

1 On-road NO_x and smoke emissions of diesel light
2 commercial vehicles – Combining remote sensing
3 measurements from across Europe

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11 Key words: diesel light duty truck, in-use surveillance, in situ
12 remote emission sensing

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27 ABSTRACT

28 Light commercial vehicles account for about 10-15% of road
29 traffic in Europe. There have only been few investigations in
30 their on-road emissions performance. Here, on-road remote
31 sensing vehicle emission measurements from eighteen locations
32 across four European countries are combined for a comprehensive
33 analysis of NO_x and smoke emission rates from diesel light
34 commercial vehicle (LCVs) across the past two decades. This
35 allows differentiating the performance by emission standard,
36 model year, curb weight, engine load, manufacturer, vehicle age
37 and temperature, as well as by measurement device. We find in
38 general consistency between devices and countries. On-road NO_x
39 emission rates have been much higher than type approval limit
40 values for all manufacturers, but some perform systematically
41 better than others. Emission rates went down only with the
42 introduction of Euro 6a,b emission standards since the year
43 2015. Smoke emission rates are considered as a proxy for
44 particulate emissions. Their emissions decrease substantially
45 from the year 2010 onwards for all countries measured and size
46 classes. This is consistent with the substantial tightening of
47 the PM emission limit value that typically forced the
48 introduction of a diesel particulate filter. The average NO_x
49 emission rate increases with engine load and decreasing ambient
50 temperatures, particularly for Euro 4 and 5 emission classes.
51 This explains to a large extent the differences in absolute
52 level between the measurement sites, together with differences

53 in fleet composition. These dependencies have already been
54 observed earlier with diesel passenger cars; they are considered
55 part of an abnormal emission control strategy. Some limited
56 increase of the NO_x emission rate is observed for Euro 3 vehicles
57 older than ten years. The strong increase for the youngest Euro
58 6 LCVs might rather reflect technology advances with
59 successively younger models than genuine deterioration. However,
60 the durability of emission controls for Euro 6 vehicles should
61 better be monitored closely. Smoke emission rates continuously
62 increase with vehicle age suggesting a deterioration of the
63 after-treatment system with use.

64 INTRODUCTION

65 Monitoring the real-world emissions of road vehicles is
66 important for evaluating the effectiveness of control measures
67 and for planning potential future actions. In Europe, light
68 commercial vehicles (LCVs) comprise approximately 10% of total
69 annual sales of light-duty vehicle market¹. With the growing
70 demand for movement of goods in cities, particularly for
71 first/last mile deliveries, it is expected that the share of
72 LCVs will continue increasing in the future². LCVs have been
73 recognized as a significant contributor to mobile source air
74 pollution^{1,3,4,5}. One central emission control measure has been
75 legislation on vehicle emission standards that are defined over
76 a synthetic laboratory driving cycle. However, it has been shown
77 extensively that real-world driving varies substantially from
78 the official driving cycles in terms of accelerations and speeds
79 and thus engine loads^{6-9,45}.

80 There is a noticeable lack of measurements and uncertainty about
81 the actual emissions levels for diesel light commercial
82 vehicles, making it difficult to evaluate the success of
83 different emission control stages. Due to lack of data on LCVs,
84 it is often assumed that their on-road emissions perform similar
85 (proportional) to diesel car emissions⁹. Researchers studied on-
86 road emissions of LCVs using portable emissions measurements

87 system (PEMS), including CO₂ by Stewart et al.¹⁰ and criteria
88 pollutants by Vojtíšek-Lom et al.¹¹. It was found that on-road
89 NO_x emissions are much higher than the Euro 6a,b standard limits.
90 PEMS can acquire detailed driving and emission data from one
91 particular vehicle, but the measurement process is expensive and
92 time-consuming and therefore could only test a limited number of
93 vehicles. Another option is remote optical sensing at
94 roadsides¹³. Remote sensing technologies have been used in
95 various studies to assess on-road emission from passenger
96 cars^{3,14,15}. Studies that investigate LCV emissions using remote
97 sensing only have measurements in a single year or snapshot¹⁵, or
98 do not contain LCVs with the most recent emission control
99 technologies⁴. The International Council on Clean Transportation
100 reported preliminary results for light commercial vehicles
101 measured by remote sensing equipment in Zurich and several
102 locations in Europe, but their analysis did not report emission
103 trends over years and did not investigate the impacts of vehicle
104 power, temperature, aging, etc.¹⁶, which made it hard to evaluate
105 the effectiveness of emission control policies over time.

106 In this study, we report on long-term (2011–2018) on-road
107 vehicle emission measurements of diesel LCVs at multiple
108 locations in Europe. This unique dataset covers a total of
109 86,000 valid emission measurements from diesel LCV between 2011

110 and 2018. One measurement refers to one record of the exhaust
111 emissions of a certain pollutant for one vehicle when it passed
112 the measurement site. These records represent a wide range of
113 real-world driving and environmental conditions and a broad
114 spectrum of Europe's diesel LCV fleet. Each single campaign has
115 only a limited data size for LCVs, therefore we combine the
116 different campaigns and investigate how much more differentiated
117 the emissions can be analysed.

118 MATERIALS AND METHODS

119 Remote sensing set-up

120 In this study, the NO_x and black smoke emission rates are
121 analysed for diesel LCVs from model years 2000 to 2018. The data
122 are a combined set of in total 86,000 records of hot on-road
123 emissions measured between 2011 and 2018 at 18 locations in
124 Switzerland, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom. This dataset
125 stems from the so-called CONOX database¹⁷ that has been used
126 previously in analyses of passenger car emissions^{16-18,22}.

127 A light commercial vehicle (LCV) is a vehicle used for the
128 transport of goods or passengers with a maximum mass not
129 exceeding 3,500 kg (category N1 according to the UN-ECE vehicle
130 classification). LCVs are classified into three classes
131 according to their curb weight: N1-I, II, and III for N1
132 vehicles with curb weight less than 1,350 kg, between 1,350 and

133 1,760 kg, and between 1,760 and 3,500 kg, respectively. Almost
134 60% of valid records refer to the biggest class III, 30% to
135 class II and only 15% to class I. This reflects the preferences
136 of LCV users in Europe. We focus on diesel powered LCVs here
137 that represent more than 90% of all LCVs.

138

139 The majority of records was collected using the Opus AccuScan
140 RSD 4600 and RSD 5000 remote sensing devices. UK data has
141 additional entries from two measurement campaigns using the FEAT
142 instrument from the University of Denver. This offers ample
143 opportunity to cross-compare results within a country but with
144 different instruments, or across countries with the same
145 equipment. All instruments have been discussed extensively in
146 previous studies^{3,8,19-21}. In summary, each remote sensing device
147 projects light of specific bandwidths through a vehicle's
148 exhaust plume. Its attenuation is proportional to the
149 concentration of certain pollutants; the increment of the
150 concentration over the concentration measured immediately before
151 the passage of the vehicle (the background) is attributed to the
152 vehicle exhaust. The vehicle-related pollutant concentrations
153 are then divided by the incremental concentration of CO₂, as a
154 proxy for fuel consumption by the engine, to determine the
155 instantaneous fuel specific emission rate of a passing vehicle.

156 The measurement devices were regularly calibrated against a gas
157 of known concentrations. Speed and acceleration of each passing
158 vehicles are recorded simultaneously; they provide a measure for
159 the instantaneous engine power and are associated with the
160 emission rate measured. Positive acceleration is important to
161 obtain valid instantaneous emission records. Therefore, most
162 measurement sites have some uphill grade. Vehicle license plates
163 were recorded, and the vehicles' essential technical data (fuel
164 type, emission classification, model year, manufacturer, and
165 weight) were retrieved from national registration records. .

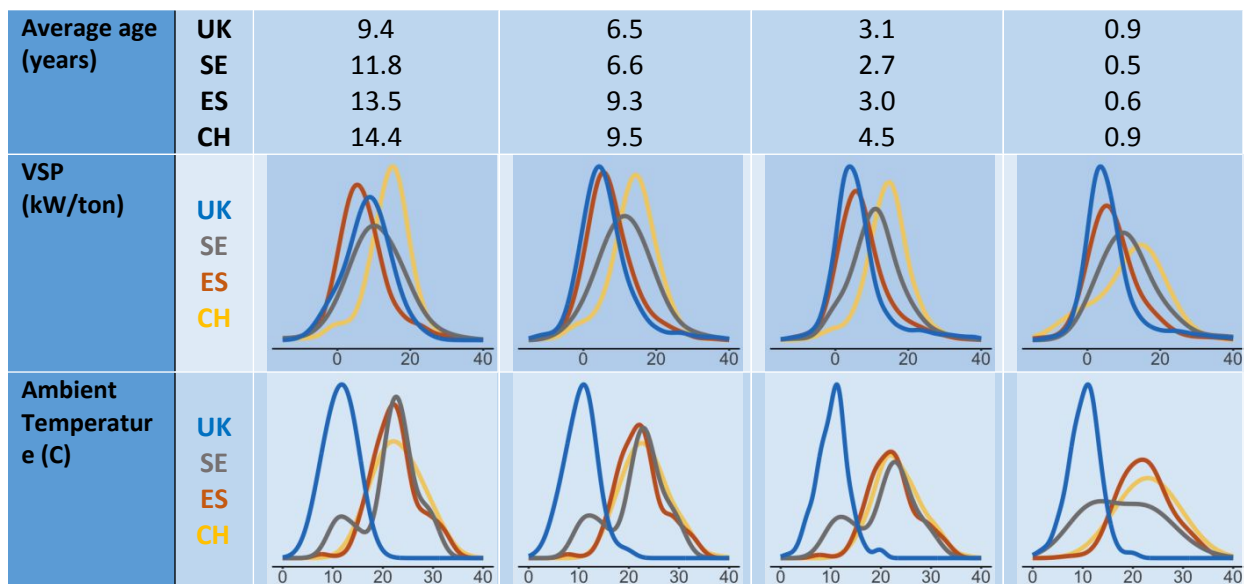
166 The measurement locations include one site in Spain (3.8%
167 grade), one site in Sweden (3% grade), two sites in Switzerland
168 (9.4% and 4.4% grade), and fourteen sites in United Kingdom with
169 grades ranging from -1.7% to 5.2%. These sites cover a wide
170 range of driving conditions ranging up to 28 kW power per ton
171 vehicle mass (95th percentile). Highest average engine loads were
172 typically recorded at Gockhauser Strasse, a site close to
173 Zurich, Switzerland with 9% uphill road grade. The vehicles
174 measured were new (certified to Euro 6 with model year 2018) up
175 to 20 years old beginning with model year 2000 (certified to
176 Euro 3 emission standard). The measurements comprise all
177 relevant LCV manufacturers in Europe. While the UK, Sweden,
178 Switzerland, and Spain may not be representative for Europe as a

179 whole, their vehicles have the same emission control
 180 technologies as elsewhere in the European Union, and in fact
 181 outside as well, and vehicles have to comply to the same
 182 emission control regulations⁴³. In addition, ambient temperatures
 183 during measurements ranged from close to 0°C in the UK up to
 184 30°C and more in Spain. This large spectrum will be seen quite
 185 relevant for an understanding of emission rates across sites.
 186 Thus, this dataset provides an unprecedented opportunity to
 187 comprehensively evaluate the on-road emission behavior of diesel
 188 light commercial vehicles in Europe. Table 1 summarizes the
 189 different measurement conditions in terms of when and where were
 190 the campaigns were conducted, average vehicle age, vehicle
 191 specific power and ambient temperature distribution for diesel
 192 LCV N1-III of Euro 3 to Euro 6a,b. Information for LCVs N1-I and
 193 N1-II are presented in Supporting Information Tables S1-S2.

194

195 **Table 1.** Summary of remote sensing testing conditions and diesel
 196 LCV N1-III fleet characteristics in the UK, Sweden, Spain, and
 197 Switzerland.

		Euro 3 N1-III	Euro 4 N1-III	Euro 5 N1-III	Euro 6a,b N1-III
# of records	UK	329	2567	11248	2680
	SE	257	625	2245	182
	ES	2955	4192	4575	719
	CH	2613	6224	6842	105
Measurement year and instrument	UK	FEAT: 2012, 2013, 2017, 2018; RSD 4600: 2013, 2015; RSD 5000: 2017, 2018			
	SE	RSD 5000: 2016			
	ES	RSD 5000: 2017			
	CH	RSD 4600: 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014, 2015; RSD 5000: 2016, 2017			



198

199 **Driving conditions and data treatment**

200 The measurement device returned incremental concentrations of
 201 pollutants (%NO, %NO₂, %HC, %CO and %CO₂) in the exhaust plume.
 202 These were converted into emission factors in grams per kg of
 203 fuel burned assuming complete combustion and using the formula
 204 detailed in Pokharel et al.²³ Specifically, emission factors for

205 NO and NO₂ were $r_{NO} = \frac{30 * Q_{NO} * 86}{(1 + Q_{CO} + 6Q_{HC}) * 12}$ and $r_{NO_2} = \frac{46 * Q_{NO_2} * 86}{(1 + Q_{CO} + 6Q_{HC}) * 12}$,

206 respectively²³, $Q_{CO} = \frac{\%CO}{\%CO_2}$, $Q_{HC} = \frac{\%HC}{\%CO_2}$, $Q_{NO} = \frac{\%NO}{\%CO_2}$. Thus, NO_x rate is

207 calculated by summing rates of NO and NO₂ in terms of NO₂-

208 equivalents. The RSD 4600 instrument cannot measure NO₂ but only

209 NO emissions. We estimated total NO_x emissions in that case from

210 the measured NO divided by the ratio of NO over NO_x derived from

211 the other instrument (RSD 5000) for each country and emission

212 control class. The black smoke emission factors in unit of gram

213 smoke per kilogram fuel are also measured by Opus AccuScan RSD
214 4600 and RSD 5000. These devices can distinguish black from blue
215 or white smoke normally generated by oil or coolant. ⁴⁰ The
216 calculations are based on measurement of opacity, smoke
217 particles fraction per cross-sectional area, amount of plume CO₂,
218 CO and HC percentages according to the manufacturer. ³⁹

219 Chen et al. ¹⁸ investigated the minimum sample size of on-road
220 measurements for a statistically robust emission estimation.
221 They concluded that a sample size of 200 could guarantee 80%
222 accuracy for mean estimation of emission for Euro 3 to Euro 6
223 vehicles. Therefore, for all results discussed in this paper, we
224 try to follow that guidance as much as possible.

225 First, the on-road emission rates are analyzed by model year for
226 each LCV class, country and measurement device separately. This
227 is the basis for pooling the data from the single campaigns in
228 order to have a sufficient sample for more differentiated
229 analyses: The influence of vehicle power (using VSP as a proxy
230 variable), manufacturer, age and temperature on the average
231 emissions is reviewed. All this has been found important for
232 diesel passenger cars ^{8, 16, 6, 34}.

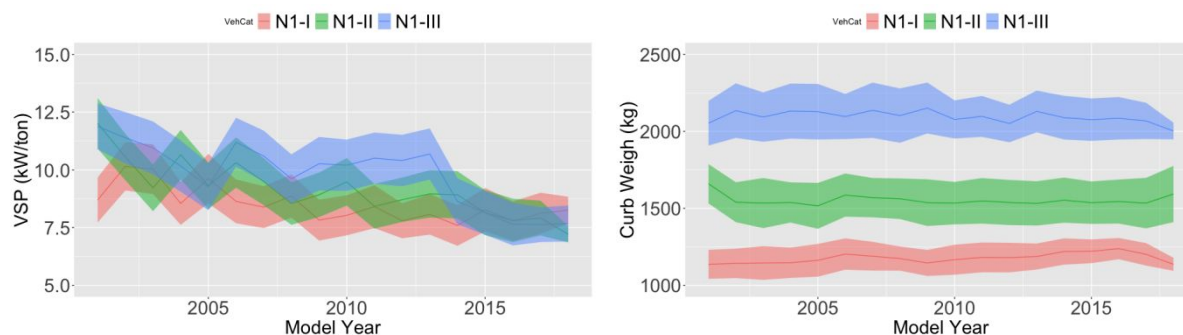
233 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

234 Development of real-driving emissions over model years

235 Vehicle emissions can be affected by instantaneous driving
236 conditions and vehicle weight. To filter out these possible
237 impacts, we evaluated the variation in vehicle specific power
238 and curb weight across different model years in the data.
239 Vehicle specific power (VSP) is a proxy for engine power and was
240 calculated based on vehicle speed, acceleration and road grade³³.
241 Figure 2 shows that the VSP, although showing variations, was
242 mainly approximately 9 kW/ton for diesel LCVs N1-I to N1-III.
243 The only exception is that the average VSP for LCV N1-III drops
244 from around 10.5 kW/ton to 8.5 kW/ton after model year 2015.
245 This is mainly due to a significant drop of data from
246 Switzerland (from around 25% to 3% after 2015) which contains
247 vehicles with high VSP because of a high slope. In addition, the
248 average curb weights per model year remained constant at about
249 1,200, 1,550, and 2,200 kg for classes N1-I, II, and III,
250 respectively. Therefore, pooling of the data from different
251 countries and campaigns appears reasonable given this
252 consistency across time and fleets.

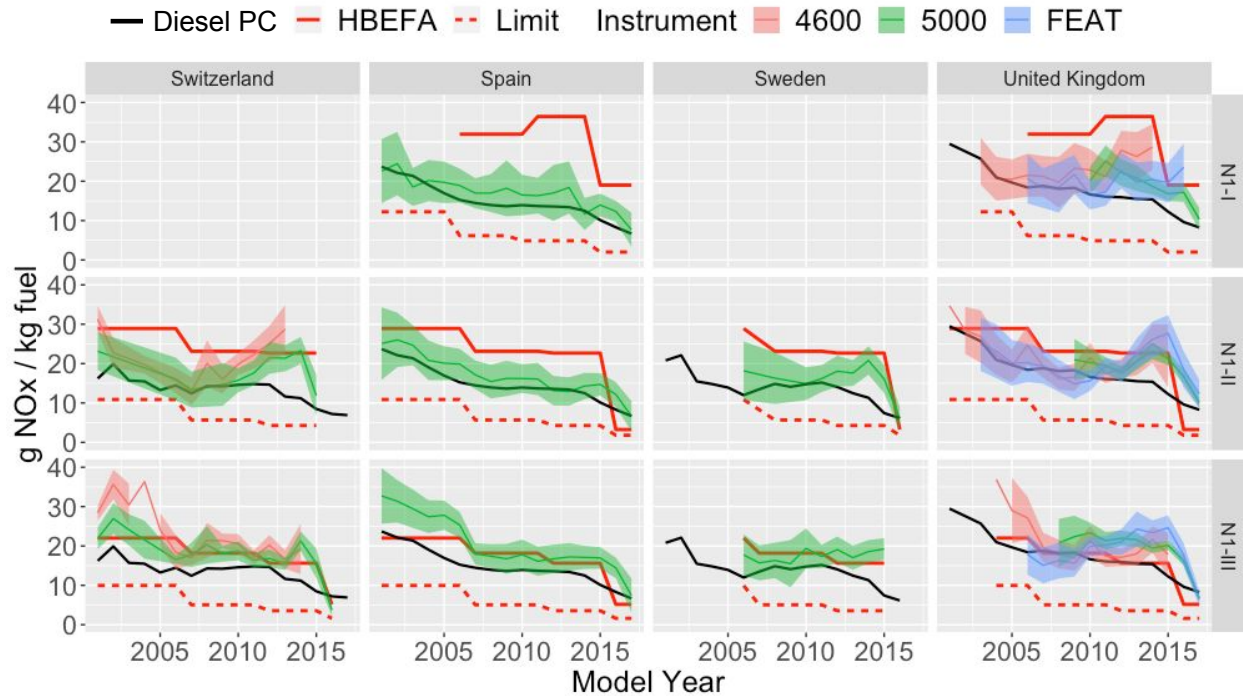
253 It is worth noting that LCVs service a wide range of transport
254 requirements, thus, there is a greater variability in vehicle
255 operating characteristics (e.g. urban delivery with routinely

256 short and slow speed trips, v.s. intracity highway delivery with
257 high speed driving) and loading situations. The impacts of these
258 factors are not analysed in this paper but can be directions of
259 future research.



260 **Figure 1.** Mean and 95% confidence interval for Vehicle Specific
261 Power, VSP (left) and curb weight (right) for diesel light
262 commercial vehicles (LCVs) N1-I to III as a function of model
263 year.

264 Figures 2 and 3 report mean and 95% confidence intervals for NO_x
265 and black smoke emission rates by vehicle model year for diesel
266 LCVs by country and instrument (values of emissions rates are
267 reported in Supporting Information Table S4). Countries (as a proxy
268 for fleets and site specific ambient and driving conditions) and
269 instruments are presented separately to allow for an examination
270 of their respective consistency before any further aggregation.
271 For reference the average on-road emission rate is compared to
272 emission factors from the most recent HBEFA 4.1²⁴, with converted
273 legislative limit values over the type approval test cycle and
274 with RS on-road emissions from diesel passenger cars from the
275 respective campaigns.



276

277 **Figure 2.** Mean hot NO_x emission factors (g per kg fuel) and 95%
 278 confidence interval (shaded area) for diesel light commercial
 279 vehicles (LCVs) N1-I, II, and III as a function of model year by
 280 measurement locations and instrument. Added are the emission
 281 factors used by HBEFA 4.1 and type approval limit values over
 282 the homologation test cycle in force in the respective year. The
 283 emissions rates of diesel LCVs in g per km are converted to g
 284 per kg fuel using measured fuel consumption rates in g per km
 285 from Hausberger in HBEFA 4.1²⁴. NO_x emissions factors of diesel
 286 passenger cars measured by remote sensing in these countries are
 287 added for reference.

288 On-road NO_x emission rates have been persistently above the type

289 approval limits for all Euro stages, LCV size classes, fleets

290 (or countries respectively) and observed driving conditions.

291 This pattern is already familiar from diesel passenger cars in

292 Europe^{1,3} and is one marker of the diesel emission scandal. With

293 model year 2015, or the introduction of the Euro 6 emission

294 standard respectively, there is a marked decrease in the average

295 on-road emission rate for LCVs of all sizes and fleets (or

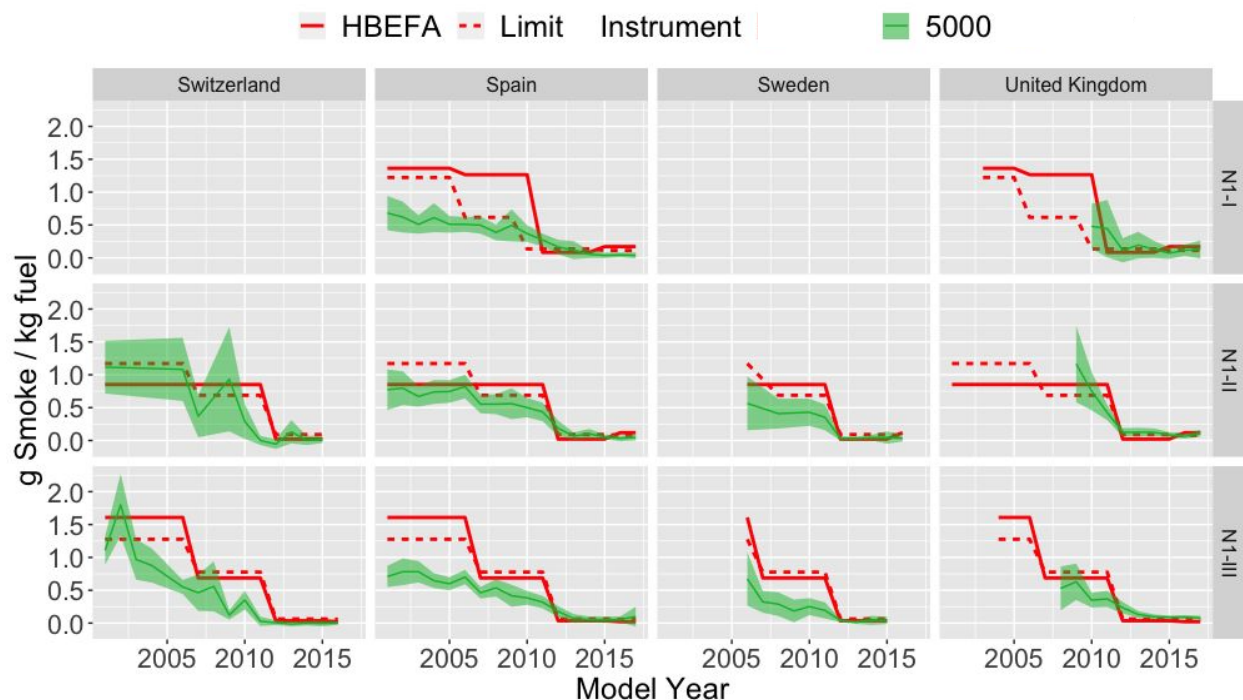
296 countries), though the level is still above the limit value.
297 Results from different instruments in Switzerland and the UK are
298 consistent within their respective confidence intervals with
299 only five exceptions: Model year 2012 and 2013 for N1-III and II
300 in Switzerland, respectively, and model year 2006 for N1-III,
301 and model years 2011 and 2013 for N1-I in the UK. This good
302 consistency is a prerequisite for pooling data from different
303 campaigns together. The smaller discrepancies cannot be
304 explained at the moment. However, it is important to note that
305 they do not refer to an identical situation or vehicle; these
306 measurements were taken during different campaigns and refer to
307 different vehicles, driving and ambient conditions.

308 On-road emissions are at the higher end in the UK; that will be
309 explained in the following as a consequence of the rather low
310 ambient temperatures during the measurements, particularly
311 relevant for Euro 4 and 5 vehicles. High emission rates in
312 Switzerland are associated with the very high road gradient of
313 9% at the main measurement site (Gockhauser Strasse).

314 The most recent HBEFA 4.1 updated emission factors for LCVs.
315 They clearly reflect the stagnation of the emission rate at high
316 levels for all LCV size classes and emission classes including
317 Euro 5, that is observed in the on-road data. Differences in

318 level might suggest further refinement of the modeled emission
 319 factors.

320 Note that there are several, progressively more stringent sub-
 321 tiers for Euro 6, termed Euro 6a/b, Euro 6d-temp, and Euro 6d.
 322 The Euro 6d-temp and 6d correspond to vehicle registered after
 323 2018 and after 2019. It is expected that cars first registered
 324 in 2017 are certified to no more than Euro 6b emission standard.



325

326 **Figure 3.** Mean hot black smoke (smoke) emission factors (g per
 327 kg fuel) and 95% confidence interval (shaded area) for diesel
 328 light commercial vehicles (LCVs) N1-I, II, and III as a function
 329 of model year by measurement location. Added are the PM emission
 330 factors used by HBEFA 4.1 and type approval limit values over
 331 the homologation test cycle in force for the respective year.
 332 The emissions rates of diesel LCVs in g per km were converted to
 333 g per kg fuel using measured fuel consumption rates in g per km
 334 from Hausberger in HBEFA 4.1²⁴.

335

336 Only the RSD 5000 equipment provide enough records to report
337 black smoke emissions (**Figure 3**). Smoke as measured in
338 absorption spectroscopy is a collection of airborne solid and
339 liquid particulates and gases (CO, NO_x, SO_x, etc.) generated
340 during combustion. Particulate matter (PM) as regulated in
341 vehicle emission standards is all material collected on a
342 specified filter and still not evaporated after heating up to
343 52°C. Clearly, particulate matter (PM) and black smoke are not
344 the same entities, but have been shown to correspond under
345 normal circumstances for diesel engine vehicles⁴¹. With this in
346 mind results for smoke measurements are presented here as best
347 available proxy for primary particulate exhaust emissions.

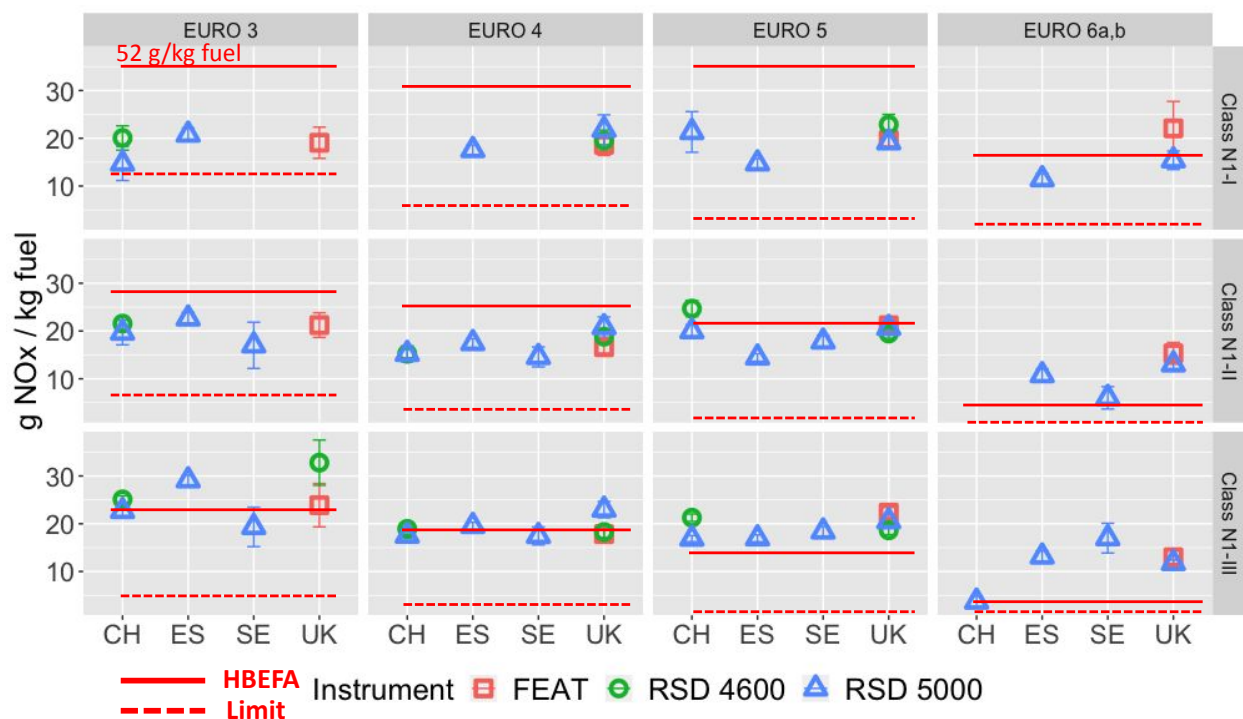
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349 Contrary to the NO_x emissions, the changes in real-world black
350 smoke emissions have been following changes in PM legislation
351 limits. In particular, a steady reduction between 2005 and 2015
352 is observed, demonstrating efforts to control particular matter
353 emissions with the introduction of particle filters in Euro 4
354 and Euro 5 vehicles. In addition, smoke emissions (particularly
355 for N1-III) in Sweden dropped long before 2010 (the year Euro 5
356 was introduced). This can be explained by the fact that Sweden
357 was offering incentives for early adoption of the diesel
358 particle filter. Trends suggest that the automobile industry

359 focused efforts on reducing particulate matter (PM) emissions.
360 On-road emission rates, legislative PM limit values as well as
361 HBEFA emission factors consistently follow the same trends
362 suggesting after model year 2005.

363 Next, detailed emission rates are aggregated to averages per
364 Euro standard and size class Figure 4 (values of emission
365 factors are reported in Supplement Information Table S5). The
366 plot for smoke emissions of diesel LCVs grouped by each Euro
367 emission standard is provided in Supporting Information Figure
368 S3. These are compared to the emissions factors used in HBEFA
369 4.1 and the corresponding legislative limits during type
370 approval. The results showed that the emission levels for Euro 3
371 to 6 diesel LCVs N1-1 to III exceeded 3 to 7 times the
372 corresponding legislative limits. These findings were consistent
373 with previous studies with more limited study scopes^{6,15}. The
374 trends for NO_x emissions of diesel LCVs were also aligned with
375 the observations of NO_x emissions from diesel passenger cars
376 found in other studies¹⁶ where NO_x emissions of diesel cars were
377 stable for Euro 3 to Euro 5 (model years 2000–2014) and
378 significantly decreased in the Euro 6a,b fleet, although they
379 were still higher than the legislative limits. The biggest
380 variability in emission rate between countries is for Euro 6
381 vehicles. We speculate that this reflects uncertainty (in the

382 registration data) as to whether the vehicle was actually
 383 certified to the higher Euro 6b or the lower Euro 6d-temp
 384 standard. NO_x emission factors for Euro 3 to 5 used in HBEFA 4.1
 385 agree with on-road emission rates notably for the heavy class
 386 III. However, it seems that emission rates for N1-I and II
 387 vehicles are underestimated by sometimes 30%.

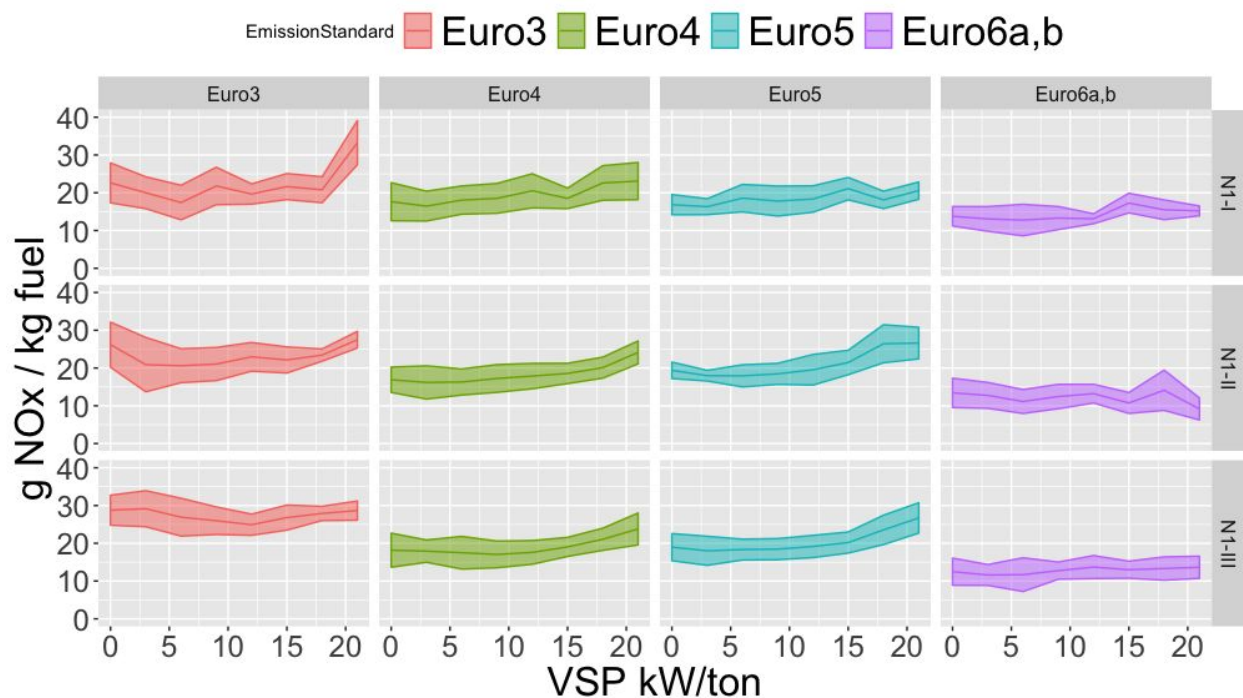


389 **Figure 4.** Mean and 95% confidence interval hot NO_x emissions
 390 factors for diesel light commercial vehicles (LCVs) as a
 391 function of Euro emission standards by measurement locations and
 392 instrument. Added are the emission factors used by HBEFA 4.1 and
 393 type approval limit values over the homologation test cycle in
 394 force in the respective year. The emissions rates of diesel LCVs
 395 in g per km were converted to g per kg fuel using measured fuel
 396 consumption rates in kg per km from Hausberger in HBEAF 4.1²⁴.

397

398 Influence of engine power on emissions

399 Figure 5 shows the NO_x emissions of diesel LCVs Euro 3 to 6 as a
400 function of instantaneous vehicle specific power (values of
401 emission factors are reported in Supplement Information Table
402 S6). Supporting Information Tables S7 to S9 show the number of
403 vehicles measured for each category, which indicated that the
404 majority of those categories have large enough sample sizes for
405 robust statistical analysis. Higher VSP leads to higher NO_x
406 emissions levels for N1-II and III of Euro 3 to 5, particularly
407 at VSPs greater than 12 kW/ton. There was no dependency of NO_x
408 emissions on VSP for the Euro 6a,b fleet. This might be
409 attributed to the changed test procedure reflecting better the
410 range of engine loads observed in on-road driving, thus forcing
411 more comprehensive emission control strategies. Similar
412 dependency effects were found by a previous study in the United
413 Kingdom⁸ and one in Switzerland⁴² on diesel passenger cars, which
414 found higher NO_x emissions with higher VSP for Euro 4 and Euro 5
415 fleets and less dependence of NO_x emissions on VSP for the Euro
416 6a,b fleet¹⁶.



417
 418 **Figure 5.** Mean hot NO_x emission factors (g per kg fuel) and 95%
 419 confidence interval (shaded area) for diesel light commercial
 420 vehicles (LCVs) N1-I, II, and III as a function of VSP derived
 421 from RSD across all countries and campaigns.

422 LCVs' smoke emission by VSP bins are shown in Supporting
 423 Information Figure S1. We found no clear dependency of smoke
 424 emissions on VSP for Euro 5 and Euro 6a,b diesel LCVs. For Euro
 425 3 and Euro 4 diesel LCVs, there was an increasing trend in smoke
 426 emissions when the VSP increased from 6 to 12 kW/ton; smoke
 427 emission levels plateaued with higher VSP values. These smoke
 428 emissions results were promising and showed the effort by
 429 manufacturers to reduce PM emissions by introducing various
 430 technologies, such as diesel particle filters.

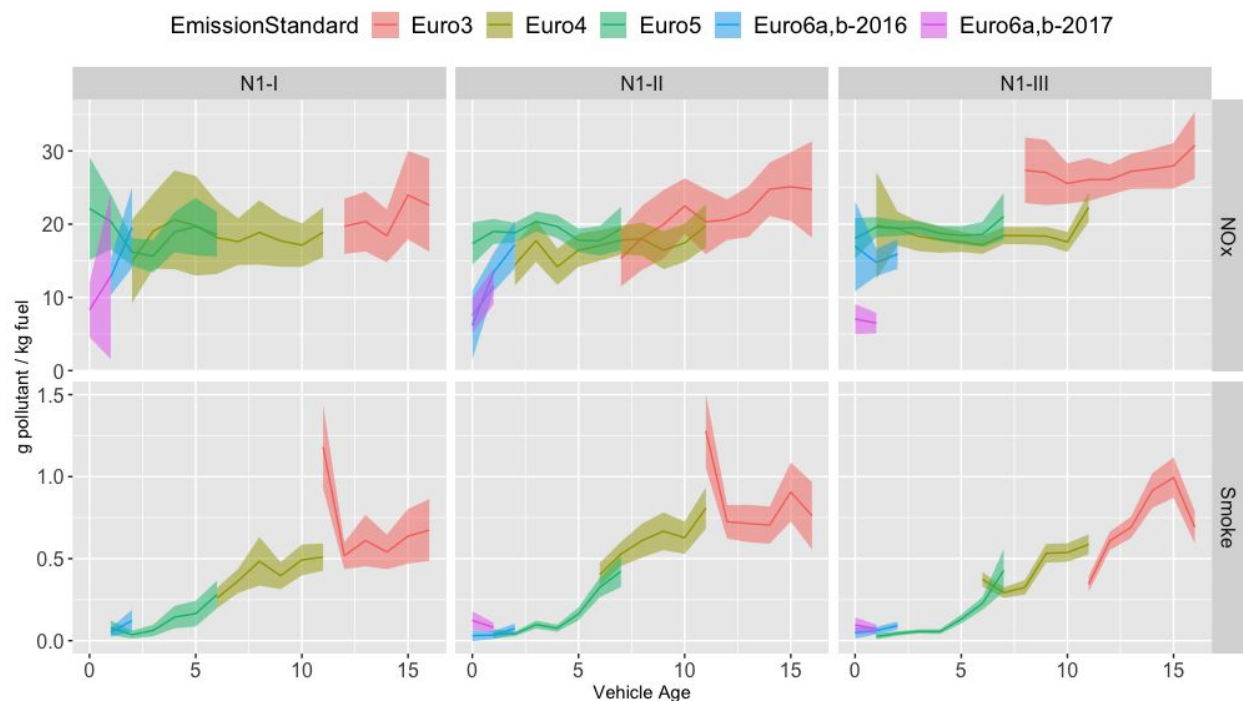
431 **Influence of Manufacturer on Emissions**

432 Figure 6 presents NO_x emissions by Euro emission standard for
433 diesel LCVs grouped by major vehicle manufacturers (sample size
434 information is provided in Supporting Information Tables S10 and
435 S11 and numbers of emission factors are reported in Supplement
436 Information Table S12). The plot for smoke emissions of diesel
437 LCVs grouped by major vehicle manufacturers is provided in
438 Supporting Information Figure S4. The majority of manufacturers
439 show similar NO_x and smoke emissions across Euro 3 to 6a,b, but
440 some perform better or worse than others. For example, Nissan-
441 Renault reported higher NO_x emission for Euro 5 and 6a,b in N1-I
442 category. Mercedes reported higher NO_x emission for Euro 5 and
443 6a,b in N1-II category. Volkswagen have lowest absolute
444 emissions for Euro 6a,b in class N1-II. Toyota had a much lower
445 NO_x emission for Euro 5 and 6a,b in the N1-III category. For all
446 these cases the VSP values were comparable; this shows that
447 manufacturers employ different in-use emission control
448 strategies with some being more stringent (or lenient) than
449 others. This analysis indicates that differences between
450 countries in on-road NO_x emissions of LCVs can be partially
451 explained by different fleet mix (in terms of manufacturers) in
452 those countries. This is particularly true when one or several
453 manufacturers dominate a country's LCV market and those

472 categories. However, Euro 3 of N1-II showed an increase in NO_x
473 emission from 6 to 10 years old and then plateaued from 10 to 15
474 years. Euro 5 of N1-III showed an increasing trend between years
475 5 and 7, but there was not enough data to prove the trend will
476 continue. Euro 6a,b of N1-II showed an increasing NO_x emission
477 trend in the first two years of driving. Whether this continues
478 and is also present in other vehicle generations should be
479 closely monitored.

480 There was an increase in smoke emissions as vehicles aged in
481 Euro 4 and Euro 5 across N1-I, II, and III. For Euro 3 vehicles,
482 N1-I and II showed mainly consistent smoke emissions with aging,
483 though they both experienced a big drop from age 11 to 12. N1-
484 III smoke emissions increased as vehicle age increased from 11
485 to 15 years old, but there was a significant drop after that.
486 The smoke emissions for Euro 6a,b (both 2016 and 2017 model
487 year) were stable and low with the limited 2 years on the
488 market. These were promising observations that suggested
489 successful emission control. Similar observations of successful
490 particular matter emission control have been demonstrated for
491 diesel passenger cars and heavy-duty trucks, which could be
492 explained by better PM emission control technologies³¹. As
493 explained previously, we acknowledge the risk of proxying PM
494 emission with smoke, but the results can still shed lights on PM

495 real-world emissions trends of diesel LCVs given that this is
496 one of the few relevant on-road emissions datasets.

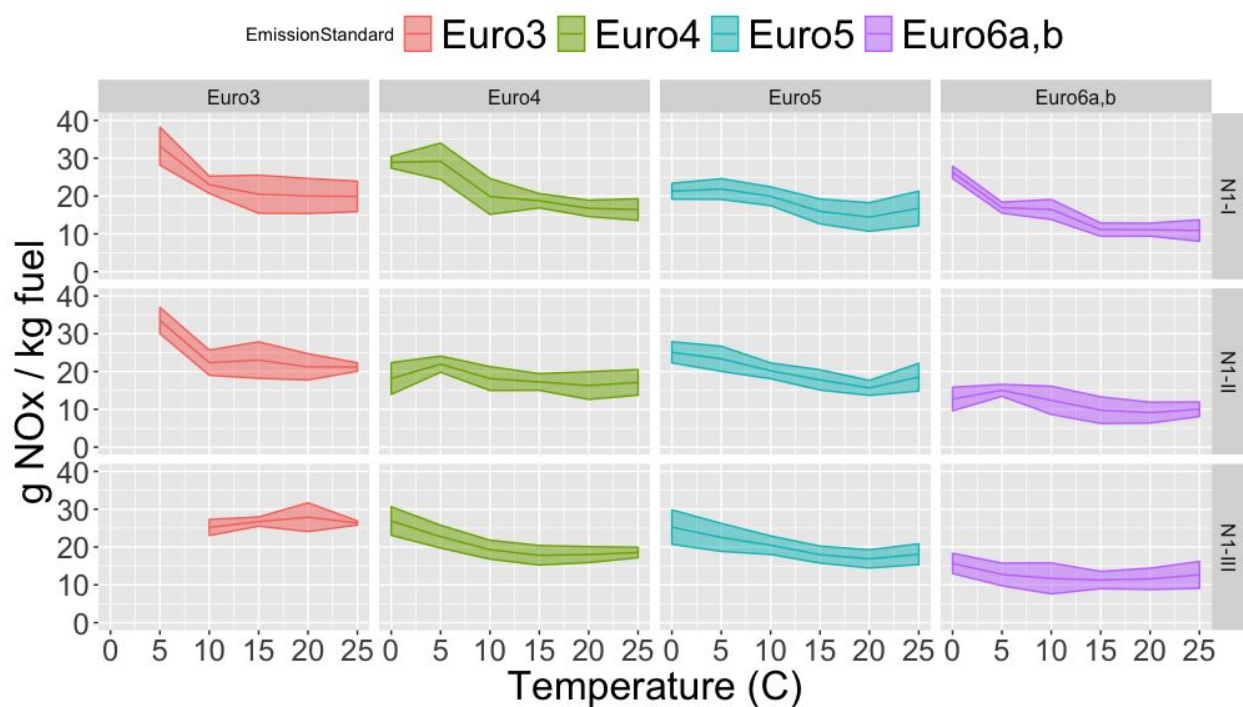


497
498 **Figure 7.** Mean hot NO_x and smoke emission factors (g per kg fuel)
499 and 95% confidence interval (shaded area) for diesel light
500 commercial vehicles (LCVs) N1-I, II, and III under Euro 3 to
501 Euro 6a,b emission standards as a function of age, derived from
502 RSD.

503 Influence of Ambient Temperature on NO_x Emissions

504 For diesel passenger car NO_x emissions increase with decreasing
505 temperature³⁴. Similarly lower temperatures are associated with
506 higher NO_x emissions for Euro 3 to 5 diesel LCVs (Figure 8).
507 (sample size information is provided in Supporting Information
508 Tables S14 and S15 and numbers of emission factors are reported
509 in Supplement Information Table S16). Previous literature showed
510 Euro 6 diesel cars demonstrated a weaker temperature dependence

511 compared to Euro 3 to 5 cars. A higher stability of NO_x emissions
 512 was also observed for Euro 6a,b diesel LCVs. Grange et al.³⁴
 513 attributed the weaker temperature dependence of NO_x emissions for
 514 diesel cars to advanced technologies, e.g., lean NO_x traps and
 515 selective catalytic reduction, which manufacturers needed to
 516 achieve the more stringent Euro 6 compliance. This explanation
 517 likely also applied to our findings on LCVs.



518 **Figure 8.** Mean hot NO_x emission factors (g per kg fuel) and 95%
 519 confidence interval (shaded area) for diesel light commercial
 520 vehicles (LCVs) N1-I, II, and III as a function of temperature,
 521 derived from RSD.
 522

523
 524 Our results and trends of NO_x and smoke emissions for diesel LCVs
 525 are consistent with remote sensing studies of diesel cars
 526 conducted in Europe related to temperature dependence of NO_x

527 emission³⁴, aging effect on NO_x emission²², impacts of engine load
528 on NO_x emission^{8,16,42}. The unique dataset of LCVs provides
529 insights on on-road emission behavior of LCVs for the first time
530 in literature. It is also worth to compare on-road emissions
531 measured in Europe with those measured in United States (US).
532 There are recent studies in US that used remote sensing
533 technologies to measure on-road vehicle emissions⁴⁶⁻⁴⁹, though
534 most of studies are conducted in targeted locations. The trend
535 and magnitude of NO_x emissions of gasoline light duty vehicles in
536 US as reported in literature⁴⁶⁻⁴⁹ are consistent with those
537 reported in European studies^{3,6}. Thus gasoline light duty
538 vehicles in US and Europe follow changes in Euro emission
539 standards over time, which is a clear evidence of manufacturers
540 adopting similar emission control technologies on vehicles sold
541 in the two continents. Diesel light-duty vehicle (car and light
542 duty truck) accounts a very small ratio (less than 2%) in light
543 duty vehicle fleet in US.⁵⁰ For the limited US data on diesel
544 light-duty vehicle, for example, mean NO_x emission in Fresno,
545 California, is about 20 g NO_x / kg fuel for diesel vans (similar
546 to light commercial vehicle in Europe) with model year 2007⁴⁹,
547 which is comparable to NO_x emission of diesel LCVs showed in this
548 study. Bishop et al.⁴⁶ found a clear pattern of higher NO_x
549 emission for high mileage gasoline Taxi operated in Los Angeles,
550 California. We could not verify the impacts of mileage on diesel

551 LCVs due to the lack of data. But this will be an interesting
552 future research direction. Overall, there exists consistency in
553 on-road NO_x emission for light duty vehicle across US and Europe
554 based on remote sensing measurements, though data on diesel
555 light duty vehicles for US are limited due to its small share in
556 US market. But the results show promising of using remote
557 sensing technologies to investigate on-road emission behavior of
558 vehicles in different geographic regions.

559 The results of this paper on diesel LCVs have implications.
560 Although progress is observed on reducing on-road NO_x emission
561 from diesel LCVs, their values are still significantly above
562 legislative values across N-I to N-III types. The PM emission of
563 diesel LCVs successfully follow changes in legislative values.
564 This demands continuing regulation and monitoring on NO_x emission
565 of diesel LCVs. The inclusion of real driving emission test
566 procedure in type approval certification in Europe results in
567 reduction in NO_x emission of Euro 6a,b of diesel LCVs. And the
568 continuous monitoring of on-road emissions using remote sensing
569 technologies in countries across Europe generates helpful
570 information for emission control authorities to understand on-
571 road vehicle emissions and enhance efficiency of vehicle
572 emission monitoring. The consistency of NO_x and smoke emission
573 rates between emission inventory model (i.e. HBEFA) and remote

574 sensing measurement implies the model has successfully represent
575 emissions of diesel LCVs. The development of emission rates in
576 inventory model normally is based on dynamometer test or
577 portable emissions measurements system test, which are capable
578 of capturing vehicle emissions under real-world driving.²⁴ Thus,
579 our results also suggest it is possible for emission inventory
580 model developers to develop rates using emission tests and then
581 adjust rates based on measurements of remote sensing campaign.

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587 **Supporting Information**

588 The supporting information is available free of charge.

589

590 Tables and figures addressing: 1) Summary of remote sensing
591 testing conditions and light commercial vehicle fleet
592 characteristics at measurement sites; 2) Mean hot NO_x and smoke
593 emission factors and 95% confidence interval for diesel light
594 commercial vehicles as a function of model year and as a
595 function of Euro emission standards by measurement locations and
596 instrument; 3) Mean hot NO_x emission factors and 95% confidence
597 interval for diesel light commercial vehicles by Euro standards
598 and vehicle specific power bins; 4) sample size by Euro
599 Standards and vehicle specific power bins, by Euro standards and
600 makers for diesel light commercial vehicles; 5) Mean hot NO_x
601 emission factors and 95% confidence interval for diesel light
602 commercial vehicles by Euro standards and manufacturers; 6) Mean
603 hot NO_x and Smoke emission factors (g per kg fuel) for diesel
604 light commercial vehicles by Euro standards as a function of
605 age; 7) Sample size by Euro Standards and Temperature bins for
606 diesel light commercial vehicles; 8) Mean and 95% confidence

607 interval (CI) hot NO_x emission factors (g per kg fuel) for
608 diesel light commercial vehicles by temperature; 9) Figure for
609 smoke emissions and for diesel light-commercial vehicles by VSP
610 bins; 10) Figure for mean hot NO emission factors (g per kg
611 fuel) and 95% confidence interval for diesel light commercial
612 vehicles by model year, measurement locations and instrument;
613 11) Figure for mean and 95% confidence interval hot NO_x and
614 smoke emissions factors for diesel light commercial vehicles by
615 Euro emission standards, measurement locations and instrument;
616 12) Figure for mean hot NO_x and Smoke emission factors (g per kg
617 fuel) and 95% confidence interval of diesel light commercial
618 vehicles by vehicle manufacturer.

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620

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