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VOLUME 15

ISSUE 2

VERSION 1.0



GLOBAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES IN ENGINEERING: A
MECHANICAL AND MECHANICS ENGINEERING



GLOBAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES IN ENGINEERING: A
MECHANICAL AND MECHANICS ENGINEERING
VOLUME 15 ISSUE 2 (VER. 1.0)

OPEN ASSOCIATION OF RESEARCH SOCIETY

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CONTENTS OF THE ISSUE

- i. Copyright Notice
 - ii. Editorial Board Members
 - iii. Chief Author and Dean
 - iv. Contents of the Issue
-
1. Proximity Control for Linear Features - Application for Ship Control in Closed Approach. *1-11*
 2. Assessment of Profile Error for Efficient Solar Parabolic Trough. *13-16*
 3. Nuclear Power Plant in Bangladesh and the Much Talked about Rooppur Project. *17-22*
 4. Effect of Dynamic Stiffness on Performance of Paddy Grain Losses in Axial-Flow Thresher. *23-35*
-
- v. Fellows and Auxiliary Memberships
 - vi. Process of Submission of Research Paper
 - vii. Preferred Author Guidelines
 - viii. Index



GLOBAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES IN ENGINEERING: A
MECHANICAL AND MECHANICS ENGINEERING
Volume 15 Issue 2 Version 1.0 Year 2015
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA)
Online ISSN:2249-4596 Print ISSN:0975-5861

Proximity Control for Linear Features - Application for Ship Control in Closed Approach

By Nguyen Xuan Phuong

Ho Chi Minh City University of Transport, Vietnam

Abstract- The paper devotes the proximity control for linear features that will apply for ship control in closed approach. In nautical practice of Vietnam, the ship has been encountered in the special situations, such as: coming approach ship to ship, ship to floating object, ship to mobile object... In order to solve this issue, the author presents his researches about task of the problem of the regulator of the optimal time; also he gives the solution of the problem of time-optimal controller for a linear system with constant parameters. Accordingly, the result is applied to design and create a control system to ensure the meeting of movements of ships.

Keywords: *proximity control for linear features, ship control in closed approach, linear system with constant parameters.*

GJRE-A Classification : *FOR Code: 249999p*



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Proximity Control for Linear Features - Application for Ship Control in Closed Approach

Nguyen Xuan Phuong

Abstract- The paper devotes the proximity control for linear features that will apply for ship control in closed approach. In nautical practice of Vietnam, the ship has been encountered in the special situations, such as: coming approach ship to ship, ship to floating object, ship to mobile object... In order to solve this issue, the author presents his researches about task of the problem of the regulator of the optimal time; also he gives the solution of the problem of time-optimal controller for a linear system with constant parameters. Accordingly, the result is applied to design and create a control system to ensure the meeting of movements of ships.

Keywords: proximity control for linear features, ship control in closed approach, linear system with constant parameters.

I. INTRODUCTION

In nautical practice of Vietnam, the ship has been encountered in the special situations, such as: coming approach ship to ship, ship to floating object, ship to mobile object,...In order to control the ship safely in these cases, this researcher has been developing the algorithm of proximity control for linear features which will apply for ship control in closed approach. For this purpose, it's applied the results obtained for the problem to the case of linear systems with constant parameters. Throughout this paper, an area Sand the origin of the phase space will be considered. This task will be called the problem of the regulator of the optimal time.

II. THE PROBLEM OF TIME-OPTIMAL CONTROLLER FOR A LINEAR SYSTEM WITH CONSTANT PARAMETERS

It developed a set of control models for ships in closed approach. The linear production is considered that there is a dynamic system[1, 4, 11, 12].

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t) \quad (2.1)$$

Where

- Status of system $x(t)$ is an n -dimensional vector;
- Matrix A of the system is a constant matrix size $n \times n$;
- The matrix coefficients of the control functions ("gain") B is a constant matrix size $n \times r$;
- The control $u(t)$ is an r -dimensional vector

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We consider that the system is completely controllable and components $u_1(t), u_2(t), \dots, u_r(t)$ limited in size.

$$|u_j(t)| \leq 1, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, r \quad (2.2)$$

At a given initial time $t_0 = 0$ the initial state of the system is equal to

$$x(0) = \xi \quad (2.3)$$

Find the control $u^*(t)$ transforming the system from ξ to 0 at the minimum time.

We denote $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ the eigen values of the matrix system A , and through b_1, b_2, \dots, b_r -column vectors of the matrix B

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} \uparrow & \vdots & \uparrow & \vdots & \vdots & \uparrow \\ b_1 & \vdots & b_2 & \vdots & \dots & \vdots & b_r \\ \downarrow & \vdots & \downarrow & \vdots & \vdots & \downarrow \end{bmatrix} \quad (2.4)$$

The system is fully controllable. This means that the control transferring system(3.1) from any initial state ξ and the origin 0, exist. This occurs if the matrix size $n \times (rn)$

$$G = [B:AB:A^2B:\dots:A^{n-1}B] \quad (2.5)$$

It contains n linearly independent column vectors.

Entrance $y(t)$ (3.1) is connected with its state $x(t)$ and the control $u(t)$ by the equation:

$$y(t) = Cx(t) + Du(t) \quad (2.6)$$

The algorithm for calculating the optimal control is shown in the following block diagram in Fig.3.1

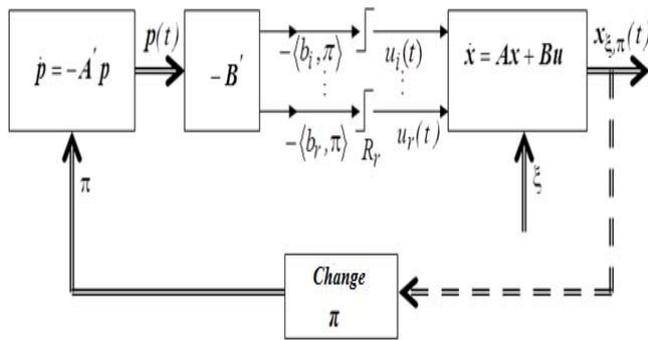


Fig. 3.1 : The structure of the algorithm is an open problem of optimal high-speed

Block diagram of an optimal feedback system is shown in Fig. 3.2. Functions $x_1(t), x_2(t), \dots, x_n(t)$ measured at each time and are introduced into a subsystem, designated C("computer"). RF outputs are switching function $h_1[x(t)], h_2[x(t)], \dots, h_r[x(t)]$ which are then fed to the ideal relay R_1, R_2, \dots, R_r for the control variables, time-optimal. Receiving and developing of functions $h_1[x(t)], h_2[x(t)], \dots, h_r[x(t)]$ is the basis of the problem of optimal control.

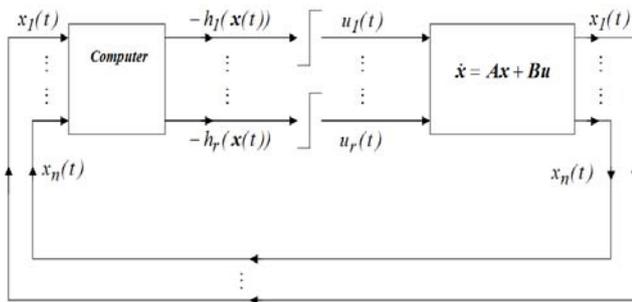


Fig. 3.2 : Structure of the time-optimal control systems with feedback

III. THE GEOMETRIC PROPERTIES OF THE OPTIMAL TIME CONTROL

a) The Surface of the Minimum Time

Previously, the author discussed the geometric nature of the problem of optimal time basing on the reachable states areas [2, 12]. Then we went from geometric considerations to the analytical results that obtained from the necessary conditions given by the principle of minimum. In this section we try to give a geometric interpretation of the necessary conditions. We assume that the task is normal [12]. Note also that the material in this section is a specification of the above mentioned remarks.

Consider the surface of the minimum time, and we will treat the optimal control that causes the system to move along the surface of the minimum time in the direction of fastest decrease. After that we will be able to establish a correspondence between the additional

variable gradient and surface of minimum time. Our arguments are inherently heuristic, since we are primarily interested in giving a geometric interpretation of the necessary conditions.

Let x -the state in the space of phase coordinates. Suppose that there is an optimal control(only) that send sx to 0. We denote the minimum time required for translation x to 0 through:

$$T^*(x) \tag{3.1}$$

We show that the minimum time $T^*(x)$ depends on the state of the x and does not depend explicitly on the time that

$$\frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial t} = 0 \tag{3.2}$$

It is true, as the time-invariant of systems, $\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$ it implies that the minimum time may be only a function of state. In other words, if x is the state of the system at $t = 0$ and the minimum time required for translation x in 0 is $T^*(x)$ and x -state while $t = t_0$, then the optimal control will translate x into 0 at time $t_0 + T^*(x)$.

Since the time required to transfer the system from 0 to 0 is zero and we are considering only positive solutions times, it is obvious that $T^*(x)$ has properties as

$$T^*(x) = 0, x = 0 \tag{3.3}$$

$$T^*(x) > 0, x \neq 0 \tag{3.4}$$

In the future, for the gradient of function $T^*(x)$ of x we use the notation[11]

$$\frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} \tag{3.5}$$

We next consider some properties of the function $T^*(x)$. It is useful to consider $T^*(x)$ as the minimum time surface and present it graphically as shown in Fig. 3.3

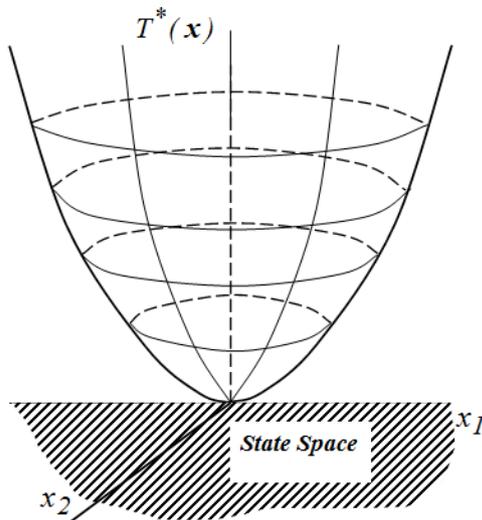


Fig. 3.3 : The surface of the minimum value (minimum time) $T^*(x)$ as a function of x

Next, we define the concept of minimum isochrones.

b) The Minimum Isochrones

Let $S(\tau)$ -the set of states from which you can go to 0 for the same minimum time τ , $\tau \geq 0$. We call $S(\tau)$ -minimal isochrone τ . This function $S(\tau)$ is defined by

$$S(\tau) = \{x : T^*(x) = \tau; \tau \geq 0\} \tag{3.6}$$

Suppose that $S(\tau)$ is the set of states from which you can go to the origin by using of the optimal control for a time less than or equal to τ [3, 7]:

$$\widehat{S}(\tau) = \{x : T^*(x) \leq \tau; \tau \geq 0\} \tag{3.7}$$

Equations (3.5) and (3.6), we conclude that there is a subset $\widehat{S}(\tau)$ of $S(\tau)$. It can be sure that $S(\tau)$ is the boundary and closed $\widehat{S}(\tau)$ [4, 13].

We prove that the set of $\widehat{S}(\tau)$ is strictly convex. Let x_1 and x_2 -two different states at the τ -minimum isochrones.

$$x_1 \in S(\tau), x_2 \in S(\tau) \tag{3.8}$$

In view of normality, we know that there are only optimal control $u_1^*(t) = -SIGN\{B' p_1^*(t)\}$ transform x_1 to 0, and $u_2^*(t) = -SIGN\{B' p_2^*(t)\}$ transform x_2 to 0. Thus, the equations should be valid:

$$x_1 = \int_0^\tau e^{-At} B SIGN\{B' p_1^*(t)\} dt \tag{3.9}$$

$$x_2 = \int_0^\tau e^{-At} B SIGN\{B' p_2^*(t)\} dt \tag{3.10}$$

Suppose that x -on the condition (open) segment joining x_1 and x_2 , as shown in Fig. 3.4. Choose:

$$0 < \alpha < 1 \tag{3.11}$$

and consider the state of x , defined by the relation:

$$x = \alpha x_1 + (1-\alpha)x_2, \alpha \in (0,1) \tag{3.12}$$

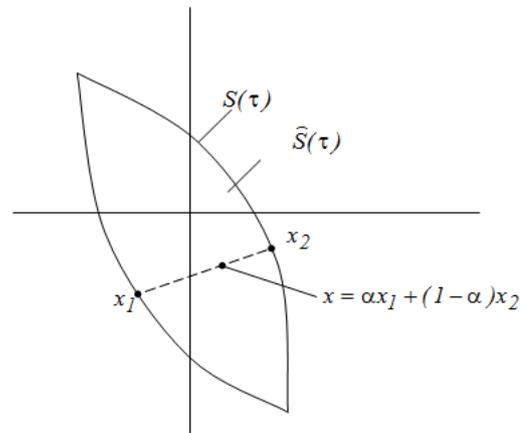


Fig. 3.4 : Illustration convexity

From (3.12), (3.10) and (3.9), we obtain:

$$x = \int_0^\tau e^{-At} B \left[\alpha SIGN\{B' p_1^*(t)\} + (1-\alpha)SIGN\{B' p_2^*(t)\} \right] dt \tag{3.13}$$

Now let $u^*(t) = -SIGN\{B' p^*(t)\}$ optimal control, sending x to 0 and τ' -the corresponding minimum time ($T^*(x) = \tau'$). We show that

$$\tau' < \tau \tag{3.14}$$

To prove this, we note:

$$x_1 = \int_0^{\tau'} e^{-At} B SIGN\{B' p^*(t)\} dt \tag{3.15}$$

From (2.14) it follows that the control

$$\alpha u_1^*(t) + (1-\alpha)u_2^*(t) = \alpha SIGN\{B' p_1^*(t)\} + (1-\alpha)SIGN\{B' p_2^*(t)\} \tag{3.16}$$

converts x to 0. However, this control is not optimal in performance, since it is not a vector whose components

are functions of the type of sign. To prove this, let us assume that at some time \hat{t} we have:

$$u_1^*(\hat{t}) = \begin{bmatrix} +1 \\ -1 \\ \vdots \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, u_2^*(\hat{t}) = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ \vdots \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.17)$$

From here you can get

$$\alpha u_1^*(\hat{t}) + (1-\alpha)u_2^*(\hat{t}) = \begin{bmatrix} 2\alpha - 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \\ \vdots \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.18)$$

But since $0 < \alpha < 1$, we have the inequality:

$$-1 < 2\alpha - 1 < +1 \quad (3.19)$$

and therefore the control(3.17)cannot be the optimal time. If this control is not optimal and transform $s x$ to 0 during τ , then the optimal control will require $\tau' < \tau$. Thus the statement(2.14) is proved. We have seen that $S(\tau)$ is a border of $\hat{S}(\tau)$. Consequently, the state $x = \alpha x_1 + (1-\alpha)x_1$, $\alpha \in (0,1)$ is an element of the interior $\hat{S}(\tau)$ and therefore the set $\hat{S}(\tau)$ is strictly convex.

c) *The Heuristic Geometric Proof*

Note that the minimal isochrones τ "grow" with the τ increase [2, 12, 18]. Suppose that τ_1, τ_2 two arbitrary time, wherein τ

$$0 < \tau_1 < \tau_2 \quad (3.20)$$

Then we can show that:

$$0 \subset \hat{S}(\tau_1) \subset \hat{S}(\tau_2) \quad (3.21)$$

Value for inclusion (3.21) means that the minimum isochrones s increase their "distance" from the origin with increasing time, and this increase is "smooth". To clarify this provision, we will give a heuristic geometric proof.

Suppose that ξ -state when $t = 0$, and assume that for transfer ξ to 0 by means of optimal control $u^*(t)$ takes time $0 \leq t \leq \tau$. Thus $\xi \in S(\tau)$. Fig. 3.5 shows the optimal trajectory x^* connecting ξ with 0. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ -small positive time. Consider the state $x^*(\varepsilon)$ when $t = \varepsilon$.

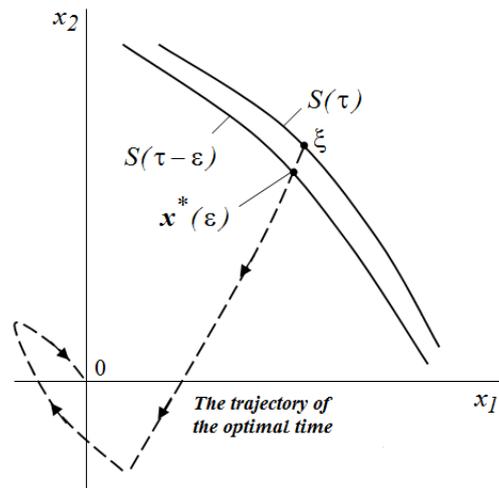


Fig. 3.5 : Minimum isochrones $S(\tau)$ and $S(\tau-\varepsilon)$, $\varepsilon > 0$. – Optimal path from $x^*(\varepsilon)$ to 0 is a part-optimal path from ξ to 0

According to the principle of optimal control $u^*(t)$ to $\varepsilon \leq t \leq \tau$ have optimal control taking the $x^*(\varepsilon)$ to 0 in a minimum time $t = \varepsilon$. Thus $x^*(\varepsilon) \in S(\tau-\varepsilon)$. Since the phase trajectory is continuous, $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ then the state $x^*(\varepsilon)$ is committed to ξ . If you repeat this experiment for all, $\xi \in S(\tau)$ then you may find that isochrones $S(\tau)$ and $S(\tau-\varepsilon)$ "approaching each other closer" when $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$.

Let us now discuss the geometric properties of optimal control $u^*(t)$. Suppose that ξ -the initial state, and $\xi \in S(\tau)$. Fig. 3.6 shows that there is a region X_ξ of phase space where the gradient $\frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x}$ is defined for all $x \in X_\xi$.

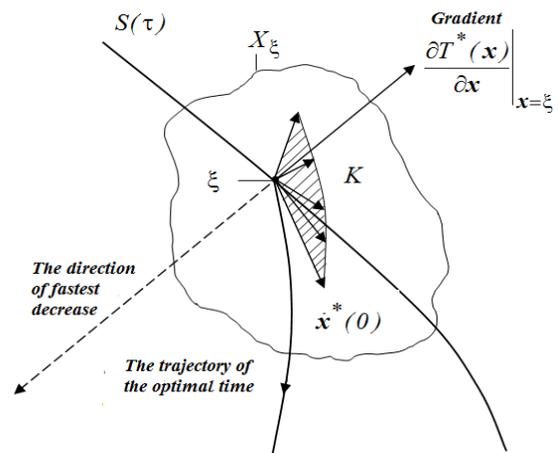


Fig. 3.6 : Optimal Control $u^*(0)$ flushes vector, which is aimed, as far as possible to be more precise, in the direction of fastest decrease

In other words, the components of the gradient vector:

$$\nabla T^*(x) = \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} \quad (3.22)$$

It is well-defined functions for all $x \in X_\xi$.

Gradient T^* at. The vector $\left. \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=\xi}$ determines the direction of the most rapid changes in the function $T^*(x)$ at the point. As shown in Fig. 3.6 gradient is normal to the curve $S(\tau)$ at the point $x = \xi$ and directed

from "origin". The direction of the vector $\left. -\frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=\xi}$ (shown in phantom in Fig. 3.6) determines the direction of "fastest decrease" on the surface $T^*(x)$ at a point. So, if we construct the surface $T^*(x)$ and put it in a ballpoint, it begins to roll down the surface $T^*(x)$ in the direction of the vector.

If $t = 0$ we have:

$$\dot{x}(0) = A\xi + Bu(0), \quad u(0) \in \Omega \quad (3.23)$$

The direction and magnitude of the vector $\dot{x}(0)$ is obviously dependent on a vector $A\xi$ that depends on the state ξ , and the vector $Bu(0)$, magnitude and direction of which can be selected within the constraints $u(0) \in \Omega$. If "try" all control $u(0)$ of Ω , we get the set of vectors $\{\dot{x}(0)\}$ that form a cone K . We assume that this cone is shown in Fig. 3.6. Thus, the restriction $u(0) \in \Omega$ defines regional directions in Fig. 3.6, and we can do so

that the vector $\dot{x}(0)$ is directed along $\left. -\frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=\xi}$.

However, there is a vector $\dot{x}^*(0)$ pointing in the direction of fastest decrease under the restrictions imposed. We denote the control vector $u^*(0)$ such that:

$$\dot{x}^*(0) = A\xi + Bu^*(0) \quad (3.24)$$

Consider the difference between a vector $\dot{x}^*(0)$ from all the other possible vectors $\dot{x}(0)$? It is easy to see that $\dot{x}^*(0)$ satisfies (see. Fig. 3.6)

$$\left\langle \dot{x}^*(0), \left. \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=\xi} \right\rangle \leq \left\langle \dot{x}(0), \left. \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=\xi} \right\rangle \quad (3.25)$$

for all $\dot{x}(0) \in K$. Similarly, from (3.23) and (3.24), we find that for all $u(0) \in \Omega$.

$$\left\langle A\xi + Bu^*(0), \left. \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=\xi} \right\rangle \leq \left\langle A\xi + Bu(0), \left. \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=\xi} \right\rangle \quad (3.26)$$

Or

$$\left\langle u^*(0), B \left. \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=\xi} \right\rangle \leq \left\langle u(0), B \left. \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=\xi} \right\rangle \quad (3.27)$$

Thus, vector control $u^*(0)$ satisfying (3.27), sets the direction of fastest decrease (compatible with restrictions) along the surface of the minimum time $T^*(x)$ at the point $x = \xi$. This control $u^*(0)$ satisfying (3.27) must also satisfy the relation;

$$\left\langle u^*(0), B \pi \right\rangle \leq \left\langle u(0), B \pi \right\rangle \quad (3.28)$$

Where π -arbitrary vector directed "outside" and the minimum normal isochrones $S(\tau)$ at the point ξ .

$$\pi = c \left. \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=\xi}, \quad c > 0 \quad (3.29)$$

for any positive constants c .

Physically, it should beat the point $x = \xi$ of optimal control $u^*(0)$, because it makes the state of the system or the representative point in the phase space to move, maximizing the rate of change in the minimum time. If $u^*(0)$ -optimal control, the prerequisite is known that there is a variable $p^*(0)$ in which the relation:

$$1 + \left\langle A\xi, p^*(0) \right\rangle + \left\langle u^*(0), B p^*(0) \right\rangle \leq 1 + \left\langle A\xi, p^*(0) \right\rangle + \left\langle u(0), B p^*(0) \right\rangle \quad (3.30)$$

For all $u(0) \in \Omega$

Or equivalent

$$\left\langle u^*(0), B p^*(0) \right\rangle \leq \left\langle u(0), B p^*(0) \right\rangle \quad (3.31)$$

d) Remark

If $u^*(0)$ -at optimal control $\dot{x}^*(0) = \xi$, the initial value $p^*(0)$ should be the same direction as the gradient $\left. \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=\xi}$, if it exists. The same can be expressed in a

different way. The initial value $\rho^*(0)$ must be the outward normal to isochrones S at $x = \xi$.

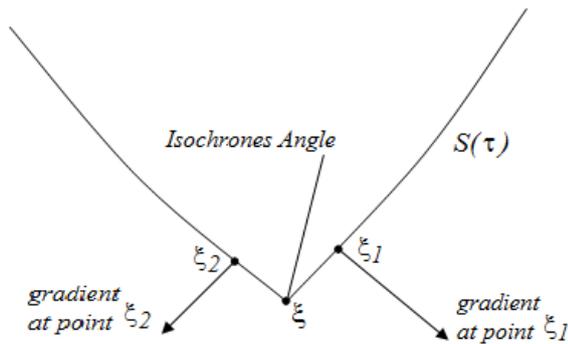


Fig. 3.7 : If a minimum angle ξ of isochrones, the direction of fastest decrease indefinitely

Let us discuss further the important case where the initial state is the “corner” of minimum isochrones. Assume that $\xi \in S(\tau)$, and as shown in Fig.3.7 is the angle isochrones; though ξ_1 - and ξ_2 are states near ξ in the isochronous $S(\tau)$. We say that ξ_1 is the “right” of, ξ and ξ_2 - to the left. The statement “ ξ is in the corner isochrones $S(\tau)$ ” means that the gradient $\frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x}$ with ξ

undefined. As shown in Fig. 3.7, vectors $\frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=\xi_1}$

and $\frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=\xi_2}$ determined for all ξ_1 of the right ξ and all ξ_2 to the left of ξ , but

$$\lim_{\xi_1 \rightarrow \xi} \left\{ \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=\xi_1} \right\} \neq \lim_{\xi_2 \rightarrow \xi} \left\{ \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=\xi_2} \right\} \quad (3.32)$$

Thus, if $x = \xi$ we cannot find the direction of the steepest gradient of decreasing just when $x = \xi$, as the latter is not defined. This means that optimal control at this point cannot be determined by a geometrical proof given in the preceding discussion. If, $\rho^*(0)$ however, there is a vector corresponding to ξ and $u^*(0)$ then (3.31) remains in force. When this line is lost between $\rho^*(0)$ and the normal to the minimum isochrone.

The preceding discussion was limited to the initial states located on this minimum isochrone. Note that the same comments by the principle of optimality are true of any state on $x^*(t)$ the optimal trajectory to the origin.

Let $x^*(t)$ - the state on the optimal trajectory and let $\rho^*(t)$ -corresponding additional variable. Suppose $x^*(t) \in S(T)$. Then $\rho^*(t)$ -the outer normal of $S(T)$ to a

point $x^*(t)$ in case $\frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=x^*(t)}$, if the gradient is defined.

IV. CONDITIONS FOR THE EXISTENCE OF OPTIMAL CONTROL

a) The Particular Problem of Existence of Optimal Control to the Origin with a Heuristic Point of View

In this section is a discussion of consider the optimal control for the control system, which guarantees the existence of optimal control to the origin of any initial state in phase space [1, 15, 16].

The question of the existence of an optimal control when moving from an arbitrary initial state to an arbitrary area S is extremely complex. It is useful to consider the particular problem of existence of optimal control to the origin with a heuristic point of view.

Suppose that we are given a dynamical system is fully controlled and control is limited in size ratio $u(t) \in \Omega$. Using the assumption of controllability of the system, we can find at least one control that will translate any initial state ξ to 0 for a finite time. It may, however, prove that the initial state ξ is so far from the origin, which translate to 0 can only control that do not meet the limit $u(t) \in \Omega$. In this case, there are initial states, which cannot be converted into offices 0 satisfying the constraints.

We can make the following observations: for a given plane controlled dynamical system $\dot{x}(t) = f[x(t), u(t)]$ and the area limitation Ω , n - dimensional phase space R_n can be divided into two subspaces and with the following properties:

1. If $\xi \in \Psi_\Omega$ there exists at least one admissible control transferring to 0 for a finite time;
2. If $\xi \in R_n - \Psi_\Omega$, there is no optimal control taking ξ to any of the elements Ψ_Ω for the final time (and therefore cannot be translated ξ to 0 using a valid management).

In essence, the control is not limited to provide sufficient “push” to convert from a state $R_n - \Psi_\Omega$ to Ψ_Ω , and hence the origin.

From a physical point of view, control $u(t)$ can add or take away power from the dynamical system. If we imagine the state $x = 0$ as a state of zero energy, we can see that the system for which the set $R_n - \Psi_\Omega$ is not empty, in fact unstable. For this reason, it is believed that a stable, fully controlled dynamic system is characterized by the ratio $\Psi_\Omega = R_n$, and for unstable, there is a fully controlled system $\Psi_\Omega \in R_n$, but $\Psi_\Omega \neq R_n$.

The theorem is useful to confirm this and guarantees the existence of optimal control to the origin of any initial state, it can be formulated as follows.

b) *The Optimal Control for the Control System*

Consider the optimal control for the controlled system $\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$ in accordance with the objective of movement [1, 12]. If the eigen values of A are not positive (negative or zero) real parts, then the optimal control to the origin exists for any initial state of R_n .

A rigorous proof of this theorem can be found in [17]. Consider the example of the essence of the proof of a distinct real eigen values, and the sole control variable $u(t)$.

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \dot{x}_i(t) &= \lambda_i x_i(t) + b_i u(t), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n \\ |u(t)| &\leq 1 \\ \xi_i &= x_i(0); \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (4.1)$$

The solution of (3.2-3.130) for any given formula

$$x_i(t) = e^{\lambda_i t} \left[\xi_i + \int_0^t e^{-\lambda_i \tau} b_i u(\tau) d\tau \right] \quad (4.2)$$

Suppose [1, 6, 15, 16] we found an admissible control $\hat{u}(t)$, for that $x_1(\hat{T}) = x_2(\hat{T}) = \dots = x_n(\hat{T}) = 0$. This means that the ratio:

$$\xi_i = - \int_0^{\hat{T}} e^{\lambda_i t} b_i \hat{u}(t) dt \quad (4.3)$$

Satisfied for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Since [1, 11, 12], it can be concluded that $|\hat{u}(t)| \leq 1$

$$\begin{aligned} |\xi_i| &= \left| \int_0^{\hat{T}} e^{-\lambda_i t} b_i \hat{u}(t) dt \right| \leq \int_0^{\hat{T}} e^{-\lambda_i t} |b_i| |\hat{u}(t)| dt \leq \\ &\leq \int_0^{\hat{T}} e^{-\lambda_i t} |b_i| dt = - \frac{|b_i|}{\lambda_i} (e^{-\lambda_i \hat{T}} - 1) \end{aligned} \quad (4.4)$$

For $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Assume that one of the eigen values, e.g. λ_1 positive [it means that the system (3.10) is unstable]. From (3.3) we obtain:

$$|\xi_1| \leq - \frac{|b_1|}{\lambda_1} (e^{-\lambda_1 \hat{T}} - 1) \quad (4.5)$$

from whence [1, 11, 12].

$$e^{-\lambda_1 \hat{T}} \leq 1 - \frac{\lambda_1 |\xi_1|}{|b_1|} \quad (4.6)$$

It is obvious that (3.6) cannot be satisfied for any real, positive and finite of \hat{T} , if the initial value of the coordinates ξ_1 of the inequality

$$|\xi_1| \geq \frac{|b_1|}{\lambda_1} \quad (4.7)$$

Thus, if, $\lambda_1 \geq 0$ and $|\xi_1| \geq \frac{|b_1|}{\lambda_1}$ it is impossible to

find \hat{T} such that $x_1(\hat{T}) = 0$ and therefore there is no optimal control.

If all the eigen values λ_i are not positive, it is easy to show that the equation (4.4) can be true for any $|\xi_i|$ and $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, as you can pick up a large enough value \hat{T} . This, in turn, means that the optimal control exists for all initial states of the system.

c) *The Optimal Control System*

Consider the optimal control system:

$$\dot{x}(t) = a x(t) + u(t), |u(t)| \leq 1, x(0) = \xi \quad (4.8)$$

If $a \leq 0$, then [1, 13] optimal control to the state $x = 0$ exists for all ξ . If $a > 0$ the system is unstable. We find the region of initial conditions Ψ_Ω for which there is optimal control. If the optimal control $u^*(t)$ exists, and $|u^*(t)| = 1$ we have:

$$\xi = - \int_0^{\tau} e^{at} u^*(t) dt$$

Where we find

$$\begin{aligned} |\xi| &= \left| \int_0^{\tau} e^{-at} u^*(t) dt \right| \leq \int_0^{\tau} e^{-at} |u^*(t)| dt = \\ &= \int_0^{\tau} e^{-at} dt = - \frac{1}{a} (e^{-a\tau} - 1) \end{aligned} \quad (4.9)$$

The ratio (4.9) is satisfied for some positive end, you must have $\xi \leq \frac{1}{a}$

Thus, the scope of the initial values Ψ_Ω , for which there exists an optimal control of the origin is determined by the relation:

$$\Psi_\Omega = \left\{ \xi : |\xi| < \frac{1}{a}, a > 0 \right\} \quad (4.10)$$

If $|\xi| \geq \frac{1}{a}$ then there is an optimal control. Thus, the region is an open set containing the origin [1, 6, 9, 13, 16].

V. THE HAMILTON-JACOBI EQUATION

a) The State on Optimal Trajectory and the Value of Optimal Control

Previously, they discussed changes in the minimum of time along the optimal path, and examined geometric properties of optimal control problem [2, 12]. In this section we relate these concepts together and study Hamilton - Jacobi equation for the problem of optimal performance. The purpose of this section is to show how you can use the overall results for the problem of optimal performance [1,14, 15].

Throughout this section we will deal with the optimal control to a normal system $\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t)$ with field goal(the origin) $S = 0$. At the same time we use the following notation: if we set the state x , denoted by $T^*(x)$ the minimum time required for translation x in 0 and through u^* - the value of optimal control in the state x .

The specific objectives of this section are as follows:

- 1) To show how you can use the Hamilton - Jacobi equation to check whether the function $T(x)$ is found by solving the problem of optimal control to be equal $T^*(x)$;
- 2) To point out the difficulties that arise if the assumption that the optimal control is wrong;
- 3) Noted the difficulties associated with determining optimal control directly from the Hamilton - Jacobi equation.

Let us turn to a discussion of the use of the Hamilton-Jacobi, seeing it as a necessary condition. The general theory of the minimum principle can be deduced the following.

Let x^* - the state on-optimal trajectory and u^* - the value of optimal control at x^* . Since $\frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial t} = 0$ for any x , need $T^*(x)$ to satisfy the relation:

$$1 + \left\langle Ax^*, \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=x^*} \right\rangle + \left\langle u^*, B \cdot \frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=x^*} \right\rangle = 0 \quad (5.1)$$

Provided $\frac{\partial T^*(x)}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=x^*}$ that exists.

This lemma is useful in the case when the problem of optimal control has been solved and we want to find out whether this function $T(x)$ is to be an expression that determines the minimum time as a function of the state. If this function does not satisfy the equation (5.1), at least at one point, it can be immediately excluded from the number of possible options for the minimum time. We show this in the following example.

b) The Minimum Time Function

Suppose that the linear system is described by the following equations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1(t) \\ \dot{x}_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u(t) \quad |u(t)| \leq 1 \quad (5.2)$$

We can be sure that the best is the control:

$$u^* = -1, \text{ for all } x = x_\alpha = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.3)$$

$$u^* = -1, \text{ for all } x = x_\beta = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.4)$$

Suppose that somehow we found a relationship:

$$T(x) = T(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2} x_1^2 + x_2^2 \quad (5.5)$$

which expresses the minimum time as a function of state. This suspicion is not unfounded, because $T(x) > 0$ for all x , $T(0) = 0$ and $\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} T(x) = \infty$.

We now show that our assumption is wrong.

First of all, we calculate the gradient $T(x)$. From (5.5) we find that this gradient is:

$$\frac{\partial T(x)}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial T(x)}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial T(x)}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.6)$$

We calculate it by $x = x_\alpha$ and $x = x_\beta$:

$$\frac{\partial T(x)}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=x_\alpha} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.7)$$

$$\frac{\partial T(x)}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=x_\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.8)$$

At the left side of equation (5.1) is equal to:

$$1 + \left\langle \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right\rangle - 1 \left\langle \begin{bmatrix} 0, 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\rangle = 1 + 2 - 4 = -1 \neq 0 \quad (5.9)$$

It can be concluded that the $T(x)$ ratio(5.4) cannot be a formula that expresses the minimum amount of time, because when $x = x_\alpha$ equation(5.1) is not satisfied. Let's see what happens if we experience $T(x)$ at $x = x_\beta$. In its left-hand side of (5.1) is equal to:

$$1 + \left\langle \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\rangle - 1 \left\langle \begin{bmatrix} 0, 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right\rangle = 1 + 1 - 2 = 0 \quad (5.10)$$

This means that $T(x)$ satisfies the necessary condition of item 5.1 with $x = x_\beta$, and on the basis of this

test, we can conclude that $T(x)$ may be the minimum time. However, the test for $x = x_\alpha$ excludes this possibility.

Suppose now that in determining the optimal control mistake. For example, we believe that.

$$u^* = +1, \text{ for all } x = x_\beta = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (5.11)$$

Then, instead of (5.10), we obtain:

$$1 + \left\langle \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right\rangle + 1 \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0, 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right\} = 1 + 1 + 2 = 4 \neq 0 \quad (5.12)$$

and could be removed from consideration $T(x)$. It is true that $T(x) \neq T^*(x)$, but on the basis of the expression (5.12) it is impossible to conclude, as incorrectly set $u^* = +1$ for x_β . In other words, if you make a mistake in determining the optimal control law, in the course of such checks can be excluded from consideration the correct dependence $T^*(x)$.

In practice, this item (5.2) is not very useful, since the engineer often need to build an optimal feedback system, and not check if $T(x)$ is equal this optimal $T^*(x)$ or not. Nevertheless, the use of the Hamilton - Jacobi is essential matters in theoretical studies and validates the results obtained by using the minimum principle.

Hamilton - Jacobi equation was largely seen as a sufficient condition. Let us now discuss the problem of solving the Hamilton-Jacobi and finding the optimal control. We know that the Hamiltonian of the problem of the optimal control [6, 16]:

$$H[x, p, u] = 1 + \langle Ax, p \rangle + \langle u, B' p \rangle \quad (5.13)$$

Since the system $\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$ is normal, what is normal and the Hamiltonian, and therefore the H-minimal control well:

$$\tilde{u} = -SIGN\{B' p\} \quad (5.14)$$

From the relations(5.14) and (5.13), we obtain:

$$H[x, p, u] = 1 + \langle Ax, p \rangle - \left\langle SGN\{B' p\}, B' p \right\rangle = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} x_i p_k - \sum_{j=1}^r \left| \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} x_i p_k \right| \quad (5.15)$$

Consider the partial differential equation(Hamilton - Jacobi):

$$1 + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} x_i p_k \frac{\partial T(x)}{\partial x_i} - \sum_{j=1}^r \left| \sum_{i=1}^n b_{ij} \frac{\partial T(x)}{\partial x_i} \right| = 0 \quad (5.16)$$

Suppose that we were able to find a solution:

$$\hat{T}(x) \quad (5.17)$$

differential equation in partial derivatives(5.16), and

1) Function

$$\hat{T}(0) = 0 \quad (5.18)$$

2) The control vector:

$$\hat{u} = -SIGN\left\{B' \frac{\partial \hat{T}(x)}{\partial x}\right\} \quad (5.19)$$

Substituting this solution into the equation system, we have:

$$\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) - B SIGN\left\{B' \frac{\partial \hat{T}[x(t)]}{\partial x(t)}\right\} \quad (5.20)$$

The solution of this equation:

$$\hat{x}(t) \text{ with the initial condition } \hat{x}(0) = \xi \quad (5.21)$$

It has property:

$$x[\hat{T}(\xi)] = 0 \quad (5.22)$$

In other words, the decision $\hat{T}(x)$ of Hamilton - Jacobi equation(5.16) defines the control of \hat{u} [see. ratio(5.19)], which in turn produces the trajectory $\hat{x}(t)$, reaching the origin during $\hat{T}(\xi)$, where ξ -given initial condition. If so, then control is $\hat{u}(t)$ - optimal, at least with respect to the offices close to it, that $\hat{u}(t)$ is locally optimal.

c) *The Locally Optimal Control*

Suppose we are given a system of first order [1, 13]:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \dot{x}(t) &= 2u(t) \\ |u(t)| &\leq 1 \\ x(0) &= \xi \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (5.23)$$

Require to translate an arbitrary initial state ξ to 0 in a minimum time. The Hamiltonian for this problem has the form:

$$H(x, p, u) = 1 + 2up \quad (5.23)$$

where the minimum control H is defined by:

$$\tilde{u} = -sign\{p\} \quad (5.24)$$

Hamilton - Jacobi equation for this problem has the form:

$$1 - 2 \left| \frac{\partial T(x)}{\partial x} \right| = 0 \quad (5.25)$$

We define two areas of X_1 and X_2 (one-dimensional) phase space as following:

$$\begin{aligned} X_1 &= \{x : x > 0\} \\ X_2 &= \{x : x < 0\} \end{aligned} \quad (5.26)$$

It is easy to see that the function;

$$\widehat{T}(x) = \frac{1}{2}|x| \quad (5.27)$$

is the solution of differential equations in partial derivatives(5.25) for all $x \in X_1 \cup X_2$, because of:

$$\frac{\partial \widehat{T}(x)}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{2} \text{ when } x \in X_1 \quad (5.28)$$

$$\frac{\partial \widehat{T}(x)}{\partial x} = -\frac{1}{2} \text{ when } x \in X_2 \quad (5.29)$$

Note that:

$$\left. \frac{\partial \widehat{T}(x)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=0} \text{ undefined} \quad (5.30)$$

And

$$\widehat{T}(0) = 0 \quad (5.31)$$

Consider the control of \widehat{u} , defined as:

$$\widehat{u} = -\text{sign} \left\{ \frac{\partial \widehat{T}(x)}{\partial x} \right\} \quad (5.32)$$

from whence

$$\widehat{u} = -1, x \in X_1 \quad (5.33)$$

$$\widehat{u} = +1, x \in X_2 \quad (5.34)$$

$$\text{and } \widehat{u} \text{ undefined when } x = 0 \quad (5.35)$$

Assume that $\xi \in X_1$, then $\xi > 0$ As a result of the substitution of the expression (5.33) into (5.32), we obtain:

$$\dot{x}(t) = -2 \quad (5.36)$$

$$\widehat{x}(t) = \xi - 2t; \xi \in X_1 \quad (5.37)$$

From (5.27) we have:

$$\widehat{T}(\xi) = \frac{1}{2}\xi; \xi \in X_1 \quad (5.38)$$

Therefore,

$$\widehat{x}[T(\xi)] = \xi - \xi = 0 \quad (5.39)$$

Further, for all $t \in [0, \widehat{T}(\xi)]$ we have:

$$\widehat{x}(t) = \xi - 2t > 0 \quad (5.40)$$

It means that:

$$\widehat{x}(t) \in X_1 \quad (5.41)$$

Thus, the control is unchanged:

$$\widehat{u} = -1 \quad (5.42)$$

And is an optimal time control for all $x \in X_1$

Similarly it is proved that, the control:

$$\widehat{u} = +1 \quad (5.43)$$

is also the optimal time control for all $x \in X_2$

Thus, we find the area X_1 and X_2 , such that

$\frac{\partial T(x)}{\partial x}$ is quite defined.

VI. CONCLUSION

For this system, we did not encounter any difficulties in finding the optimal control using the Hamilton - Jacobi equation, as it was simple enough:

- To guess the solution of Hamilton - Jacobi, satisfying the boundary conditions[5, 10, 12, 14];
- Identify two areas of X_1 and X_2 ;
- Define that $x[\widehat{T}(\xi)] = 0$.

If we try to find the optimal control for systems of higher order, at once confronted with the following challenges:

It is almost impossible to find a solution of the Hamilton - Jacobi systems higher than second order.

For the system n^{th} order, it is necessary to subdivide the phase space at least $2n$ of areas X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n , indicate that for the systems of higher than second order is extremely difficult. Therefore, at present the optimal design of feedback systems often is carried out by using the necessary conditions of the minimum principle, but not the sufficient conditions of the equation Hamilton - Jacobi.[12, 15].

In general, we can conclude that:

- A procedure for obtaining control for linear objects in closed approach which is provided in relation to the movement of vessels [7, 8].
- The analysis of the structure of the optimal control system obtained by the developed control algorithms, based on which we can design and create a control system to ensure the meeting of movements of ships. These results of further research will be presented in next article.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES IN ENGINEERING: A
MECHANICAL AND MECHANICS ENGINEERING
Volume 15 Issue 2 Version 1.0 Year 2015
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA)
Online ISSN:2249-4596 Print ISSN:0975-5861

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By Patoda Lalit, Dadaniya Akhilesh, Gupta Ashish & Singh Navdeep

SGSITS Indore, India

Abstract- Parabolic trough solar collector is providing nonpolluting energy for domestic and industrial application. Assessment of profile of manufactured parabola by precise instrument is basic need for high efficiency. This paper presented the assessment of parabolic profile by two dimensional linear scales having right angle to each other and compared the results with the analytical equation. Graphical view also presented for results measured by linear scales and analytical equation. The efficiency of the solar trough also can be increased by installing thermocouples at periphery of the receiver tube.

Keywords: *parabolic trough solar collector, silica glass, error.*

GJRE-A Classification : FOR Code: 240599



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Keywords: parabolic trough solar collector, silica glass, error.

I. INTRODUCTION

Solar thermal systems play an important role in providing non-polluting energy for domestic and industrial applications. Concentrating solar technologies, such as the parabolic dish, compound parabolic collector and parabolic trough can operate at high temperatures and are used to supply industrial process heat, off-grid electricity and bulk electrical power. In a parabolic trough solar collector, or PTSC, the reflective profile focuses sunlight on a linear heat collecting element (HCE) through which a heat transfer fluid is pumped. The fluid captures solar energy in the form of heat that can then be used in a variety of applications.

An attractive feature of the technology is that PTSCs are already in use in great numbers and research output is likely to find immediate application. Smaller-scale PTSCs can be used to test advances in receiver design, reflective materials, control methods, structural design, thermal storage, testing and tracking methods.

a) Types of Concentrating Collectors

Solar thermal energy systems are among the most promising of the renewable technologies. Three such concepts for bulk electricity production are the parabolic trough solar collector, and two others are, parabolic dishes and central receiver.

b) Parabolic trough collector

A high-temperature (above 360K) solar thermal concentrator with the capacity for tracking the sun using one axis of rotation. It uses a trough covered with a highly reflective surface to focus sunlight onto a linear absorber containing a working fluid that can be used for medium temperature space or process heat or to operate a steam turbine for power or electricity generation.

c) Parabolic Dishes

Parabolic dishes give in principle a point focus, the reflecting surface is a parabolic. 2D focusing gives a much higher concentration factor and mechanically stable.

d) Central Receiver

Also known as a power tower, a solar power facility that uses a field of two-axis tracking mirrors known as heliostat (A device that tracks the movement of the sun). The effect of many heliostats reflecting to a common point creates the combined energy of thousands of suns, which produces high-temperature thermal energy.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

An attractive feature of the technology is that PTSCs are already in use in great numbers and research output is likely to find immediate application. Shortis, M. R. *et al.* (1996) has described the use of close-range photogrammetry to measure a range of solar concentrator components, from EuroTrough fabrication jigs, to concentrator sub-frames, to trough mirror facet surface deviations under varying gravitation loads, to structural distortions arising from differential thermal expansions in the structure, to small scale mirror facets and the subsequent processing of the photogrammetric data to provide optical and ray trace analysis of the facet performance. Thorsten A. Stuetzle (2002), A model predictive controller was developed for the SEGS VI plant model. Its task is to maintain a constant collector outlet temperature on different days of a year by adjusting the heat transfer fluid volume flow rate while solar radiation changes. The control algorithmic, which is based on Rawlings and Muske (1993), was introduced on the example of a simplified model. Lüpfer, E. *et al.* (2004) summarizes results in collector shape measurement, flux measurement, ray tracing, and

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thermal performance analysis for parabolic troughs. It is shown that the measurement methods and the parameter analysis give consistent results. Mokhtaria A. *et al.* (2007), the parabolic trough collector of Shiraz power plant with hot oil generation system is investigated experimentally over in summer period. The system operates under closed loop mode by recirculating the oil through a hot oil expansion tank. Variations of collector oil inlet and outlet temperature are measured and the maximum beam radiation during the experimental period was 735mW.

III. EXPERIMENTAL SET UP AND PROCEDURE

The components of experimental setup are fabricated structure, plane mirror, and receiver tube as below in experimental setup picture1.

Fabricated structure: The structured is fabricated by mild steel hollow bar having square cross section .the toughness of this structure is very high and thermal expansion is very low which can bear high load and temperature .we have remind all the precaution during

the fabrication of this structure, Some specified tolerances also we considered while manufacturing .

Plane mirror: The mirror we used for focusing the sun rays having high reflectivity ($r=.99$), it can reflect the sun rays very efficiently on the receiver tube .the dimension of this glasses have specified in this thesis later.

Receiver tube: We have wide range for receiver tube material such as copper, aluminum, mild steel etc. the major constraints during the selection of receiver tube is low melting point and low thermal conductivity of the metal so we have to select a metal which can bear high temperature and should have high thermal conductivity.

a) *Dimension of parabolic trough :*

1. Projected Area = $12.54 \times 10^6 \text{ mm}^2$
2. Dimension of glass (plane): Length=305mm, Width =76mm and Thickness =4mm
3. Dimension of receiver tube: Length =305mm, Dia. =76mm, and Thickness=4mm
4. Material of glass-Silica
5. Material of receiver tube-mild steel



Figure 1 : Experimental Setup



Figure 2 : Linear scales for measurement of parabolic profil

b) *Manual method*

We have fabricated a scale which can measure the error easily. In this setup we used two linear scales which measure the dimension horizontally and in vertical dimensions. The data collected during measurement, compared with standard data, and get error of parabolic trough.

c) *Brief Procedure*

First of all we level the scale and parabolic trough in a parallel plane with the help of leveling gauge

(water level) than we set the center of parabola and the zero of scale and note down the 'y' coordinates corresponding to the 'x' coordinates. And finally we made table of x and y coordinates.

IV. RESULTS

Analytical equation for parabolic profile
 $x^2 = 4 * 1500 * y$

Table 1 : Comparison between Theoretical and Measured Parabolic Profile

S. No.	X-Coordinate (mm)	Analytical Y-Coordinate (mm)	Experimental Y-Coordinate (mm)	Error(mm)
1	0	0	0	0
2	800	107	80	27
3	1500	377	345	32
4	2200	803	790	13
5	-800	107	96	11
6	-1500	377	354	23
7	-2200	803	764	39

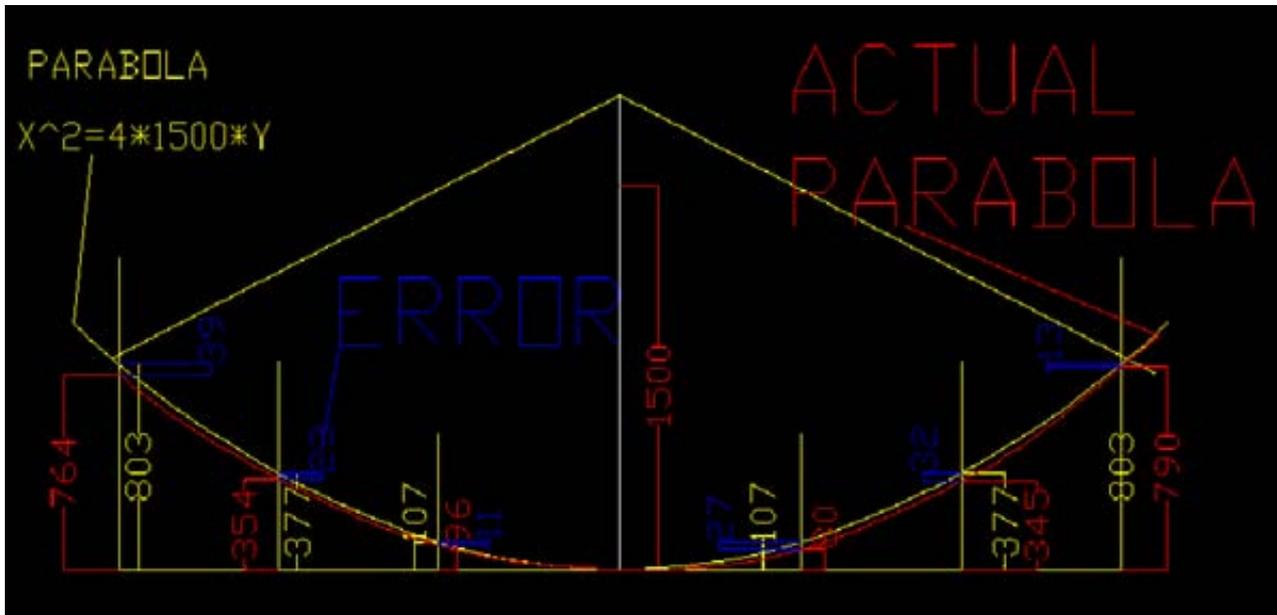


Figure 3 : Graphical Comparisons between Theoretical and Measured Parabolic Profile

V. CONCLUSIONS

Measurement of error is very important function because of efficient working. This type of measurement processes is very cheap and easy to work. As we move away from center of parabola error increases in negative x-axis but there are no certain trends in positive axis, so we can conclude that this error depends on the human skills and manufacturing process. This error can be minimized by developing a high precise manufacturing process. Tracking of the trough should be precise for that thermocouple installed at periphery of receiver tube to maintain the higher efficient solar power.

VI. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The author wish to thank Department of Mechanical Engineering, SGSITS at Indore for their help throughout the course of this work, in particular V. Parashar provided many useful discussions to complete this work.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES IN ENGINEERING: A
MECHANICAL AND MECHANICS ENGINEERING
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Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA)
Online ISSN:2249-4596 Print ISSN:0975-5861

Nuclear Power Plant in Bangladesh and the Much Talked about Rooppur Project

By Khondokar Nazmus Sakib

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Abstract- Bangladesh is a land of about 16.5 core people. So, high population, industrialization and urbanization demands huge electric power. The government of Bangladesh now is in troublesome condition to provide huge electricity. The government of the country has already taken some necessary steps like hydroelectric power plant, coal based power plants, gas based power plants, oil based power plants and some power plants of renewable sources. But those are not sufficient according to the demand. That's why government is trying to introduce first nuclear power plant. "I believe it fulfills the nation's dream," Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina said this after laying the foundation stone of Bangladesh's first nuclear power plant on 2 October 2013 in Rooppur, Pabna. Some debate has already begun against this power plant. But to resolve energy crisis of Bangladesh government should introduce modern (generation 3+ VVER-1200, VVER TOI) nuclear power plant.

Keywords: bangladesh, RNPP, nonrenewable, nuclear power plant, safety.

GJRE-A Classification : FOR Code: 020202



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I. INTRODUCTION

In recent times there has been a growing trend worldwide of adopting alternative source of energy in policy framework in the context of diminishing reserve of fossil fuel as well as the detrimental impact of its burning on environment and human health. Renewable and environment friendly energy sources come into consideration to tackle future energy crisis. Renewable energy sources like solar energy, wind energy etc. cannot cope with the huge consumption demands of industrialization and urbanization. In this perspective nuclear energy is considered as a suitable alternative, provided necessary safety measures are in place. Nuclear power plants are especially suitable for countries like Bangladesh having huge population and limited land area and resources. The prospect of nuclear energy had been recognized in policy plans of Bangladesh and necessary steps are being taken for early implementation of Rooppur Nuclear Power, Project at Rooppur, Pabna.

II. HOW NUCLEAR POWER PLANT WORKS

Just like a fossil (Coal, Gas, Diesel) fuel power plant, in nuclear power plant water is turned into steam, which in turn drives turbine generators to produce

electricity. The difference between them is the source of heat. In nuclear power plant, when nuclear fission takes place, the produced heat turn water into steam. There is no combustion in a nuclear reactor. There are two types of nuclear reactors.

a) Pressurized Water Reactor (PWR)

In pressurized water reactor, water is boiled under high pressure so that water in reactor vessel does not boil but heats. This heated water transfers the heat to the water in the steam generator. Water in the steam generator then is converted to steam and then turns the turbine generator. The generator then produces electricity. Water from the reactor vessel and the water in the steam generator that is turned into steam never intermingle.

b) Boiling Water Reactor (BWR)

In Boiling Water Reactors (also known as BWRs), the water heated by fission actually boils and turns into steam to turn the turbine generator. In both PWRs and BWRs, the steam is turned back into water and can be used again in the process.

III. HOW ENERGY RELEASED FROM NUCLEAR FISSION

The sum of masses of the protons and neutrons that comprise the nucleus exceeds the mass of the atomic nucleus. The difference in mass is called mass defect. The mass defect is converted to energy in a nuclear reaction is given by Einstein's law: $\Delta E = \Delta m C^2$.

This equation shows that lost mass (mass defect) will convert into energy. And by the same process we get the fission energy.

By fission process we extract nuclear energy from nucleus. In this process nucleus of an atom splits into smaller parts. Fission is a form of nuclear transmutation because the resulting fragments are not the same element as the original atom.

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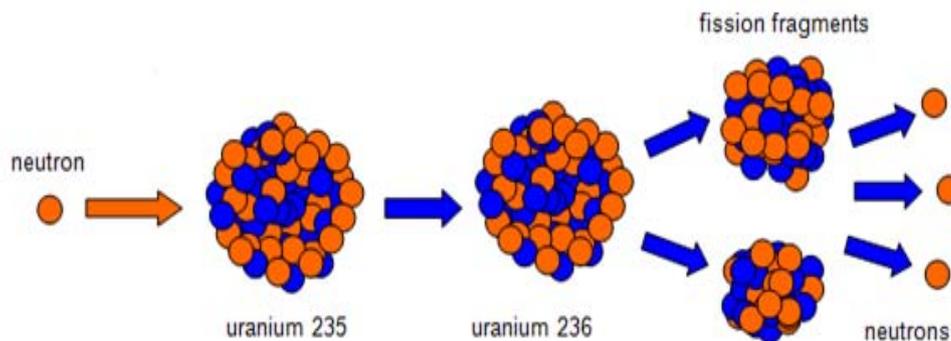
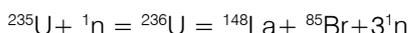


Figure: Nuclear fission

One of the fission products is represented as:



The mass equation for the above reaction is given as (in atomic mass unit):

$$235.124 + 1.009 = 147.96 + 84.938 + 3.029$$

The mass deficiency on the right hand side of above mass equation is 0.207 atomic mass unit or 0.3436×10^{-27} kg. This mass will convert into energy.

The equivalent release of energy in view of Einstein's law:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta E &= \Delta m C^2 = 0.3436 \times 10^{-27} \times 9 \times 10^{16} \\ &= 3.0924 \times 10^{-11} \text{ Joules/atom} \end{aligned}$$

Now, one kg of uranium will have approximate 26.029×10^{23} atoms. If it is assumed that all the atoms have undergone fission, the total amount of released energy will be:

$$\begin{aligned} E &= 3.0924 \times 10^{-11} \times 26.029 \times 10^{23} \\ &= 80.49 \times 10^{12} \text{ joules/kg} \end{aligned}$$

The above released energy is approximately equivalent to 2.7 million kg of coal, 2 million m^3 of natural gas and 1.78 million kg of fuel oil.

IV. COMPARING RADIOACTIVE WASTE TO OTHER WASTE

In countries with nuclear power, radioactive wastes comprise less than 1% of total industrial toxic wastes, much of which remains hazardous for long periods. Overall, nuclear power produces far less waste material by volume than fossil-fuel (Coal, Gas, Diesel) based power plants. The flue gas from combustion of the fossil fuels is discharged in the air. This gas contains carbon dioxide and water vapor, as well as other substances such as Nitrogen oxides (NO_x), Sulfur oxides (SO_x), Mercury, traces of other metals, and, for coal-fired plants, fly ash. Fossil fuel power stations emit CO_2 , a greenhouse gas (GHG) which according to a

consensus opinion of scientific organizations is a contributor to global warming as it has been observed over the last 100 years.

A 2008 report from Oak Ridge National Laboratory (ORNL) concluded that coal power actually results in more radioactivities being released into the environment than nuclear power operation. Indeed, coal ash is much less radioactive than nuclear fuel on a weight per weight basis, but coal ash is produced in much higher quantities per unit of energy generated, and this is released directly into the environment as fly ash, whereas nuclear plants use shielding to protect the environment from radioactive materials, for example, in dry cask storage vessels. An international organization has raised serious questions about the much-debated Rampal coal-fired power plant, saying it does not maintain the minimum social and environmental standards.

V. NUCLEAR ENERGY IN BANGLADESH

The nuclear power plant will be built at Rooppur, on the banks of the Padma River, in the Ishwardi subdistrict of Pabna, in the northwest of the country.



Figure 1 : Site location of Rooppur nuclear power plant.

The proposal was first raised in 1961. Government took 253.90 acre of land of current place at that year to build the plant. In 1963 the plant was approved. Discussions took place with the Canadian government in 1964 and 1966. Discussions with the governments of Sweden and Norway were also going on in those years. However, no real progress was achieved. After the independence of Bangladesh, the Government of Bangladesh started discussion with the Soviet Union in 1974 however, which was not successful.

Finally, In February 2011, Bangladesh got an agreement with Russia to build the 2,000 megawatt (MW) Rooppur Nuclear Power Plant with two reactors. The Rooppur Nuclear Power Project (RNPP) is estimated to cost up to US\$2 billion, and is going to start operating by 2021. The inter-governmental agreement (IGA) was officially signed on 2 November 2011. Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina laying the foundation stone of Bangladesh's first nuclear power plant on 2 October 2013 in Rooppur, Pabna. Prime Minister Sheikh Hasina, gave the final go-ahead to the draft Nuclear Power Plant Act 2015.

But several separate issues were raised, from the unsuitability of the site to the obsolescence of the VVER-1000 model (Pressurized Water Reactor (PWR)) proposed, questionable financing arrangements and a

lack of agreement with Russia over nuclear waste disposal. Besides, Bangladesh has no technical expertise or skilled manpower to undertake such a complex and high tech project. Generation 2 model Nuclear power plant falls in accident like in 1979 Three Mile island (US) accident, in 1986 Chernobyl (Ukraine) accident and in 2011 Fukushima (Japan) accident. Generation 2 type nuclear power plant was less protective from any type of natural and manmade disaster. Life span of this reactor was in between 25 to 30 years. It takes long time to build this type of reactor and its waste production rate is high. That's why VVER - 1000 model was introduced and this model is known as generation 3 nuclear power plant. Russia went to build generation-3 VVER-1000 model nuclear power plant in India but this project face public resistance due to low grade instruments.

Bangladesh can take learning from this. Generation-3+ VVER-1200 model is more efficient, safe and modern than generation-3 VVER-1000. Bangladesh government may go for generation-3+ VVER-1200 model nuclear reactor which is also known as evolutionary reactor. This type of reactor fulfills the requirements of the IAEA and the EUR. VVER TOI model is more modern than VVER-1200. This VVER TOI model has some specific characteristics like, high endurance power in earthquake and tornado, high endurance

power in aircraft crashes and flood, fuel efficient, less waste production etc. Russia is going to build this type of plant in their country and Turkey. Rooppur nuclear power project is likely to cost around \$10 billion, more than three times the initial estimate of the government. The project's Russian developer Rosatom has been dropping hints since last year that the cost may go up to \$10 billion. A couple of years ago the government had

estimated that the plant would cost between \$2 billion and \$3 billion. Bangladesh is seeking 90 percent of the project financing from Russia. The loan will be repaid in 28 years with a 10-year grace period. But similar power plants being built by Russia in different countries are coming with a price tag between \$10 billion and \$13 billion.

Table 1 : Price list of nuclear power plants at different countries

country	plant	price
Finland	1200 mw plant	\$6.5b
Hungary	1200 mw x 2 units	\$3.5b
Turkey	1200 mw x 4 units	\$20b
South Africa	1200 mw x 8 units	\$50b
Belarus	1000 mw x 2 units	\$10b
Vietnam	1000 mw x 2 units	\$9b

The plant is located in an earthquake zone, that's why construction cost goes high. Additional safety installations also add up to the cost. In addition, lack of qualified nuclear power engineers, enterprises, employees increases the project cost. On top of that, the country has no industrial infrastructure and the

transport system is absolutely rudimentary. Most of the materials to be used in the plant such as the quality assured high grade stainless steel, pipes, valves, pumps and other components will have to be imported and the cost will increase. This site is also vulnerable to flood and tornadoes.

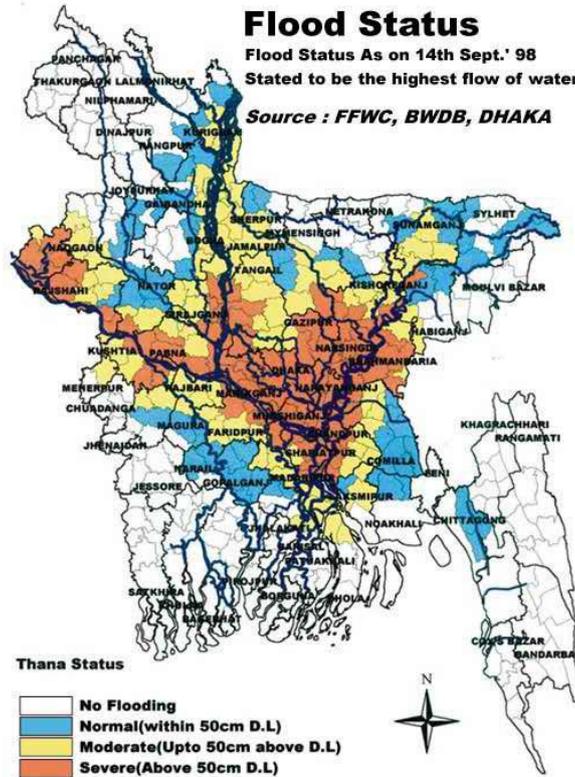


Figure 2 : Rooppur nuclear power plant

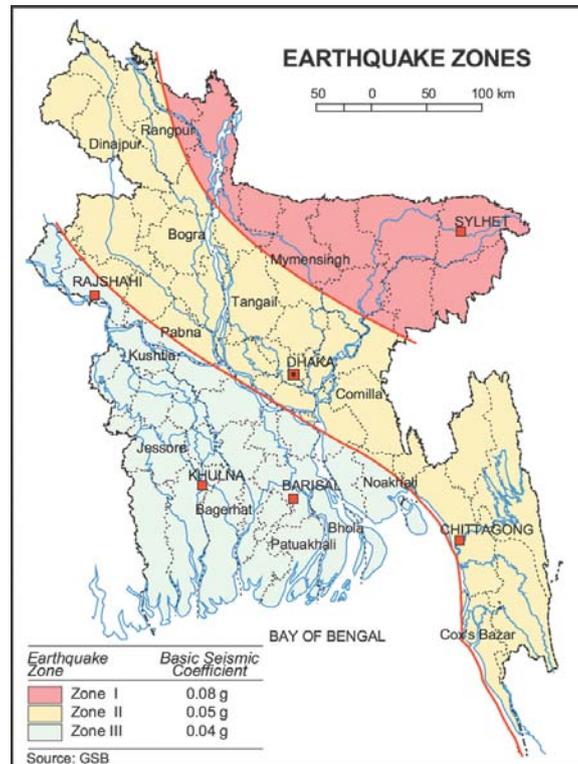


Figure 3 : Rooppur nuclear power plant

Site is located in the severe flood region.
 Site is located in the earthquake region.

When Pakistan had proposed the site, it was a sparsely populated area. In contrast, right now, it is a densely populated region. Ishwardi Upazila has population density of 1186 (per sq km). Any sign of an accident would necessitate an immediate evacuation of all the people in the 20 sq km area adjacent to the nuclear power plant. But to evacuate the whole population on a long term or lifetime basis from a 20 sq km area in the most densely populated country and relocate them will be a virtually prohibitive, most challenging and arduous task. Soil of Rooppur is soft in nature, that's why some initiative has to take to stable this soil.

We have to think about geopolitics. During the first half of the year, much of the water of the river is already withdrawn by India through the Farakka Barrage, leaving insufficient cooling water for the plant and other activities in Bangladesh. According to debate about nuclear power plant some advanced countries like Germany, Italy, Switzerland have all given up nuclear power plants and with Japan is tapering down nuclear power production after the Fukushima disaster, Bangladesh seems to be charging ahead recklessly. But we have to remember that still now 30 countries worldwide are operating 438 nuclear reactors for electricity generation and 67 new nuclear plants are under construction in 15 countries. In spite of these

threats, nuclear power plant is the best decision to meet rapidly increasing demand and reduce dependence on natural gas. But these threats should be kept in mind.

VI. RESULT

From this research, the result is obtained that it is perfect time to introduce modern nuclear power plant for Bangladesh. Because this plant will be able to resolve the power crisis of Bangladesh and it will sustain for a long time. Bangladesh use natural gas and coal for most of its electricity production.



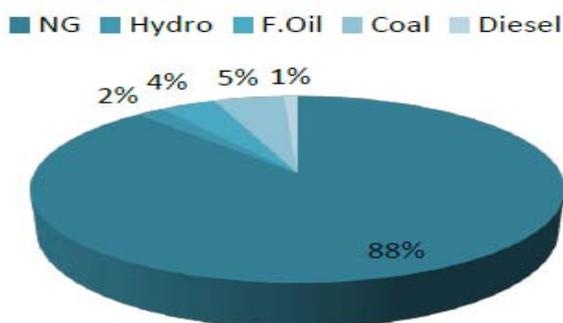


Figure 4 : Fuel consumption pattern of Power Generation.

But these sources of energy create serious environment pollution, and these sources will finish one day. Because, these sources are not renewable sources. That's why Bangladesh has to go for alternative power sources. Already Bangladesh has started to use some renewable energy sources those are environment friendly. But these sources produced small range of energy. So by considering the entire problem regarding nuclear power plant, Bangladesh should go for modern (generation 3+ VVER-1200, VVER TOI) nuclear power plant. Initial coasting may be high but thinking about future safety Bangladesh government should go for modern nuclear reactor.

VII. CONCLUSION

Now a days for lower Greenhouse Gas Emission, Efficiency, Reliability, Cheap Electricity, Low Fuel Cost, Easy Transportation nuclear energy has got top most priority. But we have to remember the accidents of nuclear power plant, like in 1979 Three Mile island (US) accident, in 1986 Chernobyl (Ukraine) accident and in 2011 Fukushima (Japan) accident were devastating. Now a days it has become very challenging to generate sufficient electric power for Bangladesh to meet the energy demand with its rapid growing population and industrialization.

The Government of the country is trying to lessen the power crisis by taking several initiatives like small (10-20MW) power plants, coal based power station, IPP (Independent Power Producer), QRPP (quick rental power plant) and small scale renewable energy plants. But these are not a permanent solution. Moreover, QRPP and IPP are mainly oil and gas based, which are very costly and these are also not very efficient. Besides coal based power station are required very large space, its initial cost is high and create serious environmental threat to the surroundings. In this perspective nuclear energy is considered as a suitable alternative for Bangladesh, provided necessary safety measures are in place and we can hope that this plant will resolve energy crisis of Bangladesh. Initial coasting may be high but thinking about future safety and

efficiency Bangladesh government should consider modern nuclear reactor.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES IN ENGINEERING: A
MECHANICAL AND MECHANICS ENGINEERING
Volume 15 Issue 2 Version 1.0 Year 2015
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA)
Online ISSN:2249-4596 Print ISSN:0975-5861

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GJRE-A Classification : *FOR Code: 240599p*



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Than Than Htay ^α, Htay Htay Win ^σ, Zin Ei Ei Win ^ρ & Myint Thein ^ω

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I. INTRODUCTION

Performance test has based on dynamic analysis of the thresher. There are many sorts of the threshers to use for Combine Harvesters. This axial flow thresher is applied because it can give good performance for threshing and the least losses. Then, performance of that thresher is used by based on the shaft stiffness for this one.

The shaft is matched at the centre of it. While the shaft is operating with three forward engine speeds, the thresher will also do at the same condition. Based on the speeds, how the link of threshing losses and speeds at any positions that placed the unbalance weight on the shaft is considered.

Because of the high operating speeds and the performance from the shaft to the thresher, dynamic stiffness becomes a major design consideration. The need for dynamic analysis is especially important in the thresher of the shaft where an effective and efficient strength shaft is crucial in expending the shaft life. In the highest engine speed, the total threshing losses are very high.

It is therefore essential to be able to estimate the dynamic stiffness and ensure that the shaft can withstand such high model enables the thresher-shaft

designer to modify the strength configuration for the optimum rate at high speeds level.

The result is impressive in that analysis but mathematical and dynamic model are complicated to consider. It is therefore proposed in this study a technique with consideration of any unbalance weight attachment in various speeds.

II. METHODOLOGY

a) Machine Configuration

There are many sorts of the threshers in threshing the grain. This combine harvester operated axial-flow thresher was produced from KUKJE Machinery Co., Ltd. (Korea). This thresher performs based on the shaft stiffness in this study. The shaft is matched at the centre of this thresher. While the shaft is operating with three forward engine speeds, the thresher also operates at the same condition.

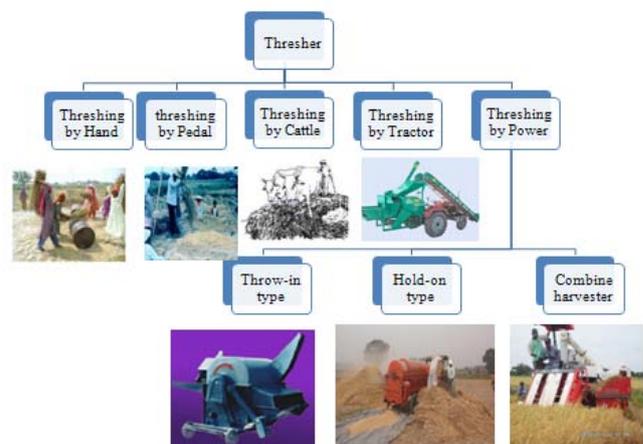


Figure 1 : various kinds of threshers as period

Various kinds of threshers are shown in Fig. 1. As well as harvesting method, threshing is the important practice which can affect the quantitative and qualitative losses of rice. In Myanmar's rice fields, four main types of paddy thresher are used, i.e; manual, tractor operated cross-flow type, small thresher equipped with wire loop threshing drum and combine harvester operated axial-flow thresher.

Recently, DKC-685 combine harvester operated axial-flow thresher adopted in many rice fields because of its easy application and better output for paddy thresher. It has wire-loop type peg-tooth. And,

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four comb types is attached entry of the thresher. All peg-teeth and drum (cover) are bolted by nuts at the threshing cylinder. It threshes the grain by axially. These are used for threshing the paddy crop. And, many different kinds of peg-tooth design and the shaft for this are applied to get good performance.

Based on the speeds, the un-threshed and total grain losses also relate by any positions that placed the

unbalance weight on the shaft. Dynamic Stiffness is a function of the excitation frequency. Hence, dynamic analysis is a simple extension of static analysis. All rotating shafts deflect during rotation.

Also, using thresher and its shaft in this machine are shown in Fig. 2 (a) and (b).

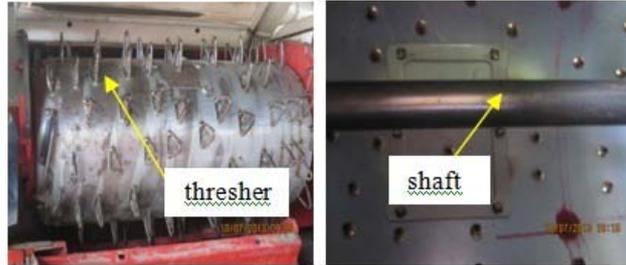


Figure 2 : (a) Thresher and (b) Shaft

b) Experimental Field performance

This study was carried out during 2013. And, Mechanization Training Centre (Meiktila) was chosen as a site to perform the paddy field. Two different performance systems were used to thresh paddy grain, namely, the DKC-685 Combine Harvester, with storage type (tank), harvester to cut the crop and Thresher with axial wire loop (peg-tooth) type.

The specification of the used machine tabulates in Table (1). Results data of the thresher from the design consideration are expressed in Table (2) to apply for the next determination. The evaluation of threshing systems involves a number of experiment approaches and the dynamic stiffness into the following categories.

Table 1 : Specification of machine

Parameter	Dimension	unit
L×W×H	4430× 1860×2330	mm
Total displacement	2392	cc
Power / Revolution	52 (70)/2800	kW(hp) /rpm
Number of reaping lines	4	Row
Reaping width	1485 ± 50	mm

Table 2 : Parameters of Thresher (DKC-685 Combine Harvester)

Type	Values	unit
Outside diameter of Thresher	0.43	m
Length of thresher	0.6576	m
Diameter of shaft	0.075	m
Length of shaft	0.2334	m
Thresher Weight	105.6931	N
Threshing Speed	5.31	m/s
Threshing Power	2.1141	kW
Threshing Torque	14.94	N-m
Torsional Moment	14.9433	N-m
Total Weight (UD)	69.5038	N
Total Mass	7.085	kg

i. *Thresher performance*

This thresher performance for all different types under study was evaluated measuring an un-threshed grain losses and total grain losses. A local long-grain paddy variety widely cultivated in Myittar Township was used for the performance. Physical characteristics of the variety are list in Table (3). The crop was cut 45-55 cm above the ground and collected for the experiments.

The paddy moisture content at harvesting and threshing was measured using moisture meter. Four levels of paddy moisture contents of 25, 21.5, 20 and 17 % (w.b.) were considered for the tests. Determination of grain moisture content accurately is important before decision of harvesting, storage and milling as shown in Table (4) [10Ath].

Table 3 : Physical characteristics of paddy variety used in the experiment

Item	Description	Unit
Paddy grain	3438.61	kg/acre
Plant height	80.8	cm
100 grains mass	2.62	g
Length of panicle	6.9	cm
Length of grain	8.0	mm
Width of grain	1.9	mm
Slenderness ratio	3.4	-

Table 4 : Importance of measuring moisture content (Courtesy: IIRRI)[10Ath]

Operation	Desired Moisture Content	Primary losses
Harvesting	20-25 %	Shattering if grain is too dry
Threshing	20-25 % for mechanical threshing < 20% for hand threshing	Incomplete threshing Grain damage and cracking/ breakage
Drying	Final moisture content is 14% or lower	Spoilage, fungal damage, Discoloration
Storage	<14% for grain storage <13% for seed storage <9% for long term seed preservation	Fungle, insect & rat damage Loss of vigor Loss of vigor
Milling	14%	Grain cracking and breakage over milling

At each level of paddy moisture, six level of drum speed 5.89, 7.07, 8.25, 9.425, 10.603 and 11.781 m/s were examined. The drum speed was measured with a digital tachometer (Lutron DT-2236). At each test operate; five bundles of paddy crop were fed to the threshing chamber at a constant rate.

To obtain the percentage of broken grain, 10 samples of 100g were randomly chosen from the outlet of the thresher. The broken grains were separated by hand from the whole paddy grains and the weight of the broken grain was recorded. In order to determine the percentage of cracked grain, at each test runs, 10 samples of 50 grains were randomly selected from the outlet of the thresher and manually husked. The husked

paddy grains (Ma Naw Thu Kha) were put on a crack tester and the number of cracked kernels was recorded [10Ali].

ii. *Workability*

The second parameter is workability, which is calculated consideration the dynamic stiffness of the shaft for thresher, mainly, the stiffness and mass of threshing period and potential threshing process.

iii. *Percentage of total grain losses (Tgl)*

Visual investigation and manual separation of 10 samples each of 100 grams were used to calculate percentage of damaged and un-threshed grains. And, grain yield was estimated by manual harvesting 5plots each of (1×1 m) with high care from random locations.

The harvested plants were threshed by the thresher; the threshed grains were weight for each sample.

The percentage of total grain losses was calculated from Equation (1), and (2) to determine of threshing efficiency, and then (3) for specific consumed energy:[09EIs]

$$T_{gl} = P_d + U_{th} + P_{gl} \tag{1}$$

Where,

- (Pd) - Percentage of damage
- (Uth) - un-threshed grains
- (Pgl) - Percentage of grain losses

iv. *Threshing Efficiency (ηth)*

$$\text{Efficiency} = \left[\frac{(W_1 - W_2)}{W_1} \right] \tag{2}$$

where,

- W1 - weight of pure grain output (kg/hr),
- W2 - weight of residual grain in the straw (kg/hr).

v. *Specific consumed energy (Se)*

The energy consumed was evaluated from the following formula,

$$S_e = 3.163 F_c / A_p \tag{3}$$

Where:

- Fc = fuel consumption, (L/h)

Ap = Actual system productivity = Wg × Pr , (kg/hr)

c) *Performance Analysis with Dynamic Stiffness*

Dynamic stiffness generally creates images of complicated equations with limited practical value. Vibration is merely a response to other conditions in a machine [09EIs].

$$\text{Observed Vibration (Response)} = \frac{\text{Force}}{\text{DynamicStiffness (Restraint)}} \tag{4}$$

As Equation (4) shows, vibration can only change as the result of two things: a change in force or a change in stiffness (or both). Also, dynamic stiffness is essential for the machinery specialist.

A change in unbalance is a force changing in a machine. When vibration is viewed as a ratio of forces to stiffness, the perspective changes and the focus becomes what has changed in the machine, the forces acting on its stiffness. A sudden reduction in vibration could signify an increased stiffness. If the excitation force acting on the shaft becomes higher, the Dynamic Stiffness of the shaft must also be increased by checking size of the shaft. Forces and responses (vibration) are vector quantities [08Moh].

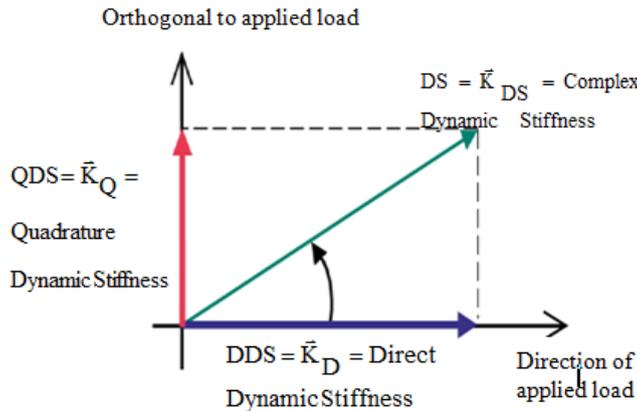


Figure 3 : The relationship between Complex, Direct, and Quadrature Dynamic Stiffness

It concern only with synchronous excitation forces in this study. The two orthogonal components of dynamic stiffness, Direct Dynamic Stiffness (DDS) determine how far the shaft moves in the direction of the applied force and Quadrature Dynamic Stiffness (QDS) determines how far the shaft moves to the side (orthogonal to the applied force). Fig. 3 shows the relationship between Complex, Direct and Quadrature Dynamic Stiffness.

i. *Synchronous Dynamic Stiffness*

Dynamic stiffness is the static spring stiffness of the mechanical system complemented by the dynamic effects of mass and damping. The thresher, shaft and damper are represented by mathematical modeling of dynamic stiffness in Fig. 4.

In Fig. 4, M refers to mass, D means damping, K also refers to spring, and λ is the circumferential average velocity ratio. Because of this dynamic motion, both the Quadrature Stiffness due to damping and the mass stiffness effects come into play.

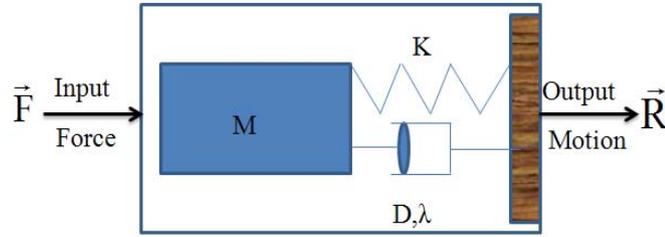


Figure 4 : Mathematical Modeling of Dynamic Stiffness

The force, F, and the response, R, are vectors, and they have both magnitude and direction. This Equation (5) based on Hooke's Law for spring [07Cha].

$$\vec{K}_{DS} = \frac{\vec{F}}{\vec{R}} \quad (5)$$

By Hooke's Law, Equation (5) can be expressed by (6).

$$F = K x \quad (6)$$

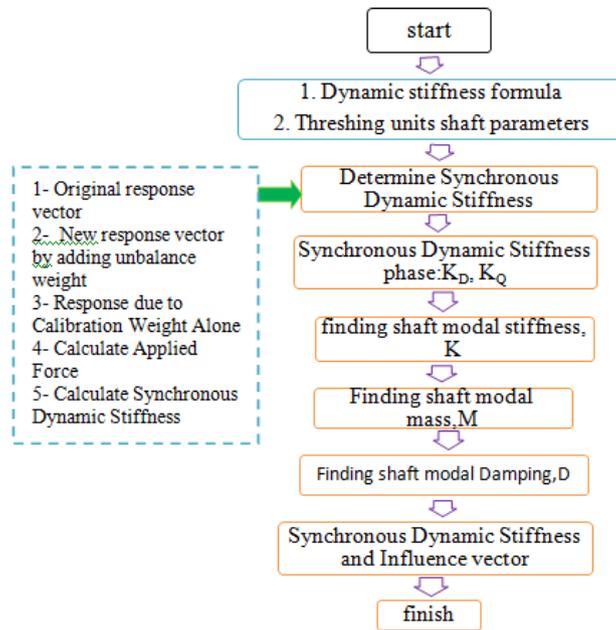


Figure 5 : Flow chart of the program for the developed Dynamic Stiffness

Dynamic stiffness can be used to estimate the dynamic forces acting in the thresher. There are five basic steps involved in determining Dynamic Stiffness. The above Fig. 5 is step by step flow chart to determine the dynamic stiffness and modal mass including modal damping.

d) Relation between dynamic stiffness and threshing losses based on positions and engine speeds

To determine natural frequency for the shaft with dynamic analysis, the total value of stiffness and mass of the shaft must be known. The natural frequency was calculated according to the following Equation (7) [05Joh].

$$\omega_n = \sqrt{\frac{K}{M}} \quad (7)$$

Natural frequency is denoted by ω_n , K means spring stiffness of shaft and M refers to mass of shaft. The total value means adding the value from unbalance weight and design consideration. Variable frequency ratio is assumed for evaluate the operating frequencies. The following Equation (8) is used to calculate operating speed [08Rj].

$$V = 2 \pi \omega r \quad (8)$$

Where,
 V = angular velocity, m/s
 ω = operating speed of shaft, rad/s
 r = radius of shaft, m

Optimum threshing operations as well as good systems is needed to minimize the loss and obtain maximum efficiency. So, the relation between dynamic

stiffness and threshing losses based on operating speeds is shown in Fig. (6).

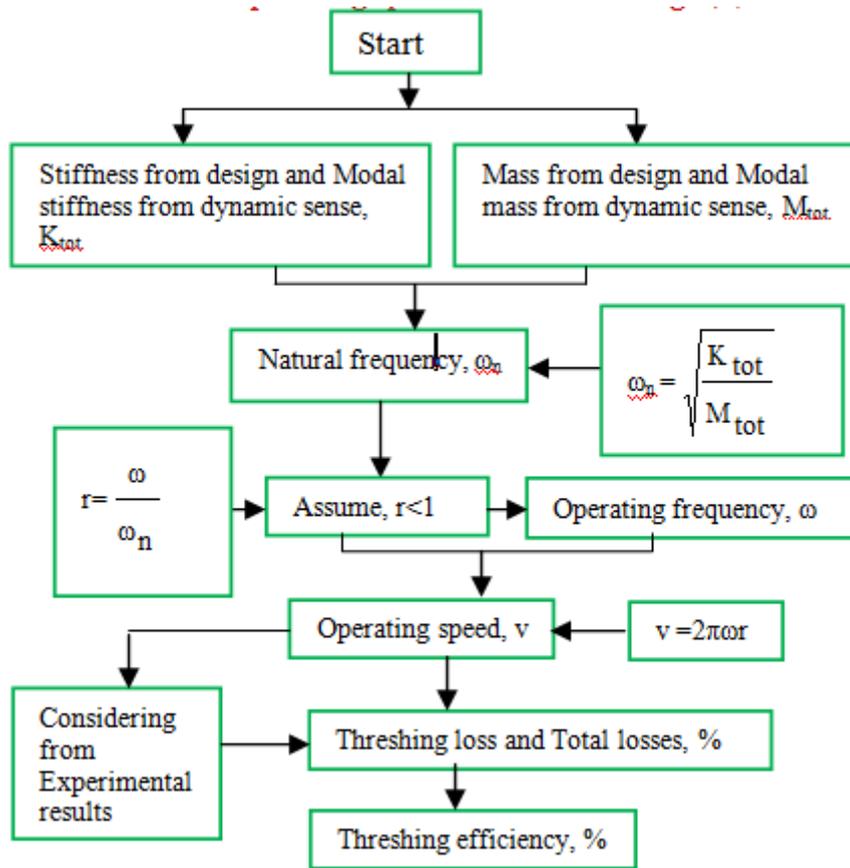


Figure 6 : Flow chart to determine for the relationship of dynamic stiffness and losses

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To determine how to relate dynamic stiffness and grain losses is the main contribution. It is important to be stiff because the shaft is attached inside the thresher. Operating the shaft, the thresher also operates in same time. It threshes the grain from the straw as the speed of the shaft. When the speed becomes higher suddenly, the threshing grain can be crush and damage. Also, if the stiffness of the shaft is weak, the shaft can twist and cannot operate well. So, the grain losses can be found due to weak performance.

Therefore, it is vital to be stiff. In this paper, the stiffness of the shaft due to the attaching mass at any positions is determined. Moreover, the relationship of dynamic stiffness and grain losses are shown in the Fig (14, 15 and 16). To plot these, the relation of dynamic stiffness and losses via operating speeds is expressed in Fig (6). The required bode and polar plots are used to examine the response (vibration), dynamic stiffness and modal mass. These are shown in Fig. 7, Fig. 8 and Fig 9.

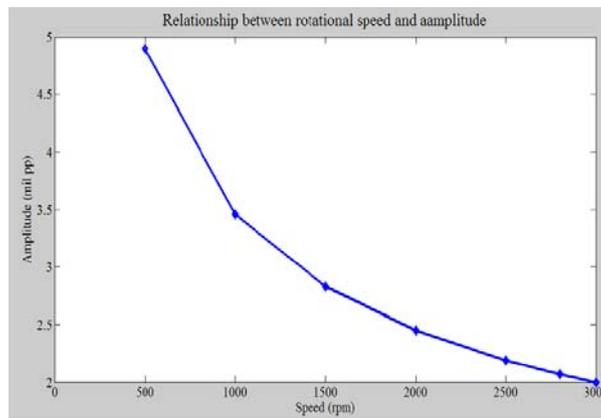


Figure 7 : Relationship between rotational speed and amplitude

Operating speeds are selected in relative natural frequency and frequency ratio that exhibit amplitude and phase variations that are acted by placing at various positions attached the unbalance weight.

$A = \sqrt{\frac{12000}{N}}$ and $\theta = \omega t$ are used to do the following plots

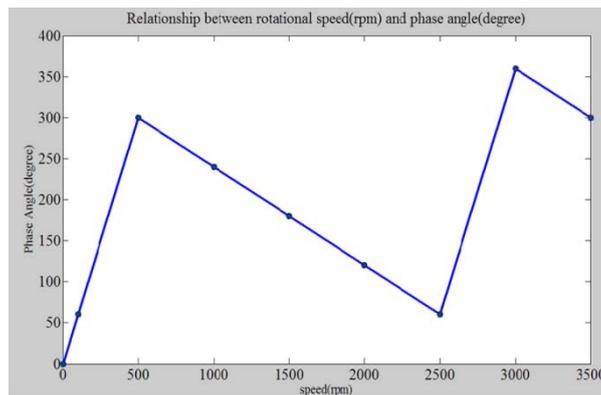


Figure 8 : Relationship between angular velocity and phase angle

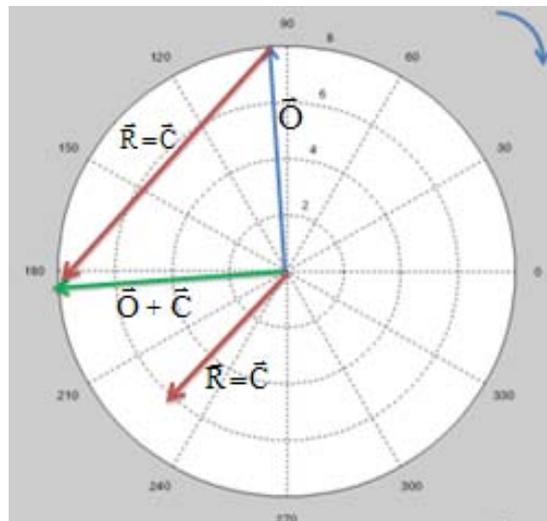


Figure 9 : Denote on polar plot

Performance for the un-threshed grain losses, total grain losses, and threshing efficiency is determined based on experimental performance and dynamic analysis. Table (5) shows experimental performance

result. These results based on 17% moisture content. If the machine threshes at 20% (w.b) moisture content, the results of grain losses will be decrease.

Un-threshed weight correction locations are been modally effective. If the unbalance weight is increased, an unexpected result will be produced. When adding calibration weights, check the response vector

C. Small vector changes indicate a lack of sensitivity to the weight. Care should be taken when analytically modeling the shaft.

Table 5 : Result of Experimental Performance

No.	Items	Values	units
1	Actual performance rate, P_r	0.5625	acre/h
2	Percentage of damage, P_d	19.231	%
3	Un-threshed grains, U_{th}	2	%
4	Percentage of grain losses, P_{gl}	5.263	%
5	Percentage of total grain losses, T_{gl}	12.263	%
6	Field efficiency, η_t	77.49	%
7	Cutting efficiency, η_c	62.87	%
8	Cleaning efficiency, η_{cl}	90	%
9	Threshing efficiency, η_{cl}	97.77	%
10	Specific consumed energy, S_e	7.8×10^{-3}	kW.h /kg
11	Fuel consumption per hour	3.08	gal/ hr
12	Fuel Cost per Acre	31,197	kyats/acre
13	Labour Cost par Acre	13750	Kyat/acre

The results at 90 degree position are shown in Table (6). These results are determined based on Fig 7, 8 and 9. Table (7) is to compare for the values of

stiffness and modal mass from design and unbalance weight condition.

Table 6 : Result of Unbalance Weight at 90° position

Items	Parameters	Symbol	Values
1	Original response (mil p-p)	\bar{O}	$2.98 \angle 90.6^\circ$
2	New response (mil p-p)	$\bar{O} + \bar{C}$	$3.8 \angle 180.6^\circ$
3	Response due to calibration weight	$\bar{R} = \bar{C}$	$4.8 \angle 218.71^\circ$
4	Applied force of calibration weight	\bar{F}	$0.2902 \angle 90^\circ$
5	Synchronous dynamic stiffness	\bar{K}_{DS}	$4730.9 \angle 129^\circ$
6	Modal mass (kg)	M	0.0451
7	Modal stiffness (N/m)	K	903.4586
8	Modal damping (N.s/m)	D	12.539
9	Influence vector (mil p-p)	\bar{H}	$26.83 \angle 129^\circ$

Table 7 : Comparison of Modal Mass and Stiffness of Shaft and Unbalance (90° position)

Items	Modal mass	Stiffness
Shaft	34.68 kg	3.9716×10^9 N/m
unbalance	0.1398kg	2799 N/m

For all Fig. 7 to Fig. 10, 90 degree condition result of unbalance weight is only considered for the

relationship of dynamic stiffness and losses. This position is applied as the operating speed of the shaft

approaches to the critical speed, the center of rotation begins to shift toward the CG. The phase angle between the exciting force (direction of the unbalance) and the actual vibration will be 90 degree. In this particular case, the vibration (response) amplitude lags the unbalance by 90°. So, dynamic stiffness for dynamic analysis is determined at 90° position calibration weight.

At 90 degree position, the values of stiffness decrease slightly in each engine speed (9.425, 10.2102 and 10.996 m/s). So, 903.47 N/m of stiffness can be accepted for this engine speed, 10.996 m/s.

Table 8 : Results of Stiffness for (Unbalance) calibration weight

Engine speeds (m/s)	9.425	10.2102	10.996
Position (degree)	Stiffness (N/m)	Stiffness (N/m)	Stiffness (N/m)
30	3143.427	2941.34	2799
60	1696.7251	1587.6	1511
90	1014.6117	949.33	903.47
120	600.5195	561.934	534.81
150	287.5591	269.0757	256.15
180	20.0446	18.7543	17.851

Table (8) refers to the effect of stiffness at various unbalance weight position by considering for each engine speeds. These relationships are shown by bar chart in Fig. 10. In this bar chart, the values of dynamic stiffness decrease steadily in the forward

engine speeds (9.425, 10.2102 and 10.996 m/s). Also, these values become low from 30 degree to 180 degree. The highest dynamic stiffness can be found at the lowest speed.

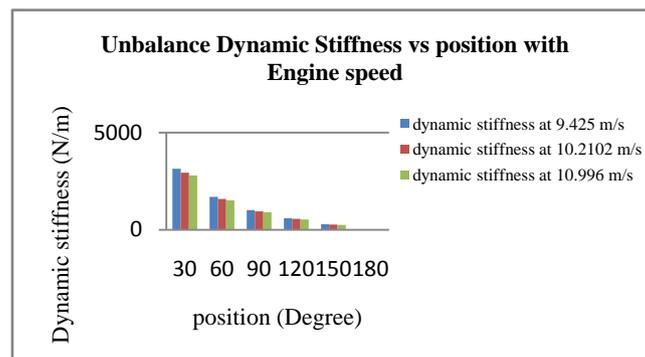


Figure 10 : Independent effect of dynamic stiffness (unbalance) on position

Table 9 : Results of Modal mass for (Unbalance) calibration weight

Engine speeds (m/s)	9.423	10.2102	10.996
Position (degree)	Modal mass (kg)	Modal mass (kg)	Modal mass (kg)
30	0.157	0.1469	0.1398
60	0.0848	0.0793	0.0755
90	0.0507	0.0474	0.0451
120	0.03	0.0281	0.0267
150	0.0144	0.0134	0.0128
180	0.001001	0.000937	0.000892

Table (9) shows the value of modal mass for (unbalance) calibration weight on various attached position. In this condition, Modal mass means trial

mass, which is used during balancing to make temporary mass distribution on the shaft.

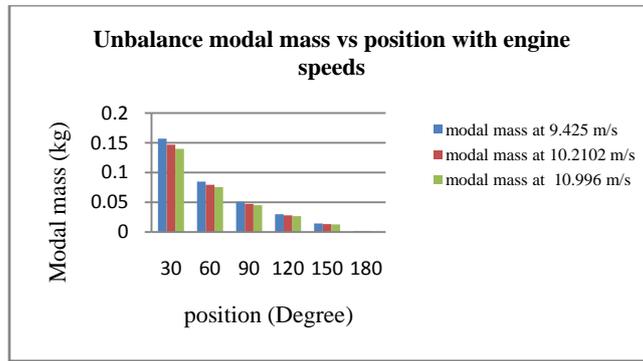


Figure 11 : Independent effect of modal mass (unbalance) on position

Fig. 11 can shows clear the change of modal mass for unbalance at various positions with engine speeds. There are three various modal mass values for

each 9.425, 10.2102 and 10.996m/s. The graph is decreasing slightly from the position of 30 to until 180 degree.

Table 10 : Results of Total Stiffness including calibration weight

Engine speeds (m/s)	9.425	10.2102	10.996
Position (degree)	Stiffness × 10 ⁹ (N/m)	Stiffness × 10 ⁹ (N/m)	Stiffness × 10 ⁹ (N/m)
30	3.971603143	3.971602941	3.971602799
60	3.971601697	3.971601588	3.971601511
90	3.971601015	3.971600949	3.971600903
120	3.971600601	3.971600562	3.971600535
150	3.971600288	3.971600269	3.971600256
180	3.97160002	3.971600019	3.971600018

Table (10) shows total stiffness including the value of calibration weight and shaft from design consideration depends upon engine speeds. The shaft for this thresher withstands strength, resist to unbalance

weight so that it is stiffness dynamically. In dynamic analysis, the value of operating speed is determined based on natural frequency and frequency ratios.

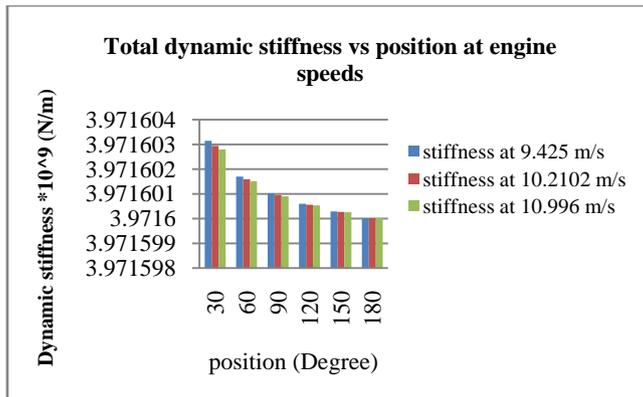


Figure 12 : Desired output of stiffness versus position

In Fig. 12, the total dynamic stiffness increased with decreasing engine speeds (9.425 m/s) for the reason that less feed rate into the threshing drum resulted in less impact force on the material. The

forward engine speed of machine had significant effect on decreasing quality dynamic stiffness as speed increased.

Table 11 : Results of Total Mass including calibration weight

Engine speeds (rpm)	9.425	10.2102	10.996
Position (degree)	Modal mass (kg)	Modal mass (kg)	Modal mass (kg)
30	34.84	34.8269	34.82
60	34.7648	34.7593	34.76
90	34.7307	34.7275	34.7251
120	34.71	34.7081	34.7067
150	34.6944	34.6934	34.6928
180	34.681	34.68094	34.681

Table (11) shows the result of total mass (kg) with against to engine speed (rpm) and unbalanced weight position attachment (degree) on the shaft. The

design requirement must be nearly the same with the critical speed for the operating speed to approach the C.G point of the shaft.

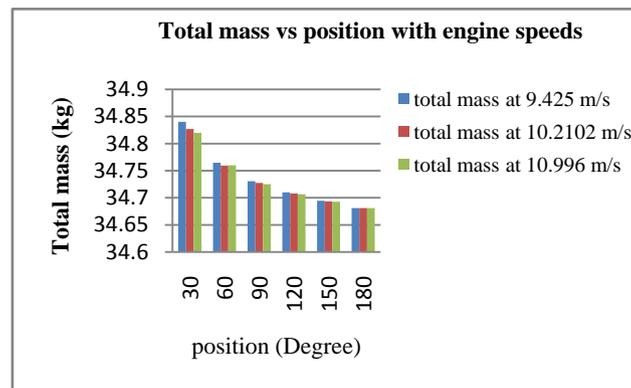


Figure 13 : Desired output of mass versus position

In this Fig. 13, it can see clear the change of total mass at various position with engine speeds. There are three various total mass values for each 9.425, 10.2102 and 10.996m/s. The graph is decreasing slightly from the position of 30 to until 180 degree.

During forward engine speeds (9.425, 10.2102 and 10.996 m/s), the values of un-threshed and total grain losses by changing operating speeds are shown in Fig. 14. According to this result chart, grain losses become increased steadily in each speed by dynamic stiffness consideration. These values also depend upon frequencies ratio. As the frequency ratio increases, the grain losses will follow. So, the grain losses need to adjust balance condition for frequency ratio.

At various speeds, losses are not different, nearly equal and the least in percentage in losses. So, it is satisfied to apply as a shaft of thresher in this combine harvester. Operating speeds, un-threshed and total losses are same each various positions attaching unbalance weight in three forward engine speeds.

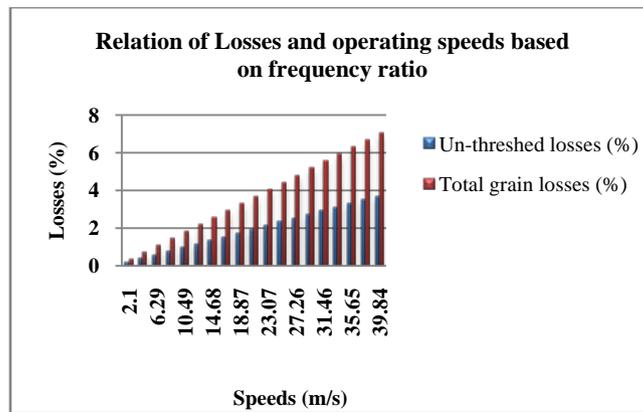


Figure 14 : Desired output of losses on frequency ratio

Fig. 14 refers to the information of whatever the speed changes, all the operating speed and losses are still nearly equal at any attachment of unbalanced weight position. It is only for 90 degree position unbalanced weight at each operating speed.

It can be seen that at each level of drum speed tested, the un-threshed and total grain losses increased

significantly as the drum speed increased from 2.1 m/s to 39.84 m/s. However, higher value of grain losses was obtained at higher drum speed. The most un-threshed and total grain losses are 3.7 % and 7.05 % at 39.84 m/s, and then the least value of 0.19 % and 0.37 % by dynamic stiffness consideration were observed at drum speed of 2.1 m/s.

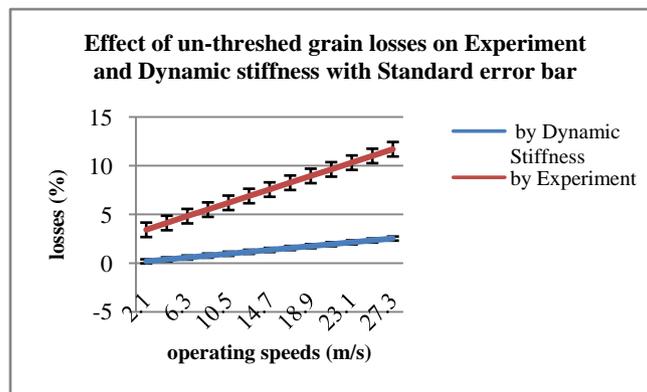


Figure 15 : Effect of Standard error bar for un-threshed grain losses by Experiment and Dynamic Stiffness condition

All the value of un-threshed and total grain losses at each operating speeds with standard error bars are expressed in Fig. 15 and 16. These values are equal for various unbalance weight positions with experiment and dynamic analysis. The effect of drum

speed on the value of un-threshed grain losses for both experiment and dynamic stiffness are shown in Fig. 15 and the value of total grain losses for both experiment and dynamic stiffness are shown in Fig. 16.

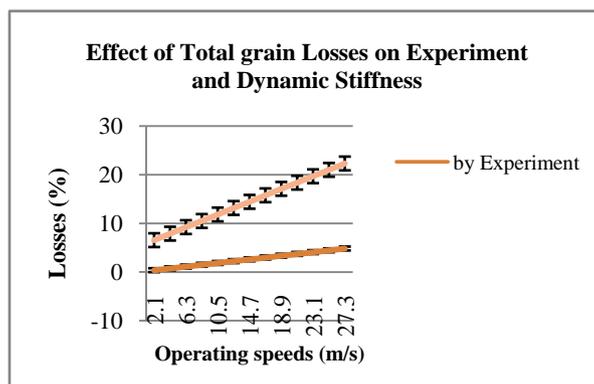


Figure 16 : Effect of Standard error bar for Total grain losses by Experiment and Dynamic Stiffness condition

The results revealed that un-threshed grain losses increased steadily in the dynamic stiffness. By testing dynamic stiffness, the result of un-threshed grain losses increased significantly in experiment as the paddy moisture content decreased at 21.5, 20% and 17 % (w.b). It was observed that at each level of drum speed tested. But, the lower un-threshed grain losses observed at higher paddy moisture content with given drum speeds.

IV. CONCLUSION

The paddy moisture content and the drum (or shaft) speeds significantly affected the total losses during paddy threshing by placed the shaft in the axial-flow thresher tested. The maximum total grain losses were obtained at shaft speed 39.84 m/s, frequency ratio 0.95 and moisture content 17 % in Fig (14). The values of total grain losses are 12.263 % and 7.05% for each theory with experiment in the paddy field and dynamic stiffness at 90 degree unbalance weight position.

The grain losses decrease in the suitable moisture content 20% (w.b). So, threshing losses was more increase than determining by dynamic stiffness. Comparing these two results, the total grain losses due to the dynamic stiffness is more satisfied than experimental field condition.

In order to minimize the effect of shaft or drum speed on total grain losses in the axial-flow thresher, it is recommended that the threshing operation should be performed immediately after crop harvesting. Performances due to dynamic analysis of the shaft for thresher have been reviewed in this paper. The two main topics include: experimental measurement techniques and dynamic stiffness of the shaft with various operating speeds.

V. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First of all, the author is particularly intended to Dr. Tin San, Associate Professor and Head of Mechanical Engineering Department, Mandalay Technological University, for his immeasurable help throughout this paper.

Special appreciation is intended to her supervisor Dr. Htay Htay Win, Associate Professor, Mandalay Technological University, for her supervision, support, guidance and encouragement throughout this research. Also, the author would like to thank Dr. Zin Ei Win, Associate Professor, Mandalay Technological University, for her advice, guidance and help throughout this study. And then, the author would like to give thank to Dr. Myint Thein, Lecturer, Mandalay Technological University, for his support and advice in the completion of this study.

Moreover, the author would like to thank to Principal and staffs from Mechanization Training Centre (Meikhtila) and then, Managers and staffs from Heavy

Industry(18), Inngon (Kyaukse) for their help and permit to study for this research. Special thanks are given to her parents, brothers, sisters and her friends for their constant understanding, encouragement and support to make this research without difficulty.

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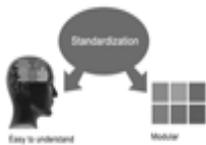
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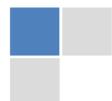


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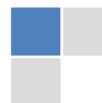
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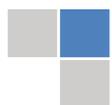
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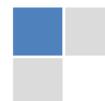
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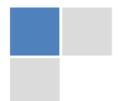
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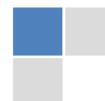
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INDEX

H

Heuristic · 4, 8

L

Lemmais · 11

M

Manoeuvring · 17

Meiktila · 37

Myittar · 39

O

Obsolescence · 29

S

Shortis · 20, 25

T

Tachometer · 39

Trajectory · 4, 8, 11, 13



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