UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

DAT460 Förnyelsebar elproduktion och eltransporter lp2 HT20 (3,5 hp)

Ola Carlson, Chalmers

20201123

Hybridbilsteknik 1



An introduction to...

Sustainable Transportation 1 (of 2)

...with focus on electrification of road transport

By: Dr. Emma Arfa Grunditz

ENM095 Sustainable Power Production and Transportation

2020-09-14

Related intended learning outcomes

 Describe/explain the driving forces for technical development
 Why? towards increased electric power production from renewables as well as the electrification of the transport sector

3. Describe the **technical characteristics and performance** of the components in the drivetrain of **electric and hybrid vehicles** and the combination of these components

4. Identify, formulate and analyze complex connections in electric power generation with renewables and electric power operation of **electric hybrid vehicles**

5. Plan and carry out calculations for electric power production with renewables and of the electric consumption during operation with electric vehicles through modelling and simulations

6. Make **choices of solutions** and justifications due to relevant criteria's of the problems and opportunities associated with the use of **hybrid electrical vehicles** and power production with renewable power production 9. Take part in the national and international discussion on various subjects in sustainable power production and **transportation** by reading, presenting and discussing international reports and journal papers

10. Formulate judgements that include reflecting on scientific, societal and ethical responsibilities and to achieve awareness of ethical aspects on research and development work

11. Get insight into the possibilities and limitations of technology, its role in society and the responsibility of humans for its use, including, social, economic as well as environmental and occupational health aspects

12. Continue studies in a largely self-directed and autonomous manner, and contribute to research and development

How?



Lecture 8

- Sustainable transportation
- Emission regulations
- The weaknesses of a conventional car?!
- Degrees of electrification, types of hybrids
- Vehicle dynamics
- Vehicle energy/fuel consumption modelling and simulation
- Loads other than propulsion
- Charging
- A calculation example

Lecture 10

- Drive system components
 - Basic operation
 - Losses and efficiency
- Types of hybrid vehicles
 - Operation
 - Control



How to calculate fuel/energy consumption



Sustainable development...

"...meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs."

Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development: ur Common Future, 1987, Chairman: Gro Harlem Brundtland http://www.un-documents.net/our-common-future.pdf

Considered to be the first definition of **sustainable** development

... now there are many more...





Transportation...

















...is the need to take people and goods from one place to another











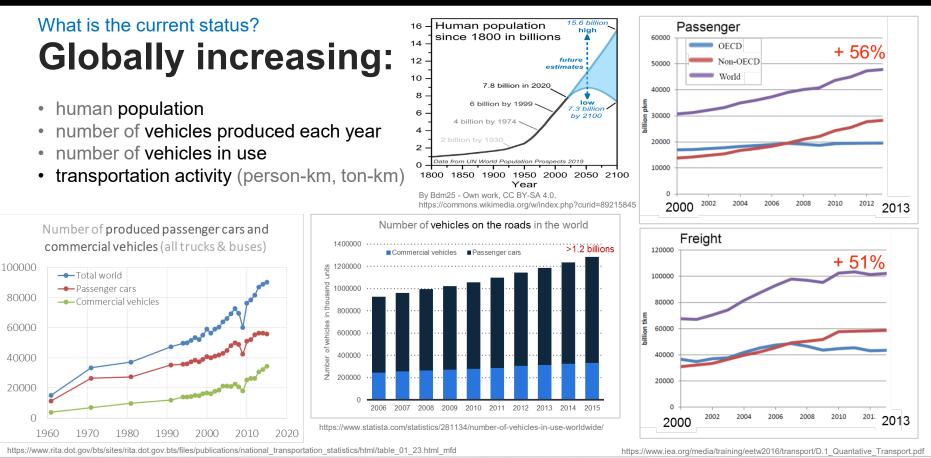






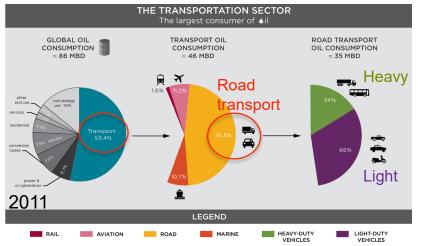
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World oil consumption and CO₂ emission per sector

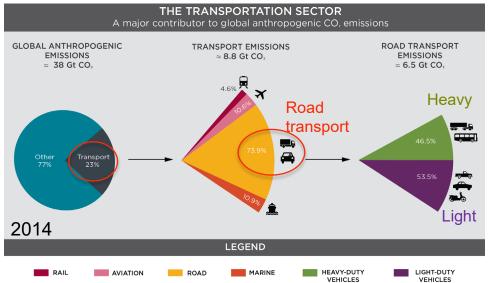


Data Source: 2011, International Energy Agency - www.iea.org/etp

Increased numbers:

Transportation's share of oil consumption 65.1% 2016Transportation's share of CO₂ emissions 24.5% 2016

http://www.theicct.org/sites/default/files/Global-oil-consumption-by-sector_2011.png https://www.iea.org//statistics/?country=WORLD&year=2016&category=Oil&indicator =ShareOilProductsConsBySector&mode=chart&dataTable=BALANCES



Sources

ICCT (2014). Global Transportation Roadmap Model. Available from http://www.theicct.org/global-transportation-roadmap-model

IPCC (2014). Summary for Policymakers. Climate Change 2014, Mitigation of Climate Change. Contribution of Working Group III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Edenholer, O., R. Pichs-Madruga, Y. Sokona, E. Fanhani, S. Kadher, K. Seyboth, A. Adler, I. Baum, S. Brumer, P. Eickemeier, B. Kriemann, J. Savolainen, S. Schlömer, C. von Stechow, T. Zwickel and J.C. Mirx (eds.). Cambridge University Press, Cambridge. United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA.

http://www.theicct.org/sites/default/files/Global-transport-CO2-by-sector 1.png

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Why not business as usual?

- Future availability and price of...?
 - Fossil fuels
 - Raw materials
- Need for clean air?
 - Air pollution cause the death of 3 million people/year
- Need for farming and living?
 - Global warming cause/may cause;
 - ice melting, rising sea levels, more frequent extreme weather, floods, droughts, changing ecosystems, etc. will greatly affect human food supply, water resources, health, economics, etc.

http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/10665/250141/1/9789241511353-eng.pdf http://www.nationalgeographic.com/environment/global-warming/global-warming-effects/











Possible mitigations

Decrease the need for and impact of transport

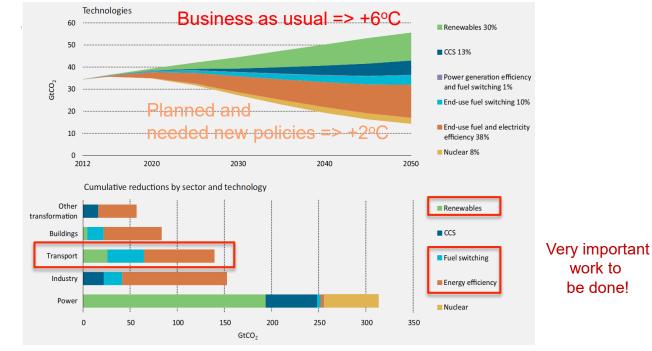
- community planning, to minimize the need for transport
- avoid unnecessary travelling (video conference, lifestyle change?)
- People can:
 - walk or bike
 - · shift to public transport instead of driving car
 - car pooling
 - shift to more efficient car
- Companies can:
 - · shift to more efficient vehicle
 - plan logistic routes to minimize transport distance
 - local production, to avoid long distance freight
- Industry can:
 - improve vehicle efficiency
 - component level
 - system level
 - shift to other fuels/energy carriers
 - biofuels
 - hydrogen
 - electricity (if renewable!)
 - etc.
 - Self driving vehicles?

In lectures and assignment we will look into these possibilities



Estimated contribution to CO₂ reduction

International Energy Agency (IEA): Energy Technology Perspectives 2015



http://www.iea.org/publications/freepublications/publication/ETP2015.pdf



Possible mitigations

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Political Policies in place

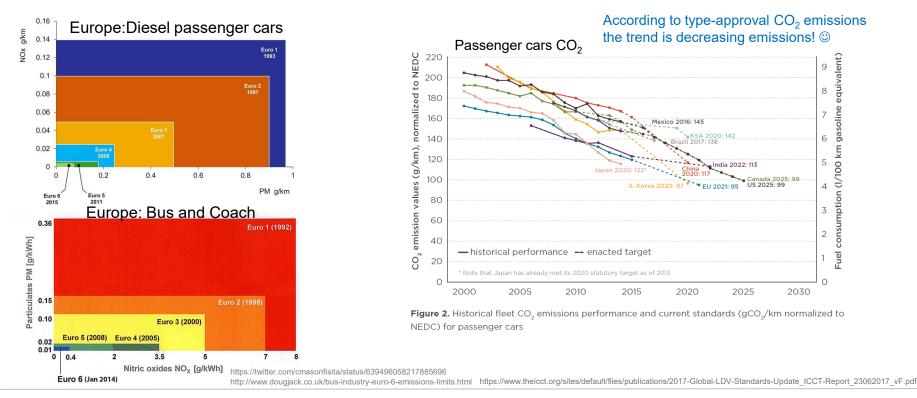
- General agreements: E.g. International Paris Agreement 2015 max + 2°C compared to pre industrialization
- Fuel taxes (on fossil fuels, carbon intense fuels)
- Vehicle subsidies (depending on CO₂ dependence)
 - Tax reliefs on carbon low vehicles
 - Premium on new car purchase of low emission vehicle
- Congestion tax in cities (e.g. Stockholm, Göteborg)

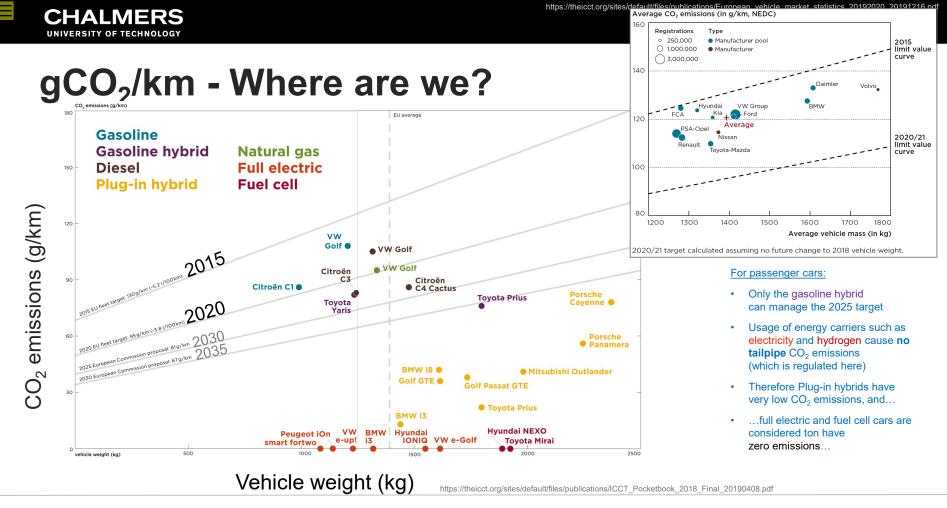
Tailpipe emission regulations for new cars

- Pollutants: CO, HC, NO_x, PM, etc.
 "Must comply"-regulation, vehicle specific Light duty vehicles, EU: Euro 6, USA: Tier 3 Heavy duty engines EU: Euro 6, USA: from MY 2007
- GHG: CO₂ or fuel consumption (gCO₂/km, L/100km, mpg) "Penalty if not comply"-regulation, fleet average Light duty vehicles, EU >2017, USA >2017-2025 Heavy duty vehicles, EU:not yet, USA from MY 2014



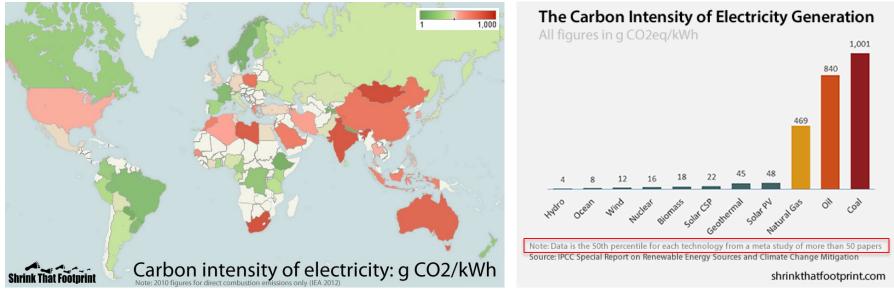
Evolution of emission regulation







gCO_{2eq.} per produced kWh of electricity



https://cleantechnica.com/2014/04/15/greenest-source-power-french-response-low-carbon-strategy/

http://www.ipcc-wg3.de/report/IPCC_SRREN_Annex_II.pdf



gCO₂/km of what?



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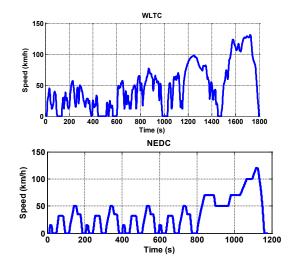
gCO₂/km of what?

Standardized test procedures are used to measure emissions from tail pipe (g/km)

- Controlled test environment (e.g. same temperature range, flat road, no wind)
- Same predetermined driving cycle for all cars
- Driving cycle represent average driving (speed as a function of time)

In EU:

- Since 2017: WLTC (World Harmonized Light Duty Test Cycle), based on road measurements from different countries
- The previous cycle used: NEDC (New European Drive Cycle)
- Same cycle is used for measuring both toxic emissions and $\rm CO_2$ emissions In USA:
- A number of cycles (4-5) are used to measure emissions not exactly the same cycles for toxic emissions as for CO₂ emissions
- Weighting factors are used to estimate close to real emissions In Japan:
- They use their own cycle jp08 with both low and higher speed levels In the rest of the world:
- Those countries that have emission regulation use one of the above standards





gCO₂/km - Where are we?

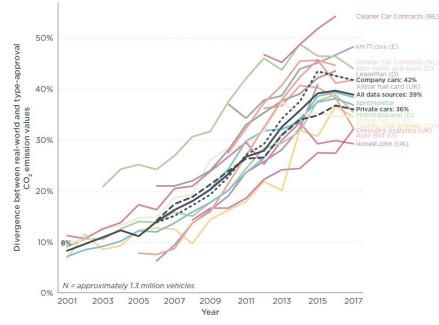


Figure 26. Divergence between real-world and manufacturers' type-approval CO₂ emission values for various on-road data sources, including average estimates for private cars, company cars, and all data sources combined.

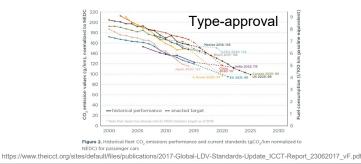
https://theicct.org/sites/default/files/publications/Lab_to_Road_2018_fv_20190110.pdf

For passenger cars:

According to "real world" measurements (when driving on-road under normal conditions) the deviation from type-approval CO_2 emissions has increased! \otimes

Reasons:

- Different type of driving and load condition
 - Test cycles represent average driving
 - no AC/heater in lab-test
 - weather conditions differ
- Manufacturers utilize tolerances and flexibilities in test procedures

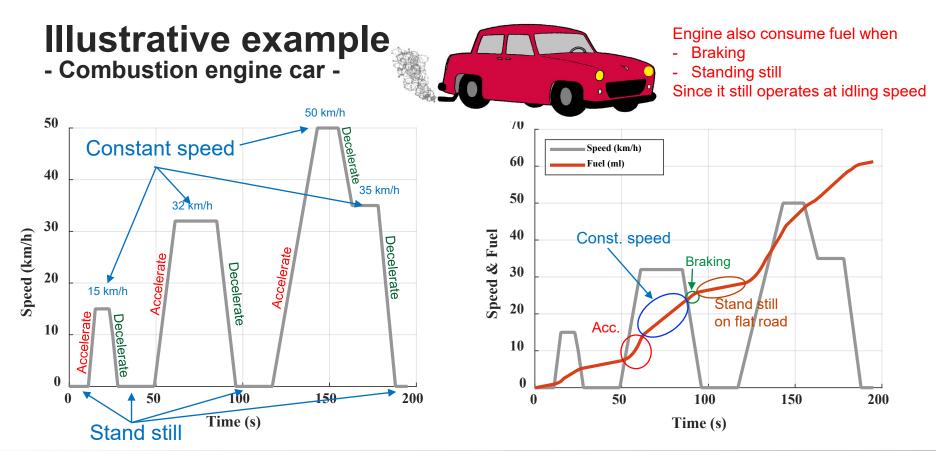




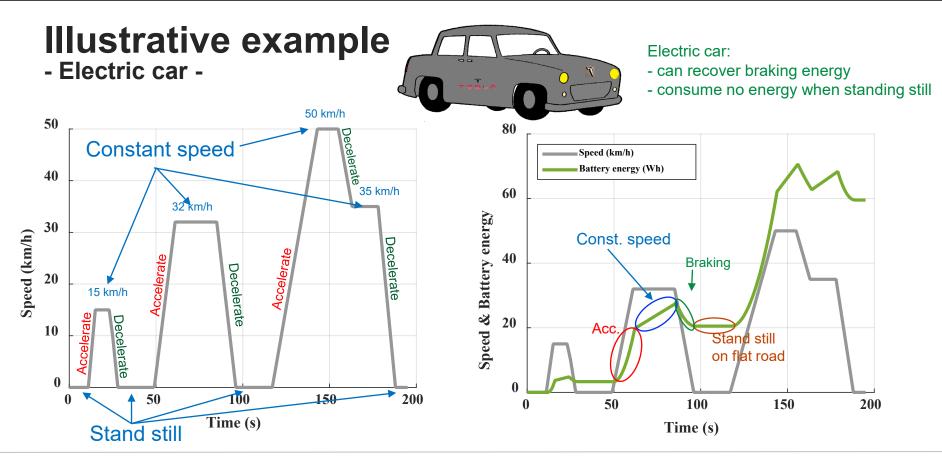
Illustrative example - Black-box car -

Motor compartment is empty 50 km/h 50 60 Decelerate 35 km/h **Constant speed** Speed (km/h) 50 Used energy (Wh) **40** 32 km/h **40** 30 Speed & Energy Speed (km/h) Const. speed Patt Decelerate Accelerate ccelerate 30 Decelerate 20 Braking 15 km/h 20 Decelerate **Accelerat** Acc 10 Stand still 10 on flat road 0 0 100 200 50 150 0 50 100 150 200 0 Time (s) Time (s) Stand still





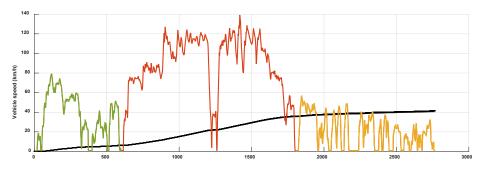






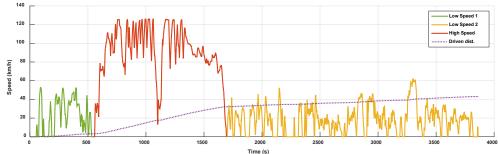
Efficiency comparison – car measurements

Large car (Fuel: E85)



	Ave speed	Fuel consumption	
Low speed 1	36 km/h	11.2 L/100km	
Low speed 2	19 km/h	14.9 L/100km	highest
High speed	89 km/h	9.7 L/100km	lowest

Medium car (Fuel: Electricity)



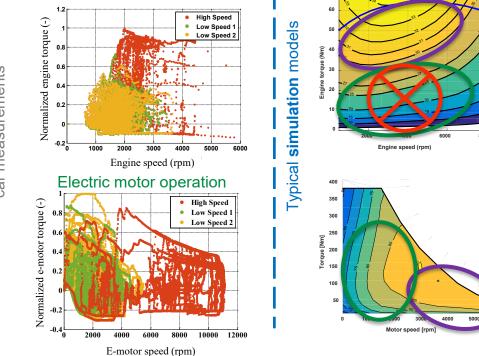
	Ave speed	Energy consumption (EM & Inverter)	
Low speed 1	21 km/h	144 Wh/km	lowest
Low speed 2	18 km/h	163 Wh/km	
High speed	90 km/h	216 Whkm	highest



Efficiency comparison – car measurements

Typical ICE efficiency map

Combustion engine operation



Low speed driving (roughly) High speed driving (roughly)

For both cars the average efficiency is

- higher during high speed driving ٠
- lower during low speed driving ٠

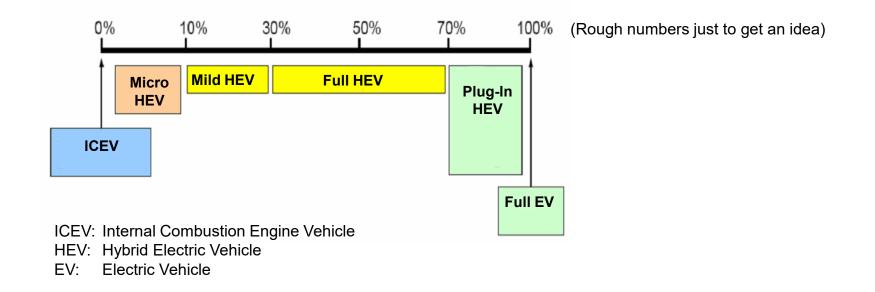
But for the **combustion engine** car

- the efficiency is much lower ٠ during low speed driving
- these operating points ٠ are strived to be avoided in hybrid electric vehicles
- with electric machines and ٠ "reversible" energy buffers

8000



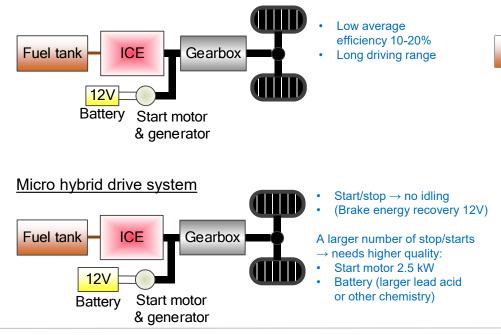
Degree of electrification





Drive system structures

Conventional combustion engine drive system



0% 10% 30% 50% 70% 100% Micro Mild HEV Full HEV Plug-In HEV ICV Full BEV

Fuel tank ICE Gearbox 12V Gearbox Battery Start motor 48V Alternator

various combinations

Full hybrid drive system – configurations

Mild hybrid drive system

series

parallel

.

٠

٠

- Start/stop \rightarrow no idling
- Brake energy recovery
- E-motor assist – short time

Need larger:

- Start motor (10-20 kW)
- Battery (0.5 kWh)
 - \rightarrow higher voltage?

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Full hybrid drive systems

- <u>Two power sources:</u> combustion engine and e-motor
- Still only the fuel tank provides the energy needed for driving
- Battery energy content 1-2 kWh used as temporary energy buffer

Series hybrid drive system

- · Only electric motor propels the wheels
- ICE+Gen. power can either
 - only power the e-motor
 - power the e-motor and charge the battery

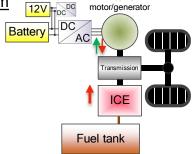
Parallel hybrid drive system

Both ICF and e-motor

can propel the wheels,

either one at a time or

both at the same time

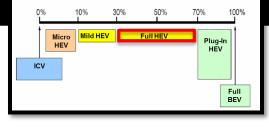


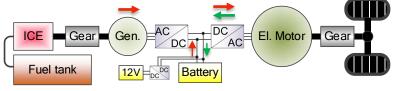
Flectric

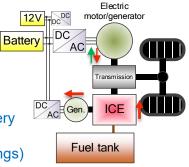
Series-Parallel hybrid drive system

- Both ICE and e-motor can propel the wheels, either one at a time or both at the same time
- ICE power can either
 - only power the wheels
 - power wheels and charge battery
 - only charge battery

(depending on mechanical couplings)









Plug-in hybrid, and electric drive systems

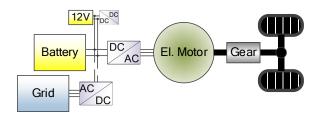
- · Battery can be charged from the grid
- Braking energy can be recovered

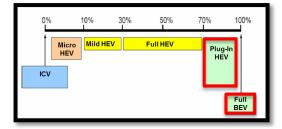
Plug-in hybrid drive system

- Battery and fuel tank can provide the energy needed
- Same hybrid systems as in full hybrids + on-board charger
- Battery size in plug-in hybrids 10-20 kWh

Electric drive system

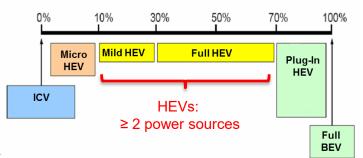
• Battery size in battery electric vehicles 15-90 kWh





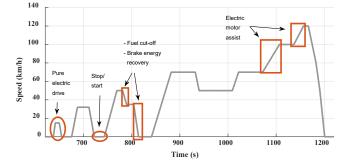


Degree of electrification - fuel saving methods -



	ICEV	Micro HEV	Mild HEV	Full HEV	Plug-In HEV	Plug-In HEV Range Extender	Full EV
Fuel cut-off (standard today)	x	x	x	x	x		
IC engine							
stop/start		x	х	x	x	x	
Brake energy							
recovery		x	х	x	x	x	x
Electric motor							
assist			х	x	x		
Pure electric							
drive			(x)	х	x	x	x

Possible reduction implementations





Vehicle dynamics

- for estimation of main forces and energy consumption

 $\sum F = m \frac{dv}{dt} = m a$ Newton's second law of mechanics - only the longitudinal forces are considered $m a = F_{acc} = F_{traction} - F_{resistive}$ $m a = F_{acc} = F_{traction} - F_{drag} - F_{roll} - F_{climb}$ Fair =Fdrag Fclimb 1g cos a M.g Froll

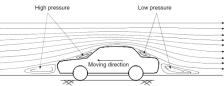


Aerodynamic drag

- Is the resistance of air flow around (and through) the car
- Depends on the vehicle's
 - the car's "projected" cross sectional area, A
 - shape, C_d
 - speed, v
- Is ideally estimated by assuming:
 - zero wind speed
 - atmospheric standards air density
 - only air flow straight from the front
- Fixed C_d values (which depend on car shape) taken from
 - General table (see picture to the right)
 - Manufacturers specifications
 - Wind tunnel measurements
 - CFD simulations

Vehicle	Vehicle Type					
	Open convertible	0.5–0.7				
	Van body	0.5–0.7				
	Ponton body	0.4–0.55				
	Wedge-shaped body; headlamps and bumpers are integrated into the body, covered underbody, optimized cooling air flow	0.3–0.4				
	Headlamp and all wheels in body, covered underbody	0.2–0.25				
	K-shaped (small breakway section)	0.23				
	Optimum streamlined design	0.15–0.20				
Trucks, road trains Buses Streamlined buses Motorcycles		0.8–1.5 0.6–0.7 0.3–0.4 0.6–0.7				

			High pre
$ ho_{air}$	(kg/m ³)	air density, depend on temperature, humidity and pressure ($1.225kg/m^3$ at standard atmospheric conditions)	
C_d	-	coefficient of aerodynamic resistance, depend on shape of vehicle	
A	(m ²)	vehicle effective frontal area	
v	(m/s)	vehicle speed]



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 $F_{drag} = \frac{1}{2} \rho C_d A \left(v_{car} - v_{head wind} \right)^2$



Rolling resistance

- Depends on
 - mass of car
 - rolling resistance coefficient C_r
 - gravity
 - road grade
- Is caused by a combination of various physical phenomena
 - tire deflection during rotation
 - aerodynamic drag of rotating tire
 - friction between tire and road materials
- Rolling resistance coefficient, C_r dependent on
 - Tire pressure
 - Material and structure of tire and road
 - Temperature of tire and road
 - Rotational wheel speed
- Is estimated with either a fixed value for C_r (most often) or a speed dependent value
- Rolling resistance coefficient can be attained from tire measurement (seldom publically available) (low rolling resistance tires 0.005-0.009)

$F_{roll} = C_r mg \cos \alpha$

Rolling Resistance Coefficients	
Conditions	Rolling resistance coefficient
Car tires on concrete or asphalt	0.013
Car tires on rolled gravel	0.02
Tar macadam	0.025
Unpaved road	0.05
Field	0.1-0.35
Truck tires on concrete or asphalt	0.006-0.01
Wheels on rail	0.001-0.002





Vehicle dynamics

- for estimation of main forces and energy consumption

 $\sum F = m \frac{dv}{dt} = m a$ Newton's second law of mechanics - only the longitudinal forces are considered $m a = F_{acc} = F_{traction} - F_{resistive}$ $m a = F_{acc} = F_{traction} - F_{drag} - F_{roll} - F_{climb}$ Fair Aerodynamic Rolling Road Acceleration grade resistance drag Fclimb $F_{trac} = \frac{1}{2} \rho C_d A v^2 + C_r mg \cos \alpha + mg \sin \alpha + m \frac{dv}{dt}$ Can be positive or negative $P_{trac} = \boldsymbol{v} F_{trac}$ $E_{trac} = \int_{t_A}^{t_B} P_{trac} dt$ E_{trac} -= f(car size, driving, drive system efficiency, road, climate)E_{drive system} $\eta_{drive \ svstem}$

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 $F_{trac} = \frac{1}{2}\rho C_d A v^2 + C_r mg \cos \alpha + mg \sin \alpha + m \frac{dv}{dt}$

 $m\frac{dv}{dt} = F_{acc} = F_{trac} - F_{resistive}$

Controlling vehicle dynamics

There are three possible net outputs from the drive system and friction brake system to the wheel shaft:

F _{trac} > 0	Traction	The drive system is providing a propulsion force, controlled via the gas pedal			
F _{trac} < 0	Braking	• Either the friction brake system is providing a braking force on the wheels, controlled via the brake pedal, or			
		an electric machine is controlled to provide a braking force, or			
		 a combustion engine is still engaged on the wheel shaft and the internal friction in the engine and gear system provides a braking force (for example due to friction as the piston is forced to move up and down in the cylinder.) 			
		 or other frictional forces e.g. bearings provides a small braking force 			
F _{trac} = 0	Coasting	Neither the drive system nor the brake system provides any force to the wheel shaft, (i.e. neither the gas nor the brake pedals are pressed), and the engine is disengaged from the wheel shaft via the clutch. Then the frictional forces (air drag and rolling resistance) cause the vehicle to decelerate. It is said to be <i>coasting</i> .			

 $P_{trac}(t) = v(t) F_{trac}(t)$ Power has the same sign as the force

$$E_{trac} = \int_{A}^{B} P_{trac}(t) dt$$

Integrating positive P_{trac} calculates energy flow from the drive system to the wheels Integrating negative P_{trac} calculates energy flow from the wheels to the drive system



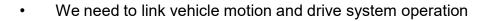
Vehicle consumption/emission modeling

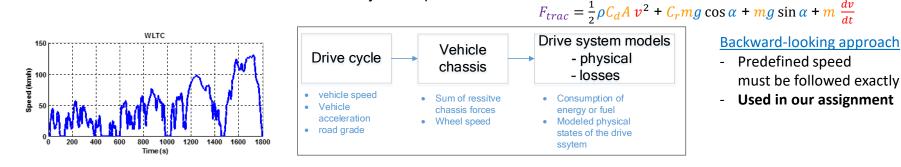
In real vehicle:

- Cause: driver push gas or brake pedal
- Effect: vehicle increase/decrease/hold the speed (speed and acceleration can be controlled)

Often in fuel economy and emission simulations:

- Cause: predetermined speed and acceleration time series (sometimes also road grade)
- Effect: calculate for each time instant, how much force and speed that must come from the drive system in order to sustain such speed and acceleration, use look-up loss maps of drive system components



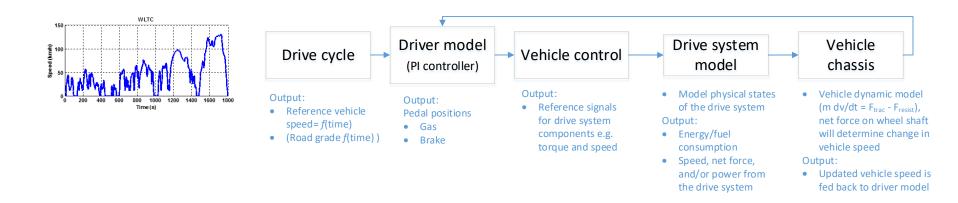




Vehicle consumption/emission modeling

Forward-looking approach

- Use a driver model
- Predefined speed is now a reference input
- Deviations from reference drive cycle is possible
- · Can be used for more realistic system modelling

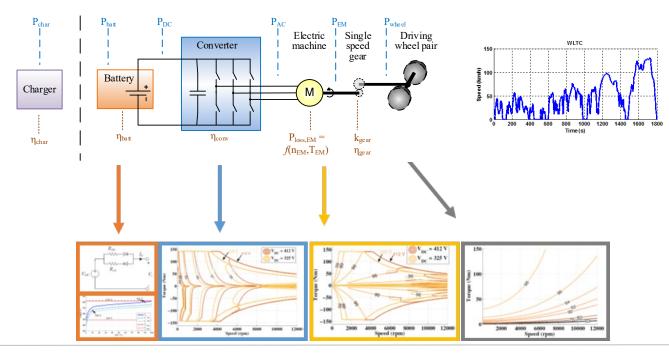


 $m\frac{dv}{dt} = F_{acc} = F_{trac} - F_{resistive}$



Vehicle consumption/emission modeling

Drive system loss modeling - BEV example



Other loads in vehicles – auxiliary loads

- Systems for security, safety, comfort, lighting, information
- Air conditioning (AC) compressor (conventionally driven via a belt from ICE, in HEV electrically), passenger cars ~4-6 kW, large bus up to 30kW
- Power steering, braking systems (air compressor), heaters, pumps, fans, etc (up to 100-1500 W each)
- Computers/controllers (30-100 micro controllers) (up to 500W)
- Head lights, wipers, radio, window elevators, seat heaters etc. (up to 500 W)

Low power loads are supplied by the 12V system

- How much power/energy do they use?
 - Up to 30% of average power
 - During acceleration >10%

Nielsen, F. (2016) Automotive Climate Systems - Investigation of Current Energy Use and Future Energy Saving Measures. Göteborg : Chalmers University of Technology (Doktorsavhandlingar vid Chalmers tekniska högskola. Ny serie, nr: 4080).

Brusokas, L. och Rajarathinam, N. (2015) Evaluation of Electrical Loads on 48 V Supply in Future Mild Hybrid Electric Vehicles. Göteborg : Chalmers University of Technology



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Ways to reduce energy consumption

 $E_{drive \ system} = f(\text{car size, driving, drive system efficiency, road, climate})$

- Minimize (energy needed due to chassis)
 - Mass: smaller cars, lighter materials
 - Aerodynamic drag: small front area, stream lined design
 - Rolling friction: low friction tires
- ECO-driving
 - Smooth acceleration
 - Low speed
- Efficient drive train components
 - Minimize losses
 - Integrated components, gear & ICE, electric motor & inverter & gear
- Using the right component in the right time maximize system efficiency

 In case of Hybrid cars
 - Power management of whole driveline



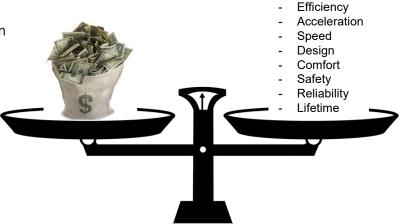
Why not just do it?!

For a manufacturer to increase vehicle efficiency it has to invest in changes to the car = higher cost

- Who should pay for the improvement?
- Are the customers willing to pay?

Is it possible to increase the vehicle's efficiency and still maintain

- performance?
- comfort?
- safety?
- reliability?
- lifetime?





Charging

- Current method: conductive, future method: inductive (wireless)
- AC charging (Level 1 & 2, Mode 1-3)
 - On-board and external chargers regular power outlet
 - 2,0-3.3-7.4 kW (1 phase), 11-43 kW (3 phase) higher power = higher equipment cost
 - Charging times roughly 30 min 8 h
- DC fast charging (Level3/Mode4) external charger stations
 - CCS, 50-350 kW
 - CHAdeMO, 50-400 kW
 - Tesla super chargers, 120-250 kW
 - Charging times roughly 10 30 min
- Nominal charger efficiency ~94%
- Electric roads?! -smaller batteries on board
 - Over-head-lines for specific type of vehicle
 - Ground tracks accessible by any kind of road vehicle



	Conventional plugs	Slow chargers	Fast chargers	
Level	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	
Current	AC	AC	AC, Three- phase	DC
Power ≤ 3.7 kW > 3.7 l		> 3.7 kW and ≤ 22 kW	> 22 kW and ≤ 43.5 kW	Currently < 400 kW

Ongoing in Sweden, Gävle Starting in Germany by Siemens

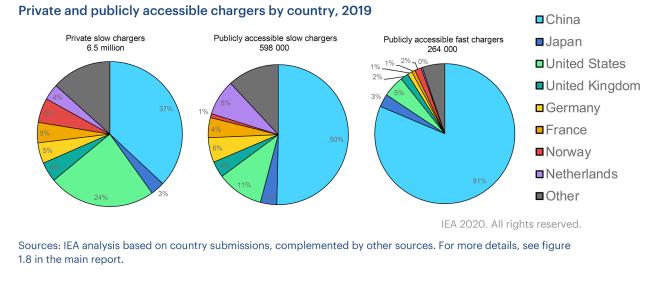


Ongoing in Sweden, Sthlm-Arlanda





Charging stations



Sweden: www.uppladdning.nu

Europa https://ccs-map.eu/ World CCS/combo https://www.plugshare.com/?combo_o nly=true&=SAE%20Combo%20CCS

Tesla https://supercharge.info/



Calculation example

Useful relations:

1 J=1 Ws= 1/3600 Wh= 1/(3600 \cdot 10³) kWh= 1/(3600 \cdot 10¹²) TWh

How much fuel does the Swedish passenger cars consume each year?

- Number of passenger cars in Sweden at the end of 2015 cars^[1]: 4 669 063
- Total distance travelled²: **65 311 458 780 km**.
- Average gasoline consumption of Swedish car fleet 2015^[2] : 8.0 liter/100km

Estimated fuel consumption: 65 311 458 780 km/100 km ⋅8.0liter/100km=**5.22·10⁹ liter**. With gasoline density (820kg/m³) and energy density (42 MJ/kg), the energy content of this fuel is **50.0 TWh**.

What if all the Swedish passenger cars were electric...how much electricity would they use during one year?

• Assume all cars are large and consume 20 kWh/k100m : 65 311 458.780/(100km) * 20 (kWh/100km) = 13.06 T Wh

How much would the Swedish electricity production then need to increase?

• 13.06 (TWh) / 158.5 (TWh) *100 = 8.2 %



	Per type	Share of total
Hydro	74.0 TWh	46.7%
Wind	16.6 TWh	10.5%
Nuclear	54.4 TWh	34.3%
Solar	0.1 TWh	0.06%
Other thermal	13.5 TWh	8.5%
Total production	158.5 TWh	100%

^[1] Trafik analys, Fordon 2015, Körsträckor 2015: <u>http://trafa.se/sv/Statistik/Vagtrafik/Fordon/</u>

RUS 2015: http://extra.lansstyrelsen.se/rus/Sv/statistik-och-data/korstrackor-och-bransleforbrukning/Pages/default.aspx

Elåret 2015; <u>http://www.svenskenergi.se/Elfakta/Statistik/Elaret/</u>

Oil, coal, natural gas and peat.



Calculation example

Useful relations: 1 J=1 Ws= 1/3600 Wh= 1/(3600 ·10³) kWh= 1/(3600 ·10¹²) TWh

What if everybody want to charge at the same time, is the installed 40 GW capacity enough?

- Assume 3.5 kW charging power
- 3.5 kW * 4 669 063 cars = **16.3 GW** (41% of installed capacity)

What if we use slow charging and all 24 h?

- A typical car runs 39 km/24 h in Västar Götalandsregionen
- 2 kWh for 10 km gives 8 kWh
- 2 kW can be charged from a 10 A fuse
- Every car needs to be charge 4 h / 24 h = 1/6
- 2,0 kW * 4 669 063 cars = 9,4 GW (23% of installed capacity)
- Equal chare of time=1/6 gives **1,6 GW** (4 % of installed capacity)





Table 3.2

Calculation example

How much would the Swedish electricity production then need to increase?

Share of electricity consumption attributable to EVs by region and scenario,

• 13.06 (TWh) / 158.5 (TWh) *100 = 8.2 %

2030		·	
Country/region	2019	Stated Policies Scenario, 2030	Sustainable Development Scenario, 2030
China	1.2%	3%	3%
Europe	0.2%	4%	6%
India	0.0%	2%	3%
Japan	0.0%	1%	2%
United States	0.1%	1%	4%

Sources: Electricity demand from EVs was evaluated with the Mobility model (IEA, 2020); total final electricity consumption from (IEA, 2020) and IEA (forthcoming).

https://www.iea.org/reports/global-ev-outlook-2020



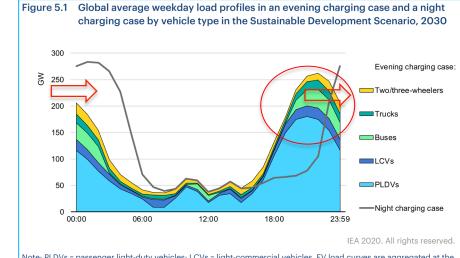


Calculation example

What if everybody want to charge at the same time, is the installed 40 GW capacity enough?

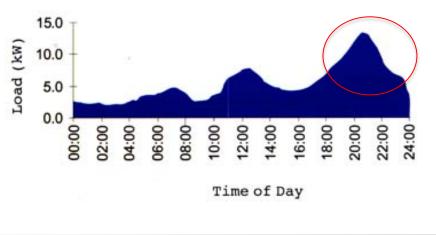
- Assume 3.5 kW charging power
- 3.5 kW * 4 669 063 cars = 16.3 GW (41% of installed capacity)





Note: PLDVs = passenger light-duty vehicles; LCVs = light-commercial vehicles. EV load curves are aggregated at the global level. They are not accounting for varying time zones and might not be representative of regional patterns. They are representative of an assumed typical weekday.

https://www.iea.org/reports/global-ev-outlook-2020





Lecture 8

- Sustainable transportation
- Emission regulations
- The weaknesses of a conventional car?!
- Degrees of electrification, types of hybrids
- Vehicle dynamics
- Vehicle energy/fuel consumption modelling and simulation
- Loads other than propulsion
- Charging
- A calculation example

Lecture 10

- Drive system components
 - Basic operation
 - Losses and efficiency
- Types of hybrid vehicles
 - Operation
 - Control



How to calculate fuel/energy consumption



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