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### See also:

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# Support vector machine for a diesel engine performance and NO<sub>x</sub> emission control-oriented model

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**Abstract:** A control oriented diesel engine NO<sub>x</sub> emission and Break Mean Effective Pressure (BMEP) model is developed using Support Vector Machine (SVM). Steady state experimental data from a medium duty diesel engine is used to develop BMEP and NO<sub>x</sub> emission model using Support Vector Machine (SVM). The engine speed, the amount of injected fuel and the injection rail pressure are used as input variables to predict the steady state engine NO<sub>x</sub> emission and BMEP. The steady state model results were then implemented in the control oriented model. A fast response electrochemical NO<sub>x</sub> sensor is used to experimentally study the engine transient NO<sub>x</sub> emission and to verify the transient response of the control oriented model. The results show that the SVM algorithm is capable of accurately learning the engine BMEP and NO<sub>x</sub> which improves the accuracy of the control oriented model compared to a conventional regression algorithm (trust-region) used in the literature. The control oriented model results closely match the experiments in both transient and steady state conditions with a root mean square error of 0.26 (bar) and 10 (ppm) for BMEP and NO<sub>x</sub> respectively.

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**Keywords:** Control Oriented Mode; Machine Learning; Support Vector Machine (SVM); Diesel engine; Emissions;

## 1 Introduction

Compression ignition (CI) engines are widely used in transportation (Dhar and Agarwal, 2014; Yadav et al., 2016), power generation (Dasappa and Sridhar, 2013), combined heat and power generation (CHP) (Bari and Hossain, 2013), agriculture (Pali et al., 2015) and many other applications due to their high thermal efficiency (Tan et al., 2017) and their long lifespan (Pronk et al., 2009). However, reducing the engine emissions to meet the stringent emission regulations has always been an ongoing challenge for the automotive industry (Geng et al., 2016; Praveena and Martin, 2017; Aliramezani et al., 2018).

Machine learning is being rapidly applied to a wide range of engineering and information technology problems (Bishop, 2006; Witten et al., 2016). However, employing machine learning approaches for modeling internal combustion engines has lagged behind other applications due to the existing physics-based engine and aftertreatment models (Asprion et al., 2013). The increasing engine complexity means that developing a flexible and accurate physics-based model that includes all the advanced emerging technologies has become complex requiring large amounts of effort (Thangaraja and Kannan, 2016). Trained data-driven models present a black-box approach (Yu and Li, 2001) for matching sensor outputs with inputs in a non-linear manner with no concern of physical understanding of the system components (Yusri et al., 2018; Silitonga et al., 2018). Machine learning approaches are gaining attention as an alternative for accurately predicting engine performance and emissions. This can be done regardless of the input parameters

variation, if sufficient training data is available (Wong et al., 2018, 2015).

Support Vector Machine (SVM) is a popular machine learning approach that is able to generate high-precision decision boundaries based on a small subset of training data points and is capable of modelling complex and non-linear relations (Xu et al., 2013; Tanveer, 2015). The use of machine learning-based diesel emission models has been mostly limited to steady state prediction of engine emissions. Developing a simple but accurate transient emission model using an advanced machine learning technique, provides a more powerful tool for engine control, emission reduction, and on-board diagnostics. The other advantage of the proposed SVM-based model is its high convergence capability compared to the other state-of-the-art approaches such as artificial neural network (ANN), or Gaussian Processes (GP)s.

A steady state diesel engine Break Mean Effective Pressure (BMEP) and NO<sub>x</sub> emission model is developed using SVM based on the experimental data from a medium duty diesel engine. The engine speed, the amount of injected fuel and the injection rail pressure are used to model the steady state engine NO<sub>x</sub> and BMEP. A fast response NO<sub>x</sub> sensor is then used to carry out the transient experiments to develop and parameterize a control oriented NO<sub>x</sub> and BMEP model.

## 2 Experimental Setup

A fast response electrochemical NO<sub>x</sub> sensor (Aliramezani et al., 2019b) was mounted in the exhaust pipe of a four

cylinder medium duty Tier III diesel engine (Cummins QSB4.5 160 - Tier 3/Stage IIIA) to measure the engine transient NO<sub>x</sub> emission. The Engine characteristics are listed in Table 1.

Table 1: Diesel engine characteristics (cum, 2019)

Engine type	In-Line, 4-Cylinder
Displacement	4.5 L
Peak BMEP	17.4 bar (@ 1500 rpm)
Aspiration	Turbocharged and Charge Air Cooled
Certification Level	Tier 3 / Stage IIIA

To read the engine main variables and operating parameters, the Cummins Engine Control Unit (ECU) is connected to a computer using J1939 connector and a hardware interface (INLINE 6). The ECU controls the Diesel engine by reading all the stock sensors mounted on the production Cummins engine including the intake manifold temperature and pressure, injection rail pressure, coolant temperature, and controlling all of the engine main actuators and operating parameters, including the injection timing(s), turbocharge boost pressure and injection amount.

The engine is tested between engine speeds of 1000 to 2500 rpm, injected fuel of 15.8 to 116.3 mg/stroke, and rail pressure between 10,000 to 20,000 bar.

### 3 Support Vector Machine Regression (SVM)

#### 3.1 Model Description

Support Vector Machine (SVM) is a supervised machine learning approach used for classification and regression by producing a set of hyperplanes in an infinite-dimensional space (Drucker et al., 1997). SVM application for regression and function approximation was originally introduced by (Drucker et al., 1997). Given a set of labeled data as  $\{\mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{z}_i\}$ , where  $\mathbf{u}_i$  is the input and  $\mathbf{z}_i$  is the target output, the optimal hyperplane,  $\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{u}_i)$ , can be defined as:

$$\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{u}_i) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{u}_i + \mathbf{b} \quad (1)$$

where, the matrix  $\mathbf{w}$  and vector  $\mathbf{b}$  are found by solving the SVM algorithm. For the rest of this paper,  $\mathbf{y}_i$  will be used instead of  $\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{u}_i)$ . The data set and the regression function are schematically shown in Fig. 1. As illustrated in Fig. 1,  $\mathbf{y}_i$  is

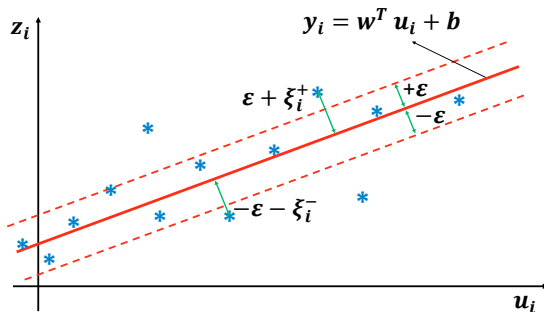


Fig. 1. SVM regression and support vectors

the predicted target,  $\epsilon$  represents the threshold range for all the predictions, and  $\zeta$  is the Slack variable (Smola and Schölkopf, 2004) added to overcome the infeasibility of the problem. In

other words, the main objective is to find a prediction model for which the error  $(\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{z}_i)$  is within  $(-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ . The slack variables are considered as penalty variables to overcome the case of an infeasible optimization problem to force the error within  $(-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ . Thus, the problem can be written as the following convex optimization problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Minimize: } & \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 \\ \text{Subject to: } & \mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{u}_i - \mathbf{b} \leq \epsilon \\ & \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{u}_i + \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{z}_i \leq -\epsilon \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

In other words, the  $\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{u})$  exists such that there are some  $\epsilon$  for which the prediction based on data set  $(\mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{z}_i)$  is within  $\epsilon$  distance from the target training points. The  $\epsilon$ -insensitive linear loss function is defined as (Vapnik, 2013):

$$L_\epsilon(\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{y}_i) = \begin{cases} 0 & |\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{y}_i| \leq \epsilon \\ |\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{y}_i| - \epsilon & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

to consider the fact that if the training error is less than  $\epsilon$ , the loss function would be equal to zero. Thus, the problem of finding  $\mathbf{w}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  is changed to the problem of minimizing the empirical risk function (Smola and Schölkopf, 2004):

$$R_{emp}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{b}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L_\epsilon(\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{y}_i) \quad (4)$$

and  $\frac{1}{2} \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$  (the inner product) simultaneously.

The final objective is to keep the training error  $(\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{y}_i)$  within  $(-\epsilon, \epsilon)$ :

$$-\epsilon \leq \mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{y}_i \leq \epsilon \quad (5)$$

The slack variables  $\zeta_i^+$  and  $\zeta_i^-$  are added to the optimization problem to overcome infeasible constraints for the other training points (Smola and Schölkopf, 2004):

$$-\epsilon - \zeta_i^- \leq \mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{y}_i \leq \epsilon + \zeta_i^+ \quad (6)$$

It can be proven that  $\zeta_i^- + \zeta_i^+$  is equal to the loss function  $(L_\epsilon(\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{y}_i))$  defined in Eqn. (3). Also, at least one of the slack variables must have zero value ( $\zeta_i^- \zeta_i^+ = 0$ ). The loss function is depicted schematically in Fig. 2. The empirical risk function

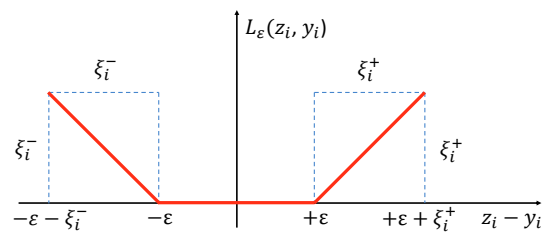


Fig. 2.  $\epsilon$ -sensitive Loss function with slack variable based on the (Vapnik, 2013)

can be rewritten using on the slack variables as:

$$R_{emp}(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{b}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\zeta_i^- + \zeta_i^+) \quad (7)$$

Then, the optimization problem can be changed to minimize the empirical risk function defined in Eq. (7) and  $\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$  simultaneously. Using Equations (7) and (6), the optimization problem can be summarized as follow:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Minimize: } & \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^N (\zeta_i^- + \zeta_i^+) \\ \text{Subject to: } & -\mathbf{z}_i + \mathbf{y}_i + \varepsilon + \zeta_i^+ \geq 0 \\ & \mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{y}_i + \varepsilon + \zeta_i^- \geq 0 \\ & \zeta_i^- \geq 0, \quad \zeta_i^+ \geq 0 \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

The primary objective function is now defined based on Eq. (8) as (Smola and Schölkopf, 2004):

$$\begin{aligned} L = & \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^N (\zeta_i^- + \zeta_i^+) \\ & - \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i^+ (-\mathbf{z}_i + \mathbf{y}_i + \varepsilon + \zeta_i^+) - \sum_{i=1}^N \mu_i^+ \zeta_i^+ \\ & - \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i^- (\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{y}_i + \varepsilon + \zeta_i^-) - \sum_{i=1}^N \mu_i^- \zeta_i^- \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

where  $L$  is the Lagrangian function and  $\alpha_i^+$ ,  $\alpha_i^-$ ,  $\mu_i^+$ , and  $\mu_i^-$  are Lagrangian Multipliers all of which are greater than or equal to zero. The objective is to minimize Eq. (9) by adjusting the optimization variables  $\mathbf{w}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$ ,  $\zeta_i^+$ , and  $\zeta_i^-$ . Differentiating the Lagrangian with respect to these variables (Smola and Schölkopf, 2004) and setting to zero:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = 0 \rightarrow \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^N (\alpha_i^+ - \alpha_i^-) \mathbf{u}_i \quad (10a)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{b}} = 0 \rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^N (\alpha_i^+ - \alpha_i^-) = 0 \quad (10b)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \zeta_i^+} = 0 \rightarrow \alpha_i^+ + \mu_i^+ = C \quad (10c)$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial \zeta_i^-} = 0 \rightarrow \alpha_i^- + \mu_i^- = C \quad (10d)$$

where Eq. (10a) is the support vector expansion, Eq. (10b) contains the bias constraints while Eq. (10c), and Eq. (10d) include the box constraints, and  $C$  is the regularization parameter used to trade-off between minimizing the training error and maximizing the prediction smoothness. Examining Eq. (10a),  $\mathbf{w}$  is exclusively dependant on the linear combination of training inputs  $\mathbf{u}_i$ . Combining Eqs. (10a)-(10d) with Eq. (9), the dual optimization problem is obtained as the following standard Quadratic programming form (QP)(Bellman et al., 1954):

$$\text{Minimize: } \frac{1}{2} \alpha^T \mathcal{H} \alpha + \mathbf{f}^T \alpha \quad (11)$$

$$\text{Subject to: } A_{eq} \alpha = B_{eq}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= \begin{bmatrix} \alpha^+ \\ \alpha^- \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathcal{H} = \begin{bmatrix} H & -H \\ -H & H \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{f} = \begin{bmatrix} -\mathbf{z}_i + \varepsilon \\ \mathbf{z}_i + \varepsilon \end{bmatrix}, \\ H &= [\mathbf{u}_i^T \mathbf{u}_j], \quad A_{eq} = [1 \dots 1 \quad -1 \dots -1], \quad B_{eq} = [0] \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

$\mathbf{w}$  can be calculated by finding  $\alpha$  (Solving Eq. (12)) and substituting it into Eq. (10a).

Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) (Karush, 1939; Kuhn and Tucker, 1951) approach is used to find  $\mathbf{b}$  which requires all the following equations to be fulfilled at the optimum point:

$$\alpha_i^+ (-\mathbf{z}_i + \mathbf{y}_i + \varepsilon + \zeta_i^+) = 0 \quad (13a)$$

$$\alpha_i^- (\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{y}_i + \varepsilon + \zeta_i^-) = 0 \quad (13b)$$

$$\mu_i^+ \zeta_i^+ = (C - \alpha_i^+) \zeta_i^+ \quad (13c)$$

$$\mu_i^- \zeta_i^- = (C - \alpha_i^-) \zeta_i^- \quad (13d)$$

Considering KKT conditions listed in Eq. (13), only the following five possible cases can take place:

$$\alpha_i^+ = \alpha_i^- = 0 \quad (14a)$$

$$0 < \alpha_i^+ < C, \quad \alpha_i^- = 0 \quad (14b)$$

$$0 < \alpha_i^- < C, \quad \alpha_i^+ = 0 \quad (14c)$$

$$\alpha_i^+ = C, \quad \alpha_i^- = 0 \quad (14d)$$

$$\alpha_i^- = C, \quad \alpha_i^+ = 0 \quad (14e)$$

For point  $i$  to lie on the support vectors,  $\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{y}_i$  must be exactly equals to  $\varepsilon$  or  $-\varepsilon$ . Therefore, the only acceptable conditions are Eqs. (14b) and (14c). Then, the support vectors set,  $S$ , can be defined as:

$$S = \{ i \mid 0 < \alpha_i^+ + \alpha_i^- < C \} \quad (15)$$

Over the support vectors set, we have:

$$\mathbf{z}_i = \mathbf{y}_i + \text{sign}(\alpha_i^+ - \alpha_i^-) \varepsilon \quad i \in S \quad (16)$$

where  $\mathbf{b}$  can be found by solving Eq. (16) as:

$$\mathbf{b} = \frac{1}{|S|} \sum_{i \in S} (\mathbf{z}_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{u}_i - \text{sign}(\alpha_i^+ - \alpha_i^-) \varepsilon) \quad (17)$$

The block diagram of the SVM regression is shown in Fig. 3.

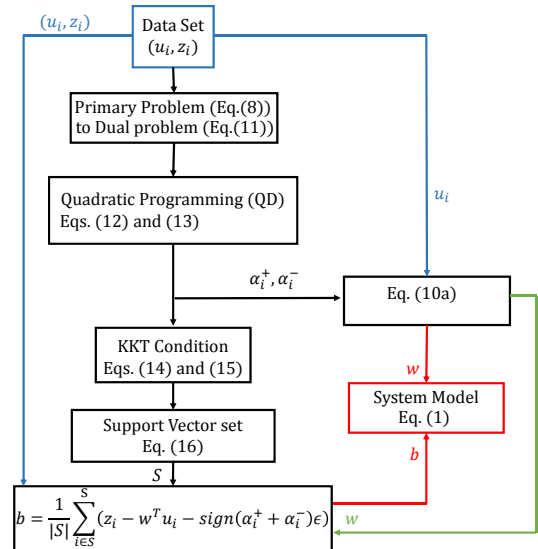


Fig. 3. SVM Model training schematic

### 3.2 NO<sub>x</sub> and BMEP Steady State Model

In this section, a steady state model of diesel engine NO<sub>x</sub> emission and BMEP is developed based on the SVM algorithm explained above and following Fig. 3. Based on the experimental

results of steady state engine operation at different operating conditions are collected ( $\mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{z}_i$ ). The  $\text{NO}_x$  emission and  $BMEP$  are modeled as a function of injected fuel amount, fuel rail pressure, and engine speed. The model features are selected based on a polynomial function proposed in (Aliramezani et al., 2019a) which includes the most significant factors affecting  $\text{NO}_x$  emission that were available for measurement in this experiment. The SVM regression model for steady state  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $BMEP$  is then defined as:

$$\mathbf{y}_{ss} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{b} \quad (18)$$

where

$$\mathbf{y}_{ss} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{NO}_{x,ss} \\ BMEP_{ss} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 465.32 \\ 9.4873 \end{bmatrix},$$

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 735.90 & 8.6806 \\ -1472.2 & 0.2434 \\ 680.00 & -3.8273 \\ -983.40 & -3.1383 \\ 1171.0 & -1.0818 \\ -574.4 & 4.3550 \\ 560.30 & 2.5611 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} m_f \\ n \\ p_r \\ m_f^2 \\ n^2 \\ p_r^2 \\ m_f^3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (19)$$

in which,  $m_f$  is the injected fuel amount ( $mg/stroke$ ),  $n$  is engine speed ( $rpm$ ),  $p_r$  is fuel rail pressure ( $bar$ ),  $\text{NO}_{x,ss}$  is the steady state  $\text{NO}_x$  concentration ( $ppm$ ), and  $BMEP_{ss}$  is the steady state value of BMEP.

Steady state engine  $\text{NO}_x$  emission and BMEP results are used to train the SVM model for BMEP and  $\text{NO}_x$ . The SVM training parameter  $\epsilon$  is selected based on the error tolerance and the regularization vector  $C$  and is selected to be high enough to capture all of the model features. As illustrated in Fig. 4, the squared correlation coefficient,  $R^2$  increases by increasing  $C$  and it plateaus after a specific  $C$  value. The vector  $C$  parameters are selected to be two times of the corresponding  $C$  value of the plateaued  $R^2$  vs  $C$  curve. The selected  $C$  and  $\epsilon$  vectors are as follows:

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} C_{\text{NO}_x} \\ C_{BMEP} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 50000 \\ 5000 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \epsilon = \begin{bmatrix} \epsilon_{\text{NO}_x} \\ \epsilon_{BMEP} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 0.2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (20)$$

The experimental vs trained BMEP and  $\text{NO}_x$  models are shown in Figure 5 along with the corresponding support vectors. Both BMEP and  $\text{NO}_x$  models were capable of accurately predicting the steady state BMEP and  $\text{NO}_x$  with correlation coefficient,  $R^2$ , of 0.999 and 0.966 respectively. The cost function vs iteration for BMEP and  $\text{NO}_x$  are shown in Figure 6 and both depict the quick convergence of the optimization using the SVM quadratic programming algorithm.

#### 4 Nonlinear Control Oriented Model (NCOM)

The steady state model defined above is now augmented with a simple transient model. The discrete time control oriented model of  $\text{NO}_x$  concentration at step  $k$  at a sampling interval of  $T$ , is calculated as:

$$\text{NO}_x(k) = \left(1 - \frac{T}{\tau_{\text{NO}_x} + T}\right) \text{NO}_x(k-1) + \frac{T}{\tau_{\text{NO}_x} + T} \text{NO}_{x,ss}(k) \quad (21)$$

and the BMEP at step  $k$  is calculated as:

$$BMEP(k) = \left(1 - \frac{T}{\tau_{BMEP} + T}\right) BMEP(k-1) + \frac{T}{\tau_{BMEP} + T} BMEP_{ss}(k) \quad (22)$$

where  $\text{NO}_{x,ss}(k)$  and  $BMEP_{ss}(k)$  are the steady state  $\text{NO}_x$  and BMEP calculated using SVM in Eqn. (19) while  $\tau_{\text{NO}_x}$  and  $\tau_{BMEP}$  are approximated as linear first order time constants for  $\text{NO}_x$  and BMEP respectively which are estimated based on the experimental data and are found to be 1 seconds and 0.2 seconds respectively Aliramezani et al. (2019a). This study aims to model the engine transients using a simple structure and a first order lag for BMEP and  $\text{NO}_x$  which is found to be sufficiently precise for future control algorithms.

The model inputs, states, parameters and outputs are classified as vectors. The vector  $\mathbf{x}$  contains two model states:

$$\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{k}) = [\text{NO}_x(k) \quad BMEP(k)] \quad (23)$$

Based on (Aliramezani et al., 2019a), the vector  $\mathbf{u}$  contains model inputs using Eq. (19):

$$\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{k}) = [m_f(k) \quad n(k) \quad p_r(k) \quad m_f^2(k) \quad n^2(k) \quad p_r^2(k) \quad m_f^3(k)] \quad (24)$$

With  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  from Eqn (23), the vector  $\mathbf{y}$  contains two model outputs:

$$\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{k}) = [x_1(k) \quad x_2(k)] \quad (25)$$

Combining Eqs. (18) to (25) results in:

$$\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{k}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{k}-1) + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}'(\mathbf{k}-1) \quad (26)$$

where matrices  $\mathbf{A}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}'$ ,  $\mathbf{B}$  and  $\mathbf{u}'(\mathbf{k})$  are:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \frac{T}{\tau_{\text{NO}_x} + T} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 - \frac{T}{\tau_{BMEP} + T} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{T}{\tau_{\text{NO}_x} + T} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{T}{\tau_{BMEP} + T} \end{bmatrix} \quad (27)$$

$$\mathbf{u}'(\mathbf{k}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{u}(k) + b$$

To validate the trained BMEP and  $\text{NO}_x$  models, the transient behavior of the proposed control-oriented model is then examined for step changes of injected fuel and rail pressure and the results are shown in Figure 7. The control-oriented model provides a precise representation of the system output dynamics,  $\text{NO}_x$  and BMEP, with root mean square error (RMS) of 10 (ppm) and 0.26 (bar) for  $\text{NO}_x$  and BMEP respectively. Implementing the SVM algorithm has reduced the RMS with respect to a similar model but trained with a trust-region algorithm (Aliramezani et al., 2019a) by 0.12 (bar) and 22.8 (ppm) for BMEP and  $\text{NO}_x$  respectively.

#### 5 Conclusions

A support vector machine (SVM) approach is implemented to predict the steady state  $\text{NO}_x$  and BMEP of a medium duty diesel engine. The SVM model was first trained using the steady state experimental data. The engine speed, the amount

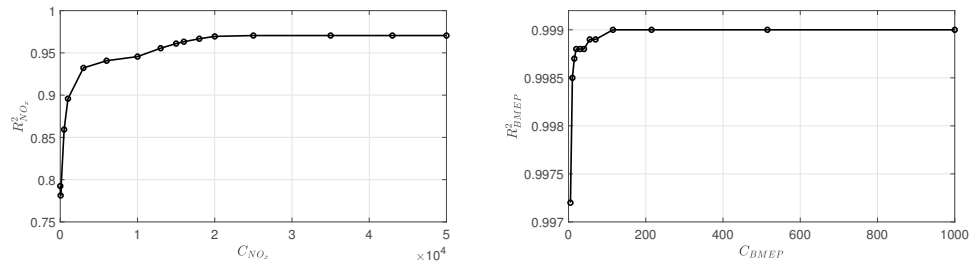


Fig. 4. Coefficient of correlation vs regularization parameter, C, for  $NO_x$  and BMEP

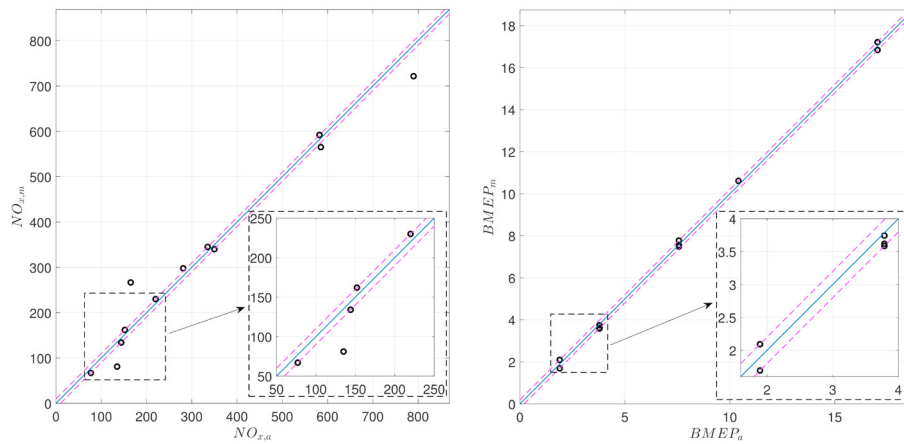


Fig. 5. SVM model prediction Vs Experiments for BMEP and  $NO_x$

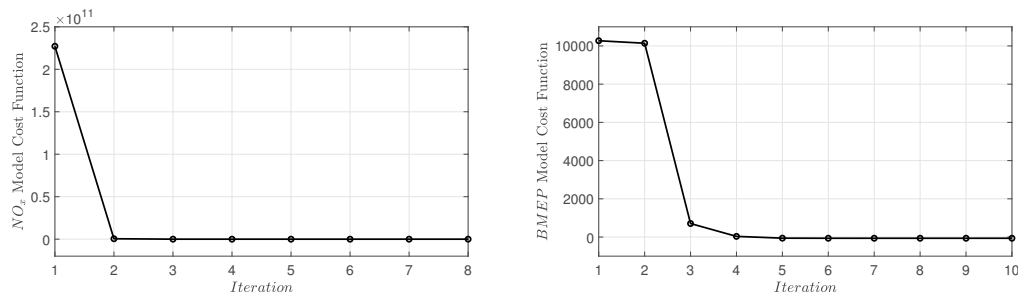


Fig. 6. Cost Function Vs iteration for BMEP and  $NO_x$

of injected fuel and the injection rail pressure are used to predict the steady state engine  $NO_x$  emission and BMEP.

A control oriented model was then developed based on the SVM model to predict the transient behavior of the system. A fast response electrochemical  $NO_x$  sensor is used to verify the transient response of the control oriented model for different steps of injected fuel and rail pressure. The results show that the SVM algorithm is capable of accurately predicting the  $NO_x$  and BMEP in steady state and transient conditions. The RMS error for the  $NO_x$  and BMEP transient test were 10 ppm and 0.26 bar respectively.

In future work, the proposed model will be extended to also include other important engine emissions such as unburned hydrocarbons. This will provide a powerful comprehensive tool for overall emission reduction and transient emissions trade-off. In addition, this model can be used to develop different types of model-based engine control strategies, such as model predictive control for observer design and model-based fault detection and isolation (FDI).

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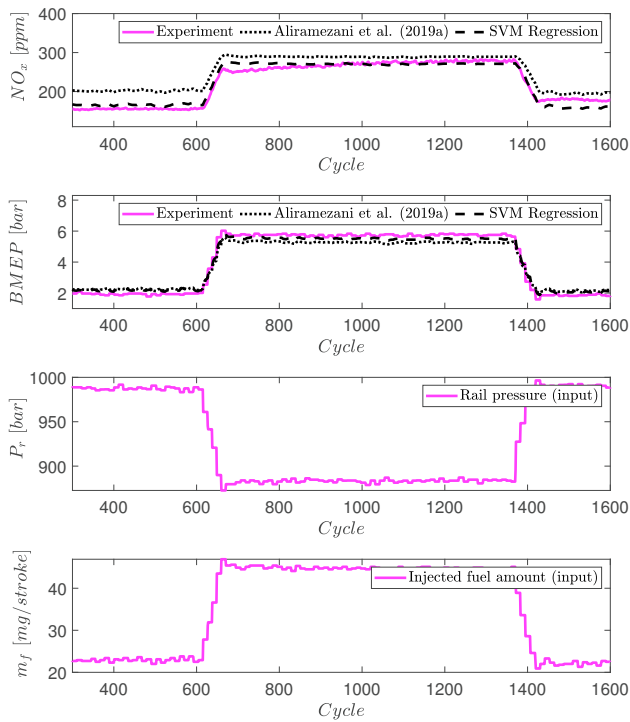


Fig. 7. Experiment vs Trust-region Algorithm vs Support Vector Machine

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