the On-road Heavy-duty Vehicle Emissions Monitoring System (OHMS) system developed by Bishop, Stedman and Colleagues for Heavy Duty Vehicles with higher cab-mounted exhausts (Bishop et al., 2015).

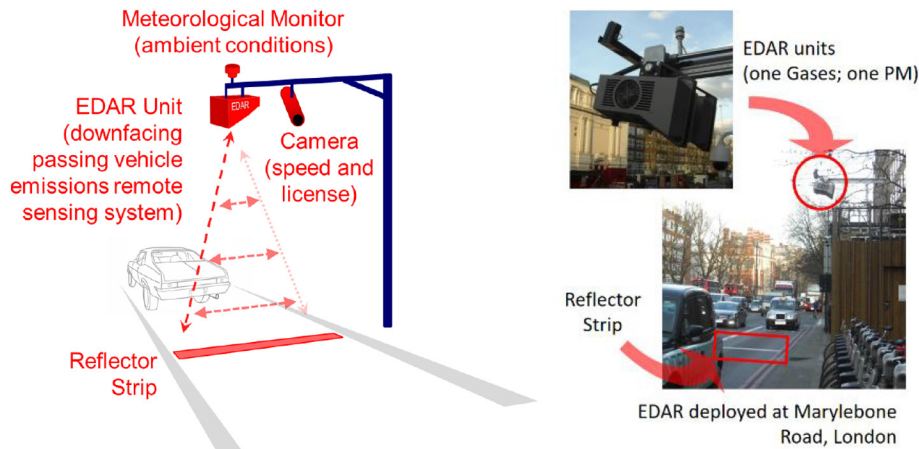
More recently, Hager Environmental & Atmospheric Technologies (HEAT LLC) introduced the Emission Detection And Reporting (EDAR) system, an infrared laser based VERSS that incorporates several novel features that make it a particularly interesting option for vehicle emissions-based applications (Hager, 2015).

Firstly, it uses a patented variation on Differential Absorption LIDAR (DiAL), a technique pioneered by Measures and Pilon (1972) and previously applied in the NASA Activity Sensing of CO<sub>2</sub> Emissions Nights, Days and Seasons (ASCENDS) satellite program (Abshire et al., 2010). DiAL is widely reported to have both greater sensitivity and greater resolving power by comparison to conventional absorption spectroscopy-based remote sensing systems (Ambrico et al., 2000; Menzies and Tratt, 2003; Abshire et al., 2010; Hager, 2015). In DiAL, laser pulses are transmitted at two wavelengths, one an analyte absorption line, and another nearby but not an absorption line for that species. If the wavelengths are sufficiently close signal scattering associated with instrumental noise, sensor drift and interference from other species such as water vapor (and particulates if analyte is gaseous) are assumed to be equal for both wavelengths, and the difference between the two is regarded a function of analyte concentration alone.

Secondly, the approach also allows EDAR to be readily tuned for novel applications, e.g. measurement of for individual hydrocarbons, a capability already demonstrated in recent EPA-instigated work where the EDAR was used to measure evaporative fuel losses from US vehicles (Hart et al., 2015; Stanard and DeFries, 2014). But, similarly, the PM measurement method used in the UK study reported herein, which is based on principles described in Mazzoleni et al. (2010), was developed recently and the NO<sub>2</sub> measurement was specially commissioned for the same study at short notice.

However, perhaps most importantly, the EDAR also employs a down-facing, single-unit camera configuration (Fig. 1) that potentially offers a number of practical advantages over the conventional across-road, single-beam arrangement of traditional VERSSs. Because the EDAR is an above-road unit that employs a whiskbroom scanning approach (side to side across one or more lane multiple times as a vehicle passes), it takes a down-facing image of a passing vehicle and its exhaust plume. The use of this plume image means not only that the approach is likely to be less sensitive to factors such as vehicle lane position, exhaust position and wind speed but also a potential source of novel information about vehicle emissions dispersion. (See Supporting data for further discussion.) The 'up high' deployment of the system also means that, once installed, it is likely to be much less disruptive to traffic flows and pedestrians and much less susceptible to system fouling, e.g. from road-level dirt resuspension and splash-back from passing vehicles, than conventional across-road systems that deploy light sources, analyzers and (if used) mirror boxes only a few inches above the road surface.

This paper therefore presents key findings from recent work to evaluate the performance of the EDAR, and is intended to contribute to the knowledge base for this new-to-market technology and for policy makers considering future options for monitoring, managing and perhaps even policing air quality problems caused by traffic.



**Fig. 1.** Left, schematic of HEAT EDAR VERSS showing main components. The EDAR systems is activated when a forward-facing camera detects an on-coming vehicle and rapidly whiskbroom scans back and forth along the road mounted reflector strip repeatedly as the vehicle passes over to generate plume images of measured species. Simultaneously, a meteorological monitor records ambient temperature, pressure and humidity, an automatic number plate recognition system and speed camera logs vehicle information. Right, photographs of the EDAR deployment of Marylebone Road London, where the unit was deployed on the roof of an air quality monitoring station.

## 2. Methods

This paper presents the findings of two complementary EDAR evaluation projects. The first was implemented by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), and undertaken by the Colorado Department of Public Health and Environment (CDPHE), and Eastern Research Group (ERG) on Bandimere Speedway grounds near Morrison, Colorado in the US in September 2015. The second was undertaken by the Universities of Birmingham and Leeds and King's College London at three roadside sites in the UK, Tyburn Road Birmingham, Marylebone Road Central London, and Blackheath Hill Greenwich, in February 2016 as part of work supported by the UK Department for Transport (DfT).

Both evaluations were 'blind tests'. HEAT personnel acted solely as EDAR operators and technical advisors regarding the EDAR performance during the tests, and were not privy to evaluation method outputs prior to the reporting of their own results. Likewise, assessors were not privy to patent-pending or otherwise commercially sensitive information regarding EDAR functionality and treated associated analyses for these first-round evaluations as a 'black box' comparison where these were issues.

We present the combined findings of these two studies, referred to hereafter as CDPHE/ERG and UoB/UoL/KCL, respectively, together because they provide complementary insights into the performance of the EDAR.

### 2.1. CDPHE/ERG simulated exhaust gas study

As part of the CDPHE/ERG study, the EDAR instrument underwent blind evaluation using simulated exhaust gas methods to assess accuracy, precision, detection limit and drift.

The EDAR system was setup to measure exhaust CO, NO, CH<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>, (all as estimated ppm analyte and molar ratio analyte/CO<sub>2</sub>) and CO<sub>2</sub> (estimated % CO<sub>2</sub>) and mounted (ca. 5 m) above the study site, a private roadway within the grounds of the Bandimere Speedway, on a purpose-built hydraulic boom for operation in its standard down-facing configuration. The boom was secured by guy-wires and mounted on a custom-built deployment trailer used previously in EDAR studies in, e.g., Connecticut, Arizona and Tennessee. Directly below the EDAR, 3 M retro-reflective tape was attached to the road surface to reflect the laser infrared light back to the EDAR instrument, creating an analytical path length of ca. 10 m. Small ramps were secured to the road prior to the retro-reflective tape to protect it from damage during testing.

A CDPHE RSD Audit Truck was used as the test vehicle for the study. The test vehicle was a conventional gasoline truck that was fitted with an extended exhaust pipe to divert actual engine exhaust gases ca. 3 m

away from its conventional release point, and a simulated tailpipe and gas release system that allowed the controlled release of bottled reference gas from that point to simulate an exhaust plume while the vehicle is in motion. The test vehicle was also equipped with a flow meter to regulate simulated exhaust gas flow rates.

Fig. 2 includes both photographs of the EDAR in the trailer mounted configuration used in the CDPHE/ERG study and the Simulated Exhaust Gas Audit Truck, and a schematic of the Audit Truck.

Four five-gas (CH<sub>4</sub>, C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>, CO, NO and CO<sub>2</sub>) reference blends, formulated by Air Liquide and hereafter designated blends A–D, were used in the study. The concentrations and relative ratios of analytes in these, as summarized in Table 1, were selected to approximate stoichiometric gasoline combustion emissions from a range of vehicles including a number that failed conventional emissions tests such as IM240, the chassis dynamometer test the EPA recommends for in-use light duty vehicles inspection & maintenance (I&M) programs.

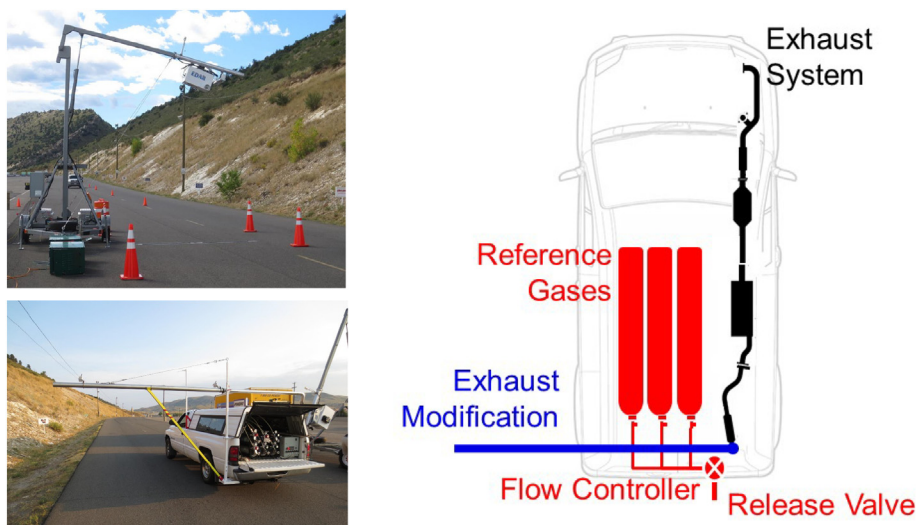
Two additional reference gas blends, designated Q and F, were used for instrument drift checking, quality assurance and instrument testing during setup work.

EDAR measurements were collected for test vehicle drive-throughs at various speeds (nominally 15, 30, 45, and 60 miles per hour or mph) with reference gas release rates of ca. 30 standard cubic feet per minute (SCFM), the release rate that CDPHE typically uses to evaluate other remote sensing instruments. Initially eight drive-through measurements were made with blend F (two at each vehicle speed) and the concentrations of this blend were made known to HEAT personnel so they could confirm proper operation of their system. Then a series of 160 test runs were undertaken (ten replicates each of all combinations of the blends A–D at the four vehicle speeds) and these were used to calculate performance statistics including precision, accuracy and detection limit. Nine further runs were also made with blend Q to investigate instrument drift. These were made across the study period, and associated measurements were collected using vehicle run-through speeds of 15 mph to maximize EDAR signal size.

(See also DeFries, 2016 and DeFries et al., 2017 for further details of this work.)

### 2.2. UoB/UoL/KCL real-world study

As part of the UoB/UoL/KCL study, the EDAR instrument underwent blind evaluation under real-world conditions by in situ cross-comparison with other real-world methods (Portable Emissions Measurement System or PEMS and vehicle chaser or SNIFFER) as part of a series of more conventional roadside EDAR deployments.



**Fig. 2.** Top Left, photograph of EDAR in trailer-mounted configuration used in the CDPHE/ERG study. Bottom Left, photograph of the Simulated Exhaust Gas Audit Truck used as point-of-reference for the same study. Right, schematic of the same vehicle, highlighting key features for this study, namely a modified exhaust which displaced actual vehicles exhaust emissions, and a gas release system that released a regulated flow of a standard gas mixture at the conventional vehicle exhaust point.

During this study the EDAR was deployed at three sites in the UK, Birmingham Tyburn Road, London Marylebone Road and Greenwich Blackheath Hill. Birmingham Tyburn Road is on the A38 dual carriageway, a main arterial route into Birmingham (latitude 52.512194, longitude  $-1.830861$ ). London Marylebone Road is on the A501 6-lane carriageway, a highly-congested roadway in central London (latitude 51.522530, longitude  $-0.154611$ ). Greenwich Blackheath Hill is on the A2 on a steep incline (ca. 7%) on Blackheath Hill, a major arterial route in South London (latitude 51.472362, longitude  $-0.012113$ ).

At each site the EDAR was deployed close to a conventional stationary air quality monitoring station. The stations provided fixed point air quality data at 1-h and 15-min resolutions that is routinely quality assured and used for regulatory air quality assurance. This, used in combination with local traffic flow and meteorological data, provided a means of characterizing conditions on the deployment days. However, co-location limited the choice of deployment sites, and meant that these sites were not optimal locations for EDAR (or any VERSS) deployment.

Two EDAR systems were deployed at all three sites for the UK studies. The first of these was setup to measure exhaust CO, NO and NO<sub>2</sub> (all as estimated ppm analyte and molar ratio analyte/CO<sub>2</sub>) and CO<sub>2</sub> (estimated % CO<sub>2</sub>). The NO<sub>2</sub> measurement channel was specially commissioned for this study. The second unit was setup to measure exhaust particulate matter (PM; reported as nanomoles/mole PM/CO<sub>2</sub>).

At London Marylebone Road, the EDAR was mounted on the roof of the air quality monitoring station, while at Birmingham Tyburn Road and Greenwich Blackheath Hill it was mounted on scaffolding platforms setup adjacent to the local air quality monitoring station. One further

**Table 1**  
Five-gas (CH<sub>4</sub>, C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>, CO, NO and CO<sub>2</sub>) reference gas blends used in CDPHE/ERG Simulated Exhaust Gas Study.

	Blend					
	A	B	C	D	Q	F
CH <sub>4</sub> (ppmC)	209	103	50.9	24.1	0	0
C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>8</sub> (ppmC <sub>3</sub> )	1300	398	115	31.7	1100	6000
CO (ppm)	20,000	494	1500	30.0	30,000	50,000
NO (ppm)	502	377	151	40.8	500	250
CO <sub>2</sub> (%)	13.9	14.9	14.9	14.9	12.92	11.5
N <sub>2</sub>	Balance	Balance	Balance	Balance	Balance	Balance

Notes: All reference gas blends were formulated with a 2% tolerance. Blends A–D and Q were used in blind tests, while Blend F was used for initial EDAR set-up and testing prior to testing.

compromise required for first-time UK deployment was that the EDAR units, although 5 m above the road as in the CDPHE/ERG study, were near to, rather than directly over, the passing vehicles being monitored.

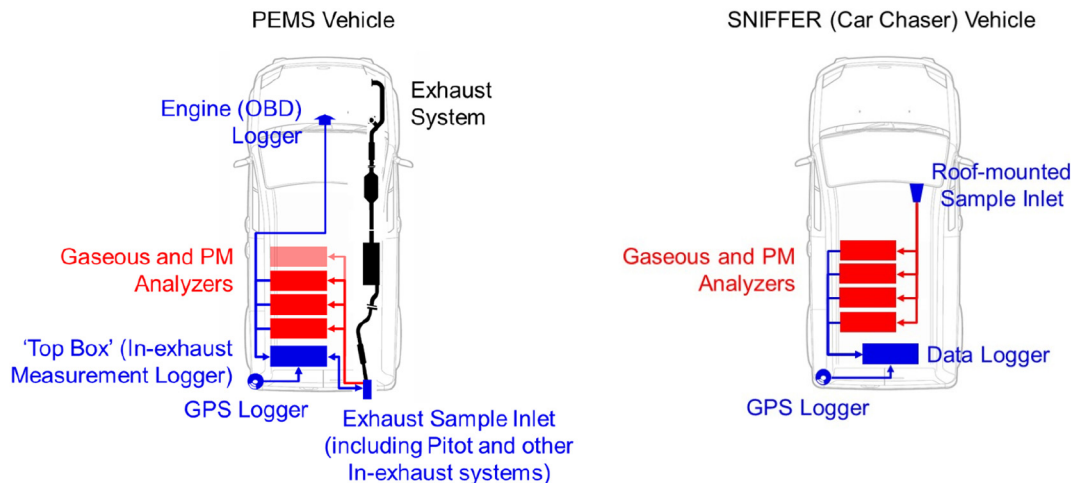
#### 2.2.1. Portable Emissions Measurement System (PEMS) comparison

A vehicle fitted with a Portable Emissions Measurement System (PEMS), a specialist exhaust gas measurement system that provided a direct measure of the emissions of that vehicle, was run at the same site during the Greenwich Blackheath Hill EDAR deployment.

The PEMS system was purpose-built for this study and installed in a Ford Transit Connect Van (EURO 4 2.0 L Diesel). It consisted of two gas benches, one NDIR-based for CO<sub>2</sub> and CO measurement and one UV-based for NO and NO<sub>2</sub> measurement, an ionization-based PM analyzer, a Pitot-based exhaust flow measurement system, and dedicated exhaust sampling system. A zirconium sensor was also used to measure NO<sub>x</sub> and O<sub>2</sub>, and a secondary system, a parSYNC PLUS (supplied by 3DATX Inc) was used to provide confirmatory measures of CO<sub>2</sub>, NO, NO<sub>2</sub> and PM exhaust concentrations, although the latter were not used directly in this study. Supporting vehicle, engine and GPS data were collected using a commercial logger. Associated data was aligned and emissions calculated using dedicated R code/methods (Ropkins, 2016).

A schematic of the PEMS vehicle installation is provided as Fig. 3 Left. The PEMS test vehicle was run through the EDAR measurement area multiple times under a range of engine loads and in different gears with the objective of providing a broad range of emissions.

The PEMS/EDAR data alignment strategy used here was a refinement of one previously employed to compare PEMS and RSD data in earlier work (Ropkins et al., 2008) and summarized as follows: (1) The PEMS data was time and location filtered to provide  $\pm 20$  seconds windows of data for the pass throughs. (2) Data within these windows was locally aligned by correlation lag-fitting using sets of six or more consecutive pass-throughs. (3) Paired PEMS and EDAR measurements were then filtered to remove cases where EDAR and PEMS data were unlikely to be comparable. PEMS logs data on a 'per-second' basis. EDAR interpolates vehicle emissions from plume images, resulting in measurements with a time resolution of about 10–100 ms. For the shorter duration EDAR measurement to be broadly representative of the second of PEMS data it is encompassed by, the vehicle motion needs to be smooth throughout that second. So, cases where the PEMS vehicle trajectory were highly non-linear about the PEMS pass-through point ( $R < 0.8$  for 10 Hz speed records, second before to second afterwards) were discarded prior to the analysis.



**Fig. 3.** Schematics of the two instrumented vehicles used for the real-world EDAR comparisons in the UoB/UoL/KCL study. Left, the Portable Emissions Measurement System (PEMS) equipped vehicle. Right, the Mobile Air Monitoring Laboratory (MAML) operated in car chaser or SNIFFER configuration.

### 2.2.2. Car chaser comparison

The University of Birmingham Mobile Air Monitoring Laboratory (MAML) was operated in car chaser or SNIFFER configuration to measure preceding vehicle emissions at the same site during the Birmingham Tyburn EDAR deployment.

The MAML test vehicle is a Ford Transit that was specially instrumented for this study with a NDIR CO<sub>2</sub> (LICOR LI-820), a chemiluminescence NO (TEI 42c), a chemiluminescence/Molybdenum NO<sub>2</sub> converter NO<sub>x</sub> (TEI 42i-TL) and a UV absorption O<sub>3</sub> (2B 202) analyzers, all sampling independently from a dedicated forward-facing inlet mounted on the vehicle roof.

A schematic of the SNIFFER vehicle installation is provided as Fig. 3 Right.

The SNIFFER test vehicle was run through the EDAR measurement area multiple times following a range of other vehicles. In addition to chasing vehicles randomly selected from the passing fleet the SNIFFER test vehicle also 'repeat chased' a second test vehicle, a Vauxhall Zafira (Diesel 2.0 CDTI), to benchmark reproducibility.

The SNIFFER test vehicle was operated by a dedicated driver and journey documenter who recorded details of the chaser runs through the EDAR monitoring area, e.g. followed vehicle registration number, time followed, approximate time passing over EDAR reflect strip, etc. As SNIFFER vehicle measurements were of ambient air following the chased vehicle, background concentrations before/after identified plume events were subtracted to provide plume contributions. In cases where the analyte plume peak associated with a reactant trough indicating post-emission reaction (e.g. NO plume peaks were often seen alongside O<sub>3</sub> troughs indicating NO depletion), titration contributions were also accounted for by assuming e.g. NO emitted = NO observed + O<sub>3</sub> consumed. Finally, as ambient plumes were typically several seconds in duration, SNIFFER measurements were reported as averages with error bars to show measurement variability for the observed plume.

## 3. Results and discussion

The simulated exhaust gas study provided a highly standardizable and controllable point-of-reference for the evaluation of EDAR. In terms of assessing the instrumental accuracy, precision, limit of detection and degree of the drift, this approach is probably the most robust and confounder-free option for the assessment of EDAR instrument performance under routine operating conditions. However, it is also a relatively idealized point-of-reference by comparison to real-world vehicle exhaust emissions. Firstly, the gas blends are dry while exhaust gas is rarely

moisture-free and, secondly, it is a very stable analytical reference while vehicle emissions are very dynamic.

By comparison, the PEMS and SNIFFER EDAR comparisons were more representative of on-road vehicle emissions. The reference methods provided real-world measures of the actual (wet, dusty and dynamic) emissions of in-use vehicles operating under conditions more typical of the conventional vehicle fleet. However, the associated references, PEMS and SNIFFER measurements, were less exact points of reference than the gas release set-points and the associated experiments were not as readily controllable. As a result, these point-of-references were more susceptible to measurement uncertainty.

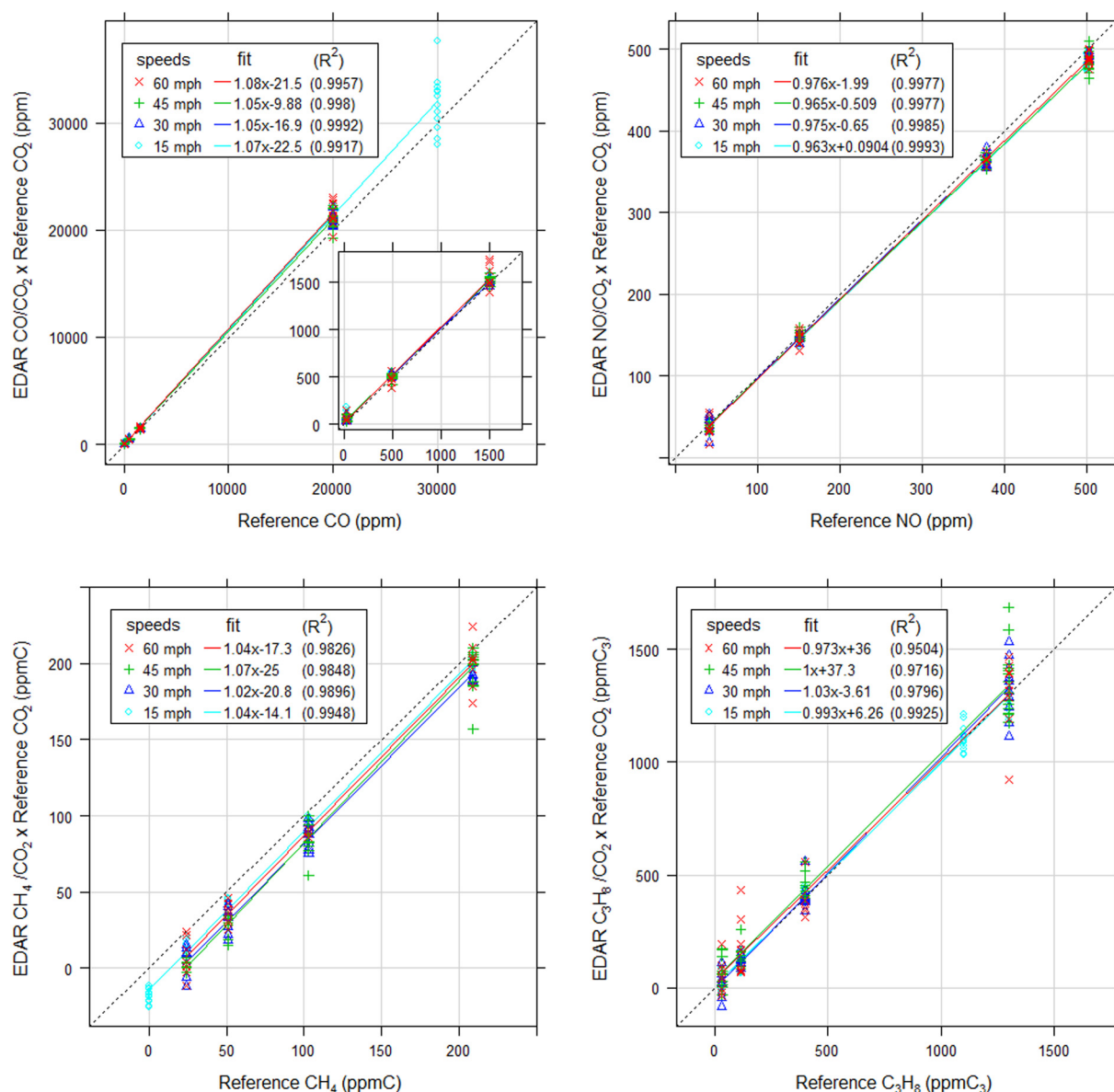
Both EDAR and other VERSS manufacturers have made various claims about the (in)sensitivities of their systems to real-world confounders. The direct and unambiguous evaluation of such factors is arguably outside the scope of any current single test strategy. However, by reporting these complementary studies together, we aim to provide measures of both the absolute instrumental performance of the EDAR and the reliability of the real-world vehicle emissions data it generates in typical on-road applications.

### 3.1. Simulated exhaust gas studies

At all speeds studied (15, 30, 45, 60 mph), EDAR measurements were found to be in good agreement with reported gas blend concentrations (see Fig. 4).

Several relatively high CO readings were observed while measuring the lowest CO reference gas levels. Although the exact source of these measurements was not identified, other on-site CO sources cannot be ruled out. CO results were therefore calculated with and without these possibly unrepresentative measurements to assess their influence. Linear regressions indicated small relative biases and intercept biases of +6% and ca. -29 ppm, respectively, for CO in the range 30 to 30,000 ppm. Data scatter was <1% (as indicated by measurement/gas blend regression R<sup>2</sup> values of 0.992 or higher) and not majorly affected by the exclusion of the possibly unrepresentative measurements.

Conventional detection limits are not widely reported for VERSS systems, perhaps in part because measurements are typically expressed as molar ratios relative to CO<sub>2</sub> rather than absolute concentrations. For example, one approach used by Stedman, Bishop and colleagues in recent work with the FEAT uses Laplace factors and treats CO<sub>2</sub> as a dependent variable (see e.g. Bishop and Stedman, 2014) to provide a measure of noise associated with ratio-based outputs. However, here a more conventional measure, the EPA 'Analysis of Pollutants' guideline limit of detection method (US EPA, 2015) was used to estimate absolute values:



**Fig. 4.** Comparison of EDAR measurements and reference (simulated exhaust gas) CO, NO, CH<sub>4</sub>, C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub> gas concentrations for Blends A–D and Q (Table 1) collected at various (15, 30, 45 and 60 mph) test vehicle speeds during the CDPHE/ERG study. Notes: All plots include the line  $Y = X$  (as a dotted black line) as a point of reference. The CO plot is dominated by two much higher concentrations (Blends A and Q). So, the plot includes a rescaled insert (in the bottom right corner) showing more clearly trends for Blends B, C and D to demonstrate that the correlation and linearity are retained at these lower concentrations. The *en masse* correlations for the above data series (without by-speed subsampling) were 0.996, 0.998, 0.983 and 0.976 for CO, NO, CH<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>, respectively.

2.998 × standard deviation as determined by eight replicate analyte measurements at concentrations between one and five times the expected detection limit.

The EDAR detection limit for CO (estimated as 3 × standard deviation) was found to be ca. 50–100 ppm, or maybe slightly lower if the possibly unrepresentative measurements were removed.

For NO concentrations between ca. 40 and 500 ppm, both relative biases and intercept biases were also small, ca. -3% and -2 ppm, respectively, and data scatter was <1% (R<sup>2</sup> values of 0.998 or higher). The NO limit of detection, estimated as 3 × standard deviation (7 ppm), was about 10–30 ppm.

Performance statistics were also highly encouraging for both CH<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>.

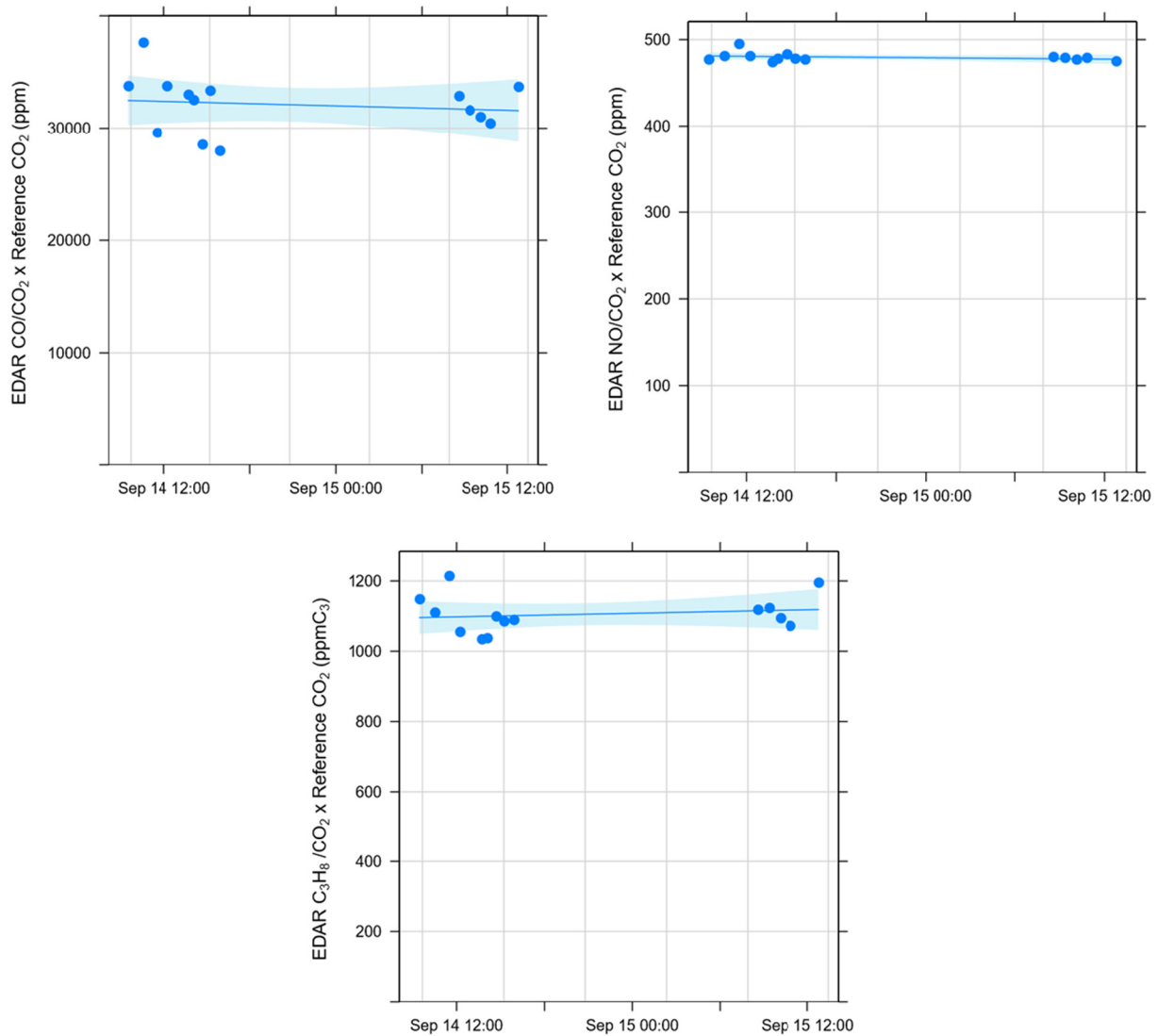
For CH<sub>4</sub> in the concentration range 0 to 210 ppmC, relative biases and intercept biases were about +4% and -19 ppmC, respectively, and although the data scatter was larger than seen for CO and NO (R<sup>2</sup> 0.983) and, similarly, subject to no (or more strictly statistically negligible; no

apparent trends,  $p$  for speed contribution  $\ll 0.05$ ) speed dependency, the standard deviation was 5 to 12 ppmC, indicating a detection limit of about 15 to 35 ppmC.

For C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub> in the concentration range 30 to 1300 ppmC<sub>3</sub>, relative bias was +3 to -3%, intercept bias was 3 to 37 ppmC<sub>3</sub>, R<sup>2</sup> was 0.993 to 0.952, and detection limit was 100 to 400 ppmC<sub>3</sub>, although here it should be noted that a moderate speed dependency was observed for C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub> during testing, and the results were subject to non-blind recalculation before final reporting which did improve the statistics.

Test vehicle runs using simulated exhaust gas Blend Q containing CO<sub>2</sub>, CO, NO and C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub> (Table 1) were made repeatedly alongside the main tests and regression analysis performed to provide a measure of instrument stability/drift. The results, summarized in Fig. 5, indicated that the EDAR exhibited no significant drift for any of the emission species in Blend Q.

A similar but smaller scale simulated exhaust gas audit was also undertaken on the University of Birmingham campus as part of quality



**Fig. 5.** EDAR measurement drift tests made as part of the CDPHE/ERG study using reference (simulated exhaust gas) CO, NO, and C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub> gas blend Q and test vehicle measurements collected at 15 mph to maximize noise/signal. Notes: All plots include linear regression fits and 95% Confidence Interval bands, indicating that linear regression trends were generally not significant, consistent with negligible drift during the study period.

assurance activities for the UoB/UoL/KCL study. This used an electric vehicle as the test vehicle, and, although not reported here, the results were highly consistent with those observed during the CDPHE/ERG study.

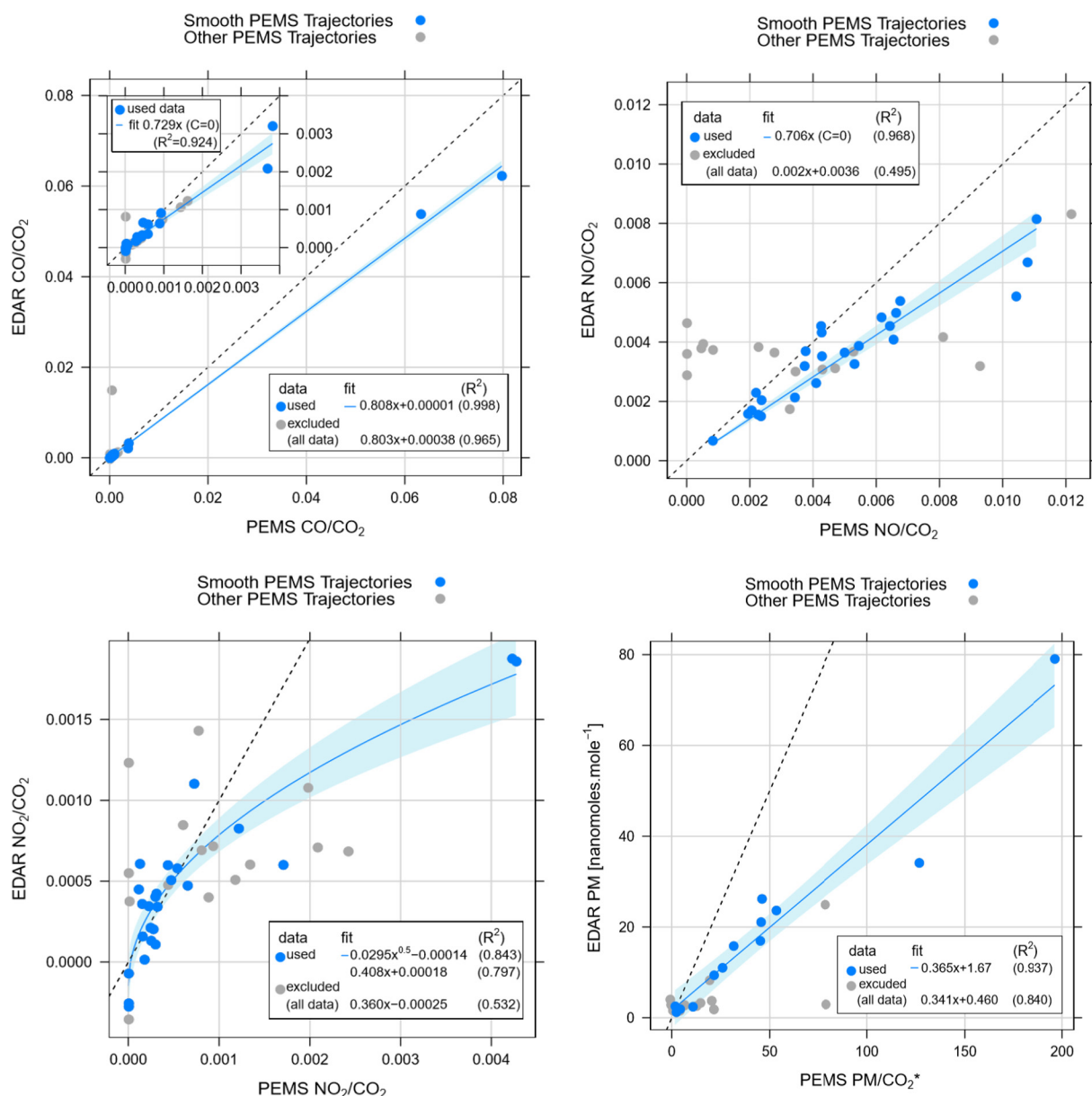
### 3.2. Portable Emissions Measurement System (PEMS) comparisons

The ability of PEMS to directly measure emissions across a wide range of driving activities (compare methods in Ropkins et al., 2009 or Franco et al., 2013) makes it the current front-runner for a real-world legislative emissions standard (Giechaskiel et al., 2016) and also an obvious point of real-world comparison for this study. Previous conventional cross-road remote sensing (RSD) versus PEMS and/or On-Board Diagnostic (OBD) (e.g. Lawson et al., 1990; Ropkins et al., 2008; Kraan et al., 2012; Carslaw and Priestman, 2015) studies demonstrate both the value and limitations of this evaluation strategy. Although the PEMS/EDAR comparison is most likely the most direct and real-world representative of the comparisons reported within this study, the degree of absolute agreement is likely to be limited by both the technical challenge associated with the time alignment of the two datasets and the difference in the time resolution of the two measurement types, 10–100 ms for EDAR and 1 s for PEMS.

Of the 41 paired EDAR/PEMS records collected during the Greenwich EDAR deployment, 25 were part of smooth PEMS vehicle trajectories (before-to-after speed linear fit  $R > 0.8$ ), indicating that these were most likely to be suitable for comparing the two techniques. The outcomes are shown in Fig. 6 where EDAR and PEMS emission paired measurement comparisons are shown on the basis of CO<sub>2</sub> ratios, the most common format used elsewhere to report VERSS data. Note that all data exclusion is on the basis of smoothness of vehicle trajectories, not the agreement of emission measurements.

The CO/CO<sub>2</sub> EDAR/PEMS comparison plot is dominated by two much higher CO/CO<sub>2</sub> measurements that most likely overinflate the degree of agreement. So, this plot, Fig. 6 Top Right, includes an insert in the top left corner showing the fit with these two higher points excluded. At this level, again two CO/CO<sub>2</sub> measurement pairs dominate and excluding these would further reduce the fit  $R^2$  to ca. 0.9. However, at this point, most measurements were at or near to the PEMS CO detection limit, and it is likely that measurement noise would be an issue. As a result, the fit for measurement CO/CO<sub>2</sub> ratios  $< 0.01$  ( $R^2$  0.924; EDAR  $0.73 \times$  PEMS) was selected as a 'best compromise' estimate of in situ agreement.

Agreement between smooth trajectory paired EDAR and PEMS NO/CO<sub>2</sub> measurements was good,  $R^2$  0.968, EDAR  $0.71 \times$  PEMS, and NO/



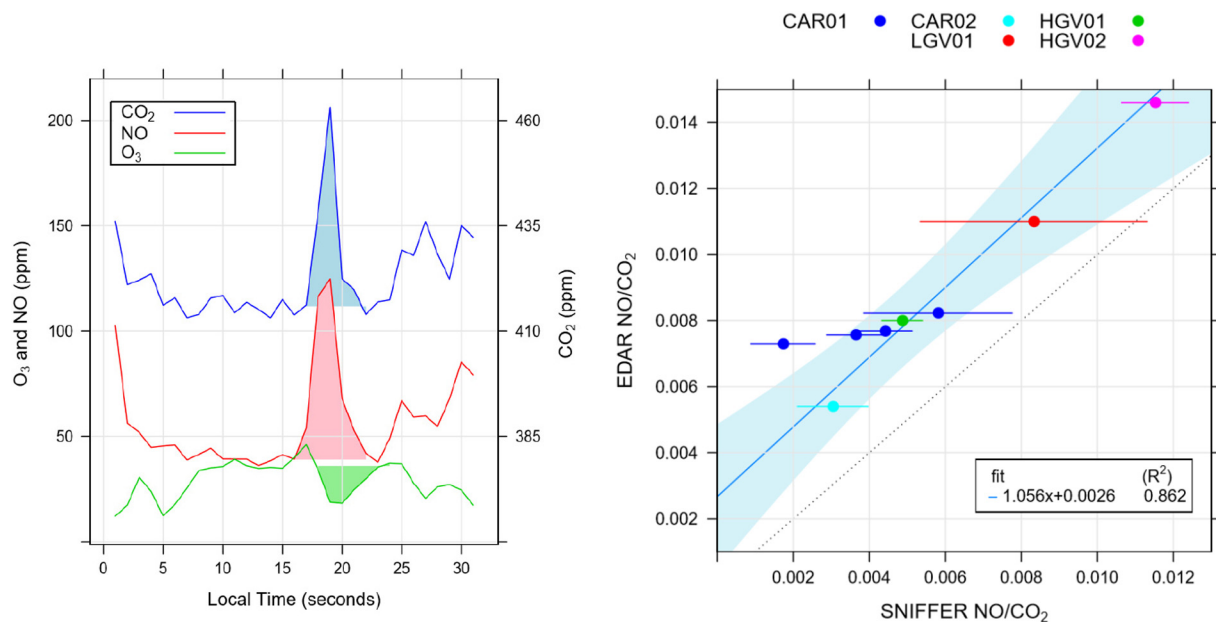
**Fig. 6.** Comparison of EDAR-Measurements and simultaneous PEMS vehicle measurements on basis of CO/CO<sub>2</sub>, NO/CO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> and PM/CO<sub>2</sub> ratios. Notes: All measurement pairs are presented, with used pairs and pairs excluded on the basis of driving profile shown as blue and grey points, respectively. All plots include the line Y = X (as a dotted black line) as a point of reference and fit lines (blues) are shown with 95% confidence interval bands. Where intercepts are not significant and data is fitted to Y = MX rather than Y = MX + C, this is denoted by C = 0. CO/CO<sub>2</sub> agreement statistics were dominated by two relatively highly measurements, so the fit with these points excluded is also presented as in insert to this plot for reference. The NO<sub>2</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> agreement trend suggests a non-linear rather than linear agreement, so both linear fit and (step-wise fitted) non-linear fits are reported. PEMS PM/CO<sub>2</sub> ratios are reported as PM(ng)/CO<sub>2</sub>(g), denoted PM/CO<sub>2</sub><sup>\*</sup>, for easier comparison with EDAR PM/CO<sub>2</sub> ratios which were reported as nanomoles/mol. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

CO<sub>2</sub> measurements from both sources were well distributed across the observed range, ca. 0.001 to 0.012.

The correlations for paired EDAR and PEMS NO<sub>2</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> measurements was the lowest observed (R<sup>2</sup> 0.797 for a linear fit but possible non-linearity, R<sup>2</sup> 0.843 for polynomial regression), and measurement agreement was least affected by PEMS vehicle trajectory. This suggests less confidence associated with these measurements. However, here, it is important to acknowledge the analytical challenges associated with the measurement of this highly reactive species. This is a consideration for both PEMS measuring NO<sub>2</sub> in the exhaust, where samples are wet, dirty and concentrated, and EDAR measuring NO<sub>2</sub> in the in-air plume where NO<sub>2</sub> is subject to significant secondary chemistry.

Across the reported EDAR measurement range 5 to 80 nmol·mol<sup>-1</sup> PM/CO<sub>2</sub>, good agreement (R<sup>2</sup> 0.937) was observed with paired smooth trajectory PEMS PM/CO<sub>2</sub> measurements (20 to 200 ng/g).

For CO/CO<sub>2</sub> and NO/CO<sub>2</sub>, the observed bias in EDAR/PEMS comparisons (EDAR under-estimated emissions by comparison to PEMS) most likely reflected the different time resolutions of the two measurement types and measurement/sampling point (in-exhaust for PEMS, in-post-exhaust-plume for EDAR) rather than an issue with either measurement type. This was also similar to bias reported in previous RSD/PEMS comparisons (e.g. Ropkins et al., 2008; Kraan et al., 2012). The larger measurement biases for NO<sub>2</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub> and PM/CO<sub>2</sub> (EDAR ca. 0.3 × PEMS) probably reflect measurement confidence and NO<sub>2</sub> reactivity for NO<sub>2</sub>/



**Fig. 7.** Comparison of EDAR and simultaneous SNIFFER vehicle NO/CO<sub>2</sub> ratio measurements. Left, an example SNIFFER vehicle time-series of CO<sub>2</sub>, NO and O<sub>3</sub> measurements, with the isolated CO<sub>2</sub>, NO and O<sub>3</sub> plumes (events minus backgrounds) shown as the shaded region. At-exhaust NO is calculated as the molar sum NO + O<sub>3</sub> depletion. Right, the associated comparison of paired EDAR and simultaneous SNIFFER vehicle NO/CO<sub>2</sub> ratio measurement for several different vehicles.

CO<sub>2</sub> and unit, calibration and PM measurement metric response differences for PM/CO<sub>2</sub>, respectively.

### 3.3. Car chaser (SNIFFER) comparison

In SNIFFER experiments, the chased vehicle exhaust plume was sampled several seconds after emission. During this time the emitted species have undergone some degree of dilution, dispersion and atmospheric chemistry. As a result, an in-exhaust event that was 10–100 ms in duration may generate an in-air plume that is several seconds in duration when sampled by the SNIFFER. This plume could also overlap with other in-air plumes/events, further complicating event isolation.

This combination of measurement contributions is illustrated by Fig. 7 Left, which also demonstrates the analytical procedure used to estimate at-exhaust NO/CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from SNIFFER data collected during this study. For at-exhaust NO/CO<sub>2</sub> ratio calculation from SNIFFER data, average local background measurements were taken at time of EDAR/SNIFFER measurement and subtracted from plume and all O<sub>3</sub> depletion was attributed to NO conversion to NO<sub>2</sub>. The different gas phase diffusion rates of NO and CO<sub>2</sub> were also taken into account to correct for the SNIFFER measured ratio to that of the EDAR which is measured just post exhaust. Diffusion of NO is faster than CO<sub>2</sub> and hence the SNIFFER measures a lower ratio NO/CO<sub>2</sub> ratio in the centre of the plume than the EDAR. The following literature values for the CO<sub>2</sub> and NO diffusion constants were used 0.160 and 0.230 cm<sup>2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (Marrero and Mason, 1972; Tang et al., 2014), respectively.

Arguably this is the most analytically challenging of the comparisons employed within this study, and associated uncertainties are likely to be the largest.

Fig. 7 Right shows NO/CO<sub>2</sub> emissions of eight paired EDAR and SNIFFER measurements.

Although the dataset is admittedly small, the degree of agreement for paired EDAR and SNIFFER data is, like the PEMS comparison, highly encouraging. The linear regression R<sup>2</sup> is 0.862, and although there is a fixed offset, indicated by the intercept and perhaps associated with analytical uncertainties, the relative agreement is near unity (gradient ca. 1).

The plot includes both same vehicle repeat measurements (CAR01, the second test vehicle which the SNIFFER vehicle repeat chased by the EDAR to benchmark reproducibility) and several other vehicles (one

car, one small goods vehicle or LGV and two heavy goods vehicles or HGVs). The agreements seen across this sample strongly suggests that the one-vehicle agreement observed in the PEMS/EDAR real-world comparison could reasonably be expected for other vehicles in the larger fleet.

## 4. Conclusions and outlook

The CDPHE/ERG simulated exhaust gas test exercise used conventional VERSS auditing methods to investigate the instrumental accuracy of the EDAR. This study found that EDAR measured NO, CO, and CH<sub>4</sub> concentrations at levels representative of in-use vehicle emissions with high linearity, low bias, low speed dependence, and low drift over a wide range of concentrations and vehicle speeds. Similar findings were also observed for C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub> once vehicle speed had been taken into account. It is, however, important to note here that EDAR provided discreet and independent measures of CH<sub>4</sub> and a non-methane hydrocarbon, and this alone is currently a novel output for a VERSS. Furthermore, the observed lack of drift makes it a viable candidate for unattended operation. The observed detection limits for CO, NO and CH<sub>4</sub> were 50 to 100 ppm, 10 to 30 ppm and 15 to 35 ppmC, respectively. The potential to differentiate hydrocarbons, demonstrated here by discrete CH<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub> measurement could also significantly extend diagnostic capabilities of VERSS. As advances in vehicle emissions control system performance and continued fleet turnover drive down vehicle emissions and we seek to more effectively manage emissions across our vehicle fleets, such sensitivity and selectivity are likely to become increasingly important considerations for the emissions measurement community.

That said, a simulated exhaust gas study is a highly standardized case, and the point of reference is a dry gas released at a fixed rate. To address this issue, we also present findings from the UoB/UoL/KCL study that used the comparison of EDAR, PEMS and car chaser/SNIFFER measurements collected under real-world conditions to provide a measure of in situ EDAR performance. Given the analytical challenges associated with aligning these very different measurements and acknowledging the limitations of sample size, the observed degrees of agreement (e.g. EDAR/PEMS R<sup>2</sup> 0.92 for CO/CO<sub>2</sub>; 0.97 for NO/CO<sub>2</sub>; ca. 0.82 for NO<sub>2</sub>/CO<sub>2</sub>, 0.80 linear or 0.84 non-linear; and, 0.94 for PM/CO<sub>2</sub>, and EDAR/SNIFFER R<sup>2</sup> 0.862 for NO/CO<sub>2</sub>) were all highly encouraging and suggest that EDAR provides a representative measure of vehicle emissions under real-world

conditions. While we cannot rigorously attribute specific proportions of the measurement errors to EDAR, PEMS, SNIFFER or the alignment method used to compare them, uncertainties typically associated with the latter are comparable to those observed here. So, although we cannot say unequivocally that EDAR performs as well in the real-world as it does relative to a simulated exhaust gas, we have no evidence that it does not, and NO<sub>2</sub> and PM measurement capabilities, not as easily assessed using simulated exhaust gas study methods, also provide highly encouraging results.

Recent events such as diesel-gate, the exposure of use of test-detection software to circumvent regulatory procedures by some vehicle manufacturers, and growing concerns more generally about attempts to game regulations have highlighted the discrepancy between vehicle test and on-road performance. This has also been identified as a major element in the under-performance of recent air pollution management strategies (see e.g. discussion in Anenberg et al., 2017). Significant questions would need to be addressed, both technical (e.g. regarding vehicle measurements under more extreme engine loads, weather conditions, etc.) and legislative/ethical (can and should we act on individual measurements), before any VERSS can be used in anything approaching a regulatory fashion. But, that accepted, if we want to actually target the worst polluters as part of e.g. the next generation of Low Emission or Clean Air Zone schemes, this is a challenge we urgently need to address, and EDAR is arguably one of the tools we should be considering as part of that process.

Our on-going challenges in work to benchmark EDAR are to extend the body of evidence on real-world performance, e.g. using different vehicles, fuels and reference methods, so we can better characterise measurement confounders and to identify unique applications of the technology. But we also need to look at the questions that are applicable to VERSS as an instrument class rather than the EDAR in isolation, e.g. how we validate emission measurements across broader ranges of driving activities and conditions and how the accuracy of these post-exhaust measurements is affected by different emission abatement strategies.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.07.137>.

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