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Additional Information

Volumetric efficiency modelling of internal combustion engines based on a novel adaptive learning algorithm of artificial neural networks.

4 José Manuel Luján, Héctor Climent*, Luis Miguel García-Cuevas, Ausias Moratal

5 CMT Motores Térmicos, Universitat Politècnica de València, Spain

*Corresponding author: <u>hcliment@mot.upv.es</u>. Telephone: (+34) 96 387 76 50. Postal
address: CMT Motores Térmicos. Universitat Politècnica de València. Camino de Vera
s/n. 46022. Valencia. Spain.

9 Abstract

10 Air mass flow determination is one of the main variables on the control of internal 11 combustion engines. Effectiveness of intake air systems is evaluated through the 12 volumetric efficiency coefficient. Intake air systems characterization by means of physical models needs either significant amount of input data or notable calculation 13 14 times. Because of these drawbacks, empirical approaches are often used by means of 15 black-box models based on Artificial Neural Networks. As alternative to the standard 16 gradient descendent method an adaptive learning algorithm is developed based on the 17 increase of hidden layer weight update speed. The results presented in this paper 18 show that the proposed adaptive learning method performs with higher learning speed, 19 reduced computational resources and lower network complexities. A parametric study 20 of several Multiple Layer Perceptron (MLP) networks is carried out with the variation of 21 the number of epochs, number of hidden neurons, momentum coefficient and learning 22 algorithm. The training and validation data are obtained from steady state tests carried 23 out in an automotive turbocharged diesel engine.

24 Keywords

Artificial Neural Networks; Adaptive learning; Diesel engines modeling; Volumetricefficiency.

27 **1. Introduction**

28 Pollutant emissions in automotive diesel engines have become as a major subject of 29 research. Combustion process is affected by the in-cylinder trapped mass and gas 30 composition. Stratified combustion of diesel engines makes necessary a well 31 performance of the air mass flow system. Excess of air plays an important role in the 32 combustion efficiency since it speeds up the mixing of fuel with air and ensures 33 complete combustion of fuel. If sufficient oxygen is not provided to the engine during 34 combustion process, complete conversion of carbon and hydrogen is impossible to attain and that leads to particulates, hydrocarbon and carbon monoxide resulting in 35 36 increased exhaust emissions [1]. If the excess air ratio is too high, the peak in-cylinder 37 pressure is also relatively high, which has a negative influence on the reliability of the 38 engine [2]. Higher excess of air also carries high NOx emissions and excessive 39 exhaust gas temperature [3].

The performance of the air mass flow system is determined by the volumetric efficiency. Pressure drops, gas temperature increase trough heat transfer from the intake pipes and cylinder walls, gas inertia, overlapping valve and pressure waves at the intake manifold can difficult the cylinder filling [4, 5, 6].

Many authors have studied and modelled the intake air systems with the application of
thermo-fluid dynamic governing equations. 1D wave action models are the most
popular physical models in the intake air system analysis because of the tradeoff
between accuracy and computational cost [7, 8, 9, 10, 11].

However, the thermo and fluid-dynamic processes occurring in an internal combustion engine are so nonlinear and complex that it is usually impossible to model all of them. Modeling based on solving real physical equations governing the engine, although accurate, is too time consuming and not suitable for a control purpose [12]. In addition, the presence of controllers and actuators has increased in the intake engine systems. A variety of new diesel engine air-path actuators, such as variable geometry

turbocharger (VGT), two-stage turbo-charging system, single- and dual-loop exhaust gas recirculation (EGR), throttling valves at the intake and exhaust for EGR enhancement and variable valve actuation (VVA), have been recently developed for providing the authorities of controlling the intake manifold gas conditions in both steady-state and transient operations [13]. The added systems involve an important increase of physical model complexity, being necessary a lot of data about such systems performance and therefore making difficult their accurate implementation.

61 Because of the important non linarites of the thermo and fluid dynamic engine process, 62 several researchers have developed empirical models based on Artificial Neural 63 Networks (ANNs) [14, 15]. Volumetric efficiency is commonly modelled empirically as a 64 black-box function of a combination of engine speed, intake manifold pressure, intake 65 manifold temperature, and exhaust manifold pressure [16]. ANNs have become an 66 important tool in empirical engine process modelling. The Multiple Layer Perceptron 67 (MLP) performs as one of the most popular ANNs architectures in order to implement 68 such models [17, 18, 19].

In this paper a novel gradient descendent ANN model is proposed with the aim to improve the learning process. An adaptive learning rate between network layers is applied in order to increase the learning speed of the network. The outcome of the proposed model is compared to the standard ANNs models showing the improvement obtained with the use of the adaptive model.

The paper is described as follows. Section 2 details the experimental set up carried out at the laboratory showing the features of the measurement equipment. In section 3 the learning speed limitation of backpropagated ANNs is described. An adaptive learning scheme is proposed as solution of learning speed reduction problem. The methodology of ANNs implementation is included in this section. In section 4 results are shown pointing out the optimal ANN architecture and its prediction capacity. Finally, in section 5 conclusions are presented.

81 **2. Experimental methodology**

82 2.1. Test cell description

Experiments with an in line 4 cylinder, 1.6 l, turbocharged HSDI diesel engine were conducted. In Table 1 the features of the engine are shown. The engine was run under steady state conditions at different operating points that covered the whole engine torque and speed range. The engine layout is shown in Fig. 1, where the engine operative variables used for the ANN model implementation are marked with blue arrows in the point of measurement.

89 Relevant variables needed for the volumetric model implementation were recorded, 90 such as: engine speed, torque, intake manifold pressure, turbine inlet pressure, intake 91 manifold temperature, EGR rate and air mass flow rate. In order to assess the 92 volumetric efficiency according to real engine conditions, EGR was performed 93 depending on the engine load of the different running points.

94 Engine speed was measured through a KYSTLER encoder with an error of 0.02 Crank 95 Angle Degree (CAD). Engine torque was measured by the dynamometer SCHENK 96 DYNAS3, with an error of 0.1%. Temperatures were measured with thermocouples 97 type K of TCA brand, with a measurement error of 2%. Gas pressure was measured 98 with KISTLER pressure sensors with an error of 0.3%. Air mass flow rate was 99 measured by means of a hot wire anemometer of Sensycon brand, with a 100 measurement error of 1%.

Horiba Mexa 7100 DEGR was used to measure O_2 , CO_2 , CO_2 , CO_3 , using a non-dispersive infrared analyzer. The error of the gas analyzer is in the range of 2%. Both intake and exhaust CO_2 measurements were recorded in order to obtain the LP EGR rates. The EGR rate is defined as:

105
$$X_{EGR} = \frac{\dot{m}_{egr}}{\dot{m}_{air} + \dot{m}_{egr}}$$
 [1]

where \dot{m}_{egr} and \dot{m}_{air} are the mass flow of EGR gas and fresh air, respectively. Eq. [1] can be expressed as a function of a specific pollutant concentration, like CO₂, measured in the intake and exhaust manifold:

109
$$X_{EGR} = \frac{[CO_{2 \text{ INT}}] - [CO_{2 \text{ ATM}}]}{[CO_{2 \text{ EXH}}] - [CO_{2 \text{ ATM}}]}$$
 [2]

110 where $[CO_{2 INT}]$, $[CO_{2 ATM}]$ and $[CO_{2 EXH}]$ are the carbon dioxide concentration in the 111 intake, ambient and exhaust place respectively.

112 2.2. Experimental data

113 71 running points were conducted at different steady engine load conditions of the 114 operative range of an EURO V engine. Fig. 2 shows the EGR rate as a function of the 115 engine speed and torque, where each circle corresponds to an engine operating point. 116 The range of the operation points was as follows: 1250 to 3750 rpm for engine speed, 117 5 to 317 Nm for engine torque, and 0% to 38% for LP EGR rates. Engine speed 118 Variables at each steady point were obtained from the average of 300 points sampled 119 at 10 Hz. Volumetric efficiency is calculated from:

120
$$\eta_{vol} = \frac{\dot{m}_{total}}{\frac{P_{intake}}{R \cdot T_{intake}} \cdot V_{cyl} \cdot z \cdot \frac{n}{2}}$$
[3]

where P_{intake} and T_{intake} are inlet manifold pressure and temperature respectively, R is the ideal gas constant, V_{cyl} is the cylinder displacement, z is the number of cylinders and *n* is the engine speed. \dot{m}_{total} is the total mass flow rate coming into the cylinders, calculated as:

125
$$\dot{m}_{total} = \dot{m}_{air} + \dot{m}_{egr}$$
 [4]

126
$$\dot{m}_{total} = \dot{m}_{air} + \dot{m}_{air} \cdot \frac{X_{EGR}}{1 - X_{EGR}}$$
 [5]

127
$$\dot{m}_{total} = \frac{\dot{m}_{air}}{1 - X_{EGR}}$$
 [6]

128 **3. ANN model**

129 3.1 ANNs basics

130 An artificial neural network, usually called neural network, is a mathematical model 131 which is inspired by the structure and functional aspects of a biological nervous 132 system. They have been shown to exhibit many abilities, such as learning, 133 generalization and abstraction [20]. The most common network structure used in ANNs 134 is the Multiple Layer Perceptron. MLP network has an input layer, followed by one or 135 more hidden layers and an output layer. Each layer has some artificial neurons (nodes) 136 with their biases (b), a weight matrix (w), and an output vector. A layer of neurons that 137 receives inputs directly from outside the network is called input layer. A layer that 138 produces the output of network is called output layer and layers that are between the 139 input and output layers are called hidden layers [21]. Fig. 3 shows the general layout of 140 an ANN. In the case of a network with one hidden layer the network output is computed 141 according to the following equation, [22, 23].

142
$$f(x_{in_{1}}, x_{in_{2}}, ..., x_{in_{n}}) = \theta(b_{21} + \sum_{m=1}^{M} w_{2m} \cdot \theta(b_{1j} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{1i} \cdot x_{i}))$$
[7]

143 Where x_{in} are the input variables of the model. θ is the neural function, b are the biases 144 of neurons, w are the synaptic weights, x are the outputs of the neural functions, n is 145 the number of input variables of the model and M the number of hidden neurons.

The use of Back Propagation (BP) learning method to train feedforward neural networks has been proven to provide powerful tools for analyzing real world and complex problems [24]. However, the BP learning method has some shortcomings such as slow learning speed associated with computational complexity [24, 25]. BP learning is based on the backward propagation of the updating synaptic weights from the output to the input layer. In this paper a descendent gradient BP with momentum is implemented as learning algorithm. Logistic function is used as neuron. Weights areupdated according to delta rule with momentum [26]:

154
$$\Delta w_{ij}^{t+1} = -\alpha \cdot \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}} + \mu \cdot \Delta w_{ij}^{t}$$
 [8]

where Δw_{ij}^{t+1} is the increase of the ij weight, α the learning rate, μ is the momentum coefficient, Δw_{ij}^{t} is the last weight update and E is the network error function defined as:

157
$$E = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sum_{p=1}^{p} (y_p \cdot o_p)^2$$
 [9]

where *P* is the number of input/output patterns, y_p is the target value of the p-pattern and o_p is the predicted output value of the p-pattern. Delta rule can be obtained as a combination of Eq. [8] and [9]. The final expression, without including the momentum term, is shown in Eq. [10]. It shows the general equation of descendent gradient with backpropagation in a neural network. Its representation in vector notation for a network of *L* layers is expressed as:

164
$$[\Delta w]^{l} = -\alpha \cdot \sum_{p=1}^{p=p} (y_{p} - o_{p}) \cdot \left(\prod_{\substack{k=l\\l < L}}^{k=L} [FW^{k}]_{p} \right) \bigcirc \left(\left[\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right]_{p}^{l} \cdot [x]_{p}^{l} \right)$$
[10]

165 • represents the element-wise product of matrices, also known as Hadamard or
166 Schurd product.

167 *l* is the layer under study in the network.

168 $[FW^k]$ is the matrix obtained at the layer k as:

169
$$\left[FW^k \right] = \left[\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right]^k \cdot [w]^k$$
 [11]

170 $\left[\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z}\right]^{k}$ is the derivate of each neuron function with respect to the net neuron input z, 171 calculated at the layer k.

172 z is the weighted neuron input. For a neuron i of the layer k it is defined as:

173
$$z_i = b_i + \sum_{j=1}^n w_{ij} \cdot x_j$$
 [12]

174 Where b_i is the bias of the neuron *i*, w_{ij} are the weights that connects the neuron *i* with 175 the *n* neurons of the previous layer and x_j is the output of the previous neurons. In the 176 case of the first hidden layer x_j is the input variable of the network.

177 The product operator multiplies all $[FW^k]$ matrices of layers located between the layer 178 l + 1 until the output layer. In case of l = L is defined as the unit.

179 The last term of the Eq. [10], $\left[\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z}\right]^l \cdot [x]^l$, belongs to the layer that is being updated.

180 Neuron biases are calculated by the application of the gradient descendent rule too.

181 The expression of biases, Eq. [13], is quite similar than the weights, Eq. [10].

182
$$[\Delta b]^{l} = -\alpha \cdot \sum_{p=1}^{p=P} (y_{p} - o_{p}) \cdot \left(\prod_{\substack{k=l+1 \ l < L}}^{k=L} [FW^{k}]_{p} \right) \odot \left(\left[\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z} \right]_{p}^{l} \right)$$
[13]

183 3.2 Adaptive learning

184 The learning schema shown in the previous section entails different learning speeds between layers. As the number of hidden layers increases, the term [FW^k] reduces 185 186 because of the logistic neural function derivate is bounded between 0-0.2. This fact 187 drives to the phenomenon named as "vanishing gradient problem" [27, 28]. Vanishing 188 produces lower update velocities in the weights that belong to shallow layers (layers 189 near to the network input). As solution to the different learning speed is proposed an 190 adaptive learning rate fit by means of the layer depth in the network. In this paper, 191 allusions to this adaptive learning rate are referred to as ADDELE (ADaptive DEpth 192 LEarning). The aim of this learning is to make equal the learning speed between layers 193 through the application of different learning rates. Eq. [10] can be written as:

194
$$[\Delta w]^{l} = -\alpha \cdot \sum_{p=1}^{p=p} (y_{p} - o_{p}) \cdot O(h^{L-l})_{p} \odot (O(h)_{p} \cdot [x]^{l}_{p})$$
 [14]

195 Where $O(h^{L-l})$ is the function that represents the product operator and O(h) the $\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial z}$ 196 term of the Eq. [10]. The delta weight function at the hidden layers is expressed as:.

197 $\Delta w^{l} = O(h^{L-l+1})$ [15]

198 In case of the output layer, $0(h^{L-l})_p = 1$, the delta weight expression is reduced to the 199 following equation:

200
$$\Delta w^{L} = O(h)$$
 [16]

Despite the terms $[FW^k]_p$ are not bounded, they usually take values lower than unit, producing the aforementioned vanishing problem at the hidden layers. In order to reduce vanishing, the weight update function of the hidden layer *l*, Eq. [15], is forced to have the same degree as the weight function of the output layer, Eq. [16].

As $O(h^{L-l+1})_p$ is defined by each pattern, the minimum function of the whole patterns is calculated and used as reference function for the adaptive learning calculation:

207
$$O(h^{L-l+1}) = \min\left(\prod_{\substack{k=l+1\\l< L}}^{k=L} [FW^k]_p \cdot \left[\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial z}\right]^l_p\right), p = \{0, 1, 2...P\}$$
[17]

208 Once $O(h^{L-l+1})$ is defined by the network layer, the new learning rate coefficient is 209 calculated at each hidden layer:

210
$$\alpha_L \cdot O(h^{L-l+1})^{\frac{1}{L-l+1}} = \alpha_l \cdot O(h^{L-l+1})$$
 [18]

211
$$\alpha_l = \alpha_L \cdot \frac{O(h^{L-l+1})^{\frac{1}{L-l+1}}}{O(h^{L-l+1})}$$
 [19]

212
$$\alpha_l = \alpha_L \cdot O(h^{L-l+1})^{\frac{l\cdot L}{L-l+1}}$$
 [20]

where α_L is the learning rate of the output layer and α_l is the learning rate of the hidden layer that is under study.

As $O(h^{L-l+1})$ is a function obtained from the minimum of patterns, it can drive, in some conditions, to excessive learning rates. It was observed that too high learning rates, α_l , can be obtained at the first epochs of learning due to the sensibility to the random weight initialization. In order to avoid instabilities the α_l is bounded to 0.5. The learning rate limitation was defined by trial and error procedure. The same procedure can be applied in bias update correction obtaining the same mathematical expression than Eq.[20].

3.3 ANN methodology

In this study a one hidden layer, feed-forward, neural network is implemented. Logisticfunction is used as neuron activation function at the hidden and output layers.

80% of the whole experimental data is used for training the ANN and the other 20% is
used for model validation. The division of data in subsets is randomly obtained
according to cross random validation technique [29].

The input model variables are: engine speed, torque, intake manifold pressure, turbine inlet pressure and intake manifold temperature. Model input variables were selected according to the bibliography available in the field of volumetric efficiency modelling applied to internal combustion engines [15, 17, 23, 30]. Volumetric efficiency is defined as output variable. Variables are normalized according to min-max scaling:

233
$$x_n = \frac{x_i - \min(x)}{\max(x) - \min(x)}$$
 [21]

where x_n is the normalized value of x_i in the range of [0,1].

235 Training process is analyzed by means of the R² coefficient [31], defined as:

236
$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{p=1}^{p=p} (y_p - o_p)^2}{\sum_{p=1}^{p=p} (y_p - \bar{y}_p)^2}$$
 [22]

where y_p is the target value, o_p is the network output of each pattern and \bar{y}_p is the mean of target values.

Validation process is evaluated by the maximum relative error of the 95% of validation
samples, denoted as "error 95" in this paper. In addition the Mean Absolute Percentage
Error (MAPE) is included as validation coefficient [32] and it is defined as:

242 MAPE =
$$\frac{1}{p} \cdot \sum_{P=1}^{p=P} \left| \frac{y_p \cdot o_p}{y_p} \right| \cdot 100$$
 [23]

However, the analysis of validation only by means of MAPE can drive to ANNs withoutliers that would be neglected by this coefficient.

245 ANNs architecture selection is obtained from a parametric study of one hidden layer 246 neural network. The number of hidden neurons covers the range between 6 to 16. The 247 momentum coefficient, Eq. [8], is varied between 0.7 to 0.9. Fixed and adaptive 248 (ADDELE) learning is included as a variable of the parametric study. The risk of 249 overfitting, [33, 34], mainly at high number of epochs as well as high number of 250 neurons, makes necessary to include the early stop technique [35, 36]. The number of 251 training epochs is included in the study in the range of 200 to 15000 epochs. Because 252 of the important computational cost, all available combinations are not tested and the 253 number of different ANNs architectures proposed was 504.

The cross validation procedure for each ANN architecture, defined by the parametric study, is repeated 40 times to reduce random initialization issues. Learning and validation performance is obtained from the average of the 40 ANNs set. Therefore, the total number of ANNs implemented in this parametric study is 20160.

258

4. Results and discussion

ANNs learning performance is represented in Fig. 4 (a-c), for the momentum coefficients of 0.7, 0.8 and 0.9 respectively. Each chart shows the learning capacity (R^2) of both fixed and ADDELE algorithm. R^2 is calculated from the average of the 40 repetitions of each ANN. The scatter of points is interpolated according to the Delaunay triangulation by means of matplotlib programming libraries [37]. The colorbar legend represents the R^2 value at the interpolated surface.

The result of the interpolation shows two different surfaces per chart, where the top surface always belongs to the ADDELE schema. This fact points out the higher learning prediction of ADDELE compared to the fixed learning. The learning R² evolves along the epochs number as increasing monotonic function. The increase in the learning outcome with the number of epochs is notable mainly when the variation of

epochs is done in the low number of epochs zone, as observed by regarding the slope
of the surface between number of epochs and R². The increase of R² with the number
of hidden neurons is noticed too, but with lower impact than the number of epochs.

Regarding the difference between figures due to the momentum term, the higher the
momentum is the better the learning performs. Higher values of R², as well as higher
learning speeds , are obtained with the increase of momentum.

276 However, the ANNs performance cannot be analyzed only by means of the learning 277 outcome. Both learning and validation performance have to be analyzed together. Fig. 278 5 shows the relation between learning and validation of the whole ANN set formed by 279 the 504 different networks. Each mark in the chart represents the average learning R² 280 and error 95 (Error 95) of the 40 repeated networks. According to the figure, as it was shown in Fig. 4, it is obtained higher learning R² with ADDELE, compared to the fixed 281 282 learning. ADDELE increases the velocity of learning and therefore, for the same 283 network architecture, ANNs with higher R² are obtained. In addition to the learning 284 speed it is remarkable the tendency observed between learning and validation 285 performance. As the learning capacity increases the validation error (error 95) 286 increases too. This tendency is the proof of the overfitting phenomenon, where 287 accuracy and generalization are faced. This outcome matches the conclusions 288 obtained by several researchers [38, 39].

The ANNs selection is a tradeoff between the learning and validation performance. In order to carry out this selection an objective function that relates both coefficients, R^2 and error 95, is defined. The objective function, named as Normalized Error Function (NEF), represents the global error of both learning and validation. NEF is calculated by each ANN (denoted as NEF_i) that has a R^2 higher than 0.75 with the expression:

294 NEF_i=
$$C_{R2} \cdot (1 - R_{norm_i}^2) + (1 - C_{R2}) \cdot E_{norm_i}^{95} R_i^2 \ge 0.75$$
 [24]

where C_{R2} is the weight of the learning term, bounded between 0 – 1. $R_{norm_i}^2$ and $E_{norm_i}^{95}$ are the normalized R^2 and error 95 respectively by each ANN:

297
$$R_{norm_i}^2 = \frac{R_i^2 - \min([R^2])}{\max([R^2]) - \min([R^2])}$$
 [25]

298
$$E_{norm_i}^{95} = \frac{E_i^{95} - \min([E^{95}])}{\max([E^{95}]) - \min([E^{95}])}$$
 [26]

where R_i^2 is the determination coefficient by ANN and $[R^2]$ is the vector of R_i^2 that are higher than 0.75. E_i^{95} is the error 95 of each ANN validation and $[E^{95}]$ is a vector of E_i^{95} of ANNs whose R_i^2 are higher than 0.75.

302 The C_{R2} coefficient of the objective function NEF is fitted to 0.4 in order to give more 303 importance to the generalization capacity of neural networks.

304 Table 2 shows the best 5 ANNs architectures of the whole simulated set. The first two 305 ANNs at the top of that table show similar NEF values. The first one with the ADDELE 306 schema while the second with the fixed algorithm. Despite similar global performance 307 is achieved, the number of hidden neurons as well as the number of learning epochs 308 needed in case of ADDELE is significantly lower than the fixed learning. Learning 309 calculation time depends on the number of training epochs as well as on the number of 310 mathematical operations performed per epoch. The calculation time is proportional to 311 the number of learning epochs because of the calculation time by epoch remains 312 constant during the training process. Regarding the mathematical operations by epoch, 313 they can be divided in sums, products and neuron function evaluations. According to 314 the backpropagation learning, Eq.[10] and Eq.[13], the weights and biases update 315 requires firstly an evaluation of the network output and then, the application of the 316 chain rule from the output layer to the network layer where the weight under update is 317 placed.

The number of operations to evaluate the output of an ANN model is defined by the number of hidden layers, neurons and model input variables. In the case of one hidden layer neural networks with one neuron at the output layer the number of both sums and multiplications is as follows:

[27]

322 $\chi_{+} = \chi_{x} = (n+1) \cdot M$

Where χ_+ and χ_x represent the number of sums and multiplications, n is the number of inputs to the network and M is the number of hidden neurons. The number of neurons function evaluations is:

326
$$\chi_N = M + 1$$
 [28]

327 Where χ_N is the number of neuron function evaluations. From the sum of the three kind 328 of operations is obtained:

329
$$\chi_T = 2 \cdot (n+1) \cdot M + (M+1)$$
 [29]

Where χ_T represents the total number of operations for network output calculation. As the number of inputs is not modified between the different ANN performed in this paper, the total number of operations can be expressed as a function only dependent on the number of hidden neurons. In the particular case of six input variables the total number of operations for network output evaluation can be expressed as:

$$335 \quad \chi_T = 15 \cdot M + 1 \tag{30}$$

The number of operations per layer carried out by the application of the chain rule to update the weights and biases in a one hidden layer network can be expressed as:

338	$\chi_x = \sum_{l=1}^{l=L-1} (L - l + 2) \cdot M_{l-1} \cdot M_l$	Weights.	[31]

339	$\chi_x = \sum_{l=1}^{l=L-1} (L-l+1) \cdot M_l$	Biases.	[32]

Where *L* is the total number of layers in the network (input, hidden and output), *l* is the layer number where the weight is placed, *M* is the number of neurons in a layer. The learning rate used for weight velocity update control is included in the above expressions. In the case presented in this paper a six input neurons networks is propose, so the total number of operations according to the chain rule required by the backpropagation technique is:

$$346 \qquad \chi_T = 32 \cdot M \tag{33}$$

The above expression is slightly higher in case of the ADDELE learning application,
because of the learning rate (α) has to be calculated by layer at each training epoch.
The number of multiplications in the case of ADDELE learning is:

350 $\chi_T = 32 \cdot M + 2$ [34]

351 Considering the Eq [30], Eq [33] and Eq [34] the total amount of operations is as 352 follows.

353 $\chi_{\text{learning}} = 47 \cdot M + 1$ Fixed learning [35] 354 $\chi_{\text{learning}} = 47 \cdot M + 3$ ADDELE learning [36]

In case of neural networks with 6 hidden neurons or more the above expressions canbe approximated, with an error lower than 1%, to:

[37]

357
$$\chi_{\text{learning}} = 47 \cdot M$$

358 Therefore, the calculation time can be considered as proportional to the number of 359 hidden neurons and epochs.

Comparing the two best ANN, placed at the top of the Table 2, the total reduction of time by using the ADDELE algorithm is 57%. With the ADDELE algorithm the number of learning epochs has been reduced to the half and the number of hidden neurons have been reduced in two. So, taking into account the lower complexity and calculation time of the ADDELE ANN, it is selected as the optimal network.

The performance of the selected network, 6-12-1 topology, momentum=0.9, learning epochs=6000 with ADDELE algorithm, is shown in Fig. 6, 7, 8 and 9. The best fixed ANN learning (6-14-1 topology, momentum=0.9, learning epochs=12000) is included in the charts too.

Fig. 6 is a goodness of fit chart where network outcomes of the training data are plotted against the respective target values. Dotted lines represent the 5% relative error above and below the measured value. Higher dispersion is observed in case of fixed learning schema, which shows higher amount of points that are closer or outside the boundary

373 of the 5% relative error. In Fig. 7 the validation goodness of fit is depicted. The network 374 makes predictions of data that have not been shown during the learning process and 375 therefore the accuracy of prediction reduces. The coefficient of determination in the 376 case of validation data is 0.3 for both fixed and adaptive learning algorithms. The 377 reason of this low fitting value is twofold: on one hand, is caused by the low range of 378 the target variable since the volumetric efficiency is constrained to values between 379 0.73-1 with high density of points (50% of total data) between 0.8-0.9. The lower the 380 natural variability is the higher the accuracy of a model has to be in order to obtain high 381 determination coefficients. On the other hand, the complex non linear relation between 382 the input variables and the volumetric efficiency makes difficult the validation process. 383 For getting higher determination coefficients the data sample size for the training 384 process would need to be significantly higher, which for internal combustion engines 385 experimental testing involves high cost on laboratory measurements.

386 Fig. 8 shows the distribution of the relative error in ANN validation. The histogram error 387 roughly meets the characteristic normal distribution in both learning schemas: fixed and 388 ADDELE. Anomalous pattern is observed at the positive tail edge of the normal 389 distribution, where the error is the highest and reaches the 25%. The worst 390 performance of both models occurs in the same experimental point. The poor 391 prediction at this point is observed in the different repetitions of ANNs. These two facts 392 drive to consider this experimental point as an outlier because the high prediction error 393 has no dependency on the model features. The prediction error without considering the 394 aforementioned outlier is shown in Fig. 9 where the error pattern fits better to the 395 normal distribution and the maximum error is reduced to around 20%.

396 **5.** Conclusions

397 The application of a neural network method to predict the volumetric efficiency in a 398 diesel engine has been examined. Experimental data of an engine map were used as 399 input variables. Measurement points were carried out at steady state conditions.

400 A cross validation methodology based on the minimization of an objective function was401 proposed. The learning and validation performance was analyzed together.

402 An adaptive learning algorithm based on the application of different learning rates 403 between network layers as a way to enhance the learning network speed was 404 proposed. The results of the optimization procedure showed that ADDELE 405 architectures performs with higher learning speed without sacrificing prediction capacity 406 than fixed networks.

Despite vanishing phenomenon has higher impact on deep neural networks, the effect
on learning speed is remarkable even in the architecture of one hidden layer analyzed
in this paper. The learning acceleration through ADDELE drives to lower computational
costs and lower network complexities.

The maximum generalization error of the neural network, according to the validation analysis, was bounded to around 13% with an average relative error of 5.5%. The learning coefficient of determination was 85%.

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543 Appendix A. tables.

544 **Table 1**

545 Engine specifications.

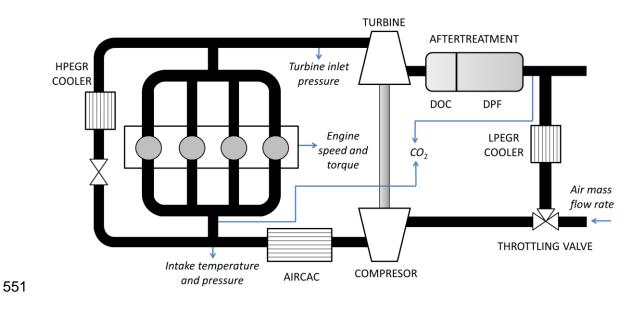
Cylinder number	In-line 4
Bore x stroke (mm)	80 x 79.5
Displacement (cm3)	1598
Compression ratio	15.4:1
Valve number	16
Valvetrain	Double cam shaft over head
Fuel delivery system	Common rail. Direct injection.
EGR system	HP and LP cooled EGR
Intake boosting	Turbocharger with VGT
Maximum power (kW/rpm)	96/4000
Maximum torque (Nm/rpm)	320/1750
Torque at maximum power (Nm)	315
Specific power (kW/liter)	60.86

Table 2.

Hidden	Momentum	Epochs	R ²	Error 95	MAPE	Learning	NEF
neurons				(%)	(%)	algorithm	
12	0.90	6000	0.85	12.92	5.52	ADDELE	0.333
14	0.90	12000	0.79	12.01	4.95	FIXED	0.340
14	0.70	9000	0.77	11.68	5.06	ADDELE	0.351
8	0.80	15000	0.80	12.26	5.29	ADDELE	0.356
16	0.90	7000	0.89	13.86	5.8	ADDELE	0.360

548 Parametric study outcome. Ranking of ANNs by NEF

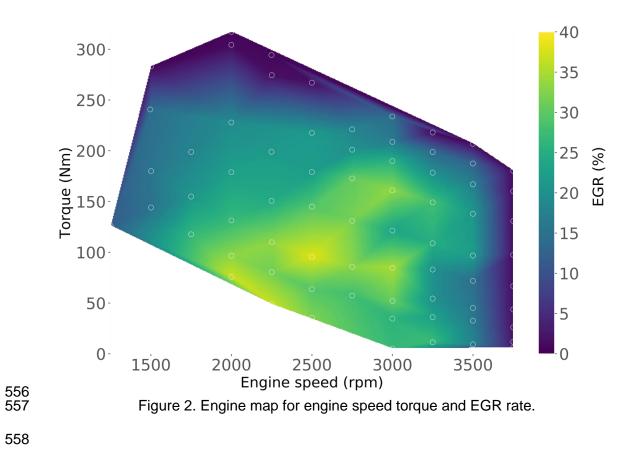
550 Appendix B. Figures.



552 Figure 1. Engine layout. In capital letters the main components of the engine are

553 indicated. In italics and pointed with blue arrows the measured operative engine

554 variables used as model inputs are denoted.



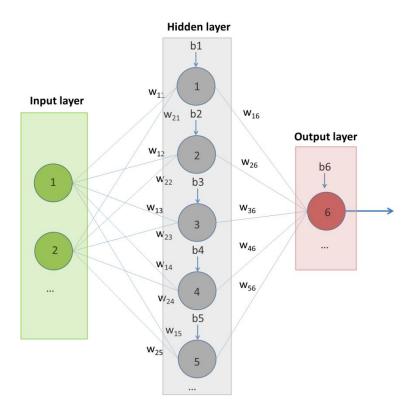


Figure 3. ANN general layout.

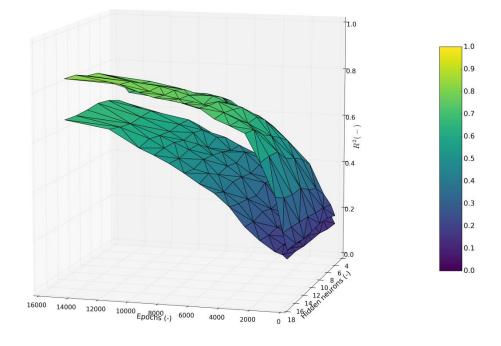






Figure 4(a). ANNs learning outcome for moment term of 0.7.

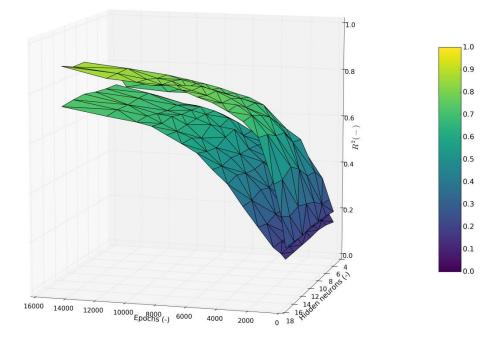






Figure 4(b). ANNs learning outcome for moment term of 0.8.

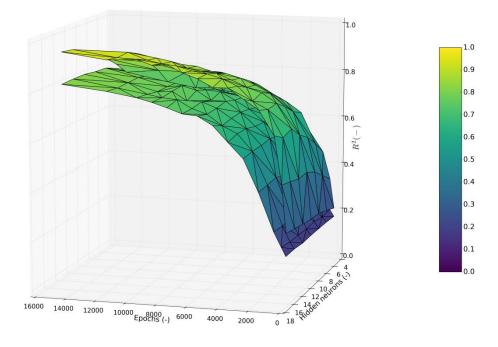
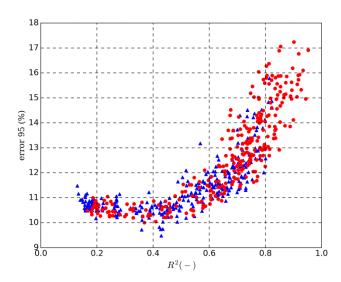






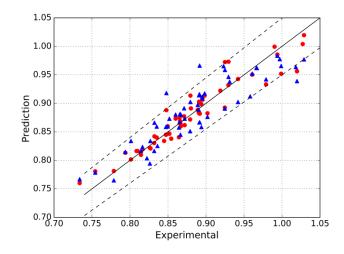
Figure 4(c). ANNs learning outcome for moment term of 0.9.



568

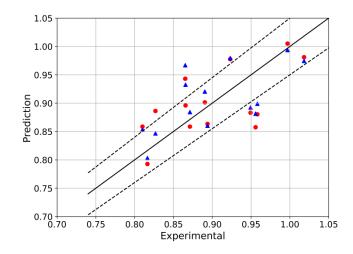
569 Figure 5. Parametric study. Validation (error 95) and learning (R²) of the different

570 ANNs. In red circles adaptive learning (ADDELE), in blue triangles fixed learning.



571

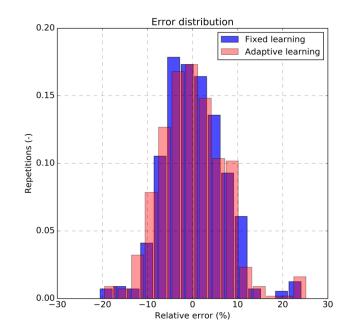
572 Figure 6. Predicted and measured volumetric efficiency. In red circles ADDELE 573 algorithm. In blue triangles fixed learning schema.



574

575 Figure 7. Predicted and measured volumetric efficiency validation data. In red circles

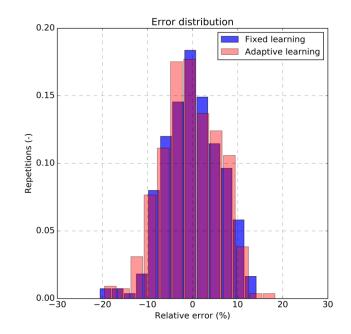
576 ADDELE algorithm. In blue triangles fixed learning schema.





579 Figure 8. Validation relative error distribution of the whole validation sample. In red

580 ADDELE algorithm. In blue fixed learning.





582 Figure 9. Validation relative error distribution without including the outlier value. In red

583 ADDELE algorithm. In blue fixed learning.