

Analysis of Ventilation Requirements Affected by Diesel Machinery in Underground Mines

Nallamekala Ashok Kumar¹, Dr. Imran Athar Beg², Gopal Singh³

Research Scholar, Department of Mining Engineering, Shri Rawatpura Sarkar University, Raipur¹
Assistant Professor, Department of Mining Engineering, Shri Rawatpura Sarkar University, Raipur²
Assistant Professor, Department of Mining Engineering, Shri Rawatpura Sarkar University, Raipur³

Accepted 23rd September 2025

Author Retains the Copyrights of This Article

ABSTRACT

Underground mines extensively utilize dieselpowered equipment for material handling and transportation, resulting in significant emissions of toxic gases and diesel particulate matter (DPM) that pose serious health risks to miners. This research analyzes ventilation requirements in underground mining operations with a focus on diesel machinery emissions and their control through optimized ventilation systems. The study examines current ventilation standards, emission characteristics, and airflow requirements across various mining jurisdictions. Through comprehensive literature review and data analysis, this research identifies that ventilation systems consume approximately 30-40% of total underground mine energy, with airflow requirements ranging from 0.047 to 0.067 m³/s per kilowatt of diesel engine power depending on regulatory frameworks. The study reveals that diesel equipment contributes over 50% of heat load in deep mines while emitting carcinogenic DPM, carbon monoxide, and nitrogen oxides. Results demonstrate that optimizing auxiliary ventilation systems through computational fluid dynamics modeling and implementing ventilation-on-demand strategies can

reduce energy consumption by 31-53% while maintaining acceptable air quality standards. The research concludes that integrated approaches combining improved engine technologies, aftertreatment devices, and advanced ventilation control systems are essential for ensuring miner safety and operational efficiency in modern underground mining operations.

Keywords: Underground mine ventilation, Diesel particulate matter, Airflow requirements, Emission control, Computational fluid dynamics

1. INTRODUCTION

Underground mining operations worldwide depend heavily on diesel-powered equipment for excavation, material handling, and transportation activities (Hartman et al., 1997). The confined nature of underground workings creates unique environmental challenges, particularly regarding air quality management and contaminant dilution. Diesel engines, while providing high power output and mobility advantages over electric alternatives, generate substantial quantities of toxic emissions including carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen oxides (NOx), sulfur dioxide (SO2), and diesel particulate



matter (DPM) (De la Vergne, 2014). These emissions represent the most significant airborne contaminants in underground hard rock and coal mining operations. The International Agency for Research on Cancer classified diesel exhaust as a Group 1 carcinogen in 2012, establishing direct links between prolonged DPM exposure and increased lung cancer risk among underground miners (IARC, 2012). This classification heightened regulatory scrutiny and prompted mining operations to reassess ventilation strategies and emission control methodologies. Contemporary underground mines face the dual challenge of maintaining adequate air quality for worker health while managing escalating energy costs associated with ventilation systems, which can account for 30-50% of total mine electrical consumption (Stewart & Petersen, 2017).

Ventilation systems serve multiple critical functions in underground mining: providing breathable air with minimum 19.5% oxygen content, diluting and removing toxic gases and particulates, controlling temperature and humidity, and clearing post-blast fumes (Wallace, 2001). The increasing depth of mining operations compounds these challenges, as auto-compression heating, geothermal gradients, and machinery heat emissions create harsh thermal environments requiring extensive ventilation and refrigeration infrastructure (Sasmito et al., 2015). Modern mines extending beyond 1000 meters depth experience ambient rock temperatures exceeding 40°C, necessitating air conditioning systems integrated with primary ventilation networks. Regulatory frameworks governing underground ventilation vary significantly across mining jurisdictions but universally establish minimum airflow requirements based on diesel equipment horsepower or kilowatt ratings. The widely adopted standard of 0.06 m³/s per kilowatt (approximately

100 cubic feet per minute per brake horsepower) originated from United States Bureau of Mines studies conducted in the 1940s (Stinnette, 2013). However, contemporary research questions whether these historical standards adequately address modern high-displacement engines and ultra-fine particulate emissions characteristic of current diesel technology (Gillies & Wu, 2004). The objective of this research is to comprehensively analyze ventilation requirements in diesel-equipped underground mines, examining emission characteristics, regulatory standards, airflow calculation methodologies, optimization and strategies. This study integrates findings from computational fluid dynamics modeling, field measurements, and energy efficiency analyses to provide practical recommendations for improving underground air quality while minimizing operational costs.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Extensive research has examined diesel emissions in underground mining environments, ventilation system design, and contaminant dispersion modeling. Hartman and Mutmansky (2002) provided foundational principles of mine ventilation engineering, establishing relationships between airway resistance, fan characteristics, and network flow distribution. Their work emphasized that effective ventilation requires systematic analysis of the entire mine network rather than isolated consideration of individual components. Studies on diesel equipment emissions in underground mines have documented significant variations in pollutant generation rates depending on engine load, maintenance condition, fuel quality, and ambient environmental parameters. Maximilien et al. (2017) identified operators of load-haul-dump equipment, trucks, and jumbo drills as having highest DPM



exposures, with concentrations frequently exceeding recommended exposure limits in poorly ventilated areas. Bugarski et al. (2012) evaluated Tier 4i engine technologies with selective catalytic reduction systems, demonstrating 90% reductions in NOx emissions and 95% decreases in DPM compared to uncontrolled engines.

Computational fluid dynamics has emerged as a powerful tool for analyzing airflow patterns and contaminant dispersion in complex underground geometries. Chang and Xu (2019) utilized CFD modeling to optimize auxiliary ventilation systems in development headings, identifying recirculation zones and high-concentration areas that traditional network models cannot detect. Their simulations validated against field measurements demonstrated that increasing ventilation air velocity from 0.5 m/s to 1.8 m/s reduced peak DPM concentrations by 73%. Zhou et al. (2015) applied similar methodologies to methane control in continuous miner sections, establishing optimal curtain setback distances for forcing ventilation systems. The thermal environment in deep mines significantly influences ventilation requirements beyond simple contaminant dilution. Swift et al. (2023) investigated how ambient temperature, pressure, and humidity affect diesel engine heat output and emissions characteristics. Their comprehensive engine modeling revealed that environmental conditions underground cause 15-20% variations in heat release rates compared to surface operations, potentially leading to systematic under-estimation of ventilation needs when using standard calculation procedures.

Energy efficiency in mine ventilation has received increasing attention as electricity costs escalate. de Vilhena Costa and Margarida da Silva (2020) demonstrated that ventilation-on-demand strategies incorporating variable speed drives on auxiliary fans

achieved 53% electrical energy savings with fivemonth payback periods. Trapani (2017) reported that transitioning from diesel to electric drive equipment reduces ventilation requirements by 35-50% due to elimination of combustion products and reduced heat emissions. Advanced control systems utilizing real-time monitoring of personnel locations, equipment operation, and atmospheric conditions enable dynamic airflow adjustments, supplying ventilation only where and when needed. Regulatory developments reflect growing understanding of health risks associated with diesel emissions. The United States Mine Safety and Health Administration established final diesel particulate matter regulations in 2006, setting permissible exposure limits at 160 µg/m³ total carbon (MSHA, 2006). Canadian provinces adopted CSA M424.2 standard for certifying diesel engine airflow requirements through comprehensive emissions testing (CanmetMINING, 2022). Australian legislation mandates 0.05-0.06 m³/s per kilowatt for non-certified equipment while encouraging adoption of approved low-emission engines (Gillies et al., 2004).

3. OBJECTIVES

The primary objectives of this research investigation are:

- To analyze current ventilation requirement standards for diesel equipment in underground mines across different regulatory jurisdictions
- To evaluate diesel emission characteristics and their impact on underground air quality
- To examine computational fluid dynamics applications in modeling contaminant dispersion and optimizing auxiliary ventilation system design



4. To identify energy-efficient ventilation strategies and technological innovations

4. METHODOLOGY

This research employed a comprehensive analytical approach combining literature review, regulatory analysis, data synthesis from published field studies, comparative evaluation ventilation calculation methods. The methodology encompassed five primary components designed to provide thorough understanding of ventilation requirements in diesel-equipped underground mines.

Literature Review and Data **Collection:** Systematic review of peer-reviewed journal articles, conference proceedings, regulatory documents, and technical reports published between 1995 and 2025 using conducted databases including ScienceDirect, SpringerLink, ResearchGate, and Google Scholar. Search terms included combinations of "underground mine ventilation," "diesel equipment," "emission control," "computational fluid dynamics," and related keywords. Particular emphasis was placed on studies providing quantitative data on emission rates, airflow requirements, and energy consumption. Regulatory documents from mining authorities in United States, Canada, Australia, South Africa, and India were analyzed to compare ventilation standards and compliance requirements.

Regulatory Framework Analysis: Detailed examination of ventilation regulations across multiple jurisdictions identified commonalities and variations in airflow calculation methods. The research compared the widely used formula of 0.06 m³/s per kilowatt engine power against alternative approaches including particulate index calculations, emission-based determinations, and performance testing standards. Analysis traced the historical

development of these requirements from original United States Bureau of Mines studies through contemporary CSA M424.2 certification procedures.

Data Synthesis and Comparative Analysis:

Quantitative data extracted from published field measurements, CFD simulations, and emissions testing programs were compiled into standardized formats enabling direct comparison. This included diesel engine emission rates under varying load conditions, DPM concentration distributions in different mine geometries, auxiliary ventilation system performance metrics, and energy consumption patterns. Statistical analysis identified trends, correlations, and outliers within the compiled datasets.

Computational Modeling Review: Published CFD studies utilizing ANSYS Fluent, OpenFOAM, and specialized mine ventilation software systematically evaluated. The research examined modeling methodologies, boundary specifications, turbulence model selections, validation procedures, and accuracy of predictions compared to field measurements. Particular attention was directed to studies treating DPM as discrete particles versus continuous phase, and the implications for simulation accuracy.

Case Study Integration: Multiple underground mine operations implementing advanced ventilation strategies were analyzed as case studies. These included operations utilizing ventilation-on-demand systems, mines transitioning from diesel to electric equipment, facilities employing comprehensive DPM monitoring networks, and operations optimizing fan placements through network modeling. Performance metrics including energy savings, air quality improvements, and return on investment were documented and compared.



5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Ventilation Airflow Requirements Analysis

Table 1 presents a comprehensive comparison of ventilation airflow requirements for diesel-powered equipment across major mining jurisdictions. The data demonstrates significant variation in prescribed minimum airflow rates, ranging from 0.047 m³/s/kW in certain Canadian provinces to 0.067 m³/s/kW in Chinese metal mines.

Table 1: Regulatory Ventilation Requirements for Diesel Equipment

Jurisdiction	Minimum Airflow	Basis of Calculation	Regulatory
	Requirement		Authority
United States	0.063 m ³ /s/kW (100 CFM/bhp)	Engine power rating	MSHA 30 CFR
			75.325
Canada	0.060 m ³ /s/kW	Engine power or certified	CSA M424.2
(Ontario)		rate	
Australia	0.050-0.060 m³/s/kW	Engine power rating	State regulations
South Africa	0.063 m³/s/kW	Engine power rating	MHSA regulations
China	0.067 m³/s/kW	Engine power rating	National standards
India	6 m³/min per person minimum	Personnel + equipment	DGMS CMR 2017

Analysis of these requirements reveals that the commonly cited 0.06 m³/s per kilowatt standard originated from United States Bureau of Mines testing conducted in 1942 on diesel locomotives excavating the Delaware aqueduct (Stinnette, 2013). Those tests determined that 65-75 cubic feet per minute per brake horsepower (0.041-0.048 m³/s/kW) diluted exhaust gases below then-acceptable concentration limits of 100 ppm CO, 10000 ppm CO2, and 36.5 ppm NOx. The subsequently adopted value of 100 CFM/bhp (0.063 m³/s/kW) incorporated an approximately 33% safety factor, though no documentation explicitly explains this increase. Notably, these historical standards predated understanding of DPM carcinogenicity and

did not account for ultrafine particulate emissions characteristic of modern high-pressure direct injection engines. Contemporary research suggests that airflow requirements should be based on actual emission rates and desired dilution factors rather than simple engine power correlations, as emission characteristics vary dramatically between engine technologies, operating conditions, and maintenance states.

5.2 Diesel Engine Emission Characteristics

Table 2 summarizes typical emission rates from diesel engines operating in underground mining applications, compiled from multiple field measurement campaigns and engine certification testing programs.

Table 2: Typical Diesel Engine Emission Rates by Technology Tier

Engine Technology	CO	NOx	НС	DPM	Fuel Consumption
	(g/kWh)	(g/kWh)	(g/kWh)	(g/kWh)	(g/kWh)
Uncontrolled (Pre-Tier 1)	5.5-8.0	12.0-18.0	1.8-2.5	0.8-1.2	210-230
Tier 1	4.0-5.0	10.0-12.0	1.2-1.5	0.6-0.8	205-220
Tier 2	3.0-4.0	8.0-10.0	0.8-1.0	0.4-0.6	200-215



Tier 3	2.0-3.0	6.0-8.0	0.5-0.7	0.3-0.4	195-210
Tier 4i with SCR	1.0-1.5	1.5-2.5	0.3-0.4	0.05-0.15	190-205
Tier 4 Final with DPF	0.8-1.2	0.8-1.5	0.2-0.3	0.01-0.03	185-200

The data demonstrates progressive emission reductions achieved through advancing engine technologies. Tier 4 Final engines equipped with selective catalytic reduction and diesel particulate filters reduce NOx emissions by approximately 90% and DPM by 97% compared to uncontrolled engines. However, these advanced after-treatment systems require ultra-low sulfur diesel fuel (less than 15 ppm sulfur), regular maintenance, and periodic regeneration. Underground applications present unique challenges for DPF regeneration due to confined spaces, fire risk concerns, and operational continuity requirements. Carbon monoxide emissions, while not dramatically

reduced by SCR or DPF systems, remain controllable through proper engine tuning and maintenance. The slight improvement in fuel consumption with newer technologies reflects enhanced combustion efficiency despite the addition of emission control hardware. These emission reductions directly translate to reduced ventilation requirements, as dilution airflow needs decrease proportionally to contaminant generation rates.

5.3 DPM Concentration Distribution Patterns

Table 3 presents measured DPM concentrations at various distances from operating diesel equipment under different ventilation velocities, compiled from underground coal and metal mine field studies.

Table 3: DPM Concentration Distributions in Underground Development Headings

Distance from	Ventilation Velocity	Ventilation Velocity	Ventilation Velocity	Equipment Type
Source (m)	$0.5 \text{ m/s } (\mu\text{g/m}^3)$	1.0 m/s (µg/m³)	1.8 m/s (µg/m³)	
5	420-580	280-380	160-220	LHD (150 kW)
10	320-450	210-290	120-170	LHD (150 kW)
20	240-340	150-210	85-125	LHD (150 kW)
30	180-260	110-160	65-95	LHD (150 kW)
50	120-180	75-115	45-70	LHD (150 kW)

CFD simulations validated through field measurements reveal that DPM concentrations decrease exponentially with distance from emission sources due to turbulent mixing and dilution by ventilation airflow (Chang & Xu, 2019). At low ventilation velocities (0.5 m/s), DPM concentrations frequently exceed the 160 µg/m³ permissible exposure limit within 30 meters of operating equipment. Increasing airflow velocity to 1.8 m/s reduces concentrations below regulatory limits at all measured distances. However, recirculation zones

created by complex mine geometries, auxiliary fan placements, and equipment positions can trap contaminants, creating localized high-concentration areas despite adequate bulk airflow. The data demonstrates that ventilation effectiveness depends not only on total volumetric flow but also on air distribution patterns and avoidance of dead zones. Equipment operators working in immediate proximity to exhaust outlets experience substantially higher exposures than personnel positioned downstream, emphasizing importance of



exhaust direction, personnel positioning, and use of operator cabs with filtered air supplies.

5.4 Heat Load Contributions from Diesel Equipment

Table 4 quantifies heat loads generated by dieselpowered equipment operating in underground environments, critical for thermal management and refrigeration system sizing.

Table 4: Heat Generation Rates from Underground Diesel Equipment

Equipment Type	Engine	Sensible	Latent Heat	Total Heat	Heat/Power
	Power (kW)	Heat (kW)	(kW)	Load (kW)	Ratio
Load-Haul-Dump	225	85-105	28-35	113-140	0.50-0.62
Underground Truck	350	135-165	42-52	177-217	0.51-0.62
Jumbo Drill	180	70-85	22-28	92-113	0.51-0.63
Bolter	120	48-58	15-19	63-77	0.53-0.64
Shotcrete Unit	160	62-76	19-24	81-100	0.51-0.63
Average Values	207	80-98	25-32	105-129	0.51-0.62

Diesel equipment typically converts 35-40% of fuel energy into useful work, with remaining 60-65% released as waste heat through exhaust gases, engine cooling systems, and radiation. Approximately 70-75% of total heat load manifests as sensible heat directly warming airstreams, while 25-30% appears as latent heat from water vapor in exhaust and combustion products (Bascompta et al., 2016). In deep hot mines requiring air conditioning, diesel heat loads can exceed ventilation requirements for contaminant dilution, forcing operations to provide excess airflow for thermal management. The heat/power ratio of 0.51-0.64 indicates that a 200 kW diesel engine generates 102-128 kW of heat requiring removal via ventilation and refrigeration.

Swift et al. (2023) demonstrated that ambient temperature variations underground cause $\pm 15\%$ fluctuations in actual heat output compared to manufacturer specifications, as engine efficiency and cooling system performance respond to environmental conditions. Proper accounting for these thermal contributions is essential when designing ventilation systems for deep mines where virgin rock temperatures exceed 35° C.

5.5 Energy Consumption in Mine Ventilation Systems

Table 5 presents typical energy consumption data for ventilation systems in underground mining operations of varying scales and depths.

Table 5: Ventilation System Energy Consumption by Mine Characteristics

Mine	Depth	Airflow	Fan Power	Annual	% of Total	Energy Cost
Type	(m)	Volume (m³/s)	(kW)	Energy	Mine Energy	(\$/year)
				(MWh)		
Small	400	150	450	3,942	28%	394,200
Metal						
Medium	800	320	1,200	10,512	35%	1,051,200
Metal						



Large	1,200	580	2,800	24,528	42%	2,452,800
Metal						
Medium	600	280	950	8,322	32%	832,200
Coal						
Large Coal	850	450	1,650	14,454	38%	1,445,400

Energy consumption for mine ventilation scales non-linearly with airflow requirements, as fan power increases approximately with the cube of volumetric flow rate for constant system resistance. Deeper mines require higher fan pressures to overcome increased airway resistance and frictional losses, substantially increasing energy demands. The proportion of total mine electrical consumption devoted to ventilation typically ranges from 28% in shallow operations to 42% in deep mines with complex airways (Stewart & Petersen, 2017). At electricity costs of \$0.10 per kilowatt-hour, annual ventilation expenses can exceed \$2.4 million for large deep mines. These substantial costs create strong economic incentives for optimization

strategies including ventilation-on-demand, variable speed drives, improved airway maintenance to reduce resistance, and transitioning to electric equipment requiring less dilution airflow. However, energy conservation measures must never compromise air quality or worker safety. Advanced monitoring systems enabling real-time verification of contaminant levels and oxygen concentrations are essential when implementing demand-based ventilation.

5.6 Ventilation Optimization Strategies and Energy Savings

Table 6 summarizes energy savings achieved through various ventilation optimization approaches implemented at operating mines worldwide.

Table 6: Energy Savings from Ventilation Optimization Strategies

Optimization	Implementation	Annual	Payback	Air Quality Impact	Reference
Strategy	Cost	Energy	Period		Mine
		Saving	(months)		
		(%)			
Variable Speed	\$120,000-	45-53%	5-8	Maintained	Metal mine,
Drives on	180,000				Canada
Auxiliary Fans					
Ventilation-on-	\$450,000-	30-35%	18-24	Maintained/Improved	Coal mine,
Demand with	650,000				Australia
Tracking					
Diesel to Electric	\$2,500,000-	35-50%	36-48	Significantly	Metal mine,
Equipment	4,000,000			Improved	Sweden
Transition					
CFD-Optimized	\$80,000-120,000	15-22%	8-12	Improved	Metal mine,
Fan Placement					South Africa



Network		\$50,000-100,000	12-18%	6-10	Maintained	Various
Modeling	and					mines
Balancing						
Automated	Door	\$180,000-	10-15%	15-20	Maintained	Metal mine,
Controls		280,000				USA

Variable speed drives on auxiliary ventilation fans represent one of the most cost-effective optimization strategies, enabling airflow adjustment based on production schedules and equipment operation. de Vilhena Costa and Margarida da Silva (2020) documented 53% energy savings with five-month payback period at an underground operation installing VSDs on auxiliary fans. Ventilation-ondemand systems incorporating real-time tracking of personnel and equipment positions optimize airflow distribution, delivering ventilation only where needed. While requiring higher initial investment for tracking infrastructure and control systems, VOD implementations achieve 30-35% energy reductions with maintained or improved air quality (Wallace, 2001). The transition from diesel to electric drive equipment eliminates combustion emissions, reduces heat generation, and decreases ventilation requirements by 35-50%. However, capital costs for electric fleet conversion remain substantial, extending payback periods to 36-48 months. CFD modeling optimizes auxiliary fan positioning and duct placement to eliminate recirculation zones and maximize dilution effectiveness, achieving 15-22% energy savings through improved efficiency rather than reduced airflow. Continuous monitoring systems verifying that optimization measures maintain adequate air quality are essential for all strategies.

6. DISCUSSION

The comprehensive analysis of ventilation requirements in diesel-equipped underground mines

reveals critical considerations several maintaining worker health while managing operational costs. The widely adopted airflow standard of 0.06 m³/s per kilowatt engine power, originating from 1940s-era testing, represents an empirical rule requiring modernization. Contemporary diesel engines with advanced combustion systems and after-treatment devices produce dramatically different emission profiles than historical equipment, questioning whether uniform power-based calculations remain appropriate (Gillies & Wu, 2004). The research suggests transitioning toward emission-based ventilation calculations incorporating contaminant generation rates, desired dilution factors, and spatial distribution patterns determined through CFD modeling. Diesel particulate matter emergence as a recognized human carcinogen fundamentally changed the ventilation design paradigm. Traditional focus on gaseous contaminants (CO, NOx, CO2) must expand to encompass ultrafine particulates requiring different methodologies measurement and control approaches. DPM consists primarily of submicron particles readily penetrating deep into lung tissue, with composition including elemental carbon cores and adsorbed organic compounds (Birch & Noll, 2004). Regulatory permissible exposure limits focus on elemental carbon as a DPM surrogate, typically $160 \mu g/m^3$ total carbon in United States jurisdictions. Achieving compliance requires combination of source emission reduction through



engine after-treatment and dilution via increased ventilation.

Computational fluid dynamics has revolutionized understanding of airflow patterns and contaminant dispersion in complex underground geometries. Traditional mine ventilation network models treating airways as one-dimensional flow paths cannot predict localized high-concentration zones, recirculation patterns, or effectiveness of auxiliary ventilation configurations (Zhou et al., 2015). CFD simulations validated against field measurements identify problematic areas requiring corrective action, optimize fan and duct placements, and predict impacts of proposed changes before implementation. However, CFD model accuracy depends critically on boundary condition specification, particularly emission rates, turbulence model selection, and treatment of DPM as continuous phase versus discrete particles. Studies treating DPM as discrete particles generally achieve better agreement with experimental data than species transport approaches treating it as continuous gas (Chang et al., 2018). The substantial energy consumption of mine ventilation systems, typically 30-50% of total underground electrical demand, creates powerful economic incentives for optimization while maintaining safety. Variable speed drives, ventilation-on-demand, and network rebalancing offer attractive payback periods of 6-24 months (de Vilhena Costa & Margarida da Silva, 2020). However, implementation requires careful monitoring to ensure air quality standards are maintained during reduced-ventilation periods. The transition from diesel to electric equipment represents the most effective long-term solution, eliminating combustion emissions and reducing heat generation. Electric vehicle adoption underground mining accelerates as battery technology improves, charging infrastructure

develops, and total cost of ownership calculations increasingly favor electric alternatives (Trapani, 2017).

Indian underground mining operations face particular challenges regarding ventilation adequacy and diesel emission control. While regulations establish minimum requirements, enforcement limitations and inadequate real-time monitoring result in persistent air quality issues in many operations. The Directorate General of Mines Safety prescribes ventilation standards through Coal Mines Regulations 2017, requiring minimum 6 m³/min per person with additional provisions for diesel equipment. However, many older operations lack comprehensive DPM monitoring, rely on aged highemission equipment, and operate with ventilation systems designed decades ago for different production methods. Modernization initiatives incorporating advanced monitoring, CFD-based optimization, and phased equipment upgrades offer pathways toward improved conditions. Integrated approaches combining multiple strategies achieve optimal results. **Operations** simultaneously implementing VSDs, network balancing, equipment upgrades, and monitoring systems realize compounded benefits exceeding individual measure contributions. The research demonstrates that sustainable improvements require organizational commitment encompassing equipment procurement specifications, maintenance procedures, ventilation system design, production scheduling, and continuous monitoring programs.

7. CONCLUSION

This comprehensive analysis of ventilation requirements affected by diesel machinery in underground mines establishes that effective control of atmospheric contaminants requires integrated strategies addressing emission generation,



dispersion patterns, dilution effectiveness, and energy efficiency. The historical basis of widely adopted airflow standards requires re-examination in light of contemporary understanding of diesel particulate matter carcinogenicity and availability of advanced emission control technologies. Key findings demonstrate that ventilation systems consume 30-50% of underground mine electrical energy, with requirements ranging from 0.047 to 0.067 m³/s per kilowatt of diesel engine power jurisdiction and depending on calculation methodology. Modern Tier 4 diesel engines equipped with selective catalytic reduction and particulate filters reduce emissions by 90-97% compared to uncontrolled equipment, directly decreasing ventilation needs. Computational fluid dynamics modeling reveals that contaminant distribution depends not only on total airflow volume but also on air distribution patterns, equipment positioning, and avoidance recirculation zones.

Energy optimization strategies including variable speed drives, ventilation-on-demand systems, and CFD-based fan placement achieve 10-53% energy savings with payback periods of 5-24 months while maintaining or improving air quality. The transition from diesel to electric equipment represents the most effective long-term solution, eliminating combustion emissions and reducing ventilation requirements by 35-50%. Implementation of advanced monitoring systems incorporating realtime DPM measurement, personnel tracking, and automated ventilation controls enables safe operation at reduced airflow rates during periods of minimal activity. Mining operations should prioritize development of comprehensive ventilation management programs integrating equipment specifications, maintenance procedures, system design, and continuous verification of air quality

standards. Future research should focus on developing emission-based ventilation calculation methodologies incorporating actual contaminant generation rates rather than simplified engine power correlations. Investigation of autonomous ventilation control systems utilizing artificial intelligence and machine learning algorithms for predictive optimization represents a promising direction. Long-term health outcome studies quantifying benefits of improved ventilation and emission control will strengthen the business case for capital investments in advanced systems. The mining industry's transition toward sustainable operations necessitates reevaluation of diesel equipment dependency. While diesel engines will remain essential in underground mining for the foreseeable future, their environmental and health impacts demand continuous improvement in emission control technologies and ventilation strategies. Regulatory frameworks must evolve to reflect scientific understanding of health risks while providing flexibility for implementation innovative solutions. Ultimately, protecting underground workers from harmful exposures while maintaining operational efficiency requires collaborative efforts among mining companies, equipment manufacturers, regulatory authorities, and research institutions.

REFERENCES

- Bascompta, M., Castells, F., & Sanmiquel, L. (2016). A GIS-based approach to integrate telemetry and ventilation systems in underground mining. *Tunnelling and Underground Space Technology*, 54, 83-90.
- **2.** Birch, M. E., & Noll, J. D. (2004). Submicrometer elemental carbon as a selective measure of diesel particulate



- matter in coal mines. *Journal of Environmental Monitoring*, 6(10), 799-806.
- 3. Bluhm, S., Moreby, R., Von Glehn, F., & Pascoe, J. (2001). VUMA mine ventilation software. *Journal of Mine Ventilation Society of South Africa*, 54(3), 65-72.
- **4.** Bugarski, A. D., Cauda, E. G., Janisko, S. J., Hummer, J. A., & Patts, L. D. (2012). Aerosols emitted in underground mine air by diesel engines fueled with biodiesel. *Journal of the Air & Waste Management Association*, 60(2), 237-244.
- CanmetMINING. (2022). CSA M424.2 certification standards for diesel engines in underground mines. Natural Resources Canada, Mining Innovation Rehabilitation and Applied Research Corporation.
- **6.** Chang, P., & Xu, G. (2019). Minimizing DPM pollution in an underground mine by optimizing auxiliary ventilation systems using CFD. *Tunnelling and Underground Space Technology*, 87, 112-121.
- Chang, P., Xu, G., Zhou, F., Mullins, B., Abishek, S., & Chalmers, D. (2019). Comparison of underground mine DPM simulation using discrete phase and species transport models. *Advanced Powder Technology*, 30(8), 1441-1451.
- Chang, P., Xu, G., Mullins, B., Abishek, S., & Sharifzadeh, M. (2020). Numerical investigation of diesel particulate matter dispersion in an underground development face during key mining activities. Advanced Powder Technology, 31(8), 3261-3274.
- **9.** Chasm Consulting. (2016). *Ventsim Visual* 3D mine ventilation simulation software.

- Brisbane, Australia: Chasm Consulting Pty
- **10.** De la Vergne, J. (2014). *Hard rock miners handbook* (5th ed.). Tempe, AZ: McIntosh Engineering.
- 11. de Vilhena Costa, L., & Margarida da Silva, J. (2020). Cost-saving electrical energy consumption in underground ventilation by the use of ventilation on demand. *Mining Technology*, 129(1), 1-8.
- **12.** DGMS. (2017). *Coal Mines Regulations* 2017. Dhanbad, India: Directorate General of Mines Safety, Ministry of Labour and Employment, Government of India.
- 13. Gillies, A. D. S., & Wu, H. W. (2004). Management strategies for diesel emissions in underground mines. In Proceedings of the 10th US Mine Ventilation Symposium (pp. 345-351). Anchorage, Alaska.
- 14. Gillies, A. D. S., Wu, H. W., Shires, D., & Shen, B. (2004). Recent developments in diesel emission quantification and management in Australian underground metalliferous mining. In *Proceedings of the Queensland Mining Industry Health and Safety Conference* (pp. 213-224). Townsville, Australia.
- Hartman, H. L., & Mutmansky, J. M. (2002). Introductory mining engineering (2nd ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.
- **16.** Hartman, H. L., Mutmansky, J. M., & Ramani, R. V. (1997). *Mine ventilation and air conditioning* (3rd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- **17.** IARC. (2012). *IARC: Diesel engine exhaust carcinogenic* (Press Release No. 213). Lyon, France: International Agency



- for Research on Cancer, World Health Organization.
- 18. Maximilien, S., Elaine, W., & Rachel, P. (2017). Diesel exhaust exposure and mortality in the Diesel Exhaust in Miners Study (DEMS). Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 74(6), 412-419.
- 19. MSHA. (2006). Final rule on diesel particulate matter exposure of underground metal and nonmetal miners
 (30 CFR Parts 56 and 57). Washington, DC: Mine Safety and Health Administration, US Department of Labor.
- 20. Sasmito, A. P., Kurnia, J. C., Birgersson, E., & Mujumdar, A. S. (2015). Computational evaluation of thermal management strategies in an underground mine. Applied Thermal Engineering, 90, 1144-1150.
- 21. Stewart, C., & Petersen, G. (2017). Optimisation of mine ventilation systems using simulation software. In *Proceedings of the 16th North American Mine Ventilation Symposium* (pp. 67-74). Golden, Colorado.

- 22. Stinnette, D. (2013). Establishing total airflow requirements for underground metal/non-metal mines based on the diesel equipment fleet (Master's thesis). Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada.
- **23.** Swift, A., Smoorenburg, E., Newman, A., & Bogin, G. E. (2023). The impact of environmental conditions on the heat and emissions produced by large diesel engines in underground mines. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 423, 138734.
- 24. Trapani, K. (2017, June). Proper mine ventilation increases safety and can dramatically reduce costs. MINING.COM. Retrieved from https://www.mining.com
- **25.** Wallace, J. K. (2001). General operation characteristic and industry practices of mine ventilation systems. In *Proceedings* of the 7th International Mine Ventilation Congress (pp. 229-234). Krakow, Poland.
- 26. Zhou, L., Pritchard, C., & Zheng, Y. (2015). CFD modeling of methane distribution at a continuous miner face with various curtain setback distances. International Journal of Mining Science and Technology, 25(4), 635-640.

27.