

Characterization of the Electric Drive of EV: On-road versus Off-road Method

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1 **Abstract:** For system design, analysis of global performance and energy management of elec-
2 tric vehicles, it is common to use the efficiency map of electric traction drive. The characteri-
3 zation of the efficiency map with high accuracy is then an important issue. In this paper an on-
4 road method and an off-road method are compared experimentally to determine the efficiency
5 map of electric drive of electric vehicles. The off-road method requires a dedicated experi-
6 mental test bed, which is expensive and time-consuming. The on-road method is achieved di-
7 rectly in-vehicle. Experimental data, recorded during an on-road driving cycle, are used to de-
8 termine the efficiency map using non-intrusive measurements from GPS antenna, voltage and
9 current sensors. A versatile experimental setup is used to compare both methods on the same
10 platform. A maximal efficiency difference of 6% is achieved in most of the torque-speed plane.
11 It is shown that, in an energetic point of view, both methods yield similar results.

12 **1 Introduction**

13 The automotive industry is currently undergoing major changes due to the drawbacks related
14 to internal-combustion powered vehicles. The main issues are greenhouse gas emissions and
15 dependency on limited oil resources [1], [2]. New technologies such as electric, hybrid and fuel
16 cell vehicles have been proposed and are being widely developed. Electric propulsion through
17 an electric traction drive therefore represents a solution for low emission transportation [3], [4].

18 Simulation is a key issue in the development of new vehicles to benchmark, strengthen, and
19 retrofit them [5], [6]. The United States Environmental Protection Agency is, for example,
20 working on a full vehicle simulation model to measure the effective contributions from new
21 technologies [7]. However, to simulate vehicles with accuracy reliable models of the different

22 components are required. Steady-state models are classically used for system design [6], [8],
23 analysis of global performances [9], [10] and energy management [6], [11], [12]. Steady-state
24 models consider that all transient states are negligible. They require a low computation time
25 and are based on experimental data by efficiency maps (look-up tables) [13]. The steady-state
26 model of the electric traction drive [14], [15], which includes the electric machine, the power
27 converter and their control, uses an efficiency map defined by iso-efficiency lines in the torque-
28 speed plane [16].

29 Most of the steady-state models are determined separately off-road with good accuracy [17].
30 In this way, the IEEE 112, the IEC 60349-2 and the CSA C390-93 are the most adopted stand-
31 ards for electric motors [21]-[23]. For all these standards, the instrumentation accuracy, the
32 methodology and the testing procedures are subject to specific regulations such as thermal equi-
33 librium conditions. Minor differences may then appear depending on the standard used. Never-
34 theless, the off-road characterization of stand-alone components is time-consuming and expen-
35 sive due to the need of dedicated experimental setups [18]. To characterize the electric traction
36 drive an experimental setup using a load electric drive is required [15], [19]-[21]. Furthermore,
37 the stand-alone components have to be tested outside of the vehicle. The components have then
38 to be removed from the vehicle. After it has been characterized the electric drive is remounted
39 in-vehicle with the risk of damage. The on-board constraints of the vehicle, like the temperature
40 or the electromagnetic compatibility of the devices near to the tested stand-alone components,
41 cannot also be taken into account.

42 To tackle these issues, other methods are developing for characterization directly in-vehicle.
43 The actual methods are composed of extensive tests on specific rolling test benches (chassis
44 dynamometers). Additional measurements are classically used in-vehicle to characterize the
45 components of the vehicle like the electric drive [24], [25], the internal combustion engine [26]
46 or the transmission [27]. When it is accessible, the on-board CAN messages can also be directly

47 used to extract data and define the model of components [18]. Nevertheless, even if the tests
48 are performed in-vehicle, all of these determination procedures are characterized off-road with
49 a specific costly chassis dynamometer.

50 To avoid the use of a chassis dynamometer a new in-vehicle and on-road method has been
51 proposed in [28]. From a real driving cycle the efficiency map of the electric traction drive is
52 characterized using non-intrusive measurements from GPS antenna, voltage and current sen-
53 sors. The torque of the electric drive is estimated from the parameters of the vehicle and the
54 additional measurements. The on-road method has been applied successfully and validated to a
55 commercial Electric Vehicle (EV), the Tazzari Zero [29].

56 The objective of this paper is to compare experimentally the stand-alone off-road and the
57 new on-road method to determine the efficiency map of electric traction drive of EVs. As the
58 off-road method is the reference in the literature, it is used as reference in this paper. In section
59 II, the on-road and off-road methods are presented, with their application to a real commercial
60 EV. In section III, both methods are applied to a versatile experimental setup. Finally the accu-
61 racy and limitation of the methods are discussed in section IV.

62 **2 Characterization of the electric drive of a commercial EV**

63 *2.1 Studied vehicle*

64 The studied traction system of the EV is composed of a battery, a Voltage-Source-Inverter
65 (VSI), a three-phase induction machine, a gearbox, a mechanical differential and two driven
66 wheels (Fig. 1a). To introduce the on-road and off-road methods, a global model of the vehicle
67 and its control are first developed. As the paper deals with efficiencies, energetic models are
68 sufficient in this work. The equations of the vehicle model are summarized under Table 1. All
69 the variables are listed in Table 4 and Table 5 in the appendix. The complete model of the
70 vehicle is detailed in [28].

71 **Table 1.** *Mathematical model of the electric vehicle*

Battery	$u_{dc} = u_0 (SoC) - R_{bat} i_{ed}$	(1)
Electric drive	$\begin{cases} T_{ed} = T_{ed-ref} \\ P_m = T_{ed} \Omega_{ed} = u_{dc} i_{ed} \eta_{ed}(T_{ed}, \Omega_{ed}) \end{cases}$	(2)
Equivalent wheel ("bicycle model")	$\begin{cases} F_{trac} = (k_{gb} / r_{wh}) T_{ed} \eta_{gb}^\beta \\ \Omega_{ed} = (k_{gb} / r_{wh}) v_{ev} \end{cases} \text{ with } \beta = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ when } P_m \geq 0 \\ -1 \text{ when } P_m < 0 \end{cases}$	(3)
Chassis	$F_{tot} = F_{trac} + F_{mb}$	(4)
	$M \frac{d}{dt} v_{ev} = F_{tot} - F_{res}$	(5)
Environment	$F_{res} = 0.5 \rho A C_x v_{ev}^2 + Mg (\sin \alpha + f_r)$	(6)

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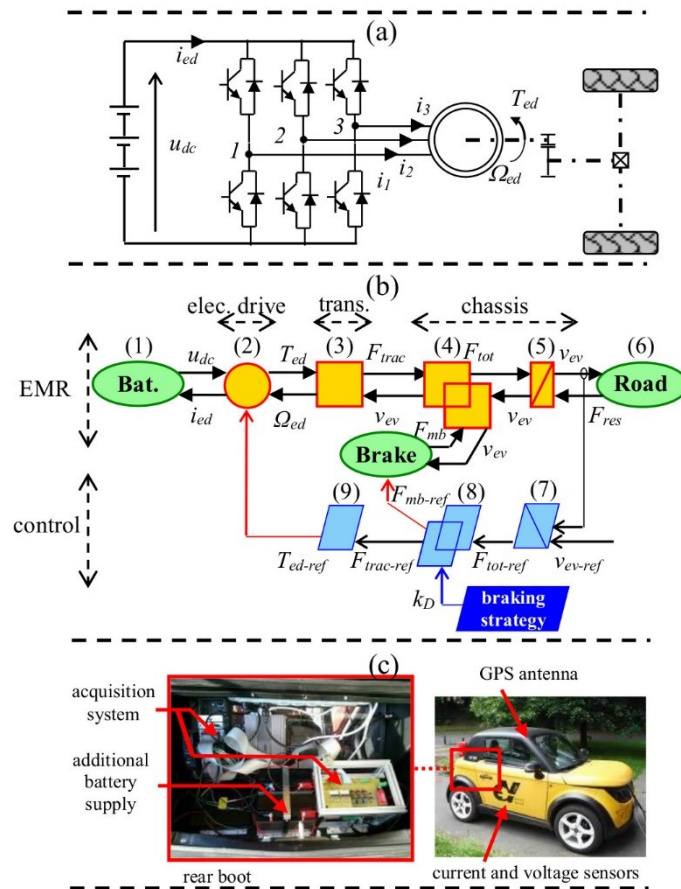


Fig. 1 Studied traction system of an electric vehicle

a Architecture

b EMR and control

c Tazzari Zero and supplementary sensors into the rear boot

Let us focus on the electric drive model, which is composed of the VSI, the induction machine and the associated control (a torque control is considered). With a steady-state model, it is assumed that the generated torque T_{ed} is equal to its reference T_{ed-ref} [30]. Moreover, the mechanical power P_m is expressed from the electrical power through the efficiency η_{ed} from (2).

As the efficiency depends on the operating point, a look-up table generally expresses the efficiency η_{ed} from the torque T_{ed} and the rotation speed Ω_{ed} to determine the current of the electric drive i_{ed} , i.e. the input current of the VSI [14]-[16].

The models are interconnected using Energetic Macroscopic Representation (EMR). By a systemic approach, the objective of EMR is to establish a functional description of an energetic system for its control [31]. It describes the energy exchange between components of a system following the causality principles. The system is decomposed into basic subsystems in interaction (cf. Table 6 of the appendix): energy sources, accumulation elements, conversion elements and coupling elements for energy distribution. Many electric and hybrid vehicles have been studied using EMR [12], [32]-[35]. The EMR of the studied system is represented in Fig. 1b. Moreover, EMR enables a deduction of control schemes by an inversion principle. The vehicle control can then be defined. The driver acts as a closed-loop controller of the velocity v_{ev} to define the total reference force $F_{tot-ref}$ by acting on the acceleration and braking pedals:

$$F_{tot-ref} = C(t)(v_{ev-ref} - v_{ev-meas}) \quad (7)$$

with $C(t)$ a controller, which could be a neural network controller in the case of the driver. The total reference force $F_{tot-ref}$ is then distributed into the traction force reference $F_{trac-ref}$ and the mechanical braking force reference F_{mb-ref} by an inversion of (4):

$$\begin{cases} F_{trac-ref} = k_D F_{tot-ref} \\ F_{mb-ref} = (1 - k_D) F_{tot-ref} \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

with k_D a distribution input, which is defined by a strategy: $k_D=1$ in traction mode and k_D defined for a maximal electrical braking in braking mode ($0 \leq k_D \leq 1$). The reference of the drive torque T_{ed-ref} is finally obtained by an inversion of (3):

$$T_{ed-ref} = (r_{wh} / k_g) F_{trac-ref} \quad (9)$$

73 2.2 Off-road method characterization

74 Let us assume that vehicle parameters are known, except the electric drive efficiency map.
 75 If the electric drive can be removed from the vehicle, it can be connected to a load electric drive
 76 and all tests can be run to define the efficiency map. A load machine is then connected to the
 77 shaft of the tested electric machine. Here, the off-road method corresponds to the method A of
 78 the IEEE 112 test procedure for electric machines [21] extended to tested electric drives [15].
 79 Such a method requires speed control of the load electric drive and measurements of the voltage
 80 u_{dc} , current i_{ed} , rotation speed Ω_{ed} and torque T_{ed} . These variables correspond to the inputs and
 81 outputs of the electric drive model depicted by the EMR (orange circle in Fig. 1b). The effi-
 82 ciency is then derived from (2):

$$\eta_{ed}(T_{ed}, \Omega_{ed}) = \frac{P_{out}}{P_{in}} = \frac{T_{ed-meas} \Omega_{ed-meas}}{u_{dc-meas} i_{ed-meas}} \quad (10)$$

83 A look-up table is then built off-line by imposing different operating points to the tested
 84 electric drive. To build a matrix for the torque-speed plane, the tested drive is thereby controlled
 85 to impose the torque T_{ed-ref} while the load electric drive is controlled to impose the rotation
 86 speed Ω_{ed-ref} (Fig. 2a). Consequently, all operating points can be covered by changing the ref-
 87 erence values in the matrix $\{T_{ed-ref}, \Omega_{ed-ref}\}$. The finite number of the operating points recorded
 88 can afterward be extended to a continuous efficiency map by interpolation and extrapolation
 89 [36].

90 It should be noted that the off-road method assumes operation in steady-state to calculate the
 91 efficiency of each operating point, thus neglecting transient states. The measurements must then

92 be carried out after the transient states. Furthermore the calculation of the efficiency requires
 93 the measurement of the torque. A torque sensor, which is generally expensive, is necessary.
 94 Another possibility is to use an estimator based on the parameters and measurement of the
 95 electric drive currents [37].

96 In the case of the electric drive characterization of a commercial EV, the use of the off-road
 97 method is not convenient. This method requires to remove the electric drive from the vehicle
 98 and install it on the test bed to be finally remounted in the vehicle with the risk of damage. To
 99 tackle this issue, an on-road method can be used to avoid the use of such an intrusive method.

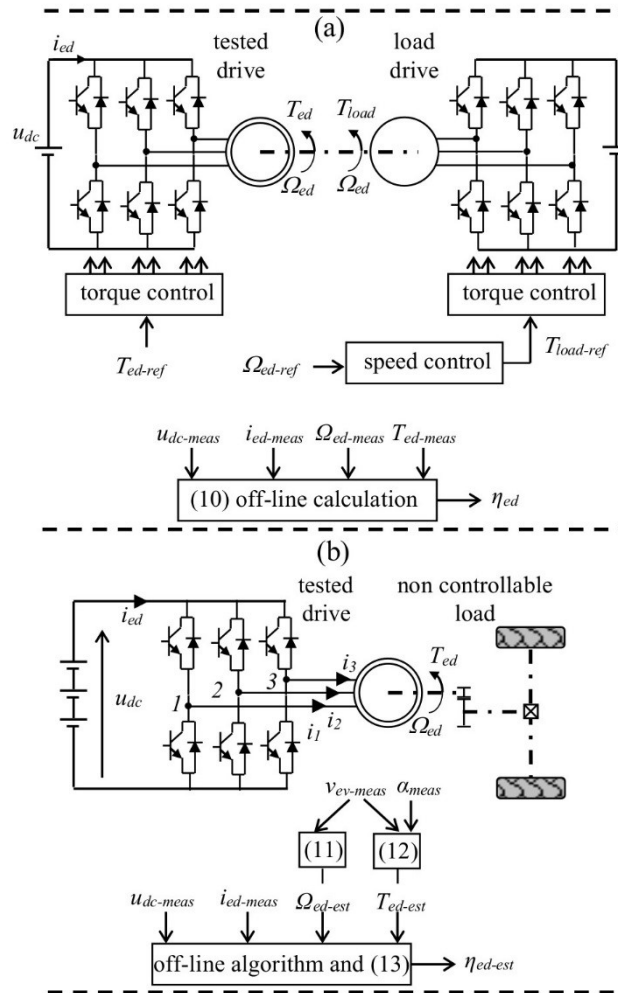


Fig. 2 Methods to determine the efficiency map of an electric drive
 a Off-road method
 b On-road method

101 A new on-road method has been proposed in [28] to determine an efficiency map using a
 102 real on-road driving cycle. Two issues have to be solved to determine the efficiency map. First,
 103 all the required measurements are generally not available, such as the torque of the electric
 104 drive. Second, steady-state operating points are not imposed by an on-road drive cycle and do
 105 not span the full torque-speed plane.

106 In the vehicle, only global sensors can be implemented without major changes (non-intrusive
 107 measurements). The measurements of the battery voltage and current can be easily integrated.
 108 The measurements of the rotation speed and of the torque of the electric machine cannot be
 109 implemented as easily. A GPS (Global Positioning System) is a widely used non-intrusive sensor
 110 that provides the vehicle position and altitude, which can be converted into the vehicle velocity
 111 v_{ev} and slope α . These available measurements are not close to the mechanical input and output
 112 of the electric drive, Ω_{ed} and T_{ed} .

113 A first issue of the on-road method is to estimate the rotation speed and torque of the electric
 114 drive from the available measurements (Fig. 2b). From (3) the rotation speed can be estimated
 115 using the measurement of the velocity:

$$\Omega_{ed-est} = (k_g / r_{wh}) v_{ve-meas} \quad (11)$$

116 As in general the braking strategy of commercial vehicles is not well-known by the users,
 117 only the traction mode is studied. The efficiency map will be then studied in the first quadrant
 118 of the torque-speed plane. In traction mode, from (3), (5) and (6) the drive torque T_{ed} can be
 119 estimated using the measurements of the velocity v_{ev} and slope angle α :

$$T_{ed-est} = \frac{r_{wh}}{\eta_g^k k_g} \left[M \left(\frac{dv_{ev}}{dt} \right) + 0.5 p A C_x v_{ev-meas}^2 + Mg(\sin \alpha_{meas} + f_r) \right] \quad (12)$$

120 This estimation requires the derivative of the velocity that leads to an approximation. Using

121 estimations, Ω_{ed-est} and T_{ed-est} , the efficiency of the electric drive can be defined using the meas-
122 urements of the battery voltage u_{dc} and current i_{ed} :

$$\eta_{ed-est}(T_{ed-est}, \Omega_{ed-est}) = \frac{P_{out-est}}{P_{in-est}} = \frac{T_{ed-est} \Omega_{ed-est}}{u_{dc-meas} i_{ed-meas}} \quad (13)$$

123 A second issue of the on-road method is the available operating points during the on-road
124 drive cycle. Because of the dynamical nature of the identification process, the torque-speed data
125 points are recorded in an unordered fashion, with unevenly distributed data and unexplored re-
126 gions in the plane. The drive cycle has to be as varied as possible to obtain operating points that
127 cover large areas of the torque-speed plane. An off-line algorithmic method was proposed in
128 [28] to obtain a complete efficiency map, with uniformly distributed data points from the rec-
129 orded data (estimated torque \underline{T}_{ed-est} and speed $\underline{\Omega}_{ed-est}$ data vectors and resulting efficiency $\underline{\eta}_{ed-est}$)
130 following the following main steps:

- 131 1. round the data according to the desired quantization for velocity and torque points
132 on the grid;
- 133 2. sort the data, averaging efficiency for repeated points;
- 134 3. remove outliers;
- 135 4. fill gaps in the map by using linear interpolation;
- 136 5. complete the borders of the map by setting the efficiency to the same value as the
137 estimated efficiency at the last points of the map.

138 The on-road method has been applied to a commercial EV, the Tazzari Zero [29] (Fig. 1c,
139 Table 2). The vehicle, propelled by an induction machine of 15 kW, has been instrumented with
140 sensors of the battery voltage and current as well as a GPS antenna with a velocity accuracy of
141 0.1 m/s. An on-board acquisition system (CompactRIO, National Instrument) acquires the data
142 every 0.5 s. The acquisition system is powered by two additional lead-acid batteries (12 V, 17.5
143 Ah). The power consumption of the acquisition system then does not alter the energy flow of
144 the EV.

145

146

Table 2. *Electric vehicle parameters*

parameter	value
gearbox ratio k_{gb}	5.84
gearbox efficiency η_{gb}	0.98
wheels radius r_{wh} [m]	0.2865
curb mass [kg]	562
$A \cdot C_x$ [m ²]	0.7
f_r	0.02

147 An extra-urban drive cycle has been carried out at University of Lille 1, in France, on and

148 around campus. The measurements are recorded by the on-board acquisition system: battery

149 voltage u_{dc} , battery current i_{ed} , vehicle velocity v_{ev} , and altitude (blue curves in Fig. 3a). The

150 velocity reaches a maximum of 80 km/h (22 m/s). From that data, parameters of Table 2 and

151 the measured slope α_{meas} are implemented off-line in (12) to define the estimated torque T_{ed-est} .152 The rotation speed Ω_{ed} is estimated off-line using (11). The efficiency is then calculated for

153 each operating point using (13). A first efficiency map has been built for the operating points

154 of the driving cycle (Fig. 3b). It should be noted that the operating points cover most of the

155 torque-speed plane. It could be improved by a more adapted drive cycle, which can be studied

156 in further works. From the initial efficiency map, the off-line algorithm of [28] is used to obtain

157 the final efficiency map (Fig. 3c). This on-road efficiency map can then be used in simulation.

158 Simulation results with the obtained efficiency map of Fig. 3c show some dynamical errors

159 in comparison with the experimental results (Fig. 3a). The average error of the current of the

160 machine is 2 % on the duration of the driving cycle. In term of energy consumption less than

161 3.5 % average error is yielded.

162 In the on-road method, operating points and the dynamic conditions are influenced by the

163 driver behaviors. Fig. 4 presents the electric drive efficiency map of the Tazzari Zero, deduced

164 from two different driving cycles. It should be noted that the obtained efficiency maps are sim-
 165 ilar to the previous one (Fig. 3c). The absolute difference of the efficiency maps from (a) and
 166 (b) is presented in (c). The global average difference is 2.4 % for a standard deviation of 1.79 %,
 167 what means that both efficiency maps are quite similar. The on-road method is then repeatable
 168 and applicable for any instrumented vehicle.

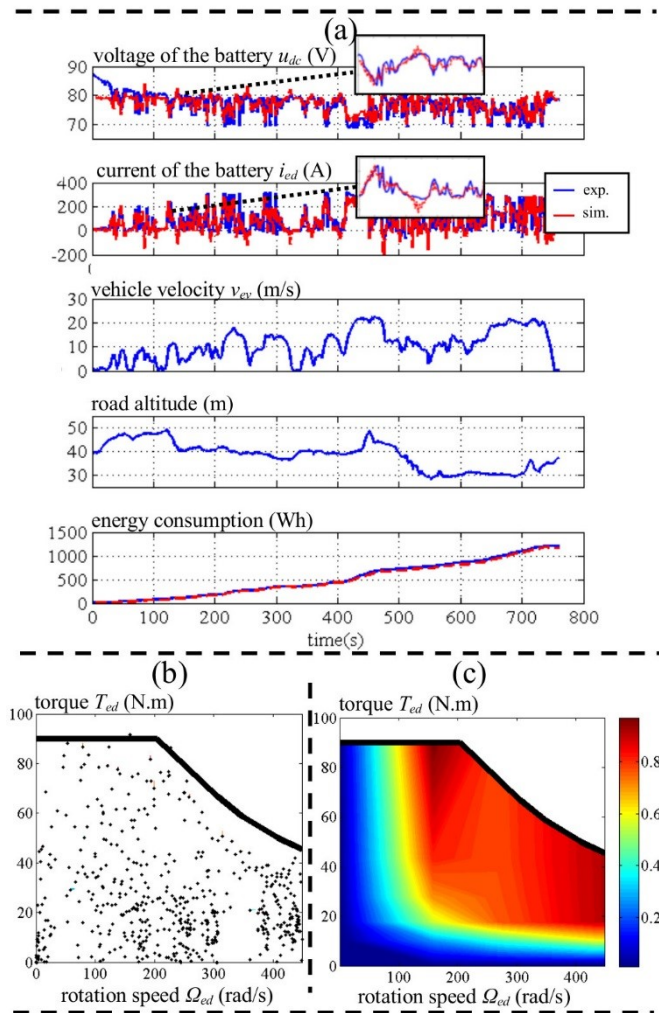
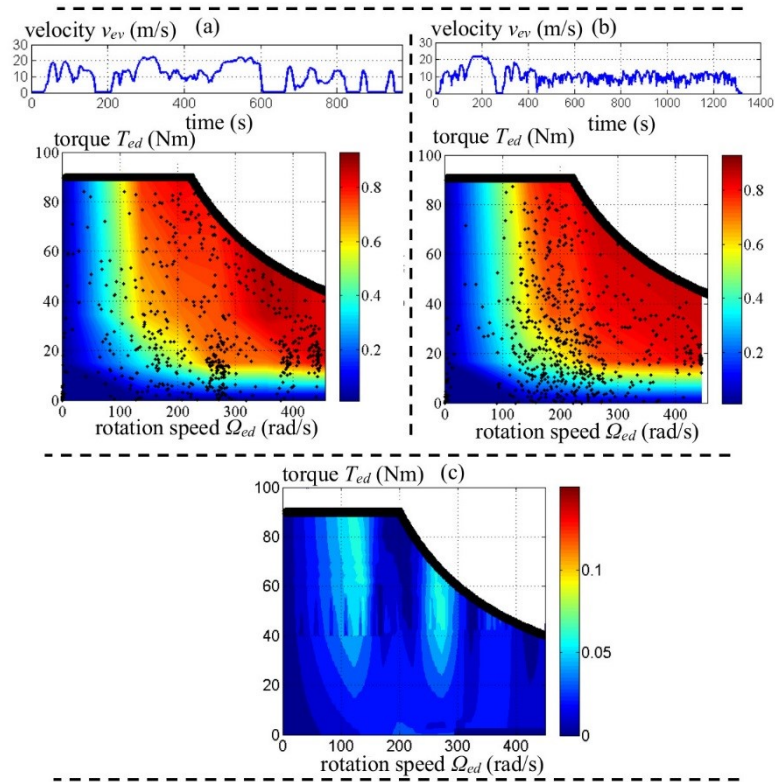


Fig. 3 Results for the on-road method

a Experimental and simulation results

b On-road test operating points of the efficiency map

c Final on-road efficiency map after processing



169

170 **Fig. 4:** On-road efficiency maps of the studied electric vehicle for different driving cycles

171 *a* efficiency map of the driving cycle 1

172 *b* efficiency map of the driving cycle 2

173 *c* absolute difference between efficiency maps of the driving cycles 1 and 2

174 3 Application to a Versatile Experimental Setup

175 To compare in an effective way both methods a versatile experimental setup is necessary.

176 This setup has to be capable to test both methods with the same platform. The experimental

177 setup is then composed of a Voltage-Source-Inverter (VSI) and an induction machine under test

178 connected to a load electric machine with its own VSI. For the on-road method the load electric

179 drive is controlled by a Hardware-In-the-Loop (HIL) simulation technique [38] to emulate the

180 mechanical part of the vehicle. For the off-road method the load electric drive is controlled to

181 impose the rotation speed. The on-road efficiency map can consequently be compared to the

182 off-road efficiency map with the same experimental setup.

183 3.1 Experimental setup

184 A 20 kW induction machine, its VSI and its torque control are considered as the tested elec-
 185 tric drive (Fig. 5a). The load electric drive is composed of a 20 kW permanent magnet synchro-
 186 nous machine, its VSI and its torque control. A 1005 dSPACE controller board is used with a
 187 sampling period of $T_{samp}=100 \mu s$ and a switching frequency of $f_{sw}=10 \text{ kHz}$.

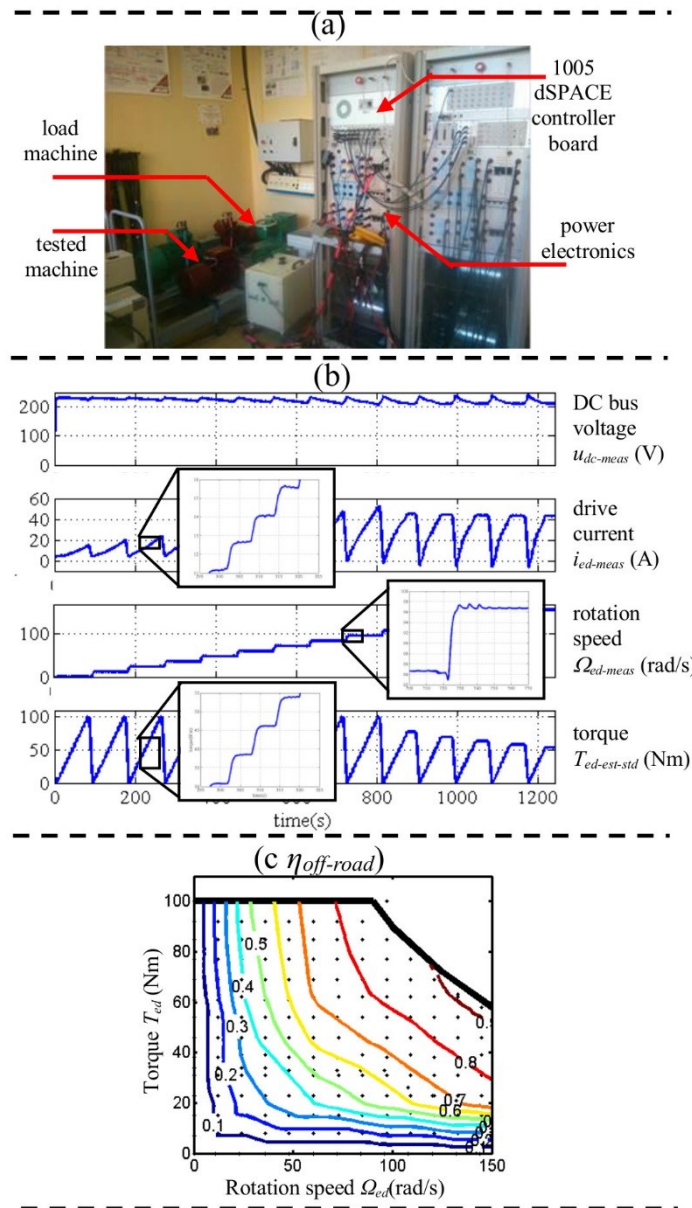


Fig. 5 Off-road method applied on the versatile experimental setup

- a Versatile experimental setup
- b Experimental results of the electric drive
- c Off-road efficiency map of the electric drive

188

189

190 Both electric machines are connected by a common shaft. The rotation speed Ω_{ed} is a func-
 191 tion of the tested electric drive and load torques, T_{ed} and T_{load} :

$$J \frac{d}{dt} \Omega_{ed} = T_{ed} - T_{load} - f \Omega_{ed} \quad (14)$$

192 where J and f are the inertia and friction coefficient of the shaft. To impose the rotation speed
 193 Ω_{ed-ref} to the load electric drive (see Fig. 2a), the load torque reference $T_{load-ref}$ is determined by
 194 an inversion of (14):

$$T_{load-ref} = C_{\Omega}(t) (\Omega_{ed-ref} - \Omega_{ed-meas}) \quad (15)$$

195 with $C_{\Omega}(t)$ the speed controller. Classical field oriented control is used for both electric drives
 196 to set their torque references [39]. The rotation speed Ω_{ed} and torque T_{ed} can then be imposed
 197 to the tested electric drive. Because there is no torque sensor on the experimental setup, the
 198 torque of the tested electric drive is estimated from the classical relation using the measurement
 199 of the currents and rotation speed of the tested induction machine [37]:

$$T_{ed-est-std} = p \frac{M_{sr}}{L_r} \phi_{rd-est} i_{sq-est} \quad \text{with} \quad \phi_{rd-est}, i_{sq-est} = f(i_{1,2-meas}, \Omega_{ed-meas}) \quad (16)$$

200 where L_r is the rotor inductance of the induction machine, M_{sr} the mutual inductance between
 201 the stator and rotor, p the pole pair number, ϕ_{rd} the d -axis rotor flux, i_{sq} the q -axis stator current
 202 and $\underline{i}_{1,2}$ the electric machine current vector. This estimation has been shown to have a good
 203 correlation with the measured electric drive torque [37].

204 3.2 Off-road efficiency map

205 The standard IEEE 112 procedure [21] is extended to the electric drive [15] to determine the
 206 off-road efficiency map. Different operating points are imposed to the tested drive with a 14×14
 207 matrix for the torque-speed plane. Rotation speed steps of 12 rad/s are imposed from 0 to 157
 208 rad/s (Ω_{ed-ref}). For each value of rotation speed, torque steps of 7.7 Nm are imposed from 0 to
 209 100 Nm (T_{ed-ref} , Fig. 5b). For each operating point, the measurements are carried out in steady-
 210 state (black dots in Fig. 5c). The number of operating points has been defined to give enough

211 points to construct an efficiency map of high quality without relying too much on interpolation.

212 The efficiency map is then calculated using (13) from the measurements of the dc bus voltage
213 $u_{dc-meas}$, electric drive current $i_{ed-meas}$, rotation speed $\Omega_{ed-meas}$ and the estimation of the torque T_{ed-}
214 $est-std$ (Fig. 5b) using (16). The torque-speed plane is composed of regularly spaced operating
215 points, and iso-efficiency lines can be plotted (Fig. 5c).

216 3.3 On-road efficiency map

217 To reproduce the on-road method on the experimental setup, the rotation speed and torque
218 references are imposed using a power HIL simulation of the vehicle (Fig. 6a). Power HIL sim-
219 ulation [38] is more and more used to test Electronic Control Unit (ECU) and power compo-
220 nents before their implementation in an actual system. EMR is a useful tool to organize HIL
221 simulation. It has often been used for the description of HIL simulation for electric and hybrid
222 vehicles [35], [40].

223 In our case, the estimated torque $T_{ed-est-std}$ of the tested electric drive is sent to mathematical
224 model of the mechanical transmission and deduced from the EMR of Fig. 1b (purple part in
225 Fig. 6b). This torque estimation is defined from the current and speed measurements (16) to be
226 as close as possible to the real torque. From interactions between all models of mechanical
227 components, the rotation speed is generated (Ω_{ed-ref} in Fig. 6b). This rotation speed is used as a
228 reference for the speed control of the load electric drive. Moreover, the vehicle control defines
229 the torque reference of the tested electric drive T_{ed-ref} . The model of the vehicle, control of the
230 vehicle and controls of both electric drives are computed in real time on a 1005 dSPACE con-
231 troller board. In comparison with the off-road method, the rotation speed and torque references
232 are not defined by steps, but by the dynamical behaviour of the simulated vehicle with its model
233 and control (as in the real vehicle).

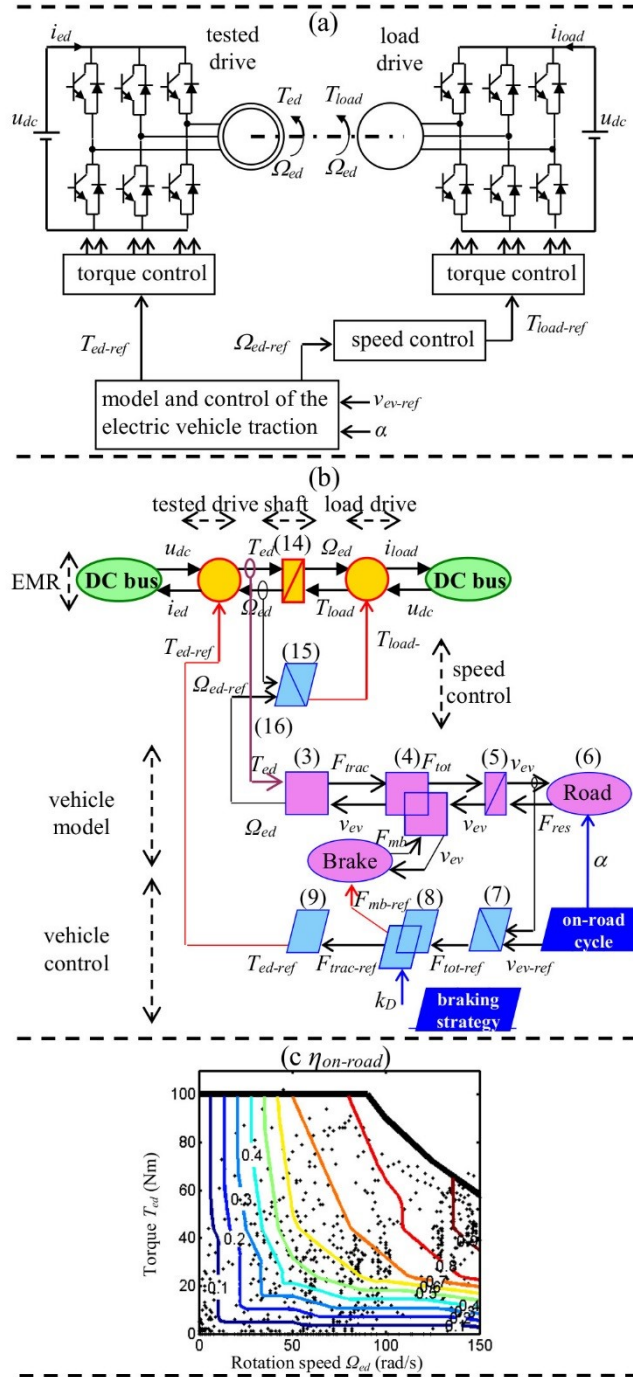


Fig. 6 On-road method applied on the versatile experimental setup

a Power HIL simulation of the studied electric vehicle

b EMR and control of the power HIL simulation

c On-road efficiency map of the electric drive

234 The measurement of the velocity v_{ev} of the on-road drive cycle of the EV Tazzari Zero, see
 235 Fig. 3a, is imposed as a reference to the vehicle control (v_{ev-ref} in Fig. 6b). The measurement of
 236 the altitude, see Fig. 3a, is imposed to the road model to determine the slope α (“Road” element
 237 in Fig. 6b). The on-road drive cycle is thus reproduced to the experimental setup. The efficiency

238 map is built in the same way than for the EV with the measurements of the dc bus voltage u_{dc} ,
239 drive current i_{ed} , vehicle velocity v_{ev} and also the estimation of the torque T_{ed} using (12) with
240 the vehicle velocity and road slope. The on-road efficiency map (Fig. 6c) is relatively close to
241 the off-road efficiency map (Fig. 5c), even though it is obtained from transient operation.

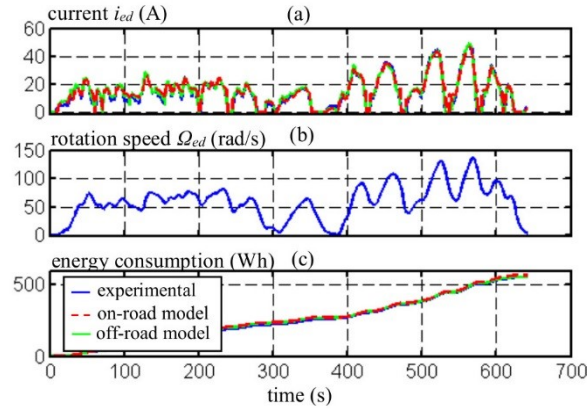
242 **4 Comparison of the Methods**

243 The on-road and off-road methods do not use the same procedure to determine the efficiency
244 map of an electric drive of an EV. Different assumptions and approximations are considered
245 for both methods. First, the electrical torque is estimated in a different way. The electrical torque
246 is estimated from the velocity measurement in the on-road method while it is estimated from
247 the measurement of the current in the off-road method. Second, the efficiency map is built in
248 transient states for the on-road method whereas it is built in steady-state for the off-road method.
249 Other errors occur due to the sensor accuracies, but they do not have to be considered because
250 the sensors are the same for the on-road and off-road methods during the tests on the experi-
251 mental setup.

252 *4.1 Differences of the efficiency maps*

253 To further validate the efficiency map of both on-road and off-road methods a measurements
254 with a new driving cycle, different from the one that has been used to determine the efficiency
255 map of Fig. 6c, has been performed (Fig. 7). The efficiency maps are then tested with other
256 operating points. For the on-road method, the comparison between experimental and simulation
257 results gives an average error of 1.7 % for the current and 1.9 % for the energy consumption.
258 For the off-method, an average error of 0.35 % for the current and 0.3 % for the energy con-
259 sumption is obtained. The high accuracy between experimental and simulation results allows
260 to validate the obtained efficiency maps. Both methods are then validated.

261



262

263 **Fig. 7** Validation of the efficiency maps of both on-road and off-road methods on a new driving cycle

264 To compare the efficiency maps of each method, the difference between the two maps is
 265 calculated as follows and plotted in Fig. 8a.

$$difference = |\eta_{off-road} - \eta_{on-road}| \quad (17)$$

266 Two areas can be considered (Fig. 8a). In area 1 the average difference of the efficiencies is
 267 3 % with a maximal difference of 6 %. In this area, the on-road efficiency map can be consid-
 268 ered accurate enough to represent the electric drive for energetic studies. In area 2, at low tor-
 269 ques and high speeds, the average difference is 10 % with a maximal difference of 14 %. The
 270 area with the highest difference corresponds simultaneously to a region with few operating
 271 points for the on-road method (black dots in Fig. 8a), and with a large gradient of efficiency
 272 about torque. The global average difference, with areas 1 and 2, is 3.3 % for a standard deviation
 273 of 3.15 %, what means that 68% of values fall within 1 standard deviation of the average. All
 274 the comparison results are summarized in Table 3. The effects of torque estimation and of tran-
 275 sient states are evaluated in the next subsections.

276 4.2 Influence of the torque estimation

277 In the on-road method, the estimation of the torque is achieved from the derivation of the
 278 velocity measurement using the mechanical load model (12). In the off-road method the esti-
 279 mation of the torque is carried out using the measurements of the current and the rotation speed
 280 using the electromagnetic model of the motor (16).

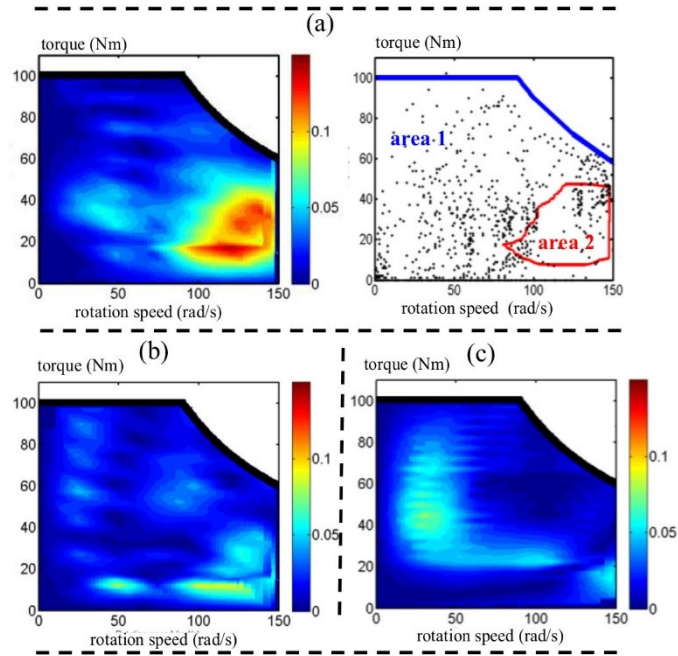


Fig. 8 Absolute difference between efficiency maps

a Original on-road versus off-road method

b On-road method with electromagnetic torque estimation versus original off-road method

c Off-road method with torque ramp profile versus original off-road method

281 Another on-road efficiency map is built from the on-road method. (Fig. 8b) To avoid the
 282 derivation of the measurement of the velocity the electromagnetic torque estimation (16) is then
 283 used. For this test only the torque estimation for the on-road method has been changed. The
 284 characterization is still the same with a building of the efficiency map in transient states for the
 285 on-road method and in steady-state for the off-road method. When comparing Fig. 8a and Fig.
 286 8b, the use of the electromagnetic torque (16) leads to a smaller absolute difference on the
 287 overall plane, except for some isolated regions. It should be noted that these regions correspond
 288 to areas of the plane with gaps in experimental data points (black dots on Fig. 8a). The maxi-
 289 mum difference on area 2 of Fig. 8b has been significantly reduced down from 14 % to 8 %. It
 290 can be concluded that torque estimation plays an important role in efficiency estimation and
 291 that it accounts for a large portion of the difference in area 2. More accurate torque estimation,
 292 such as closed loop observation, could improve the results of the on-road efficiency map. The
 293 average difference is 2.2 % with a standard deviation of 1.76 % (Table 3).

294

295 4.3 Influence of the transient states

296 To measure the impact of the transient states, the off-road method is modified to use meas-
297 urements during transients: instead of imposing torque steps and waiting for steady-state, a
298 ramp is used for the reference torque. A new efficiency map is then built and compared to the
299 efficiency map obtained with the original off-road method of Fig. 5b (Fig. 8c). For this test only
300 the reference torque of the off-road method has been changed. The torque estimation does not
301 change: derivation of the velocity for the on-road method and measurements of the machine
302 current for the off-road method.

303 A maximal difference of 6% is concentrated for low rotation speeds with medium torques
304 (Fig. 8c). Overall, the use of transient states represents only a difference of efficiency of 2%
305 and is not the main factor for the accuracy of the results. It can be concluded that the transient
306 measurements affect the efficiency estimation, but play a minor role as compared to lack of
307 measurement points and quality of torque estimation. The average difference is 2.15 % with a
308 standard deviation of 1.18 % (Table 3).

309 Table 3. Statistical analysis differences

Comparison	On-road vs off-road	Influence of the torque estimation	Influence of the transient states
Average difference	3.33 %	2.2 %	2.15 %
Standard deviation	3.15 %	1.76 %	1.18 %

310

311 **5 Conclusion**

312 Two methods to determine the efficiency map of the electric drive of EVs have been com-
313 pared experimentally. An off-road method allows determining the efficiency map with a dedi-
314 cated experimental test bed. This standard method is accurate, but suffers from application con-
315 straints. An on-road method allows determining the efficiency map directly in-vehicle by an
316 on-road drive cycle. The on-road method is repeatable and convenient to use but, as it is a new
317 method, its reliability is unknown. To compare in an effective manner both methods, a versatile
318 experimental setup has been used. To reproduce the behaviour of the EV, a power Hardware-
319 In-the-Loop simulation technique has been used. By this way, the on-road efficiency map has
320 been compared with the map obtained with the off-road method. It has been shown that, in an
321 energetic point of view, both methods yield similar results. Our comparison demonstrates an
322 absolute difference of the efficiency lower than 6% in most of the torque-speed plane. The
323 principal differences come from the lack of measurement points for the on-road method due to
324 the on-road driving cycle. The quality of torque estimation also affects the results. Furthermore,
325 the efficiency map is built in transient states for the on-road method whereas it is built in steady-
326 state for the off-road method. The experimental results show that the transient nature of meas-
327 urements has a minor influence on the map accuracy as compared to lack of measurement points
328 and quality of torque estimation. For the benchmarking of commercial vehicle, as it is not nec-
329 essary to remove the electric drive from the vehicle, the on-road method can be more efficient,
330 gains research time, and avoids the risk of damage. The new on-road method can then be used
331 for energetic studies. For future work, more accurate torque estimation is required to increase
332 the accuracy of the on-road efficiency map in sensitive areas. Furthermore, the new on-road
333 method could be used to compare different commercial EVs.

334

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7 APPENDIX

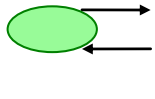
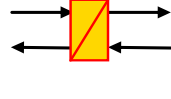
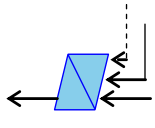
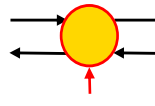
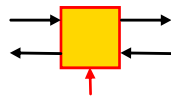
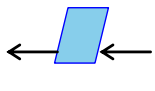

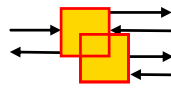
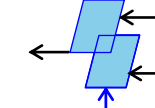
Table 4. Nomenclature of variables

A	Frontal area [m ²]	R	Electric resistance [Ω]
C_x	Air drag coefficient [-]	SoC	State of charge [%]
f_r	Rolling resistance [-]	T	Torque [Nm]
F	Force [N]	u	Electric voltage [V]
g	Grav. acceleration [m/s ²]	v	Velocity [m/s]
i	Electric current [A]	α	Slope [%]
k	Constant ratio [-]	Ω	Angular speed [rad/s]
M	Vehicle mass [kg]	η	Efficiency [%]
P	Power [W]	ρ	Air density [kg/m ³]
r	Wheel radius [m]		

Table 5. Nomenclature of captions

0	Open voltage	m	Mechanical
bat	Battery	meas	Mesured variable
dc	Direct voltage	ref	Reference variable
ed	Electric drive	res	Mechanical resistance
est	Estimated variable	std	Standard
ev	Electric vehicle	tot	Total
gb	Gearbox	trac	Traction
load	Load machine	wh	Wheel
mb	Mechanical brake		

Table 6. Pictograms of Energetic Macroscopic Representation (EMR)

	Source element (energy source)		Accumulation element (energy storage)		Indirect inversion (closed-loop control)
	Multi-domain conversion element		Mono-domain conversion element		Direct inversion (open-loop control)
	Sensor Mandatory Optional		Mono-physical coupling element (energy distribution)		Coupling inversion (energy criteria)