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Source Localization of Low Frequency Oscillations in Power Systems and Methods of Damping

By T. G. Klimova & M.V. Savvatin

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Abstract- One of the urgent problems of modern power system are low frequency oscillations (hereinafter LFO) as they reduce the static and dynamic stability of power systems. Today the important task is to detection and localization of sources of LFO and means of effectively damping such vibrations.

The basic characteristics of oscillation frequency and amplitude of voltage at station buses obtained using devices phazor measurement units (hereinafter, PMU). In the software-hardware complex Real-Time Digital Simulation (RTDS) the study method for the determination sources of perturbations that give rise to low-frequency oscillations and suppression of low-frequency oscillations.

Keywords: *low-frequency oscillations, periodic perturbations, phazor measurement units, automatic regulator of excitation, methods of damping.*

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Source Localization of Low Frequency Oscillations in Power Systems and Methods of Damping

T. G. Klimova ^α & M.V. Savvatin ^σ

Abstract- One of the urgent problems of modern power system are low frequency oscillations (hereinafter LFO) as they reduce the static and dynamic stability of power systems. Today the important task is to detection and localization of sources of LFO and means of effectively damping such vibrations.

The basic characteristics of oscillation frequency and amplitude of voltage at station buses obtained using devices phazor measurement units (hereinafter, PMU). In the software-hardware complex Real-Time Digital Simulation (RTDS) the study method for the determination sources of perturbations that give rise to low-frequency oscillations and suppression of low-frequency oscillations.

On the basis of measurements obtained using the established in different parts of the power system, PMU for different types of periodic perturbations defined characteristics of oscillations, indicating the location of source of low frequency oscillations. Reviewed and verified way of reducing the influence of LFO on operation of generator. This regularity allows to obtain information about the location of source periodic perturbation, leading to the emergence of LFO on the grid. Further work aimed at creation of algorithm fast detection source LFO based on vector measurements, and research methods reduce the influence of LFO on synchronous generator will help determine the optimal setting of the automatic regulator of excitation for maximum damping occurs in the LFO power system.

Keywords: low-frequency oscillations, periodic perturbations, phazor measurement units, automatic regulator of excitation, methods of damping.

I. INTRODUCTION

Currently, the issue LFO is given attention throughout the progressive world. Already significant progress has been made in identifying the reasons for LFO. The analysis of the influence of periodic disturbances on occurrence of low frequency oscillations in power system, which proves the existence of direct relationship between the periodic variations of load and periodic fluctuations in operating parameters in the power system, as well as strengthening the existing fluctuations in system at resonance with oscillation of load.

Today, an important challenge remains determination location source of the perturbations that give rise to LFO in the power system, and developing

effective ways of minimizing the impact of LFO on the work of rotating machines [1].

Also one of the main causes of low-frequency oscillation is inefficient excitation systems and automatic regulators of excitation. Therefore, an important task is to study the influence of the structure and parameters of automatic excitation controllers on oscillatory processes arising due to disturbances of different kinds.

In modern conditions in the systems collecting and information transfer widespread digital technology based on the synchronized vector measurements, which allow to obtain high accuracy and measurement stability, the lowest latency of the measured variables and increase reliability of the measuring system as a whole [2]. Phasor measurement unit (hereinafter, PMU) – a device (or software-implemented function) that measures complex values of current and voltage. Measurement from a PMU is synchronized in time based on the signals of GLONASS or GPS, which are transmitted to determine the exact location and time synchronization accuracy is ± 0.2 microseconds. PMU are located in the nodes of the grid form a wide area measurement system (WAMS) [3].

II. IDENTIFICATION OF DANGEROUS RESONANT FREQUENCIES

In the software-hardware complex real-time digital simulator (hereinafter, RTDS) studies have been conducted method of determining the points application of the perturbations that give rise to LFO. RTDS allows to set model PMU in any given test points diagrams energy district and to sync them according to signals a single time.

As one of the perturbation is used periodically varying load, mounted at various points on the system. This external perturbation for all synchronous generators of the power system. Another type of perturbation – mechanical moment on a shaft of one of the generators. It will be an internal perturbation for generator, and for the rest-external [2–3].

Disturbance of any kind cause fluctuations in the frequency and amplitude of voltage at all points of the system. In the network map was implemented the point of application of a periodic load P_{n1} , $P_{n2} = \text{var}$, and changes in the moment generator shaft is $T_m =$

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var. The place of installation, PMU designated in figures 1–13 in Fig. 1

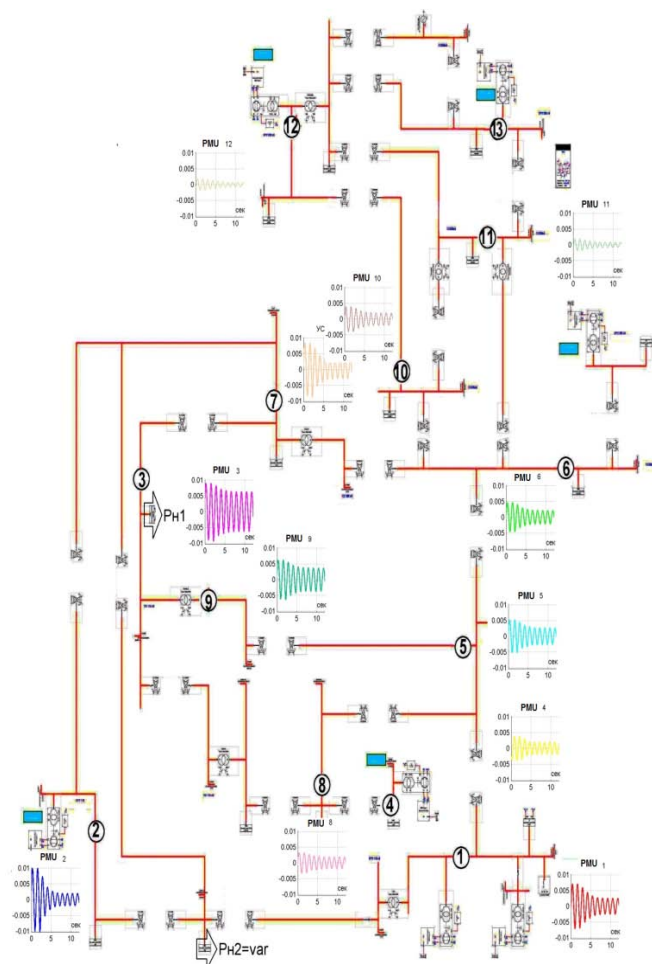


Fig. 1: The test grid and oscilloscope record frequency variations in the place of installation PMU (the model created in RTDS)

By studying the spectral composition and operating parameters have been selected the two most pronounced dangerous (resonant) frequency of oscillations periodic disturbances [4], which correspond to values of 0.47 Hz and 0.74 Hz, which is almost the same for all operating parameters.

III. THE CONSTRUCTION VECTOR DIAGRAMS OF FLUCTUATIONS IN THE OPERATING PARAMETERS WHEN THE EXTERNAL PERIODIC PERTURBATION LOAD

Study of the effect periodic load was carried out with the change in oscillation frequency of load in the range 0.4–0.9, is necessarily encompassing both resonant frequencies. For periodic load change dPn1 in the most typical (close to resonance) frequencies of 0.7 Hz and 0.4 Hz in different parts of the system (for a frequency of 0.7 Hz the results are shown in Fig. 2) the obtained waveforms show that the phase shift and the

amplitude of the oscillation frequency voltage (Fig. 2, a) and voltage amplitude (Fig. 2, c) depends on the measurement points the modal parameters (the place of installation, PMU)

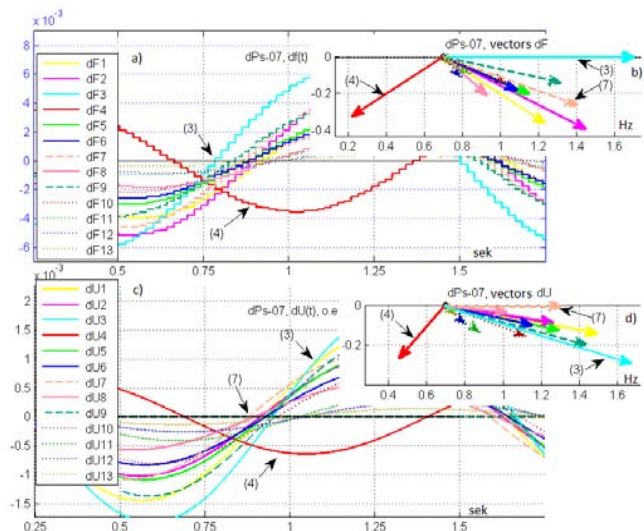


Fig. 2: Waveforms of the oscillation frequency (a) and amplitude (c) voltage, and the vectors of the oscillation frequency (b) and amplitude (d) the voltage at points 1–13 installation PMU

When using a visual geometric method of representation harmonic oscillations, namely, their image as vectors in the complex plane [5], are shown the vector fluctuations of operating parameters at different points installation, PMU. The horizontal axis represents the frequency of oscillation settings and the vertical attenuation constant (parameters of roots of the equation of free motion). The length of vector is proportional to amplitude of the corresponding modal parameters, and its phase equal to the phase oscillations relative to signal sync. Each vector (Fig. 2, b, d) starts at the point of 0.7 Hz, a value of zero damping constant, since the amplitude of sine wave oscillations operating parameters constant.

Device, PMU 3 is set almost at the point of disturbance. In this case, the phase of the oscillation frequency at point 3 the minimum relative to reference point (1PPS signal), and its amplitude is maximum. The vector of this oscillation (see Fig. 2, b) – basic, next to it the vectors, shown as a dotted line, is built on the basis of measurements in area closest to point of application perturbation. Among the vectors oscillation amplitude of the voltage (see Fig. 2, d), the oscillation amplitude, measured at the point 3, is maximum, but the phase of this vector is significantly different from minimum.

Therefore, only the phase vectors of the oscillation frequency of the voltage measured at different points power system, uniquely identifies a source location LFO. Phase vectors of the oscillation frequency of voltage measured, PMU, are minimum

where the measurements were performed close to source of perturbation. The module vector of oscillation frequency depends on the degree of coincidence of frequencies LFO and the resonance frequency in the considered point of grid and shows the sensitivity of object to fluctuations considered frequency.

IV. STUDY OF THE WAYS TO MINIMIZE IMPACT OF LFO IN POWER SYSTEM ON SYNCHRONOUS GENERATOR

Identified in the previous Chapter the pattern allows through synchronized vector measurements to obtain information about location of source periodic perturbation, leading to the emergence of LFO in grid. Considering all the operating parameters of low-frequency fluctuations and fine tuning of automatic excitation regulators (AEC) generators at stations located near the source of the LFO, which would improve the damping performance of AECs and reduce the probability of violations parallel operation of power plants and grids, the occurrence of asynchronous mode and cascade development process disturbances [6].

In a hardware-software complex of RTDS were studied and proven method of reducing the effects of the various LFO on the performance of synchronous generator.

The first method is the change in the prescribed setpoint voltage of the AEC on the generators of the power plant, located closest to the source of the LFO. To study the simulated real network with multiple parallel links. PMU were placed. Fig.3 shows part of the studied schemes. Shows diagrams that contain PMU caught in this part, provided their numbers.

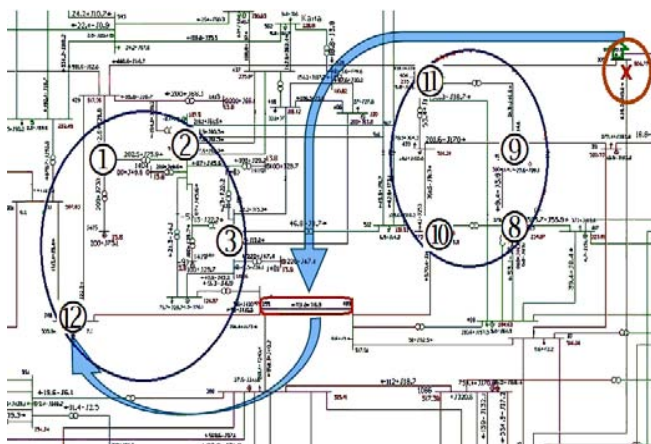


Fig. 3: Part of the scheme of the studied network

After an outage of line (X marks in Fig. 3), is an increase in flow in said line, until it exceeds the maximum value.

Using the identified patterns, and analysing data with PMU determined that PMU installed at the point 12 (Fig.3) shows the minimum phase of the oscillation frequency of the voltage (Fig.4), which

indicates a location closest to the source of the disturbance.

Fig.4 shows the transition of the local fluctuations (Fig.4,b) arising out of the disconnection of the line, zonal continuous. Fig.3 ovals marked stations having the same type of zonal oscillation that is manifested in the waveform in Fig.4,a.

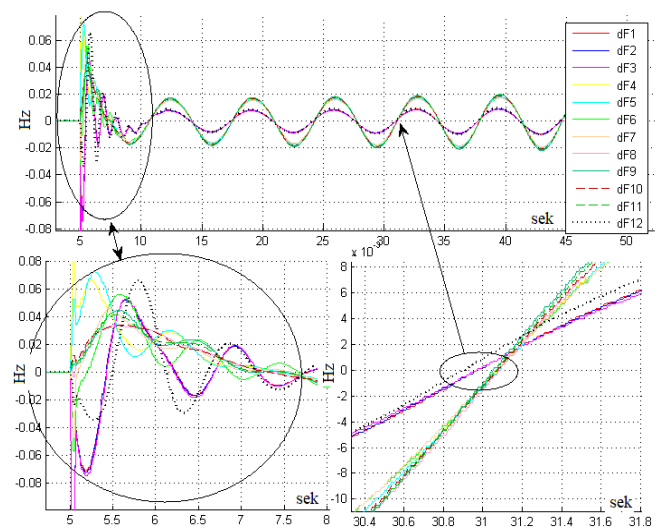


Fig. 4: Waveforms of the oscillation frequency at the installation location PMU

Changes prescribed setpoint voltage of AEC 10% of the station at point 12 leads to a decrease of the amplitude of the oscillations not only on the tires of the considered stations, but throughout the grid (fig.5).

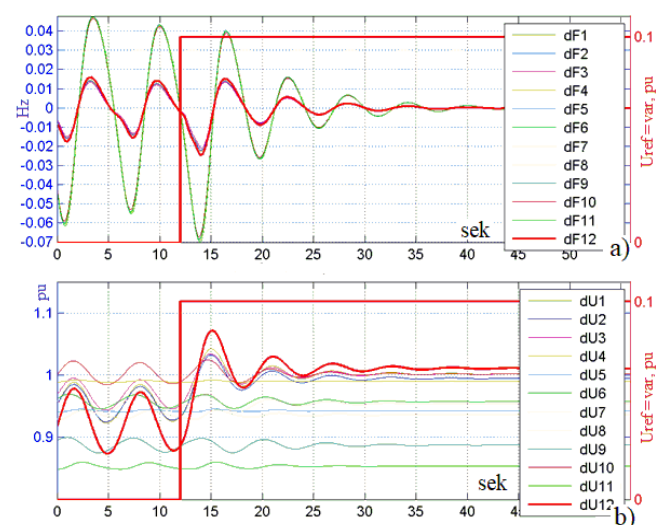


Fig. 5: Waveforms of the oscillation frequency and the amplitude of the voltage at the installation site PMU after a change in the prescribed setpoint voltage AECs

Thus, the change in the prescribed set point voltage of AECs improves damping of low frequency oscillations occurring in the power system.

The second way is to change the schema of the AEC. Analysis of oscillation in all nodes of the grid after setting the AEC, the station closest to the source of an LFO will allow for the synchronized vector measurement gauges to assess the impact of the settings of AES on fluctuations in the working parameters of all the given points of the power system

Change the structure and parameters of AEC, located near a permanent source of vibrations. The scheme upgraded the device ARV is shown in Fig. 6. Overbuild the part is highlighted and presented on the same figure. 6.

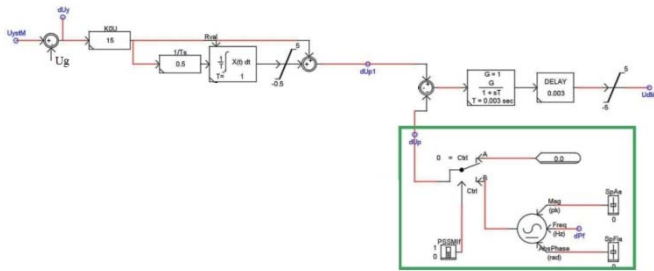


Fig. 6: The scheme of the studied device AEC (the model created in RTDS)

The main design feature of this AEC is the summation of the output signal $dUp1$ with amplitude-modulated and frequency of voltage signal dUp , the main amplitude and frequency of which correspond to parameters of low-frequency oscillations. In addition, the frequency of the b phase modulated oscillations are so chosen that they are the opposite of own oscillations of the generator.

Fig. 7 shows the results of research work this AEC. The oscillograms are shown the measurements obtained in all the locations where the devices are synchronized vector measurements. The oscillograms clearly traced the decrease in the amplitude of oscillation frequency, which proves the efficiency AEC.

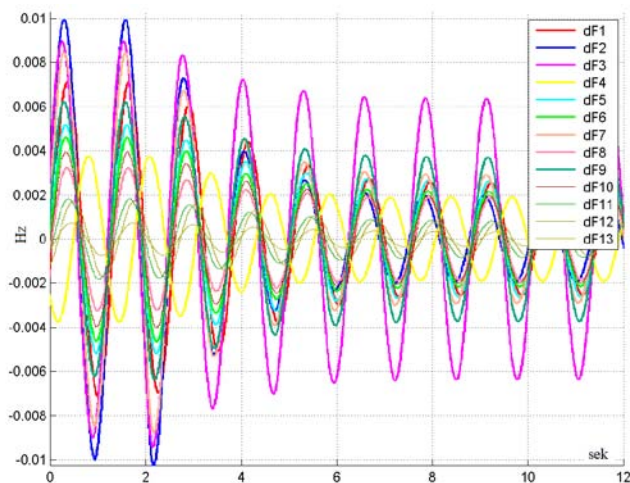


Fig. 7: Diagram of the test network and waveforms of the oscillation frequency in the place of installation PMU

It should be noted that implementation's AECs have been used only at node 2 (Fig. 1), the oscillation frequency at this point is a maximum.

When comparing the waveforms of oscillation frequency in Fig. 7 observed in different points, you can see that the modified AECs has a positive effect on damping of oscillations not only at the station but in whole energy area.

V. CONCLUSION

This regularity allows to obtain information about location of source periodic perturbation, leading to the emergence of LFO on the grid. Further work are aimed at creation of algorithm of fast detection source of LFO on the basis of vector measurement.

Research methods reduce the influence of LFO on synchronous generator will help determine the optimal setting automatic regulator of excitation for maximum damping LFO has occurring in the power system. Also it is possible to develop adaptive-customizable automatic excitation regulators depending on the parameters of low frequency oscillations in power system.

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Reduced Size Single Switch Power Factor Correction Circuit

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The most important attribute of this circuit is the small size and numbers of components (one switch, small size (L & C) and a diode), which have been designed to get a unity PF at the AC source side. Therefore, the new circuit is cheaper, smaller size and lighter than other conventional PFC circuits.

In addition, the new proposed circuit is a snubber-less and uses reasonably low switching frequency which reduces switching losses and increases efficiency. The circuit has been designed and simulated using Lt-spice simulink program.

Keywords: active power factor correction (APFC), AC - DC converter, total harmonic distortion (THD).

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Reduced Size Single Switch Power Factor Correction Circuit

Hussein al-bayaty ^α, Ali Hussein Al-Omari ^σ, Marcel Ambroze ^ρ & Mohammed Zaki Ahmed ^ω

Abstract- This article presents a new design of active power factor correction (APFC) circuit that can be used in single phase rectifiers. The proposed circuit provides almost a unity input power factor (PF) which contributes significantly in reduction of the total current harmonic distortion (THDI) as it eliminates the third harmonic component effectively from the input current.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Single phase AC/DC rectifiers with a large electrolytic capacitor are commonly used for manufacturer and business issues. The main purpose to use diode rectifiers is to operate the switching power supply in data processing apparatus and to operate low power motor drive systems [1].

The large capacitor draws current in short pulses, which brings in a lot of problems including decreasing in the available power, increasing losses and reduction of the efficiency. In the conventional way of design, the capacitor voltage preserves the peak voltage of the input sine wave until the next peak comes along to recharge it [2].

The only way to recharge the capacitor is drawing the current from the input source at the peaks of the source waveform as a long pulse which includes an adequate amount of energy to nourish the load until the next peak. This happens when the capacitor draws a large charge during short time, after the slowly discharge of the capacitor into the load. Therefore, the capacitor's current draws 5 to 10 times of the average current in 10% or 20% of the cycle period. Consequently, the source current has narrow and long pulses and the effective (r.m.s.) value increases [3], [4].

Customers with a large number of nonlinear loads also have large neutral current rich in third harmonics current. In order to increase the PF, decrease the losses and save the energy, then the input current harmonics (specially the third order harmonic) have to be eliminated. Several methods and techniques have been proposed to solve the problem of a poor power factor, which can be classified as active and passive methods [5].

Passive PFC circuits are generally simple, fewer components, smaller size and easy to design for small rating power (less than 200 watt). However, its bulky and not economical for large power ratings and the input power factor is (0.6 - 0.7) and THD = 150% in best conditions without using big size elements [6].

Active PFC circuits, can considerably diminish losses and costs associated with the generation and distribution of the electric power and significantly improved power quality. Therefore, APFC circuits are receiving more and more attention these days because of the widespread use of electrical appliances that draw non sinusoidal current from the electric power systems. However, PFC circuits require additional, more expensive and complex components [7]. The author in [8], designed a novel PFC circuit that depends on the principle of limiting the work of the main capacitor in a manner which can eliminate the third order harmonic and improve the input PF into 0.99. However, this design has been used two Mosfets and high switching frequency equal to 200 KHZ which may increase the switching losses and reduce the efficiency.

In this paper, a new design of PFC converter has been introduced and presented in figure (1). The new design is depending on the flexibility of the parameters' variation which produces low harmonics, high input PF and high efficiency.

The new proposed design, reduces the required number of components into one Mosfet switch with low switching frequency equal to 20 KHZ, and uses small value of inductor which is smaller more than 96% of the inductors used in conventional boost PFC circuits, because the new proposed design focuses on shifting the harmonics components to the high frequency region and consequently eliminating the third order harmonic current, therefore the cost, the weight and the size of the new circuit will be reduced hugely.

The description of the circuit, operation topology, control circuit and operation stages are all

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described in section (II). The details of system's parameters are described in section (III). The discussion of simulation results and assessment are presented in section (IV), followed by an overall conclusion in section (V).

II. OPERATION PRINCIPLES AND ANALYSIS OF THE NEW PROPOSED CIRCUIT

a) Circuit's Description

The schematic circuit of the new proposed PFC circuit is shown below in figure (1).

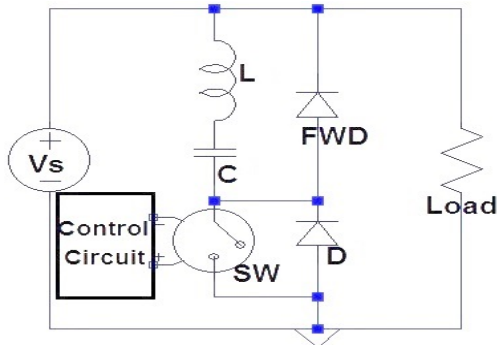


Fig. 1: New proposed APFC circuit

(V_s) is the input DC source (represents AC single phase connected to full bridge rectifier), connected in parallel with LC resonant branch and MOSFET switch (SW) in parallel with the load. A control circuit has been designed in order to control the switching process.

b) Operation Topology

The new proposed circuit has the ability to control the working period of the capacitor. Consequently, the value of the input power factor, THD_i of the source current waveform and the value of the output ripple voltage can be controlled as well through using one switching devices.

The principle of this design is depending on the distributing of the working time intervals of the capacitor into two regions, at the beginning ($0 - t_1$) and at the end ($t_4 - \pi$) via using control circuit. This smart switching pattern would eliminates the third order harmonic component and improves the input PF as the third order harmonic is the most significant component in single phase systems.

This design uses a minimum number of components and minimum values of (L) & (C) a capacitor turned off on the middle of each cycle, which shift the harmonics components to higher frequencies. consequently, reduces the size and the cost of the new proposed circuit.

This circuit is snubber-less circuit, because the freewheeling diode (FWD) presents an alternative path for the discharge current of inductor (I_L), so can the capacitor keep charged. Accordingly, (FWD) can avoids

the negative part of I_L and helps (C) to act as a snubber circuit in order to prevent the inductor's voltage (V_L) to increase more than rated value of the source voltage, in this way (C) will protect the MOSFET switch from being burned in the effect of the high voltage spikes which may happened without the FWD.

c) Control circuit

A simple designed control circuit, as shown in figure (2) has been investigated in order to derive the MOSFET switch and control the switching frequency and duty cycle.

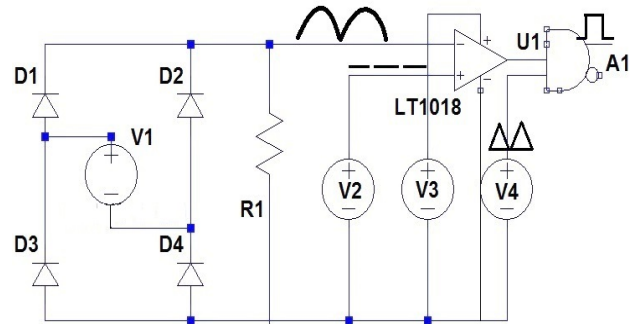


Fig. 2: Control circuit

Briefly, the circuit consists of a dual input comparator which compares two signals (the first signal is the output of full wave rectifier and the second is a dc voltage source). The output of the comparator, which is a square wave, would be combine in a logic (And gate) circuit with a triangular waveform in 20 KHz frequency. the output of and gate will go directly to the gate of the MOSFET switch.

d) Operation stages

- 1) First mode: This mode describes the time period $0 \leq t < t_1$, when the capacitor voltage $V_C > V_s$. SW-ON/OFF, while t_1 is the moment when V_s is equal or bigger than V_C . The circuit shown in figure (3-a), illustrates the path of the current at this mode: In this period, (C & L) are discharging and feed the load.

$$I_C = C \frac{dV_C}{dt} = I_L = I_{Load} = \frac{V_{out}}{R}$$

because L, C and the load are series in this mode.

$$\therefore V_{Load} = V_{out} = V_C + V_L$$

$$\therefore V_L = L \frac{di_L}{dt}$$

then the value of V_L is approximately zero because the value of L_1 is very small (few micro henres).

$$\therefore V_{out} \approx V_C$$

The full time period of the input source current waveform (I_s) is shown in figure (4) with the details of nine time modes.

- 2) Second mode: For the time period $t_1 \leq t < t_2$, when $V_S > V_{C1}$, and SW is ON. t_2 is the moment when the pulses turns off. The circuit shown above in figure (3-b), the bold line illustrates the active path at this mode.

In this mode, the load, C & L are all connected to the source and charging with frequency pulses (20 KHz), as a result, high values and short time current spikes appear on the input current waveform because of the capacitor current. $V_S = V_{Load} = V_{out}$

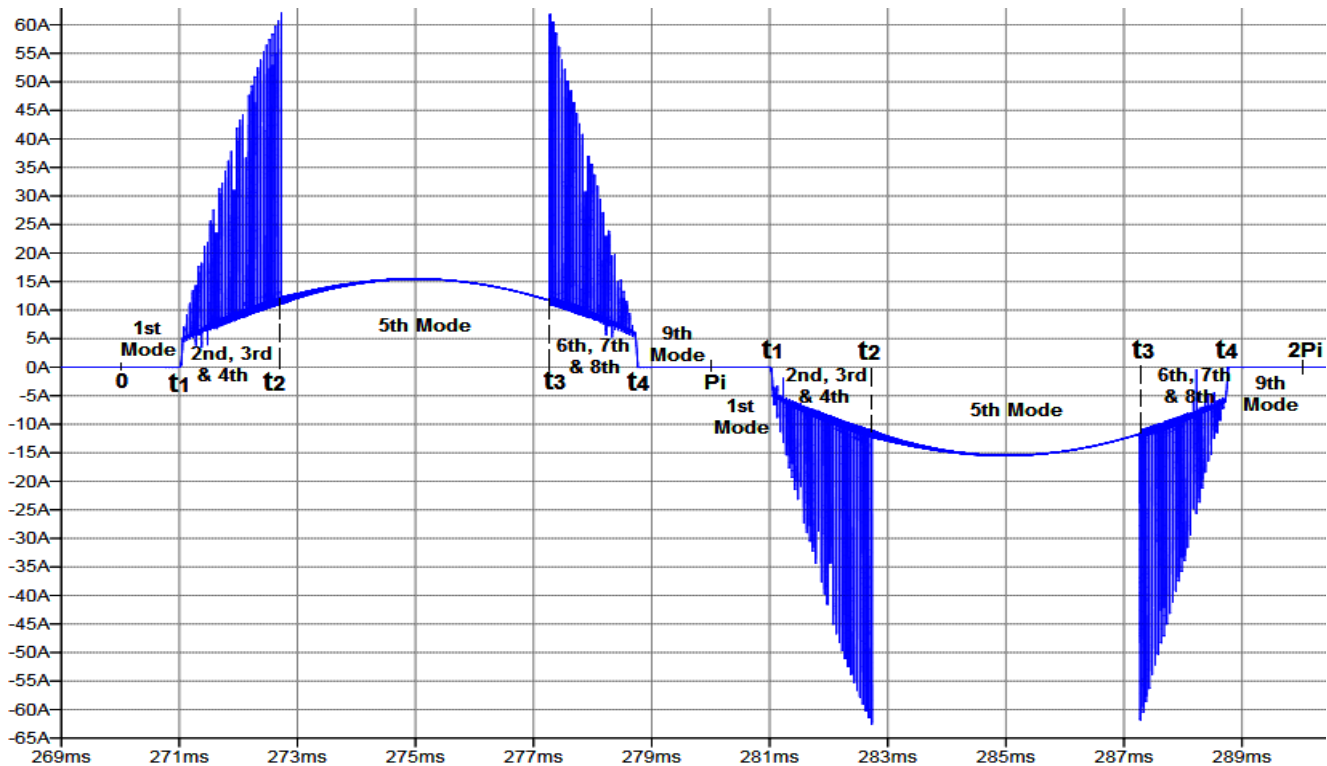


Fig. 4: The input source current

$$V_S = V_C + V_L = V_C + L \cdot \frac{di_L}{dt} \quad I_S = I_C + I_{Load} = C \cdot \frac{dV_C}{dt} + I_{Load}$$

- 3) Third mode: For the time period $t_1 \leq t < t_2$, when $V_S > V_{C1}$. This mode covers the interval time from switching OFF moment until (t_d) ms. t_d is the moment when I_L or I_C discharge to zero ampere for each pulse. The circuit is shown above in figure (3-c).

At this mode, (L) discharges its current to (C) until being zero (at the t_d moment), while the inductor voltage V_L is equal to V_C and remains charged. This topology dose not require a snubber circuit as V_L has been prevented.

$$\therefore V_L = V_C \quad \& \quad I_L = I_C = C \frac{dV_C}{dt} \quad \therefore X_L = X_C$$

$$2\pi fL = \frac{1}{2\pi fC} \quad \therefore f_r = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}} = 1.59KHz$$

f_r is the resonance frequency.

At this mode, the load is fed by the source.

$$V_L = L \frac{di_L}{dt} = V_C$$

$$I_S = I_{Load} = \frac{V_{out}}{R}$$

- 4) Fourth mode: For the time period $t_1 \leq t < t_2$, when $V_S > V_C$, SW is OFF (from (t_d) until the next ON-pulse). The bold line in the circuit shown above in figure (3-d), clarifies the source current's path.

At this mode, the inductor current (I_L) supposed to remain zero ampere. However, the internal capacitance of the diodes combines with stray inductance which form resonant circuit called parasitic resonant.

Due to this parasitic resonance, a sinusoidal current can flow into the inductor L_1 in a very high frequency (about 1.54 MHz) called self resonant (or parasitic) frequency (f_p).

At the same time, V_L follows I_L waveform and oscillate around zero. I_L & I_S values are variable and change in accordance to the values of L, C, f_{sw2} , $\frac{dv_c}{dt}$ and output load as it's clear from equations and shown in figures (4) and (5):

The capacitor voltage (V_C) remains charged and considered as a constant value due to the value of I_C which is approximately zero, then the value of $\frac{dV_C}{dt}$ is very small value.

$$I_L = I_0 \cdot \cos(w_p \cdot t)$$

$$w_p = 2\pi f_p \approx 9.5 \text{ M rad/sec.}$$

(I_0) is approximately 0.5 Amp. For ideal conditions, the internal capacitance of diodes is zero, therefore the parasitic resonance and I_0 can be considered as zero ampere.

Practically, a damper circuit ($R=5 \Omega$ & $C=1 \text{ nF}$) can be connected in parallel with the freewheeling diode

in order to eliminate the resonance current (I_0) totally, however, 0.1 % of power losses can be increased in the circuit as a circuit of 3 kw output power, has only 3 watt losses in the damper circuit which is negligible. The modes (2,3,4) are repeating every ON/OFF switching pulse of SW.

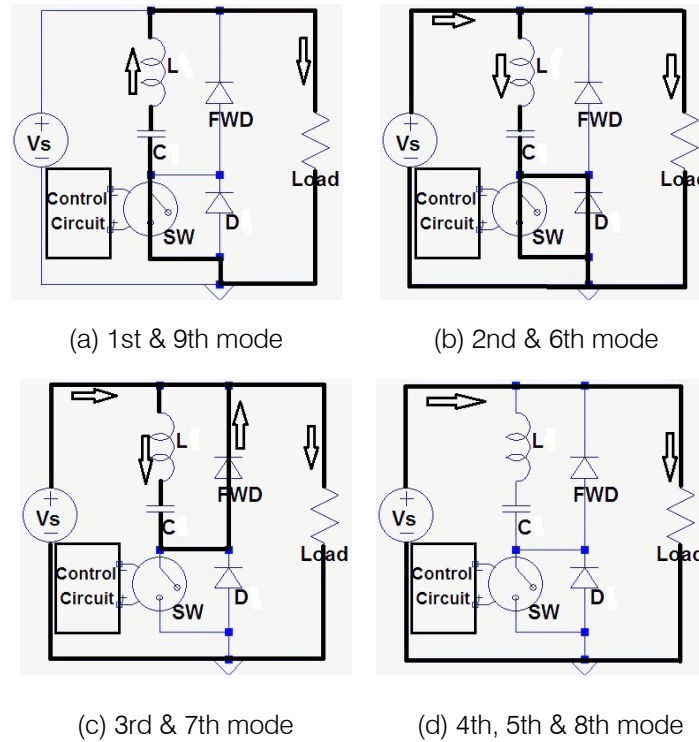


Fig. 3: Circuit diagram in different time modes

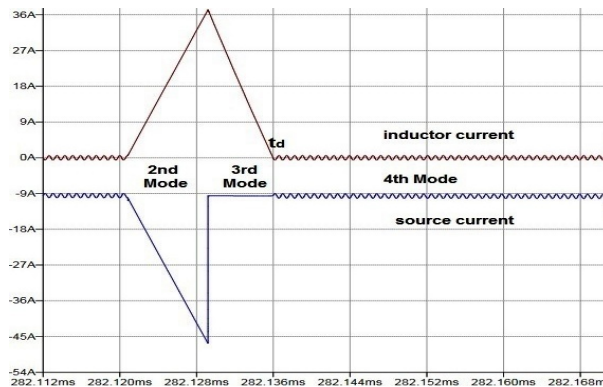


Fig. 5: IL & IS in the 2nd, 3rd & 4th modes

The figure (6), shows the full picture of V_C , V_{out} , V_L & V_D waveforms. V_C is in red color, V_{out} is in brown color, V_L is in green color, and V_D is in blue color.

- 5) *Fifth mode:* For the time period $t_2 \leq t < t_3$, when pulses are ON/OFF. t_3 is the moment when SW turns OFF. The circuit shown in figure (3-d), illustrates the active path of current at this mode:

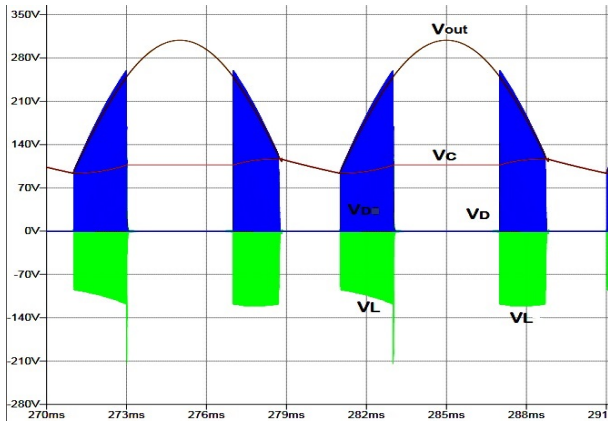


Fig. 6: V_C , V_{out} , V_L & V_D waveforms

Due to $V_s > V_C$, therefore C and L are considered as disconnected (open circuit), because they are reverse biased when SW is OFF and (FWD) is reverse biased.

Therefore, C and L are neither charging nor discharging, then $I_L = I_C = \text{Zero}$, $V_L = \text{Zero}$ but V_C is a constant value.

- 6) *Sixth mode:* For the time period $t_3 \leq t < t_4$, when $V_s > V_C$, SW is ON. t_4 is the moment when V_C is greater than V_s . The circuit is shown in figure (3-b). At this mode, C and L are charging and the load is fed by the source. All the derived equations in the 2nd mode are valid for this mode.
- 7) *Seventh mode:* For the time period $t_3 \leq t < t_4$, when $V_s > V_C$. The circuit is shown in figure (3-c). At this mode, (C) is charging while V_L is equal to V_C until L fully discharges its current into zero ampere at the time of (t_d). All the derived equations in the 3rd mode are valid for this mode.
- 8) *Eighth mode:* For the time period $t_3 \leq t < t_4$, when $V_s > V_{C1}$, SW is OFF, for period (t_d) until the next ON-pulse for SW₂. The circuit is shown in figure (3-d). V_C still charged and slightly charging but approximately constant due to very small $\frac{dV_C}{dt}$. V_{C1} remains charged and considered as a constant value due to the value of I_{C1} is approximately zero, then the value of dV_{C1} would be very small.

$$I_{L1} = I_0 \cdot \cos(\omega_p \cdot t)$$

$$\omega_p = 2\pi f_p \approx 9.5 \text{ M rad/sec.}$$

The modes (6,7,8) repeat themselves every ON/OFF switching of the MOSFET.

- 9) *Ninth mode:* For the time period $t_4 \leq t < 10 \text{ ms.}$, when $V_C > V_s$. SW-ON/OFF, the circuit is shown above in Fig. (3-a). L & C are discharging while the R-load is fed by the main capacitor.

$$\therefore I_L = \frac{V_{out}}{R}$$

$$V_{Load} = V_{out} = V_C + V_L$$

All the derived equations in the first mode are valid for this mode.

III. SYSTEM PARAMETERS

The proposed circuit has been simulated in LT-spice program and the parameters have been specified as the following table:

Table I: System Parameters

Inductor (L)	$R_{\text{Internal Ser.}} = 2.236 \text{ m } \Omega$	$R_{\text{Internal Par.}} = 1413 \Omega$
Capacitor (C)	$\text{ESR} = 0.035 \Omega$	$\text{ESL} = 0 \Omega$
MOSFET	IPP070N8N3, N-channel	
Freewheeling diode	Schottky, (UPSC600)	$V_{ds} = 80 \text{ V}$, $R_{ds} = 7 \text{ m } \Omega$
Parallel diode	Schottky, (MBR745)	$V_{\text{Breakdown}} = 600 \text{ V}$
Load	Resistive	$V_{\text{Breakdown}} = 45 \text{ V}$
		20Ω

IV. SIMULATION RESULTS AND ASSESSMENT

An electrical circuit with $V_s = 311 \text{ V}_{\text{peak}} = 220 \text{ V}_{\text{rms}}$, $L = 20 \mu\text{H}$, $C = 0.5 \text{ mF}$ and MOSFET switch works in $f_{sw} = 20 \text{ KHz}$ controlled by a control circuit, has been designed and investigated by using Lt-spice simulink program.

- 1) R-load, inductor (L) and switching frequency of the MOSFET, are three main parameters in this circuit which could be changed in different values in order to find out the optimum design and parameters values in order to get low input THD_i , unity input PF, high efficiency, cheap, not bulky, small size and light converter.
- 2) Table (I), shows the relationship between different load values comparing it with fundamental input current P_{in} , P_{out} , η , THD_i and input PF when $L = 20 \mu\text{H}$ and the switching frequency (f_{sw}) is 20 KHz.

Table II: Different load values with THD_i , PF & η

R(Ω)	P_{in} (W)	P_{out} (W)	η (%)	THD(%)	PF
1	46354.5	44260	95.48	5	0.999
10	4920.2	4851.5	98.6	11.6	0.994
20	2506	2473	98.68	17	0.986
50	1038	1021	98.36	28.4	0.96
100	543.48	525	96.6	37	0.938
200	292.68	269.6	92.1	52.4	0.886
500	141	110.75	78.55	83.2	0.77
1000	90.2	56.1	62.2	111.7	0.667

Power factor has been calculated by using equation in [9], $\text{P.F} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+(THD_i)^2}}$

$$I_t = \sqrt{I_1^2 + I_h^2}$$

The total input power, has been calculated via below equation [10]:

$$P_{in} = V_t \cdot I_t \cdot PF$$

The maximum efficiency is 98.68% when input power is 2.5 kw when R-load = 20 Ω and (L) is 20 μ H.

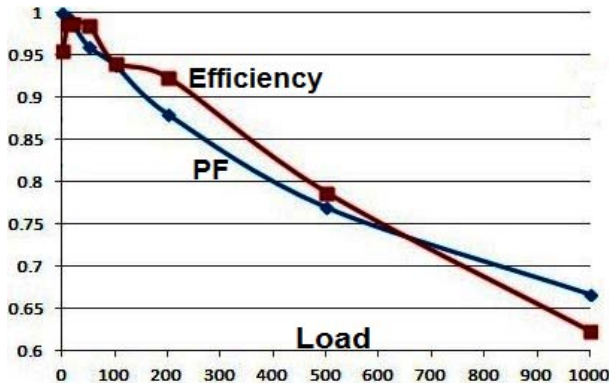


Fig. 7: Different load values with PF and η

It can be concluded, from table (I) and figure (7) that the values of (η) and input PF, inversely proportion with the increasing of the load value.

3) Table (II) shows the relationship between different inductor values comparing with P_{in} , P_{out} , η and input PF, when R-load = 20 Ω and $f_{sw} = 20$ KHz.

Table III: Different (L) values with THD_i , PF & η

L(μ H)	P_{in} (W)	P_{out} (W)	η (%)	THD(%)	PF
1	2854.9	2679.4	93.86	55	0.876
10	2557.5	2510	98.1	24	0.972
20	2506	2473	98.68	17	0.986
50	2456	2434	99.1	10.5	0.994
100	2434.38	2415.5	99.2	7.2	0.997
200	2420.48	2403.7	99.3	4.9	0.999
500	2412	2395	99.3	3.5	0.999
1000	2407.3	2391.8	99.36	2.5	0.999

It can be concluded, from table (II) and figure (8) below, that the value of η and PF, directly proportion with the increasing of inductor value.

4) Table (III) shows the relationship between different switching frequencies of MOSFET comparing with P_{in} , P_{out} , η and input PF when R-load = 20 Ω and (L) is 20 μ H.

It can be concluded from table (III) and figure (9) that, the value of η and PF directly proportion with the value of f_{sw} .

It can be concluded that, f_{sw} can be kept around (10 - 20) KHz in order to get approximately unity PF (0.98) at the input AC side when (L) is 20 μ H for 2.5 kw output power.

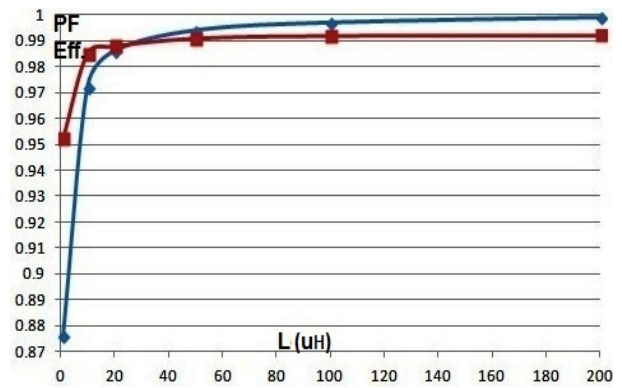


Fig. 8: Different (L) values with PF and η

Table IV: Variable (D) for (SW) with THD_i , PF & η

f_{sw} (K)	P_{in} (W)	P_{out} (W)	η (%)	THD(%)	PF
5	2641	2574.8	97.5	33	0.95
10	2561	2515	98.2	23.8	0.973
20	2506	2473	98.68	17	0.986
50	2456.3	2434.2	99.1	10.6	0.994
100	2437.3	2415.8	99.1	7.6	0.997
200	2418.9	2405	99.4	5.6	0.998
500	2415	2397.2	99.2	3.9	0.999
1000	2414.8	2396.2	99.2	3.7	0.999

5) The figure 10, shows the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) spectrum of the input source current. The total current harmonic distortion (THD_i) is 17%, then the total input power factor is (0.986).

As it is shown in figure (10), the third order harmonic is not exist at the input current waveform, and the only harmonic orders shown are the 5th and 7th order harmonics. This is because (C) was OFF at the middle of the waveform ($t_2 - t_3$) and the load was fed by the source.

6) In the case of the absence of freewheeling diode in the time intervals $t_1 \leq t < t_2$ and $t_3 \leq t < t_4$ (which represent the 2nd and 6th modes), the equation of inductor's voltage is:

$$V_L = L \frac{di_L}{dt} = \frac{L \cdot di_L \cdot f_{sw}}{D}$$

(D) is the duty cycle of (SW) and because of the switching frequency (f_{sw}) is (20 KHz), therefore V_L would be a very large value at this moment. Consequently, V_L may be a reason for huge spikes on MOSFET's terminals and may burn the switch.

7) Generally, in this situation a snubber circuit would be proposed as a solution to suppress the high frequency spikes and to protect the MOSFET switch. However in this circuit, the main capacitor (C) would be act as a snubber circuit because of the existence of the freewheeling diode (FWD), which makes V_C charges on the negative value of V_L and prevent high voltage on the terminals of the MOSFET when its in open the status. As shown in figure (11), the inductor voltage does not increases more than 140 V_{p-p} in spite of that the source voltage is 311 V_{p-p} , because of the small value of (L).

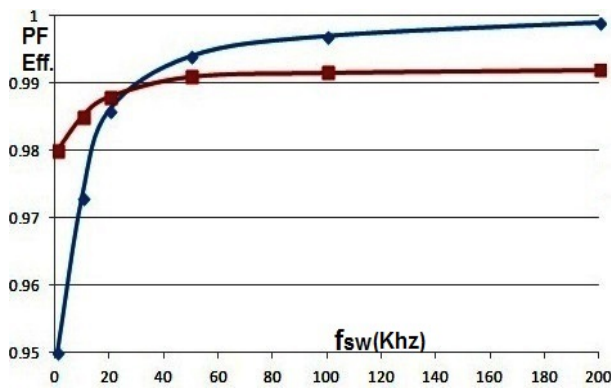


Fig. 9: Different f_{sw} values with PF and η

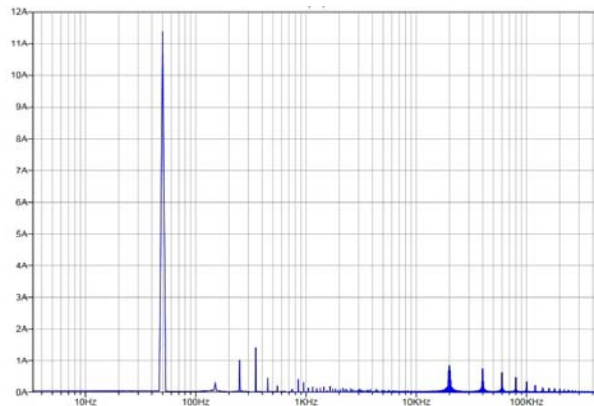


Fig. 10: FFT Spectrum of the input current

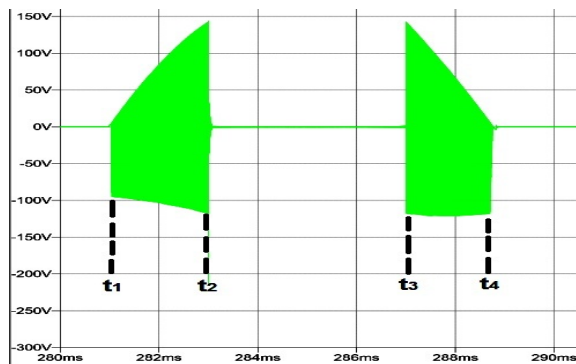


Fig. 11: The waveform of V_L

- 8) The required value of the inductance for the same voltage and power ratings in three level boost converter is (L), while the size would be doubled with the using of two inductors ($2 \times 2L$) for the interleaved boost converter, on the other hand, the inductance would be doubled again ($4L$) for the conventional boost converter [11].

The inductor's value used in the literature in [12] for a (3 kw) output power using interleaved boost converter was ($270 \mu\text{H}$), while the value of inductor

(L) in the new proposed circuit is ($20 \mu\text{H}$) for the same power ratings. This reduction of the inductor's value will effectively contribute in reducing the size, weight and the cost of the converter.

- 9) One of the significant features of this design, is that the inductor's current is not related to the value of source voltage (except in the 2nd and 6th mode) as usually happens in PFC circuits. This advantage can be utilized in order to reduce the value of (L) into few micro henrys and avoid high V_L values. Consequently, can reduce the size, weight and the cost effectively.
- 10) Practically, the internal capacitor of the used diodes in the circuit would combine with the stray inductors and compose a parasitic resonant frequency (f_p). In order to get rid of the bad effects of (f_p), the rising time (t_r) or the falling time (t_f) can be changed, or alternatively a damper circuit can be added to the circuit or using clamping diodes and that's require additional components and complex design [13].
- 11) The inductor works like a proper choke or current limiter due to the high negative value of inductor voltage (V_L) as its in counter direction of capacitor voltage (V_C).

(L) charges in the time period $t_1 \leq t < t_2$ because $V_s > V_C$. On the other hand, for the time period $t_2 \leq t < t_3$, i_L is zero because L and C are reverse biased. While, for the time period $t_3 \leq t < t_4$, (L) discharges as a positive current because $V_s > V_C$. However, for time period $t_4 \leq t < t_1$ of the next period, L discharges as a negative current because $V_C > V_s$ and the R-load would be fed by i_L which is the same capacitor's current ($i_C = i_L$).

V. CONCLUSION

According to the simulation's results, the new proposed PFC circuit was able to reduce the THD_i to 17% with a unity power factor (0.986) at the input side and increases the efficiency to 98.68%.

The topology of reducing the conduction time of the main capacitor via dividing the waveform into three regions ONOFF-ON, can improve the efficiency, the input PF and reduce the THD_i at the input side.

In addition, preventing the capacitor (C) from work in the middle of the time period for about half of the time will eliminate the third order harmonic and shift the harmonics current to the high frequency region and that's will contribute in reducing the size of magnetics due to the small value of the inductor $20 \mu\text{H}$ which produces a small amount of losses. Accordingly, the small inductor will effectively reduce the size and weight as used just one MOSFET, so the rectifier is not bulky any more, and thats reduces the cost of the converter.

Another advantage of this circuit is that the snubber circuit is not compulsory because of the presence of freewheeling diode. In addition, the design

is considered as a high efficient design due to minimum number and small values of components and simple circuit design due to uses single switch.

The performance of this circuit has a wide range of flexibility because, the output ripple voltage, the input PF and THD_i can be improved via controlling the values of duty cycles of (SW), (L) and (C).

From graphical waveforms and tables of results analysis for different values of R-load, inductor (L), and switching frequency, can be concluded that the increasing of inductor value (L) and R-load values is required in order to get a constant unity power factor, small THD_i and high efficiency.

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Optimal Power Flow using a hybrid Particle Swarm Optimizer with Moth Flame Optimizer

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Abstract- In this work, the most common problem of the modern power system named optimal power flow (OPF) is optimized using the novel hybrid meta-heuristic optimization algorithm Particle Swarm Optimization-Moth Flame Optimizer (HPSO-MFO) method. Hybrid PSO-MFO is a combination of PSO used for exploitation phase and MFO for exploration phase in an uncertain environment. Position and Speed of particle are reorganized according to Moth and flame location in each iteration. The hybrid PSO-MFO method has a fast convergence rate due to the use of roulette wheel selection method. For the OPF solution, standard IEEE-30 bus test system is used. The hybrid PSO-MFO method is implemented to solve the proposed problem. The problems considered in the OPF are fuel cost reduction, Voltage profile improvement, Voltage stability enhancement, Active power loss minimization and Reactive power loss minimization. The results obtained with hybrid PSO-MFO method is compared with other techniques such as Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) and Moth Flame Optimizer (MFO).

Keywords: optimal power flow; voltage stability; power system; hybrid PSO-MFO; constraints.

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Optimal Power Flow using a hybrid Particle Swarm Optimizer with Moth Flame Optimizer

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Abstract- In this work, the most common problem of the modern power system named optimal power flow (OPF) is optimized using the novel hybrid meta-heuristic optimization algorithm Particle Swarm Optimization-Moth Flame Optimizer (HPSO-MFO) method. Hybrid PSO-MFO is a combination of PSO used for exploitation phase and MFO for exploration phase in an uncertain environment. Position and Speed of particle are reorganized according to Moth and flame location in each iteration. The hybrid PSO-MFO method has a fast convergence rate due to the use of roulette wheel selection method. For the OPF solution, standard IEEE-30 bus test system is used. The hybrid PSO-MFO method is implemented to solve the proposed problem. The problems considered in the OPF are fuel cost reduction, Voltage profile improvement, Voltage stability enhancement, Active power loss minimization and Reactive power loss minimization. The results obtained with hybrid PSO-MFO method is compared with other techniques such as Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) and Moth Flame Optimizer (MFO). Results show that hybrid PSO-MFO gives better optimization values as compared with PSO and MFO which verifies the effectiveness of the suggested algorithm.

Keywords: optimal power flow; voltage stability; power system; hybrid PSO-MFO; constraints.

1. INTRODUCTION

At the present time, The Optimal power flow (OPF) is a very significant problem and most focused objective for power system planning and operation [1]. The OPF is the elementary tool which permits the utilities to identify the economic operational and secure states in the system [2]. The OPF problem is one of the utmost operating desires of the electrical power system [3]. The prior function of OPF problem is to evaluate the optimum operational state for Bus system by minimizing each objective function within the limits of the operational constraints like equality constraints and inequality constraints [4]. Hence, the optimal power flow problem can be defined as an extremely non-linear and non-convex multimodal optimization problem [5].

From the past few years too many optimization techniques were used for the solution of the Optimal Power Flow (OPF) problem. Some traditional methods

used to solve the proposed problem have some limitations like converging at local optima and so they are not suitable for binary or integer problems or to deal with the lack of convexity, differentiability, and continuity [6]. Hence, these techniques are not suitable for the actual OPF situation. All these limitations are overcome by metaheuristic optimization methods. Some of these methods are [7-10]: genetic algorithm (GA) [11], hybrid genetic algorithm (HGA) [12], enhanced genetic algorithm (EGA) [13-14], differential evolution algorithm (DEA) [15-16], artificial neural network (ANN) [17], particle swarm optimization algorithm (PSO) [18], tabu search algorithm (TSA) [19], gravitational search algorithm (GSA) [20], biogeography based optimization (BBO) [21], harmony search algorithm (HSA) [22], krill herd algorithm (KHA) [23], cuckoo search algorithm (CSA) [24], ant colony algorithm (ACO) [25], bat optimization algorithm (BOA) [26], Ant-lion optimizer (ALO) [27-28] and Multi-Verse optimizer (MVO) [29].

In the present work, a newly introduced hybrid meta-heuristic optimization technique named Hybrid Particle Swarm Optimization-Moth Flame Optimizer (HPSO-MFO) is applied to solve the Optimal Power Flow problem. HPSO-MFO comprises of best characteristic of both Particle Swarm Optimization [30] and Moth-Flame Optimizer [31-32] algorithm. The capabilities of HPSO-MFO are finding the global solution, fast convergence rate due to the use of roulette wheel selection, can handle continuous and discrete optimization problems.

According to No Free Lunch Theorem [27,29,30], particular meta-heuristic algorithm is not best for every problem. So, we considered HPSO-MFO for continues optimal power flow problem based on No Free Lunch Theorem. In this work, the HPSO-MFO is presented to standard IEEE-30 bus test system [33] to solve the OPF [34-37] problem. There are five objective cases considered in this paper that have to be optimize using HPSO-MFO technique are Fuel Cost Reduction, Voltage Stability Improvement, Voltage Deviation Minimization, Active Power Loss Minimization and Reactive Power Loss Minimization. The results show the optimal adjustments of control variables in accordance with their limits. The results obtained using HPSO-MFO technique has been compared with Particle Swarm Optimisation (PSO) and Moth Flame Optimizer (MFO) techniques. The results show that HPSO-MFO gives better optimization values as compared to other

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methods which prove the effectiveness of the proposed algorithm.

This paper is summarized as follow: After the first section of the introduction, the second section concentrates on concepts and key steps of standard PSO and MFO techniques and the proposed Hybrid PSO-MFO technique. The third section presents the formulation of Optimal Power Flow problem. Next, we apply HPSO-MFO to solve OPF problem on IEEE-30 bus system in order to optimize the operating conditions of the power system. Finally, the results and conclusion are drawn in the last section.

II. STANDARD PSO AND STANDARD MFO

a) Particle Swarm Optimization

The particle swarm optimization algorithm (PSO) was discovered by James Kennedy and Russell C. Eberhart in 1995 [30]. This algorithm is inspired by the simulation of social psychological expression of birds and fishes. PSO includes two terms P_{best} and G_{best} . Position and velocity are updated over the course of iteration from these mathematical equations:

$$v_{ij}^{t+1} = wv_{ij}^t + c_1R_1(P_{best}^t - X^t) + c_2R_2(G_{best}^t - X^t) \quad (1)$$

$$X^{t+1} = X^t + v^{t+1} \quad (i = 1, 2 \dots NP) \text{ And } (j = 1, 2 \dots NG) \quad (2)$$

Where

$$w = w^{\max} - \frac{(w^{\max} - w^{\min}) * \text{iteration}}{\max \text{ iteration}}, \quad (3)$$

$w^{\max} = 0.4$ and $w^{\min} = 0.9$.

v_{ij}^t , v_{ij}^{t+1} is the velocity of a_j^{th} member of an n^{th} particle at iteration number (t) and ($t+1$). (Usually $C_1 = C_2 = 2$), r_1 and r_2 Random number (0, 1).

b) Moth-Flame Optimizer

A novel nature-inspired Moth-Flame optimization algorithm [31] based on the transverse orientation of Moths in space. Transverse orientation for navigation uses a constant angle by Moths with respect to Moon to fly in straight direction in night. In MFO algorithm that Moths fly around flames in a Logarithmic spiral way and finally converges towards the flame. Spiral way expresses the exploration area and it guarantees to exploit the optimum solution [31]:

Moth-Flame optimizer is first introduced by Seyedali Mirjalili in 2015 [31]. MFO is a population - based algorithm; we represent the set of moths in a matrix:

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} m_{1,1} & m_{1,2} & \dots & m_{1,d} \\ m_{2,1} & m_{2,2} & \dots & m_{2,d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ m_{n,1} & m_{n,2} & \dots & m_{n,d} \end{bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

Where n represents a number of moths and d represents a number of variables (dimension).

For all the moths, we also assume that there is an array for storing the corresponding fitness values as follows:

$$OM = \begin{bmatrix} OM_1 \\ OM_2 \\ \vdots \\ OM_n \end{bmatrix} \quad (5)$$

Where n is the number of moths.

Note that the fitness value is the return value of the fitness (objective) function for each moth. The position vector (first row in the matrix M for instance) of each moth is passed to the fitness function and the output of the fitness function is assigned to the corresponding moth as its fitness function (OM_i in the matrix OM for instance).

Other key components in the proposed algorithm are flames. We consider a matrix similar to the moth matrix [31]:

$$F = \begin{bmatrix} FL_{1,1} & FL_{1,2} & \dots & FL_{1,d} \\ FL_{2,1} & FL_{2,2} & \dots & FL_{2,d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ FL_{n,1} & FL_{n,2} & \dots & FL_{n,d} \end{bmatrix} \quad (6)$$

Where n shows a number of moths and d represents a number of variables (dimension).

We know that the dimension of M and F arrays are equal. For the flames, we also assume that there is an array for storing the corresponding fitness values [31]:

$$OF = \begin{bmatrix} OFL_1 \\ OFL_2 \\ \vdots \\ OFL_n \end{bmatrix} \quad (7)$$

Where n is the number of moths.

Here, it must be noted that moths and flames both are solutions. The variance among them is the manner we treat and update them, in the iteration. The moths are genuine search agents that move all over the search space while flames are the finest location of moths that achieves so far. Therefore, every moth searches around a flame and updates it in the case of discovering an enhanced solution. With this mechanism, a moth never loses its best solution.

The MFO algorithm is three rows that approximate the global solution of the problems defined like as follows [31]:

$$\text{MFO} = (\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{P}, \mathbf{T}) \quad (8)$$

I is the function that yields an uncertain population of moths and corresponding fitness values. The methodical model of this function is as follows:

$$I: \phi \rightarrow \{M, OM\} \quad (9)$$

The P function, which is the main function, expresses the moths all over the search space. This function receives the matrix of M and takes back its updated one at every time with each iteration.

$$P: M \rightarrow M \quad (10)$$

The T returns true and false according to the termination Criterion satisfaction:

$$T: M \rightarrow \{true, false\} \quad (11)$$

In order to mathematical model this behavior, we change the location of each Moth regarding a flame with the following equation:

$$M_i = S(M_i, F_j) \quad (12)$$

Where M_i indicate the i^{th} moth, F_j indicates the j^{th} flame and S is the spiral function.

In this equation flame $FL_{n,d}(\text{search agent} * \text{dimension})$ of equation (6) modifies the moth matrix of equation (12).

Considering these points, we define a log (logarithmic scale) spiral for the MFO algorithm as follows [31]:

$$S(M_i, F_j) = D_i * e^{bt} \cos(2\pi t) + F_j \quad (13)$$

Where: D_i expresses the distance of the moth for the j^{th} flame, b is a constant for expressing the shape of the log (logarithmic) spiral, and t is a random value in $[-1, 1]$.

$$D_i = |F_j - M_i| \quad (14)$$

Where: M_i represent the i^{th} moth, F_j represents the j^{th} flame, and where D_i expresses the path length of the i^{th} moth for the j^{th} flame.

The no. of flames are adaptively reduced with the iterations. We use the following formulation:

$$\text{flame no} = \text{round}\left(N - l * \frac{N-1}{T}\right) \quad (15)$$

Where l is the present number of iteration, N is the maximum number of flames, and T shows the maximum number of iterations.

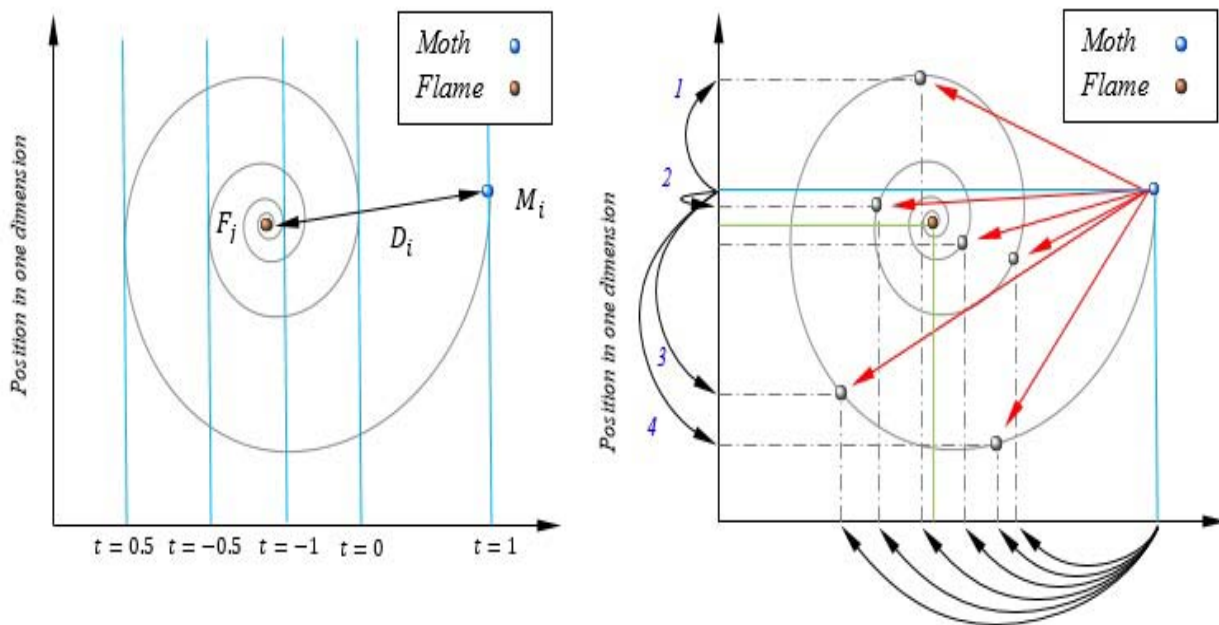


Fig. 1: A conceptual model of position updating of a moth around a flame

We utilize Quick sort algorithm, the sorting is in the $O(n \log n)$ best and $O(n^2)$ worst condition,

respectively. Considering the P function, so, total computational complexity is defined as follows:

$$O(MFO) = O(t(O(\text{Quick sort}) + O(\text{position update}))) \quad O(MFO) = O(t(n^2 + n * d)) = O(tn^2 + tnd) \quad (16)$$

Where n shows a number of moths, t represents maximum no. of iterations, and d represents no. of variables.

c) The Hybrid PSO-MFO Algorithm

The drawback of PSO is the limitation to cover small search space while solving higher order or complex design problem due to constant inertia weight. This problem can be tackled with Hybrid PSO-MFO as it extracts the quality characteristics of both PSO and MFO. Moth-Flame Optimizer is used for exploration phase as it uses logarithmic spiral function so it covers a broader area in uncertain search space. Because both of the algorithms are randomization techniques so we use term uncertain search space during the computation over the course of iteration from starting to maximum iteration limit. Exploration phase means the capability of an algorithm to try out a large number of possible solutions. The position of particle that is

responsible for finding the optimum solution to the complex non-linear problem is replaced with the position of Moths that is equivalent to the position of the particle but highly efficient to move solution towards optimal one. MFO directs the particles faster towards optimal value, reduces computational time. As we know that that PSO is a well-known algorithm that exploits the best possible solution for its unknown search space. So the combination of best characteristic (exploration with MFO and exploitation with PSO) guarantees to obtain the best possible optimal solution of the problem that also avoids local stagnation or local optima of the problem.

A set of Hybrid PSO-MFO is the combination of separate PSO and MFO. Hybrid PSO-MFO merges the best strength of both PSO in exploitation and MFO in exploration phase towards the targeted optimum solution.

$$v_{ij}^{t+1} = wv_{ij}^t + c_1 R_1 (\text{Moth_Pos}^t - X^t) + c_2 R_2 (Gbest^t - X^t) \quad (17)$$

III. OPTIMAL POWER FLOW PROBLEM FORMULATION

As specified before, OPF is the optimized problem of power flow that provides the optimum values

of independent variables by optimizing a predefined objective function with respect to the operating bounds of the system [1]. The OPF problem can be mathematically expressed as a non-linear constrained optimization problem as follows [1]:

$$\text{Minimize } f(a,b) \quad (18)$$

$$\text{Subject to } s(a,b)=0 \quad (19)$$

$$\text{And } h(a,b)\leq 0 \quad (20)$$

Where, a =vector of state variables, b =vector of control variables, $f(a,b)$ =objective function, $s(a,b)$ =different equality constraints set, $h(a,b)$ =different inequality constraints set.

The evaluation function for the OPF problem is given as follows:

$$\text{Evaluation Function} = \text{Search Agents} * \text{Maximum Iterations} = 40*500 = 20000$$

a) Variables

i. Control variables

The control variables should be adjusted to fulfill the power flow equations. For the OPF problem, the set for control variables can be formulated as [1], [4]:

$$b^T = [P_{G_2} \dots P_{G_{N_{Gen}}}, V_{G_1} \dots V_{G_{N_{Gen}}}, Q_{C_1} \dots Q_{C_{N_{Com}}}, T_1 \dots T_{N_{Tr}}] \quad (21)$$

Where,

P_G = Real power output at the PV(Generator) buses excluding at the slack (Reference) bus.

V_G = Magnitude of Voltage at PV (Generator) buses.

Q_C = shunt VAR compensation.

T = tap settings of the transformer.

N_{Gen} , N_{Tr} , N_{Com} = No. of generator units, No. of tap changing transformers and No. of shunt VAR compensation devices, respectively.

The control variables are the decision variables of the power system which could be adjusted as per the requirement.

ii. State variables

There is a need of variables for all OPF formulations for the characterization of the Electrical Power Engineering state of the system. So, the state variables can be formulated as [1], [4]:

$$a^T = [P_{G_1}, V_{L_1} \dots V_{L_{NLB}}, Q_{G_1} \dots Q_{G_{N_{Gen}}}, S_{l_1} \dots S_{l_{N_{line}}}] \quad (22)$$

Where,

P_{G_1} = Real power generation at reference bus.

V_L = Magnitude of Voltage at Loadbuses.

Q_G = Reactive power generation of all generators.

S_l = Transmission line loading.

NLB , $Nline$ = No. of PQ buses and the No. of transmission lines, respectively.

b) Constraints

There are two OPF constraints named inequality and equality constraints. These constraints are explained in the sections given below.

i. Equality constraints

The physical condition of the power system is described by the equality constraints of the system. These equality constraints are basically the power flow equations which can be explained as follows [1], [4].

a. Real power constraints

The real power constraints can be formulated as follows:

$$P_{Gi} - P_{Di} - V_i \sum_{j=1}^{NB} V_j [G_{ij} \cos(\delta_{ij}) + B_{ij} \sin(\delta_{ij})] = 0 \quad (23)$$

b. Reactive power constraints

The reactive power constraints can be formulated as follows:

$$Q_{Gi} - Q_{Di} - V_i \sum_{j=1}^{NB} V_j [G_{ij} \sin(\delta_{ij}) - B_{ij} \cos(\delta_{ij})] = 0 \quad (24)$$

Where, $\delta_{ij} = \delta_i - \delta_j$ is the phase angle of voltage between buses i and j. NB = total No. of buses, P_G = real power output, Q_G = reactive power output, P_D = active power load demand, Q_D = reactive power load demand, B_{ij} and G_{ij} = elements of the admittance matrix $Y_{ij} = (G_{ij} + jB_{ij})$ shows the susceptance and conductance between bus i and j, respectively, Y_{ij} is the mutual admittance between buses i and j.

ii. Inequality constraints

The boundaries of power system devices together with the bounds created to surety system security are given by inequality constraints of the OPF [4], [5].

a. Generator constraints

For all generating units including the reference bus: voltage magnitude, real power and reactive power

outputs should be constrained within its minimum and maximum bounds as given below [27]:

$$V_{G_i}^{lower} \leq V_{G_i} \leq V_{G_i}^{upper}, i=1, \dots, NGen \quad (25)$$

$$P_{G_i}^{lower} \leq P_{G_i} \leq P_{G_i}^{upper}, i=1, \dots, NGen \quad (26)$$

$$Q_{G_i}^{lower} \leq Q_{G_i} \leq Q_{G_i}^{upper}, i=1, \dots, NGen \quad (27)$$

b. Transformer constraints

Tap settings of transformer should be constrained inside their stated minimum and maximum bounds as follows [27]:

$$T_{G_i}^{lower} \leq T_{G_i} \leq T_{G_i}^{upper}, i=1, \dots, NGen \quad (28)$$

c. Shunt VAR compensator constraints

Shunt VAR compensation devices need to be constrained within its minimum and maximum bounds as given below [27]:

$$Q_{C_i}^{lower} \leq Q_{C_i} \leq Q_{C_i}^{upper}, i=1, \dots, NGen \quad (29)$$

d. Security constraints

These comprise the limits of a magnitude of the voltage at PQ buses and loadings on the transmission line. Voltage for every PQ bus should be limited by their minimum and maximum operational bounds. Line flow over each line should not exceed its maximum loading limit. So, these limitations can be mathematically expressed as follows [27]:

$$V_{L_i}^{lower} \leq V_{L_i} \leq V_{L_i}^{upper}, i=1, \dots, NGen \quad (30)$$

$$S_{l_i} \leq S_{l_i}^{upper}, i=1, \dots, Nline \quad (31)$$

The control variables are self-constraint. The inequality constrained of state variables comprises the magnitude of PQ bus voltage, active power production at reference bus, reactive power production and loadings on line may be encompassed into an objective function in terms of quadratic penalty terms. In which, the penalty factor is multiplied by the square of the indifference value of state variables and is included in the objective function and any impractical result achieved is declined [27].

Penalty function may be mathematically formulated as follows:

$$J_{aug} = J + \partial_P (P_{G_1} - P_{G_1}^{lim})^2 + \partial_V \sum_{i=1}^{NLB} (V_{L_i} - V_{L_i}^{lim})^2 + \partial_Q \sum_{i=1}^{NGen} (Q_{G_i} - Q_{G_i}^{lim})^2 + \partial_S \sum_{i=0}^{Nline} (S_{l_i} - S_{l_i}^{max})^2 \quad (32)$$

Where, $\partial_P, \partial_V, \partial_Q, \partial_S$ = penalty factors

U_{lim} = Boundary value of the state variable U.

If U is greater than the maximum limit, U_{lim} takings the value of this one, if U is lesser than the

minimum limit U_{lim} taking the value of that limit. This can be shown as follows [27]:

$$U^{lim} = \begin{cases} U^{upper} & ; U > U^{upper} \\ U^{lower} & ; U < U^{lower} \end{cases} \quad (33)$$

IV. APPLICATION AND RESULTS

The PSO-MFO technique has been implemented for the OPF solution for standard IEEE 30-bus test system and for a number of cases with dissimilar objective functions. The used software program is written in MATLAB R2014b computing surroundings and used on a 2.60 GHz i5 PC with 4 GB RAM. In this work the HPSO-MFO population size is selected to be 40.

a) IEEE 30-bus test system

With the purpose of elucidating the strength of the suggested HPSO-MFO technique, it has been verified on the standard IEEE 30-bus test system as displays in fig. 2. The standard IEEE 30-bus test system selected in this work has the following features[6], [33]: NGen = No. of generators = 6 at buses 1,2,5,8,11 and 13, NTr = No. of regulating transformers having off-nominal tap ratio = 4 between buses 4-12, 6-9, 6-10 and 28-27, NCom = No. of shunt VAR Compensators = 9 at buses 10,12,15,17,20,21,23,24 and 29 and NLB = No. of load buses = 24.

In addition, generator cost coefficient data, the line data, bus data, and the upper and lower bounds for the control variables are specified in [33].

In given test system, five diverse cases have been considered for various purposes and all the acquired outcomes are given in Tables 3, 5, 7, 9, 11. The very first column of this tables denotes the optimal values of control variables found where:

- P_{G1} through P_{G6} and V_{G1} through V_{G6} signifies the power and voltages of generator 1 to generator 6.
- T_{4-12} , T_{6-9} , T_{6-10} and T_{28-27} are the transformer tap settings comprised between buses 4-12, 6-9, 6-10 and 28-27.
- Q_{C10} , Q_{C12} , Q_{C15} , Q_{C17} , Q_{C20} , Q_{C21} , Q_{C23} , Q_{C24} and Q_{C29} denote the shunt VAR compensators coupled at buses 10, 12, 15, 17, 20, 21, 23, 24 and 29.

Further, fuel cost (\$/hr), real power losses (MW), reactive power losses (MVAR), voltage deviation and L_{max} represent the total generation fuel cost of the system, the total real power losses, the total reactive power losses, the load voltages deviation from 1 and the stability index, respectively. Other particulars for these outcomes will be specified in the next sections.

The control parameters for HPSO-MFO, MFO, PSO used in this problem are given in table 1.

In table 1, no. of variables (dim) shows the six no. of generators used in the 30 bus system. It gives the optimization values for different cases as they depends on the decision variables. In all 5 cases, results are the average value obtained after 10 number of runs.

Table 1: Control parameters used in PSO-MFO, MFO and PSO

Sr. No.	Parameters	Value
1	Population (No. of Search agents) (N)	40
2	Maximum iterations count (t)	500
3	No. of Variables (dim)	25
4	Random Number	[0,1]
5	source acceleration coefficient (c_1 , c_2)	2
6	weighting function (w)	0.65

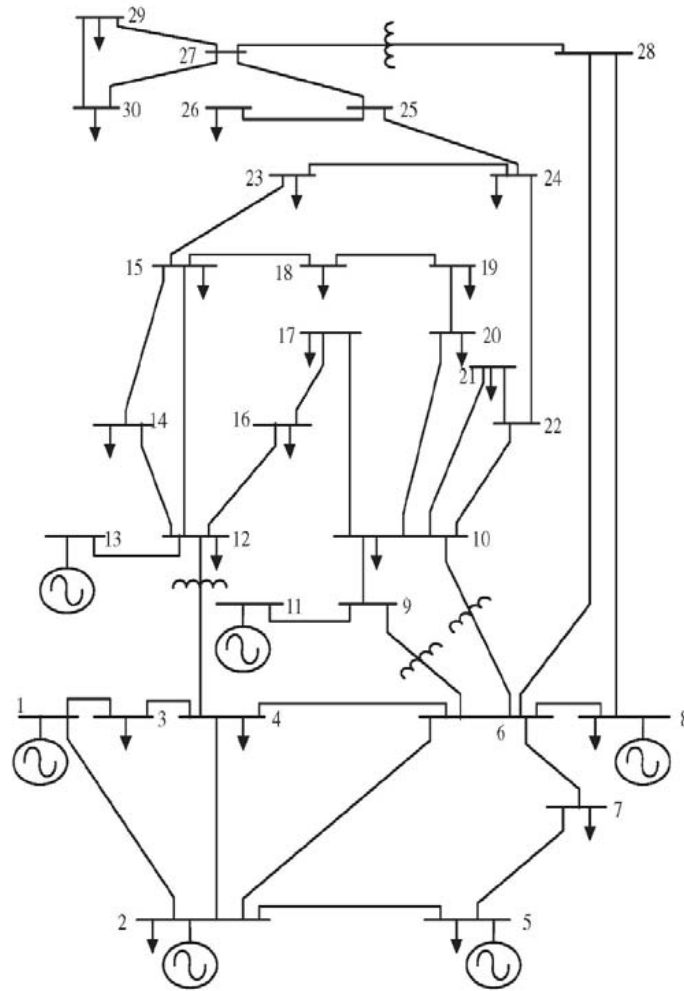


Fig. 2: Single line diagram of IEEE 30-bus test system

Case 1: Minimization of generation fuel cost.

The very common OPF objective that is generation fuel cost reduction is considered in the case 1. Therefore, the objective function Y indicates the complete fuel cost of total generating units and it is calculated by following equation [1]:

$$Y = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{Gen}} f_i (\$/hr) \quad (34)$$

Where, f_i is the total fuel cost of i^{th} generator.

f_i , may be formulated as follow:

$$f_i = u_i + v_i P_{Gi} + w_i P_{Gi}^2 (\$/hr) \quad (35)$$

Where, u_i , v_i and w_i are the simple, the linear and the quadratic cost coefficients of the i^{th} generator, respectively. The cost coefficients values are specified in [33].

The variation of the total fuel cost with different algorithms over iterations is presented in fig. 2. It

demonstrates that the suggested method has outstanding convergence characteristics. The comparison of fuel cost obtained with different methods is shown in table 2 which displays that the results obtained by PSO-MFO are better than the other methods. The optimal values of control variables obtained by different algorithms for case 1 are specified in Table 3. By means of the same settings i.e. control variables boundaries, initial conditions and system data, the results achieved in case 1 with the PSO-MFO technique are compared to some other methods and it display that the total fuel cost is greatly reduced compared to the initial case [6]. Quantitatively, it is reduced from 901.951\$/hr to 799.056\$/hr.

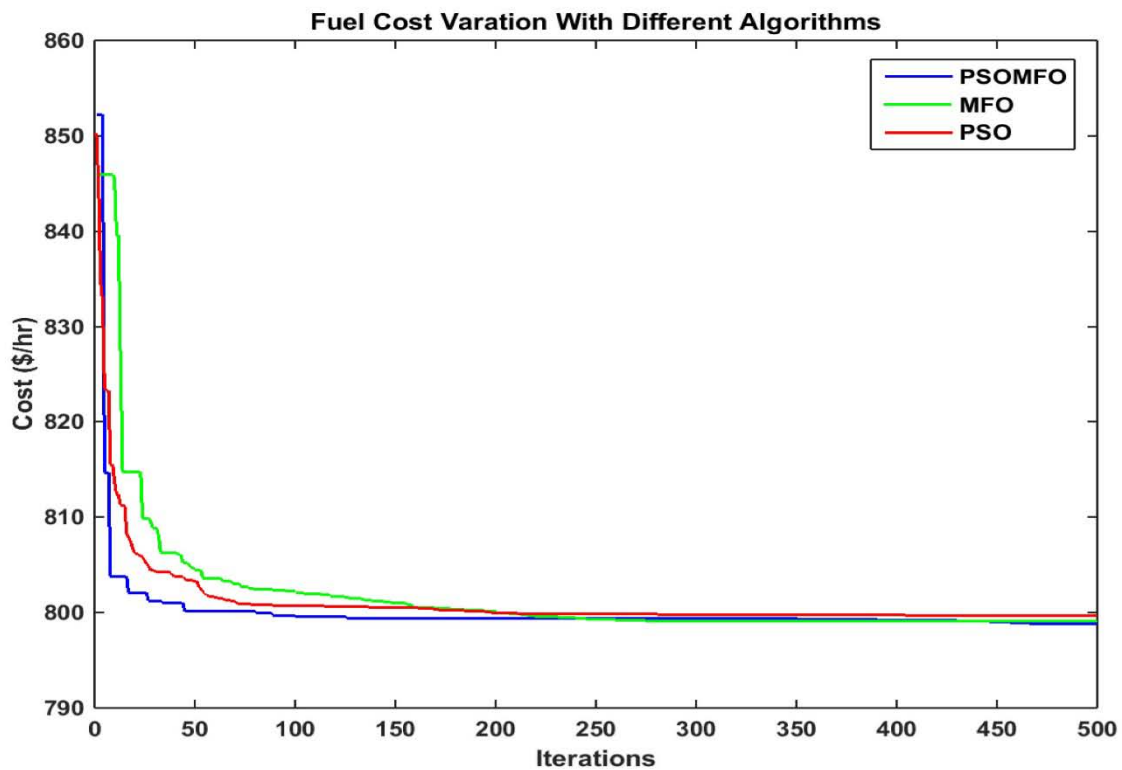


Fig. 3: Fuel cost variations with different algorithms

Table 2: Comparison of fuel cost obtained with different algorithms

Method	Fuel Cost (\$/hr)	Method Description
HPSO-MFO	799.056	Hybrid Particle Swarm Optimization-Moth Flame Optimizer
MFO	799.072	Moth Flame Optimizer
PSO	799.704	Particle Swarm Optimization
DE	799.289	Differential Evolution [15]
BHBO	799.921	Black Hole-Based Optimization [6]

Table 3: Optimal values of control variables for case 1 with different algorithms

Control Variable	Min	Max	Initial	HPSO-MFO	MFO	PSO
P_{G1}	50	200	99.2230	178.133	177.055	177.105
P_{G2}	20	80	80	48.956	48.698	48.748
P_{G5}	15	50	50	21.385	21.304	21.318
P_{G8}	10	35	20	21.706	21.084	20.986
P_{G11}	10	30	20	10.000	11.883	12.049
P_{G13}	12	40	20	12.000	12.000	12.000
V_{G1}	0.95	1.1	1.05	1.100	1.100	1.100
V_{G2}	0.95	1.1	1.04	1.088	1.088	1.088
V_{G5}	0.95	1.1	1.01	1.062	1.062	1.061
V_{G8}	0.95	1.1	1.01	1.070	1.069	1.070
V_{G11}	0.95	1.1	1.05	1.100	1.100	1.100
V_{G13}	0.95	1.1	1.05	1.100	1.100	1.100
T_{4-12}	0	1.1	1.078	0.939	1.044	0.976
T_{6-9}	0	1.1	1.069	1.100	0.900	0.975

T_{6-10}	0	1.1	1.032	1.021	0.985	1.015
T_{28-27}	0	1.1	1.068	0.978	0.965	0.966
QC_{10}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	2.353
QC_{12}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	5.000
QC_{15}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	0.000
QC_{17}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	0.689
QC_{20}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	0.003
QC_{21}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	5.000
QC_{23}	0	5	0	5.000	4.999	0.000
QC_{24}	0	5	0	0.000	5.000	0.000
QC_{29}	0	5	0	3.033	2.725	0.000
Fuel Cost(\$/hr)	-	-	901.951	799.056	799.072	799.704

Case 2: Voltage profile improvement

Bus voltage is considered as most essential and important security and service excellence indices [6]. Here the goal is to reduce the fuel cost and increase voltage profile simultaneously by reducing the voltage deviation of PQ (load) buses from the unity 1.0 p.u.

Hence, the objective function may be formulated by following equation [4]:

$$Y = Y_{\text{cost}} + wY_{\text{voltage-deviation}} \quad (36)$$

Where, w is an appropriate weighting factor, to be chosen by the user to offer a weight or importance to each one of the two terms of the objective function.

Y_{cost} and $Y_{\text{voltage-deviation}}$ are specified as follows [4]:

$$Y_{\text{cost}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{Gen}}} f_i \quad (37)$$

$$Y_{\text{voltage_deviation}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{Gen}}} |V_i - 1.0| \quad (38)$$

The variation of voltage deviation with different algorithms over iterations is sketched in fig. 3. It demonstrates that the suggested method has good convergence characteristics. The statistical values of voltage deviation obtained with different methods are shown in table 4 which display that the results obtained by PSO-MFO are better than the other methods excluding GSA method. The optimal values of control variables obtained by different algorithms for case 2 are specified in Table 5. By means of the same settings the results achieved in case 2 with the PSO-MFO technique are compared to some other methods and it display that the voltage deviation is greatly reduced compared to the initial case [6]. It has been made known that the voltage deviation is reduced from 1.1496 p.u. to 0.1056p.u. using PSO-MFO technique. GSA [2] gives better result than the HPSO-MFO method only in case of voltage deviation among five cases. Due to No Free Lunch (NFL) theorem proves that no one can propose an algorithm for solving all optimization problems. This

means that the success of an algorithm in solving a specific set of problems does not guarantee solving all optimization problems with different type and nature. NFL makes this field of study highly active which results in enhancing current approaches and proposing new meta-heuristics every year. This also motivates our attempts to develop a new Hybrid meta-heuristic for solving OPF Problem.

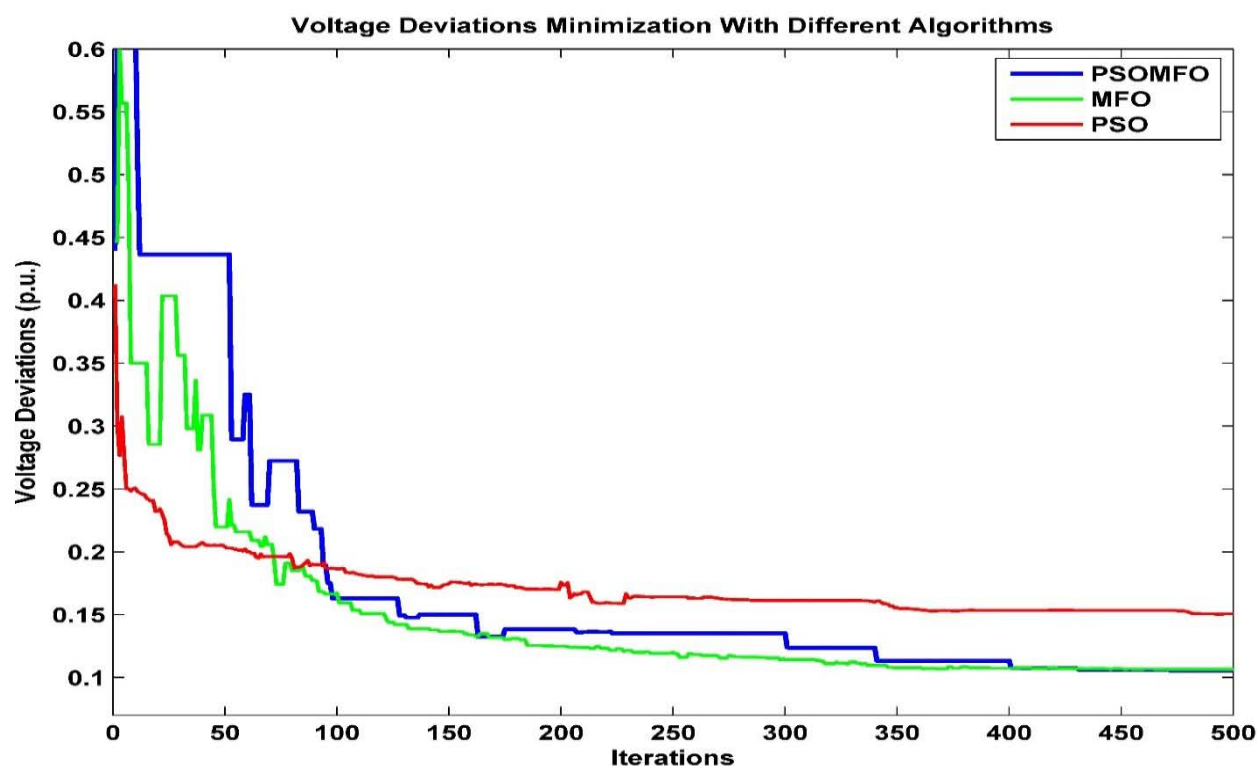


Fig. 4: Voltage deviation minimization with different algorithms

Table 4: Comparison of voltage deviations obtained with different algorithms

Method	Voltage Deviation (p.u)	Method Description
HPSO-MFO	0.1056	Hybrid Particle Swarm Optimization-Moth Flame Optimizer
MFO	0.1065	Moth Flame Optimizer
PSO	0.1506	Particle Swarm Optimization
GSA	0.0932	Gravitational Search Algorithm [2]
DE	0.1357	Differential Evolution [15]
BHBO	0.1262	Black Hole- Based Optimization [6]

Table 5: Optimal values of control variables for case 2 with different algorithms

Control Variable	Min	Max	Initial	HPSO-MFO	MFO	PSO
P_{G1}	50	200	99.2230	177.650	180.212	175.922
P_{G2}	20	80	80	49.092	49.584	46.389
P_{G5}	15	50	50	15.000	15.000	21.597
P_{G8}	10	35	20	10.000	24.349	19.396
P_{G11}	10	30	20	30.000	12.657	17.656
P_{G13}	12	40	20	12.000	12.000	12.000
V_{G1}	0.95	1.1	1.05	1.033	1.033	1.047
V_{G2}	0.95	1.1	1.04	1.017	1.017	1.034
V_{G5}	0.95	1.1	1.01	1.015	1.005	0.999
V_{G8}	0.95	1.1	1.01	0.997	0.999	1.005
V_{G11}	0.95	1.1	1.05	1.047	1.071	0.999
V_{G13}	0.95	1.1	1.05	1.016	1.052	1.018
T_{4-12}	0	1.1	1.078	1.065	1.100	0.954
T_{6-9}	0	1.1	1.069	0.914	0.900	0.969
T_{6-10}	0	1.1	1.032	0.973	1.072	0.989

T_{28-27}	0	1.1	1.068	0.960	0.960	0.960
QC_{10}	0	5	0	4.080	5.000	3.948
QC_{12}	0	5	0	0.165	0.000	1.765
QC_{15}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	4.844
QC_{17}	0	5	0	5.000	0.000	3.075
QC_{20}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	4.687
QC_{21}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	4.948
QC_{23}	0	5	0	0.000	5.000	1.623
QC_{24}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	3.559
QC_{29}	0	5	0	2.248	1.315	2.034
Vd	-	-	1.1496	0.1056	0.1065	0.1506

Case 3: Voltage stability enhancement

Presently, the transmission systems are enforced to work nearby their safety bounds, because of cost-effective and environmental causes. One of the significant characteristics of the system is its capability to retain continuously tolerable bus voltages to each node beneath standard operational environments, next to the rise in load, as soon as the system is being affected by disturbance. The unoptimized control variables may cause increasing and unmanageable voltage drop causing a tremendous voltage collapse [6]. Hence, voltage stability is inviting ever more attention. By using various techniques to evaluate the margin of voltage stability, Glavitch and Kessel have introduced a voltage stability index called L-index depends on the viability of load flow equations for every node [34]. The L-index of a bus shows the probability of voltage collapse circumstance for that particular bus. It differs between 0 and 1 equivalent to zero load and voltage collapse, respectively.

For the given system with NB , $N\ Gen$ and NLB buses signifying the total no. of buses, the total no. of generator buses and the total no. of load buses, respectively. The buses can be distinct as PV (generator) buses at the head and PQ (load) buses at the tail as follows [4]:

$$\begin{bmatrix} I_L \\ I_G \end{bmatrix} = [Y_{bus}] \begin{bmatrix} V_L \\ V_G \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Y_{LL} & Y_{LG} \\ Y_{GL} & Y_{GG} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_L \\ V_G \end{bmatrix} \quad (39)$$

Where, Y_{LL} , Y_{LG} , Y_{GL} and Y_{GG} are co-matrix of Y_{bus} . The subsequent hybrid system of equations can be expressed as:

$$\begin{bmatrix} V_L \\ I_G \end{bmatrix} = [H] \begin{bmatrix} I_L \\ V_G \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} H_{LL} & H_{LG} \\ H_{GL} & H_{GG} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} I_L \\ V_G \end{bmatrix} \quad (40)$$

Where matrix H is produced by the partially inverting of Y_{bus} , H_{LL} , H_{LG} , H_{GL} and H_{GG} are the co-matrix of H , V_G , I_G , V_L and I_L are voltage and current vector of Generator buses and load buses, respectively.

The matrix H is given by:

$$[H] = \begin{bmatrix} Z_{LL} & -Z_{LL}Y_{LG} \\ Y_{GL}Z_{LL} & Y_{GG} - Y_{GL}Z_{LL}Y_{LG} \end{bmatrix} \quad Z_{LL} = Y_{LL}^{-1} \quad (41)$$

Hence, the L-index denoted by L_j of bus j is represented as follows:

$$L_j = \left| 1 - \sum_{i=1}^{N_{Gen}} H_{LGji} \frac{V_i}{V_j} \right| \quad j=1,2,\dots,NL \quad (42)$$

Hence, the stability of the whole system is described by a global indicator L_{max} which is given by [6],

$$L_{max} = \max(L_j) \quad j=1,2,\dots,NL \quad (43)$$

The system is more stable as the value of L_{max} is lower.

The voltage stability can be enhanced by reducing the value of voltage stability indicator L -index at every bus of the system. [6].

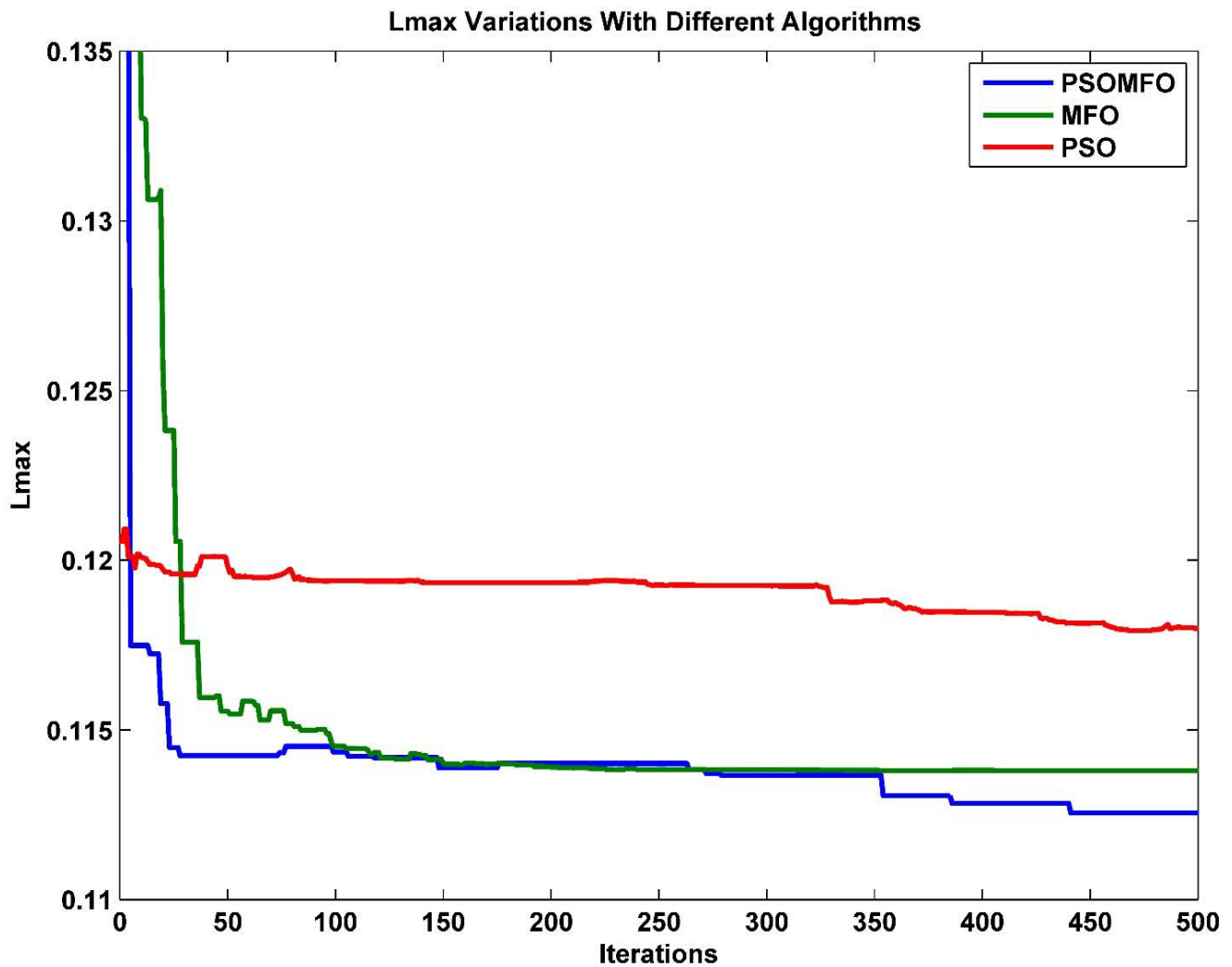
Thus, the objective function may be given as follows:

$$Y = Y_{cost} + wY_{voltage_Stability_Enhancement} \quad (44)$$

$$\text{Where,} \quad Y_{cost} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{Gen}} f_i \quad (45)$$

$$Y_{voltage_stability_enhancement} = L_{max} \quad (46)$$

The variation of the L_{max} index with different algorithms over iterations is presented in fig. 4. The statistical results obtained with different methods are shown in table 6 which display that PSO-MFO method gives better results than the other methods. The optimal values of control variables obtained by different algorithms for case 3 are given in Table 7. After applying the PSO-MFO technique, it appears from Table 7 that the value of L_{max} is considerably decreased in this case compared to initial [6] from 0.1723 to 0.1126. Thus, the distance from breakdown point is improved.

Fig. 5: $L_{\max}$ variations with different algorithmsTable 6: Comparison of $L_{\max}$ index obtained with different algorithms

Method	$L_{\max}$	Method Description
HPSO-MFO	0.1126	Hybrid Particle Swarm Optimization-Moth Flame Optimizer
MFO	0.1138	Moth Flame Optimizer
PSO	0.1180	Particle Swarm Optimization
GSA	0.1162	Gravitational Search Algorithm [2]
DE	0.1219	Differential Evolution [15]
BHBO	0.1167	Black Hole- Based Optimization [6]

Table 7: Optimal values of control variables for case 3 with different algorithms

Control Variable	Min	Max	Initial	HPSO-MFO	MFO	PSO
P_{G1}	50	200	99.2230	182.308	177.299	158.331
P_{G2}	20	80	80	45.360	48.792	49.050
P_{G5}	15	50	50	21.109	21.316	18.956
P_{G8}	10	35	20	21.557	20.351	31.224
P_{G11}	10	30	20	10.000	12.370	15.906
P_{G13}	12	40	20	12.000	12.012	17.801
V_{G1}	0.95	1.1	1.05	1.100	1.100	1.098

V_{G2}	0.95	1.1	1.04	1.086	1.089	1.090
V_{G5}	0.95	1.1	1.01	1.063	1.063	1.043
V_{G8}	0.95	1.1	1.01	1.077	1.055	1.058
V_{G11}	0.95	1.1	1.05	1.100	1.100	1.081
V_{G13}	0.95	1.1	1.05	1.098	1.100	1.100
T_{4-12}	0	1.1	1.078	1.034	0.996	0.900
T_{6-9}	0	1.1	1.069	0.900	0.900	1.007
T_{6-10}	0	1.1	1.032	0.973	0.964	1.071
T_{28-27}	0	1.1	1.068	0.968	0.955	0.933
QC_{10}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	3.286
QC_{12}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	1.221
QC_{15}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	4.601
QC_{17}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	1.082
QC_{20}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	0.444
QC_{21}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	0.399
QC_{23}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	2.446
QC_{24}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	4.753
QC_{29}	0	5	0	5.000	4.984	3.887
L_{max}	-	-	0.1723	0.1126	0.1138	0.1180

Case 4: Minimization of active power transmission losses

In the case 4 the Optimal Power Flow objective is to reduce the active power transmission losses, which can be represented by power balance equation as follows [6]:

$$J = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{Gen}} P_i = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{Gen}} P_{Gi} - \sum_{i=1}^{N_{Gen}} P_{Di} \quad (47)$$

Fig. 5 show the tendency for reducing the total real power losses objective function using the different techniques. The active power losses obtained with

different techniques are shown in table 8 which made sense that the results obtained by PSO-MFO give better values than the other methods. The optimal values of control variables obtained by different algorithms for case 4 are displayed in Table 9. By means of the same settings the results achieved in case 4 with the PSO-MFO technique are compared to some other methods and it display that the real power transmission losses are greatly reduced compared to the initial case [6] from 5.821 MW to 2.831 MW.

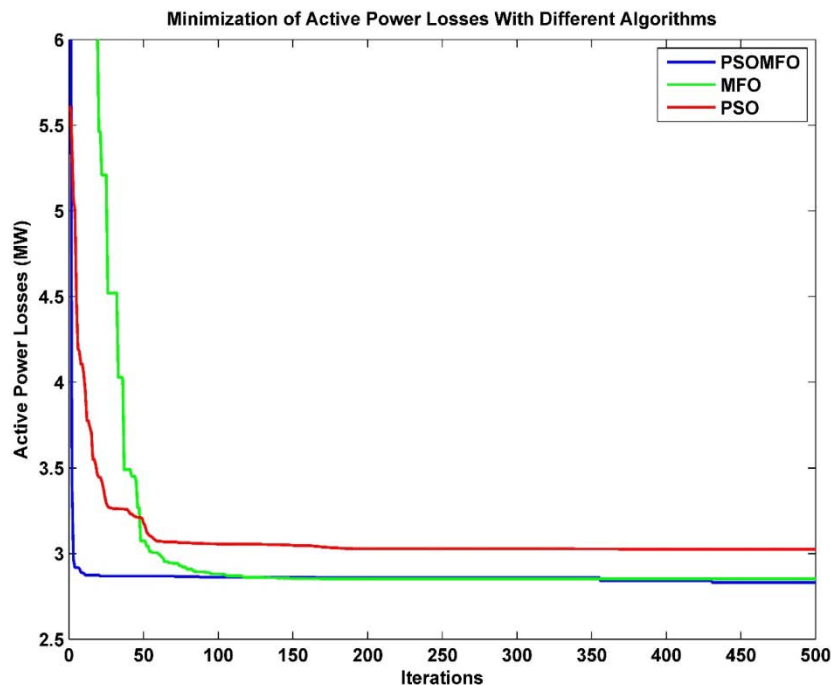


Fig. 6: Minimization of active power losses with different algorithms

Table 8: Comparison of active power transmission losses obtained with different algorithms

Method	Active Power Loss (MW)	Method Description
HPSO-MFO	2.831	Hybrid Particle Swarm Optimization-Moth Flame Optimizer
MFO	2.853	Moth Flame Optimizer
PSO	3.026	Particle Swarm Optimization
BHBO	3.503	Black Hole- Based Optimization [6]

Table 9: Optimal values of control variables for case 4 with different algorithms

Control Variable	Min	Max	Initial	HPSO-MFO	MFO	PSO
P_{G1}	50	200	99.2230	51.269	51.253	51.427
P_{G2}	20	80	80	80.000	80.000	80.000
P_{G5}	15	50	50	50.000	50.000	50.000
P_{G8}	10	35	20	35.000	35.000	35.000
P_{G11}	10	30	20	30.000	30.000	30.000
P_{G13}	12	40	20	40.000	40.000	40.000
V_{G1}	0.95	1.1	1.05	1.100	1.100	1.100
V_{G2}	0.95	1.1	1.04	1.100	1.098	1.100
V_{G5}	0.95	1.1	1.01	1.082	1.080	1.083
V_{G8}	0.95	1.1	1.01	1.086	1.087	1.090
V_{G11}	0.95	1.1	1.05	1.100	1.100	1.100
V_{G13}	0.95	1.1	1.05	1.100	1.100	1.100
T_{4-12}	0	1.1	1.078	1.044	1.056	0.977
T_{6-9}	0	1.1	1.069	0.901	0.900	1.100
T_{6-10}	0	1.1	1.032	0.993	0.982	1.100
T_{28-27}	0	1.1	1.068	0.987	0.973	0.998
QC_{10}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	4.065
QC_{12}	0	5	0	4.570	5.000	0.000
QC_{15}	0	5	0	4.969	3.070	5.000
QC_{17}	0	5	0	4.942	5.000	5.000
QC_{20}	0	5	0	4.337	5.000	0.000
QC_{21}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	5.000
QC_{23}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	5.000
QC_{24}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	0.000
QC_{29}	0	5	0	2.412	2.508	0.000
Ploss (MW)	-	-	5.8219	2.831	2.853	3.026

Case 5: Minimization of reactive power transmission losses

The accessibility of reactive power is the main point for static system voltage stability margin to support the transmission of active power from the source to sinks [6].

Thus, the minimization of VAR losses are given by the following expression:

$$J = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{Gen}} Q_i = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{Gen}} Q_{Gi} - \sum_{i=1}^{N_{Gen}} Q_{Di} \quad (48)$$

It is notable that the reactive power losses are not essentially positive. The variation of reactive power losses with different methods shown in fig. 6. It demonstrates that the suggested method has good convergence characteristics. The statistical values of reactive power losses obtained with different methods are shown in table 10 which display that the results obtained by hybrid PSO-MFO method are better than the other methods. The optimal values of control variables obtained by different algorithms for case 5 are

given in Table 11. It is shown that the reactive power losses are greatly reduced compared to the initial case [6] from -4.6066 MVAR to -25.335MVAR using hybrid PSO-MFO method.

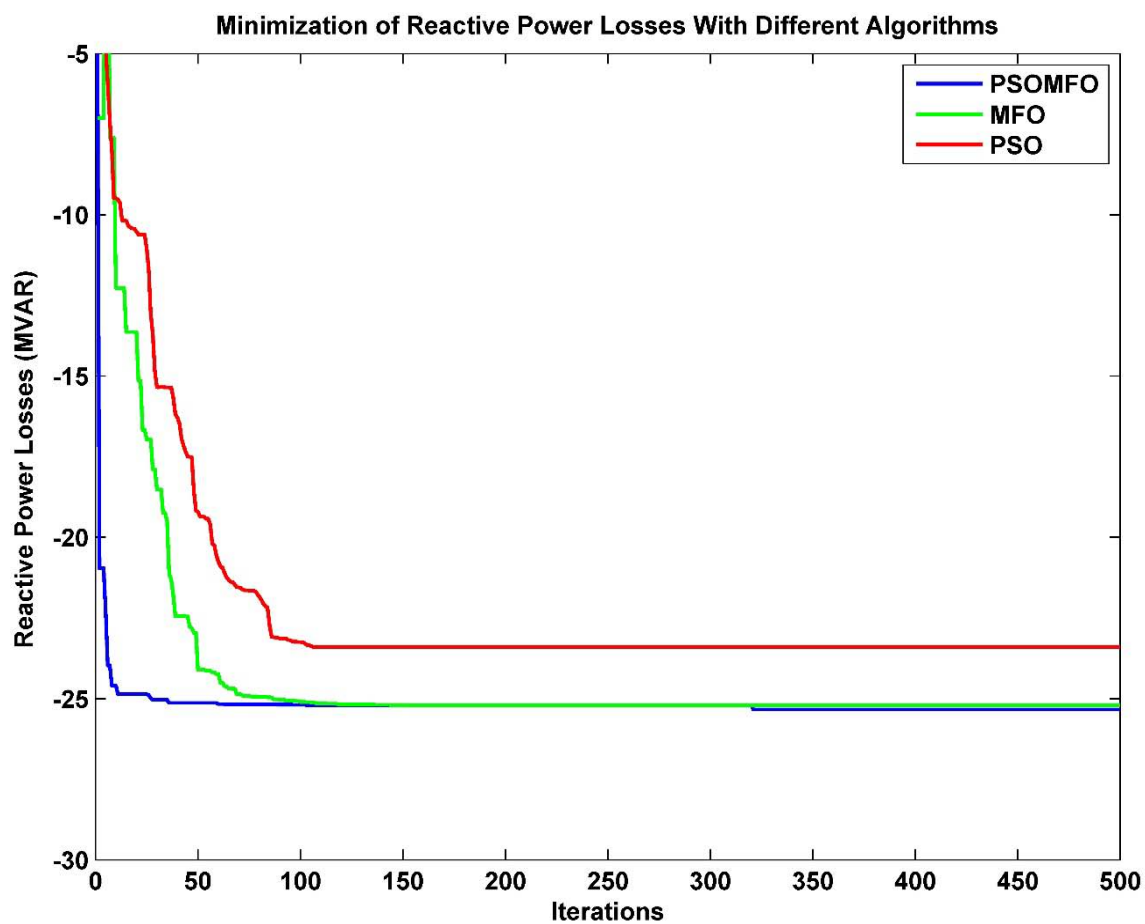


Fig. 7: Minimization of reactive power transmission losses with different algorithms

Table 10: Comparison of reactive power losses obtained with different algorithms

Method	Reactive Power Loss (MVAR)	Method Description
HPSO-MFO	-25.335	Hybrid Particle Swarm Optimization-Moth Flame Optimizer
MFO	-25.204	Moth Flame Optimizer
PSO	-23.407	Particle Swarm Optimization
BHBO	-20.152	Black Hole- Based Optimization [6]

Table 11: Optimal values of control variables for case 5 with different algorithms

Control Variable	Min	Max	Initial	HPSO-MFO	MFO	PSO
P_{G1}	50	200	99.2230	51.318	51.356	51.644
P_{G2}	20	80	80	80.000	80.000	80.000
P_{G5}	15	50	50	50.000	50.000	50.000
P_{G8}	10	35	20	35.000	35.000	35.000
P_{G11}	10	30	20	30.000	30.000	30.000
P_{G13}	12	40	20	40.000	40.000	40.000
V_{G1}	0.95	1.1	1.05	1.100	1.100	1.100
V_{G2}	0.95	1.1	1.04	1.100	1.100	1.100
V_{G5}	0.95	1.1	1.01	1.092	1.092	1.100
V_{G8}	0.95	1.1	1.01	1.100	1.100	1.100
V_{G11}	0.95	1.1	1.05	1.100	1.100	1.100
V_{G13}	0.95	1.1	1.05	1.100	1.100	1.100
T_{4-12}	0	1.1	1.078	1.002	0.974	0.962
T_{6-9}	0	1.1	1.069	0.965	1.100	1.100
T_{6-10}	0	1.1	1.032	0.987	0.984	0.961

T_{28-27}	0	1.1	1.068	0.986	0.981	0.964
QC_{10}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	5.000
QC_{12}	0	5	0	0.000	5.000	0.000
QC_{15}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	0.000
QC_{17}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	0.000
QC_{20}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	0.000
QC_{21}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	0.000
QC_{23}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	0.000
QC_{24}	0	5	0	5.000	5.000	5.000
QC_{29}	0	5	0	3.393	3.407	0.000
QLoss (MVAR)	-	-	-4.6066	-25.335	-25.204	-23.407

Table 12 show the comparison of elapsed time taken by the different methods to optimize the different objective cases. The comparison shows that the time

taken by all three algorithms is not same which indicates the different evaluation strategy of different methods.

Table 12: Comparison of Elapsed time in seconds for MFO, PSO and HPSO-MFO for all cases

Case No.	Elapsed Time (Seconds)		
	MFO	PSO	HPSO-MFO
1	166.2097	250.2674	211.7915
2	191.8238	266.5375	229.6873
3	196.6275	270.3358	243.2919
4	161.6395	248.8739	259.9731
5	173.5987	253.3971	209.4387

V. ROBUSTNESS TEST

In order to check the robustness of the HPSO-MFO for solving continues Optimal Power Flow problems, 10 times trials with various search agents for cases Case 1, Case 2, Case 3, Case 4 and Case 5. Table 2, Table 3, Table 4, Table 5, Table 6, Table 7, Table 8, Table 9, Table 10 and Table 11 presents the statistical results achieved by the HPSO-MFO, MFO and PSO algorithms for OPF problems for various cases. From these tables, it is clear that the optimum objective function values obtained by HPSO-MFO are near to every trial and minimum compare to MFO and PSO algorithms. It proves the robustness of hybrid PSO-MFO algorithm (HPSO-MFO) to solve OPF problem.

VI. CONCLUSION

Particle Swarm Optimization-Moth Flame Optimizer (PSO-MFO), Moth Flame Optimizer and Particle Swarm Optimization Algorithm are successfully applied to standard IEEE 30-bus test systems to solve the optimal power flow problem for the various types of cases. The results give the optimal settings of control variables with different methods which demonstrate the effectiveness of the different techniques. The solutions obtained from the hybrid PSO-MFO method approach has good convergence characteristics and gives the better results compared to MFO and PSO methods which confirm the effectiveness of proposed algorithm.

VII. ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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Detecting Defective Bypass Diodes in Photovoltaic Modules using Mamdani Fuzzy Logic System

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Abstract- In this paper, the development of fault detection method for PV modules defective bypass diodes is presented. Bypass diodes are nowadays used in PV modules in order to enhance the output power production during partial shading conditions. However, there is lack of scientific research which demonstrates the detection of defective bypass diodes in PV systems. Thus, this paper propose a PV bypass diode fault detection classification based on Mamdani fuzzy logic system, which depends on the analysis of V_{drop} , V_{oc} , and I_{sc} obtained from the I-V curve of the examined PV module.

The fuzzy logic system depends on three inputs, namely percentage of voltage drop (PVD), percentage of open circuit voltage (POCV), and the percentage of short circuit current (PSCC). The proposed fuzzy system can detect up to 13 different faults associated with defective and non-defective bypass diodes. In addition, the proposed system was evaluated using two different PV modules under various defective bypass conditions. Finally, in order to investigate the variations of the PV module temperature during defective bypass diodes and partial shading conditions, i5 FLIR thermal camera was used.

Keywords: photovoltaic module, fault detection, fuzzy logic, thermal detection, bypass diodes.

GJRE-F Classification: FOR Code: 290901



DETECTING DEFECTIVE BYPASS DIODES IN PHOTOVOLTAIC MODULES USING MAMDANI FUZZY LOGIC SYSTEM

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Mahmoud Dhimish ^α, Violeta Holmes ^σ, Bruce Mehrdadi ^ρ, Mark Dales ^ω & Peter Mather [¥]

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1. INTRODUCTION

As prices in the photovoltaic (PV) industry have decreased considerably in the last few years, reliability questions have been proportional increased interest. The performance and efficiency of PV modules are affected by several factor such as solar irradiance, ambient temperature, humidity, and wind [1-3]. In addition, several work have studied and evaluated the performance of PV modules under different climate conditions, in particular the effect of sand dust accumulation and partial shading on the output power of PV modules and PV arrays [4 & 5].

In addition, PV modules output power performance could be decreased due to the PV cracks [6 & 7]. As reported in [8], PV cracks occur in PV solar cells due to partial shading conditions affecting some solar cells while the rest are under normal operation mode, also it might occur due to the dust and hot spots

in PV modules. To solve this problem in PV modules, a bypass diodes connection to the PV strings is recommended.

As a result of these factors impacting the PV performance, a fault detection methods is indeed important to be employed and further investigate in PV systems. In general, fault detection method in PV systems can be grouped as visual (discoloration, surface soiling, and delamination), thermal (hot spots and PV micro cracks), and electrical (I-V, and P-V curve analysis, and transmittance line diagnosis) [9 & 10]. In this paper, we focus on an electrical method. Multiple PV fault detection based electrical methods for PV system are based on:

1. Methods do not require climate data (such as solar irradiance and PV module temperature). In [11] the authors developed a method based on the Earth Capacitance Measurements (ECM) to detect the disconnection of a PV module. The first Time-Domain Reflectometry (TDR) technique was proposed by [12]. This technique is used to detect the disconnection of PV strings as well as the impedance change due to PV degradation. Finally, [13-15] proposed a statistical analysis PV fault detection method based on t-test and standard deviation, which can be used to detect PV failure, and faults associated with maximum power point tracking (MPPT) units.
2. Methods based on the analysis of the current-voltage I-V characteristics. In [16], the analysis of the I-V and P-V curve was used to investigate the performance of the PV module, thus, detecting possible faults such as partial shading and faulty PV strings. In [17 & 18], the authors calculate the fill factor (FF), series resistance (Rs), and the shunt resistance (Rsh) from the I-V curve to investigate the performance of multiple PV configuration systems.

Methods based on artificial intelligence (AI) techniques. In [19 & 20] the authors proposed a PV fault detection algorithm which can identify the partial shading conditions in PV modules based on a fuzzy logic system. However, the proposed technique cannot identify the impact of bypass diodes in PV modules, which has been investigated by [21 & 22]. In addition, a learning method based on Expert Systems is developed by [23-25] to identify faults in PV modules due to partial

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shading and inverter's failure. Furthermore, in [26], an artificial neural network (ANN) is used in order to classify different types of faults occurring in a PV array. In this case, the ANN takes as inputs the current and the voltage at maximum power point, and the temperature of the PV module. Different methods based on the Takagie Sugeno Kahn Fuzzy Rule (TSKFRBS) have been described in [27 & 28].

The main contribution of this work is to present a new PV fault detection method based on Mamdani fuzzy logic system, which can detects the defective bypass diodes and partial shading conditions. The fuzzy logic system depends on three inputs:

1. Percentage of voltage drop (PVD)
2. Percentage of open circuit voltage (POCV)
3. Percentage of short circuit current (PSCC)

Finally, in order to investigate the variations of the PV module temperature during defective bypass diodes and partial shading conditions, i5 FLIR thermal camera was used. Several test have been carried out using two diffident PV modules with nominal peak power 220 Wp and 130 Wp.

II. EXAMINED PV MODULE CHARACTERISTICS

The PV system used in this work comprises a PV plant containing 9 polycrystalline silicon PV modules each with a nominal power of 220 Wp. The photovoltaic modules are organized in 3 strings and each string is made up of 3 series-connected PV modules. Using a photovoltaic connection unit which is used to enable or disable the connected of any PV modules from the entire GCPV plant, each photovoltaic string is connected to a Maximum Power Point Tracker (MPPT) which has an output efficiency not less than 98.5% [29]. The existing PV system is shown in Figure 1a.

The SMT6 (60) P solar module manufactured by Romag has been used in this work. The tilt angle of the PV installation is 42°. The electrical characteristics of the solar module are shown in Table 1. Additionally, the standard test condition (STC) for these solar panels are: solar irradiance (G): 1000 W/m² and PV module temperature (T): 25 °C.

Each examined PV module comprises three bypass diodes which are connected in parallel to each PV string. Figure 1b shows the connection of the bypass diodes, where Figure 1c shows the junction box placed at the back of the PV modules.

Table 1: Examined PV electrical characteristics

PV module electrical characteristics	Value
Power at maximum power point (P_{mpp})	220 W
Voltage at maximum power point (V_{mpp})	28.7 V
Current at maximum power point (I_{mpp})	7.67 A
Open Circuit Voltage (V_{oc})	36.74 V
Short Circuit Current (I_{sc})	8.24 A
Number of cells connected in series	60
Number of cells connected in parallel	1

III. INSPECTION AND VALIDATION METHOD

In this work, the MPPT units were used to measure the voltage, and current using the internal sensors embedded with this device. Subsequently, the MPPT units are connected to a Virtual instrumentation (VI) LabVIEW software in order to simulate the current-voltage (I-V) curve of the examined PV modules.

Furthermore, the investigation of the temperature variations during partial shading and faulty bypass diodes (bypass diode disconnected from the PV modules) have been captured using i5 FLIR thermal camera. This camera has the following specification:

- Thermal image quality: 100x100 pixels
- Field of view: 21° (H) x 21° (V)
- Thermal sensitivity: 32.18 F

IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

a) I-V curve characteristics under partial shading conditions

The first test will demonstrate the impact of partial shading conditions on the I-V curve for a standalone PV module. The first PV module in the PV system will be covered by an opaque object to examine the PV module under various partial shading conditions as shown in Figure 3a.



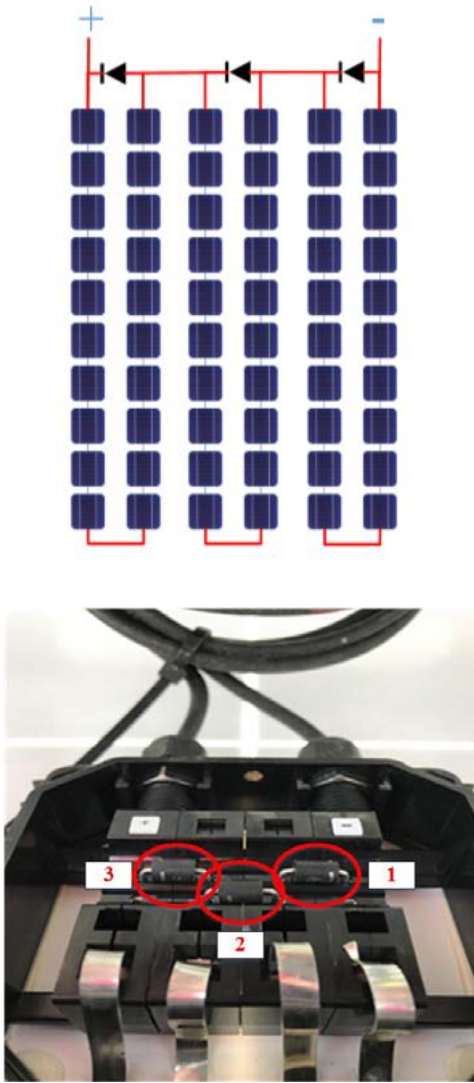


Fig. 1: (a) Examined PV system installed at the University of Huddersfield, United Kingdom, (b) Internal bypass connection for each PV module, (c) Junction box placed at the back of the PV modules

Multiple experiments have been conducted under various partial shading conditions, starting from 10% and ending up with 90%. Three thermal images of the examined PV module under partial shading conditions (10%, 30%, and 60%) are shown in Figure 3. In addition, all experiments were performed while there is no defective bypass diodes connected in the tested PV module.

Figure 2a and Figure 2b show the experiment output for the I-V and P-V curves for all tested shading conditions. As can be noticed, while increasing the percentage of shading the V_{oc} of the PV module decrease. However, the I_{sc} remains the same at 8.18 A.

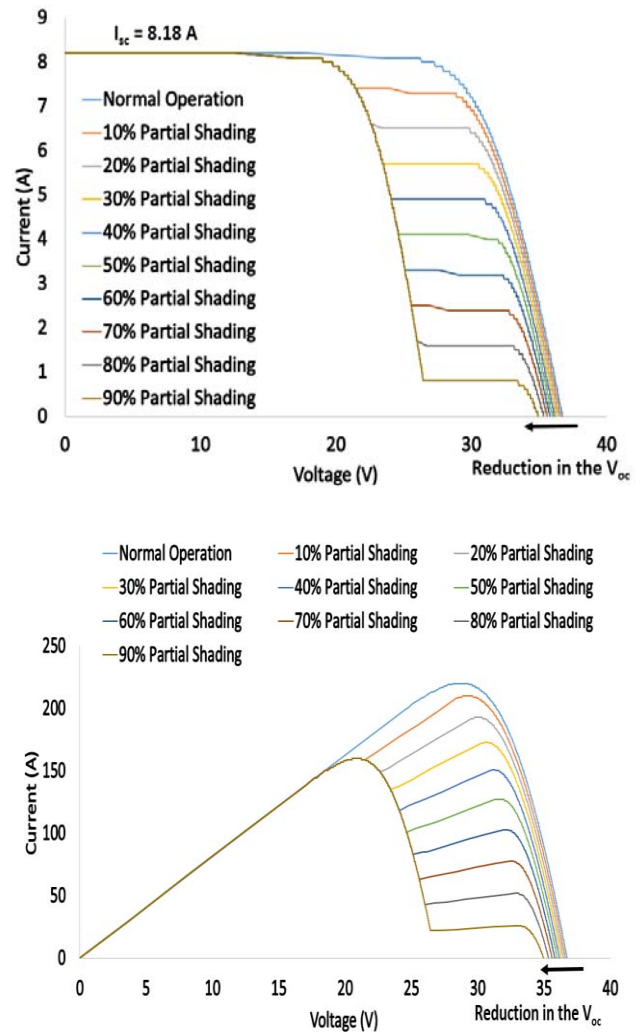


Fig. 2: (a) I-V curve characteristics under various partial shading conditions affecting the PV module, (b) P-V curve characteristics under various partial shading conditions affecting the PV module

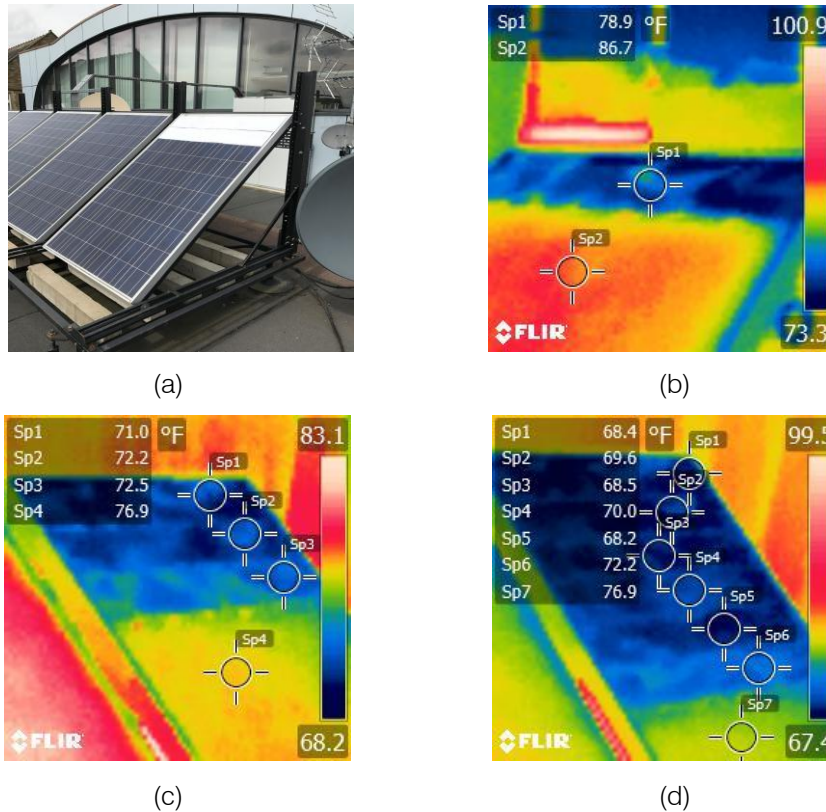


Fig. 3: (a) Real image of the examined PV module covered by opaque object, (b) 10% partial shading, (c) 30% partial shading, (d) 60% partial shading

b) I-V curve characteristics under 90% partial shading condition and faulty bypass diodes

This test was experimentally evaluated while disconnecting one, two, and three bypass diodes in the PV module under 90% partial shading condition (worst case scenario).

As shown in Figure 4a, during 90% partial shading and no disconnection of PV module bypass diodes, PV module I-V curve started to drop its I_{sc} at 18 V, we called this drop as V_{drop} in the I-V curve. However, the first drop in the I-V curve while disconnecting one bypass diode is equal to 16 V. Faster drop is associated with 90% partial shading and 2 faulty bypass diodes in the PV module.

The last case, when all PV module bypass diodes completely removed during 90% partial shading condition. In this case, the drop in the I_{sc} is obtained at the start of the I-V curve (at 0~2.87 V). This loss in the current will affect the output power of the PV module significantly. The output power obtained in each case scenario is presented as follows:

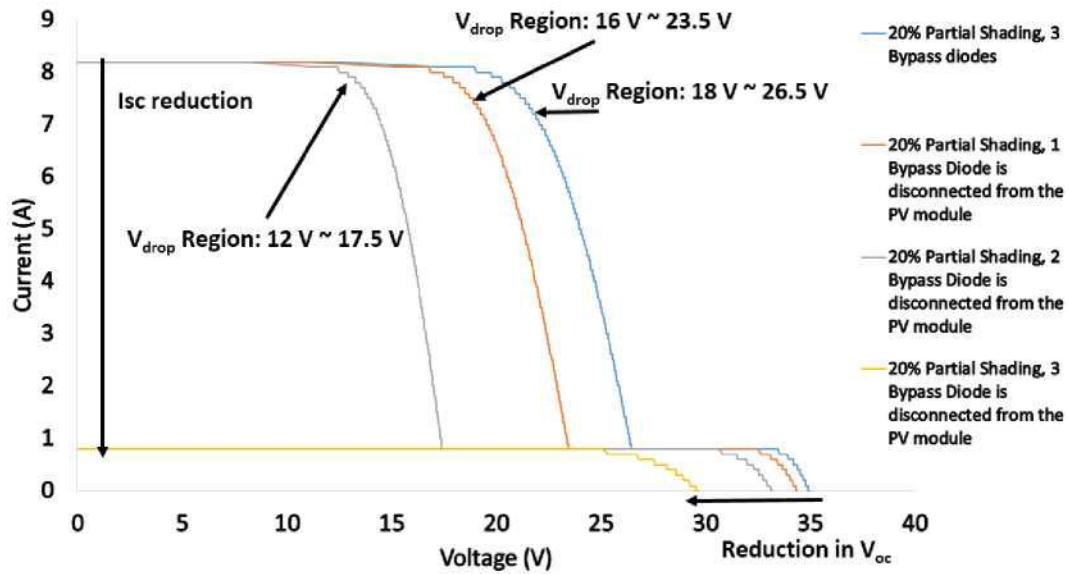
- No fault in the bypass diodes:
 - o $P_{mpp} = 159.8 \text{ W}$
- Disconnecting 1 bypass diode:
 - o $P_{mpp} = 141.5 \text{ W}$

- Disconnecting 2 bypass diodes:
 - o $P_{mpp} = 104.8 \text{ W}$
- Disconnecting all bypass diodes:
 - o $P_{mpp} = 18.84 \text{ W}$

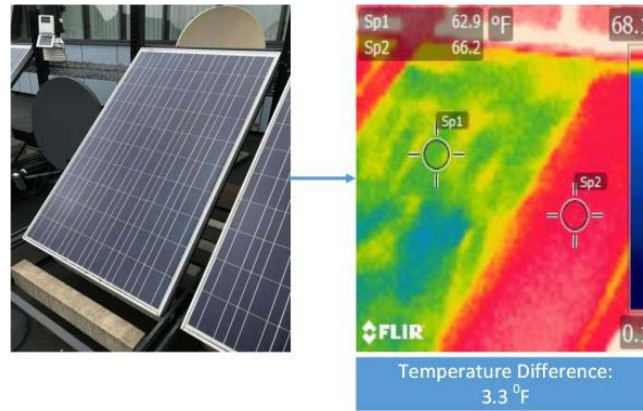
While disconnecting the bypass diodes from the PV module during partial shading conditions, the PV module output power will decrease. This phenomenon occur due to the impact of the reverse-bias feature of the bypass diodes.

Furthermore, Figure 4b shows that while disconnecting one bypass diode from the examined PV module, the temperature raises in the PV string associated with the faulty bypass diode location. The increase of the PV sting temperature will decrease the PV output power. According to Figure 4b, the increase of the PV string temperature is equal to:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Increase in the PV string temperature} &= \\ &= 66.2 \text{ F (PV string without bypass diode)} - 62.9 \text{ F} \\ &= 3.3 \text{ F} \end{aligned}$$



(a)



(b)

Fig. 4: (a) I-V curves under various conditions affecting the examined PV module, (b) Real image and thermography image of the examined PV module while disconnecting one bypass diode from the first PV string

Since the voltage drop (V_{drop}) has been measured during worst case scenario at each I_{sc} level of the examined I-V curves, it has been found that the V_{drop} in each examined case can be classified as the following:

- No fault in the bypass diodes:
 - o V_{drop} Region: 18 ~ 26.5 V
- Disconnecting 1 bypass diode:
 - o V_{drop} Region: 16 ~ 23.5 V
- Disconnecting 2 bypass diodes:
 - o V_{drop} Region: 12 ~ 17.5 V
- Disconnecting all bypass diodes:
 - o V_{drop} Region: 0 ~ 2.87 V

In order to generalize the findings of the V_{drop} , the percentage of V_{mpp} has been compared with the V_{drop} values, which can be formalized as stated in (1) by the voltage drop percentage (PVD).

$$\text{Percentage of Voltage Drop (PVD)} = \frac{V_{drop}}{V_{mpp}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

The following calculations show the percentage of voltage drop based on (1) which is validated using the examined I-V curve shown in Figure 4a.

No fault in the bypass diodes:

$$\text{PVD} = \frac{17.5 \sim 26.5}{28.7} \times 100 = 61.0\% \sim 92.3\%$$

Disconnecting 1 bypass diode:

$$PVD = \frac{15 \sim 23.5}{28.7} \times 100 = 52.2\% \sim 81.9\%$$

Disconnecting 2 bypass diodes:

$$PVD = \frac{10.5 \sim 17.5}{28.7} \times 100 = 36.5\% \sim 61\%$$

Disconnecting all bypass diodes:

$$PVD = \frac{0 \sim 2.87}{28.7} \times 100 = 0\% \sim 10\%$$

As can be noticed, the regions of the PVD are overlapping, and in order to increase the detection accuracy of the bypass diodes regions, the percentage of open circuit voltage (POCV) is used. The POCV is calculated using (2).

$$\text{Percentage of open circuit voltage} = \frac{\text{Measured Voc}}{\text{Theoretical Voc}} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

From the results obtained previously in Figure 4a, the POVC for each tested case scenario has been calculated as the following:

No fault in the bypass diodes:

$$POVC = \frac{36.74 \sim 35}{36.74} \times 100 = 100\% \sim 95.3\%$$

Disconnecting 1 bypass diode:

$$POVC = \frac{36.74 \sim 33.5}{36.74} \times 100 = 100\% \sim 91.2\%$$

Disconnecting 2 bypass diodes:

$$POVC = \frac{36.74 \sim 32.1}{36.74} \times 100 = 100\% \sim 87.3\%$$

It is also worthy to mention the behavior of the I-V curves based on the measured I_{sc} for each examined case. Since I_{sc} is another variable which could be used to examine the faulty bypass diodes in PV modules. For that reason, percentage of short circuit current drop (PSCC) has been used and presented by (3).

$$\text{Percentage of Short Circuit Current} = \frac{\text{Measured } I_{sc}}{\text{Theoretical } I_{sc}} \times 100 \quad (3)$$

The PSCC is equal to 1 in the first 3 cases (no fault in the bypass diodes, disconnecting 1 bypass diode, and disconnecting 2 bypass diodes). However, the PSCC was evaluated using partial shading conditions between 0% up to 90% while disconnecting all bypass diodes in the examined PV module. The PSCC results are shown in Table 2, where I-V curves are presented in Figure 5.

The result shows that the percentage of PSCC depends on the percentage of shading affecting the PV module. An increase in the partial shading results a decrease in the PSCC percentage.

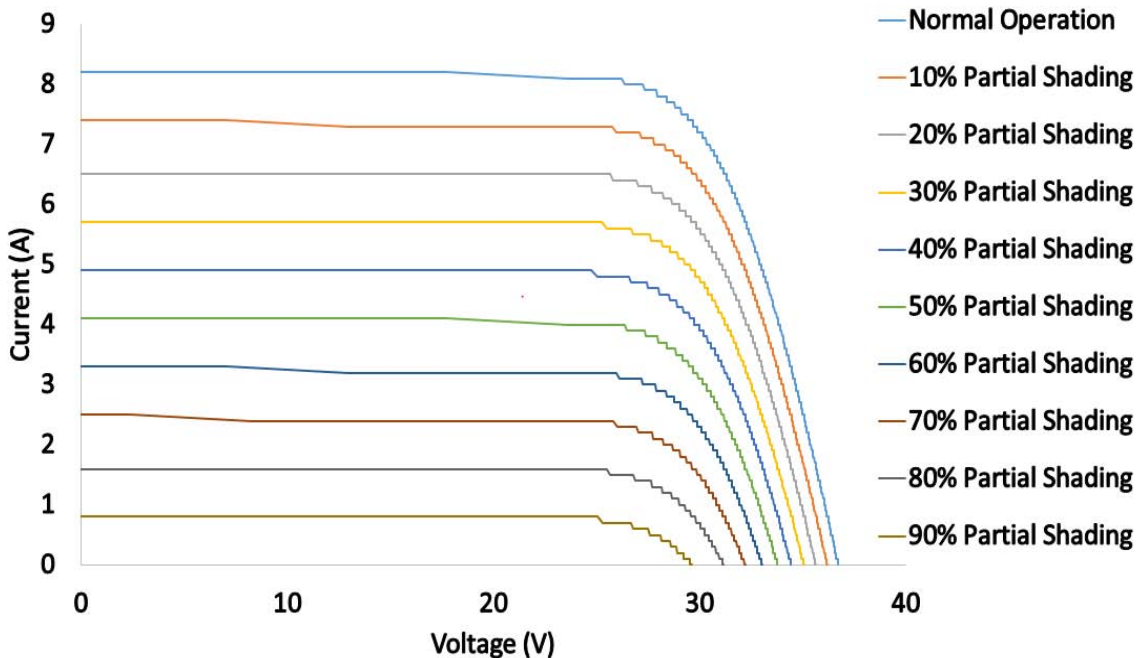


Fig. 5: I-V curve simulation under various partial shading conditions while disconnecting all bypass diodes from the examined PV module.

Table 2: PSCC Results for an Examined PV module while disconnecting all bypass diodes

Shading Percentage %	Measured I_{sc} (A)	PSCC %
Normal Operation	8.18	100
10%	7.37	90
20%	6.55	80
30%	5.73	70
40%	4.91	60
50%	4.09	50
60%	3.28	40
70%	2.46	30
80%	1.64	20
90%	820 mA	10

V. PROPOSED FAULT DETECTION SYSTEM

In this section, the proposed PV bypass diode fault detection system will be presented. Firstly, the fault detection system proposed in this paper is capable of detecting faults associated with bypass diodes and partial shading conditions affecting the PV modules.

The detection system is based on the variations of the IV curve V_{drop} , I-V curve V_{oc} , and I-V curve I_{sc} . Next, Mamdani fuzzy logic system is used to detect the faults in the examined PV module. The general fuzzy system architecture is illustrated in Figure 6.

Subsequently, the fuzzy system is based on three inputs:

1. PVD
2. POVC
3. PSCC

All inputs are processed by the fuzzy logic system based on the membership functions shown in Figure 7a, where all the percentages are discussed previously in section IV.

The output of the fuzzy logic system can classify 13 different type of fault associated with PV bypass diodes and partial shading conditions. Furthermore, Figure 7b illustrates the output membership function used in the fuzzy system. In addition, the list of the faults are shown in Figure 7c.

The fuzzy logic system rule are based on: if, and statement. All selected rules in the fuzzy logic is presented in Appendix A.

The main question related to the structure of the fuzzy logic system, that if the rules and classification could be used in other PV modules? - The answer will be briefly answered next section, however, as can be seen in Figure 6, the PVD, POCV and PSCC depends on the ratio of the measured and theoretical PV parameters, thus, these ratios are fixed through any tested PV module. As a result of that, the fuzzy logic could be used to classify the faulty bypass diodes in other PV modules as appropriate.

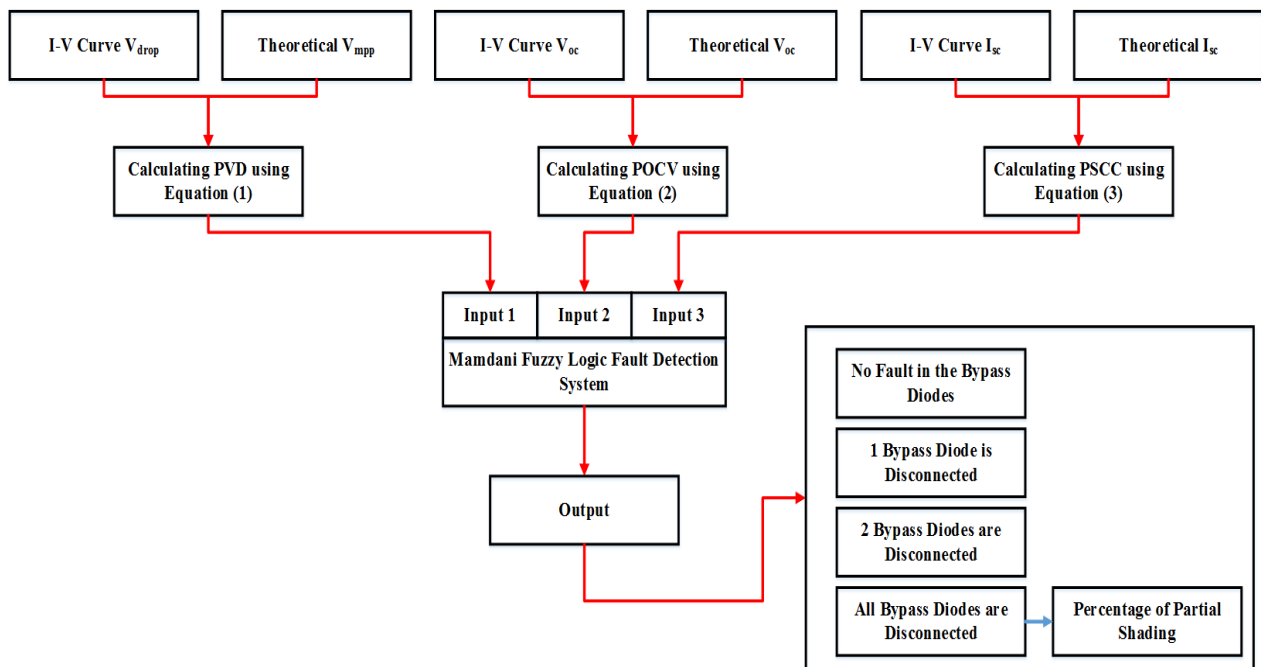
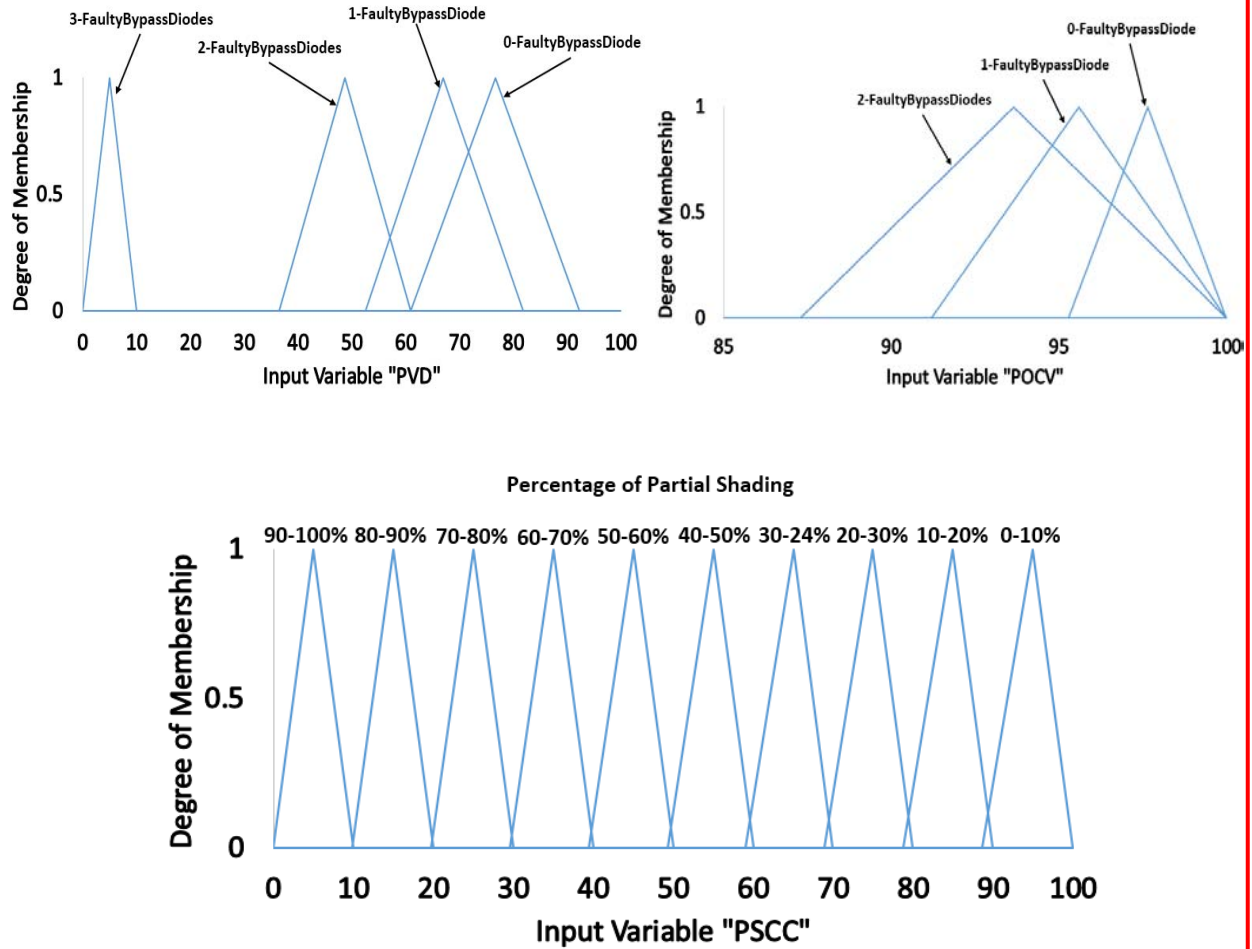
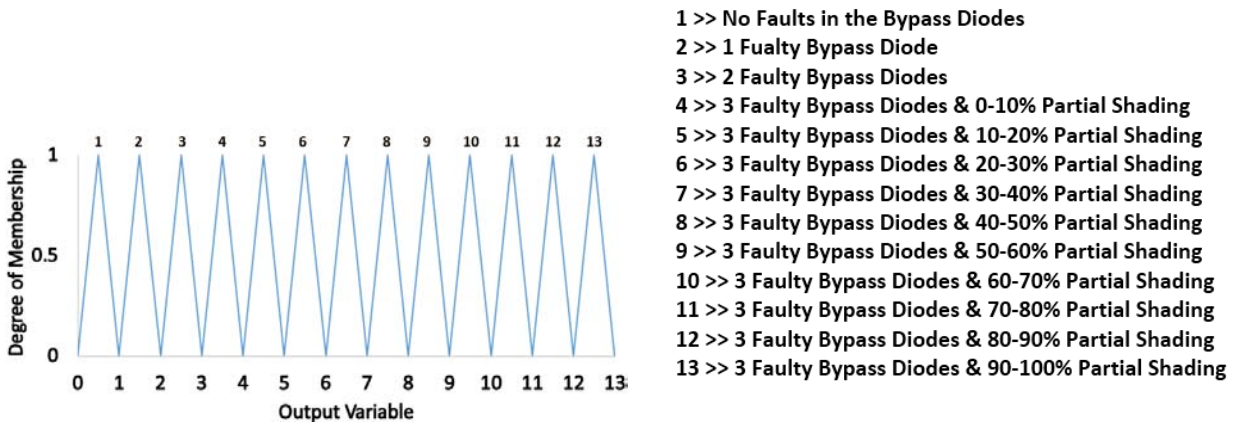


Fig. 6: Proposed fault detection system using Mamdani fuzzy logic system



(a)



(b)

- 1 >> No Faults in the Bypass Diodes
- 2 >> 1 Faulty Bypass Diode
- 3 >> 2 Faulty Bypass Diodes
- 4 >> 3 Faulty Bypass Diodes & 0-10% Partial Shading
- 5 >> 3 Faulty Bypass Diodes & 10-20% Partial Shading
- 6 >> 3 Faulty Bypass Diodes & 20-30% Partial Shading
- 7 >> 3 Faulty Bypass Diodes & 30-40% Partial Shading
- 8 >> 3 Faulty Bypass Diodes & 40-50% Partial Shading
- 9 >> 3 Faulty Bypass Diodes & 50-60% Partial Shading
- 10 >> 3 Faulty Bypass Diodes & 60-70% Partial Shading
- 11 >> 3 Faulty Bypass Diodes & 70-80% Partial Shading
- 12 >> 3 Faulty Bypass Diodes & 80-90% Partial Shading
- 13 >> 3 Faulty Bypass Diodes & 90-100% Partial Shading

(c)

Fig. 7: (a) Input variables for the proposed fuzzy logic fault detection system, (b) output variable for the fuzzy logic fault detection systems, (c) List of faults which can be detected using the fuzzy logic system

VI. VALIDATE THE PROPOSED FAULT DETECTION SYSTEM USING KC130GHT PV MODULE

In this section, the proposed fault detection system will be evaluated using a different PV module installed at the University of Huddersfield, where the electrical characteristics of the PV module is shown in Table 3. Real image of the PV module is shown in Figure 7. Additionally, the PV strings are connected to three bypass diodes.

In this section, two case scenarios will be evaluated, the first case is when the PV module under one defective bypass diode, where the second case where the PV module under three defective bypass diodes.

a) PV module under one defective bypass diode and 35% partial shading

This test was evaluated when the PV module has one defective bypass diode. The PV module output parameters: V_{drop} , V_{oc} , and I_{sc} are shown in Figure 9a.

The percentages PVD, POVC, PSCC are equal to 58.52%, 99.08% and 100%. Next, these percentages are processed by the fuzzy logic system.

Table 3: KC130GHT PV module electrical characteristics

PV module electrical characteristics	Value
Power at maximum power point (P_{mpp})	130 W
Voltage at maximum power point (V_{mpp})	17.6 V
Current at maximum power point (I_{mpp})	7.39 A
Open Circuit Voltage (V_{oc})	21.9 V
Short Circuit Current (I_{sc})	8.02 A
Number of cells connected in series	36
Number of cells connected in parallel	1



Fig. 8: Real image of KC130GHT PV module

As shown in Figure 9a, the output of the fuzzy system is equal to 1.91, which is between the region “1-

2”. This region indicates that there is one defective bypass diode in the PV module. In addition, the classifications of all regions are previously described in Figure 7c.

In conclusion, this test was performed by the fuzzy logic, and it has successfully detected the defective bypass diode in the PV module.

b) PV module under three defective bypass diodes and 65% partial shading

The second test, was performed when the PV module has three defective bypass diodes (all bypass diodes has been removed) and this test was evaluated while covering 65% of the PV module using an opaque paper. The output performance of the PV module parameters is shown in Figure 9b. The theoretical I_{sc} dropped down to 2.81A after 0.3V. The percentage as PVD, POVC and PSCC are equal to 1.70%, 91.32%, and 35.04%.

The output of the fuzzy system is equal to 9.5, which is between the regions “9-10”. This region indicates that there is 3 faulty bypass diodes and 60-70% partial shading affects the PV module.

Both tests indicate that the proposed detection system is capable of detecting the defective bypass diodes in the PV module. Subsequently, there is a high accuracy in the fuzzy logic system output results comparing to the faulty conditions affecting the examined PV module.

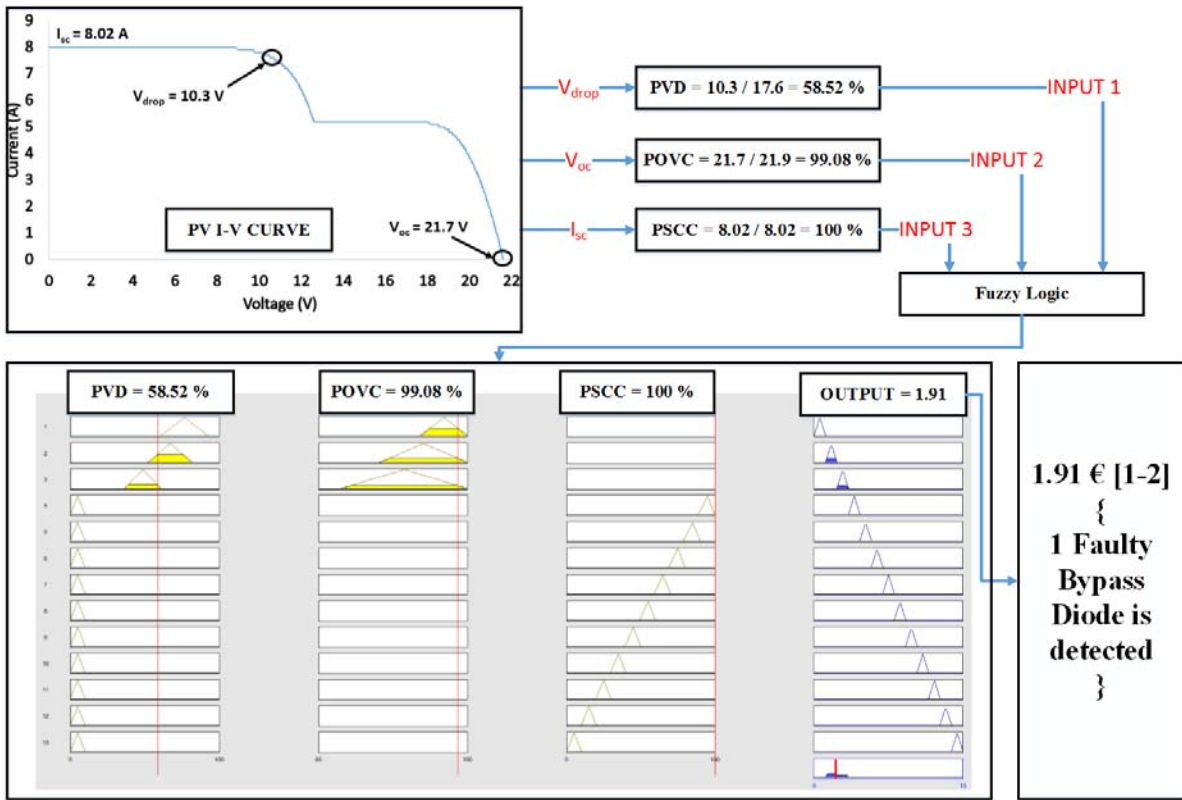
VII. CONCLUSION

This paper proposed a fault detection method for PV module defective bypass diodes. The detection method is based on Mamdani fuzzy logic system, which depends on the analysis of V_{drop} , V_{oc} , and I_{sc} obtained from the I-V curve of the examined PV module.

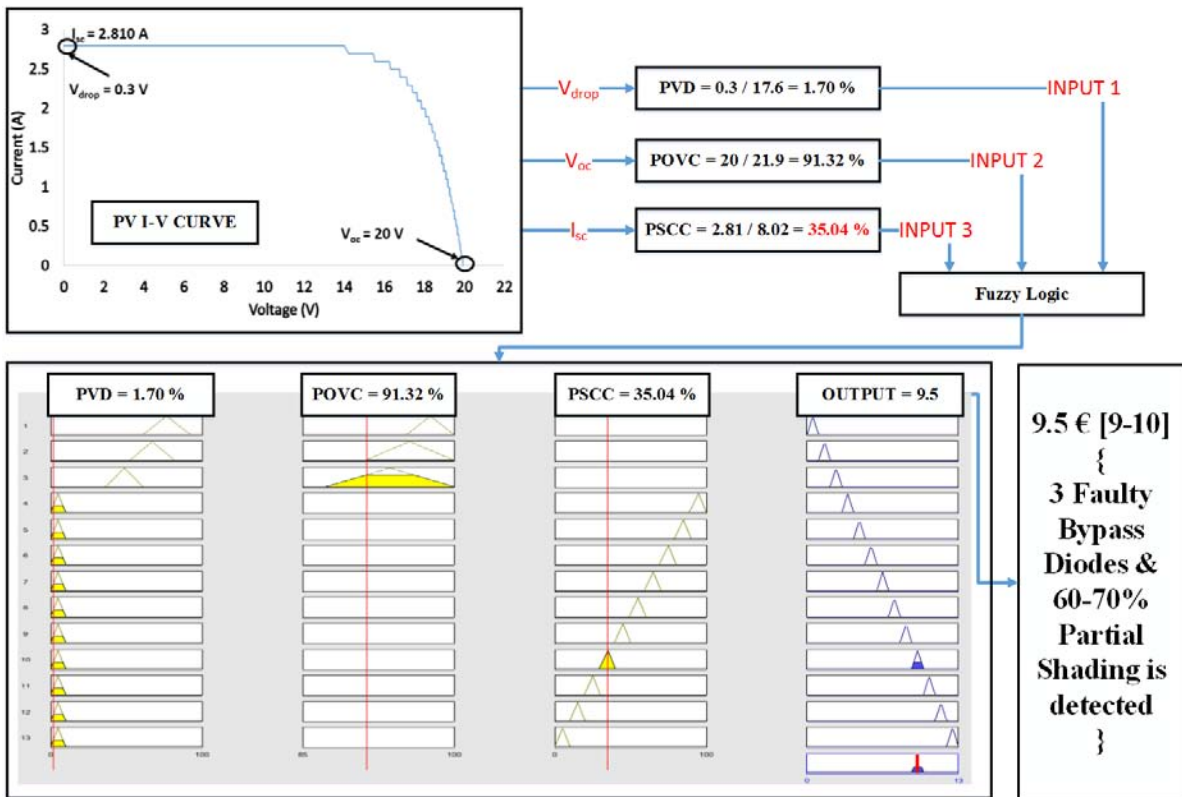
The fuzzy logic system depends on three inputs, namely percentage of voltage drop (PVD), Percentage of open circuit voltage (POCV), and the percentage of short circuit current (PSCC). The proposed fuzzy system can detect up to 13 different faults associated with defective and non-defective bypass diodes.

The detection system achieved high detection accuracy during the validation process. In addition, the fuzzy system was evaluated using two different PV modules installed at the University of Huddersfield. Finally, in order to investigate the variations of the PV module temperature during defective bypass diodes and partial shading conditions, i5 FLIR thermal camera was used.

In future, it is intended to extend the present work to detect the faults in PV bypass diodes using the analysis of the series resistance (R_s) and shunt resistance (R_{sh}) of the PV module. In addition, the fuzzy system could be replaced with artificial neural network (ANN).



(a)



(b)

Fig. 9: (a) Output results for 1 faulty bypass diode “case senario1”, (b) Output results for 3 faulty bypass diodes & 60-70% partial shading “case scenario 2”

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APPENDIX A

Fuzzy logic system rules:

1. If (PVD is 0-FaultyBypassDiode) and (POCV is 0-FaultyBypassDiode) then (Output is 1) (1)
2. If (PVD is 1-FaultyBypassDiode) and (POCV is 1-FaultyBypassDiode) then (Output is 2) (1)
3. If (PVD is 2-FaultyBypassDiodes) and (POCV is 2-FaultyBypassDiodes) then (Output is 3) (1)
4. If (PVD is 3-FaultyBypassDiodes) and (PSCC is 0-10%PartialShading) then (Output is 4) (1)
5. If (PVD is 3-FaultyBypassDiodes) and (PSCC is 10-20%PartialShading) then (Output is 5) (1)
6. If (PVD is 3-FaultyBypassDiodes) and (PSCC is 20-30%PartialShading) then (Output is 6) (1)
7. If (PVD is 3-FaultyBypassDiodes) and (PSCC is 30-40%PartialShading) then (Output is 7) (1)
8. If (PVD is 3-FaultyBypassDiodes) and (PSCC is 40-50%PartialShading) then (Output is 8) (1)
9. If (PVD is 3-FaultyBypassDiodes) and (PSCC is 50-60%PartialShading) then (Output is 9) (1)
10. If (PVD is 3-FaultyBypassDiodes) and (PSCC is 60-70%PartialShading) then (Output is 10) (1)
11. If (PVD is 3-FaultyBypassDiodes) and (PSCC is 70-80%PartialShading) then (Output is 11) (1)
12. If (PVD is 3-FaultyBypassDiodes) and (PSCC is 80-90%PartialShading) then (Output is 12) (1)
13. If (PVD is 3-FaultyBypassDiodes) and (PSCC is 90-100%PartialShading) then (Output is 13) (1)



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Review-Reservoir Computing Trend on Software and Hardware Implementation

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Abstract- Since Reservoir Computing proposed, it has progressed in two directions, software and hardware implementation, both sharing the same goal of better performance. While applying on the former, the chosen task is increasingly complex and practical, even blending noise to close to physical situation. Meanwhile, the latter, evaluated by benchmark tasks, is proposed as a compensation of software implementation, which will be utilized for complex and practical tasks in the future when it matures. Here will give a brief introduction of conception, methodology, benchmark tasks, developments and some applications of RC.

Keywords: *reservoir computing, software implementation, hardware implementation.*

GJRE-F Classification: *FOR Code: 290903*



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Review-Reservoir Computing Trend on Software and Hardware Implementation

Yongbo Liao ^α & Hongmei Li ^σ

Abstract- Since Reservoir Computing proposed, it has progressed in two directions, software and hardware implementation, both sharing the same goal of better performance. While applying on the former, the chosen task is increasingly complex and practical, even blending noise to close to physical situation. Meanwhile, the latter, evaluated by benchmark tasks, is proposed as a compensation of software implementation, which will be utilized for complex and practical tasks in the future when it matures. Here will give a brief introduction of conception, methodology, benchmark tasks, developments and some applications of RC.

Keywords: reservoir computing, software implementation, hardware implementation.

I. INTRODUCTION

Reservoir Computing(RC) has been a preferred research topic when the conception raised for training Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) in the first time. The approach that reinvigorates RNN is a collection of Echo State Network (ESN) [1] and Liquid State Machine (LSM) [2], the former tending to engineering applications while the latter to neurophysiology. RC retains input weights and reservoir weights initialized and only supervised readout weights are trained to obtain excellent performance in many tasks, provided RC possesses certain generic properties. Notably, tasks based on RC model should be time-dependent.

RC is renowned for less time consumption and resource occupancy. Therefore, many researchers attempt to improve existing research results in their arena by applying RC. After survey comprehensively, the research of RC falls into two general categories: software and hardware implementation. In software implementation, the mainstream is exploring a practicability of applying RC in a new arena or an improvement of existing results by RC, while in hardware implementation, the research is more challenge, and so far the aim is building a RC structure on hardware platform and performing simply tasks successfully. With the dedication of researchers, delay-based RC [4] and

mask conception [5] emerged and improved hardware implementation.

The emphasis of RC research switches from software to hardware implementation, therefore, this paper will focus on hardware implementation, and will also introduce emerging works based on software implementation as well as some classical benchmark tasks.

II. RC METHODOLOGY

Before introduce implementation, the basic knowledge of RC should be mentioned. In consideration of that every works related to RC involving basic RC idea, here will briefly and concisely introduce basic knowledge of RC and list out key equations.

The first key equation is reservoir state update equation, which is slightly alterable due to researcher's thoughts and the actual task. The classic reservoir state update equation [1] is as simply as:

$$\mathbf{x}(n+1) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{W}^{\text{in}}\mathbf{u}(n+1) + \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}(n) + \mathbf{W}^{\text{back}}\mathbf{y}_{\text{target}}(n)) \quad (1)$$

For the sake of a better dynamic behavior, a complex reservoir state update equation with a leaky integration [1, 6] is proposed as:

$$\mathbf{x}(n+1) = (1-a)\mathbf{x}(n) + \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{W}^{\text{in}}\mathbf{u}(n+1) + \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}(n) + \mathbf{W}^{\text{back}}\mathbf{y}_{\text{target}}(n)) \quad (2)$$

where n is discrete time, $\mathbf{u}(n+1) \in \mathbf{R}^{N_u}$ is the input signals, $\mathbf{x}(n) \in \mathbf{R}^{N_x}$ is the reservoir states, $\mathbf{y}_{\text{target}}(n) \in \mathbf{R}^{N_y}$ is the target output signals applied for producing error feedback by comparing with signals calculated by readout output equation, $\mathbf{f}(\cdot)$ is a nonlinear continuous function, typically sigmoid or hyperbolic tangent function, $\mathbf{W}^{\text{in}} \in \mathbf{R}^{N_x \times N_u}$, $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbf{R}^{N_x \times N_x}$ and $\mathbf{W}^{\text{back}} \in \mathbf{R}^{N_x \times N_y}$ are the input weight matrix, reservoir weight matrix and the output feedback weight matrix respectively, indicating the connections among nodes. And parameter a in equation (2) is a leaky integration constant confined in the range of 0 to 1.

The second key equation is readout output equation [1]:

$$\mathbf{y}(n+1) = \mathbf{f}_{\text{out}}(\mathbf{W}^{\text{out}}(\mathbf{u}(n+1), \mathbf{x}(n+1), \mathbf{y}(n))) \quad (3)$$

where $\mathbf{y}(n) \in \mathbf{R}^{N_y}$ is the readout output signals, $\mathbf{f}_{\text{out}}(\cdot)$ is a linear continuous function, typically identity function, $\mathbf{W}^{\text{out}} \in \mathbf{R}^{N_y \times (N_u + N_x)}$ is output weight matrix, $(\mathbf{u}(n+1), \mathbf{x}(n+1), \mathbf{y}(n))$ is the concatenation of the input signals, reservoir state and previous readout output vectors.

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The third key equation is training output weight matrix [1], which calculated by equation (1) via ridge regression as (there assumes $\mathbf{y}$ equals to $\mathbf{y}_{\text{target}}$, i.e. error is zero) [1]:

$$\mathbf{W}^{\text{out}} = \mathbf{Y}_{\text{target}} \mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T + \alpha^2 \mathbf{I})^{-1} \quad (4)$$

where $\mathbf{Y}$ target is the collection of y target($n+1$), $\mathbf{X}$ is the collection of $(u(n+1), x(n+1))$, $\mathbf{I}$ is identity matrix and α is regularization parameter which is applied for the optimization of RC structure. $(\bullet)^{-1}$ is matrix inversion.

The final equation is a normalized root-mean-square error (NRMSE)[7], which should be minimized during the training, also as a typical standard measures results:

$$E(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}_{\text{target}}) = \sqrt{\frac{\langle \|\mathbf{y}(n) - \mathbf{y}_{\text{target}}(n)\|^2 \rangle}{\langle \|\mathbf{y}_{\text{target}}(n) - \langle \mathbf{y}_{\text{target}}(n) \rangle\|^2 \rangle}} \quad (5)$$

where $\|\cdot\|$ stands for the Euclidean distance, and $\langle \cdot \rangle$ for mean function.

III. PREPROCESSING

Before feeding data into RC system, raw data should be preprocessed to meet some index for a higher performance expectation. To our knowledge, the present existing preprocessing approaches are normalization, masking and Fourier transformation of images.

Normalization preprocessing. Normalization is an approach preferred in preprocessing, benefitted from its simplicity. There are several advantages in adopting normalization preprocessing, which can be exemplified by conveniently processing data, accelerating network training, improving network stability and making the average of input data close to zero or possessing a smaller mean square error. The basic concept of this approach is limiting the amplitude of the input data to the range of 0 to 1 or -1 to 1. After training and obtaining the normalization output data, anti-normalization should be applied on them to obtain genuine output data.

Masking preprocessing. There are two masking approaches including digital binary mask [5, 8] and analog chaos mask [5], both are periodic mask and emerge for delay-based RC based on semiconductor laser subjected to optical feedback and injection. Masking preprocessing can be expressed as [5]:

$$\mathbf{M}(t) = \text{mask}(t) \times \mathbf{u}(n) \times \gamma \quad (7)$$

where $\mathbf{M}(t)$ stands for masked signal, $\text{mask}(t)$ for mask signal with a periodicity T , and γ for scaling factor.

In [8], Schneider explained how to conduct the preprocessing of digital binary mask in detail, holding input signal a sample time by a zero-order holder which produces a piecewise-constant signal, subsequently

doing periodic amplitude modulation on piecewise-constant signal by a mask signal whose periodicity equals to sample time. In [9], Tezuka simplified the digital binary mask by utilizing a step waveform as a mask signal at the cost of losing variability. In [5], Nakayama introduced analog chaos mask which differs to digital binary mask approach in mask signal. Indeed, he compared this two mask approaches in prediction task and the results are similar to original signals in both cases but response in analog case is more complex and error is smaller.

IV. TRAINING

The essence of the training is computing the weight matrix $\mathbf{W}^{\text{out}}$ by given input driven signals and target readout output signals while other weight matrixes $\mathbf{W}^{\text{in}}$, $\mathbf{W}$, $\mathbf{W}^{\text{back}}$ keep fixed. Note that, regularization parameter α is also fixed after it is determined by optimal strategy. After $\mathbf{W}^{\text{out}}$ is determined, feeding the input signals, harvesting the corresponding output readout signals, and calculating the NRMSE.

The values of fixed weight matrix $\mathbf{W}^{\text{in}}$, $\mathbf{W}$ and $\mathbf{W}^{\text{back}}$ are arbitrarily initialized by random number generator or Gaussian probability distribution [10] depending on specific circumstances. Once determined, they keep unchanged in the whole training and testing duration.

While the number of the reservoir internal nodes is arbitrarily determined, it should satisfy two constraints, i.e. the structure should be as simple as possible which means the number of reservoir nodes should be small, the another is the NRMSE should be sufficiently small which needs reservoir to be complex and large contrary to the aforementioned constraint [11]. Therefore, a compromise scheme indicating the optimal number of reservoir nodes is considered in experiment.

Training algorithm varies with different applications, but the variation merely is function selection, staying the basic concept unchanged. In electrocardiogram classification application [11], logistic regression algorithm was applied to cope readout process. In multiclass prediction[10], support vector machine was utilized to replace the traditional linear readout layer. In visual contents detection [12], traditional algorithm hyperbolic tangent function was applied. There is another typical function frequently used, namely sigmoid function also called S function.

V. BENCHMARK TASKS

Benchmark tasks are frequently harnessed to evaluate upgraded reservoir computing structure in many masterpiece works, indicating benchmark tasks possess a vital place in RC research. Therefore, subsequent contents within this section are center on benchmark tasks.

The extremely popular benchmark task is time series prediction due to the time-dependent property, including Mackey Glass chaotic time series prediction [13] and Santa-Fe time series prediction [14, 9]. The other long-standing benchmark task is classification covering simple signal classification. Recognition benchmark task is also noticeable, such as isolated spoken digit recognition and digital handwriting recognition [8]. Meanwhile, there are other frequently harnessed benchmark tasks such as the 10th order nonlinear auto regressive moving average (NARMA) system [13, 15, 4], 5-Bit Parity [4] and nonlinear channel equalization [14, 15, 16].

VI. APPLICATION

RC approaches has been widely applied in academic arena. These application spans from bioscience field (in this field RC named LSM) to engineering domain (in this field RC named ESN) that are amenable to supervised model. Meanwhile, the platform constructing the neural network model has transited from software to hardware.

What follows is the application of RC in the last three years.

Classification. Since the classification application will not confine to simple task, the development direction is achieving complex real-time task. One of the examples is electrocardiogram classification [11], where the novel reservoir computing with logistic regression was applied, instead of standard reservoir computing with linear regression. The methodology requires a computationally inexpensive preprocessing of the electrocardiographic signals, which leads to a fast algorithm, approaching a real-time classification solution. Another is classifying three types of wind power ramp events (WPRE) [17] by ESN with support vector machine (SVM), to be specific, ESN for WPRE recognition and SVM for WPRE classification and training this novel model for multiple WPRE prediction.

Recognition. With the passage of time, the recognition contents are increasingly widespread. In [18], a visual contents obtained by a surveillance camera was for detecting the status of a door by a leaky integration RC. In [19], High speed recognition of dispersive Fourier images was achieved by a photonic RC system. In [20], activity recognition, which is vital in activity assistance and smart homes, was achieved by appropriate configuration of RC with low cost and good accuracy.

Prediction. The most research about prediction is temporal task. As the RC technology matures, forecasting short-term stream flow [21], wind power ramp events [17] and BBS score via balance assessment [22] become increasingly accurate. In line with minimizing downstream flood damage and maximizing the generated power with low costs,

Bezerra [21] devoted to water source study and attempt to short-term stream flow forecasting with the aid of RC model, which do achieve better performance than traditional approaches. In [17], Manuel investigated alleviating the impact of wind power ramp events by forecasting it via RC model that was modified slightly for better performance. Reference [22] devoted to improving health monitoring in the elderly, Gallicchio conducted measurement campaign on elderly volunteers and obtained Balance dataset including weight value recorded by Wii Balance Board and target BBS score. The whole experiment was conducted on a variant of RC model, a leaky integration Echo State Network model suitable for dealing with the characteristics of the temporal data generated from sensors.

Optical implementation. Semiconductor laser based on optical feedback and injection due to its potential high speed processing capacity repeatedly serves for perfecting RC model. Respecting to how to apply laser, idea differs to everyone. Harnessing only one drive laser converting input signals into optical signals [23, 24, 25], or two lasers including a drive laser and a response laser [5], or nanophotonic crystal cavities [26] diminishing model size, or a ring laser simultaneously computing two unrelated input signals [27], or a mutually coupled optoelectronic system compensating slowly masking preprocess [9], is the response of aforementioned different applying ideas, which will increase with researchers' unremitting efforts. While adding optical implementation in RC model reaps great performance, classic readout layer may need necessary alters for specific optical methods. Coupling to an analogoelectronic readout eliminates offline post-processing [23]. In [26], the approach about design full optical readout layer is a problem urgently solved.

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Numerical Analysis of Electrical Characteristics in a Squared Channel EHD Gas Pump

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Keywords: corona wind, electrohydrodynamic, ionic flow, ansoff maxwell, numerical analysis, FEM, force flow.

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Numerical Analysis of Electrical Characteristics in a Squared Channel EHD Gas Pump

Rezaur Rahman ^α & Dr. A.K.M Monayem Hossain Mazumder ^σ

Abstract- Corona discharge characteristic is highly dependable on working medium, the system setup, and the ambient condition. With a numerical analysis, the impact of high voltages on the electrical characteristics during EHD (electro hydrodynamic) pumping in a square channel is investigated with a wide range of high applied voltages. The conductor setup is settled with three types of pin configuration. Also, each conductor is tested for three different width ground plates. Simulation model consists of a conductor, ground plate, and square flow channel (6.0-inch). The material for the square channel is glass; copper is selected for both conductor and ground plate. The results of the numerical study showed that the use of different numbers of conductor pin and change in ground plate width have a great impact on the EHD electrical characteristics with a significant deviation of forces on ground plate, conductor, test region and square channel are found.

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1. INTRODUCTION

When a gas discharged from the place where geometry confines the gas ionizing processes to high-field ionization regions around an active electrode [1](Goldman, A. Goldman, and Sigmond, 1985). The American Standards Association defines "Corona is a luminous discharge due to ionization of the air surrounding a conductor around which, exists a voltage gradient exceeding a certain critical value" [2](What is Corona? Hubbell Power System, 2004).

So far two types of flow generated per the working principle. One is displacement type and another one is a dynamic type[3] (Laser and Santiago, 2004) which distinguishes between the reciprocating and continuous flow [4](Chen, 2005).

Corona discharge mainly occurred with two asymmetric electrodes, one of its very sharp on curvature shape (needle, pin or wire) and another one has a very curvy geometry (rod or plate). The curved electrode contains a very high charge potential which is created by supplying a very high voltage from an outer source. By creating a plasma state, the electrode with high curvature ionized the nearest gas molecules which tend to migrate to the ground low curved electrode and this procedure is fully controlled by Coulomb force. Coronas can be either positive or negative. The voltage supplied to the curved electrode determines whether it is positive or negative. If the voltage supplied to the electrode is positive the corona discharge is positive otherwise it is negative if the supplied voltage is negative.

The ionized ions generate thrust on the other molecules near them by creating a collision while they try to move to the ground plate (low curved electrode). This continuous migration process creates a bulk flow, which is called ionic wind or corona wind (Fig 1).

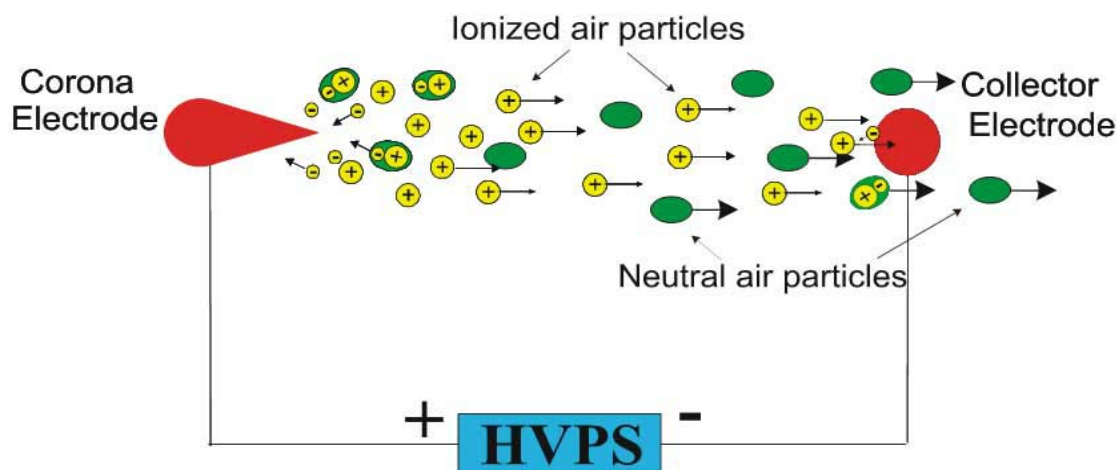


Figure 1: A basic schematic diagram for Corona wind generation with corona discharge[5](Genuth, 2013).

II. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

The main design parameters followed here is the same as[6] (Mazumder and Lai, 2014), two stage EHD pumping procedure, but for this type of study, we only consider a single stage model. A glass box is the main structure where the other apparatuses are mounted. This box also works as a passage to the EHD flow which is induced after providing very high voltage and reaches the initial limit. Other main two parts of this setup are a conductor (emitter pin) and ground plate.

In this study, the whole design procedure is done using PTC Creo Parametric 3.0 m010. The main glass box is taken with an inner dimension of 4 in by 4 in by 12 in. The thickness of the glass is 0.25 inches. The conductor is made with copper material of 20 GA which gives this wire a diameter of .032 inches. The Ground

plate thickness is 0.025 inches. The emitter pin is also made with the same copper wire and their length is 1.0 inches from the top to the ground plate. Whole conductor setup is attached to the glass box just 1.0 inches below the top of the box see fig 2.6. The gap between the conductor and ground plate is 2.5 inches that also concludes that the pin end point to the ground plate beginning is 1.5 inches (Fig 2.6), this gap is necessary to achieve the successful EHD pumping. Three types of the ground plate, as well as three types of conductor setup, are used in this study. The ground plate with a height of 0.5 inch, 1.0 inch and 2.0 inch and conductor with 4 pins, 12 pins, and 28 pin emitters are considered and designed for this numerical analysis process.

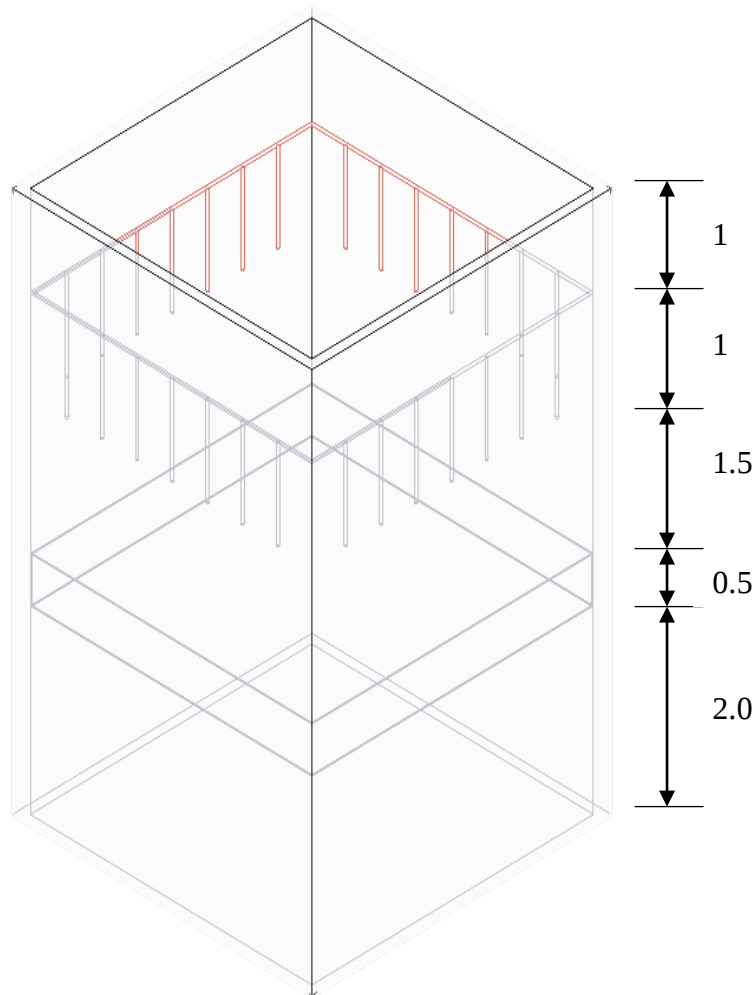


Figure 2: Schematic figure of 28 pin conductor setup with a 0.5-inch groundplate.

Cases of study

4 pin conductor with 0.5 inch of groundplate.
4 pin conductor with 1.0 inch of groundplate.
4 pin conductor with 2.0 inch of groundplate.
12 pin conductor with 0.5 inch of groundplate.

12 pin conductor with 1.0 inch of groundplate.
12 pin conductor with 2.0 inch of groundplate.
28 pin conductor with 0.5 inch of groundplate.
28 pin conductor with 1.0 inch of groundplate.
28 pin conductor with 2.0 inch of groundplate.

III. THEORY AND SIMULATION SET UP

The electrostatic theory is derived from Gauss's Law and from Faraday's law of induction. Gauss's Law shows that the net electric flux passing through any closed surface is equal to the net positive charge enclosed by that surface. This derives that in differential format

$$\nabla \cdot D = \rho \quad (1)$$

Here $D(x, y)$ is the charge density. We also know that the charge density can be pulled out by multiplying the relative permittivity ϵ_r , ϵ_0 is the permittivity of free space, 8.854×10^{-12} F/m and Field Intensity E . So, we can conclude with another equation:

$$D = \epsilon_r \cdot \epsilon_0 \cdot E \quad (2)$$

With the help of Faraday's law of induction, it is known that

$$E = -\nabla \cdot \phi \quad (3)$$

Where $\phi(x, y)$ is the electric potential. So, the final field equation is

$$\nabla \cdot (\epsilon_r \cdot \epsilon_0 - \nabla \cdot \phi(x, y)) = -\rho \quad (4)$$

This is the equation that the electrostatic field simulator solves using the finite element method.

To analyze the results a datum line is created by Maxwell just in the middle of the model with a total height of 6-inch top to bottom. This datum line is used to create the data plots after finishing the simulation process. Also, parameters like force, torque, and matrix distribution are set up on each part of the model to get the final output after final pass in the simulation process. An empty box is created just in the middle of the main canal to cover the highest maximum volume to get a visual of voltage, charge, electric field distribution after completing the simulation work.

Solution setup is the main part before starting the solution, where we can put the percentage of error, we will allow in this particular study with the number of passes allowed. Here we put the percentage of error allowed is 0.5 % with a number of passes 10 for all cases. So, the Maxwell software will perform the passes till it reaches the error percentage allowed. If we put the whole procedure in a flow chart we can conclude with the below flow chart.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Electric Field Intensity

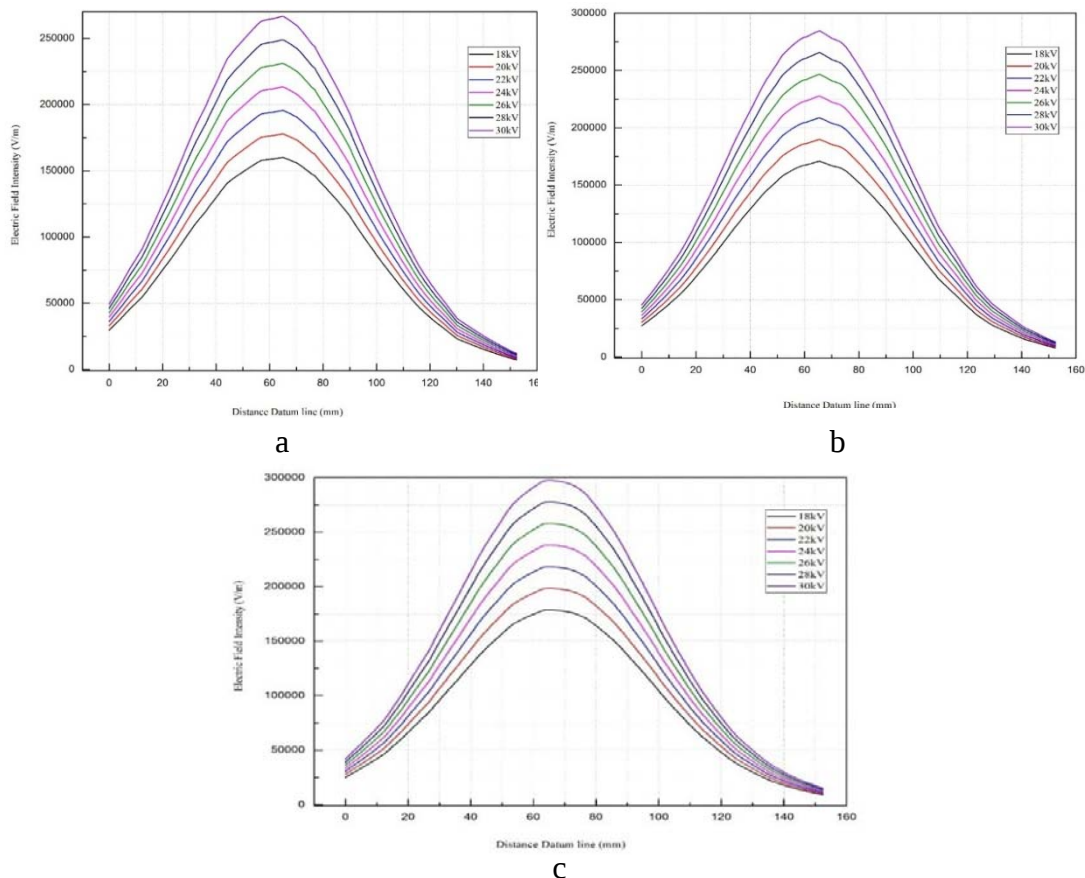
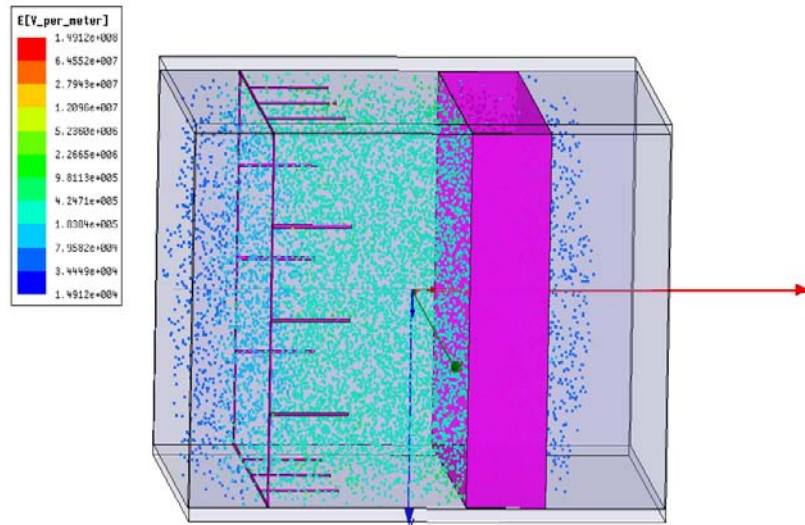


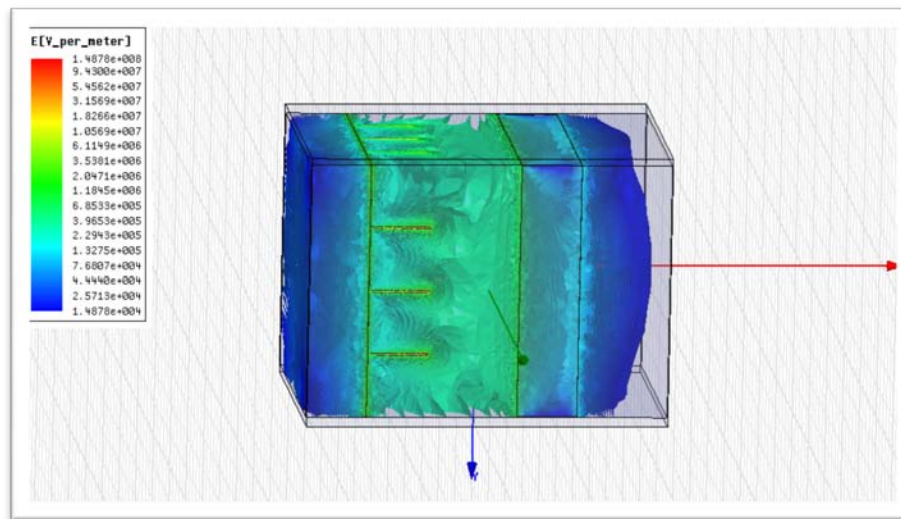
Figure 3: Electric field intensity (v/m) distribution with 0.5-inch ground plate along the datum line (a) for 4 pin emitter (b) for 12 pin emitter (c) for 28 pin emitter

The use of the different height of ground plate poses different lines in the graph which also represents the change of electric field intensity. The replacement of

ground plate with larger width shows a greater range of field intensity with the same amount of voltage input.



a



b

Figure 4: Electric field intensity distribution in for 12 pin, 1.0-inch ground plate 24 kV applied voltage (a) Cloud view (b) Isovalsurface view

From figure 4 observation, which the same setup in field overlay with a much detail view, it is found the air near the conductor pin have greater field intensity than the air on the top and bottom of the passage. Also, the highly intense field layer is also found on the top on the ground plate. The top part of the ground plate portion remarkably carries high electrical field intensity though the input voltage in this portion is 0 kV. It indicates that the charged ionic air near the conductor jumps to the ground plate. The migrated air particles are causing the ionic wind and the flow of fluid medium in the canal.

V. HIGHEST FIELD INTENSE POSITION

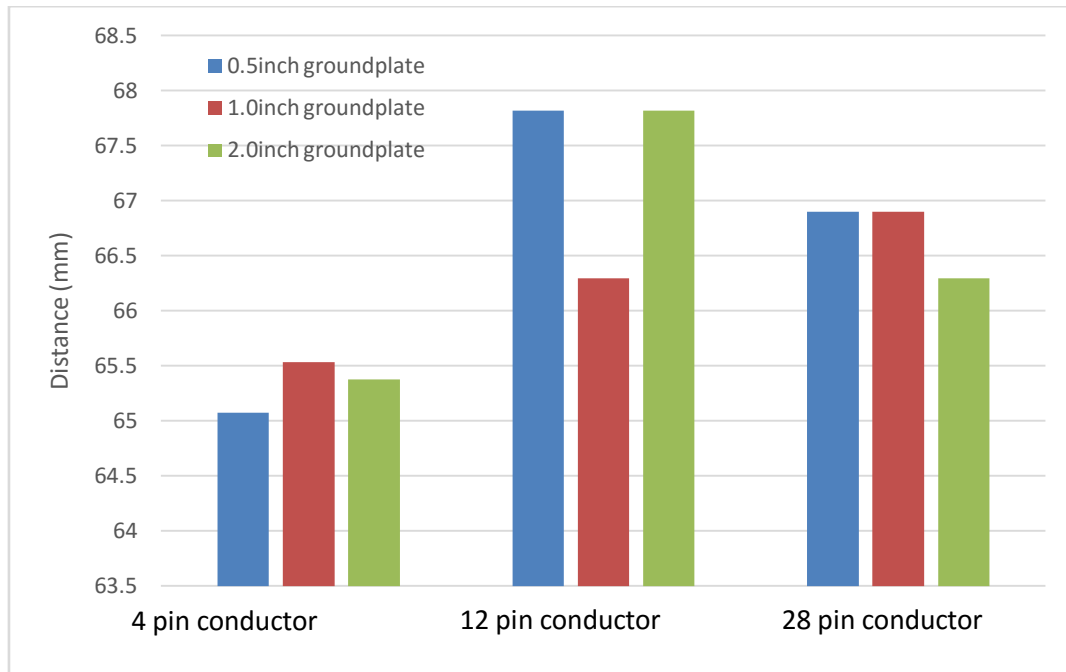


Figure 5: Highest field intensity points from the top of the channel

For each type of Ground plate setup, it is created single case, so for 0.5-inch, 1.0-inch and 2.0-inch ground plate 3 types of pin combination taken each time to build 3 fields of study. For 0.5-inch ground plate the far most position found for 12 pin conductor set up and closest found for 4 pin conductor. 1.0-inch ground plate setup showed interesting data that both 4 and 28 pin setup have the same point of highest intensity, but both of them went far from the point they have for 4 pin setup, 12 pin setup in this case lacked behind from both of them and created the point nearest to the top with an increase from 0.5-inch ground plate setup. 2.0-inch ground plate with 4 pin conductor has far most and 28 pin conductor closest points of electric field. So, it can be concluded from table 4.1 that the far most point found for the 1.0-inch ground plate with 4 and 28 pin conductor setup.

VI. FORCES ON TEST REGION

It is already discussed that the test region is created inside the channel and the material is assigned

as Air to see the impact inside the channel which also worked as a working fluid domain. The table 4.2 indicates that the forces in X-axis for 4 pins are always negative and comparatively larger than 12 pin and 28 pin conductor. As the concern is the forces acting in the positive Z-axis direction as it has the potential to create the force which can drive the fluid from top to bottom of the channel. For 4 and 12 pin the Z direction force is larger, but it is negative, which means a very poor or negative potential to create the flow in the Z direction. Found forces here are very low compared to the forces created in other parts of the experimental domain. For each pin set up for every direction despite their positivity forces increase with the increase of voltage applied. The maximum total force found in the 12 pin conductor setup which is $230 \mu\text{N}$. As the forces in X or Y or Z axis found negative in different cases which mean the force is not exerting on the outside of the channel it basically creating a collision within the region. For 4 and 12 pin the X and Z axis force pushing inwards whereas the Y axis forces are exerting on the region wall.

Table 1: Force distribution for 0.5-inch ground plate in test region

Voltage	F_x Force (μN)	F_y Force (μN)	F_z Force (μN)	Total Force (μN)	Conductor Typed
18	-59.437	26.893	-12.602	66.444	4 Pin Conductor
20	-73.379	33.201	-15.558	82.029	
22	-88.788	40.174	-18.825	99.255	
24	-105.67	47.81	-22.404	118.12	
26	-124.01	56.11	-26.293	138.63	
28	-143.82	65.075	-30.494	160.78	
30	-165.1	74.703	-35.006	184.57	

18	-6.3726	81.071	-16.404	82.959	12 Pin Conductor
20	-7.8674	100.09	-20.252	102.42	
22	-9.5195	121.11	-24.505	123.93	
24	-11.329	144.13	-29.163	147.48	
26	-13.296	169.15	-34.226	173.09	
28	-15.42	196.17	-39.695	200.74	
30	-17.702	225.2	-45.568	230.44	
18	-49.719	-19.857	1.1611	53.55	28 Pin Conductor
20	-61.381	-24.515	1.4335	66.111	
22	-74.271	-29.663	1.7345	79.994	
24	-88.389	-35.301	2.0642	95.2	
26	-103.73	-41.43	2.4226	111.73	
28	-120.31	-48.049	2.8096	129.58	
30	-138.11	-55.158	3.2253	148.75	

VII. CONCLUSION

The present study has investigated the electrical characteristics of a square channel single stage EHD pump. Three types of conductor (4, 12, 28 pin) are created and each conductor have three (0.5-inch, 1.0-inch and 2.0-inch) ground plate set up with the glass channel. A lost voltage always found for every applied voltage in a conductor. The pattern of the charge distribution, electric field distribution and energy distribution are same along the datum line. All the simulations are converged within the selected maximum number of pass and energy error percentage (0.5 %). Tetrahedral meshes are created by the adaptive meshing system in each validation pass. For the same number of pins if the width of ground plate is increased the percentage of ionized air is increased. For the same ground plate width, it is found that the ionized air is increased if the pin number in conductor increased. The electric field intensity is increased by the increment of the conductor pin number and width of ground plate.

The far most point of highest electrical field intensity is the 1.0-inch ground plate with 4 and 28 pin conductor setup. The position of the highest value of electric field gradually decreases from the top the channel if the pin number is increased for 0.5-inch ground plate setup. Highest field intensity is found nearest for 12 pin conductor with a 1.0-inch ground plate and for 2.0-inch ground plate nearest field intensity created for 28 pin conductor.

Forces acting on Ground Plate, Conductor and Channel are increased with if the applied voltage is increased, which are independent of the width of ground plate, but also larger range of forces are found with the increase of pin number. The experimental domain forces are very low compared to the forces. Forces are increased when applied voltage increased despite their direction.

This study has opened a lot of opportunities to work on different shapes of sizes of EHD pump as the electric field potential and forces are measured successfully. This same simulation can be tied up with

ansys fluent. This can be effective to find the flow pattern and flow velocity directly from the ionized air. Any kind of dielectric fluid can be analyzed in micro scale.

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Real Power Loss Reduction by Revolutionary Algorithm

By Dr. K. Lenin

Prasad V. Potluri Siddhartha Institute of Technology

Abstract- In this paper, Kidney Search (KS) algorithm is proposed for solving reactive power problem. When using KS algorithm, solutions are rated based on the average value of the objective function in a particular population of particular round. Optimal solutions are identified in the filtered blood and the rest are considered as inferior solutions. As the algorithm proposed by the name of kidney, it reproduces various processes from the system of a biological kidney. Proposed Kidney search (KS) algorithm has been tested on standard IEEE 30 bus test system and simulation results show clearly about the better performance of the proposed KS algorithm in reducing the real power loss.

Keywords: optimal reactive power, transmission loss, kidney search algorithm.

GJRE-F Classification: FOR Code: 090607



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Keywords: optimal reactive power, transmission loss, kidney search algorithm.

I. INTRODUCTION

Optimal reactive power problem is a multi-objective optimization problem that minimizes the real power loss and bus voltage deviation. Various mathematical techniques like the gradient method [1-2], Newton method [3] and linear programming [4-7] have been adopted to solve the optimal reactive power dispatch problem. Both the gradient and Newton methods have the complexity in managing inequality constraints. If linear programming is applied then the input-output function has to be uttered as a set of linear functions which mostly lead to loss of accuracy. The problem of voltage stability and collapse play a major role in power system planning and operation [8]. Global optimization has received extensive research awareness, and a great number of methods have been applied to solve this problem. Evolutionary algorithms such as genetic algorithm have been already proposed to solve the reactive power flow problem [9, 10]. Evolutionary algorithm is a heuristic approach used for minimization problems by utilizing nonlinear and non-differentiable continuous space functions. In [11], Genetic algorithm has been used to solve optimal reactive power flow problem. In [12], Hybrid differential evolution algorithm is proposed to improve the voltage stability index. In [13] Biogeography Based algorithm is projected to solve the reactive power dispatch problem. In [14], a fuzzy based method is used to solve the optimal reactive power scheduling method. In [15], an improved evolutionary programming is used to solve the optimal reactive power dispatch problem. In

[16], the optimal reactive power flow problem is solved by integrating a genetic algorithm with a nonlinear interior point method. In [17], a pattern algorithm is used to solve ac-dc optimal reactive power flow model with the generator capability limits. In [18], F. Capitanescu proposes a two-step approach to evaluate Reactive power reserves with respect to operating constraints and voltage stability. In [19], a programming based approach is used to solve the optimal reactive power dispatch problem. In [20], A. Kargarian et al present a probabilistic algorithm for optimal reactive power provision in hybrid electricity markets with uncertain loads. Kidney search algorithm (KS) is a new evolutionary optimization algorithm that derives its functionality from the kidney process in the body of a human being, and was initially introduced by [21]. When using the KS algorithm, the solutions are rated based on the average value of the objective functions of the solutions in a particular populace in a particular round. Optimal solutions are identified in the filtered blood and the rest are considered as inferior solutions. This process simulates the process of filtration known as glomerular in the human kidney. The inferior solutions once again are considered during other reiterations, and if they don't satisfy the filtration rate after the application of a set of movement operators, they are ejected from the set of solutions. This also stimulates the reabsorption and secretion features of a kidney. Additionally, a solution termed as the optimal solution is expelled if it does not prove to be better than the solutions classified in the worst sets; this simulates the blood secretion process by the kidney. After placing each of the solutions in a set, the optimal solutions are ranked, and the filtered and waste blood is combined to form another population that is subjected to an updated filtration rate. Filtration offers the needed manipulation to generate a new solution and reabsorption provides further examination. This paper proposes Kidney Search (KS) algorithm to solve the optimal reactive power problem. Proposed KS algorithm has been evaluated in standard IEEE 30 bus test system and the simulation results show that the proposed approach outperforms all the entitled reported algorithms in minimization of real power loss.

II. PROBLEM FORMULATION

The optimal power flow problem is treated as a general minimization problem with constraints, and can be mathematically written in the following form:

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$$\text{Minimize } f(x, u) \quad (1)$$

$$\text{subject to } g(x, u) = 0 \quad (2)$$

and

$$h(x, u) \leq 0 \quad (3)$$

where $f(x, u)$ is the objective function. $g(x, u)$ and $h(x, u)$ are respectively the set of equality and inequality constraints. x is the vector of state variables, and u is the vector of control variables.

The state variables are the load buses (PQ buses) voltages, angles, the generator reactive powers and the slack active generator power:

$$x = (P_{g1}, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_N, V_{L1}, \dots, V_{LNL}, Q_{g1}, \dots, Q_{gng})^T \quad (4)$$

The control variables are the generator bus voltages, the shunt capacitors/reactors and the transformers tap-settings:

$$u = (V_g, T, Q_c)^T \quad (5)$$

or

$$u = (V_{g1}, \dots, V_{gng}, T_1, \dots, T_{Nt}, Q_{c1}, \dots, Q_{cNc})^T \quad (6)$$

Where ng , nt and nc are the number of generators, number of tap transformers and the number of shunt compensators respectively.

III. OBJECTIVE FUNCTION

a) Active power loss

The objective of the reactive power dispatch is to minimize the active power loss in the transmission network, which can be described as follows:

$$F = PL = \sum_{k \in Nbr} g_k (V_i^2 + V_j^2 - 2V_i V_j \cos \theta_{ij}) \quad (7)$$

or

$$F = PL = \sum_{i \in Ng} P_{gi} - P_d = P_{gslack} + \sum_{i \neq slack}^{Ng} P_{gi} - P_d \quad (8)$$

where g_k is the conductance of branch between nodes i and j , Nbr is the total number of transmission lines in power systems. P_d is the total active power demand, P_{gi} is the generator active power of unit i , and P_{gslack} is the generator active power of slack bus.

b) Voltage profile improvement

For minimizing the voltage deviation in PQ buses, the objective function becomes:

$$F = PL + \omega_v \times VD \quad (9)$$

where ω_v is a weighting factor of voltage deviation. VD is the voltage deviation given by:

$$VD = \sum_{i=1}^{Npq} |V_i - 1| \quad (10)$$

c) Equality Constraint

The equality constraint $g(x, u)$ of the Optimal reactive power problem is represented by the power

balance equation, where the total power generation must cover the total power demand and the power losses:

$$P_G = P_D + P_L \quad (11)$$

This equation is solved by running Newton Raphson load flow method, by calculating the active power of slack bus to determine active power loss.

d) Inequality Constraints

The inequality constraints $h(x, u)$ reflect the limits on components in the power system as well as the limits created to ensure system security. Upper and lower bounds on the active power of slack bus, and reactive power of generators:

$$P_{gslack}^{min} \leq P_{gslack} \leq P_{gslack}^{max} \quad (12)$$

$$Q_{gi}^{min} \leq Q_{gi} \leq Q_{gi}^{max}, i \in N_g \quad (13)$$

Upper and lower bounds on the bus voltage magnitudes:

$$V_i^{min} \leq V_i \leq V_i^{max}, i \in N \quad (14)$$

Upper and lower bounds on the transformers tap ratios:

$$T_i^{min} \leq T_i \leq T_i^{max}, i \in N_T \quad (15)$$

Upper and lower bounds on the compensators reactive powers:

$$Q_c^{min} \leq Q_c \leq Q_c^{max}, i \in N_c \quad (16)$$

Where N is the total number of buses, N_T is the total number of Transformers; N_c is the total number of shunt reactive compensators.

IV. KIDNEY SEARCH (KS) ALGORITHM

Kidney search (KS) algorithm is one of the population-based techniques of feature selection. As recommended by its name, it replicates various processes from the system of a biological kidney. Following are the four main elements of kidney procedures that are referenced during the imitation. 1. Filtration: movement of water and solutes from the blood to the tubules. 2. Reabsorption: transport of valuable solutes and water from the tubules to the blood. 3. Secretion: transfer of additional constituents that are destructive from the bloodstream to the tubule. 4. Excretion: moving waste products from the above processes through the urine. In KS initial phase [21], an arbitrary populace of potential solutions is formed while the objective function is computed for each of the solutions. In every iteration, there is a generation of other potential solutions through a movement toward the current optimal solution. Thus, through the application of filtration operator, there is a filtration of potential solutions with high intensity toward the filtered blood (FB) with others being transferred to waste (W). The reabsorption, secretion, and excretion methods of the

human kidney procedure are replicated here during the search procedure to check various conditions entrenched to the algorithm. When a potential solution is transferred to W, there is an allowance by the algorithm to have a chance of improving a solution to get an opportunity of moving it into FB. When the chance is not well exploited, the solution is expelled from W, and a potential solution is moved into W. Conversely, when a potential solution is moved into FB after filtration and has a poor quality in comparison to the worst solution contained by FB, the solution is excreted. On the other hand, if the solution proves to be preferable compared to the worst, the worst solution contained in FB is secreted. Lastly, the different solutions contained in FB are ranked, and an update is done on the optimal solution and the filtration rate. FB and W, are later combined. Solutions in KS population represent solutes in a human kidney. For KS, there is a generation of a new solution through shifting of the solution from previous recapitulation process to the current optimal solution. The formula of the movement is as follows:

$$Z_{i+1} = Z_i + \text{rand}(Z_{best} - Z_i) \quad (17)$$

In Equation 17, Z denotes the solution in KS population comparable to a solute in a natural kidney. Z_i is a solution involved in the i th iteration. Rand value is an arbitrary value between zero and another number while Z_{best} is the current solution based on the preceding iterations. The equation can produce a good diversity of solutions based on a current and optimal solution. Moreover, relocating the solutions to the optimal solution strengthens the local conjunction competence of an algorithm.

Filtering of the solutions is done with a filtration rate computed using a filtration function during iterations. Calculation of the filtration rate (l_r) is done using the following formula:

$$l_r = \beta \times \frac{\sum_{i=1}^s f(y_i)}{s} \quad (18)$$

β is a constant value between 0 and 1 and is attuned in advance. s represents the size of the population. $f(y_i)$ represents an objective function of solution y at i th iteration. It is evident in the above formula that the filtration rate, l_r , for iterations depends on the objective function value of solutions in that population. The equation represents a ratio of each solution determined by β . When β equals to zero, l_r will equal to zero, meaning that the process of filtration for that algorithm will not take place. When the value of β is set at 1, the average value for objective functions equals to the value of l_r . There are different rates of filtration to help in the merging of the algorithm. During iterations, objective function values get closer to the global optimal solution and the filtration rate is thus computed using the solutions. This provides the algorithm with improved solutions with exaggerated exploration procedure.

Reabsorption operator can be defined as the process of giving a solution which is being moved to W and a chance to be included in FB. Any solution that is moved into W can be allocated to FB if after the operator accountable for the movement & (Eq.17) is applied. It meets the rates of filtration and qualifies to be allotted into FB. Ideally, this mimics the reabsorption process of solutes in the kidney of a human being. In exploration, reabsorption is important one. A secretion is a form of operator for those solutions which have been progressed to FB. When a solution that has the opportunity to be moved to FB but does not prove to be improved in comparison to FB worst solution, secretion takes place, and the solution is moved to W; else the solution vestiges in FB while the worst solution assigned in FB is excreted and moved into W. Secretion of solutions into W takes place if the solutions fail to satisfy the filtration rate after several attempts to be reabsorbed as part of FB. In such a case, the solution in W is replaced with any other solution. Implanting arbitrary solutions emulates the continuous process of inserting water and solutes into the glomerular capillaries of the kidney.

```

Fix the population
Estimate the solution in the population
Fix the best solution  $Z_{best}$  ,
Fix filtration rate,  $l_r$ , by equation (18)
Fix waste, W
Fix filtered blood, FB
Fix number of iteration,
Do while (iteration < number of iterations)
For all  $Z_i$ 
Calculate new  $Z_i$  by equation (17)
Check  $Z_i$  using  $l_r$ 
If  $Z_i$  allocated to W,
Put on reabsorption and engender  $Z_{new}$  by using
equation (17)
If reabsorption is not satisfied ( $Z_{new}$  cannot be part of
FB)
Eliminate  $Z_i$  from W (excretion)
Put on an arbitrary Z into W to swap  $Z_i$ 
End if
 $Z_i$  is reabsorbed
Else
If it is better than the  $Z_{worst}$  in FB
 $Z_{worst}$  is secreted
End if
End if
End for
Rank the  $Z_s$  from FB and modernize the  $Z_{best}$ 
Amalgamate W and FB
Modernize filtration rate  $l_r$  by equation (18)
End while
Return  $Z_{best}$ 
    
```

V. SIMULATION RESULTS

Validity of the proposed Kidney Search (KS) algorithm has been verified by testing in IEEE 30-bus, 41 branch system and it has 6 generator-bus voltage magnitudes, 4 transformer-tap settings, and 2 bus shunt reactive compensators. Bus 1 is taken as slack bus and 2, 5, 8, 11 and 13 are considered as PV generator buses and others are PQ load buses. Control variables limits are given in Table 1.

Table 1: Primary Variable Limits (Pu)

Variables	Min.	Max.	category
Generator Bus	0.95	1.1	Continuous
Load Bus	0.95	1.05	Continuous
Transformer-Tap	0.9	1.1	Discrete
Shunt Reactive Compensator	-0.11	0.31	Discrete

In Table 2 the power limits of generators buses are listed.

Table 2: Generators Power Limits

Bus	Pg	Pgmin	Pgmax	Qgmin	Qmax
1	96.00	49	200	0	10
2	79.00	18	79	-40	50
5	49.00	14	49	-40	40
8	21.00	11	31	-10	40
11	21.00	11	28	-6	24
13	21.00	11	39	-6	24

Table 3 shows the proposed Kidney Search (KS) algorithm successfully kept the control variables within limits. Table 4 narrates about the performance of the proposed Kidney Search (KS) algorithm. Fig 1 shows about the voltage deviations during the iterations and Table 5 list out the overall comparison of the results of optimal solution obtained by various methods.

Table 3: After optimization values of control variables

Control Variables	KS
V1	1.0401
V2	1.0405
V5	1.0198
V8	1.0289
V11	1.0697
V13	1.0499
T4,12	0.00
T6,9	0.01
T6,10	0.90
T28,27	0.91
Q10	0.10
Q24	0.10
Real power loss	4.2732
Voltage deviation	0.9082

Table 4: Performance of KS algorithm

Iterations	32
Time taken (secs)	9.92
Real power loss	4.2732

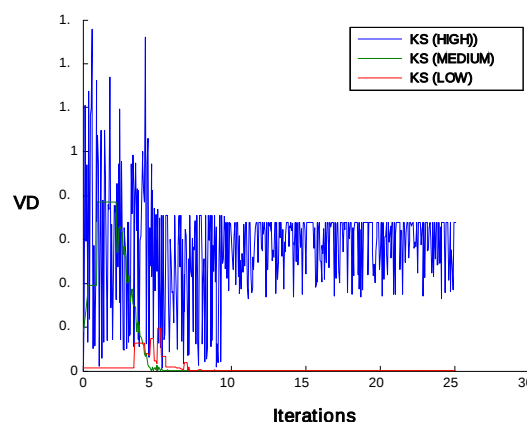


Fig. 1: Voltage deviation (VD) characteristics

Table 5: Comparison of results

Techniques	Real power loss (MW)
SGA(Wu et al., 1998) [22]	4.98
PSO(Zhao et al., 2005) [23]	4.9262
LP(Mahadevan et al., 2010) [24]	5.988
EP(Mahadevan et al., 2010) [24]	4.963
CGA(Mahadevan et al., 2010) [24]	4.980
AGA(Mahadevan et al., 2010) [24]	4.926
CLPSO(Mahadevan et al., 2010) [24]	4.7208
HSA (Khazali et al., 2011) [25]	4.7624
BB-BC (Sakthivel et al., 2013) [26]	4.690
MCS(Tejaswini sharma et al., 2016) [27]	4.87231
Proposed KS	4.2732

VI. CONCLUSION

Kidney Search (KS) algorithm has been successfully applied for solving reactive power problem. In the proposed Kidney Search (KS) algorithm solutions are rated based on the average value of the objective function of the solutions in a particular population in a particular round. Proposed Kidney Search (KS) algorithm has been tested in standard IEEE 30 bus system and simulation results reveal about the improved performance of the proposed Kidney Search (KS) algorithm in plummeting the real power loss when compared to other stated standard algorithms.

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Author Guidelines:

1. General,
2. Ethical Guidelines,
3. Submission of Manuscripts,
4. Manuscript's Category,
5. Structure and Format of Manuscript,
6. After Acceptance.

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- As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity and correctness of sentences and phrases.

Procedures (Methods and Materials):

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A sound written Procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replacement your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt for the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to spare your outcome but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section. When a technique is used that has been well described in another object, mention the specific item describing a way but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to text all particular resources and broad procedures, so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step by step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

Materials:

- Explain materials individually only if the study is so complex that it saves liberty this way.
- Embrace particular materials, and any tools or provisions that are not frequently found in laboratories.
- Do not take in frequently found.
- If use of a definite type of tools.
- Materials may be reported in a part section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

Methods:

- Report the method (not particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology)
- Describe the method entirely
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures
- Simplify - details how procedures were completed not how they were exclusively performed on a particular day.
- If well known procedures were used, account the procedure by name, possibly with reference, and that's all.

Approach:

- It is embarrassed or not possible to use vigorous voice when documenting methods with no using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result when script up the methods most authors use third person passive voice.
- Use standard style in this and in every other part of the paper - avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

What to keep away from

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings - save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.

Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part a entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Carry on to be to the point, by means of statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently. You must obviously differentiate material that would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matter should not be submitted at all except requested by the instructor.



Content

- Sum up your conclusion in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In manuscript, explain each of your consequences, point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and comprise remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or in manuscript form.

What to stay away from

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surroundings information, or try to explain anything.
- Not at all, take in raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present the similar data more than once.
- Manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate the identical information.
- Never confuse figures with tables - there is a difference.

Approach

- As forever, use past tense when you submit to your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.
- Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report
- If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results part.

Figures and tables

- If you put figures and tables at the end of the details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attach appendix materials, such as raw facts
- Despite of position, each figure must be numbered one after the other and complete with subtitle
- In spite of position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other and complete with heading
- All figure and table must be adequately complete that it could situate on its own, divide from text

Discussion:

The Discussion is expected the trickiest segment to write and describe. A lot of papers submitted for journal are discarded based on problems with the Discussion. There is no head of state for how long a argument should be. Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implication of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and hold up for all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of result should be visibly described. Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved with prospect, and let it drop at that.

- Make a decision if each premise is supported, discarded, or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."
- Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work
- You may propose future guidelines, such as how the experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details all of your remarks as much as possible, focus on mechanisms.
- Make a decision if the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory, and whether or not it was correctly restricted.
- Try to present substitute explanations if sensible alternatives be present.
- One research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind, where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

- When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from available information
- Submit to work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.
- Submit to generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.



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References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring



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