|  |  |
| --- | --- |
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# Overview

This chapter provides the methodology, emission factors and relevant activity data to enable evaporative emissions ([[1]](#footnote-1)) of NMVOCs ([[2]](#footnote-2)) from gasoline vehicles (NFR code 1A3bv) to be calculated. The term ‘evaporative emissions’ refers to the sum of all fuel-related NMVOC emissions not deriving from fuel combustion. It should be noted that the second level of the NFR code for this emission source relates to ‘combustion’. Clearly, evaporation is not a combustion process. However, this chapter has been assigned its NFR code as a matter of convenience, and to allow all emissions from road transport to be assessed together. For the present time, this anomaly has to be accepted by inventory compilers.

For various European countries in 2006, the contribution of evaporative emissions to total NMVOC emissions from road transport ranged from slightly less than 3 % to around 16.5 % ([[3]](#footnote-3)) (see subsection 2.3 of the present chapter). However, the contribution has been decreasing in recent years as a result of the introduction of control systems. In current vehicles evaporative emissions are controlled by means of an activated carbon canister connected to the fuel tank. The canister adsorbs the fuel vapour escaping from the tank.

# Description of sources

## Process description

Most evaporative emissions of VOCs emanate from the fuel systems (tanks, injection systems and fuel lines) of petrol vehicles. Evaporative emissions from diesel vehicles are considered to be negligible due to the presence of heavier hydrocarbons and the relatively low vapour pressure of diesel fuel, and can be neglected in calculations.

The most important sources of evaporative emissions from a vehicle are the following:

* breathing losses through the tank vent. Breathing losses are due to evaporation of fuel in the tank during driving and parking, as a result of normal diurnal temperature variation;
* fuel permeation/leakage. Various studies (e.g. CRC, 2004; Reuter et al., 1994) indicate that liquid fuel seepage and permeation through plastic and rubber components of the fuel and vapour control system contribute significantly to the total evaporative emissions.

When modelling evaporative emissions due to breathing losses and fuel permeation, three separate mechanisms are usually considered:

* diurnal emissions,
* running losses,
* hot-soak emissions.

Both breathing losses and fuel permeation contribute to these mechanisms, and their relative significance depends on the vehicle configuration. The three mechanisms are described in more detail in the following sections.

The evaporation of gasoline also takes place during the delivery of fuel to service stations, and during vehicle refuelling. However, these processes are not included in this chapter, as they are considered elsewhere in the Guidebook.

The processes of evaporation are summarised in Figure 2‑1.

Figure 2‑1 Processes resulting in evaporative emissions of NMVOCs

### Diurnal emissions

The increase in ambient temperature which occurs during the daylight hours results in the thermal expansion of the fuel and vapour in the tank. Without an emission control system, some of the increased volume of fuel vapour is vented to the atmosphere. Emissions due to fuel permeation and/or leakage also contribute to the diurnal emissions.

### Running losses

Running losses are the result of vapour generated in the fuel tank during vehicle operation. For older vehicles equipped with carburettor and/or fuel return systems, engine operation results in a significant temperature increase in the fuel tank and/or the carburettor (Morgan et al., 1993). For such vehicles, the combined effect of high ambient temperature and exhaust system heat can generate a significant amount of vapour in the fuel tank. For gasoline vehicles with fuel injection and returnless fuel systems, the fuel temperature in the tank is not affected by engine operation, and thus no additional fuel vapour is generated in the tank. The running losses of these vehicles are therefore very low and may be attributed to fuel permeation and/or leakage.

### Hot-soak emissions

Hot-soak emissions are the emissions caused when a hot engine is turned off. Heat from the engine and exhaust system increases the temperature of the fuel in the system (which is no longer flowing). Carburettor float bowls are a particularly significant source of hot-soak emissions. For vehicles with fuel injection and returnless fuel systems, no additional fuel vapour is generated in the tank when a hot engine is turned off, and thus hot-soak emissions are mainly due to fuel permeation and/or leakage.

All three types of evaporative emission are significantly affected by the volatility of the gasoline being used, the absolute ambient temperature and temperature changes, and vehicle design characteristics. For hot-soak emissions and running losses the driving pattern is also of importance.

## Controls

Until 1993 evaporative emissions of gasoline passenger cars were not controlled in Europe, with the exception of Austria, Denmark, Finland, Sweden and Switzerland, which adopted the US Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA) SHED (Sealed Housing for Evaporative Determination) test procedure. In the EU, a limit value of 2.0 g of NMVOC per test was first introduced by Directive 91/441/EEC (Euro 1 and Euro 2 vehicles). In order to meet this emission limit, the installation of small on-board carbon canisters was necessary. Directive 91/441/EC was superseded by Directive 98/69/EC, applicable to Euro 3 and Euro 4 vehicles. According to this, the limit value for evaporative emissions remained at the same level. However, the test procedure for evaporative emissions increased in severity. The fitting of larger carbon canisters was necessary for compliance with these more stringent requirements.

## Contribution of evaporative emissions to total emissions

The contribution of evaporative emissions to total NMVOC emissions from road transport has decreased considerably since the introduction of carbon canisters. The percentage contribution for various European countries in 2006 is shown in Table 2‑1, based on the methodology presented in this chapter and the activity data and exhaust emissions calculated with TREMOVE v2.5 (for more information see [www.tremove.org](http://www.tremove.org)). The observed differences are due to the combined effects of ambient temperatures (minimum and maximum), the volatility of the fuel used in different countries, the vehicle usage (annual mileage), the technology mix (share of older vehicles without a carbon canister), as well as the share of diesel vehicles on the national car fleet.

Table 2‑1 Total evaporative emissions as a percentage of the national total NMVOCs from road transport in 2006

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Country | % | Country | % |
| AT | 2.9 | HU | 4.4 |
| BE | 6.8 | IE | 12.7 |
| CH | 11.2 | IT | 8.5 |
| CZ | 5.0 | LU | 6.6 |
| DE | 11.5 | NL | 4.9 |
| DK | 6.1 | NO | 16.7 |
| ES | 9.0 | PL | 9.4 |
| FI | 5.1 | PT | 3.5 |
| FR | 10.5 | SE | 10.2 |
| GR | 8.8 | SI | 3.6 |
|  |  | UK | 15.2 |

# Calculation methods

## Choice of method

Figure 3–1 schematically shows the process to be followed to select the method for estimating evaporative emissions from road transport. This decision tree is applicable to all countries. If evaporation is a key emission source, then a Tier 2 or Tier 3 method must be used for estimating the emissions.

Figure 3‑1 Decision tree for evaporative emissions

## Tier 1 method

This is a very basic method where all three main phases of evaporative emissions are combined into a single emission factor for the broad vehicle categories.

### Algorithm

The Tier 1 approach for calculating evaporative emissions uses the general equation:

 (1)

Where:

EVOC = the emissions of VOC (g/year),

Nj = the number of vehicles in category *j,*

EFVOC, j = the emission factor of VOC for vehicle category *j* (g/vehicle/day),

j = the vehicle category (passenger cars, light-duty vehicles and two-wheel vehicles, i.e. mopeds and motorcycles). No HDVs and busses are considered, as the share of gasoline fuelled vehicles in these categories is too low to be considered for evaporative emissions.

This equation is applied at the national level, using national statistics for the numbers of vehicles in each vehicle category within the country.

### Emission factors

The Tier 1 method applies an average emission factor to each vehicle category within a country. These emission factors vary markedly according to the 24-hour temperature range, being larger for higher temperatures. Consequently, four different emission factors are provided to cover the different 24-hour temperature ranges 20 to 35 °C, 10 to 25 °C, 0 to 15 °C and -10 to 5 °C.

Emission factors were developed by taking the Tier 2 emission factors and combining these with some typical fleet technology and vehicle size distributions. These were summed and averaged per vehicle category (and for given temperature ranges) to give the Tier 1 averages. Hence, Tier 1 emission factors are approximate values of the more detailed Tier 2 methodology (which, as will be shown, has been derived from the Tier 3 method).

Table 3‑1 Tier 1 evaporative emissions emission factors for gasoline fuelled road vehicles — when daily temperature range is around 20 to 35 °C

Table 3‑2 Tier 1 evaporative emissions emission factors for gasoline fuelled road vehicles — when daily temperature range is around 10 to 25 °C

Table 3‑3 Tier 1 evaporative emissions emission factors for gasoline fuelled road vehicles — when daily temperature range is around 0 to 15 °C

Table 3‑4 Tier 1 evaporative emissions emission factors for gasoline fuelled road vehicles — when daily temperature range is around -5 to 10 °C


### Activity data

The Tier 1 approach necessitates statistics on the numbers of vehicles in each vehicle category within a country. Such data are most probably available from national vehicle licensing bodies or international organisations (e.g. Eurostat). These data are also those required for the Tier 2 methodology in Chapter 1.A.3.b Exhaust emissions from road transport (encompassing NFR codes 1.A.3.b.i to 1.A.3.b.iv).

## Tier 2 method

###  Algorithm

The Tier 2 approach extends the Tier 1 approach by further sub-dividing the vehicle categories by engine size and the size of the canister fitted. The main equation for estimating the evaporative emissions using this methodology is:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Evoc = Ds × Nj × (HSj + ed,j + RLj) | (2) |

where:

Evoc = annual VOC emissions due to evaporative emissions (g),

Ds = the number of days for which the seasonal emission factor should be applied

(= total number of days in a particular year),

Nj = number of gasoline vehicles in category *j,*

HSj = average daily soak emissions (hot, warm and cold) of vehicle category *j* (g/day),

ed,j = average diurnal emissions of vehicle category *j* (g/day),

RLj = average daily running losses (hot, warm and cold) of vehicle category *j* (g/day);

and

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| HSj = x {c [p  es,hot,c + (1 – p) es,warm,c] + (1 – c) es,hot,fi} | (3) |
| RLj = x {c [p er,hot,c + (1 – p) er,warm,c] + (1 – c) er,hot,fi} | (4) |

where:

x = mean number of trips per vehicle per day, averaged over the year (trips/day),

c = fraction of gasoline powered vehicles equipped with carburettor and/or fuel return systems,

p = fraction of trips finished with hot engine, i.e. an engine that has reached its normal operating temperature and the catalyst its light-off temperature (dependent on the average monthly ambient temperature),

es,hot,c = mean hot-soak emission factor of gasoline powered vehicles with carburettor and/or fuel return systems (dependent on fuel volatility and average monthly ambient temperature) (g/parking),

es,warm,c = mean cold- and warm-soak emission factor of gasoline powered vehicles with carburettor and/or fuel return systems (dependent on fuel volatility and average monthly ambient temperature) (g/parking),

es,hot,fi = mean hot-soak emission factor of gasoline powered vehicles with fuel injection and returnless fuel systems (dependent on fuel volatility and average monthly ambient temperature) (g/parking),

er,hot,c = mean emission factor for hot running losses of gasoline powered vehicles with carburettor and/or fuel return systems (dependent on fuel volatility and average monthly ambient temperature) (g/trip),

er,warm,c = mean emission factor for cold and warm running losses of gasoline powered vehicles with carburettor and/or fuel return systems (dependent on fuel volatility and average monthly ambient temperature) (g/trip),

er,hot,fi = mean emission factor for hot running losses of gasoline powered vehicles with fuel injection and returnless fuel systems (dependent on fuel volatility and average monthly ambient temperature) (g/trip).

Where there are large seasonal (winter-summer) temperature variations it is advisable to use the above equation (2) in two parts applying summer and winter temperature emission factors (see Tables 3–5 and 3–6) separately to the relevant number of summer/winter days in the year.

The number of trips per day, if not known from statistical data, can be estimated by the expression:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (5) |

where *Mj* is the average annual mileage of gasoline vehicles of category *j*.

The fraction of trips finished with cold and warm engine, (1-*p*), is linked to the *β*-parameter , also used in the calculation of cold-start emissions in the chapter on exhaust emissions from road transport. Both (1-*p*) and *β* depend on, amongst other things, ambient temperature. In the absence of better data, the assumed relation between (1-*p*) and *β* is (1-*p*) ≈ *β*. Parameter *β* also depends on the average trip length *ltrip*. This indicates that, for the calculation of the cold start emissions and soak emissions, the average trip length is of great importance.

### Emission factors

In order to apply equation 2, Table 3–5 provides emission factors for gasoline passenger cars in three different size classes and Table 3–6 for two-wheel vehicles. For gasoline light-duty vehicles it is assumed that the emission factors are equivalent to those for comparatively sized passenger cars. Emission factors are given for typical temperature ranges in winter and summer, and for typical fuels which are produced with seasonally different vapour pressures.

Table 3‑5 Tier 2 evaporative emissions emission factors for passenger cars, summary of emission factors for typical summer and winter conditions

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | summer | winter | summer | winter | summer | winter |
| Τ. variation (°C) | 20−35 | 10−25 | 0−15 | -5−10 | 20−35 | 10−25 | 0−15 | -5−10 | 20−35 | 10−25 | 0−15 | -5−10 |
| Fuel DVPE (kPa) | 60 | 70 | 90 | 90 | 60 | 70 | 90 | 90 | 60 | 70 | 90 | 90 |
|  | Gasoline passenger cars< 1.4 l — uncontrolled | Gasoline passenger cars1.4–2.0 l — uncontrolled | Gasoline passenger cars> 2.0 l — uncontrolled |
| ed (g/day) | 20.7 | 12.4 | 9.1 | 6.4 | 24.8 | 14.9 | 11.0 | 7.7 | 31.1 | 18.6 | 13.7 | 9.6 |
| es,hot,fi (g/proced.) | 0.09 | 0.06 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 0.09 | 0.06 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 0.09 | 0.06 | 0.04 | 0.02 |
| es,warm,c (g/proced.) | 4.44 | 2.67 | 1.96 | 1.28 | 5.31 | 3.19 | 2.35 | 1.65 | 6.61 | 3.97 | 2.92 | 2.05 |
| es,hot,c (g/proced.) | 5.65 | 3.40 | 2.5 | 1.75 | 6.76 | 4.06 | 2.99 | 2.09 | 8.43 | 5.06 | 3.72 | 2.61 |
| er,hot,fi (g/trip) | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 |
| er,warm,c (g/trip) | 1.83 | 1.10 | 0.81 | 0.57 | 2.20 | 1.31 | 0.97 | 0.68 | 2.73 | 1.64 | 1.21 | 0.84 |
| er,hot,c (g/trip) | 5.42 | 3.25 | 2.39 | 1.67 | 6.5 | 3.9 | 2.87 | 2.01 | 8.11 | 4.87 | 3.58 | 2.51 |
|  | Gasoline passenger cars< 1.4 l — small canister | Gasoline passenger cars1.4– 2.0 l — small canister | Gasoline passenger cars> 2.0 l — small canister |
| ed (g/day) | 2.92 | 1.31 | 0.96 | 0.75 | 2.61 | 1.02 | 0.74 | 0.60 | 4.40 | 1.29 | 0.86 | 0.66 |
| es,hot,fi (g/proced.) | 0.09 | 0.06 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 0.09 | 0.06 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 0.09 | 0.06 | 0.04 | 0.03 |
| es,warm,c (g/proced.) | 0.92 | 0.36 | 0.24 | 0.15 | 1.01 | 0.38 | 0.23 | 0.14 | 1.36 | 0.45 | 0.28 | 0.16 |
| es,hot,c (g/proced.) | 1.27 | 0.46 | 0.30 | 0.17 | 1.33 | 0.48 | 0.30 | 0.17 | 1.88 | 0.60 | 0.36 | 0.20 |
| er,hot,fi (g/trip) | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 |
| er,warm,c (g/trip) | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 |
| er,hot,c (g/trip) | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 |
|  | Gasoline passenger cars< 1.4 l — medium canister | Gasoline passenger cars 1.4–2.0 l—– medium canister | Gasoline passenger cars> 2.0 l — medium canister |
| ed (g/day) | 2.25 | 1.17 | 0.89 | 0.73 | 1.83 | 0.89 | 0.68 | 0.58 | 2.67 | 1.06 | 0.77 | 0.62 |
| es,hot,fi (g/proced.) | 0.09 | 0.06 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 0.09 | 0.06 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 0.09 | 0.06 | 0.04 | 0.03 |
| es,warm,c (g/proced.) | 0.68 | 0.28 | 0.18 | 0.12 | 0.72 | 0.30 | 0.18 | 0.12 | 0.92 | 0.35 | 0.22 | 0.13 |
| es,hot,c (g/proced.) | 0.91 | 0.36 | 0.23 | 0.14 | 0.93 | 0.37 | 0.23 | 0.14 | 1.26 | 0.45 | 0.28 | 0.15 |
| er,hot,fi (g/trip) | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 |
| er,warm,c (g/trip) | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 |
| er,hot,c (g/trip) | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 |
|  | Gasoline passenger cars< 1.4 l — large canister | Gasoline passenger cars1.4–2.0 l — large canister | Gasoline passenger cars> 2.0 l — large canister |
| ed (g/day) | 1.71 | 1.04 | 0.83 | 0.70 | 1.24 | 0.76 | 0.63 | 0.55 | 1.55 | 0.85 | 0.68 | 0.59 |
| es,hot,fi (g/proced.) | 0.09 | 0.06 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 0.09 | 0.06 | 0.04 | 0.03 | 0.09 | 0.06 | 0.04 | 0.03 |
| es,warm,c (g/proced.) | 0.42 | 0.19 | 0.13 | 0.09 | 0.43 | 0.20 | 0.13 | 0.09 | 0.53 | 0.22 | 0.15 | 0.09 |
| es,hot,c (g/proced.) | 0.55 | 0.24 | 0.16 | 0.10 | 0.55 | 0.24 | 0.16 | 0.10 | 0.70 | 0.28 | 0.18 | 0.11 |
| er,hot,fi (g/trip) | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 |
| er,warm,c (g/trip) | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 |
| er,hot,c (g/trip) | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.03 | 0.02 | 0.01 | 0.01 |

For canister-equipped passenger cars, three different carbon canister sizes (small, medium, large) were considered, depending on vehicle engine size and technology as indicated in Table 3–12.

It has to be stressed that emission factors are provided for all possible vehicle configurations, although some of them are rather unlikely to be found in vehicles in the European market (e.g. passenger cars > 2.0 l with a large canister and a carburettor). However, such vehicle configurations might exist in vehicles circulating in other parts of the world.

Table 3‑6 Tier 2 evaporative emissions emission factors for L-category vehicles — summary of simplified emission factors for typical summer and winter conditions

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | summer | winter | Summer | winter | summer | winter |
| Τemp. variation (°C) | 20−35 | 10−25 | 0−15 | -5−10 | 20−35 | 10−25 | 0−15 | -5−10 | 20−35 | 10−25 | 0−15 | -5−10 |
| Fuel DVPE (kPa) | 60 | 70 | 90 | 90 | 60 | 70 | 90 | 90 | 60 | 70 | 90 | 90 |
|  | Mopeds<50 cm3 | Motorcycles 2-stroke>50 cm3 | Motorcycles 4-stroke<250 cm3 |
| ed (g/day) | 2.07 | 1.24 | 0.91 | 0.64 | 3.31 | 1.99 | 1.46 | 1.02 | 4.14 | 2.48 | 1.83 | 1.28 |
| es,hot,fi (g/proced.) | 0.23 | 0.14 | 0.10 | 0.07 | 0.37 | 0.22 | 0.16 | 0.11 | 0.46 | 0.27 | 0.20 | 0.14 |
| es,hot,c (g/proced.) | 0.36 | 0.22 | 0.16 | 0.11 | 0.58 | 0.35 | 0.26 | 0.18 | 0.72 | 0.43 | 0.32 | 0.22 |
| er,hot,fi (g/trip) | 0.18 | 0.11 | 0.08 | 0.06 | 0.29 | 0.17 | 0.13 | 0.09 | 0.36 | 0.22 | 0.16 | 0.11 |
| er,hot,c (g/trip) | 0.30 | 0.18 | 0.13 | 0.09 | 0.48 | 0.29 | 0.21 | 0.15 | 0.61 | 0.36 | 0.27 | 0.19 |
|  | Motorcycles 4-stroke250−750 cm3 | Motorcycles 4-stroke> 750 cm3 — uncontrolled | Motorcycles 4-stroke> 750 cm3 — small canister |
| ed (g/day) | 7.45 | 4.47 | 3.29 | 2.30 | 8.28 | 4.97 | 3.66 | 2.56 | 1.56 | 0.99 | 0.85 | 0.79 |
| es,hot,fi (g/proced.) | 0.82 | 0.50 | 0.36 | 0.26 | 0.92 | 0.55 | 0.40 | 0.28 | 0.37 | 0.20 | 0.16 | 0.11 |
| es,hot,c (g/proced.) | 1.30 | 0.78 | 0.57 | 0.40 | 1.45 | 0.87 | 0.64 | 0.45 | 0.53 | 0.23 | 0.17 | 0.12 |
| er,hot,fi (g/trip) | 0.65 | 0.39 | 0.29 | 0.20 | 0.72 | 0.43 | 0.32 | 0.22 | 0.39 | 0.22 | 0.17 | 0.12 |
| er,hot,c (g/trip) | 1.10 | 0.65 | 0.48 | 0.34 | 1.21 | 0.73 | 0.54 | 0.37 | 0.58 | 0.24 | 0.17 | 0.12 |

### Activity data

In order to apply equation 2 the data required are the number of gasoline vehicles in category *j* (data that are already available and used in Tier 2 of the chapter on Exhaust emissions from road transport), an estimate of the average daily temperature variation for the country (standard meteorological data), and the average number of trips per day. If the number of trips per day is not known from statistical data, it can be estimated using equation 5, as described in subsection 3.3.1 of the present chapter, or using the data in Table 3–7.

In addition to these data, the fraction of vehicles equipped with a carburettor and/or fuel return systems is required in order to apply equations (3) and (4). In Europe, the fraction of passenger cars and LDVs equipped with a carburettor is approximately 99 % for pre-Euro 1 vehicles (i.e. only 1 % equipped with fuel injection) and 0 % for post-Euro 1 vehicles. For motorcycles this fraction is 100 % for conventional and Euro 1 vehicles, 20 % for Euro 2 and 0 % for Euro 3. These figures could be used where there is a lack of detailed national statistical data.

Table 3‑7 Average daily usage of vehicles and average trip characteristics

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Number of trips/day | Driving duration (min) | Daily distance (km) | Average length (km) | Average duration (min) | Average speed (km/h) |
| Germany | 5.8 | 75 | 66.0 | 10.6 | 12.3 | 51.4 |
| France | 4.8 | 60 | 36.8 | 7.6 | 12.4 | 36.8 |
| UK | 4.7 | 58 | 41.0 | 8.4 | 12.1 | 41.5 |
| Average | 5.1 | 64 | 46.4 | 8.9 | 12.3 | 43.4 |

## Tier 3 method

The Tier 3 approach is an extension of the Tier 2 approach, and uses the same starting equation (equation 2). In this case, detailed emission factors can be used depending on the temperature profile and the driving and parking pattern over the day.

### Algorithms and methodology

The starting algorithm for the Tier 3 methodology is the same as that for the Tier 2 methodology:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Evoc = Ds × Nj × (HSj + ed,j + RLj) | (6) |

where:

Evoc = annual VOC emissions due to evaporative emissions (g),

Ds = the number of days for which each specific temperature-dependant emission factor should be applied (= total number of days in a particular year),

Nj = number of gasoline vehicles in category *j,*

HSj = average daily soak emissions (hot, warm and cold) of vehicle category *j* (g/day), as per equation 3,

ed,j = average diurnal emissions of vehicle category *j* (g/day),

RLj = average daily running losses (hot, warm and cold) of vehicle category *j* (g/day), as per equation 4.

The Tier 3 method is based on a number of input parameters, which include (i) fuel vapour pressure, (ii) vehicle tank size, (iii) fuel tank fill level, (iv) canister size, (v) diurnal temperature variation and (vi) cumulative mileage. Since a parking event may occur anytime during the day, a daily parking pattern is suggested, and a function is provided for estimating the temperature variation during the parking event. In order to estimate the canister status going into a parking event, the distance driven prior to each parking event is also taken into account in the calculations. Based on these, intermediate calculations for the estimation of fuel vapour generation and the canister load are performed for each parking event. Then, breakthrough emissions (for canister-equipped vehicles) or tank emissions (for carburetted vehicles) are calculated, as well as emissions due to fuel permeation and/or leakage. The total evaporative emissions for each evaporation process (diurnal emissions, hot-soak emissions and running losses) are determined by the sum of breakthrough or tank emissions and emissions due to fuel permeation and/or leakage.

The following sections describe the general processes and provide detailed equations and emissions factors.

#### Diurnal temperature variation

Diurnal emissions take place during vehicle parking as the ambient temperature varies during the day. In order to calculate diurnal emissions, both the temperature variation and the parking distribution during the day need to be known.

The diurnal temperature variation between the minimum and the maximum ambient temperatures is given by the following equation, and is in line with the diurnal temperature profile introduced in the type approval SHED test procedure (Directive 91/441/EEC):

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (7) |

where

t = hour of the day (h),

Tmin = minimum daily temperature (°C),

Tmax = maximum daily temperature (°C),

Trise = rise in the daily temperature, calculated as *Tmax* – *Tmin* (°C).

**Note**

The Tmin and Tmax temperatures correspond to the average minimum daily and maximum daily temperatures over a defined period of time, e.g. one month. The maximum temperatures are usually observed in the early afternoon and the minimum temperature during the first morning hours.

As an example, when the minimum temperatures over two consecutive days are 2°C and 5°C and the maximum ones are 15°C and 19°C, the Tmin and Tmax values are 3.5°C and 17°C respectively.

These two values define the average temperature difference during a day, which is a key determinant of diurnal evaporation emissions.

The minimum and maximum temperatures need to be calculated over a complete parking period. A parking period can be defined from the end-time of the parking period and the parking duration *tpark*. In order to estimate diurnal emissions in detail, the parking duration can be distributed into 24 time bands ranging from < 2 to > 46 h. Each combination of parking duration and parking end-time has a probability factor *fk*, as shown in Table 3–8. The sum of *fk* values in Table 3–8 equals 1.

Table 3‑8 Parking time distribution as a function of parking end-time

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Parking end-timet2 (hh:mm) | Parking duration tpark (h) |
| < 2 | 4 | 6 | … | >46 |
| 1:00 | f1 | f2 | f3 | … | f24 |
| 2:00 | f25 | f26 | f27 | … | f48 |
| 3:00 | f49 | f50 | f51 | … | f72 |
| … | … | … | … | … | … |
| 24:00 | f553 | f554 | f555 | … | f576 |

The start time of parking may be calculated as *t1* = *t2* – *tpark*.

#### Canister status

The amount of fuel vapour loaded to the canister at the start of a parking event depends on the distance travelled before the vehicle is parked. In order to estimate the canister status going into a parking event, the trip distance is distributed into 4 distance bands ranging from 5 km to > 15 km. Each trip distance has a probability factor *fn*, as shown in Table 3–9. The sum of *fn* values in Table 3–9 equals 1.

Table 3‑9 Trip distribution

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Distance (km) | 5 | 10 | 15 | > 15 |
| Frequency | 0.59 | 0.19 | 0.09 | 0.13 |

A purge volume over each trip is then calculated. To this aim, two standard purge rates are used to calculate the purge volume: a rate of 9.66 liters per kilometer for small cars, and a rate of 16.68 liters per kilometer for medium and large cars.

The Gasoline Working Capacity (GWC) of the canister is then calculated at the start and the end of each trip based on a typical purge curve. The canister status going into a parking event is thus estimated.

#### Fuel tank vapour generation

The vapour generation in the fuel tank (g) may be calculated as a function of fuel volatility, temperature variation, fuel tank size and fill level by the following equation (Reddy, 1989):

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (8) |

where:

h = fuel tank fill level (%),

vtank = fuel tank, fuel system and vapour control system volume (lt),

vp = fuel vapour pressure (DVPE) (kPa),

Tmin,k = minimum tank temperature during parking period *k* (°C),

Tmax,k = maximum tank temperature during parking period *k* (°C).

The equation above is valid only for the fraction of the parking period for which temperature increases. In the occasion of a continuous temperature decrease (e.g. after daily maximum value) there is no vapour generated in the fuel tank (*mtank*=0).

Note

The Fuel Quality Directive (2009/30/EC) sets out a maximum permitted vapour pressure of 60 kPa for summer grade petrol while allowing the possibility of derogations for Member States with low ambient temperatures. Member States are required under the Directive to report annually on the quality of petrol and diesel for the preceding calendar year. Annual reports summarising this information can be found under <https://www.eea.europa.eu/publications/fuel-quality-in-the-eu>

#### Canister breakthrough emissions

Based on experimental work on carbon canisters (Mellios and Samaras, 2007) it was found that the canister weight gain during loading with fuel vapour is best described by the following equations:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (9) |

and

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| a = –3.2786 – 0.01052 vp + 0.0229 T | (10) |
| b = 0.03247 + 0.00054 vp + 0.00056 T | (11) |
| deg = 1– 0.01 (Mcum,j / Meff) | (12) |

where:

mads = cumulative fuel vapour adsorbed on the carbon canister during loading (g),

mload = cumulative fuel vapour loaded to the carbon canister (g),

s = canister size (*s* = 1.25 for small, *s* = 1 for medium and *s* = 0.625 for large canister),

Mcum,j = cumulative mileage (km) of the vehicle category *j*,

Meff = mileage (km) at which the efficiency of the activated carbon decreases by 1%.

Two classes of durability of carbons are currently used in Europe:

* Low Degradation Carbons: these carbons lose about 4% to 9% of their capacity over the lifetime of the vehicle, due to repeated cycling with gasoline.
* High Degradation Carbons: these carbons lose about 12% to 20% of their capacity over the lifetime of the vehicle, due to repeated cycling with gasoline.

For non-ethanol containing fuels the efficiency of the activated carbon decreases by 1% every 12 000 km for small cars (i.e. about 13% decrease over vehicle lifetime), and by 1% every 40 000 km for medium and large cars (i.e. about 4% decrease over vehicle lifetime). For low ethanol blends the efficiency of the activated carbon decreases by 1% every 8 000 km for small cars and by 1% every 32 000 km for medium and large cars (i.e. 20% and 5% over vehicle lifetime respectively).

Equation (9) is valid for 0 ≤ mload ≤ msat, where msat is the cumulative fuel vapour that saturates the canister. For mload > msat, mads = mmax, where mmax is the saturated capacity of the canister.

The initial canister weight is determined from the purge rate and the distance travelled by a vehicle going into a parking event as:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (13) |

where Vpurge,fin (l) is the total purge volume needed to purge the canister from saturation to its status at the beginning of parking and it is calculated as:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Vpurge,fin = dtrip × rpurge + 30 | (14) |

where:

dtrip = the distance travelled prior to a parking event (km)

rpurge = canister purge rate during driving (l/km) (rpurge = 9.66 for small, rpurge = 16.68 for medium and large canister).

The initial amount of vapour loaded on the canister *mload,1* is calculated using equations 9 to 12 for the vapour pressure and the initial temperature of the fuel in the tank, and canister degradation. This vapour load corresponds to the amount of vapour needed to increase the canister weight from dry to its initial weight at the beginning of the parking period. The amount of fuel vapour generated over the parking period is calculated by equation 8, and it is then added to *mload,1* to give the final vapour load *mload,2*. The canister breakthrough emissions (g) are then calculated as:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (15) |

#### Permeation emissions

For passenger cars and light commercial vehicles standard permeation rates are used for fluorinated mono-layer (0.6 g/day) and for multi-layer (0.2 g/day) fuel tanks containing non-ethanol fuels. For ethanol containing fuels (E5 – E10), 0.3 g/day additional permeation emissions from the fuel and vapour control system are assumed.

For mopeds and all-terrain vehicles (ATVs) up to Euro 4 a permeation rate of 0.01 g/h/l (grams per hour per litre of fuel tank) is assumed. For an average fuel tank volume of 7.5 litres for mopeds and 22 litres for ATVs the resulting permeation rates are 1.8 and 5.28 g/day respectively. For Euro 5 a reduced permeation rate of 0.0029 g/h/l is assumed, resulting in permeation rates of 0.52 and 1.53 g/day for mopeds and ATVs respectively. There is no distinction for ethanol and non-ethanol containing fuels.

The following table summarises the permeation rates mperm (in g/h) for the different vehicle categories and combinations of fuel tank structure and fuel type.

Table 3‑10 Permeation rates (g/h)

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Fuel tank type | Non-ethanol-containing | Ethanol-containing |
| Passenger cars, LCVs, motorcycles | Mono-layer | 0.0250 | 0.0375 |
| Passenger cars, LCVs, motorcycles | Multi-layer | 0.0083 | 0.0205 |
| Mopeds up to Euro 4 | All | 0.0750 |
| ATVs up to Euro 4 | All | 0.2200 |
| Mopeds Euro 5 | All | 0.0217 |
| ATVs Euro 5 | All | 0.0638 |

The fraction of new light duty vehicles (passenger cars and LCVs) equipped with fluorinated tanks is decreasing over the years. It is estimated to be about 35% in 2012 and is expected to be lower than 1% after 2020. L-category vehicles are mostly equipped with mono-layer fuel tanks.

The above permeation emission rates may also include emissions due to small leakages of fuel vapour and/or liquid fuel.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  |  |

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  |  |

Hence, non-canister emissions (g/parking) (also referred to as resting losses) over a parking period are calculated as:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| mrest = mperm tpark | (16) |

### Emission factors

#### Gasoline passenger cars

##### Diurnal emissions

For any parking period *k* the vapour generated in the tank — and the associated breakthrough emissions — are calculated using equations 8–15 as described above. The permeation and leakage emissions are calculated by equation 18. The diurnal emissions for each parking period *k* (in g/parking) are thus calculated as:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (17) |

Taking into account all parking periods, the average diurnal emissions (in g/day) are calculated as:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (18) |

For gasoline vehicles without carbon canister all vapour generated in the fuel tank is released in the atmosphere. Thus the mean emission factor for uncontrolled vehicles (in g/day) is given by the following equation:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (19) |

##### Hot-soak emissions

For gasoline vehicles with fuel injection and returnless fuel systems, the fuel temperature in the tank is not affected by engine operation, and thus no fuel vapour is generated in the tank when a hot engine is turned off. Hot-soak emissions are mainly due to fuel permeation and/or leakage. The mean hot-soak emission factor for gasoline vehicles (both canister-equipped and uncontrolled) with fuel injection and returnless fuel systems (in g/parking) is given by the following equation:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (20) |

For vehicles equipped with carburettor and/or fuel return systems, engine operation results in significant temperature increase in the fuel tank and/or the carburettor (Morgan et al., 1993). The additional fuel vapour that is generated loads the carbon canister causing breakthrough emissions which are calculated using equations 8–13 as described above. For the warm-soak emissions a 4.5 °C increase in the fuel temperature in the tank is used, while a 6 °C increase is used for hot-soak emissions. The mean warm and hot-soak emission factors for canister-equipped gasoline vehicles with carburettor and/or fuel return systems (in g/parking) are thus given by the following equations:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (21) |

For uncontrolled vehicles the above equations are rewritten as follows:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (22) |

##### Running losses

As mentioned above, for vehicles with fuel injection and a returnless fuel system the fuel temperature in the tank is not affected by engine operation, and thus the running losses are attributed to fuel permeation and/or leakage. The mean running losses emission factor for gasoline vehicles (both canister-equipped and uncontrolled) with returnless fuel systems (in g/trip) is calculated as:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (23) |

where *ttrip* is the mean driving duration per trip, average over the year (h/trip).

For vehicles equipped with a carburettor and/or fuel return system, the additional fuel vapour that is generated in the fuel tank loads the carbon canister. However, the canister is being purged with air at certain time intervals and thus no significant breakthrough emissions are observed (except for long periods of idling when the purge valve, controlling the amount of air that is used for purging, remains shut). For canister-equipped vehicles with a carburettor and/or fuel return system, equation 22 can be used for calculating hot and warm running losses, i.e.:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (24) |

For uncontrolled vehicles the fuel vapour generated in the tank due to temperature increase also contributes to the running losses. For the warm running losses a 1 °C increase in the fuel temperature in the tank is used, while a 5 °C increase is used for hot running losses. The mean warm and hot running losses factors for uncontrolled gasoline vehicles with fuel return systems (in g/trip) are thus given by the following equation:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (25) |

#### Light commercial vehicles

The same emission factors as for passenger cars may be applied.

#### L-category vehicles

Diurnal emissions for canister-equipped and uncontrolled L-category vehicles are calculated by equations 17 and 18, respectively.

The mean warm and hot-soak emission factors for controlled motorcycles equipped with fuel injection and those equipped with carburettor (in g/parking) are given by the following equations:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (26) |

For uncontrolled vehicles equipped with fuel injection, and motorcycles equipped with carburettor, the mean warm and hot-soak emission factors (in g/parking) are:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (27) |

The mean warm and hot running losses factors for controlled motorcycles equipped with fuel injection and those equipped with carburettor (in g/trip) are given by the following equations:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (28) |

For uncontrolled vehicles equipped with fuel injection and those equipped with carburettor, the mean warm and hot running losses factors (in g/trip) are:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
|  | (29) |

#### Summary

The basic emission factors, which are necessary to apply the methodology, are listed in Table 3–11.

Table 3‑11 Summary of emission factors for estimating evaporative emissions of passenger cars, light commercial vehicles and L-category vehicles

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Emission factor | Uncontrolled vehicle | Canister-equipped vehicle |
| Passenger cars and light-duty vehicles |
| ed (g/day) |  |  |
| es,hot,fi(g/parking) |  |  |
| es,warm,c(g/parking) |  |  |
| es,hot,c(g/parking) |  |  |
| er,hot,fi(g/trip) |  |  |
| er,warm,c(g/trip) |  |  |
| er,hot,c(g/trip) |  |  |
| L-category vehicles |
| ed (g/day) |  |  |
| es,hot,fi(g/parking) |  |  |
| es,hot,c(g/parking) |  |  |
| er,hot,fi(g/trip) |  |  |
| er,hot,c(g/trip) |  |  |

### Activity data

In addition to the emission factors, the proposed methodology requires statistical data which is unlikely to be available in many countries (e.g*.* the parameters *p*, *c*, *x*, *tpark*, *ttrip* and *ltrip*). This data can be obtained from detailed national statistics or various experimental studies (e.g. André et al., 1994). Examples for some countries are shown in Tables 3–7 and 3–8 (in subsection 3.3.3 of the present chapter). Tables 3–10 and 3–11 suggest input data for the parking time distribution and vehicle design characteristics respectively. An estimation of the fraction of vehicles equipped with a carburettor and/or fuel return systems is provided in subsection 3.3.3 of the present chapter.

Table 3‑12 Parking time distribution

Table 3‑13 Suggested (typical) fuel-tank and canister sizes for various vehicle categories

The parking time distribution table (Table 3‑12) has been based on real-world data from GPS recordings from a sample fleet of about 20 000 vehicles over a period of one month. The dataset includes parking events extending over several days, which have a significant impact on diurnal emissions.

Other sources of information on parking statistics include the Artemis and the Auto-Oil I projects.

Parking duration data were collected in the framework of the Artemis project (Andrè and Joumard, 2005) and are shown in Table 3‑14. Parking duration is shown in italic characters while percentage values give the frequency. This can be considered typical for an average European condition, unless better data are available.

Table 3‑14 Parking duration frequency (italic characters: parking duration, percentage values: frequency)

|  |
| --- |
| Parking duration tpark (h) |
| *<0.5* | *1* | *1.5* | *2* | *2.5* | *3* | *3.5* | *4* | *4.5* | *5* | *5.5* | *6* |
| 42 % | 14 % | 2.0 % | 4.9 % | 5.9 % | 2.0 % | 2.9 % | 1.5 % | 1.5 % | 1.0 % | 1.0 % | 0.5 % |
| *6.5* | *7* | *7.5* | *8* | *8.5* | *9* | *9.5* | *10* | *10.5* | *11* | *11.5* | *>12* |
| 1.0 % | 0.5 % | 0.5 % | 0.5 % | 0.5 % | 0.5 % | 0.5 % | 0.5 % | 0.5 % | 0.5 % | 0.5 % | 13 % |

In order to assess the frequency of parking end-time, one can consider that this coincides with the traffic intensity. Table 3‑15 provides an averaged traffic profile from seven European cities (Athens, Cologne, London, Lyon, Madrid, Milan, and The Hague) derived from a study conducted in the framework of the Auto-Oil I project. The italic characters correspond to hour of day and percentage values show the fraction of total daily traffic that occurs in the particular hour of day. Of course, there may be a difference between traffic intensity and end-of-parking hour, but one can consider that averaging effects reduce this difference. By combining (multiplying) Table 3‑14 with Table 3‑15 one can get similar values to those of Table 3‑11.

Table 3‑15 Parking-end time as a function of time of day (italic characters: time of day, percentage values: frequency)

|  |
| --- |
| Parking end-time t2 (h) |
| *0* | *1* | *2* | *3* | *4* | *5* | *6* | *7* | *8* | *9* | *10* | *11* |
| 2.2 % | 1.2 % | 0.7 % | 0.4 % | 0.7 % | 2.2 % | 4.6 % | 5.5 % | 5.2 % | 5.2 % | 5.3 % | 5.5 % |
| *12* | *13* | *14* | *15* | *16* | *17* | *18* | *19* | *20* | *21* | *22* | *23* |
| 4.6 % | 5.2 % | 5.6 % | 5.8 % | 6.4 % | 6.5 % | 6.3 % | 5.1 % | 4.4 % | 4.2 % | 3.9 % | 3.1 % |

## Species profile for NMVOC from evaporative emissions

Based on the composition (speciation) of evaporative emissions analysed by means of gas chromatography, evaporative emissions are reported as CH2.1. This corresponds to the mass content of carbon and hydrogen in the fuel vapour, and is specified in test protocols.

Almost all petrol sold in the EU in 2016 contains oxygenates. The distribution of NMVOCs by compound is given in Table3‑16 for two different types of oxygenated fuels, gasoline blended with ethanol (typically E5 or E10) or fuel ethers (MTBE or ETBE). The proposed fractions have been obtained from different studies, including by Harley et al., (1999), Kirchstetter et al. (1999) and a European test programme on evaporative emissions from canister-equipped gasoline passenger cars (JRC, 2007). It should be noted that the speciation of evaporative emissions depends on the fuel composition. Light fuel components tend to be more volatile than heavy ones. Hence, the profile of species evaporating may be shifted to lighter components.

Table 3‑16 Composition of NMVOC in evaporative emissions


# Data quality

## Completeness

See the discussion in the chapter on Exhaust emissions from road transport.

## Avoiding double counting with other sectors

See the discussion in the chapter on Exhaust emissions from road transport.

## Verification

See the discussion in the chapter on Exhaust emissions from road transport.

## Developing a consistent time series and recalculation

No specific issues

## Uncertainty assessment

Using the indicators introduced in the chapter on road transport, Table 4‑1 provides qualitative estimates of the precision which can be allocated to the calculation of evaporative emissions.

Table 4‑1 Summary of precision indicators of the evaporative emission estimates

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Vehicle category** | **NMVOC** |
| Passenger cars, conventional | B |
| Passenger cars, canister-equipped | A |
| Light-duty vehicles, conventional | D |
| Light-duty vehicles, canister-equipped | D |
| L-category vehicles, conventional | B |
| L-category vehicles, canister-equipped | B |

Legend:

A: statistically significant emission factors based on sufficiently large set of measured and evaluated data;

B: emission factors non statistically significant based on a small set of measured re-evaluated data;

C: emission factors estimated on the basis of available literature;

D: emission factors estimated applying similarity considerations and/or extrapolation. See text for later than Euro 1 vehicles.

## Inventory quality assurance/quality control (QA/QC)

No specific issues.

## Gridding

Evidently the principles of the approaches outlined for exhaust emission spatial allocation apply equally to evaporative emissions. In particular, as regards the top down approach, the following hints may be useful:

* diurnal emissions: as diurnal emissions occur at any time, their spatial allocation to urban/rural/highway conditions depends on the time spent by the vehicles on the different road classes. Therefore, for those vehicles that are used by city inhabitants, one can assume that 11/12 of their diurnal emissions occur in urban areas, the rest being split between rural and highway driving proportionally to the ratio of (rural mileage x highway speed) / (highway mileage x rural speed);
* soak emissions: the majority of these emissions occur in the area of residence of the car owner, as they are associated with short trips;
* running losses: running losses are proportional to the mileage driven by the vehicles. Therefore, their allocation to urban areas, rural areas and highways has to follow the mileage split assumed for the calculation of exhaust emissions.

## Reporting and documentation

No specific issues.

## Additional comments

The evaporation emissions calculation scheme presented above is fully integrated into COPERT 4 (Computer Programme to Calculate Emissions from Road Traffic), which substantially facilitates the practical application of the methodology (see Ntziachristos et al. 2000).

## Weakest aspects/priority areas for improvement in current methodology

The proposed methodology has been based on results from a range of canister-equipped gasoline vehicles representative of current Euro 3 and Euro 4 technology, and typical summer and winter fuels and temperatures. Although large numbers of hot-soak and diurnal tests have been carried out, running losses were not measured and therefore the proposed emission factors need further improvement. Other areas requiring additional consideration include:

* evaporative emission factors for light-duty vehicles; and
* evaporative emission factors for fuels containing bio components (e.g*.* ethanol).

# Glossary and abbreviations

## List of abbreviations

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| ATV | All Terrain Vehicles |
| DVPE | Dry Vapour Pressure Equivalent at a temperature of 37.8 °C |
| NMVOC | Non-Methane Volatile Organic Compounds |
| VOC | Volatile Organic Compounds |

## List of symbols

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| c | fraction of gasoline powered vehicles equipped with carburettor and/or fuel return systems |
| dtrip | distance travelled prior to a parking event (km) |
| deg | carbon canister degradation |
| ed | average diurnal emissions of vehicle category j (g/day) |
| er,hot,c | mean emission factor for hot running losses of gasoline powered vehicles with carburettor and/or fuel return systems (g/trip) |
| er,hot,fi | mean emission factor for hot running losses of gasoline powered vehicles with fuel injection and returnless fuel systems (g/trip) |
| er,warm,c | mean emission factor for cold and warm running losses of gasoline powered vehicles with carburettor and/or fuel return systems (g/trip) |
| es,hot,c | mean hot-soak emission factor of gasoline powered vehicles with carburettor and/or fuel return systems (g/parking) |
| es,hot,fi | mean hot-soak emission factor of gasoline powered vehicles with fuel injection and returnless fuel systems (g/parking) |
| es,warm,c | mean cold- and warm-soak emission factor of gasoline powered vehicles with carburettor and/or fuel return systems (g/parking) |
| Eeva,voc,j | VOC emissions due to evaporative emissions caused by vehicle category j (g) |
| fk | probability factor for combination of parking duration and ending hour of parking |
| h | fuel tank fill level (%) |
| HSj | average daily hot- and warm-soak emissions of vehicle category j (g/day) |
| ltrip | average trip length (km) |
| mads | cumulative fuel vapour adsorbed on the carbon canister during loading (g) |
| mload | cumulative fuel vapour loaded to the carbon canister (g) |
| mtank | fuel vapour generation (g) |
| mbreak | canister breakthrough emissions (g) |
|  |  |
| mperm | emissions due to fuel permeation (g) |
| mrest | resting losses (emissions due to permeation and small leakages) (g) |
| Mj | total annual mileage of gasoline vehicles of category j (km) |
| Mcum,j | total cumulative mileage of gasoline vehicles of category j (km) |
| Meff | mileage at which the efficiency of the activated carbon decreases by 1% (km) |
| Nj | number of gasoline vehicles of category j |
| p | fraction of trips finished with hot engine, i.e. an engine that has reached its normal operating temperature and the catalyst its light-off temperature |
| rpurge | canister purge rate during driving (l/km) |
| RLj | average daily hot and warm running losses of vehicle category j (g/day) |
| s | canister size (s=2 for small, s=1 for medium and s=0.5 for large canister) |
| t | hour of the day (h) |
| t1 | hour of the day at the beginning of a parking period (h) |
| t2 | hour of the day at the end of a parking period (h) |
| tpark | mean parking duration (h) |
| ttrip | mean driving duration per trip, average over the year (h/trip) |
| T | ambient temperature (°C) |
| T1,k | initial tank temperature during parking period k (°C) |
| T2,k | final tank temperature during parking period k (°C) |
| Tmin | minimum daily temperature (°C) |
| Tmax | maximum daily temperature (°C) |
| Tmin,k | minimum tank temperature during parking period k (°C) |
| Tmax,k | maximum tank temperature during parking period k (°C) |
| Trise | rise in the daily temperature, calculated as Tmax – Tmin (°C) |
| vtank | fuel tank, fuel system and vapour control system volume (lt) |
| vp | fuel vapour pressure (DVPE) (kPa) |
| Vpurge,fin | total volume of purge air needed to purge the canister from saturation to its status at the beginning of a parking event |
| x | mean number of trips per vehicle per day, average over the year (trips/day) |

# References and supplementary documents

## References

|  |
| --- |
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# Point of enquiry

Enquiries concerning this chapter should be directed to the relevant leader(s) of the Task Force on Emission Inventories and Projection’s expert panel on Transport. Please refer to the expert panel’s website (https://tfeip-secretariat.org/expert-panels/expert-panels-transport/) for the contact details of the current expert panel leaders.

1. () In the context of evaporation, emissions are sometimes referred to as ‘losses’. [↑](#footnote-ref-1)
2. () NMVOCs = non-methane volatile organic compounds. [↑](#footnote-ref-2)
3. () Based on the methodology presented in this chapter and the activity data and exhaust emissions calculated using TREMOVE v2.5. [↑](#footnote-ref-3)