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Smart Solar Charge Controller

Highlights

Application of Short-Term Load

Mitigation on Conducted Emission

Performance Analysis of Enhanced

Discovering Thoughts, Inventing Future

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Application of Short-Term Load Forecasting for Optimizing the Storage Devices of a Base Station

By Mishuk Mitra, Metali Rani Datta, Chinmoy Mallick & Atia Rahman

University of Asia Pacific (UAP)

Abstract- Energy is one of the important key factors to realize better socioeconomic development of a society and electrical energy is the most common form of energy for urban area both in commercials and residences. The instantaneous nature of electricity has made it different from other commodities as it has to be consumed just after the moment of generation. So, from generation parties to consumers at every stage of modern electricity grid it is every important to ensure the balance of consumption and production to achieve sustainability and reliability of the grid. Load forecasting is an important component for power system energy management system. Precise load forecasting helps the electric utility to make unit commitment decisions, reduces spinning reserve capacity and schedule device maintenance plan properly.

Keywords: artificial neural network (ANN), feed-forward neural network (FNN), renewable energy source (RES), photo voltaic (PV). base transceiver station (BTS), short term load forecasting (STLF), support vector machine (SVM), expert system (ES).

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Application of Short-Term Load Forecasting for Optimizing the Storage Devices of a Base Station

Mishuk Mitra ^a, Metali Rani Datta ^o, Chinmoy Mallick ^P & Atia Rahman ^{GD}

Abstract- Energy is one of the important key factors to realize better socioeconomic development of a society and electrical energy is the most common form of energy for urban area both in commercials and residences. The instantaneous nature of electricity has made it different from other commodities as it has to be consumed just after the moment of generation. So, from generation parties to consumers at every stage of modern electricity grid it is every important to ensure the balance of consumption and production to achieve sustainability and reliability of the grid. Load forecasting is an important component for power system energy management system. Precise load forecasting helps the electric utility to make unit commitment decisions, reduces spinning reserve capacity and schedule device maintenance plan properly. It also reduces the generation cost and increases reliability of power systems. In this work, an artificial neural network for short term load forecasting is demonstrated. Based on the time and similar previous day load, artificial neural network model is built, which are eventually used for the short-term load forecasting. The aim of this work is to describe the development and evaluation of a forecasting model to schedule the onsite storage devices. The evaluated model is able to predict the day-ahead electricity demand of a traditional base unit in order to schedule the storage devices.

Keywords: artificial neural network (ANN), feed-forward neural network (FNN), renewable energy source (RES), photo voltaic (PV). base transceiver station (BTS), short term load forecasting (STLF), support vector machine (SVM), expert system (ES).

I. INTRODUCTION

he process of achieving this research is mainly divided into two main parts: assessing the forecasting model and scheduling of storage device [1]. The modelling and simulation is performed in MATLAB.

a) Data pre-processing & Data-analysis

The function of the data pre-processing is acquiring representative data, removing unusual consumption hike and other inconsistencies, defining proper format for time stamping (day, month, hour, minute) and splitting up the data in identification and validation sets [2]. The function of the data analysis is analysing the data to find underlining mechanisms, trend and variations in the data, use of clustering to get more insight in intraday correlation [3].

b) Forecasting of Consumption & Storage Device Scheduling

To schedule the storage devices, it is very crucial to have prior knowledge about electricity consumption on day-ahead. Therefore, short-term forecasting is an important step to ensure better scheduling of the storage devices [4]. Pre-processed data is used to evaluate the performance of the forecasting models. Initially two forecasting models, ANN is chosen to forecast the consumption profile. This model is evaluated with respect to some evaluation criterion. The use of load forecasting is widely accepted as operational aid for the control the electric power system as well as to enhance consumer participation in local energy market through providing financial benefits.

The forecasted consumption profile of a base station will be used to achieve optimum scheduling of storage devices [5]. The main idea is to utilize the surplus of PV generated energy after mitigating selfconsumption. If a particular consumer can have an idea about the level of stored energy, it is possible to utilize the energy in various way like, load shifting, include some flexible loads to consume the extra energy, valley filling etc. However, for this research our target is to feed the extra stored energy in local market, so that the consumer can have some financial benefits from the trading.

ii. Methodology

The research approaches are selection and description of the electricity consumption data and the different variables, processing and detection of missing values, methods are discussed to discover the cohesion and pattern in the selected data and then procedure of evaluation is appointed [6].

a) Data

Real data of electricity consumption is needed for estimation and validation purposes of the forecasted result. Moreover, to predict the amount of stored energy in the storage devices on day-ahead, the PV generated energy of the corresponding base stations are also needed. As the ultimate goal is to predict the base

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station forecasting, though additional Qualitative variables are introduced to recognize the precise pattern of the consumption behaviour of each consumer.

i. Electricity Use Data

Real energy consumption data of different BTS on a daily basis at 15 minutes of sampling is used. This data will be used to train the network and build the forecasted model. Then that forecasted model will be used to design the PV panel system and schedule the storage device [7]. All the data are taken in Wh and thus will be forecasted in the same unit.

a. Normal Energy Consumption Data

On average the yearly consumption of an identical base station in the Netherlands is 3500 kWh. So, daily electricity consumption on average is 9.5 kWh [37]. Consumption profile shown in the figure 2.1 is the electricity consumption pattern of a particular base station for the first week of March, 2013 with average consumption around 9 kWh per day.

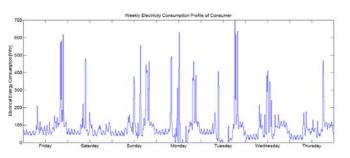


Figure 1: Weekly consumption pattern

However, the daily consumption patter in different depending on week days and weekend, even similar week days does not have similar consumption patterns shown in Figure 2.

It is very important to identify the non-linearity of the consumption pattern, because forecasting model selection is depend in the degree of non-linearity of the input data.

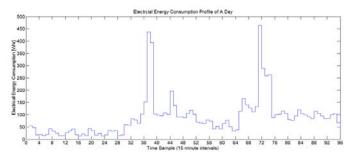


Figure 2: Daily load consumption

b. Electrical Energy Consumption Compromised with PV

After careful analysis, some data are found in the data set which follows a particular pattern but the average electricity consumption is less than the standard one. Figure 2.3 shows a consumption profile of a day which goes close to zero at mid-day [8].

Moreover, this particular base station has installed PV as local generation source. So, it is very much understandable this consumption profile is the net amount of energy consumed from grid after mitigating some load with PV. Thus, the electricity energy consumption data of this type of base stations cannot be used to identify the proper forecasting model.

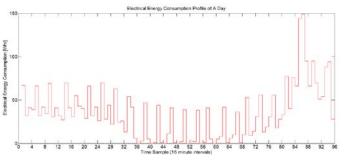


Figure 3: PV Compromised Electricity Consumption

Moreover, there are some consumption profile consumption profile of total 3.62 kWh is shown in Figure data sets with very low average daily consumption. A 4. At Figure 4

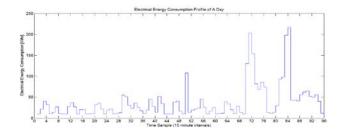


Figure 4: Electricity consumption of some particular equipment

Consumption is very low but at night it goes high. So most probably it is the consumption profile of cooling system. Though this consumption profile cannot give the proper idea about the consumer load behaviour.

ii. Qualitative Variables

Beside input variables (electrical energy consumption), also the qualitative variables are important for forecasting. Qualitative variables are better known as dummy variables; do not have a natural ordering. These variables contain descriptive values, like the day of the week. Moreover, all the data are 15 minute sampled so hour information is also a qualitative input variable. Depending on the time electrical consumption varies like at working days from 9.00AM to 6.00AM consumption should be low and at night when everybody is at home consumption goes high at base station. However, this hour based consumption pattern also depends on season. Thus, seasonal effect can be an input variable for forecasting. But this research is focused on STLF and to capture the consumer behaviour, electricity consumption data of two or three months is used as training data. So most of the case seasonal identification remains same for all training data. Finally, day identification along with our identification is considered as qualitative input variables for the forecasting model.

b) Data Pre-processing

Real life data contains huge amount of noise and often has quality issues. Such volatility must be removed before simulation can be performed. If the input values to a forecasting model are poor, it will be hard to produce a good forecast, irrelevant of the quality of the forecast model. All the steps has to be taken into consideration before simulation as pre-processing is given below

- Duplicate data check
- Missing data check
- Filtering unusual and noise from PV generation data set

Duplicate and Missing Data check:

The electricity consumption data of different base station of a year is given as Wh/15 min. Smart

meters are used as measuring device, thus it has high possibility of missing data and duplicate data. Initially the full data set is passed through some checking algorithm to identify duplicate data and missing data as Pre-processing step. However, data with same time stamp is treated as duplicate data. For missing data on weekdays, average value of the immediate 7 weekday's consumption data on the same time sample is taken. However missing data for weekend days, average consumption of the previous 4 same days on the same time sample is calculated.

As an example, to find a missing data on weekdays at y_t it should take the average of previous seven weekdays on the same time t shows in Figure 5.

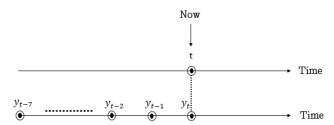


Figure 5: Average value for missing data on weekdays

Moreover, to find a missing data on weekend (as an example Saturday) it has to take the average of previous 4 Saturday of the same time sample shown in Figure 2.6.

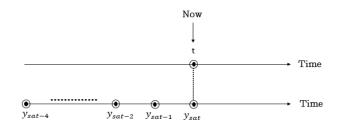


Figure 6: Average value for missing data on weekend

Filtering unusual and noise from PV generation data set:

The PV generated data is also measured in 15minute interval but it is very important to identify the noise or unusual production. Normally electronics based measurement devices are used to capture the data from controller [38]. So, to have unusual production peak or noise (like production level 1 or 2Wh) is very common. 2017

Year

Moreover, synchronize PV production and consumption data for the same consumer is also important for scheduling of stage device.

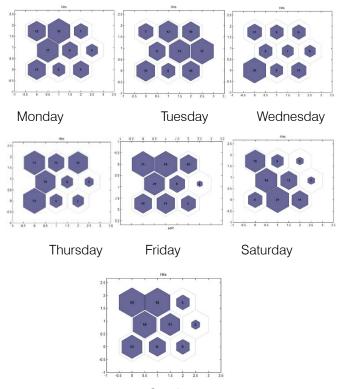
c) Data Analysis

i. Day identification Number as Input of ANN

It is very important to make some difference among the different days of the week so that the models can identify the target data set according to the train data set. Initially these identification variables are coded into integer value. The days of the week is represented

by 1,2,3,4,5,6,7 respectively for Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, Friday, Saturday and Sunday.

Correlation or patterns within the electricity use can aid the forecast if well defined. To discover patterns in the electricity use, self-organizing map (SOM) is used [9]. The motivation behind SOM analysis is to find the pattern of consumption of each day of a week. SOM clustering of seven days of a week is shown in Figure 2.7.



Sunday

Figure 7: SOM clustering of electricity use per day

Figure 2.7 illustrates different electricity consumption pattern of each day. So, as an input of ANN day identification number will be different for each day.

d) Evaluation Method

An evaluation method is necessary for three aspects;

- Model identification
- Performance comparison between models
- Insight in model performance for practical use

In order to evaluate a forecast made with a specific model, forecast-error metrics or so called performance indicators are defined. Three types of performance indicators are discussed. The first used performance indicators are the scale dependent metrics. These indicators are on the same scale as the data. One of the most used scaled performance indicator is the mean are extremely large when the actual values reaches zero [10]. When considering data which contain zeros, the metric is undefined. An example of percentage based metric is the MAPE, which is one of the most used squire error (MSE). The other category is percentage based performance indicators, which can be used to compare different data sets as they are scale independent. To overcome division by zero, a scale free error is proposed by Hyndman and Koehler in 2006 [40]. The abovementioned performance indicators are given below.

In each of the forthcoming definitions y_t is actual value, f_t is the forecasted value, $e_t = y_t - f_t$ is the forecast error and \boldsymbol{n} is the size of the test set. Also, $\overline{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} y_t$ is the test mean and $\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{t=1}^{n} (y_t - \overline{y})^2$ is the test variance.

i. The Mean Squire Error (MAE) The mean absolute error is defined as [41] [42]

MSE =
$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} (e_t)^2$$
 (a)

Its properties are -

- It measures the average absolute deviation of forecasted values from original ones.
- It shows the magnitude of overall error, occurred due to forecasting.
- In MSE, the effects of positive and negative errors are canceled out.
- For a good forecast, the obtained MSE should be as small as possible.
- Extreme forecast errors are not panelized by MSE.
- ii. The Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE)

This measure is given by [41] [43]

$$MAPE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=1}^{n} |\frac{e_t}{y_t}| \times 100 \%$$
 (b)

Its important features are:

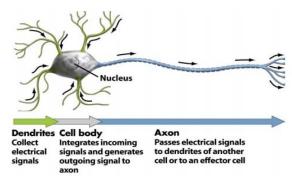
• This measure represents the percentage of average absolute error occurred.

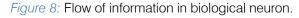
- It is independent of the scale of measurement, but affected by data transformation.
- It does not show the direction of error.
- MAPE does not panelize extreme deviations.
- In this measure, opposite signed errors do not offset each other.

III. MODEL BUILDING

a) ANN based Forecasting Model

Artificial neural networks (ANNs) constitute a class of flexible nonlinear models designed to mimic biological neural systems of brain. Typically, a biological neural system consists of several layers, each with a large number of neural units (neurons) that can process the information in a parallel manner as illustrated in Figure 3.1. Like biological neuron, ANN has also multi-layer structure such that the middle layer is built upon many simple nonlinear functions and able to receive multiple input signals from other neurons. The procedure of selecting optimal network architectures and their learning approaches are described for forecasting the wind speed in two different time horizon [11][13].





b) Working Principle of Forecasting Model

ANNs are networks typically composed of several layers with interconnected elements called neurons. The first or lowest layer is the input layer which gathers external information. The middle or hidden layers process this information in a fairly elementary way to produce signals for the connected neurons at output layer. The neurons or nodes at the adjacent layers are usually fully connected by acyclic arcs from a lower layer (input) to a higher layer (output).

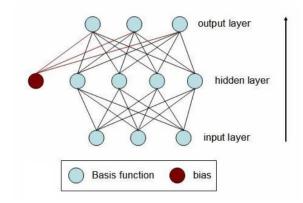


Figure 9: A general ANN structure with one hidden layer

Input values are processed by this network to form output values as depicted in a simple non-linear

model, the inputs are independent variables. The functionality estimated by the ANN can be written as:

Where, x1,x2,....,xn are independent input variables and y1,y2,....., yn are dependent output variables.

Weights are the key factors of network performance. These weights are continuously updated during the training period to carry out complex nonlinear mapping [12]. In this research the developed forecasting model is trained in supervised way. Once the network is trained with appropriate training data set, it is ready to perform desire task.

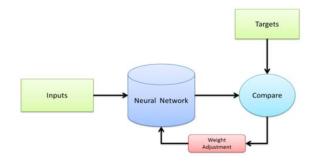


Figure 10: Illustration of network weights in supervised learning process

c) Network Architecture

Complicacy of ANN mainly arises for the hidden layers which are used to build the connection between inputs and outputs. Thus, it creates an indirect relationship between inputs and outputs. Information received from the input layer is first processed in the hidden layer, and then transmitted to the output layer. So, the learning capability due to nonlinearity of the input data is mostly depend on number of hidden layers. A multilayer forecasting model with one hidden layer can perform an arbitrary convex approximation to any continuous non-linear mapping. According to the universal approximation theorem for neural networks [49], the standard multilayer feed forward network with a single hidden layer and finite number of hidden neurons is sufficient for any complex simulate nonlinear function with any desired accuracy. It concludes with the view that number of hidden layers has an influence according to the complicacy of the problem otherwise system will be more complicated, even single hidden layer requires large number of nodes. So, it is always a tradeoff of number of hidden layers depending on complicacy of the problem.

d) Selection of the Network

Depending on the structure of the network ANN can be classified in several models. Figure 3.4 shows different types of neural networks used for forecasting applications.

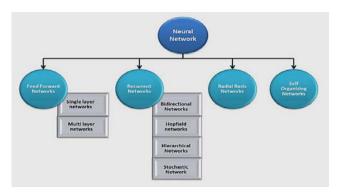


Figure 11: The taxonomy of ANN architecture

Feed-forward neural network (FNN) is fast and simplest ANN because in the case of Multilayer layer network it transmits information form input layer to output layer using some simple structured hidden layer [13]. Normally it maps the static relationship between input and outputs

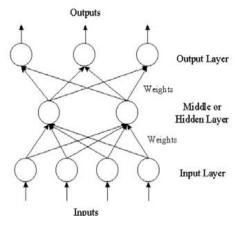


Figure 12: Structure of FNN

through a unidirectional information flow (only form input towards output). The inputs are fed directly to the outputs via a series of weights. Each connection may have different weights. Due to lack of any feedback, FNN must use a large number of input neurons for learning the historical data and consequently achieving good results. Despite of being simple, feed-forward networks are more efficient in complex nonlinear forecasting problem with bigger number of input variables [15].

e) Mathematical Model

In a mathematical model, has been developed referring to the Figure 3.5

$$y_t = a_0 + \sum_{j=1}^q a_j g \left(\beta_{0j} + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_{ij} y_{t-i} \right) + \varepsilon_t , \forall t$$

Here y_{t-i} (i = 1, 2, 3, ..., p) are the input and y_t is the output. The integers p and q are the number of input and hidden nodes respectively. a_i (j =

1, 2, 3, q) and $\beta_{ij} = (i = 1, 2, 3,, p; j =$

1, **2**, **3**, ..., *m*) are the connection weights and ε_t is the random variable, a_0 , β_0 are the bias term. Usually, the logistic sigmoid function $g(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$ is applied as the nonlinear activation function. Other activation functions, such as linear, hyperbolic tangent, Gaussian, etc. can also be used depending upon the use case.

The feed forward ANN model in Equation 1 in fact performs a non-linear functional mapping from the past observations of the time series to the future value, i.ey_t=f (y_(t-1),y_(t-2) [,y] _(t-3),.....y_(t-p) ,W)+ ε _t where Wa vector of all parameters is and f is a function determined by the network structure and connection weights [15]

To estimate the connection weights, non-linear least square procedures are used, which are based on the minimization of the error function

$$F(\boldsymbol{\varphi}) = \sum_{t} e_t^2 = \sum_{t} (y_t - \hat{y}_t)^2$$

Here φ is the space of all connection weights. The optimization techniques used for minimizing the error function Equation 2 are referred as Learning Rules. The best-known learning rule in literature is the back propagation or Generalized Delta Rule.

IV. SIMULATION RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The optimal structure of ANN is used to forecast the BTS electricity consumption on day-ahead. In this case 31st of October, 2012 is considered for the demonstration of the model. The imbalance power is calculated by the power deviation between day-ahead forecaster and 15 minutes ahead forecaster. The flexible entities are activated in way to reduce this imbalance power. A simple MATLAB-based GUI has been implemented to demonstrate how this tool can be userfriendly for a customer.

a) Assumptions

The historical data are in Wh and the time interval is 15 minutes. As input, total 92 days of previous data is taken for pre-processing [14][15].The time range is March 1st, 2013 to May 31st 2013. The forecasted data represents the consumption for the next day, June 1st 2013.

b) Electricity Consumption Forecasting

i. Model of Feed-Forward ANN

Designing a three-layer FNN model for STLF involves several major steps:

- Determine the number of outputs: An FNN model may have only one output, which can be corresponding to the electrical load of a consumer, or several outputs, which can represent a 24-hour load profile of several BTSs. Some drawbacks of the multiple outputs FNN were discussed in [26].
- 2) Determine the number of inputs: previous consumption data of a particular consumer along with day identification number is used as target and input of FNN.
- Determine the number of hidden neurons: It is followed a trial and error method to select an optimal hidden layer structure for used data set at FNN. The number of hidden neuron layer mostly depends on: MAPE, Elapsed Time & Epoch.

The lowest MAPE, lowest time and highest Epoch is found for the chosen number of layer. Observing these parameters, the best output is obtained from 25 hidden layer amongst different options.

ii. Consumption forecasting on mid-summer (June 01, 2013)

Practical consumption data from 30 BTS will be used to evaluate the forecasting performance of the models. In this context, at first it is tried to forecast the consumption profile of each consumer on the same day with training data set of previous 3 months (92 days).

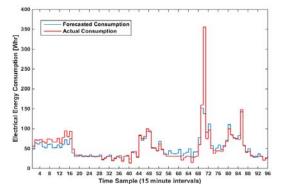
Table 1: FNN Evaluation

Consumer	ANN		
	R	MSE	MAPE (%)
1	0.94285	3.63E+03	33.9695
2	0.89787	1.26E+04	39.39
3	0.78771	8.70E+03	28.5366
4	0.91719	1.49E+03	52.8844
5	0.83974	572.452	15.9883
6	0.41161	440.1884	103.0053
7	0.97297	1.27E+03	47.334
8	0.91181	343.6435	25.3231
9	0.9641	1.23E+03	26.5852
10	0.9468	537.9639	27.9004

11	0.8576	4.71E+03	52.6619
12	0.85425	3.95E+03	79.4627
13	0.85881	281.4154	227.0793
14	0.90321	805.5652	40.9806
15	0.9535	1.71E+03	42.787
16	0.90626	1.01E+04	43.5497
17	0.93196	2.39E+03	19.4287
18	0.82326	6.87E+03	20.21
19	0.9188	2.71E+03	46.3432
20	0.94752	9.59E+03	18.249
21	0.94696	914.3805	53.9584
22	0.91646	1.04E+04	20.6975
23	0.93604	2.93E+03	40.1062
24	0.95008	1.97E+03	114.3078
25	0.85898	5.49E+03	72.9944
26	0.91428	1.92E+03	68.4901
27	0.87358	5.23E+03	28.0127
28	0.93541	2.10E+03	20.6213
29	0.84505	519.5149	626.8921
30	0.88409	1.45E+03	19.0804

a. Forecasting with FNN

Form Table 1, it can be mentioned that FNN performed well. Some out of range data is found in MAPE which happened because those consumers had no usage of electricity in their consumer profile at some hours of the day. Considering the case of MAPE, site 5 has the best output as 15.9883%. Consumer 5 has a moderate level of error (MSE = 572.452) and a very noticeable regression mismatch as it is far away from 1 (R=0.83974)





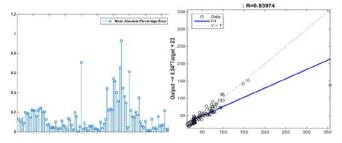


Figure 14: MAPE and R of forecasted output of site 5 by FNN

In Figure 4.2, the regression function and MAPE for the consumer is shown. The dotted line in the regression represents the exact result and the solid line represents the best fit regression line between the input and the output. The main reason for this deflection is for changing the behavior of the consumer at that particular time.

Lest MSE belongs to consumer 8 (MSE=343.6435). But the percentage error is as high as MAPE=25.3231%. In Figure 6-3 it is clearly visible that

the output profile almost followed the trend. And most of the points are well predicted, though many of them are lower than the actual data

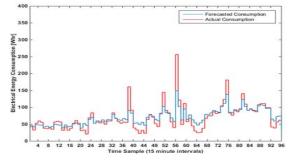


Figure 15: Forecasting performance of FNN for site 8

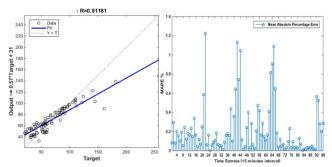


Figure 16: MAPE and R of forecasted output of site 8 by FNN

Figure 6-4, obtained regression function is comparatively good. The mismatched area lies in between 50 to 100Wh and the MAPE shows a scattered pattern of error. Moreover it is clear that the errors largely occurred at the peaks.

Finally, another consideration is done for other consumer for optimized evaluation. In this case the overall performance has been considered. The selected

> 100 [Whr] 00

> Electrical Energy Consu

one is being consumer 2. For the selected consumer, R=0.8978; MSE=1260; MAPE=39.39. Though the R is obtained parameters are at moderate level as slightly mismatched from the ideal value, MAPE has been obtained in an acceptable range. But the MSE is so large that can affect the overall performance of the forecasting model.

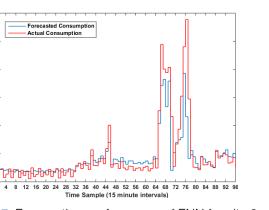


Figure 17: Forecasting performance of FNN for site 2

From the Figure 4.5, the forecasted data is matched in almost every point with the actual consumption profile. The major mismatch is found at the higher peaks. Though the forecasted model has followed and detected the positions of the peaks well, but the values estimated are lower than the actual consumption. This mainly happens for the change in the consuming behaviour of the consumer. The regression function plotting is lineated based on the best points to be found. The most mismatching is found around 100 to 300Whr. Noticeable percentage errors are found at the peaks from the scattered plotting.

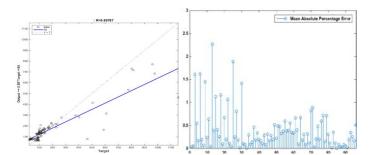


Figure 18: MAPE and R of forecasted output of site 2 by FNN

c) Scheduling

Based on the forecasted model, scheduling of the BTS storage device is designed and operated. For this research two ideal profiles are chosen. For the betterment of the demonstration, the available energy is compared with both actual consumption profile and the forecasted consumption profile.

For the demonstration consumer 2 is chosen. Figure 4.7 shows the scheduling of a storage device with the actual consumption profile. From the figure, available energy and stored energy is utilized in a balanced way. During the mid-hour of the day, amount of the available and stored energy is adequate. And the individual BTS has used the stored energy to meet its requirements.

The PV rating, in this case, is 7.5KW. So, the figure below clears out that, the consumer is using around 400W. That means, he can schedule the storing of the device a day ahead to save the rest 7.1KW of energy [16].

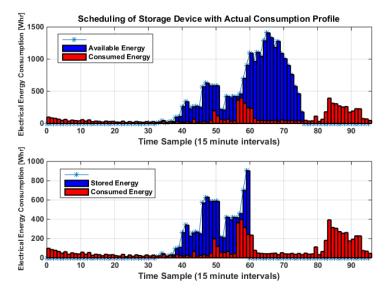


Figure 19: PV production and available energy for site 2

Forecasted consumption profile demonstrates the typical scheduling for the device. This is to determine the charging time of the storage device at the day ahead and to be aware of the amount of the energy to be used. From the figure 4.8, the needed energy for the next day can be estimated. It will be used to determine the time to store the energy and the dissipating time of the power. And based on the forecasted model, stored energy can be used to make the BTS grid free user. Thus a BTS can be grid independent and produce, store and consume its own energy.

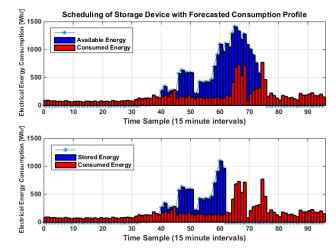


Figure 20: Storage device scheduling using FNN forecasted consumption profile

For further evaluation, consumption model of another consumer is illustrated in Figure 4.9, 4.10 that demonstrates the same scenario for consumer 17. That means, this profile will help the consumer to schedule, store and use the energy for its own.

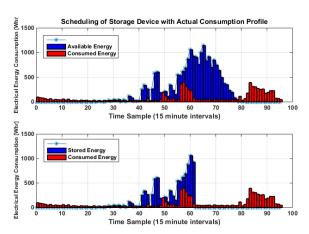


Figure 21: PV production and available energy for site 17

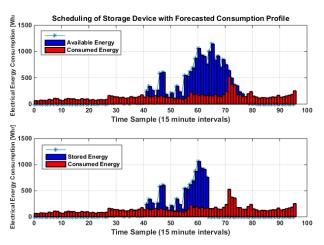


Figure 22: Storage device scheduling using FNN forecasted consumption profile

V. Conclusion & Future Work

The main focus of this research work was to identify and justify a optimized forecasting model to forecast the electricity consumption at BTS and comparing the results on the basis of the major error measurement parameters and establishing a reliable and most accurate FNN forecasting model. The forecasted data can be used for designing the scheduling and designing the independent power source for the BTS. This will help the consumer to use its own power to meet its requirement. Thus, it can become grid free consumer.

However, the following recommendations are suggested for improving the forecaster.

usina Instead of Levenberg-Marquardt algorithm; which is computationally heavy; another learning method called Scaled Conjugate Gradient (SCG) for bigger ANN approximation and prediction. Larger iteration number of hidden neurons is preferable for finding optimum solution. In STLF, ARIMA is proved as a poor forecaster because of having a significant level of non-linearity in historical data. However, a hybrid model combined with ANN and ARIMA is needed to be investigated. The input variables for the forecasting model should be selected based on partial mutual information (PMI) algorithm instead of the last known research experience only. This method will detect nonlinear dependencies between the input and output as well as prevent the selection of inputs with redundant information. It will reduce the dimension of the input layer. Aside of using Neural Network Toolbox™ of MATLAB, better flexibility would be expected. Thus, the user will have more control on every step of the program.

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Design and Construction of a Microcontroller based Smart Solar Charge Controller for Automatic Brightness Controlling of PV based Street Light

By Tahmid Hasan Rupam, Farhana Jesmin Tuli, & Md. Habibur Rahman University of Dhaka

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Keywords: solar PV module, PIC microcontroller, LDR sensor, ON/OFF smart solar charge controller, LED street lights, automatic brightness control etc.

GJRE-F Classification: FOR Code: 090605

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Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



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Design and Construction of a Microcontroller based Smart Solar Charge Controller for Automatic Brightness Controlling of PV based Street Light

Tahmid Hasan Rupam ^a, Farhana Jesmin Tuli ^o, & Md. Habibur Rahman ^P

Abstract- Bangladesh being an over-populated country needs to produce a huge amount of energy to meet its people's demands. On the other hand, it is quiet impossible to provide the large population with adequate energy with the conventional way of producing energy. Only 62% of our people have the privilege of using electricity. So apart from finding cost effective ways to harness energy, it is required to use the produced energy efficiently. This paper aims to find a way to reduce the pressure on grid energy by empowering the street lights using solar panels. In this regard, it also focuses on having a smart charge controller circuit for ensuring battery longevity. Here PIC16F876A microcontroller has been used to sense different voltage levels and make decisions according to them. The CCP module of the microcontroller has been used for a variable duty cycle PWM signal to adjust the brightness of the LED street lights according to necessity. The intensity of the street light will be automatically adjusted and will go OFF in the morning. By the use of LED street lights the reduction of the consumption of energy has been ensured. Apart from this, the smart solar charge controller can also be used for the electrification of remote places using solar energy as it is cost effective and easy to implement.

Keywords: solar PV module, PIC microcontroller, LDR sensor, ON/OFF smart solar charge controller, LED street lights, automatic brightness control etc.

I. INTRODUCTION

ajor sources of conventional fossil fuels have exhausted to a large scale for its continuous use and these resources can no longer supply energy for 50-60 years from now^[1]. To overcome this situation, solar energy can be used as alternative energy system which is operated in two different ways - solar photovoltaic system and solar thermal system^[2]. The average increase of photovoltaic production is 48 percent per year since 2002^[3] and the price of solar cells falls down to 20% for every doubling of industry volume^[4].

To use photovoltaic energy at night, a battery is required for accumulating solar power. For the efficient

use of the battery, a charge controller is needed to regulate the flow of current through solar panel to battery or through battery to load; which is an essential component of a power system, whether the source can be PV, wind, hydro, fuel or utility grid^[5]. Due to the urbanization, the number of streets is increasing along with the street lights. For street lighting, about 10–38% of the total energy is required around the worldwide^[6]. The LED lights can be used instead of traditional street lights to save 40-80% electricity than traditional lights^[7]. Manually controlled street lights were susceptible to several errors and high power consuming^[8] which can be impeded by a new method called optical control method^[9] in which a light sensitive device, such as light dependent resistor(LDR)is used.

There have been a lot of studies done regarding smart charge controller and automatic brightness controlling of street lights. Sharath Patil G.S et al. (2015) designed a PV based automatic street light controlling system using sensors^[1]. Automation of street lights was done by LDR sensors. Intensity of led street lights was controlled by IR sensor and pulse width modulation according to the vehicle movement. Wallies et al. (2014) developed a solar charge controller by using Microcontroller to protect the battery from deep discharging and over charging^[10]. F.Sani et al. (2014) constructed a microcontroller based charge controller to charge 12V battery by using 80W solar panel^[2]. Vikas Khare(2012) demonstrated a model of charge controller using microcontroller where the battery always charged at maximum power^[3]. Mrs Jaya et al. (2012) presented a PIC based solar charging controller for battery to store solar energy and also mentioned how some disadvantages of analog circuits were solved by this controller^[5]. A.Dawod et al. (2005) designed an intelligent battery charger based on a control technique which was implemented by fuzzy logic^[11]. Rohaida Husin et al (2005) proposed an energy efficient microcontroller based automatic street lights (LED) controller using different types of sensors including laser sensor, light sensor and rain sensor^[9]. Dr.D Asha et al. (2012) implemented a system for street lights to use solar power efficiently along with an automatic traffic

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control unit^[6]. Riya et al. (2015) proposed an idea to control the brightness of LED street lights by detecting the number of vehicles automatically along with a traffic monitoring system^[7].

In this paper, an idea is proposed for the effective use of solar energy for lighting up the street lights by using energy efficient LED street lights and ensuring the longevity of the battery by involving a charge controller. Solar power is stored in a lead-acid battery and an ON/OFF charge controller is implemented by microcontroller PIC16F876; where this controller reads the sets points of lead-acid battery and controls the battery to be charged fully without overcharging. Here ON/OFF charge controller is used instead of PWM charge controller because the charging is done by a solar panel. In case of a grid connection, PWM charge controller would be the first choice but for PV panel, it is not suitable as it produces 20% to 30 % of energy loss in case of a solar panel. In this proposed system, charge controller controls the connection between solar panel and battery. The LED light and battery connection is controlled with the help of microcontroller by sensing light intensity of surroundings. MiKroC software is used for the logic implementation of the proposed system.

II. BLOCK DIAGRAM OF THE SYSTEM

As shown in the following block diagram, the complete system consists of mainly four blocks- Battery Voltage Sensing Circuit, Light Intensity Sensing Circuit, Switching Section and Brightness Control Section along with the microcontroller working as main controlling unit.

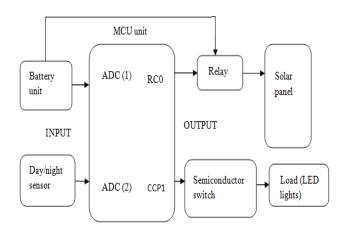
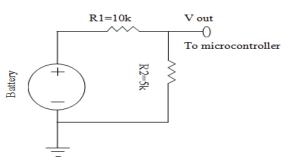


Fig. 1: Block diagram of the developed system

The design method of every section of the system is described in the following subheadings.

a) Voltage Sensing Circuit

A Lead acid battery is used in this system and it is required to sense the voltage of this battery which is fed to the microcontroller. To sense the battery voltage, a voltage divider circuit is used where resistors are chosen in a way that circuit can sense maximum battery voltage 15V. This voltage divider circuit is used to sense battery voltage because microcontrollers cannot take more than 5V as input.





Here, a voltage regulator circuit is needed to generate constant 5V supply to operate the microcontroller. For this a 7805 IC is used to convert the battery voltage to 5V and its output is fed to the MCLR pin along with Vcc pin of the microcontroller to operate the microcontroller.

b) Light Intensity Sensing Circuit

To control the load (street light) automatically, light intensity of the environment needs to be sensed. A light dependent resistor (LDR) is used for this purpose. According to the variation of incident light, the resistance of the LDR changes.

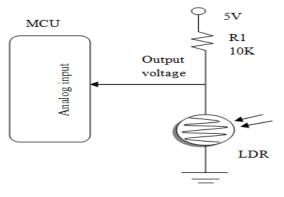


Fig. 3: Signal Conditioning Circuit

A voltage divider circuit is made using a fixed resistor (10k) and an LDR and the output of voltage regulator 7805 IC (5V) is used as voltage source. As the light of environment changes, resistance of LDR also changes and therefore the output voltage of circuit is varied. This voltage is sensed by the ADC unit of the microcontroller

c) Switching Section

After sensing the battery voltage the microcontroller generates an ON or OFF signal through one of its I/O pins based on a predefined algorithm to ensure the charging of the battery. When the voltage level of the battery is lower than the array reconnect voltage, 13.0V(4.33V sensed by the microcontroller) the

signal generated is ON (or logical 1). The pin is connected to a relay, an electro-mechanical switch to connect the battery with the solar panel. When ON signal is generated the relay turns on and connects the battery with the panel and eventually charging of the battery starts and continues till voltage regulation, 14.4V (4.8Vsensed by the microcontroller) is achieved. Moreover, if the battery voltage falls below 10.8V (3.6V for microcontroller) the load will be disconnected from the battery to prevent it from over discharging. When battery voltage rises to 11.5V (3.83V for microcontroller) then load is again connected to battery.

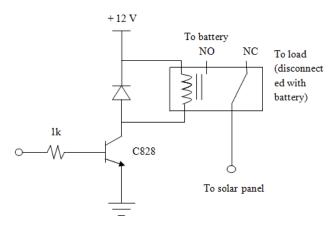


Fig. 4: Switching Section

d) Brightness Control Section

Pulse width modulation technique is used to control the loads (street light). Pulse Width Modulation, or PWM, is a technique for getting analog results by digital means. Digital control is used to create a square wave, a signal switched between on (5V) and off (0V). The duration of "on time" is called the pulse width. To get varying analog values, one can change or modulate that pulse width. To control the brightness of street light, an analog voltage is sensed by the microcontroller fed from the light intensity sensing circuit. If battery voltage is less than 10.8 volts, duty ratio will be 0% (0) i.e. the load is in OFF state. If the light intensity of environment is high enough (greater than 283.3 lux), then load also remains in OFF state. If light intensity of environment varies between 39.2 to 283.3 lux; PWM provides duty ratio of 50%. Below 39.2 lux, load will be lighten up in full brightness, PWM provides duty ratio of 100% (255), load is now in ON state. To drive street light (load), optocoupler and power MOSFET are used as the output of microcontroller is not enough to lighten up the load.

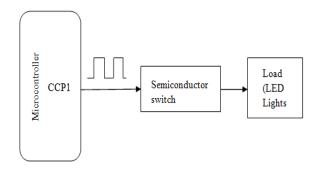
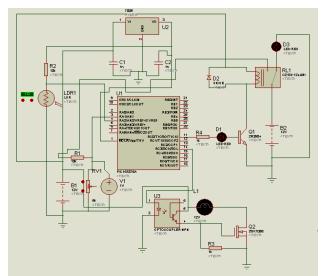


Fig. 5: Brightness Controlling Section

III. System Simulation

The whole system in simulated in proteus is shown in figure 6-





In this project, PORTA and PORTC of the microcontroller are used as input and output port respectively. Two pins of PORTA (RA1, RA2) are programmed as ADC module. These RA1 and RA2 pins are used to sense battery voltages and voltages from the light intensity circuit, respectively. In these two cases, voltage divider circuit is used as microcontroller cannot take more than 5 volts as input. The connection of the battery with the solar panel is controlled by relay which is connected to the output pin of microcontroller RC0 through transistor C828. Intensity of the street lights is controlled by pulse width modulation technique. Intensity of load will vary according to light intensity of environment. CCP module is activated for this purpose. The output of CCP1 is connected to optocoupler.

a) Required Calculations

Calculations for Battery Voltage Sensing:

Table.1: Battery Voltage Sensing:

	-	-	-
Charge controller set points	Battery voltage (volts)	Voltage sensed by microcontr oller (volts)	Equivalent decimal number
Voltage regulation (VR)	14.4	4.8	982
Array Reconnect Voltage (ARV)	13	4.33	887
Load Reconnect Voltage (LRV)	11.5	3.866	784
Low Voltage load Disconnect (LVD)	10.8	3.6	737

Calculations for LDR voltage sensing:

Table. 2: LDR voltage sensing

Light intensity	Resistanc e of the LDR(R2)(k Ω)	Voltage sensed by microcontroller(y)	Equivalent decimal number
Low	R2>=5.5	Vout>=1.77	>=363
Moderate	1 <r2<5.5< td=""><td>0.4545<vout< 1.77</vout< </td><td>93-363</td></r2<5.5<>	0.4545 <vout< 1.77</vout< 	93-363
High	R2<=1	Vout<= 0.4545	<=93

b) Flow-chart of the System

The flowchart of the system is shown here-

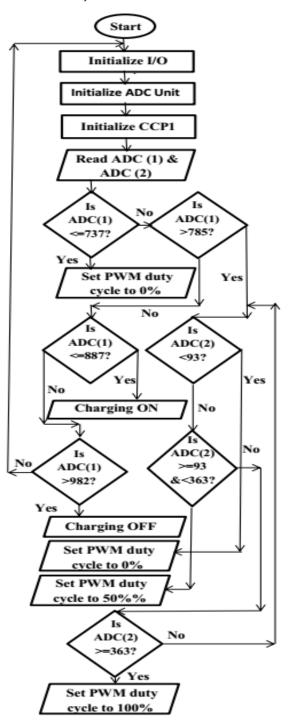


Fig. 7: Flow-chart of the system

HARDWARE DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION IV.

For hardware implementation the following components need to be connected according to the Fig. 6. The system was built on a bread board for testing. String of 12V LED lights has been used as street light. the complete hardware of the system is shown in Fig. 7.



Fig. 8: Complete Hardware of the System

a) Programming the Microcontroller

PIC microcontrollers can be programmed in several languages such as MPLab, C, Basic & FLOWCODE, which are most commonly used languages. But programming in lower level language, like assembly language, makes the process of programming more complicated. To avoid this problem, a high level language MikroC has been used. A program written in mikroC compiler includes Hex code, assembly code, header and other files. After writing a program code in C, the hex code is burned into microcontroller memory. For this a software is used named PICkit 2. After burning the hex file into the micro controller using a burner, the whole system was constructed on two bread boards. The solar panel and the battery were externally connected to the circuit.

V. Results and Discussion

A number of data were collected on different conditions after the hardware of the system was implemented. Among them some major cases are mentioned here-

A. Battery in charging state & load is ON with 100% duty ratio

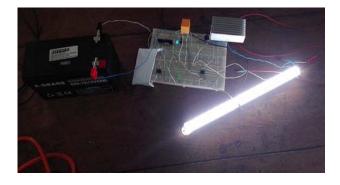
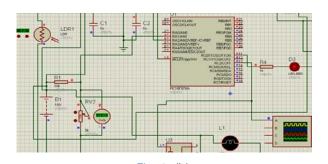
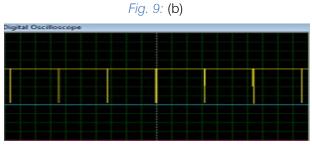


Fig. 9: (a)





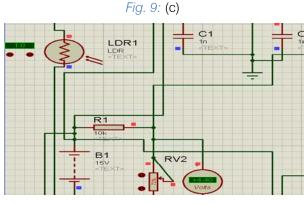


Fig. 9: (d)

In Fig.9.(a) a piece of paper was used to cover the LDR so that night condition could be simulated. As a result, the battery in charging state (blue LED ON) & load is ON with 100% duty ratio in hardware. And in Fig.9.(b) the same is shown in Simulation. Again in Fig.9.(c) and in Fig.9.(d) 100% duty ratio of PWM signal and the battery voltage(4.40V) and light intensity(1.0lx) reading in simulation is shown respectively.

B. Moderate light on LDR, battery is in charging state and PWM is set with 50% duty cycle

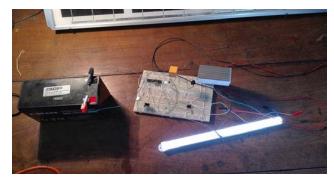
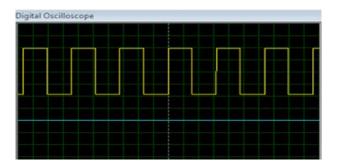


Fig. 10: (a)



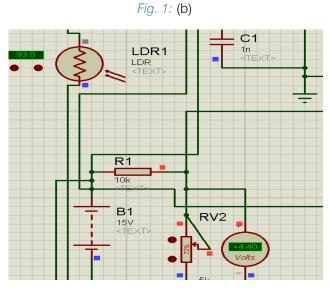
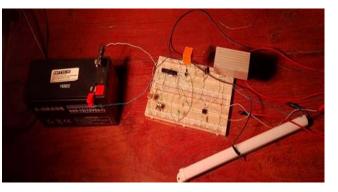


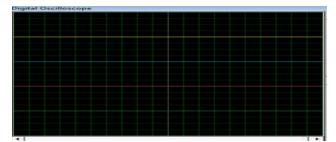
Fig.10: (c)

In this case Fig.10.(a) is showing that moderate light is incident on the LDR; battery is in charging state(blue LED) and PWM is set with 50% duty cycle in hardware. Fig10.(b) shows the 50% duty ratio of PWM signal and Fig10.(c) illustrates the battery voltage(4.4V) and light intensity reading(93.0lx) in simulation.

C. Battery in charging state and load in OFF state (0% duty ratio)









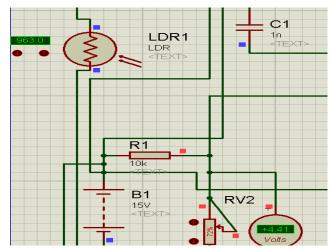


Fig. 11: (c)

In this particular case high artificial light was incident on the LDR. As a result Fig.11.(a) is showing that the battery is in charging state and the light is off. This is because the PWM signal is set with 0% duty cycle in hardware. This is shown in Fig.11. (b); 0% duty cycle of PWM. And in Fig.11.(c) the battery voltage(4.41V) and light intensity reading(963.0l_x) in simulation circuit is shown.

D. Battery in discharging state and load in ON state

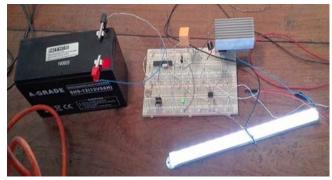
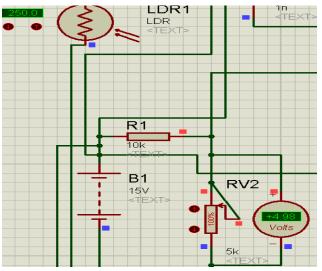


Fig.12: (a)





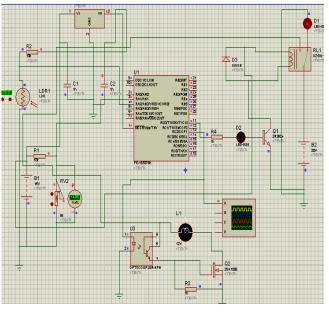


Fig.12: (c)

In this case Fig.12.(a) is showing that Moderate light in incident on the LDR and the battery is in discharging state(Green LED ON) and PWM is set with 50% duty cycle in hardware. In Fig.12.(b) Battery voltage(4.98V) and Light intensity reading(250.0lx) in simulation. And in Fig.12.(c) the whole system is shown in simulation for this particular case.

VI. Conclusion

In today's world the demand for energy is immense. To account for this ever growing need for energy, apart from the development of sustainable renewable energy sources, emphasis should also be given on redesigning systems to use energy more efficiently. In this paper a new model is presented which will reduce the power consumption of the street lighting system compared to conventional design. Here a saving of power is done with efficient use of the generated power i.e. with minimal wastage. Moreover, the charge controller can be used for electrification in the remote areas of Bangladesh using solar energy as it is cost effective. There are still scopes for future works. By proper selection of components based on their availability, the cost can be minimized. However, the only loss occurring in this circuit is due to the MOSFET (0.5 volts). Other than this the proposed system is both cost and energy efficient. In future, if this is implemented commercially, the overall cost can be reduced very significantly.

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Modelling and Simulation of Microcode based Built-In Self Test Technology for Multiported Memory

By Prof. Dr. S. R Patil & Miss. Musle Dipali B.

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Abstract- Now a day's embedded memory area and memory density is increasing. Due to this problem of fault is growing exponentionally. It is necessary to detect and repair those faults. There are different methods to detect the faults present in memory. Asynchronous P-MBIST method is used to detect the faults. Simulation result includes asynchronous P-MBIST which detect mismatch of data occurred and it is shown by high fault pulse. To correct the detected fault redundancy circuit is used. This system is implemented using FPGA platform.

Keywords: built-in-self test (MBIST), built-in-self repair (BISR), asynchronous P-MBIST, microcode MBIST multiported memory, redundancy logic array, field programming gate array (FPGA).

GJRE-F Classification: FOR Code: 090699

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Modelling and Simulation of Microcode based Built-In Self Test Technology for Multiported Memory

Prof. Dr. S. R Patil^a & Miss. Musle Dipali B.^o

Abstract- Now a day's embedded memory area and memory density is increasing. Due to this problem of fault is growing exponentionally.It is necessary to detect and repair those faults. There are different methods to detect the faults present in memory. Asynchronous P-MBIST method is used to detect the faults. Simulation result includes asynchronous P-MBIST which detect mismatch of data occurred and it is shown by high fault pulse. To correct the detected fault redundancy circuit is used. This system is implemented using FPGA platform.

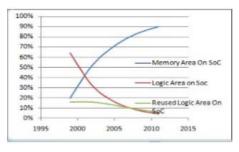
Keywords: built-in-self test (MBIST), built-in-self repair (BISR), asynchronous P-MBIST, microcode MBIST multiported memory, redundancy logic array, field programming gate array (FPGA).

I. INTRODUCTION

ccording to the ITRS 2015,Now a days the memory area is increasing than logic area in SOCs.Fig.1[1] shows that shrinking the technologies give rise to defect and new fault models.Thus, the new trends in Multiported memory testing will be driven by the following items.

BIST: The new fault and new defects eliminate using BIST. The only solution that allows at-speed testing for embedded memories, it has generate fault detection and coverage, the higher repair efficiency only detecting the faults is no longer sufficient for SOCs so memory repair is also necessary for this purpose both diagnosis and repair algorithm are required.

BISR: Combining BIST with efficient and low cost repair schemes in order to improve the yield and system reliability as well.





Auhtor α σ: Department of Electronics and telecommunication Bharati Vidyapeeth's College of Engineering for Women Pune, 43 Savitribai Phule Pune University. e-mails: srpatil44@gmail.com, dipali.musleb@gmail.com There are two methods which are efficiently used. These methods are as follow:

- 1. *External Testing:* ATPG algorithm is used for external testing method ATPG algorithm consumes more area and to test vector generation is time consuming.
- 2. Internal Testing: BIST scheduling algorithm for internal testing it includes LFSR tuning, Test pattern generation. Whereas, BIST and Design for Test (DFT) is on same SOC and overcomes the limitation of the ATPG algorithm.

Microcode Asynchronous P-MBIST is implemented and compared with Synchronous P-MBIST. In Asynchronous M-BIST handshaking signals are used to communication between blocks of test controller. Whereas, in synchronous P-MBIST clocks are used to synchronize the test blocks on SOC. The BIST having two modes: Normal mode and scan mode The power consumption during test mode is more than the power consumption during normal mode. Hence to choose power efficient BIST method for multiported memory testing.

II. Related Work

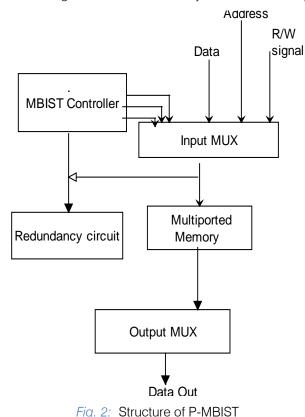
Yash Jyothi et al.[1] introduced Asynchronous P-MBIST method for fault detection and repair of multiported memory. The main advantage is to get power efficient P-MBIST, it is being proposed to use handshaking signals instead of using clock and implemented on FPGA. Clocks are used to synchronize the test blocks on chip and handshaking signals are used to communicate between blocks of test controller.

Dr. R.K. Sharma et al.[2] introduced Redundancy Array Logic and BISR mechanism used to low cost repair the fault and to improve the system reliability.

Bo-Cheng Charles Lai et al.[4] introduced designs of multiported memories that leverage BRAMs have been proposed to attain better utilization of FPGA resources as well as system performance. BRAMs in an FPGA can support two access ports that can be used as either a read or a write port.

III. BUILT-IN SELF TEST (BIST)

Memory Built-In Self Test is test circuitry used to test on-chip memory devices. It contains finite state machine to generate test vectors to test vectors to test memory during test mode. Test coller includes Address, Data, read/write control. This address, data and read/write control signal is given as input to comparator and multiplexer. Multiplexer uses two modes of operations: Normal mode-In normal mode memory acts as a normal memory. Test Mode-During test mode test coller provides data and address to memory for testing purpose. In test mode while performing read operation data from test coller and output of memory are given to comparator for fault detection. Then, comparator compares test vectors with memory output. If, memory is working properly then, No Fault is detected and it is declared as memory is fault free but, if fault pulse becomes high it shows that memory under test is faulty.



IV. Implementation of Asynchronous P-mbist

The block diagram shown in Fig.3 [1] the asynchronous P-MBIST contains handshaking signals instead of using clock. Request and acknowledge signals perform communication in Asynchronous P-MBIST.

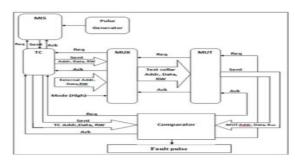


Fig. 3: Block Diagram of Asynchronous P-MBIST [1]

The control circuitry contain following blocks: Microcode Instruction storage unit, Test collar, comparator, Clock Generator. The Test Collar circuitry consists of Address Generator, RW Control and Data Control. Common Clock is used for Synchronous MBIST. In Microcode Instruction Storage (MIS), 4 instruction operations are stored that are R0, R1, W0, W1 as shown in Table I. [1]

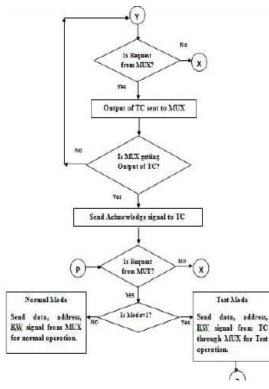
Table No.1: Microcode Instruction [1]	
-------------------------------------	----	--

Instruction	Description	
R0	Read is low so no read operation occurs	
R1	Read is high so read operation occurs	
W0	Write is low so no write operation occurs	
W1	Write is high so write operation occurs	

V. FLOWCHART OF ASYNCHRONOUS P-MBIST

The flow of asynchronous P-MBIST is as shown in fig .4, fig. 5 and fig. 6. It follows the following steps:

- i. If there is request from Microcode Instruction Storage (MIS) to Pulse generator (PG), then PG sends Start Pulse to MIS to start the asynchronous operation. In next step MIS checks for request from Test Collar (TC), if so it sends microcode instructions to TC. TC then sends the acknowledgement signal to pulse generator indicates that TC is getting instructions from MIs.
- ii. Output of TC Data which includes test address, corresponding data and R/W control signals send to input multiplexer (MUX) if MUX sends high pulse of request. Multiplexer is originally not a multiplexer but concept used for this block is according to working of normal multiplexer. Here mode signal is select line for MUX.
- iii. If mode=1then PMBIST works in test mode then it selects TC data. If mode=0 then it is in normal mode, during this mode test circuitry is in ideal condition and memory works as normal memory without under test and sends output of external Address, corresponding data and R/W control signal. When MUX is under test mode then it sends TC data to memory if request signal is high from memory to MUX.





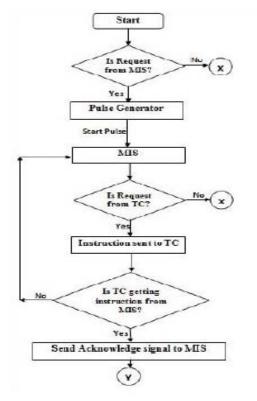
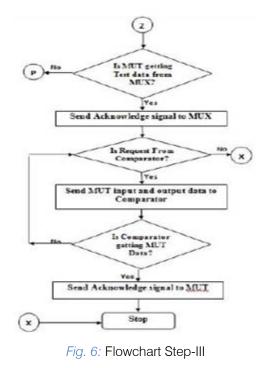


Fig. 5: Flowchart Step-II



VI. Comparator compares inputs provided by TC and memory output data during test mode and gives high fault pulse if any mismatch happens between these inputs

V. Asynchronous p-mbist Simulation

The simulation of asynchronous P-MBIST is depending upon request signal and mode. Output Response: Normal Mode: When mode=0, MUX selects normal mode, then test controller is off so as comparator is off. At this moment memory acts as normal memory without under test and generates external address and data if rw=0(i.e. reads address and corresponding data).During this mode as comparator is off, no fault pulse is generated. In this mode, memoutdata (memory output) data is data (External data) provided for normal memory operation. Test Mode: If mode=1, Memory is under test. If reg=1, microcode instruction storage generates Read/Write control for test collar. Test collar writes data if tcrw=0 otherwise read to memory through MUX. The data from test collar and output of memory is compared in comparator. If mismatch happens at output of comparator, comparator generates fault pulse=1 otherwise fault pulse=0[1].

VI. Repair Module

Fig.8.Shows the Repair Module including the redundancy array and output multiplexer and its interfacing with the existing BIST module.

Fig.7 An array of redundant words placed in parallel with the memory. The following interface signals are taken from the MBIST logic:1) A fault pulse indicating a faulty location address,2) Fault address,3)

Correct data that is compared with the results of Memory under test. The MBISR logic used here can function in two modes.

a) Mode 1: Test & Repair Mode

In this mode the input multiplexer connects test collar input for memory under test as generated by the BIST controller circuitry. As faulty memory locations are detected by the fault diagnosis module of BIST Controller, the redundancy array is programmed. A redundancy word is as shown in Figure. 7 The fault pulse acts as an activation signal for programming the array. The redundancy word is divided into three fields. The FA (fault asserted) indicates that a fault has been detected. The address field of a word contains the faulty address, whereas the data field is programmed to contain the correct data which is compared with the memory output. The IE and OE signals respectively act as control signals for writing into and reading from the data field of the redundant word.

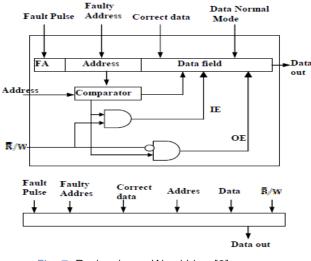


Fig. 7: Redundancy Word Line [2]

b) Mode 2: Normal Mode

During the normal mode each incoming address is compared with the address field of programmed redundant words. If there is a match, the data field of the redundant word is used along with the faulty memory location for reading and writing data. The output multiplexer of Redundant Array Logic then ensures that in case of a match, the redundant word data field is selected over the data read out (= 0) of the faulty location in case of a read signal. This can be easily understood by the redundancy word detail shown in Figure 7.

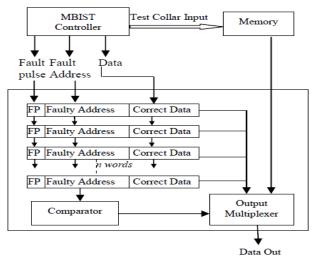


Fig. 8: Redundancy Array Logic [2]

Fig.8.Shows the simulated waveform of fault diagnosis module, magnified at seventh pulse to indicate how signals like 'fault pulse ', 'faulty location addresses and 'correct data' are generated by this module for successful interfacing with the Redundancy Array logic.[2]

VII. Results

1. Single port Memory

The single port memory support single read and write operation.

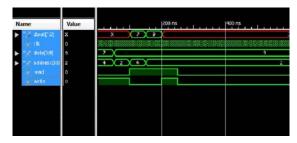


Fig.9: Result of Single port Memory

2. Dual port Memory

The single port memory support dual read and write operation.



Fig. 10: Result of Dual port Memory

3. Multiported Memory

It requires significant amount of BRAMs to implement a memory module that supports multiple read and write ports.

									107.500 ns				
Name	Value	1.			50 ns			10	Ins	150 ns		200 ns	250 ns
🕨 📑 dataout1[3:	٥	\subset					0	ī			X	7 (2)(9)(4)	
▶ 📑 dataout2β:	12	\subset	0		5		12		XOX	1	χ 5	14(12(8)(13)	
🕼 cik	1												
🕨 📑 datain[3:0]	11		23	4 5	6)(XeX	9 (10)	a					
15 write	1												
15 read	x	-					_						
🕨 📑 writeaddres	11	1	23	45	<u>6</u> (XOX	9 (1)	đ	(12)(13)(14)	15			
🕨 📑 readaddres	0							Ē		1	X		
🕨 📑 readaddres	1			(Ē	1)	Q.	χ 5	11283	

Fig. 11: Result of Multiported Memory

4. Synchronous P-MBIST

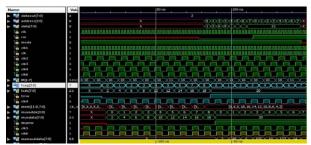


Fig. 12: Simulation Result of Synchronous P-MBIST

5. Asynchronous P-MBIST

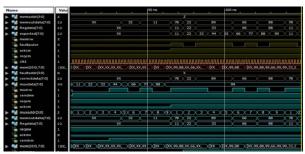


Fig. 13: Simulation Result of Asynchronous P-MBIST

6. Redundancy Array Logic

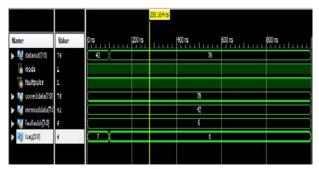


Fig. 14: Simulation Result of Redundancy Logic Array

VIII. Conclusion

In simulation results of different types memories where implemented. The efficient BRAM-based multiported memory designs on FPGAs. The existing design methods require significant amounts of BRAMs to implement a memory module that supports multiple read and write ports. In simulation results of different methodology of P-MBIST where implemented. То synchronize the blocks synchronous PMBIST uses clock due to this it consume more power because of excessive switching activity and to communicate between the blocks of MBIST asynchronous MBIST uses handshaking signals and it consume less power. The word redundancy uses spare words in place of spare rows and columns. It stores faulty location address immediately supporting on-the-fly fault repair memory.

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Modeling and Mitigation on Conducted Emission for Switch Mode Power Supply

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Abstract- The switch mode power supply (SMPS) have been widely used in the electrical and electronics systems for AC-DC and DC-DC power conversion, which can generate a lot of electromagnetic interference (EMI), especially conducted emission (CE) from 9kHz to 30MHz. The traditional CE models and mechanisms have been present for three line systems, including live, neutral and ground lines, while a novel CE models and mechanisms have been proposed in the paper for two line SMPS. And the voltage division factor, isolation factor and impedance under SMPS side of artificial mains network have been studied based on high frequency parasitic parameters to analyze the CE measurement uncertainty. Moreover, three methods have been designed to reduce the CE of SMPS, such as the capacitor shunt between the source and drain electrodes of MOSFET, CM choke and crosstalk choke, and the capacitors matrix.

Keywords: electromagnetic interference (EMI); noise mechanism; noise mitigation; SMPS; conducted emission.

GJRE-F Classification: FOR Code: 290901



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Modeling and Mitigation on Conducted Emission for Switch Mode Power Supply

Li Lin $^{\alpha}$, Qiu Dongmei $^{\alpha}$, Yan Wei $^{\sigma}$ & Gao Xiang $^{\rho}$

Abstract- The switch mode power supply (SMPS) have been widely used in the electrical and electronics systems for AC-DC and DC-DC power conversion, which can generate a lot of electromagnetic interference (EMI), especially conducted emission (CE) from 9kHz to 30MHz. The traditional CE models and mechanisms have been present for three line systems, including live, neutral and ground lines, while a novel CE models and mechanisms have been proposed in the paper for two line SMPS. And the voltage division factor, isolation factor and impedance under SMPS side of artificial mains network have been studied based on high frequency parasitic parameters to analyze the CE measurement uncertainty. Moreover, three methods have been designed to reduce the CE of SMPS, such as the capacitor shunt between the source and drain electrodes of MOSFET, CM choke and crosstalk choke, and the capacitors matrix. The experiment results show that the CE of the power concentrator and colonoscopy can be suppressed well and pass EN 55022 class B, thus realize the proposed approaches good validation.

Keywords: electromagnetic interference (EMI); noise mechanism; noise mitigation; SMPS; conducted emission.

I. INTRODUCTION

S witch mode power supply (SMPS) has been widely applied in the electrical and electronics devices, which can realize the AC-DC, DC-DC conversion and generate larger amount of electromagnetic interference (EMI), especially conducted emission (CE) from 9kHz and 30MHz [1-5]. The CE standards have been established by the most countries and areas, such as EN 55022 [6].

In recent years, the CE models and mechanisms for live, neutral and ground lines system have been proposed to analyze the noises paths, which contributes to noise suppression [7-11]. The CE models consist of common mode (CM) and differential mode (DM) noises. The CM noise path is from live/neutral line to ground line, and the DM path is from live line to neutral line. Four kinds of noise separation networks have been proposed to determine the CE mechanism by extracting CM and DM noises by Paul, See, Mardiguian and Guo [2, 12-14]. Paul network is composed of two radio frequency transformers with 1:1 and artificial switch, through which the high frequency (HF) noises are generated and coupled [2]. The core of See network is also two radio frequency transformers with 2:1, but the HF noises are generated through the parasitic capacitor between the primary and secondary coils [12]. To improve the topology of network, the network was designed with one radio frequency transformer with 2:1 by Mardiguian [13]. Moreover, the 0° and 180° power dividers have been used to constitute the noise separation network [14].

Based on the above models and mechanism, a lot of categories have been carried out to reduce the CE noises [15-19]. The EMI noises from DC-DC Buck conversion has been suppressed by employed MOSFET, decoupling capacitors and optimal design for PCB [15]. A frequency modulated (FM) source of conducted emission has an adverse effect on a DC power system and spread spectrum modulation is proposed to reduce EMI noises [16]. The Power Integrity problem for high speed systems is discussed in context of selection and placement of decoupling capacitors. The optimal capacitors and their locations on the board are found using the presented methodology, which can be used for similar power delivery networks in high speed systems [17]. A modified LLCL-filter topology is proposed to provide enough attenuation on the conducted EMI noise as well as to reduce the DC side leakage current [18]. A new method to reduce CM EMI at the DC input of variable-speed motor drives is analyzed. Unlike conventional passive or active filtering techniques that rely on impedance mismatch or active noise cancellation, the method uses a passive circuit with matched impedance to cancel the inverter CM current [19]. However, the above noise reduction methods can't obtain the EMI source and solve the EMI problem fundamentally in the economy and practical scale.

In view of above analysis and on basis of the acquired achievements about EMC of electronic equipments, the CE models and mechanisms for SMPS have been analyzed in the paper. And the CE measurement uncertainty was studies based on the voltage division factor, isolation factor and impedance under SMPS side of artificial mains network. Then, three methods have been proposed to reduce the CE, such as the capacitor shunt between the source and drain electrodes of MOSFET, CM choke and crosstalk choke, and the capacitors matrix. The experiment results show that the CE noises of the power concentrator and colonoscopy can be suppressed effectively and efficiently by using the present approaches, while can pass the EN 55022 and improve the safety and EMI performance.

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II. SMPS OPERATION DESCRIPTION

SMPS can support direct current (DC) power to the load through four diodes and metal oxide semiconductor field effect transistor (MOSFET). Voltage dependent resistance (VDR) was employed to resist and suppress the external surges and interferences. Three capacitors and common mode (CM) choke were used to reduce the high frequency (HF) EMI noises. However, a large amount of EMI noises were generated by SMPS via four diodes and FET, which will go to power supply through power line and influence other electrical and electronics devices.

CM and differential mode (DM) models were established to analyze the noise mechanism and suppress the above EMI noises based on three line system including live, neutral and ground lines, as shown in Fig.1.

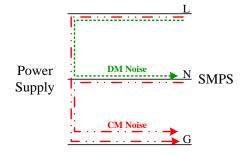


Fig. 1: CM and DM noise mechanism based on three line system

Due to the difference between the topology of SMPS (two line system without ground line) and traditional three line system, the conducted emission mechanism will be studied.

III. Uncertainty of Conducted Emission Measurement

According to EN 55022 and FCC Part 15, conducted emission can be detected by EMI receiver and artificial mains network (AMN), where quasi peak detector and average detector should be fixed on the EMI receiver.

To analyze the uncertainty of CE measurement, the topology structure and HF parasitic parameters of AMN will be investigated. According to CISPR 16, the topology structure is shown in Fig.2, where C_1 is 1μ F, C_2 is 0.1μ F, R_1 is $5\Omega\Omega$, R_2 is $1k\Omega$ and L_1 is 50μ H. The HF noise from 9kHz to 30MHz in power supply can be reduced by capacitor C_1 and inductance L_1 , and the 50Hz current is also ordinary and functional. The CE from 9kHz to 30MHz in SMPS can be extracted through capacitor C_2 . Resistance R_1 is used to bypass flow and resistance R_2 is designed to measure CE.

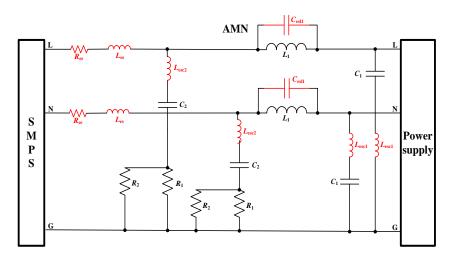


Fig. 2: Topology structure of AMN based on CISPR 16 (red characters are HF parasitic parameters)

Considering the HF parasitic parameters of the above capacitors, inductances and resistances, as shown in Fig.2, L_{esc1} and L_{esc2} are the parasitic inductance of C_1 and C_2 , respectively. C_{es11} is the parasitic capacitor of L_1 . L_{es} and R_{es} are the parasitic inductance and resistance of the interface adapter. In the paper, R_{es} is neglected due to the adapter design and manufacturing technique.

To analyze the characteristic of AMN, the voltage division factor, isolation factor and impedance under SMPS side were defined as

$$VIF_{L} = 20\log \left| \frac{U_{L}}{U_{LG}} \right| \quad VIF_{N} = 20\log \left| \frac{U_{N}}{U_{NG}} \right|$$

$$IRR_{L} = 20\log \left| \frac{U_{L}}{U_{PLG}} \right| \quad IRR_{N} = 20\log \left| \frac{U_{N}}{U_{PNG}} \right|$$
(1)

Where, $VIF_{\rm L}$ and $VIF_{\rm N}$ denote the live and neutral lines voltage division factor of AMN, $IRR_{\rm L}$ and $IRR_{\rm N}$ represent the live and neutral lines isolation factor of AMN, $U_{\rm L}$ and $U_{\rm N}$ express the total CE of live and neutral lines, $U_{\rm LG}$ and $U_{\rm NG}$ express the HF EMI noise between live/ neutral and ground lines.

a) The voltage division factor of AMN

To analyze the voltage division factor of AMN, the above parasitic parameters were considered lonely as shown in Tab.1 and the results were shown in Fig.3.



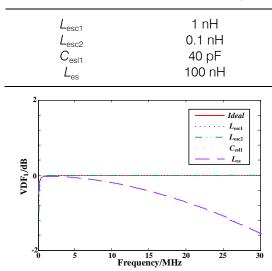


Fig. 3: The voltage division factor of AMN considering HF parasitic parameters

As shown in Fig.3, L_{esc2} and L_{es} have great influence on the voltage division factor of AMN.

b) The isolation factor of AMN

To analyze the isolation factor of AMN, the above parasitic parameters were considered lonely as shown in Tab.I and the results were shown in Fig.4, where the L_{es} can be neglected due to the measurement circuit.

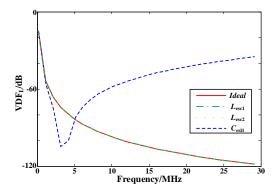


Fig.4: The isolation factor of AMN considering HF parasitic parameters

As shown in Fig.4, C_{esl1} have great influence on the isolation factor of AMN.

c) The impedance under SMPS side of AMN

To determine the impedance under SMPS side of AMN, $L_{\rm es}$ was considered as 10nH and 100nH, respectively, and the other parasitic parameters can be neglected due to the measurement circuit, as shown inFig.5.

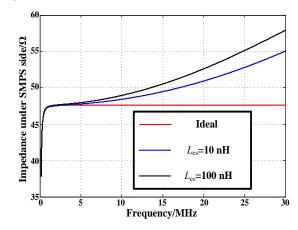


Fig.5: The impedance under SMPS side of AMN considering HF parasitic parameters

As shown in Fig.5, with the L_{es} and measurement frequency increasing, the impedance under SMPS side was increasing greatly.

Therefore, the proper AMN should be designed and employed to determine the CE and decrease the uncertainty of CE measurement through capacitor and inductance matching.

IV. CE CHARACTERISTIC MECHANISM MODEL

a) CM and DM models

Due to the difference between the two line SMPS system and three line system, the CE characteristic mechanism model should be established. Considered that SMPS have live and neutral lines but no ground line, the CM and DM noise transmission loop can't be formed and realized.

As shown in Fig.2, the two different results can be obtained based on EN 55022, as follows:

$$I_L = I_N \quad I_L \neq I_N$$

Where, $I_{\rm L}$ and $I_{\rm N}$ denote the total CE current through live and neutral lines. Based on the formula (2), the unbalanced noise current can be defined as

$$I_L - I_{DM} = I_N + I_{DM} \tag{3}$$

Where, $I_{\rm DM}$ represents the unbalanced noise current and can be considered as DM noise current. Then,

$$\begin{cases} I_{CM} = I_L - I_{DM} \\ I_{CM} = I_N + I_{DM} \end{cases}$$

$$\tag{4}$$

Where, $I_{\rm CM}$ signifies the balanced noise current and can be considered as CM noise current.

Based on Fig.2, the total live line noise have two bypass loops, such as live to ground noise I_{LG} and live to neutral noise I_{LN} . Similarly, the total neutral line noise also have two bypass loops, such as neutral to ground noise I_{NG} and neutral to live noise I_{NL} . Supposed that

$$I_L = I_{LG} + I_{LN}$$

$$I_N = I_{NG} + I_{NL}$$
(5)

Moreover, the amplitude of the I_{LN} and I_{NL} were equal but the phases were opposite.

$$I_{NL} = -I_{LN} \tag{6}$$

By substituted to formula (5), it can be obtained

$$I_{L} = I_{LG} + I_{LN} \quad I_{N} = I_{NG} - I_{LN}$$
(7)

and,

$$I_{LG} = I_{L} - I_{LN} \quad I_{NG} = I_{N} + I_{LN}$$
(8)

Considered I_{LN} as I_{DM} ,

Based on the formula (3) and (9), the CM noise can be defined as

$$U_{CM} = U_{LG} = U_{NG} \quad U_{CM} = \frac{U_L + U_N}{2}$$
(10)

The equivalent transmission circuit of CM noise was shown in Fig.6(a).

Where, $U_{\rm CM}$ and $Z_{\rm CM}$ represent the equivalent CM noise source and its impedance.

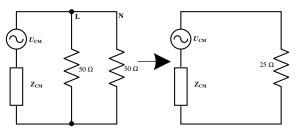
Based on the formula (3) and (8), the DM noise can be defined as

$$I_{DM} = \frac{I_L - I_N}{2} \quad U_{DM} = \frac{U_L - U_N}{2}$$
(11)

The equivalent transmission circuit of DM noise was shown in Fig.6(b).

Where, $U_{\rm DM}$ and $Z_{\rm DM}$ represent the equivalent DM noise source and its impedance.

Moreover, Z_{CM} and Z_{DM} can be determined by employing the insertion method, dual current probe method, single current probe current, scattering parameter method and the proposed dual resistance calibration method.



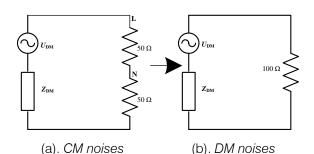


Fig. 6: Noise equivalent transmission circuits

b) CE model for SMPS

Due to the two lines system, the parasitic capacitor to ground can be considered to analyze the equivalent bypass circuits of CM and DM noises, as shown in Fig.7.

The DM noise path was from live line to neutral line, the same as the three line system, as shown in Fig.1. However, the CM noise path was from live/neutral line to ground line, then to the SMPS through the parasitic capacitor $C_{\rm PG}$.

Therefore, CE for SMPS still have CM and DM noises, but not the only DM noise, where noise suppression categories should be designed not only for DM noise but also for CM noise.

Moreover, the DM noise is much larger than CM noise in general because the parasitic capacitor is little, even ignored.

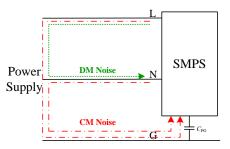


Fig. 7: CE model for SMPS

V. CE MITIGATION METHOD FOR SMPS

a) The capacitor shunt between the source and drain electrodes of MOSFET

The switch frequency can be controlled through the grid electrode of MOSFET and the HF noise will generate and couple to the source and drain electrodes due to the MOSFET. The frequency of noises are based on the switch velocity, basically from 9kHz to 30MHz, which is the CE source.

The capacitor shunt between the source and drain electrodes can be used to reduce the above HF noises. Moreover, the value of the capacitor should be smaller than 0.1μ F not only for the noise mitigation but also for the safety regulations & design, as shown in Fig.8, where, C_4 denotes the capacitor shunt between the source and drain electrodes of MOSFET.

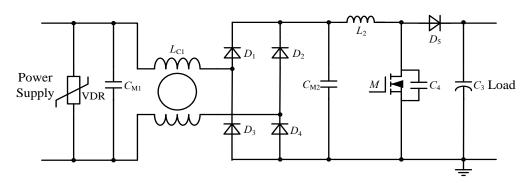
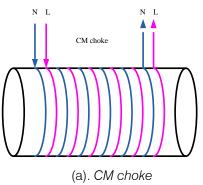


Fig. 8: Topology structure of SMPS

b) CM choke and crosstalk choke

The CM choke can be employed to suppress the CM noises, but can't solve the environmental electromagnetic field coupling. As shown in Fig.9(a), the live and neutral lines are in the same direction in the CM choke, which can well reduce the CM noise due to the electromagnetic field offset. Meanwhile, the CM choke can be considered as two electric dipoles which can receive the environmental electromagnetic field greatly and couple to the power lines. And the amplitude of the coupling noise is based on the length of dipoles and the noise frequency.



The crosstalk choke whose live and neutral lines are in the different orientation, can be used to solve the above problem. With different of CM choke, the crosstalk choke can be considered as the magnetic dipole, which can also obtain the environmental electromagnetic field. And the magnitude of the coupling noise resolves the area of dipole and the noise frequency. As shown in Fig.9(b), the area of the dipole is the area between the live and neutral lines, which is very little. As shown in Fig.12, the L_{C1} represents the CM choke and crosstalk choke.

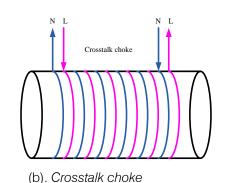


Fig. 9: CM choke and crosstalk choke

c) The capacitors matrix

The single capacitor with the fixed value can suppress the certain spectrum noise due to HF parasitic parameter of the capacitor, such as the parasitic inductance of the pins. The capacitors matrix can be employed to solve the problem, which consists of 100pF, 1nF, 10nF, 0.01 μ F and 0.1 μ F. The different frequency noise will be reduced by the capacitors with different values, as shown in Tab.2. As shown in Fig.8, the $C_{\rm M1}$ and $C_{\rm M2}$ denote the two capacitors matrix.

Tab. 2: Noise Mitigation Based on Different Capacitors

Capacitor's Value	Reduced noises frequency
100pF	20MHz and the above
1nF	10MHz-30MHz
10nF	5MHz-20MHz
0.01µF	500kHz-10MHz
0.1µF	9kHz-1MHz

VI. EXPERIMENT VERIFICATION

To verify the proposed methods, the SMPSs of the power concentrator and colonoscopy are studied in the paper. In the experiment, R&S EMI receiver ESL3 and R&S artificial mains network (AMN) ENV216 are used to determine the CE generated by the above devices.

a) SMPS of the power concentrator

The original CE result of the power concentrator is shown in Fig.10(a),(b). According to EN 55022 Class B, the noise can't pass the standard from 150kHz to 10MHz. The average noises are 54dB μ V@13.56MHz and 55dB μ V@27.12MHz. And it exceeds 20dB μ V from 3MHz to 5MHz, even critical.

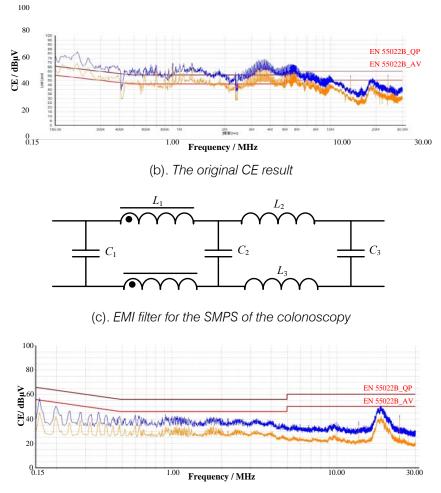
Based on the proposed method, the mitigation approaches are designed as follows:

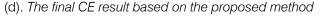
- 1. EMI filter for SMPS of the power concentrator is designed, as shown in Fig.10(c), where L_1 denotes 10mH CM choke, both L_2 and L_3 represent 1mH inductance, C₁, C₂ and C₃ signify 0.01µF, 10nF and 1nF, respectively.
- 2. 10nF capacitor is shunt between the power supply of the carrier module to HF noises.

Due to the above methods, the CE of the power concentrator can pass EN 55022 Class B, where the average noises are $35dB\mu V@13.56MHz$ and $41dB\mu V@27.12MHz$. And the safety margin of the power concentrator can reach $10dB\mu V$, as shown in Fig.10(d).



(a). The power concentrator







b) SMPS of the colonoscopy

The original CE result of the colonoscopy is shown in Fig.11(a),(b), and the noise can't pass EN 55022 Class B, as shown in Tab.3.

	0	
Freuqency/MHz	Average/dBµV	Exceed/dBµV
0.16	66.42	1.42
0.18	67.02	3.02
0.22	68.01	5.03
0.24	65.01	3.01
0.26	65.02	4.11
0.30	64.96	5.04
0.32	65.04	6.16
0.34	63.95	5.82

Tab. 3: The Original CE of the colonoscopy

Based on the present approach, the suppression methods are designed as follows:

T model EMI filter is designed for SMPS of the colonoscopy, as shown in Fig.11(c), where L₁ and L₂ denote 35μH and 1.36μH crosstalk chokes, respectively, *C* represents 0.022μF capacitor.
 L model EMI filter is also designed for the DC power

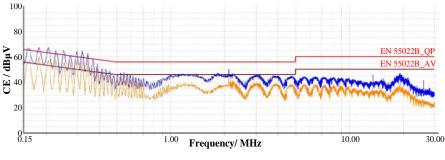
conversion chip, where the inductance is $1.2\mu H$ and the capacitor is $0.15\mu F$.

Due to the above methods, the CE of the colonoscopy can pass EN 55022 Class B, where the average noises are shown in Tab.4. And the safety margin of the colonoscopy can also reach $10dB\mu V$, as shown in Fig.11(d).

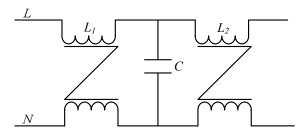
Freuqency/MHz	Average/dBµV	Decline/dBµV
0.16	50.20	16.22
0.18	49.96	17.06
0.22	42.62	25.39
0.24	44.88	20.13
0.26	42.16	22.86
0.30	39.92	25.04
0.32	43.81	21.23
0.34	40.68	23.27



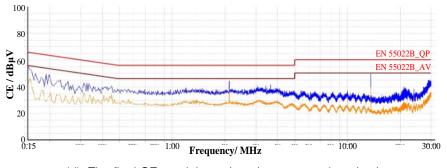
(a). The power concentrator

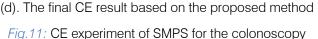


(b). The original CE result



(c). EMI filter for the SMPS of the colonoscopy





VII. Conclusion

In this paper, CE mechanism generated from the special two line SMPS is analyzed to solve the safety and EMI problem of SMPS. Following conclusions are obtained.

- The voltage division factor, isolation factor and impedance under SMPS side were analyzed based on the HF parasitic parameters, which can improve the CE measurement uncertainty.
- 2) The CM and DM models for the two line SMPS were established due to the balanced and unbalanced current.
- 3) Three CE noise mitigation methods were proposed in the paper, such as the capacitor shunt between the source and drain electrodes of MOSFET, CM choke and crosstalk choke, and the capacitors matrix, which can improve the safety and EMI performance of SMPS.

The experiment results show that the CE noises of the power concentrator and colonoscopy can be reduced very well by employing the present approaches.

VIII. Acknowledgment

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Low Probability of Intercept Triangular Modulated Frequency Modulated Continuous Wave Signal Characterization Comparison using the Spectrogram and the Scalogram By Daniel L. Stevens & Stephanie A. Schuckers

Air Force Research Laborator

Abstract- Digital intercept receivers are currently moving away from Fourier-based analysis and towards classical time-frequency analysis techniques for the purpose of analyzing low probability of intercept radar signals. This paper presents the novel approach of characterizing low probability of intercept frequency modulated continuous wave radar signals through utilization and direct comparison of the Spectrogram versus the Scalogram. Two different triangular modulated frequency modulated continuous wave signals were analyzed. The following metrics were used for evaluation: percent error of: carrier frequency, modulation bandwidth, modulation period, chirp rate, and time-frequency localization (x and y direction). Also used were: percent detection, lowest signal-to-noise ratio for signal detection, and plot (processing) time. Experimental results demonstrate that overall, the Spectrogram produced more accurate characterization metrics than the Scalogram. An improvement in performance may well translate into saved equipment and lives.

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Low Probability of Intercept Triangular Modulated Frequency Modulated Continuous Wave Signal Characterization Comparison using the Spectrogram and the Scalogram¹

Daniel L. Stevens " & Stephanie A. Schuckers "

Abstract- Digital intercept receivers are currently moving away from Fourier-based analysis and towards classical timefrequency analysis techniques for the purpose of analyzing low probability of intercept radar signals. This paper presents the novel approach of characterizing low probability of intercept frequency modulated continuous wave radar signals through utilization and direct comparison of the Spectrogram versus the Scalogram. Two different triangular modulated frequency modulated continuous wave signals were analyzed. The following metrics were used for evaluation: percent error of: carrier frequency, modulation bandwidth, modulation period, chirp rate, and time-frequency localization (x and y direction). Also used were: percent detection, lowest signal-to-noise ratio for signal detection, and plot (processing) time. Experimental results demonstrate that overall, the Spectrogram produced more accurate characterization metrics than the Scalogram. An improvement in performance may well translate into saved equipment and lives.

I. INTRODUCTION

requency Modulated Continuous Wave (FMCW) signals are frequently encountered in modern radar systems [WAN10], [WON09], [WAJ08]. The frequency modulation spreads the transmitted energy over a large modulation bandwidth ΔF , providing good range resolution that is critical for discriminating targets from clutter. The power spectrum of the FMCW signal is nearly rectangular over the modulation bandwidth, so non-cooperative interception is difficult. Since the transmit waveform is deterministic, the form of the return signals can be predicted. This gives it the added advantage of being resistant to interference (such as jamming), since any signal not matching this form can be suppressed [WIL06]. Consequently, it is difficult for an intercept receiver to detect the FMCW waveform and measure the parameters accurately enough to match the jammer waveform to the radar waveform [PAC09].

The most popular linear modulation utilized is the triangular FMCW emitter [LIA09], since it can

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measure the target's range and Doppler [MIL02], [LIW08]. Triangular modulated FMCW is the waveform that is employed in this paper.

Time-frequency signal analysis involves the analysis and processing of signals with time-varying frequency content. Such signals are best represented by a time-frequency distribution [PAP95], [HAN00], which is intended to show how the energy of the signal is distributed over the two-dimensional time-frequency plane [WEI03], [LIX08], [OZD03]. Processing of the signal may then exploit the features produced by the concentration of signal energy in two dimensions (time and frequency), instead of only one dimension (time or frequency) [BOA03], [LIY03]. Since noise tends to spread out evenly over the time-frequency domain, while signals concentrate their energies within limited time intervals and frequency bands; the local SNR of a noisy signal can be improved simply by using time-frequency Also, the intercept receiver can analysis [XIA99]. increase its processing gain by implementing timefrequency signal analysis [GUL08].

Time-frequency distributions are useful for the visual interpretation of signal dynamics [RAN01]. An experienced operator can quickly detect a signal and extract the signal parameters by analyzing the time-frequency distribution [ANJ09].

The Spectrogram is defined as the magnitude squared of the Short-Time Fourier Transform (STFT) [HIP00], [HLA92], [MIT01], [PAC09], [BOA03]. For non-stationary signals, the STFT is usually in the form of the Spectrogram [GRI08].

The STFT of a signal x(u) is given in equation 1 as:

$$F_{x}(t,f;h) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(u)h(u-t)e^{-j2\pi f u} du$$
(1)

Where h(t) is a short time analysis window localized around t=0 and f=0. Because multiplication by the relatively short window h(u-t) effectively suppresses the signal outside a neighborhood around the analysis point u=t, the STFT is a 'local' spectrum of the signal x(u) around t. Think of the window h(t) as sliding along the signal x(u) and for each shift h(u-t) we compute the usual Fourier transform of the product function x(u)h(u-t). The observation window allows

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localization of the spectrum in time, but also smears the spectrum in frequency in accordance with the uncertainty principle, leading to a trade-off between time resolution and frequency resolution. In general, if the window is short, the time resolution is good, but the frequency resolution is poor, and if the window is long, the frequency resolution is good, but the time resolution is poor.

The STFT was the first tool devised for analyzing a signal in both time and frequency simultaneously. For analysis of human speech, the main method was, and still is, the STFT. In general, the STFT is still the most widely used method for studying non-stationary signals [COH95].

The Spectrogram (the squared modulus of the STFT) is given by equation 2 as:

$$S_{x}(t,f) = \left| \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(u) h(u-t) e^{-j2\pi f u} du \right|^{2}$$
(2)

The Spectrog ram is a real-valued and nonnegative distribution. Since the window h of the STFT is assumed of unit energy, the Spectrogram satisfies the global energy distribution property. Thus we can interpret the Spectrogram as a measure of the energy of the signal contained in the time-frequency domain centered on the point (t, f) and whose shape is independent of this localization.

Here are some properties of the Spectrogram:

- 1) *Time and Frequency covariance* The Spectrogram preserves time and frequency shifts, thus the spectrogram is an element of the class of quadratic time-frequency distributions that are covariant by translation in time and in frequency (i.e. Cohen's class);
- Time-Frequency Resolution- The time-frequency resolution of the Spectrogram is limited exactly as it is for the STFT; there is a trade-off between time resolution and frequency resolution;
- 3) Interference Structure- As it is a quadratic (or bilinear) representation, the Spectrogram of the sum of two signals is not the sum of the two Spectrograms (quadratic superposition principle); there is a cross-Spectrogram part and a real part. Thus, as for every quadratic distribution, the Spectrogram presents interference terms; however, those interference terms are restricted to those regions of the time-frequency plane where the signals overlap. Thus if the signal components are sufficiently distant so that their Spectrograms do not overlap significantly, then the interference term will nearly be identically zero [ISI96], [COH95], [HLA92].

The Scalogram is defined as the magnitude squared of the wavelet transform, and can be used as a time-frequency distribution [COH02], [GAL05], [BOA03].

The idea of the wavelet transform (equation (3)) is to project a signal x on a family of zero-mean functions (the wavelets) deduced from an elementary

function (the mother wavelet) by translations and dilations:

$$T_{x}(t,a;\Psi) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x(s)\Psi_{t,a}^{*}(s)ds$$
(3)

where $\Psi_{t,a}(s) = |a|^{-1/2} \Psi\left(\frac{s-t}{a}\right)$. The variable a corresponds to a scale factor, in the sense that taking |a| > 1 dilates the wavelet Ψ and taking |a| < 1 compresses Ψ . By definition, the wavelet transform is more a time-scale than a time-frequency representation. However, for wavelets which are well localized around a non-zero frequency v_0 at a scale =1, a time-frequency interpretation is possible thanks to the formal identification $v = \frac{v_0}{a}$.

The wavelet transform is of interest for the analysis of non-stationary signals, because it provides still another alternative to the STFT and to many of the quadratic time-frequency distributions. The basic difference between the STFT and the wavelet transform is that the STFT uses a fixed signal analysis window, whereas the wavelet transform uses short windows at high frequencies and long windows at low frequencies. This helps to diffuse the effect of the uncertainty principle by providing good time resolution at high frequencies and good frequency resolution at low frequencies. This approach makes sense especially when the signal at hand has high frequency components for short durations and low frequency components for long durations. The signals encountered in practical applications are often of this type.

The wavelet transform allows localization in both the time domain via translations of the mother wavelet, and in the scale (frequency) domain via dilations. The wavelet is irregular in shape and compactly supported, thus making it an ideal tool for analyzing signals of a transient nature; the irregularity of the wavelet basis lends itself to analysis of signals with discontinuities or sharp changes, while the compactly supported nature of wavelets enables temporal localization of a signal's features [BOA03]. Unlike many of the quadratic functions such as the Wigner-Ville Distribution (WVD) and Choi-Williams Distribution (CWD), the wavelet transform is a linear transformation, therefore cross-term interference is not generated. There is another major difference between the STFT and the wavelet transform; the STFT uses sines and cosines as an orthogonal basis set to which the signal of interest is effectively correlated against, whereas the wavelet transform uses special 'wavelets' which usually comprise an orthogonal basis set. The wavelet transform then computes coefficients, which represents a measure of the similarities, or correlation, of the signal with respect to the set of wavelets. In other words, the wavelet transform of a signal corresponds to its decomposition with respect to a family of functions obtained by dilations (or contractions) and translations (moving window) of an analyzing wavelet.

A filter bank concept is often used to describe the wavelet transform. The wavelet transform can be interpreted as the result of filtering the signal with a set of bandpass filters, each with a different center frequency [GRI08], [FAR96], [SAR98], [SAT98].

Like the design of conventional digital filters, the design of a wavelet filter can be accomplished by using a number of methods including weighted least squares [ALN00], [GOH00], orthogonal matrix methods [ZAH99], nonlinear optimization, optimization of a single parameter (e.g. the passband edge) [ZHA00], and a method that minimizes an objective function that bounds the out-of-tile energy [FAR99].

Here are some properties of the wavelet transform: 1) The wavelet transform is covariant by translation in time and scaling. The corresponding group of transforms is called the Affine group; 2) The signal x can be recovered from its wavelet transform via the synthesis wavelet; 3) Time and frequency resolutions, like in the STFT case, are related via the Heisenberg-Gabor inequality. However in the wavelet transform case, these two resolutions depend on the frequency: the frequency resolution becomes poorer and the time resolution becomes better as the analysis frequency grows; 4) Because the wavelet transform is a linear transform, it does not contain cross-term interferences [GRI07], [LAR92].

A similar distribution to the Spectrogram can be defined in the wavelet case. Since the wavelet transform behaves like an orthonormal basis decomposition, it can be shown that it preserves energy:

$$\iint_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |T_x(t,a;\Psi)|^2 dt \frac{da}{a^2} = E_x$$
(4)

where E_x is the energy of x. This leads us to define the Scalogram (equation (4)) of x as the squared modulus of the wavelet transform. It is an energy distribution of the signal in the time-scale plane, associated with the measure $\frac{da}{a^2}$.

As is the case for the wavelet transform, the time and frequency resolutions of the Scalogram are related via the Heisenberg-Gabor principle.

The interference terms of the Scalogram, as for the spectrogram, are also restricted to those regions of the time-frequency plane where the corresponding signals overlap. Therefore, if two signal components are sufficiently far apart in the time-frequency plane, their cross-Scalogram will be essentially zero [ISI96], [HLA92].

For this paper, the Morlet Scalogram will be used. The Morlet wavelet is obtained by taking a complex sine wave and by localizing it with a Gaussian envelope. The Mexican hat wavelet isolates a single bump of the Morlet wavelet. The Morlet wavelet has good focusing in both time and frequency [CHE09].

II. Methodology

The methodologies detailed in this section describe the processes involved in obtaining and comparing metrics between the classical time-frequency analysis techniques of the Spectrogram and the Scalogram for the detection and characterization of low probability of intercept triangular modulated FMCW radar signals.

The tools used for this testing were: MATLAB (version 7.12), Signal Processing Toolbox (version 6.15), Wavelet Toolbox (version 4.7), Image Processing Toolbox (version 7.2), Time-Frequency Toolbox (version 1.0) (http://tftb.nongnu.org/).

All testing was accomplished on a desktop computer (HP Compaq, 2.5GHz processor, AMD Athlon 64X2 Dual Core Processor 4800+, 2.00GB Memory (RAM), 32 Bit Operating System).

Testing was performed for 2 different triangular modulated FMCW waveforms. For each waveform, parameters were chosen for academic validation of signal processing techniques. Due to computer processing resources they were not meant to represent real-world values. The number of samples for each test was chosen to be either 256 or 512, which seemed to be the optimum size for the desktop computer. Testing was performed at three different SNR levels: 10dB, 0dB, and the lowest SNR at which the signal could be detected. The noise added was white Gaussian noise. which best reflects the thermal noise present in the IF section of an intercept receiver [PAC09]. Kaiser windowing was used, when windowing was applicable. 50 runs were performed for each test, for statistical purposes. The plots included in this paper were done at a threshold of 5% of the maximum intensity and were linear scale (not dB) of analytic (complex) signals; the color bar represented intensity. The signal processing tools used for each task were the Spectrogram and the Scalogram.

Task 1 consisted of analyzing a triangular modulated FMCW signal (most prevalent LPI radar waveform [LIA09]) whose parameters were: sampling frequency=4KHz; carrier frequency=1KHz; modulation bandwidth=500Hz; modulation period=.02sec.

Task 2 was similar to Task 1, but with different parameters: sampling frequency=6KHz; carrier frequency=1.5KHz; modulation bandwidth=2400Hz; modulation period=.15sec. The different parameters were chosen to see how the different shapes/heights of the triangles of the triangular modulated FMCW would affect the metrics.

After each particular run of each test, metrics were extracted from the time-frequency representation. The different metrics extracted were as follows:

1) Plot (processing) time: Time required for plot to be displayed.

2) Percent detection: Percent of time signal was detected - signal was declared a detection if any portion of each of the signal components (4 chirp components for triangular modulated FMCW) exceeded a set threshold (a certain percentage of the maximum intensity of the time-frequency representation).

Threshold percentages were determined based on visual detections of low SNR signals (lowest SNR at which the signal could be visually detected in the timefrequency representation) (see Figure 1).

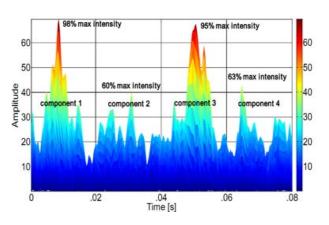


Figure 1: Threshold percentage determination. This plot is an amplitude vs. time (x-z view) of the Spectrogram of a triangular modulated FMCW signal (256 samples, with SNR= -3dB). For visually detected low SNR plots (like this one), the percent of max intensity for the peak z-value of each of the signal components (the 2 legs for each of the 2 triangles of the triangular modulated FMCW) was noted (here 98%, 60%, 95%, 63%), and the lowest of these 4 values was recorded (60%). Ten test runs were performed for both time-frequency analysis tools (Spectrogram and Scalogram) for this waveform. The average of these recorded low values was determined and then assigned as the threshold for that particular time-frequency analysis tool. Note - the threshold for the Spectrogram is 60%.

assigned Thresholds were as follows: Spectrogram (60%); Scalogram (50%).

For percent detection determination, these threshold values were included in the time-frequency plot algorithms so that the thresholds could be applied

automatically during the plotting process. From the threshold plot, the signal was declared a detection if any portion of each of the signal components was visible (see Figure 2).

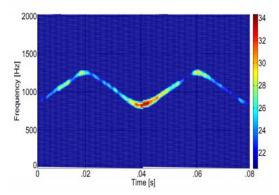


Figure 2: Percent detection (time-frequency). This plot is an frequency vs. time (x-y view) of the Spectrogram of a triangular modulated FMCW signal (256 samples, with SNR= 10dB) with threshold value automatically set to 60%. From this threshold plot, the signal was declared a (visual) detection because at least a portion of each of the 4 signal components (the 2 legs for each of the 2 triangles of the triangular modulated FMCW) was visible.

Carrier frequency: The frequency corresponding to the maximum intensity of the time-frequency representation 3) (see Figure 3).

Low Probability of Intercept Triangular Modulated Frequency Modulated Continuous Wave Signal Characterization Comparison using the Spectrogram and the Scalogram

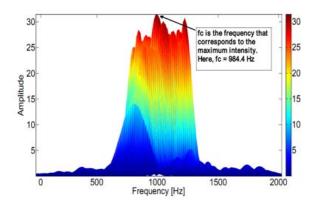


Figure 3: Determination of carrier frequency. Spectrogram of a triangular modulated FMCW signal (256 samples, SNR=10dB). From the frequency-intensity (y-z) view, the maximum intensity value is manually determined. The frequency corresponding to the max intensity value is the carrier frequency (here fc=984.4 Hz).

4) Modulation bandwidth: Distance from highest frequency value of signal (at a threshold of 20% maximum intensity) to lowest frequency value of signal (at same threshold) in Y-direction (frequency). The threshold percentage was determined based on manual measurement of the modulation bandwidth of the signal in the time-frequency representation. This was accomplished for ten test runs of each time-frequency analysis tool (Spectrogram and Scalogram), for each of the 2 waveforms. During each manual measurement, the max intensity of the high and low measuring points was recorded. The average of the max intensity values for these test runs was 20%. This was adopted as the threshold value, and is representative of what is obtained when performing manual measurements. This 20% threshold was also adapted for determining the modulation period and the time-frequency localization (both are described below).

For modulation bandwidth determination, the 20% threshold value was included in the time-frequency plot algorithms so that the threshold could be applied automatically during the plotting process. From the threshold plot, the modulation bandwidth was manually measured (see Figure 4).

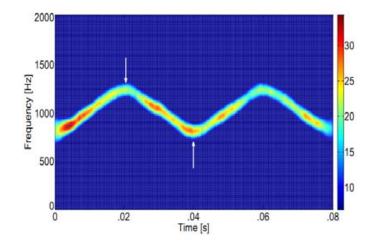


Figure 4: Modulation bandwidth determination. Spectrogram of a triangular modulated FMCW signal (256 samples, SNR=10dB) with threshold value automatically set to 20%. From this threshold plot, the modulation bandwidth was measured manually from the highest frequency value of the signal (top white arrow) to the lowest frequency value of the signal (bottom white arrow) in the y-direction (frequency)

5) Modulation period: Distance from highest frequency value of signal (at a threshold of 20% maximum intensity) to lowest frequency value of signal (at same threshold) in X-direction (time).

For modulation period determination, the 20% threshold value was included in the time-frequency plot algorithms so that the threshold could be applied

automatically during the plotting process. From the threshold plot, the modulation period was manually measured (see Figure 5).

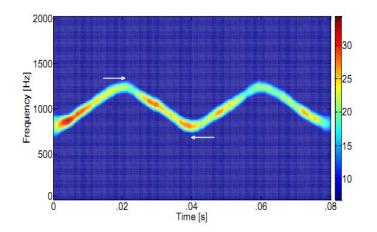


Figure 5: Modulation period determination. Spectrogram of a triangular modulated FMCW signal (256 samples, SNR=10dB) with threshold value automatically set to 20%. From this threshold plot, the modulation period was measured manually from the highest frequency value of the signal (top white arrow) to the lowest frequency value of the signal (bottom white arrow) in the x-direction (time)

6) Time-frequency localization: Measure of the thickness of a signal component (at a threshold of 20% maximum intensity on each side of the component) – converted to % of entire X-Axis, and % of entire Y-Axis.

frequency plot algorithms so that the threshold could be applied automatically during the plotting process. From the threshold plot, the time-frequency localization was manually measured (see Figure 6).

For time-frequency localization determination, the 20% threshold value was included in the time-

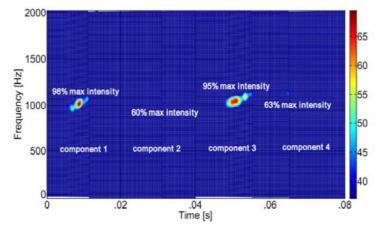


Figure 6: Time-frequency localization determination. Spectrogram of a triangular modulated FMCW signal (256 samples, SNR=10dB) with threshold value automatically set to 20%. From this threshold plot, the time-frequency localization was measured manually from the left side of the signal (left white arrow) to the right side of the signal (right white arrow) in both the x-direction (time) and the y-direction (frequency). Measurements were made at the center of each of the 4 'legs', and the average values were determined. Average time and frequency 'thickness' values were then converted to: % of entire x-axis and % of entire y-axis.

- 7) Chirp rate: (modulation bandwidth)/(modulation period)
- 8) Lowest detectable SNR: The lowest SNR level at which at least a portion of each of the signal components exceeded the set threshold listed in the percent detection section above.

For lowest detectable SNR determination, these threshold values were included in the time-frequency

plot algorithms so that the thresholds could be applied automatically during the plotting process. From the threshold plot, the signal was declared a detection if any portion of each of the signal components was visible. The lowest SNR level for which the signal was declared a detection is the lowest detectable SNR (see Figure 7).

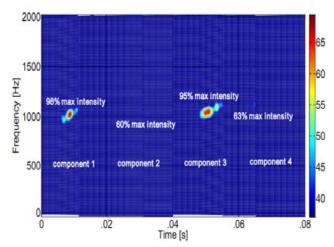


Figure 7: Lowest detectable SNR. This plot is an frequency vs. time (x-y view) of the Spectrogram of a triangular modulated FMCW signal (256 samples, with SNR= -3dB) with threshold value automatically set to 60%. From this threshold plot, the signal was declared a (visual) detection because at least a portion of each of the 4 signal components (the 2 legs for each of the 2 triangles of the triangular modulated FMCW) was visible. Note that the signal portion for the 60% max intensity (just above the 'x' in 'max') is barely visible, because the threshold for the Spectrogram is 60%. For this case, any lower SNR would have been a non-detect. Compare to Figure 2, which is the same plot, except that it has an SNR level equal to 10dB.

The data from all 50 runs for each test was used to produce the actual, error, and percent error for each of these metrics listed above.

The metrics from the Spectrogram were then compared to the metrics from the Scalogram. By and large, the Spectrogram outperformed the Scalogram, as will be shown in the results section.

III. RESULTS

Table 1 presents the overall test metrics for the two classical time-frequency analysis techniques used in this testing (Spectrogram versus Scalogram).

Table 1: Overall test metrics (average percent error: carrier frequency, modulation bandwidth, modulation period, chirp rate; average: percent detection, lowest detectable snr, plot time, time-frequency localization (as a percent of x axis and y axis) for the two classical time-frequency analysis techniques (Spectrogram versus Scalogram).

parameters	Spectrogram	Scalogram
carrier frequency	6.83%	8.26%
modulation bandwidth	16.60%	28.17%
modulation period	0.68%	0.72%
chirp rate	16.25%	28.47%
percent detection	70.0%	62.22%
lowest detectable snr	-3.67db	-2.67db
plot time	3.28s	4.16s
time-frequency localization-x	2.88%	4.51%
time-frequency localization-y	5.75%	9.0%

From Table 1, the Spectrogram outperformed the Scalogram in every metrics category.

Figure 8 shows comparative plots of the Spectrogram (left) vs. the Scalogram (right) (triangular

modulated FMCW signal – Task 1) at SNRs of 10dB (top), 0dB (middle), and -3dB (bottom).

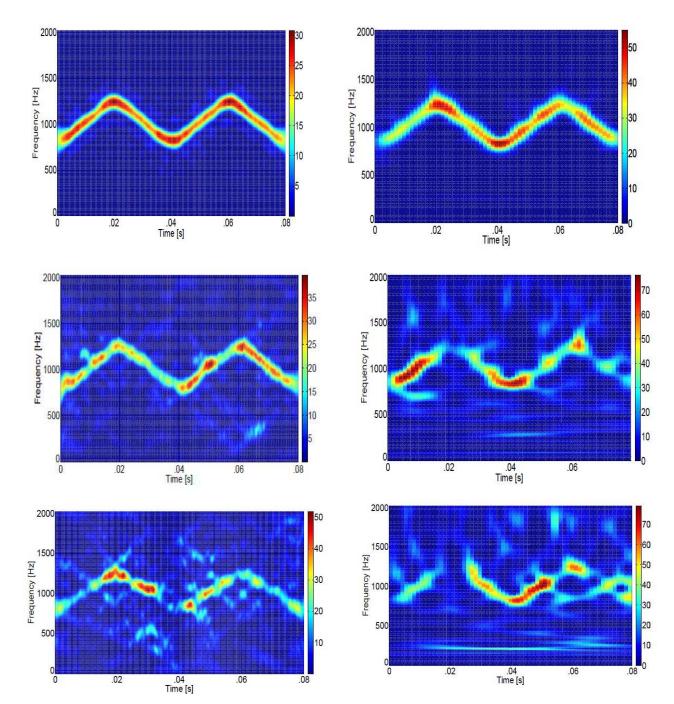


Figure 8: Comparative plots of the triangular modulated FMCW (task 1) low probability of intercept radar signals (Spectrogram (left-hand side) vs. the Scalogram (right-hand side)). The SNR for the top row is 10dB, for the middle row is 0dB, and for the bottom row is -3dB. In general, the Spectrogram signals appear more localized ('thinner') than do the Scalogram signals. In addition, the Spectrogram signals appear more readable than the Scalogram signals at every SNR level.

Figure 9 shows comparative plots of the Spectrogram (left) vs. the Scalogram (right) (triangular modulated FMCW signal – Task 2) at SNRs of 10dB (top), 0dB (middle), and -3dB (bottom).

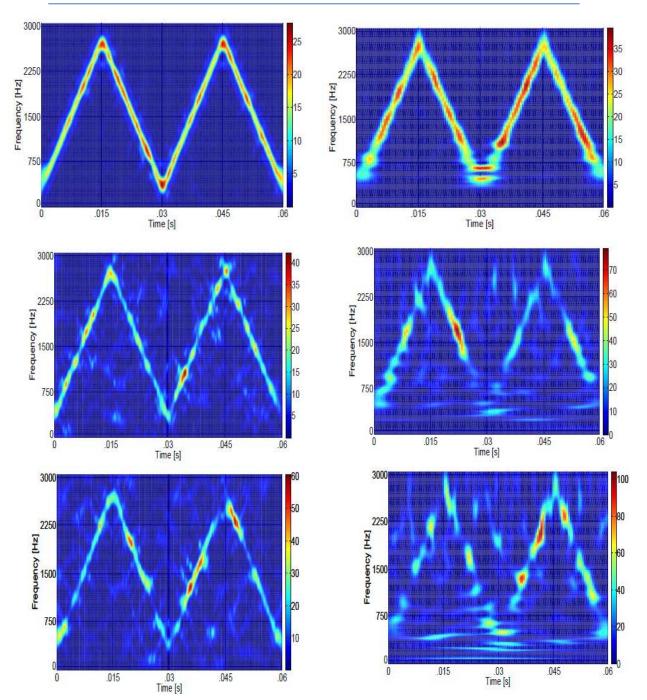


Figure 9: Comparative plots of the triangular modulated FMCW (task 2) low probability of intercept radar signals (Spectrogram (left-hand side) vs. the Scalogram (right-hand side)). The SNR for the top row is 10dB, for the middle row is 0dB, and for the bottom row is -3dB. In general, the Spectrogram signals appear more localized ('thinner') than do the Scalogram signals. In addition, the Spectrogram signals appear more readable than the Scalogram signals at every SNR level.

IV. DISCUSSION

This section will elaborate on the results from the previous section.

From Table 1, the Spectrogram outperformed the Scalogram in every category. The Spectrogram's reduction of cross-term interference is grounds for its better plot time. Average percent detection and lowest detectable SNR are both based on visual detection in the Time-Frequency representation. Figure 8 and Figure 9 show clearly that the signals in the Spectrogram plots are more readable than those in the Scalogram plots, which account for the Spectrogram's better average percent detection and lowest detectable SNR. At relatively low frequencies (as in this paper), wavelets (Scalograms), because of their multi-resolution analysis basis, are better resolved (localized) in frequency and

more poorly resolved (localized) in time. Therefore for relatively low frequencies, the best waveforms to be analyzed by wavelets (Scalograms) are tonals. In addition, the irregularity of the wavelet (Scalogram) basis lends itself to analysis of signals with discontinuities (such as frequency hopping signals (tonals)). Also, since the wavelet is irregular in shape and compactly supported, it makes it an ideal tool for analyzing signals of transient nature (such as the frequency hopping signals (tonals)). Therefore as the signal goes from being 'flat' (i.e. a tonal) signal, to more 'upright' (i.e. a triangular modulated FMCW) signal, the Scalogram of this signal becomes more poorly resolved (localized), i.e. 'fatter', accounting for the Scalogram's poorer metrics in the categories of modulation bandwidth, modulation period, chirp rate, carrier frequency, time-frequency localization (x), and timefrequency localization (y).

V. Conclusions

Digital intercept receivers, whose main job is to detect and extract parameters from low probability of intercept radar signals, are currently moving away from Fourier-based analysis and towards classical timefrequency analysis techniques, such as the Spectrogram, and Scalogram, for the purpose of analyzing low probability of intercept radar signals. Based on the research performed for this paper (the novel direct comparison of the Spectrogram versus the Scalogram for the signal analysis of low probability of intercept triangular modulated FMCW radar signals) it was shown that the Spectrogram by-and-large outperformed the Scalogram for analyzing these low probability of intercept radar signals - for reasons brought out in the discussion section above. More accurate characterization metrics could well translate into saved equipment and lives.

Future plans include continuing to analyze low probability of intercept radar waveforms (such as the frequency hopping and the triangular modulated FMCW), using additional time-frequency analysis techniques.

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Keywords: carbon nanotube, CNT field effect transistor, CNT DOS, Gate Dielectric.

GJRE-F Classification: FOR Code: 090699



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Performance Analysis of Enhanced Carbon Nanotube Field Effect Transistor (CNTFET) using Zirconia as Gate Dielectric

Faisal Al Mozahid^a, Dr. M Tanseer Ali^o & Md. Ashikur Rahman^e

Abstract- The Carbon Nanotube Field Effect Transistor (CNTFET) is one of the most rising devices among the emerging technologies to extend and/or complement the traditional Silicon MOSFET as it is showing high efficiency and wide range of applications in many different fields of science and technology. Carbon Nanotube Field Effect Transistors have been explored and proposed to be the upcoming more efficient and suitable candidates for the integrated circuit (NGIC) devices of next generation. In this study, firstly, the Density of State (DOS) with different types of nanotubes considering the chirality have been reviewed. Then we have studied the carbon nanotube field effect transistor by replacing the traditional gate insulator with a material that has much higher dielectric constant. Carbon Nanotube Field Effect Transistor has been analyzed with the bandgap of 1.0882eV in this research and ZrO2 (Zirconia) has been taken as the gate dielectric. We have also analyzed quantum capacitance, transconductance and mobile charge behavior at different drain voltage. Finally, the output characteristics of proposed model has been given.

Keywords: carbon nanotube, CNT field effect transistor, CNT DOS, Gate Dielectric.

I. INTRODUCTION

arbon Nanotubes are sheets of graphite rolled in the shape of a tube. Depending on chirality they can be either metallic or semiconducting. Carbon Nanotubes were discovered by lijima at the NEC Fundamental Research Laboratory while he used a high resolution transmission electron microscope (TEM) to observe byproducts of carbon which had been generated by an arc between two carbon electrodes (lijima, 1991). After that momentous development has been achieved by understanding the characteristics and possible applications searching of these on semiconductor technology. They have high elastic modulus, small weight and are predicted to be the strongest fibers. Carbon Nanotube's strength and flexibility are their unique properties. The fascinating electronic properties of them depend drastically on both the diameter and the chirality of the hexagonal carbon lattice along the tube (Mintmire et al., 1992;

Hamada *et al.*, 1992; Saito *et al.*, 1992). Because of its excellent conductivity and high dielectric properties, CNTs play a vital role in different nano electronic devices such as transistors, digital logic devices, memory components, etc (Heinze *et al.*, 2002).

The fundamental strategy for improving the performance of VLSIs is scaling down of electronic devices. According to the ITRS the gate length of MOSFETs will be less than 16 nm in 2016 (ITRS, 2003). If this continues then the MOSFETs will reach its limiting size very soon. Thus the semiconductor industry is searching for different materials to integrate with the current silicon-based technology and in the long run, possibly replace it if required. In this regard the carbon nanotube field effect transistor (CNTFET) will be the most promising alternatives for its unique properties. It was demonstrated long before in 1998 (Tans et al., 1998). Carbon nanotube field-effect transistors offer high mobility for ballistic transport, high mechanical and thermal stability with high resistance to electro migration, attracting strong interest as alternative high device technologies for the future nano electronics applications (Avouris et al., 2007). Recently, a carbon nanotube transistor, which integrates ultra-short channel, thin high-k top gate insulator and excellent Pd source-drain contact is demonstrated using a self-align technique (Javey et al., 2008).

This paper proposes CNTFET with ZrO_2 as gate oxide which is also one of the most promising devices. This paper has been devised into main two sections. In the first section, the mobility of CNTs has been discussed with analyzing the Density of State (DOS) of different types of nanotubes and in the second part, the proposed CNTFET device modeling has been described with its parameters, along with simulation results.

II. CARBON NANOTUBE

Carbon is an element with symbol C. Its atomic number is 6 (1s²2s²2p²). Carbon is a group 14 element that resides above silicon on the periodic table. It is nonmetallic and tetravalent making four electrons available to form covalent chemical bonds. Carbon has four electrons in its valance shell like silicon (1s²2s²2p⁶ 3s²3p²) and germanium (1s²2s²2p⁶3s²3p⁶3d¹⁰4s²4p²). There are several allotropes of carbon like graphite, diamond and amorphous carbon (Carbon materials

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research group, University of Kentucky). When carbon atoms are arranged in crystalline structures composed of benzene like rings, they form several allotropes that contain totally exceptional electronic properties.

The physical properties of carbon vary widely with the allotropic form (List of thermal conductivities, Wikipedia). Diamond, carbon nanotubes and graphene have the highest thermal conductivity of all known materials (e.g., diamond: 900-2300 Wm^{D1}K^{D1}, carbon nanotube: 3180-3500 Wm^{D1}K^{D1}) (Faisal and Ali, 2015) under normal conditions.

Carbon Nanotubes (CNTs) are an allotrope of carbon. Carbon nanotubes have many forms, differing in length, thickness and in the type of helicity and number of layers. It can be categorized into Single Walled Carbon Nanotube (SWCNT) and Multi Walled Carbon Nanotube (MWCNT) shown in Fig. 1 and 2. The carbon nanotubes have diameters from less than 1nm to 50 nm. These possess excellent mechanical and transport properties too.

The rolled graphene (CNT) can be explained by a coordinate of indices (n, m), which is known as Chiral Vector. It represents whether CNT is metallic or semiconducting and diameter of CNT. The table shown below describes "Chirality of carbon nanotube. The diameter of carbon nanotube is given by:

$$d = \frac{\sqrt{3a_{c-c}}}{\pi}\sqrt{m^2 + mn + n^2} \tag{1}$$

Where:

$a_{c-c} = 0.142$ nm is the carbon-carbon bond length

Figure 3 and 4 shows the Density of State (DOS) of different types of nanotubes. The simulated states within the energy end are gap of semiconducting carbon nanotubes, implying that the end states are a 1-D analogy with conventional surface states. Since the band gaps of carbon nanotubes are small, CNTs are either metallic or semi conductive. The energy band structures of carbon atom provide an occupied energy level in the band gap depending upon the density of states and types of CNT. The (10, 0) nanotube acts as semi conducting material since it has energy gap between conduction and valence band whereas the (8, 8) nanotube acts as conducting material as the valance and conduction bands are overlapping.

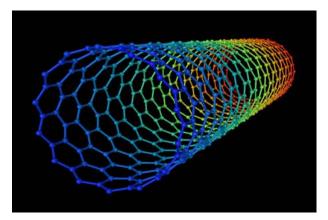
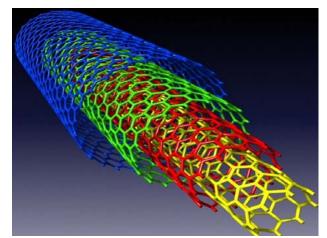
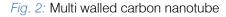


Fig. 1: Single walled carbon nanotube





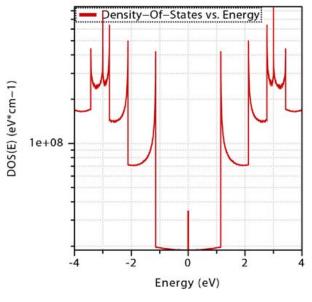


Fig. 3: DOS vs. Energy for (8, 8)

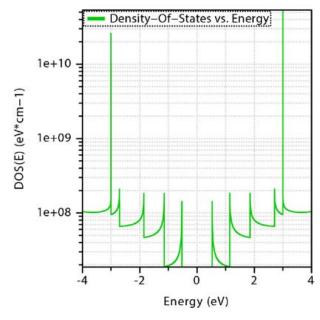
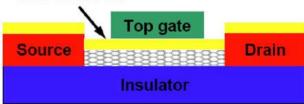


Fig. 4: DOS vs. Energy for (10, 0)
III. CARBON NANOTUBE FIELD EFFECT

TRANSISTOR

A Carbon Nanotube Field-Effect Transistor (CNTFET) indicates a field-effect transistor which handles a single carbon nanotube or an array of carbon nanotubes as the channel material rather silicon in the conventional MOSFET structure. CNTFET is a three-terminal (three to six layers) device consisting of a semiconducting nanotube bringing two contacts (source and drain) and act as a carrier channel which is turned on or off electrically via the third contact (gate). According to the fabrication geometry there are many type of CNTFET devices such as Back-gated CNTFET, Top- gated CNTFET, Wrap-around gate CNTFET, Suspended CNTFET etc. (Wind et al., 2002; Chen et al., 2008; Farmer and Gordan, 2006; Cao et al., 2005). These are divided broadly in two categories: Planner CNTFET and Coaxial CNTFET which are shown in Fig. 5. CNTFETs show different characteristics compared to MOSFETs in their theoretical experiments. In a planar gate structure, the p-CNTFET produces \sim 1500 A/m of the on-current per unit width at a gate overdrive of 0.6 V while p-MOSFET produces ~500 A/m at the same gate voltage (Cao et al., 2005). This on-current advantage contains from the high gate capacitance and modified channel transport. Since an effective gate capacitance per unit width of CNTFET is about double that of p-MOSFET, the compatibility with high gate dielectrics becomes a superior advantage for CNTFETs (Sahoo and Mishra, 2009).

Gate dielectric



Substrate doped silicon

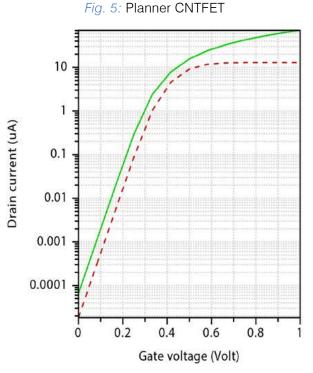


Fig. 6: I-V characteristics of proposed CNTFET (Solid line)

IV. MODELLING OF CNTFET

The proposed device is formed with a (10, 0) CNT. So the channel diameter =0.782885nm. For gate insulation ZrO₂ (k = 25) is used. Energy gap for a nanotube is given by:

$$Eg = \frac{2a\gamma_{c}}{channel \, diameter} \tag{2}$$

Where:

 γ = The nearest neighbor-hopping parameter (γ = 2.5-3.2)

Using $\gamma = 3$, the energy gap is 1.0882eV. The parameters used in proposed model and calculations are given in Table 3.

Material	Young's modulus (GPa)	Tensile strength (GPa)	Electrical conductivity (mho/m)
Single wall nanotube	~1050	150.000	~107
Multi wall nanotube	~1200	150.000	~106
Steel	208	0.400	~10 ⁵
Wood	16	0.008	~10-4

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	Type of CNTs		Values of m and n	State
	Armchair Zigzag Semiconducting c Quasi-Semicondu		m=n m=0 n-m≠3×integer n-m=3×integer	Metallic Semiconducting Semiconducting (large bandgap) Semiconducting (small bandgap)
		Table 3.	Proposed parameters	
_	Energy gap	1.0882 eV	Gate oxide thickness	1.6 nm

Gate dielectric (ZrO2)

Conductance between two leads source and drain is defined in terms of current and voltage: I = GV. Using Landauer formula (Nazarov and Blanter, 2009), conductance is expressed by the following equations:

CNT diameter

$$G = \frac{2Te^2}{h} \tag{3}$$

0.78 nm

where, q is the charge of electron and h is the Planck's constant. T is known as the transmission function in terms of energy that represents the probability of an electron injected at one end of a conductor will emit at the other end. T can be expressed as:

$$T = trace \left[T_s G_0^r \Gamma_D G_0^a \right]$$
(4)

 $G_0^{\ r} \ G_0^{\ a}$ represents the retarded and advanced Green's function of the nanotube and $\Gamma_D, \ \Gamma_S$ are the coupling of the CNT to the source and the drain. The retarded Green's function is calculated by:

$$G_0^r = \left(\mathbf{E} \mathbf{I} - -\Sigma_s \ \Sigma_D \right)^{-1} \tag{5}$$

where, E is Fermi energy, I is the identity matrix, H is the Hamiltonian of the nanotube. ΣS , ΣD is the self-energy terms at the source and drain coupling of the contacts are the calculated using the broadening function of the self-energy terms at the source and drain.

The nanotube behaves as the conducting channel in the CNTFET from the source to drain; it depends on the current density of the tube. The current density is a measure of the density of flow of an electric current per unit area across a section. The current density is an area density described by J. The current through an area A is simply the flux of the current density through that area as shown below:

I

$$=\int J.dA$$
 (6)

Using the charge density within the device, the NEGF transport equation is solved teratively with the posison equation until self-consistant potential distribution is found. Finally the current is calculated using the Landauer Böuttiker expression:

$$I_{d} = \frac{4d \int T(E) \left[f_{s}(E) - f_{d}(E) \right] dE}{h}$$
(7)

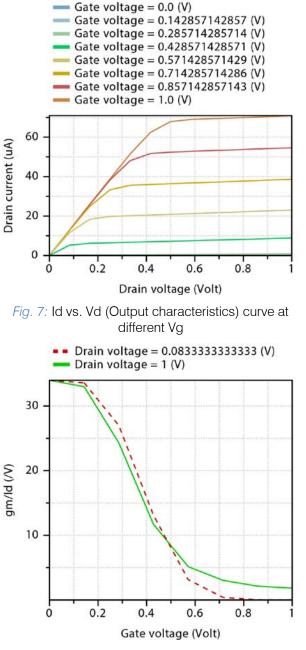
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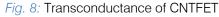
T is the transmission probability across the source/drain; $f_{\rm S}$ and $f_{\rm D}$ are the source/drain Fermi-Dirac distribution functions consistent potential; The equation is solved simultaneously to evaluate and characterize the performance of these devices.

V. Simulations

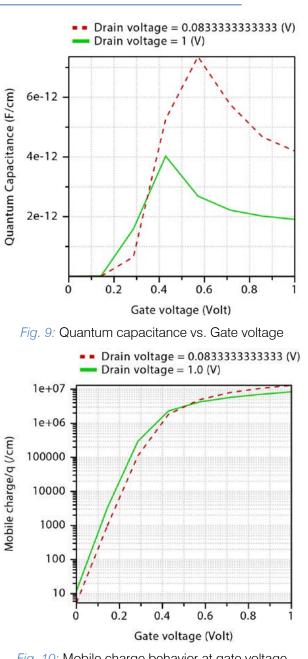
Hafnia (HfO₂) adopts the same structure as zirconia (ZrO₂, K=~25). Unlike TiO₂ (k = 40), which features six-coordinate Titanium in all phases, zirconia and HfO₂ consists of seven- coordinate metal centers (Miikkulainen *et al.*, 2013; Faisal and Ali, 2012). Hafnium-based oxides were introduced by Intel in 2007 as a replacement for silicon oxide as a gate insulator in field-effect transistors (Source: INTEL). We simulate the I-V Characteristics of CNTFET using ZrO₂ as gate insulator for proposed model. The high-K gate insulator and bigger CNT diameter allows higher drain current.

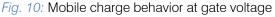
Figure 7 shows the output characteristics of the proposed CNTFET. The channel allows the current to flow when the gate voltage is greater than 0.3 V. So the on current is 70 μ A at Vg = 2.0 V and Vd = 1.0 V and the off current is 6.61e-05 μ A at Vg = 0V and Vd = 1.0 V.





In order to achieve a relatively large transconductance the CNT must have large channel diameter. The larger the transconductance, the greater the gain it will deliver. As the diameter gets smaller this reduces the carrier mobility. changing the transconductance. The transconductance behavior is obtained at 0.78 nm diameter, with different drain voltage (Fig. 8). The transconductance varies by a factor of 10/V depending on the amount of voltage applied to the gate. However, the increase of VG will reduce the allowed voltage signal through the drain.





Quantum capacitance is associated with the properties of channel material. As the density of state is finite in a semiconductor quantum well, the Fermi level needs to move up above the conduction band edge as the charge in the quantum well increases. This movement of Fermi level requires energy and this conceptually corresponds to quantum capacitance. Figure 9 shows the quantum capacitance versus the gate voltage at different drain voltages. It is clear that a higher quantum capacitance can be found at a gate voltage 0.42 or 0.57 volt (for proposed model).

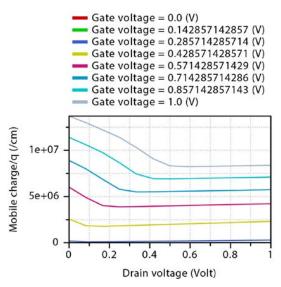


Fig. 11: Mobile charge behavior at drain voltage

As insulator thickness approaches the nanometer range, the insulator capacitance becomes comparable to the inversion layer capacitance, which means that the QC and the centroid capacitance start to affect the gate capacitance.

Figure 10 shows the mobile charge behavior as a function of gate voltage. It is noticed that increasing the drain voltage beyond a specific value has no longer an effect on the shape of the curves since the mobile charge remains constant. It is also observed that low drain voltage produces higher mobile charge and high drain voltage produces lower mobile charge. Also, it has been noticed that the mobile charge increases with the reduction in gate insulator thickness. Figure 11 shows the mobile charge behavior as a function of drain voltage.

VI. Conclusion

The proposed parameters and gate dielectric of CNTFET make the transistor a challenge to develop and control the aspects of it such maximum transconductance. We found two regions for maximum transconductance. Zirconia is used in optical coatings and in DRAM capacitors as a high- k dielectric and in advanced metal-oxide semiconductor devices. The advantage for proposed CNTFET is its high dielectric constant: The dielectric constant of ZrO₂ is 4-6 times higher than that of SiO₂. In recent years, zirconium oxide (as well as doped and oxygen-deficient zirconium oxide) attracts additional interest as a possible candidate for resistive-switching memories (Lin, 2011).

VII. Acknowledgement

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Ethics

The authors' hereby declare, this work is their own contribution and hence there would not be any ethical issues related to this manuscript.

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Methods and Procedures	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
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References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

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