

Fuel-efficient driving in the context of urban waste-collection: a Spanish case study

Jerónimo Franco González^a, Antonio Gallardo Izquierdo^b, Florian Commans^a, Mar Carlos^{b*}

a. R&D Department, Sociedad Anónima Agricultores de la Vega de Valencia (SAV), Plaça de Tetuán 1, València, 46003, Spain

b. Dept. Mechanical Engineering and Construction. Jaume I University, Avenida de Vicent Sos Baynat s/n, Castelló de la Plana, 12071, Spain

*Corresponding author

Abstract

While diesel use represents one of the most important costs of the waste-collection process, the impact of eco-driving practices in this context has been surprisingly little addressed so far. Here, we present the results obtained by implementing eco-driving through the installation of in-board driving-assistance devices in a Spanish waste-collection fleet. Driving parameters and diesel use were monitored for over a year on 67 vehicles. An average fuel consumption decrease of 7.45 % was observed, ranging from 1.86 % to 11.50 % according to the type of vehicle and to its waste-collection mechanism. Waste-transfer trucks that were not performing stop-and-go cycles displayed the highest values of fuel savings. In addition, eco-driving benefits obtained through real-time feedback did not tend to get lost over time, as fuel consumption remained remarkably steady. An average difference of only -0.45 % between the first and the last month of monitoring was observed. After 14 months, an economic and environmental assessment of eco-driving implementation in the fleet was carried out. Nearly 120,000 liters of diesel were economized, leading to substantial financial savings and to a significant exhaust emission decrease that was theoretically quantified in terms of CO₂, CO, HC, NO_x and PM. Overall, our results tend to show a highly positive environmental and economic impact of fuel-efficient driving in the waste-collection context.

28 **Keywords**

29 Eco-driving; waste-collection; refuse trucks; real-time feedback; fuel savings

30

31 **1. Introduction**

32 Road traffic is by far one of the largest contributors to the massive daily release of greenhouse
33 gas (GHG) and to overall atmospheric pollution. In particular, heavy-duty vehicles such as trucks,
34 buses or refuse lorries represent only a small fraction of the vehicle population (< 5 % in many
35 countries), but account for a major part of total exhaust emissions (Wagner and Rutherford, 2013).
36 Currently, most of heavy-duty fleets are still equipped with diesel engines due to their high
37 efficiency, durability, reliability and low-operation costs (Reşitoğlu et al, 2014). Diesel emissions
38 are therefore considered as one of the main actors responsible of atmospheric pollution and global
39 carbon dioxide emissions. Moreover, they are a source of major health concerns due to their
40 adverse effects on the human body. The main pollutants arising from diesel engine exhaust gas
41 are carbon dioxide (CO₂), carbon monoxide (CO), fine particulate matter (PM), nitrogen oxides
42 (NO_x) and hydrocarbons (HC), originating either from incomplete fuel oxidation or from
43 oxidation of non-combustible species (Khair and Majewski, 2006).

44 In this context, ecological considerations and rising fuel prices have led to worldwide initiatives
45 to decrease fuel consumption. One of the main initiatives that have emerged so far is the concept
46 of “eco-driving”, also called “fuel-efficient driving”. It relates to the adoption of driving habits
47 that are environment-friendly due to their lower energy consumption. Sivak and Schoettle (2012)
48 have classified eco-driving decisions in three categories: strategic (choice and maintenance of the
49 vehicle), tactical (efficient loading and routing) and operational (on-road driving habits that
50 influence consumption). Since the driving behavior has a significant impact on global
51 consumption, one of the main goals of eco-driving research is to identify the habits that lead to
52 greater fuel inefficiencies. Typically, events such as idling, harsh-braking, late change of gears,
53 unnecessary acceleration or speeding will be representative of non-efficient driving style, coming
54 along a higher fuel consumption and environmental impact. On the other side, actions such as
55 cruising at low speed, limiting stop-and-go cycles or driving in a non-aggressive fashion can

56 significantly decrease energy use. In general, it is advised to drivers to drive smoothly, to look
 57 ahead and anticipate changes in traffic and environment, to optimize the revolution per minute
 58 (RPM) range of the engine, and to skip gears as soon as possible (Barkenbus, 2010; Symmons et
 59 al., 2009).

60 Eco-driving is often considered as a low-cost and immediate measure to improve fuel efficiency.
 61 It is highly complex to assess the real effects of fuel-efficient practices on the road network global
 62 level, in relation to traffic flow and external conditions. However, eco-driving individual benefits
 63 on fuel consumption have been extensively studied in previous literature, especially in light-duty
 64 vehicles (cars), freight transportation (heavy-duty trucks) and passenger public transportation
 65 (buses). Surprisingly, its impact on the sector of waste management, and in particular on the
 66 waste-collection process, has been little assessed so far. To fully address the potential benefits of
 67 its implementation in this context, published literature about the application and impact of eco-
 68 driving is reviewed here briefly. The results of a few studies focusing mainly on the improvement
 69 of fuel consumption in different categories of vehicles (light-duty, heavy-duty or buses) are
 70 presented in Table 1, providing insights about the range of fuel economy decreases that can be
 71 expected from eco-driving implementation. Only research carried out in real-world conditions
 72 were considered; simulations and theoretical models were excluded. The type of implementation
 73 is specified, along with some indicators about the relevance and the statistical significance
 74 (number of vehicles/drivers and time of monitoring). The database used to make table 1 were
 75 Science Direct and Scopus. In the search, the main key words used were: fuel savings,
 76 eco-driving, diesel emissions, CAN-bus interface, fuel efficient, driver behaviour and on-
 77 board eco-driving.

78 Table 1. Literature review: impact of eco-driving practices on fuel consumption

Authors	Year	Implementation type	Number of vehicles/drivers	Monitoring time	Decrease of fuel consumption (%)
<i>Cars/Light-Duty Vehicles</i>					
Wang and Boggio-Marzet	2018	Training (T+P)	6 (+ 6 CG)	2 months	6.3
Barla et al.	2017	Training	45 (+ 14 CG)	1 year	2.9 (city) - 4.6 (highway)
Jeffreys et al.	2015	Training (T+P)	853 (+ 203 CG)	> 7 months	4.6
Ho et al.	2015	Training	116	1 day (2 trips)	15.72
Rolim et al.	2014	Training (T)	9 (+ 11 CG)	4-6 months	4.8

Dib et al.	2014	Real-time feedback	not specified	1 day (2 trips)	14.1
Caulfield et al.	2014	Real-time feedback	9	8 months (+ 2 months C)	8.85
Larue et al.	2014	Real-time feedback	1 (13 drivers)	1 day (2 trips)	7
Vagg et al.	2013	Real-time feedback	15	2 weeks (+ 2 weeks C)	7.6
Rutty et al.	2013	Training	14 (64 drivers)	~ 6 months (+ 6 months C)	8
Rionda et al.	2012	Real-time feedback	150	6 weeks	10
Andrieu et al.	2012	Training (or simple advices)	39	1 day (2 trips)	11.3 (training) - 12.5 (advices)
Boriboonsomsin	2010	Real-time feedback	20	2 weeks	6
Beusen et al.	2009	Training (T+P)	10	10 months	5.8
Barth et Boriboonsomsin	2009	Real-time feedback*	not specified	not specified	13
<i>Trucks/Heavy-Duty Vehicles</i>					
Goes et al.	2019	Training	11 (22 drivers)	3 months	0.8 - 7.1
Zavalko	2018	Training	10	3 months	13.6 - 4 (after 3 months)
Ayyildiz et al.	2017	Training	15	2 months (+ 2 months C)	5.94
Diaz-Ramirez et al.	2017	Training	18	2 months (+ 2 months C)	6.8
Schall et al.	2016	Training (only T)	91	6 months	no significant effect
<i>Buses/Passenger Transportation Vehicles</i>					
Huertas et al.	2017	Real-time feedback**	1	1 week	9.6
Sullman et al.	2015	Training	29 (+ 18 CG)	1,5 month (+ 1.5 month C)	11.6
Lai	2015	Reward system	116 (+ 105 CG)	6 months (+ 6 months C)	10.1
Strömberg and Karlsson	2013	Training or Real-time feedback	54	6 weeks	6.8
Zarkadoula et al.	2007	Training	2	2 months	10.2 - 4.35 (after 2 months)
af Wahlberg	2007	Training (+ Real-time feedback)	28	12 months	2 (training) - 4 (feedback)

T = Theoretical; P = Practical; C = Control; CG = Control Group

* feedback combined with newly developed eco-routing software, integrating information from external conditions and from other users on the road

** feedback combined with eco-routing, optimized for a single road only, indicating optimal speed and RPM for each km section

79

80 Typically, eco-driving will be implemented either through driver training courses or through the
81 installation of an in-vehicle driving assistance system. Training courses are most of time provided
82 as a combination of theoretical and practical lessons, which are mandatory to lead to tangible
83 results. On the other side, driving-assistance devices monitor engine parameters and integrate data
84 from telemetry equipment to provide real-time feedback to the drivers about their driving
85 behavior. It helps them to become aware of their non-efficient driving habits (such as idling,
86 speeding, unnecessary accelerations or late gear changes). The feedback can take many different
87 forms, such as a GPS tablet, a smartphone application, any kind of visual and/or audio signals, or
88 even a vibrating pedal or steering wheel. Ideally, the device should minimize the distraction of
89 the driver while still providing efficient assistance for greener driving habits (Gonder et al., 2012).
90 Interestingly, Table 1 reveals a high variability of results, since each study displays different types
91 of vehicles (i.e. cars, trucks, buses), of roads (i.e. highway, city, rural), of external conditions (i.e.

92 density of traffic, weather, temperature) and of implementation strategies. In general, fuel
93 consumption decreases range between 5 and 15 % shortly after implementation, even though
94 higher values have already been reported (reviewed in: Huang et al., 2018; Alam and McNabola,
95 2014). However, many studies assessing driving improvement fail to consider its impact on the
96 long-term. Many trained drivers have been shown to gradually revert to their old driving styles,
97 and to lose their motivation maintaining efficient habits over time (Degraeuwe and Beusen, 2013).
98 As observed in Table 1, the values of fuel savings tend to be significantly lower when the
99 monitoring time is higher, strengthening the idea that eco-driving might lose efficiency over time.
100 Most of high values of fuel decrease (>10 %) were obtained when the monitoring took place on
101 a single day (Ho et al., 2015; Dib et al., 2014; Andrieu et al., 2012; Barth and Boriboonsomsin,
102 2009). As the methodology is typically to monitor a vehicle on a specific trip performed twice
103 (once before and once after eco-driving training or feedback device is provided), it is likely that
104 drivers are able to achieve such decreases on a single trip through enhanced awareness, but would
105 not maintain them on the long run. An illustration of this tendency is also provided by Zavalko
106 (2018) and by Zarkadoula et al. (2007), who both monitored high fuel saving values (13.6 % and
107 10.2 %, respectively) straight after training, but whose values fell down to about 4% only two or
108 three months later. The gradual loss of efficiency could be due to factors such as driver's fatigue,
109 boredom or lack of maintenance through regular courses. In addition to lower values of fuel
110 economy, eco-driving has been reportedly implicated with several other benefits: financial
111 savings, less pollution, better vehicle maintenance, societal gains related to more relaxed driving,
112 diminution of the number of accidents (Gonder et al., 2012). The substantial fuel saving
113 opportunities have attracted the interest of many road transportation actors. Numerous eco-driving
114 initiatives have been promoted in the last few years, and massive campaigns of awareness have
115 been led by official institutions, leading to better general knowledge in the public. New fleet
116 management programs focusing on route optimization and driving behavior improvement have
117 been developed, and many freight operators have invested in training courses for their drivers
118 (Luque-Rodríguez, 2015). Despite this growing interest, the impact of fuel-efficient driving in the
119 waste-collection process is still little-known. This is paradoxical because the amounts of fuel used

120 by refuse trucks are particularly high, and diesel-use during municipal solid waste (MSW)
121 collection represents therefore one of the most important costs associated to waste-management
122 (Larsen et al., 2009). Even though new technologies such as more efficient biofuels, gas-engines
123 or electrical vehicles are gradually being implemented, virtually all the present-day refuse trucks
124 are still powered by diesel engines. Moreover, these trucks operate in particular conditions which
125 could be considered as extreme parameters. They drive at very low average speeds in highly
126 congested urban environment, and perform constant stop-and-go cycles to pick-up the disposal
127 bins, resulting in a high frequency of acceleration, braking and idling events (Giechaskiel et al.,
128 2019). Classic rear or side loaders typically make 400 to 1200 stops a day, and most refuse trucks
129 include in addition a compaction system using the power take-off (PTO) to reduce the volume of
130 the trash collected. These two features explain why the relative fuel consumption of refuse trucks
131 is so elevated (Fontaras et al., 2012). Implementation of fuel-efficient driving would therefore be
132 particularly relevant in this context. However, most research related to sustainable waste-
133 collection has focused only on the development of smart route planning to optimize the collection
134 route according to the localization and filling-level of the disposal bins (Lozano, 2018; Mamun,
135 2014). Even though eco-driving has been reported multiple times as an efficient way to reduce
136 energy use in various road-transportation sectors, it is still unclear whether its effects could be
137 observed as well under the very specific waste-collection operating conditions.

138 So far, only a study by Goes et al. (2019) directly addressed the impact of eco-driving in a waste-
139 collection fleet. They observed an average fuel economy decrease ranging from 0.8 % to 7.1 %
140 after 22 drivers were trained in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil (Table 1). Even though such results bring
141 in substantial economic and environmental benefits when considering the mileage of the entire
142 fleet, the fuel decrease values they observed with bin-picking trucks (0.8 %) were below the
143 average of the typical eco-driving range of benefits. Here, our work shows a different approach
144 implementing eco-driving through an in-vehicle feedback device instead of training courses, on
145 a waste-collecting fleet in the city of Valencia, Spain. In addition, a bigger sample of trucks (67
146 trucks) belonging to different vehicle categories were monitored for over a year. We also
147 performed a short economic and environmental assessment of eco-driving implementation in the

148 fleet. Overall, our results provide additional insights about the relevance of eco-driving to
149 decrease the ecological footprint of the waste-collection process.

150 **2. Materials and Methods**

151 In this study, we analyze the impact of eco-driving practices on fuel consumption in 67 refuse
152 trucks monitored for over a year. These trucks were part of the fleet of the private waste-collection
153 company SAV (Sociedad Anónima Agricultores de la Vega de Valencia), responsible of waste-
154 collection operations in different cities of the region of Valencia and Alicante (Spain). It must be
155 taken into account that the collection routes as well as the staff didn't vary along the period
156 studied. However, if a different person managed the collection truck (due to a time off work or a
157 rest day), we didn't take into account those days to establish the indicators. This is easy to do as
158 the system allows us to turn on or turn off the efficient driving system. If an electro-mechanic
159 failure that could distort the data occurred, the alarms turned on and it allowed us to check the
160 equipment or the trucks.

161 Eco-driving practices were implemented through the installation of driving-assistance in-board
162 devices, providing real-time feedback about the driving behavior through non-intrusive lights and
163 acoustic signals. This information was obtained through a connection to the CAN-bus system of
164 the vehicle, which integrates a wide range of telemetry signals and driving parameters provided
165 by various engine sensors. No theoretical nor practical training courses were provided to the
166 drivers. However, after the hidden mode, in several training workshops, drivers were informed
167 about their personal driving mistakes and they discussed about the way to avoid them. In the
168 workshops, the *RIBAS* system was explained as well as its optimum operating parameters. Once
169 the *RIBAS* system was implemented, it creates a continuous learning role about efficient driving
170 as the lights and acoustic signals emitted in each non efficient driving event establishes guidelines
171 that the driver finally assumes. Fuel consumption was monitored before and after installation of
172 the feedback devices in different types of waste-collecting trucks, and the gains in fuel efficiency
173 were related to the improvement of eco-driving behavior.

174 *2.1 Waste-collecting vehicles*

175 To gain representative insights of fuel consumption in a broad range of real-life situations, five
 176 different types of waste-collecting vehicles were selected for this study: rear automatic loaders,
 177 side automatic loaders, crane-assisted loaders, “Easy-system” bilateral loaders and waste-transfer
 178 trucks.

179 The four first categories are refused trucks designed to collect the waste at multiple points in the
 180 city and to haul it to the treatment plant. All these vehicles perform stop-and-go cycles, but they
 181 use specific mechanisms to pick up the bins along their route and display distinct operating
 182 parameters (such as RPM, bin-picking time, maximum load or PTO-use). The rear loaders and
 183 the side loaders (74.62% of the total trucks) represent the majority of the vehicles that were
 184 monitored. These are the classic refuse trucks with which a single driver is able to complete a
 185 pick-up event in less than one minute of idling. Rear-loaders display an opening at the back of the
 186 truck, while side loaders are filled laterally. Both types include a joystick-controlled robotic arm
 187 used to automatically empty the containers. Crane-assisted and “Easy-system” trucks are both
 188 using cranes to lift the bins, which typically requires a longer time. The “Easy-system” is an
 189 automatized bilateral arm while the classic crane has to be hooked manually to the bin by a second
 190 operator. Finally, the waste-transfer trucks do not properly collect trash, but only transfer it from
 191 a point to another (typically to the landfill or to the disposal plant). Unlike all the other vehicles,
 192 they do not perform any stop-and-go driving cycles.

193 The fleet displays a high heterogeneity regarding to the engines model, age or efficiency.
 194 Therefore, substantial differences are to be expected between the relative fuel consumptions of
 195 the trucks, even while performing identical tasks on the same itinerary. Moreover, external
 196 parameters such as tire pressure are also likely to influence that consumption.

197 The number of trucks of each category that were equipped with the driving-assistance devices are
 198 given in Table 2. In total, 67 vehicles were monitored for 15 months.

199
 200

Table 2. Quantity, description and theoretical bin-picking time of the different types of trucks monitored

Type	Quantity	Function	Description	Bin-picking time (s)
Rear loaders	20	Collection	Automatic bin-lift on the posterior part	50
Side loaders	30	Collection	Automatic bin-lift on the lateral part	50
Crane-assisted loaders	10	Collection	Manual crane with double hook	250
"Easy-system" bilateral loaders	2	Collection	Automatic crane with bilateral robotic arm	180

Waste-transfer trucks	5	Transfer	Transfer to the treatment/disposal plant	n.a.
Total	67			

201

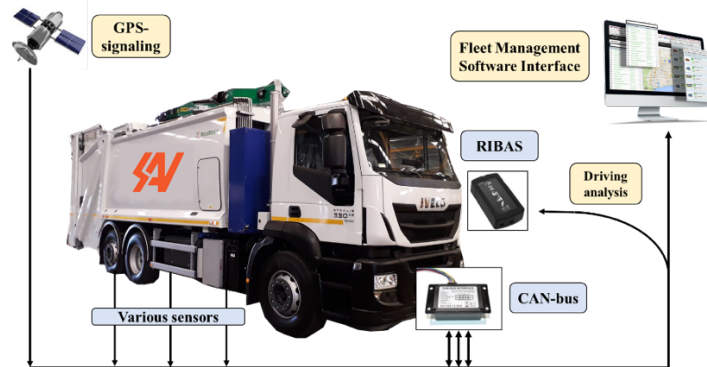
202 *2.2 Data monitoring & real-time feedback*

203 Implementation of eco-driving was carried out through the installation of real-time driving-
204 assistance devices in the cabs of the trucks. As many solutions existed on the market, the software
205 “*Fleet Management*” from the company *MiX Telematics* was chosen, because it was emphasizing
206 mostly on driving behavior improvement thanks to the associated feedback device called *RIBAS*.
207 This device integrates information coming from the engine, from various sensors and from
208 telemetry signals (GPS-signaling) to provide indications and suggestions about the driving. It is
209 a small display using color lights with a simple code of symbols and acoustic signals, designed to
210 be non-intrusive and to keep the driver focused on the road. Five LED indicators illustrate
211 different non-efficient driving events: over-**R**evving, excessive **I**dling, harsh **B**raking, harsh
212 **A**cceleration and over-**S**peeding (*RIBAS*). The lights stay green as long as the driving is optimal.
213 However, it turns to orange if the driver is getting close to the limit of one parameter, and to red
214 with an alert sound when that limit is reached. It helps the driver to adopt a greener behavior
215 featuring less idling, smoother acceleration and braking, and lower speed. The limit value of each
216 variable depends on several factors such as the type of service, the orography, the truck engine or
217 the category of truck (rear, side, crane-assisted and “Easy-system”). Therefore, for each case, a
218 customized combination of values was selected.

219 *RIBAS* devices use data provided by a hardware sensor connected to the CAN-bus port of the
220 engine, responsible to monitor a wide range of driving parameters, including fuel consumption,
221 revolutions per minute, odometer, acceleration, torque, fuel levels, PTO time and engine
222 temperature. The CAN-bus interface used in this study was the model *Fm3306 (FM Tracer)*, also
223 from the company *MiX Telematics*. A USB-key was used to identify the drivers associated to each
224 ride and to control access to the vehicles. The software “*Fleet Management*”, associated to the
225 *Fm3306*, was used to visualize all the trips performed by each vehicle, along with the associated
226 driving data. The global organization of all the components used to monitor the trucks and to

227 provide driving-assistance are schematized in Figure 1. This experimental set-up was installed in
228 the 67 vehicles described in Table 2.

229



230

231

Figure 1. Truck and Fleet Management Software.

232 2.3 Methodology of the data collection process

233 The experimental part took place for 15 months in 67 waste-collecting vehicles of the SAV waste-
234 collection fleet. At first, the installation of CAN-bus sensors in the engines was concealed and
235 drivers were not warned that their parameters would be monitored, to avoid any modification of
236 their driving style. This period was referred to as the *hidden mode*, and lasted for about four
237 weeks. This first month allowed to get an accurate estimation of the reference diesel consumption
238 of each vehicle before any eco-driving practice was implemented. The system can provide daily
239 data but due to operational reasons, we decided to log the data monthly. However, some alarms
240 were set in order to register excessive daily values which allowed to detect some electromechanics
241 failures. Therefore, a monthly consumption data for each truck was calculated (in l/100km) taking
242 into account the monthly consumption of fuel and the distance traveled in km.

243 Next, drivers were informed about the experiment, and *RIBAS* devices were installed in the trucks,
244 divided in the five categories described in Table 2. Driving parameters and fuel consumption were
245 monitored on all trips during 14 additional months while the drivers were using the driving-
246 assistance feedback to acquire fuel-efficient practices. The monthly average diesel use was
247 obtained for all the vehicles, and the global average consumption was then calculated from the 14
248 months data set. The values were compared to the reference diesel consumption obtained during
249 the hidden mode, and the difference of fuel use was determined in percent from these two results.

250 Any positive percentage was assumed to be related to the installation of the *RIBAS* device and
251 hence to an improvement of the driving behavior.

252 Additionally, meetings were organized with the drivers to get constructive feedback and to assess
253 the progress of the fleet. The workshop was and is key to achieve the aims of fuel and emissions
254 reduction. The meetings were held every 3 months but if some incidence was detected (as
255 excessive driving errors or extra fuel consumption), more personal meetings were convened.
256 Drivers were called altogether and they were asked to share their personal driving data with the
257 rest of work colleagues (and it was always accepted). Each case was shown and analyzed and at
258 the end of the meeting a space for discussion was opened where the drivers shared efficient driving
259 experiences. In these spaces the drivers' opinions were taken into account to make possible
260 modifications and incidents were collected in order to assist to maintenance tasks. It was essential
261 to show the drivers their driving historic sheet and their actual data as it motivated them to
262 improve the indicator each three months. Finally, it is important to remark that the 3 best drivers
263 were awarded with a certificate, they had an extra payroll and it was promoted through social
264 networks.

265 *2.4. Data analysis*

266 Statistical tests were carried out to evaluate differences between datasets regarding their central
267 tendencies (means) and variances. The following tests were applied:

- 268 • Shapiro-Wilk test. Used to check the normality of a dataset.
- 269 • Paired t-test. It is applied when the dataset is not normally distributed.
- 270 • Paired Wilconson test. It is applied when the dataset is not normally.

271 In this case study, it was considered that the data set “Reference fuel consumption” and “Fuel
272 Consumption” are two paired datasets, as they use the same trucks before and after using the
273 *RIBAS* device.

274 All the tests were carried out using the program R commander©. A level of significance (α) of
275 0.05 was considered.

276 **3. Results & Discussion**

277 *3.1 Fuel consumption decrease following eco-driving implementation*

278 The average and standard deviation (SD) fuel consumption of the waste-collecting fleet over the
279 course of the fourteen months monitoring are given in Table 3, along with the reference fuel
280 consumption obtained during the 4 weeks-long hidden mode (before installation of the driving-
281 assistance devices). The reference fuel consumption is only a value for each truck. The average
282 percentage of fuel use decrease achieved by each truck is also indicated. Note that some refuse
283 trucks display a negative percentage of fuel consumption decrease (seven of them), meaning that
284 their fuel efficiency was in fact better during the hidden mode than when using eco-driving
285 feedback devices.

286 The data are divided according to the type of vehicle (rear loader, side loader, crane-assisted
287 loader, Easy-system and waste-transfer trucks). For each type of truck, the average fuel
288 consumption and its standard deviation were calculated for the hidden mode as well as for the
289 consumption over the experimental period.

290 Overall, a fuel consumption decrease of 7.45 % is obtained when considering the whole fleet (67
291 vehicles). As a wide range of studies have reported energy consumption decreases ranging from
292 5 % to 20 % following driver training courses and/or installation of driving assistance devices
293 (see Table 1), this score is highly consistent with previous literature about eco-driving
294 implementation in heavy-duty fleets. The fuel consumption decrease did not seem to be
295 influenced by the reference fuel consumption (the vehicles that were using more diesel during
296 hidden mode did not undergo a stronger consumption decrease). Moreover, no influence of the
297 age or models of the different engines were observed.

298 Interestingly, a high variability of the reference fuel consumptions is observed between the trucks,
299 even within a same category of vehicles performing an identical task. Before any *RIBAS* device
300 was installed, some vehicles were already using two or three times more diesel than others. For
301 example, the initial fuel economies of rear loaders range from 35.00 to 62.43 L/100 km, while the
302 ones of crane-assisted loaders range from 21.41 to 59.00 L/100 km, a nearly a three-fold
303 difference. This fact is reflected in the high values of SD due to the different type of vehicles. As
304 mentioned in Section 2.1, the variability of the reference fuel consumption is likely to be related
305 to various parameters such as the tire pressure or the age and model of the truck's engine. This

306 fact highlights the importance of the hidden mode, which allows to compare the real effect of eco-
307 driving implementation on each individual truck, and not on absolute fuel economy values.
308 Moreover, a high variability can also be observed between the different categories of vehicles.
309 Remarkably, the best values of fuel consumption decrease (11.50 % on average) are obtained by
310 the waste-transfer trucks. Unlike the other vehicles of the fleet, these trucks do not perform stop-
311 and-go cycles to collect the bins, but only carry out basic transportation of the waste to the disposal
312 plant. The four other categories of vehicles (rear, side, crane-assisted and “Easy-system”)
313 achieved fuel use decreases of 6.34 %, 8.06 %, 6.97 % and 1.86 %, respectively, which represents
314 a score of 7.13 % on average for the 61 bin-picking vehicles. Despite obtaining substantially
315 higher values, our results are in line with the ones obtained by Goes et al. (2019). In their study
316 over another waste-collecting fleet, they monitored a fuel decrease of 0.8 % for bin-picking
317 vehicles (‘P6’) performing a stop-and-go cycle, and 7.1 % for transfer trucks (‘P9’) delivering
318 waste to a single destination (a nearly 10-times fold). Their lower decrease values might indicate
319 that eco-driving implementation through training courses is less efficient than the use of driving-
320 assistance devices such as the *RIBAS* display. However, the same divergence between the
321 economies of waste-transfer trucks and bin-picking trucks was observed in both studies, even
322 though our results suggest a 1.5-fold instead of a 10-fold. It is likely that the inherent nature of
323 stop-and-go waste-collecting vehicles makes the adoption of eco-driving techniques more
324 difficult. Indeed, a green driving behavior is presumably harder to associate with parameters
325 related to the task of refuse trucks, such as the slow speed in a dense urban environment, the
326 traffic congestion or the continuous idling due to frequent stops and extensive use of compaction
327 machinery. On the other side, transfer trucks performing delivery of waste to a single point display
328 an activity analogous to basic freight transportation and are probably less susceptible to urban
329 traffic flow and infrastructure design. Therefore, they might undergo more easily an efficient eco-
330 driving transition, and this could explain why they display the highest improvement. A fuel
331 decrease of 11.50 % is substantial, but consistent with many studies reporting values of the same
332 range in heavy-duty transportation fleets (as illustrated in Table 1).

333

Table 3. Average fuel consumption decrease following eco-driving implementation

ID number of the vehicle	Reference fuel consumption (L/100 km)	Fuel Consumption (L/100 km)		Fuel consumption decrease (%)
		Average	SD	
<i>Rear loaders</i>				
108	55.48	49.99	1.07	9.90
109	62.43	59.28	2.21	5.05
110	43.92	39.26	1.10	10.61
121	68.65	66.45	2.96	3.20
139	48.70	37.56	1.90	22.87
140	47.40	42.99	1.82	9.30
141	48.40	44.49	2.52	8.08
142	46.80	46.59	1.54	0.45
143	43.54	38.03	2.03	12.66
144	53.88	42.63	2.31	20.88
147	53.88	53.95	1.29	-0.13
148	50.57	48.45	1.91	4.19
151	60.14	56.17	3.32	6.60
196	38.64	38.48	1.53	0.41
760	45.82	41.32	2.73	9.82
CU51	35.00	37.06	1.38	-5.89
CU52	44.00	45.00	1.08	-2.27
CU53	44.23	43.57	1.51	1.49
CU54	49.00	45.57	1.21	7.00
CU55	47.00	45.78	1.22	2.60
Mean	49.37	46.13		6.34
SD	7.98	7.78		
<i>Side loaders</i>				
152	60.14	59.24	2.65	1.50
153	67.73	66.16	3.14	2.32
155	46.21	46.72	1.43	-1.10
156	46.11	40.76	2.14	11.60
157	62.34	59.74	1.65	4.17
158	64.64	64.65	3.65	-0.02
159	62.29	61.28	2.28	1.62
185	60.59	48.01	2.08	20.76
186	54.44	49.82	1.45	8.49
4	59.50	53.68	1.22	9.78
5	51.50	52.88	1.92	-2.68
729	43.93	39.75	1.54	9.52
730	62.51	59.63	2.28	4.61
731	57.08	55.68	1.43	2.45
732	67.25	61.34	2.18	8.79
733	56.33	52.25	1.56	7.24
734	60.49	55.11	2.54	8.89
735	62.80	54.87	3.34	12.63
736	59.40	52.05	2.16	12.37
737	61.30	50.48	1.72	17.65
738	63.17	52.97	2.58	16.15
739	56.54	53.11	1.91	6.07
740	65.17	56.13	2.56	13.87
741	61.32	54.02	1.38	11.90
742	61.15	52.43	1.63	14.26
743	63.13	57.68	3.54	8.63
744	59.06	54.98	1.93	6.91
745	50.48	47.03	2.50	6.83
746	58.06	53.98	1.77	7.03
747	57.18	51.74	1.45	9.51
Mean	58.73	53.94		8.06
SD	6.00	6.01		
<i>Crane-assisted loaders</i>				
194	59.00	58.51	4.92	0.83
197	42.80	39.08	1.21	8.69
198	45.20	42.24	1.84	6.55
217	24.00	23.26	0.75	3.08
234	32.07	29.01	0.71	9.54
548	33.38	24.98	1.28	25.16
770	28.15	30.46	1.35	-8.21
771	33.00	27.50	0.96	16.67
CU56	48.09	44.58	2.35	7.30
CU60	21.41	21.40	2.69	0.05
Mean	36.71	34.10		6.97
SD	11.79	11.74		
<i>Easy-system loaders</i>				
290	82.37	80.21	6.93	2.62
291	80.84	79.96	4.28	1.09
Mean	81.61	80.09		1.86
<i>Waste transfer trucks</i>				
313	55.59	50.37	2.00	9.39
320	51.64	46.11	5.10	10.71
321	54.49	46.59	4.65	14.50
323	56.11	46.35	0.80	17.39
324	51.38	48.56	0.62	5.49
Mean	53.84	47.60		11.50
SD	2.21	1.83		
Global Average				7.45

Reference fuel consumption = monitored during hidden mode (4 weeks), before installation of the RIBAS feedback devices.
Average fuel consumption = average of the monthly fuel consumption, over a monitoring period of 14 months.

338 Finally, to prove that the RIBAS device improved significantly the driving it was determined
339 whether there are any significant differences between “Reference fuel consumption” and “Fuel
340 Consumption”. For this purpose, tests mentioned in section 2.4 were used.

341 The behavior of the whole fleet was compared before and after using the driving-assistance
342 devices. To this end, the Paired t-test a confidence level of 95% ($\alpha = 0.05$) was used. We decided
343 to employ this parametric test because both datasets follow a Normal distribution. From the
344 results, it can be stated (with 95% confidence) that there are significant differences in the fuel
345 consumption before and after using the RIBAS device, since the p-value obtained is 3.69E-14 (p-
346 value $\ll 0.05$). The same calculation was made for each type of vehicle (except for the “Easy-
347 system loader” as it only had two data). In all the cases, the fuel consumption before and after the
348 experience was different. The Paired Wilcoxon test a confidence level of 95% ($\alpha = 0.05$) was used
349 for the “rear loader” and “side loader” trucks. From the results, it can be stated that there are
350 significant differences in the fuel consumption before and after the experience since the p-value
351 obtained are 0.00016 and 4.07E-6 (p-value $\ll 0.05$) respectively.

352 For “crane-assisted loader” and “waste-transfer truck” the Paired t-test with a confidence level of
353 95% ($\alpha = 0.05$) was used. In this case, it can also be stated that there are significant differences in
354 the fuel consumption in both types of trucks, since the p-value obtained are 0.0239 and 0.0063
355 (p-value < 0.05).

356 *3.2 Evolution of fuel consumption over time*

357 To determine if the benefits of eco-driving practices were stable on the long-term, we studied the
358 evolution of consumption over time by analyzing the behavior of the fuel consumption curves
359 (Figure 2). The graphs display the monthly fuel use from Month 1 to Month 14, providing insights
360 about the general trends of the evolution of consumption over time. The curves of all the vehicles
361 that were monitored are presented in white, while the mean curve is the thick black dashed line.
362 Due to visibility reasons, the relation between each curve and each vehicle is not indicated. The
363 area comprised between the maximum and the minimum of each month has been shaded in blue,
364 to highlight the range of obtained values. Interestingly, the curves of the mean values are
365 remarkably steady, indicating that a majority of the individual curves did not display substantial

366 difference between the beginning and the end of the monitoring (this is verified by the low values
367 of SD of each truck over the experimental period). Moreover, values seem to be confined in a
368 relatively thin interval (shaded area), except for a single truck in the crane-assisted category that
369 biases the graph by worsening its driving behavior (*C, top curve*). The curves of all the individual
370 trucks monitored are shown in white. The mean curve is shown as a dashed black line. The interval
371 between lowest and highest monthly values is colored in light blue. The vehicles used were: A:
372 Rear Loaders; B: Side Loaders, C: Crane-assisted loaders; D: “Easy-system” loaders; E: Waste-
373 transfer trucks.

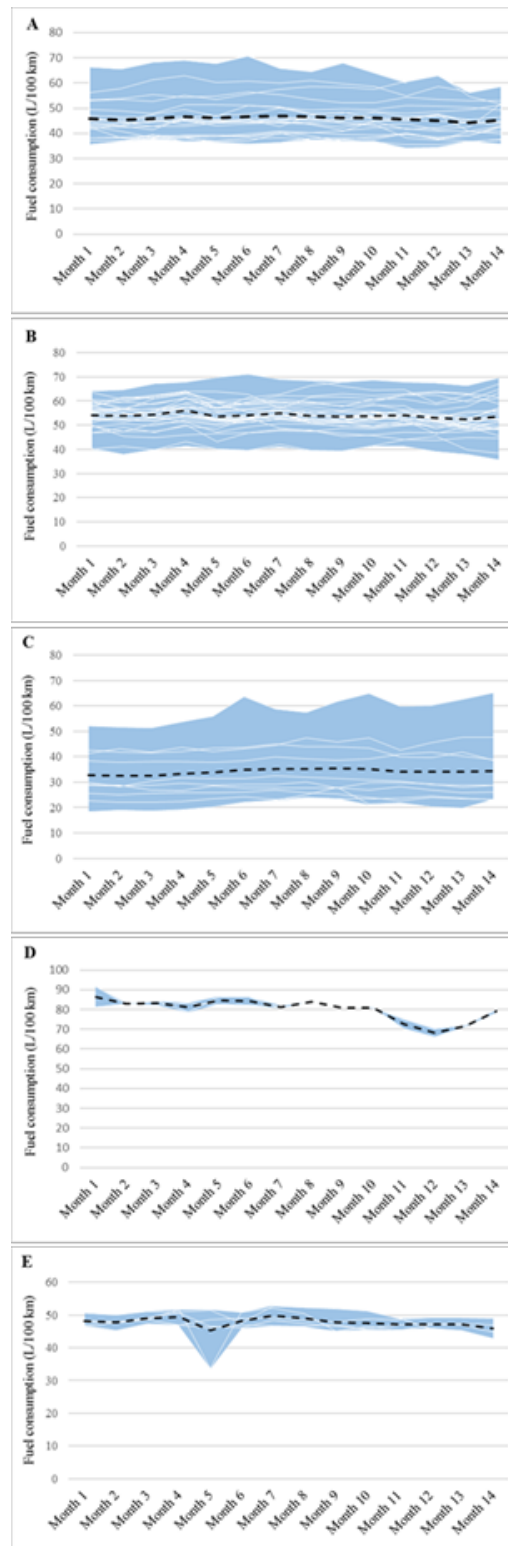


Figure 2. Evolution of fuel consumption over time, according to vehicle category.

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To better quantify this trend, we calculated for each truck the difference of fuel consumption between the first month and the last month of the monitoring (Table 4). Any negative value of consumption difference (ΔC) means that the vehicle in fact improved his fuel efficiency over the course of the 14 months. Interestingly, a ΔC of only -0.45 % was found on average, meaning that

380 the vehicles displayed virtually the same fuel consumption at the beginning (just after
381 implementation of eco-driving practices) and at the end of the study. This trend seems to indicate
382 that better fuel economies were associated with the installation of *RIBAS* devices, but also that
383 these economies were persistent over time, on a period longer than a year. Unlike many studies
384 reporting an attenuation of eco-driving effectiveness on the long run, the benefits that we
385 monitored did not tend to fade away as time passed by. The green driving habits obtained through
386 the use of driving-assistance devices might therefore be steadier than theoretical or practical
387 training courses, because the ongoing real-time feedback is less likely to turn into driver's
388 lassitude or fatigue. Also, it does not tend to be forgotten and does not need maintenance on a
389 regular basis. Overall, our results seem to indicate that real-time feedback provided to drivers
390 might be more suitable than training courses to improve the driving behavior and the fuel
391 consumption in a steadier fashion. Regarding the SD of each type of truck, in the first and last
392 month (1 and 14 respectively), all the values are high due to the differences in fuel consumption.

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Table 4. Fuel consumption difference ΔC (%) between the first and the last month of monitoring

ID number of the vehicle	Fuel consumption		ΔC (%)
	Month 1 (L/100 km)	Month 14 (L/100 km)	
<i>Rear loaders</i>			
108	49.45	49.20	-0.51
109	56.26	58.75	4.43
110	38.18	42.49	11.29
121	66.51	59.91	-9.92
139	37.10	37.63	1.43
140	44.65	39.71	-11.06
141	46.39	51.77	11.60
142	47.02	44.84	-4.64
143	42.68	35.64	-16.49
144	43.19	43.01	-0.42
147	53.15	53.05	-0.19
148	45.72	51.40	12.42
151	53.07	51.68	-2.62
196	38.10	43.14	13.23
760	42.48	40.89	-3.74
CU51	35.38	37.37	5.62
CU52	43.55	44.85	2.99
CU53	41.74	44.41	6.40
CU54	46.00	46.42	0.91
CU55	45.04	43.96	-2.40
Mean	45.78	46.01	0.92
SD	7.3	6.76	
<i>Side loaders</i>			
152	56.97	58.83	3.26
153	64.14	66.88	4.27
155	49.96	48.48	-2.96
156	40.36	38.50	-4.61
157	59.37	61.21	3.10
158	63.62	69.51	9.26
159	60.33	61.74	2.34
185	46.86	45.59	-2.71
186	49.55	48.61	-1.90
4	55.86	52.78	-5.51
5	52.52	56.40	7.39
729	40.04	35.70	-10.84
730	60.42	63.42	4.97
731	57.95	55.54	-4.16
732	59.26	64.76	9.28
733	53.30	52.55	-1.41
734	55.11	52.17	-5.33
735	56.16	54.06	-3.74
736	53.48	48.68	-8.98
737	49.24	49.05	-0.39
738	52.59	48.28	-8.20

739	51.08	51.63	1.08
740	58.16	56.29	-3.22
741	54.74	52.04	-4.93
742	55.02	51.23	-6.89
743	57.54	52.71	-8.39
744	56.76	57.15	0.69
745	46.84	44.48	-5.04
746	55.48	54.99	-0.88
747	52.15	49.93	-4.26
Mean	54.08	53.44	-1.62
SD	5.78	7.62	
<i>Crane-assisted loaders</i>			
194	52.11	65.12	24.97
197	38.44	38.86	1.09
198	42.59	38.57	-9.44
217	22.57	22.94	1.64
234	28.78	28.86	0.28
548	25.46	23.22	-8.80
770	29.81	28.70	-3.72
771	28.98	26.04	-10.14
CU56	41.26	47.63	15.44
CU60	18.35	23.30	26.98
Mean	32.84	34.32	3.83
SD	10.43	13.62	
<i>"Easy-system" loaders</i>			
290	91.62	78.42	-14.41
291	81.25	79.86	-1.71
Mean			-8.06
<i>Waste-transfer trucks</i>			
313	50.55	45.95	-9.10
320	47.83	46.91	-1.92
321	46.68	42.80	-8.31
323	46.92	44.90	-4.31
324	48.32	49.07	1.55
Mean	48.06	45.93	-4.42
SD	1.54	2.33	
Global Average			-0.45

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397 Finally, to check that there are not differences between the fuel consumption in months 1 and 14,
398 test mentioned in section 2.4 were also used. They were used for each type of truck (except for
399 the “Easy-system loader”) no differences were found. In the “rear loader” and “side loader”
400 trucks, the Paired t-test a confidence level of 95% ($\alpha = 0.05$) was used. From the results, it can be
401 stated that there are not significant differences between months 1 and 14, since the p-value
402 obtained are 0.787 and 0.233 (p-value > 0.05). For the “crane-assisted loader” and “waste-transfer
403 truck”, the Paired Wilcoxon test a confidence level of 95% ($\alpha = 0.05$) was used. Significant
404 differences were not found between both months, since the p-value obtained is 0.233 and 0.625
405 (p-value > 0.05).

406 3.3 Environmental and economic assessment

407 Our results show that the installation of driving-assistance devices resulted shortly in an average
408 fuel consumption decrease of 7.45% at the fleet scale, coming along consequent economic and
409 environmental benefits. An estimation of the global impact of eco-driving in terms of spared fuel
410 and of exhaust emission reduction was therefore meaningful. Table 5 displays an economic
411 assessment of the implementation of RIBAS devices in the SAV fleet. We used data about the

412 mileage and the fuel consumption to estimate how many liters of fuel were saved every year by
 413 each truck. As the price of diesel is subject to continuous market fluctuations, we decided to
 414 approximate the cost of one liter to 1.2 €, that is the traded prize payed by the company. Moreover,
 415 we deduced from the final benefits the price of the installation of the hardware (850 € per truck)
 416 and the yearly fee required for the *Fleet Management* software use (252 € per truck, per year).
 417 Hence, this assessment covers the first year of use and the whole implementation process. Note
 418 that every vehicle displayed its own mileage and a specific fuel economy value. Therefore, the
 419 results indicated were calculated from the individual data of each truck, not from the average
 420 values of each category.

421 As shown in Table 5, fuel-efficient driving practices provided substantial economic gains. As
 422 nearly 120,000 L of diesel were spared, the total fuel savings of 141,000 € covered by far the
 423 price required for the hardware installation and software use during the first year, leading to a net
 424 profit of 67,000€ for the 67 vehicles.

425 **Table 5.** Economic assessment of the implementation of eco-driving practices in SAV fleet after one year

	Total mileage (km/year)	Fuel savings (L)	Average benefit per vehicle (€)	Total benefits (€)
Rear loaders (20)	797,964	28,850	629	12,579
Side loaders (30)	1,079,293	56,810	1,170	35,112
Crane-assisted loaders (10)	348,096	9,586	48	483
"Easy-system" loaders (2)	52,773	758	-647	-1,294
Waste-transfer trucks (5)	344,833	21,626	4,088	20,440
Total (67)	2,622,959	117,630	1,058	67,322

426 Negative values in Table 5 highlight the fact that the fuel consumption improvement was not
 427 enough to cover the cost of installation and use of the feedback device for the category of the
 428 “Easy-system” loaders. Therefore, we realized that the vehicle type mattered when considering
 429 the implementation cost of eco-driving. Only the two “Easy-system” trucks revealed not being
 430 profitable in just one year, while all other categories yielded positive return. However, the savings
 431 achieved with the crane-assisted trucks were small (less than 1 %). The side loaders represented
 432 logically half of the total benefits due to the high number of vehicles of this type. Remarkably,
 433 30% of the global benefits were brought in by the waste-transfer category, which encompass only
 434 5 vehicles. When considering the proportional values (average benefit per vehicle), 69 % of the
 435 savings would actually come from the waste-transfer category, while the rear loaders and the side
 436 loaders would represent 10 % and 20 %, respectively.

437 Altogether, these results tend to indicate that implementation of eco-driving should be carefully
438 planned ahead according to the vehicle type and the numbers of trucks to be equipped. In this
439 case, it should be focused primarily on the transfer trucks, since they display a saving potential
440 substantially higher than the other categories. However, the rear and side loaders are also to be
441 considered due to the number of vehicles implicated. The two categories of trucks involving the
442 use of a crane were far less profitable, and could be seen as a lower priority. Pilot studies are
443 crucial to provide insights about where fuel-efficient driving would raise the greatest impact.
444 Overall, the implementation of eco-driving in a heavy-duty waste-collection fleet proved to be
445 very profitable. Since the assessment covered only the first year, further economic returns are to
446 be expected as the hardware cost is already absorbed and as the fuel economy should remain
447 steady over time.

448 Concerning the environmental assessment, a significant diminution of the released atmospheric
449 pollutants is to be expected from fuel savings. Diesel exhaust pollution includes mainly CO₂,
450 NO_x, CO, HC and PM (Reşitoğlu et al, 2014). Usually, pollutant emissions are estimated using
451 the maximal standards defined for the engine model, e.g. the Euro standards in European Union.
452 These standards represent the acceptable limits for exhaust emissions of any new vehicle sold in
453 the EU. However, these approval tests are standardized and might not be representative of real-
454 life driving conditions. This is particularly true in the case of refuse trucks, which display very
455 particular operating parameters that are completely different from classic freight transportation.
456 Low-speed, frequent stops and trash compaction could trigger the release of much higher amounts
457 of pollutants than estimated in laboratory testing. It is therefore likely that the limits imposed by
458 current standards are not representative of the actual emissions. We therefore decided to
459 approximate the emission decrease rates related to fuel savings using an estimation from Larsen
460 et al. (2009). Instead of standardized tests, they used a transport simulation software called
461 TEMA2000 to approximate the emission rates of heavy-duty diesel engines performing waste-
462 collection. For the Euro IV, which is the Euro standard followed by the vehicles of the SAV fleet,
463 they estimated that burning one liter of diesel would cause 2.6 kg·L⁻¹ of CO₂, 2.2 g·L⁻¹ of CO, 1.2
464 g·L⁻¹ of HC, 17 g·L⁻¹ of NO_x and 0.1 g·L⁻¹ of PM to be released. Using these values, the amounts

465 of atmospheric pollutants that were saved over the course of a single year were approximated for
466 the fleet (Table 6).

467 **Table 6.** Theoretical quantification of the pollutant emissions reduction in one year

	CO ₂ (kg)	CO (g)	HC (g)	NO _x (g)	PM (g)
Rear loaders	75,846	63,469	34,619	490,443	2,885
Side loaders	149,354	124,982	68,172	965,771	5,681
Crane-assisted loaders	25,202	21,089	11,503	162,964	959
"Easy-system" loaders	1,994	1,668	910	12,891	76
Waste-transfer trucks	56,854	47,576	25,951	367,637	2,163
Total	309,248	258,785	141,156	1,999,705	11,762

468

469 These results might be over-estimated, as the vehicles of the waste-transfer category do not act as
470 typical refuse trucks and could therefore display real-life emissions lower than the ones indicated.
471 Nonetheless, the decrease values of the pollutants released are substantial. In particular, 300,000
472 kg of CO₂ a year would mean that nearly one thousand tons of GHG would be saved in a little
473 more than three years at the scale of a single private company. International expansion of these
474 practices would reduce considerably the atmospheric pollution and the worldwide ecological
475 footprint of the road transportation sector. Further assessment using a Portable Emissions
476 Measurement System (PEMS) would provide meaningful indications about the exact quantities
477 of pollutants released, and about the true environmental impact of fuel-efficient driving in a waste-
478 collection fleet.

479

480 **4. Conclusion**

481 This study concludes that the establishing an efficient driving system supporting the driver in real-
482 time can be useful to reduce the fuel consumption and the emissions associated to the municipal
483 waste collection trucks. It has been shown that this type of system maintains the efficiency over
484 time, which doesn't happen when the driving efficiency is carried out with training courses.

485 However, it was clear that the impact of the solution on the savings depends on the vehicle used
486 and the waste collection system. In this way, during the experimental part, an average fuel
487 consumption decrease of 7.45 % was observed following the installation of feedback devices, but
488 the decrease values ranged from 1.86 to 11.50 % according to vehicle category. As the waste-
489 transfer vehicles had significantly higher decrease values, due to they don't load and unload

490 waste, eco-driving practices implementation should be focused in first place on this category.
491 Finally, an essential aspect to take into account due to its impact in the results is the importance
492 of organizing follow-up meetings with the drivers as these meetings allowed to know the
493 consumption indicators and the individual driving errors which has encouraged an environment
494 of continuous improvement.

495 From the methodological point of view, this work has presented the efficient driving solutions
496 through assistant systems for driving in the transport and collection of waste as the system has
497 been tested under real conditions during a long period of time and using different types of
498 vehicles. An important achievement of this work is the development of initial reliable indicators
499 in the hidden stage. To achieve this goal, it was crucial that the drivers didn't have indications
500 about their monitoring as it could have an impact changing their behavior and consequently it
501 could have distorted the initial indicators.

502 The methodology presented is valid and for this reason it can be used in future works taking into
503 account the workshops in the continuous improvement as well as the precautions in the initial
504 indicators stage.

505 From the environmental point of view, it was proven that the eco-driving practices
506 implementation allowed to reduce the pollutant emissions in the towns. For this reason,
507 municipalities should include these systems in their vehicles as a good policy to reduce emissions.
508 The company where the experimental process was carried out, has already implemented it in its
509 fleet.

510 As future studies related with the driving efficiency, it should be considered the use of gas or
511 biogas instead of fuel with the aim to reduce the emissions and it could be interesting to study the
512 type of waste unload to reduce the bin unloading time.

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