

# A Novel Approach for Unit Commitment Problem via an Effective Hybrid Particle Swarm Optimization

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**Abstract**—This paper presents a new approach via hybrid particle swarm optimization (HPSO) scheme to solve the unit commitment (UC) problem. HPSO proposed in this paper is a blend of binary particle swarm optimization (BPSO) and real coded particle swarm optimization (RCPSO). The UC problem is handled by BPSO, while RCPSO solves the economic load dispatch problem. Both algorithms are run simultaneously, adjusting their solutions in search of a better solution. Problem formulation of the UC takes into consideration the minimum up and down time constraints, start-up cost, and spinning reserve and is defined as the minimization of the total objective function while satisfying all the associated constraints. Problem formulation, representation, and the simulation results for a ten generator-scheduling problem are presented. Results clearly show that HPSO is very competent in solving the UC problem in comparison to other existing methods.

**Index Terms**—Hybrid particle swarm optimization (HPSO), industrial power system, optimization methods, power generation dispatch.

## I. INTRODUCTION

UNIT commitment (UC) in a power system involves determining a start-up and shut-down schedule of units to meet the required demand, over a short-term period [1]. In solving the UC problem, generally two basic decisions are involved, namely, the “unit commitment” decision and the “economic dispatch” decision. The “unit commitment” decision involves the determination of the generating units to be running during each hour of the planning horizon, considering system capacity requirements, including the reserve, and the constraints on the start-up and shut-down of units. The “economic dispatch” decision involves the allocation of the system demand and spinning reserve capacity among the operating units during each specific hour of operation.

The UC problem has commonly been formulated as a non-linear, large scale, mixed-integer combinatorial optimization problem with constraints. The exact solution to the problem can be obtained only by complete enumeration, often at the cost of a prohibitively large computation time requirement for realistic power systems [1]. Research endeavours, therefore, have been focused on efficient, near-optimal solutions.

UC algorithms can be applied to large-scale power systems and have reasonable storage and computation time requirements. A survey of literature on UC methods reveals that various numerical optimization techniques have been employed to address the UC problems. Specifically, there are priority list methods [2], [3], integer programming [4], [5], dynamic programming [6]–[11], mixed-integer programming [12], branch-and-bound methods [13], and Lagrangian relaxation methods [14], [15]. Among these methods, the priority list method is simple and fast, but the quality of final solution is not guaranteed. Dynamic programming methods, which are based on priority lists, are flexible but are computationally expensive. Branch-and-bound adopts a linear function to represent the fuel consumption and time-dependent start cost and obtains the required lower and upper bounds. The disadvantage of the branch-and-bound method is the exponential growth in the execution time with the size of the UC problem. The integer and mixed-integer methods adopt linear programming technique to solve and check for an integer solution. These methods have only been applied to small UC problems and have required major assumptions that limit the solution space. The Lagrangian relaxation method provides a fast solution, but it may suffer from numerical convergence and solution quality problems.

Aside from the above methods, there is another class of numerical techniques applied to the UC problem. Specifically, they are artificial neural networks [16], [17], simulated annealing (SA) [18], and genetic algorithms (GAs) [19]–[22]. These methods can accommodate more complicated constraints and are claimed to have better solution quality. SA is a powerful, general-purpose stochastic optimization technique, which can theoretically converge asymptotically to a global optimum solution with probability 1. One main drawback, however, of SA is that it takes a large CPU time to find the near-global minimum. GAs are a general-purpose stochastic and parallel search methods based on the mechanics of natural selection and natural genetics. It is a search method and has the potential of obtaining a near-global minimum.

In this paper, we apply the hybrid particle swarm optimization (HPSO) method in solving the UC problem. A description of the HPSO method is presented in Section II. Then a detailed explanation of HPSO approach is given in Section III. The UC problem formulation is given in Section IV, while Section V explains the constraints satisfaction techniques employed in this experiment. Numerical tests and results using HPSO is presented in Section VI. Finally, a conclusion is given in Section VII.

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## II. PARTICLE SWARM OPTIMIZATION

PSO was introduced by Kennedy and Eberhart in 1995 [23] as an alternative to GAs. The PSO technique has ever since turned out to be a competitor in the field of numerical optimization. Similar to GA, a PSO consists of a population refining its knowledge of the given search space. PSO is inspired by particles moving around in the search space. The individuals in a PSO thus have their own positions and velocities. These individuals are denoted as particles. Traditionally, PSO has no crossover between individuals, has no mutation, and particles are never substituted by other individuals during the run. Instead, the PSO refines its search by attracting the particles to positions with good solutions. Each particle remembers its own best position found so far in the exploration. This position is called personal best and is denoted by  $pbest$  in (1). Additionally, among these  $pbest$ s, there is only one particle that has the best fitness, called the global best and is denoted by  $gbest$  in (1). The velocity of the  $i$ th dimension is defined as

$$V_i = wV_i + \rho_1 \text{rand}() (gbest - X_i) + \rho_2 \text{rand}() (pbest - X_i) \quad (1)$$

where  $w$  is known as the inertia weight as described in [24] and [25]. The best found position for the given particle is denoted by  $pbest$ , whereas  $gbest$  is the best position known for all particles. The parameters  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$  are set to constant values, which are 1.2 and 2.8 (Section VI explains why these values are chosen), respectively, whereas  $\text{rand}()$  is a randomly generated value between 0 and 1. As mentioned, the subscript  $i$  denotes the  $i$ th dimension of a particle. The position of each particle is updated on every iteration. This is done by adding the velocity vector to the position vector, as described in

$$X_i = X_i + V_i. \quad (2)$$

It has been noticed that members of the group seem to share information among them, a fact that leads to increased cohesion or efficiency (e.g., in search of food) of the group. Some scientists suggest that knowledge is optimized by social interaction and thinking is not private but also interpersonal. Therefore, particle swarms have not only individual but also a collective intelligence, simply by virtue of their social interactions.

The simplest version of PSO lets every individual move from a given point to a new one that is a weighted combination of the individual's best position ever found and of the individual's best position,  $pbest$ . The choice of the PSO algorithm's parameters (such as the inertia weight) seems to be of utmost importance for the speed and efficiency of the algorithm.

## III. HPSO APPROACH TO UC

The original version of PSO [23] operates on real values. The term "hybrid particle swarm optimization" was first mentioned in [40], whereby the term hybrid meant the combination of PSO and GA. However, in our approach here, hybrid is meant to highlight the concept of blending real valued PSO [solving economic load dispatch (ELD)] with binary valued PSO (solving

UC) running independently and simultaneously. The binary PSO (BPSO) is made possible with a simple modification to the particle swarm algorithm. This BPSO solves binary problems similar to those traditionally optimized by GAs. Kennedy and Eberhart [26] showed that the binary particle swarm was able to successfully optimize the De Jong [27] suite of test functions. Further, Kennedy and Spears [28] compared the binary particle swarm algorithm to GAs comprising crossover only, mutation only, and both crossover and mutation, in Spears' multimodal random problem generator. It was seen that the particle swarm found global optima faster than any of the three kinds of GAs in all conditions except for problems featuring low dimensionality. In our simulation results to solve the ELD, we proved that this is true as the results show better convergence for PSO in the feasible environment. In binary particle swarm,  $X_i$  and  $pbest$  can take on values of 0 or 1 only. The velocity  $V_i$  will determine a probability threshold. If  $V_i$  is higher, the individual is more likely to choose 1, and lower values favor the 0 choice. Such a threshold needs to stay in the range [0.0, 1.0]. One straightforward function for accomplishing this is common in neural networks. The function is called the sigmoid function and is defined as follows:

$$s(V_i) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-V_i)}. \quad (3)$$

The function squashes its input into the requisite range and has properties that make it agreeable to be used as a probability threshold. A random number (drawn from a uniform distribution between 0.0 and 1.0) is then generated, whereby  $X_i$  is set to 1 if the random number is less than the value from the sigmoid function as illustrated in the following:

$$\text{If } \text{rand}() < s(V_i), \text{ then } U_i = 1, \text{ else } U_i = 0. \quad (4)$$

In the UC problem,  $U_i$  represents the on or off state of generator  $i$ . In order to ensure that there is always some chance of a bit flipping (on and off of generators), a constant  $V_{\max}$  can be set at the start of a trial to limit the range of  $V_i$ . A large  $V_{\max}$  value results in a low frequency of changing state of generator, whereas a small value increases the frequency of on/off of a generator. In practice,  $V_{\max}$  is often set at  $\pm 4.0$ , so that there is always at least a good chance that a bit will change state. This is to limit  $V_i$  so that  $s(V_i)$  does not approach too close to 0.0 or 1.0. In this binary model,  $V_{\max}$  functions similarly to the mutation rate in GAs.

## IV. UC PROBLEM FORMULATION

In this section, we first formulate the UC problem and then present a detailed PSO algorithm for solving the UC problem. The objective of the UC problem is the minimization of the total production costs over the scheduling horizon. Therefore, the objective function is expressed as the sum of fuel and start-up costs of the generating units. For  $N$  generators, the operation cost is defined mathematically as shown in the following:

$$\text{TPC}_N = \sum_{i=1}^N [F_i(P_{ih}) + \text{ST}_i(1 - U_{i(h-1)})]U_{ih}. \quad (5)$$

The operating cost accumulates over the total number of operating hours  $H$ , where  $H = 24$ , which represents 24 h of operation for each unit of generator. Therefore, (5) is rewritten as

$$\text{TPC}_{\text{HN}} = \sum_{h=1}^H \sum_{i=1}^N [F_i(P_{ih}) + \text{ST}_i(1 - U_{i(h-1)})]U_{ih}. \quad (6)$$

In (5),  $\text{TPC}_N$  is the total production cost for  $N$  units of generators, whereas  $\text{TPC}_{\text{HN}}$  in (6) denotes the total production cost for  $N$  units of generators over  $H$  number of operating hours. Owing to the operational requirements, the minimization of the objective function is subjected to the following constraints:

1) Power balance constraint

$$\sum_{i=1}^N P_{ih}U_{ih} = D_h \quad (7)$$

2) Spinning reserve constraint

$$\sum_{i=1}^N P_{i(\max)}U_{ih} \geq D_h + R_h \quad (8)$$

3) Generation limit constraint

$$P_{i(\min)} \leq P_{ih} \leq P_{i(\max)} \quad (9)$$

4) Minimum up-time constraint

$$X_i^{\text{on}}(t) \geq \text{MU}_i \quad (10)$$

5) Minimum down-time constraint

$$X_i^{\text{off}}(t) \geq \text{MD}_i \quad (11)$$

where the notations used are as follows:

$\text{TPC}$  total production cost of the power generation;  
 $F_i(P_{ih})$  fuel cost function of the  $i$ th unit with generation output  $P_{ih}$  at the  $h$ th hour. Usually, it is a quadratic polynomial with coefficients  $\alpha_i, \beta_i$  and  $\gamma_i$  as follows:

$$F_i(P_{ih}) = \alpha_i P_{ih}^2 + \beta_i P_{ih} + \gamma_i; \quad (12)$$

$N$  number of generators;  
 $H$  number of hours;  
 $P_{ih}$  generation output of the  $i$ th unit at the  $h$ th hour;  
 $\text{ST}_i$  start-up cost of the  $i$ th unit;  
 $U_{ih}$  on/off status of the  $i$ th unit at the  $h$ th hour and  $U_{ih} = 0$  when off,  $U_{ih} = 1$  when on;  
 $D_h$  load demand at the  $h$ th hour (set to 10% of  $D_h$ );  
 $R_h$  spinning reserve at the  $h$ th hour;  
 $P_{i(\min)}$  minimum generation limit of the  $i$ th unit;  
 $P_{i(\max)}$  maximum generation limit of the  $i$ th unit;  
 $\text{MU}_i$  minimum up-time of the  $i$ th unit;  
 $\text{MD}_i$  minimum down-time of the  $i$ th unit;  
 $X_i^{\text{on}}(t)$  duration during which the  $i$ th unit is continuously on;  
 $X_i^{\text{off}}(t)$  duration during which the  $i$ th unit is continuously off.

## V. CONSTRAINTS SATISFACTION

Recently, several methods for handling infeasible solutions for continuous numerical optimization problems have emerged [29]–[32]. Some of them are based on penalty functions. They differ, however, in how the penalty function is designed and applied to infeasible solutions. They commonly use the cost function  $f$  to evaluate a feasible solution, i.e.,

$$\Phi_f(x) = f(x) \quad (13)$$

and the constraint violation measure  $\Phi_u(x)$  for the  $r + m$  constraints are usually defined as

$$\Phi_u(x) = \sum_{i=1}^r g_i^+(x) + \sum_{j=1}^m |h_j(x)| \quad (14)$$

or

$$\Phi_u(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^r (g_i^+(x))^2 + \sum_{j=1}^m (h_j(x))^2 \right] \quad (15)$$

where  $g_i^+(x) = \max \{0, g_i(x)\}$ . In other words,  $g_i^+(x)$  is the magnitude of the violation of the  $i$ th inequality constraint, where  $1 \leq i \leq r$ . Similarly,  $h_j(x)$  is the violation magnitude of the  $j$ th equality constraint, where  $1 \leq j \leq m$ . This means  $r$  is the number of inequality constraints, whereas  $m$  is the number of equality constraints. Then the total evaluation of an individual  $x$ , which can be interpreted as the error (for a minimization problem) of an individual  $x$ , is obtained as

$$\Phi(x) = \Phi_f(x) + s\Phi_u(x) \quad (16)$$

where  $s$  is a penalty parameter of a positive or negative constant for the minimization or maximization problem, respectively. By associating a penalty with all constraint violations, a constrained problem is transformed to an unconstrained problem such that we can deal with candidates that violate the constraints to generate potential solutions without considering the constraints.

### A. Satisfying Power Demand and Reserve Constraints

With respect to the theoretical explanation above, we formulate the objective of the UC problem as a combination of total production cost as the main objective with power balance and spinning reserve as inequality constraints, whereby  $\Phi_f(x) = \text{TPC}_N$  (5), and  $\Phi_u(x)$  is equivalent to the blend of power balance and spinning reserve constraints. Consequently, the formulation of the objective function is as shown below:

$$\Phi(x) = \Phi_f(x) + s\Phi_u(x) \quad (17)$$

$$\Phi(x) = \text{TPC}_N + \frac{s}{2} \left[ C_1 \left( D_h - \sum_{i=1}^N P_{ih}U_{ih} \right)^2 + C_2 \left( D_h + R_h - \sum_{i=1}^N P_{i(\max)}U_{ih} \right)^2 \right]. \quad (18)$$

As discussed,  $s$  is the penalty factor that is computed at the  $t$ th generation defined by  $s = s_0 + \log(t + 1)$ . The choice of  $s$  determines the accuracy and speed of convergence. From the

experiment, a greater value of  $s$  increases its speed and convergence rate. Due to this reason, a value of 100 for  $s_0$  is selected. The pressure on the infeasible solution can be increased with the number of generations, as discussed in the Kuhn–Tucker optimality theorem, and penalty function theorem provides guidelines to choose the penalty term. In (18),  $C_1$  is set to 1 if a violation to constraint (7) occurs and  $C_1 = 0$  whenever (7) is not violated. Likewise,  $C_2$  is also set to 1 whenever a violation of (8) is detected, and it remains 0 otherwise. The second term in the penalty factor is the reserve constraint, where  $R_h$  is 10% of power demand  $D_h$ . Thus, (18) can also be written as

$$\Phi(x) = \text{TPC}_N + \frac{s}{2} \left[ C_1 \left( D_h - \sum_{i=1}^N P_{ih} U_{ih} \right)^2 + C_2 \left( 1.1D_h - \sum_{i=1}^N P_{i(\max)} U_{ih} \right)^2 \right]. \quad (19)$$

By substituting (5) into (19)

$$\Phi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N [F_i(P_{ih}) + \text{ST}_i(1 - X_{i(h-1)})] U_{ih} + \frac{s}{2} \left[ C_1 \left( D_h - \sum_{i=1}^N P_{ih} U_{ih} \right)^2 + C_2 \left( 1.1D_h - \sum_{i=1}^N P_{i(\max)} U_{ih} \right)^2 \right]. \quad (20)$$

Equation (20) is the fitness function for evaluating every particle in the population of PSO for an hour. For  $N$  hours, (20) is redefined as in (21), shown at the bottom of the page.

To decrease the pressure of constraint violation error on the fitness function  $\Phi(x)$ , a set of major feasible solutions that satisfy the power demand is generated before evaluation of (21) is considered. Based on the current research [33]–[37], feasible solutions satisfying the power demand and reserve constraints are considered prior to ED. This assures that the PSO explores in a feasible environment, which reduces the computation time as well as improves the quality of the solution. The pseudocode below illustrates the process whereby the feasible power values are generated based on its demand. *MaxUnit* in the pseudocode is the maximum number of generators.

**Do while** Demand is not met

**If** total power generated < Demand **then**

**For**  $i = 1$  to *MaxUnit*

Set generator with top priority to operate at maximum capacity accordingly.

Once the total power generated is greater than the demand, minus the error from the current generator in order to exactly meet the demand. Check the range, if exceed  $P_{\max}$  or less than  $P_{\min}$ , re-initialize randomly within power limits of a generator.

**Next**  $i$

**Else if** total power > Demand **then**

**For**  $i = \text{MaxUnit}$  to 1 step -1

Set generator with lowest priority to operate at minimum capacity accordingly.

Once the total power generated is less than the demand, add the error to the current generator in order to exactly meet the demand. Check the range, if exceed  $P_{\max}$  or less than  $P_{\min}$ , re-initialize randomly within power limits of a generator.

**Next**  $i$

**End if**

**Loop**

### B. Satisfying the Generation Limit Constraints

The initial values of power are generated randomly within power limits of a generator. As particles explore the searching space, starting from initial values, which are generated randomly within the power limit as derived in (9), they do encounter cases whereby the power generated exceeds the boundary (minimum or maximum capacity) and therefore violate the constraint in (9). To avoid the boundary violation, we reinitialize the value whenever it is greater than the maximum capacity or smaller than the minimum capacity of a generator. Again, the reinitialization is done within the power limits of a generator.

### C. Satisfying the Minimum Up and Down Time Constraints

The technique used to satisfy the min-up (MU) and min-down (MD) time in this paper is extremely simple. As the solution is based upon the best particle (gbest) in the history of the entire population, constraints are taken care of by forcing the binary value in gbest to change its state whenever either  $\text{MU}_i < i$  or  $\text{MD}_i$  constraint is violated. However, this may change the current fitness, which is evaluated using (21). It implies that the current gbest might no longer be the best among all the other particles. To correct this error, the gbest will be reevaluated using the same equation. Ramping can be incorporated by adding the ramping cost into the total production cost  $\text{TPC}_N$  (5) of this paper, similar to [43, (1)]. Thereby, (5) can be redefined as

$$\text{TPC}_N = \sum_{i=1}^N \left[ \frac{F_i(P_{ih})U_{ih} + \text{ST}_i(1 - U_{i(h-1)})}{+RU_i(1 - U_{i(h-1)}) + RD_i(1 - U_{i(h+1)})} \right]$$

$$\Phi(x) = \sum_{k=1}^H \left\{ \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N [F_i(P_{ih}) + \text{ST}_i(1 - X_{i(h-1)})] U_{ih}}{+ \frac{s}{2} \left[ C_1 \left( D_h - \sum_{i=1}^N P_{ih} U_{ih} \right)^2 + C_2 \left( 1.1D_h - \sum_{i=1}^N P_{i(\max)} U_{ih} \right)^2 \right]} \right\} \quad (21)$$

where  $RU_i$  and  $RD_i$  are the ramp-up and ramp-down costs for the  $i$ th generator. Another method that can be considered is proposed in [44]. This is successfully implemented by combining the ramping rate into the  $P_{\min}$  and  $P_{\max}$  of the generators as depicted in [44, (5)]. Both [43] and [44], however, do not consider any MU and MD constraints.

## VI. NUMERICAL SIMULATIONS

The PSO program was implemented in Visual Basic language and the simulation was carried out on a ten-generator system; the data is given in Tables III and IV. The setting for HPSO is as follows:

- Population Size = 20;
- Maximum Iterations = 1000;
- Dimension = Number of generators,  $N$  (MaxUnit) = 10;
- Maximum Velocity  $V_{\max} = P_{i(\max)} - P_{i(\min)}$ ;
- Inertia Weight  $w = 1.0$ .

The population size of 20 is generated on an hourly basis. This means that each hour will have 20 independent particles. Each particle consists of a *MaxUnit* dimension, where *MaxUnit* is the maximum number of generators available (regardless of on or off status). This means each dimension of a particle represents a generator. Each hour will have its own independent gbest particle. Hence, the total cost is the summation of hourly-based costs.

Before proceeding to the simulation, careful selection of parameter settings is important to produce a competent result. The parameter sensitivity analysis is presented in Table I. This analysis features the constant inertia weight  $w$  set from 0.1 to 1.0 with increment of 0.1. The decreasing  $w$  [24] from 0.9 to 0.4 is also tested. The range from 0.9 to 0.4 for linearly decreasing  $w$  performs best in [40] and [41]. However, this method does not perform well in the UC problem. This gives us an idea that the settings of PSO are actually problem dependent. The different  $w$  is tested with a set of  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$ , whereby following the suggestion in [42],  $\rho_1 + \rho_2 = 4$ . The analysis of these three parameters  $w$ ,  $\rho_1$ , and  $\rho_2$  are found in (1). Based on the results,  $\rho_1 = 2.8$  and  $\rho_2 = 1.2$  and  $w = 1.0$  are chosen for another 100 runs, as HPSO seems to perform the best with these settings.

The simulation result of HPSO is shown in Table II, with Fig. 1 showing the best solution of UC and power generation. The result does not show any violation of reserve and power demand constraints, except for hour 23, whereby the error is so small that it can just be ignored. This is because feasible solutions that satisfy both these constraints are generated before evaluating fitness of every particle in PSO. By observing the generated power as in Fig. 1, we can conclude that the generated power for each hour is equivalent to the power demand  $D_h$ , as depicted in Table IV. One major advantage of HPSO is its simplicity of the algorithm as compared to any other techniques in existence so far. HPSO is much faster than other techniques, such as the GA approach. From the result in Table II, the best total cost obtained is \$563 942.3. This is certainly a better solution than the solution obtained using GAs, having a total cost

TABLE I  
PARAMETER SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS FOR UC (50 RUNS)

$w$	$\rho_1 = 1.0$	$\rho_1 = 1.2$	$\rho_1 = 2.0$	$\rho_1 = 2.8$	$\rho_1 = 3.0$
	$\rho_2 = 3.0$	$\rho_2 = 2.8$	$\rho_2 = 2.0$	$\rho_2 = 1.2$	$\rho_2 = 1.0$
0.1	565035.7	565035.7	565032.6	565047.7	565049.1
0.2	565032.2	565032.2	565029.9	565057.5	565041.6
0.3	565024.0	565024.0	565012.7	565023.9	565032.5
0.4	564992.6	564992.6	565016.0	565002.7	565003.7
0.5	564984.7	564984.7	564984.3	564984.4	564993.8
0.6	564968.1	564968.1	564968.6	564966.0	564967.6
0.7	564949.8	564949.8	564955.8	564947.1	564960.2
0.8	564943.0	564943.0	564940.8	564945.3	564933.7
0.9	564933.5	564933.5	564938.3	564931.6	564936.8
1.0	564937.2	564937.2	564932.9	<b>564927.2</b>	564932.0

TABLE II  
COMPARISON OF RESULTS

Method	Total cost [\$]		
	<i>Best</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Worst</i>
EP [39]	N/A	565352	N/A
GA [22]	565825	N/A	570032
UCC-GA [37]	563977	N/A	565606
DP [22]	565825	N/A	N/A
LR [22]	565825	N/A	N/A
LRGA [38]	564800	N/A	N/A
HPSO	563942.3	564772.3	565785.3

of \$565 825, as reported in [22] and [38]. The same cost is obtained using the DP approach [22].

DP is a sort of deterministic method in solving the UC problem. The DP method is capable of finding the global optimal solution, and the method has been utilized as a benchmark method recently, even if it takes a long time to find the global optimal solution. However, DP for UC [22] cannot generate a global optimal solution due to time-dependent constraints that are MU and MD, as specified in (10) and (11) in Section IV. Since this method is a deterministic method, the solutions obtained have the same value for different runs. This is the reason for unavailable values under “Average” and “Worst” in Table II. Likewise, the same reason applies for LR [22] and LRGA [38] methods. As mentioned, the best cost encountered by HPSO out of 100 runs is \$563 942.3, whereas the worst cost is \$565 785.3. The average for this 100 runs is \$564 772.3. From the comparison, it is obvious that the HPSO method is superior to other methods, such as GAs, evolutionary programming (EP), and GA based on unit characteristic classification (UCC-GA) in [37].

In comparing the worst solution obtained by HPSO (565 785.3), UCC-GA is better in the worst value obtained, 565 606. It means that the quantity of “randomness” in HPSO is greater than UCC-GA. This could be a possibility that leads HPSO to a better solution. One major advantage of HPSO is the conceptual simplicity of the algorithm, resulting in a cheaper computational cost and faster speed of convergence. However, it is not easy to determine its parameter settings for optimal performance of a particular problem, as it is quite time consuming. The literature does provide some useful thumb rules to get started on any problem that has been found to work well.

TABLE III  
GENERATOR SYSTEM OPERATOR DATA

	Unit 1	Unit 2	Unit 3	Unit 4	Unit 5	Unit 6	Unit 7	Unit 8	Unit 9	Unit 10
$P_{max}$ (MW)	455	455	130	130	162	80	85	55	55	55
$P_{min}$ (MW)	150	150	20	20	25	20	25	10	10	10
$\alpha$ (\$/h)	1000	970	700	680	450	370	480	660	665	670
$\beta$ (\$/MWh)	16.19	17.26	16.60	16.50	19.70	22.26	27.74	25.92	27.27	27.79
$\gamma$ (\$/MWh <sup>2</sup> )	0.00048	0.00031	0.002	0.00211	0.00398	0.00712	0.0079	0.00413	0.00222	0.00173
Min Up (h)	8	8	5	5	6	3	3	1	1	1
Min Down (h)	8	8	5	5	6	3	3	1	1	1
Hot start cost (\$)	4500	5000	550	560	900	170	260	30	30	30
Cold start cost (\$)	9000	10000	1100	1120	1800	340	520	60	60	60
Cold start hrs (h)	5	5	4	4	4	2	2	0	0	0
Initial status (h)	8	8	-5	-5	-6	-3	-3	-1	-1	-1

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Cost	Power	Error	St Cost
H1	455	245	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	13683.13	700	0	0
H2	455	295	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	14554.5	750	0	0
H3	455	370	0	0	25	0	0	0	0	0	17709.45	850	0	900
H4	455	455	0	0	40	0	0	0	0	0	18597.67	950	0	0
H5	455	390.0032	0	129.9604	25.03647	0	0	0	0	0	20580.13	1000	0	560
H6	455	361.1525	129.4952	129.3399	25.0124	0	0	0	0	0	23487.55	1100	0	1100
H7	455	411.6677	129.5903	128.7153	25.02666	0	0	0	0	0	23262.81	1150	0	0
H8	455	455	130	130	29.99994	0	0	0	0	0	24150.34	1200	0	0
H9	455	455	130	130	85	20	25	0	0	0	28111.06	1300	0	860
H10	455	455	130	130	162	33	25	10	0	0	30117.55	1400	0	60
H11	455	455	130	130	162	73	25	10	10	0	31976.06	1450	0	60
H12	455	455	130	130	162	80	25.11462	42.3727	10.46726	10.04542	33950.89	1500	0	60
H13	455	455	130	130	162	33	25	10	0	0	30057.55	1400	0	0
H14	455	455	130	130	85	20	25	0	0	0	27251.06	1300	0	0
H15	455	455	129.9999	130	29.99994	0	0	0	0	0	24150.34	1200	0	0
H16	455	310.752	129.9157	129.3192	25.01317	0	0	0	0	0	21514	1050	0	0
H17	455	263.6338	129.8427	126.5231	25.00043	0	0	0	0	0	20643.2	1000	0	0
H18	455	361.5511	128.9855	129.4633	25.00002	0	0	0	0	0	22387.65	1100	0	0
H19	455	455	130	130	29.99995	0	0	0	0	0	24150.34	1200	0	0
H20	455	455	130	130	162	33	25	10	0	0	30547.55	1400	0	490
H21	455	455	130	130	85	20	25	0	0	0	27251.06	1300	0	0
H22	455	455	0	0	145	20	25	0	0	0	22735.52	1100	0	0
H23	455	425	0	0	0	20	0	0	0	0	17645.37	900	7.99E-16	0
H24	455	345	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15427.42	800	0	0

Fig. 1. Best solution of UC and power generation total cost = \$563 942.3.

TABLE IV  
LOAD DEMANDS FOR 24 h

Hour	$D_h$	Hour	$D_h$
1	700	13	1400
2	750	14	1300
3	850	15	1200
4	950	16	1050
5	1000	17	1000
6	1100	18	1100
7	1150	19	1200
8	1200	20	1400
9	1300	21	1300
10	1400	22	1100
11	1450	23	900
12	1500	24	800

## VII. CONCLUSION

Application of HPSO is a new approach in solving the UC problem. Results demonstrate that HPSO is a very competent

method to solve the UC problem. HPSO generates better solutions than the other methods, mainly because of its intrinsic nature of updates of positions and velocities. The second reason is due to the hourly basis solution. This is somehow similar to the “divide and conquer” strategy of solving a problem. Owing to this hourly solution, the complexity of the search is greatly reduced. The total objective function is the sum of objectives and constraints, which are fuel cost, start-up cost, spinning reserve, and power demand. For a better solution, generated powers by  $N$  unit of generators are constantly checked so that feasible particles that meet the power demand are always met. This reduces the pressure of the constraint violation of the total objective function. The MU and MD times are treated separately by forcing the generator to turn on or off in order to fulfill this constraint. The result obtained from the simulation is most encouraging in comparison to the best known solution so far.

## APPENDIX

## A. Power Demand Satisfaction for Economic Dispatch

```

Do While (sumPower <> PowD(h) And count < 100)
count = count + 1

If sumPower < PowD(h) Then
  For i = 1 To Umax

    j = PO(i)
    If u(j).x = 1 And u(j).P <> Pmax(j) Then
      sumPower = sumPower - u(j).P
      u(j).P = Pmax(j)
      sumPower = sumPower + u(j).P

    If sumPower > PowD(h) Then
      sumpower2 = sumPower - u(j).P
      u(j).P = u(j).P - (sumPower - PowD(h))
    Check boundary constraint
    If u(j).P > Pmax(j) Then
      u(j).P = Pmin(j) + Rnd * (Pmax(j) - Pmin(j))
    ElseIf u(j).P < Pmin(j) Then
      u(j).P = Pmin(j) + Rnd * (Pmax(j) - Pmin(j))
    End If

    sumPower = sumpower2 + u(j).P
  Exit For
End If
End If
Next i

ElseIf sumPower > PowD(h) Then

For i = Umax To 1 Step -1
  j = PO(i)
  If u(j).x = 1 And u(j).P <> Pmin(j) Then
    sumPower = sumPower - u(j).P
    u(j).P = Pmin(j)
    sumPower = sumPower + u(j).P

  If sumPower < PowD(h) Then
    sumpower2 = sumPower - u(j).P
    u(j).P = u(j).P - (PowD(h) - sumPower)

  Check boundary constraint
  If u(j).P > Pmax(j) Then
    u(j).P = Pmin(j) + Rnd * (Pmax(j) - Pmin(j))
  ElseIf u(j).P < Pmin(j) Then
    u(j).P = Pmin(j) + Rnd * (Pmax(j) - Pmin(j))
  End If
  sumPower = sumpower2 + u(j).P
  Exit For

End If
End If
Next i
End If
Loop

```

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