

Research Article

A Novel Hybrid Algorithm for Solving Economic Load Dispatch in Power Systems

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Various algorithms have been created in the past to take economic load dispatch (ELD) into account. These algorithms, however, concentrate on multiple tuning parameters, necessitating hyperparameter adjustment. A unique parameterless hybrid is presented to explicitly evaluate ELD for test systems and real-world power plant systems matching the operational limitations. In addition, earlier algorithms could only offer estimates of the final cost of fuel based on the hyperparameter choices. This may prevent the global minimum values from being met. To find comprehensive solutions to the ELD problem in power systems, this paper suggests a new method called the hybrid Jaya optimization algorithm, which uses the merits of the Jaya and teaching–learning-based optimization (TLBO) algorithms. This enhancement is proposed to improve the population variety, the balance between local and global search, and the early convergence of the original Jaya optimization method. A metaheuristic optimization technique called TLBO simulates the teaching–learning process in a classroom to optimize problems. The TLBO algorithm uses an exploration phase in which possible solutions are generated at random to discover the best solution. The algorithm then uses the exploitation phase to refine the search space-based parameter adjustments to enhance the quality of the best solution identified. On the other hand, the Jaya algorithm is a metaheuristic optimization algorithm motivated by the idea of social behavior in nature. Candidate solutions are improved repeatedly through cooperation and competition using a population-based approach, and each solution adjusts its position based on the best and worst answers in the population. By combining the advantages of both algorithms, hybrid Jaya (Jaya–TLBO) outperforms each method alone and minimizes the cost of power generation, improving convergence solution quality. To test its efficacy, the hybrid Jaya–TLBO algorithm is tested on four different test cases, such as an Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE) 6-unit, 13-unit, 20-unit, 40-unit ELD system and an Indonesian 10-unit one. Simulation results show that the proposed algorithm is superior in cost minimization to other well-known algorithms that have been used recently. As a result, power system planners can utilize this technique to find the most economical load dispatch.

Keywords: artificial intelligence algorithm; economic load dispatch (ELD); evolutionary algorithm; hybrid optimization algorithm; Jaya–TLBO algorithm; power system optimization

1. Introduction

The optimal operation of power units in power systems using various fuel sources such as natural gas, oil, and coal necessitates a reduction in overall fuel cost while considering network constraints. These units' total fuel cost function is separated

into various piecewise quadratic functions. The economic load dispatch (ELD) method, which takes into account unit equality and inequality constraints, is a critical optimization problem in the power system [1]. However, characteristics such as valve point loading effect (VPLE) from multivalve steam turbines, power losses, ramp rate limits, and prohibited operation zones

(POZs) make the ELD of electrical systems complicated to optimize. This is because these characteristics create a non-convex, nonlinear, and nonsmooth ELD optimization problem, thus increasing the problem's complexity [2].

Examples of classical mathematical programming algorithms such as constriction-factor-particle swarm optimization (CF-PSO), quantum-behaved PSO (QPSO), multiobjective PSO (MOPSO), dynamic PSO (DPSO), hybrid PSO, cooperative PSO (CPSO), theta-PSO (θ -PSO), and modified time varying PSO (MTVPSO) used to address the numerous ELD issues include the evolutionary programming (EP) approach [3], the Hopfield artificial neural network method [4], and the adaptive Hopfield neural network. With the help of these methods, solutions that are still far from being dependable, quick, and ideal were obtained. However, these methods are not always effective as they cannot guarantee the best outcome for several nonconvex and nonsmooth objective functions in power systems [5].

Numerous optimization algorithms have been developed recently, including PSO [6] and its related algorithms such as QPSO, MTVPSO, and θ -PSO [7], teaching-learning-based optimization (TLBO) [8], EP [9], the hybrid gray wolf optimizer (HGWO) [10], the ant lion optimizer (ALO) [11], and the cuckoo search algorithm (CSA) [12–14].

In several articles, the hybridization of two or more algorithms was discussed to improve the performance of metaheuristic techniques and find the optimum solution to the ELD problem. Examples include the hybrid ant colony-genetic algorithm merged with genetic algorithm (GA-API) technique [15], which combined the genetic algorithm and the ant colony algorithm; the hybrid artificial algae algorithm (HAAA) [16], which combined the simplex search method and the artificial algae method; and the improved augmented gray wolf optimizer (AGWO) algorithm [17] which combined the gray wolf optimization method and the random exploratory method.

The ELD problem can be solved using the fitness-distance-balance (FDB) approach, which measures each candidate solution's distance from the optimal solution and assesses its fitness based on the overall generating cost [18]. The FDB score assists in choosing a range of candidates who balance exploitation and exploration by combining fitness and distance. The chosen candidates are subjected to symbiotic organism search (SOS) operators to produce novel solutions that guarantee optimality and diversity. In order to optimize power generation costs while satisfying demand and operational restrictions, this evaluation, selection, and generation procedure is repeated until convergence requirements are satisfied. To solve the ELD problem, the FDB-SOS algorithm increases search efficiency and robustness.

The survival of metaheuristic search algorithms (metaheuristic searches [MHSs]) is typically determined by fitness values, which do not accurately reflect natural adaptation and lead to premature convergence. This is addressed by the natural survivor method (NSM) [19], which integrates interindividual connections and environmental adaptability into the survivor selection process. NSM dynamically weights scores to adjust during the search process depending on an individual's fitness value, mating pool contribution, and population contribution. Utilizing three distinct MHS algorithms (stochastic fractal search [SFS], teaching learning based artificial bee colony

algorithm (TLABC), and Lévy-flight success-history-based adaptive differential evolution with semi-parameter adaptive control of mutation and archive (LSHADE-SPACMA), NSM showed noteworthy enhancements in performance throughout 39 optimization tasks and 10 practical engineering quandaries. While NSM adds to the computational complexity, it offers a solid substitute to improve the efficiency of the MHS algorithm. It is believed to be suitable for solving some ELD problems.

To apply the fitness-distance-constraint (FDC) algorithm for solving ELD, computing the fitness and constraint violation values of an initial population of candidate solutions is required. Transformation of these violation values into fitness, distance to the feasible region, and diversity contribution (FDC) scores. The next step involves utilizing these FDC scores to help choose guide solutions that promote viable and varied candidates while striking a balance between constraint satisfaction and fitness. Finally, this FDC-based guide selection in an evolutionary algorithm (e.g., Adaptive Guided Differential Evolution [AGDE]) is such that it can dynamically switch between traditional fitness-based guiding and FDC guiding in response to constraint violations. Finally, this procedure will be repeated iteratively until the optimization conditions are satisfied, improving the population's performance on confined problems through crossover and mutation [20]. This process can be used to solve ELD problems and check its suitability.

Using the dynamic fitness-distance balance (dFDB) selection approach, a powerful optimization tool can be made by including it in a MHS algorithm. Analyze performance utilizing non-parametric statistical techniques while conducting extensive experimental research to test the dFDB method and optimization algorithm on benchmark test suites [21]. However, the efficacy of this algorithm for solving ELD is yet to be confirmed as not much research has been done using this algorithm.

The optimal power flow (OPF) and ELD problem can be solved using the adaptive fitness-distance balance (AFDB)-based SFS algorithm in contemporary power networks incorporating renewable energy sources and load demand uncertainties. First, the guiding mechanism in MHS algorithms is improved by developing the AFDB guide selection method. The SFS algorithm is combined with this AFDB technique to produce the AFDB-SFS algorithm, which has enhanced exploration, exploitation, and balanced search capabilities. In-depth experimental research evaluates how well the AFDB-SFS method performs against alternative optimization algorithms across five test systems and several benchmark test suites [22]. Finding the best solution and accelerating convergence speed, the AFDB-SFS algorithm successfully optimizes the cost and coordination of power grids, according to the results.

Kahraman et al. [23] proposed a dynamic switched crowding (DSC) technique, which dynamically computes crowding distances utilizing combinations of decision, objective, and unified spaces, hence improving multiobjective evolutionary algorithms (MOEAs). The DSC technique addresses premature convergence problems, which uses a switching mechanism to preserve diversity and balance between exploration and exploitation. Compared to competitors, the dynamic switched crowding-multiobjective adaptive guided differential evolution (DSC-MOAGDE) method performs more efficiently,

achieving up to 120.21% better cost optimization on multimodal multiobjective optimization problems (MMOPs) and real-world AC-OPF and alternating current/direct current-optimal power flow (AC/DC-OPF) problems. Among the study's main contributions are the novel DSC approach and its practical application to MOEAs, which yields significant gains in complex optimization problems and dynamic reference space strategies. The outcomes validate DSC's efficacy in offering optimal solutions and well-balanced search capabilities in both decision and objective domains. Though not much literature has been found on this specific literature that tries to solve ELD problem, researchers can give it a go and try to find out the suitability of this algorithm for solving ELD problems.

Ozkaya et al. [24] proposed a DSC-based multiobjective symbiotic organism search (MOSOS) algorithm in the year 2024 is an efficient way to handle the combined heat and power economic emission dispatch (CHPEED) problem, which is characterized by conflicting objectives and many restrictions. This approach avoids local solution traps by promoting exploration and preserving a healthy balance between exploitation and exploration, which can be beneficial in finding the optimal minimal solution for the ELD problem. Through experimental investigations on Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE) Congress on evolutionary computation (CEC) 2020 MMOPs and CHPEED challenges, DSC-MOSOS achieved cost improvements of 0.2% to 16.55% and emission reductions of 0.2–42.97 kg, outperforming the base MOSOS algorithm and 14 competitors. Furthermore, DSC-MOSOS proved its high efficacy and performance with a 91.16% success rate in stability analysis.

1.1. Single Objective Self-Organizing Tree Algorithm (SOTA). There are different variants of the ELD problem. Due to its noncontinuous and nonconvex constraints, the combined heat and power economic dispatch (CHPED) problem necessitates a strong optimization strategy. To improve exploration and balance exploitation while addressing the drawbacks of the original artificial rabbits optimization (ARO) algorithm, the AFDB-based ARO algorithm was created by Ozkaya et al. [25] using benchmark and CHPED problems, experimental research comparing AFDB-ARO with ARO and other algorithms demonstrated that AFDB-ARO performed better, achieving optimal solutions in the majority of situations with a mean success rate of 87.62%. For the first time, extensive test cases were used to evaluate the algorithm on systems with up to 192 units and restrictions such as valve point loading impact, transmission losses, and forbidden operation zones. Stability analysis validated that AFDB-ARO consistently and effectively finds workable solutions.

In Kahraman et al.'s [22] study, the dFDB-SFS algorithm, with its robust optimization capabilities inspired by natural growth phenomena, can be effectively applied to solve the ELD problem by optimizing power output to minimize generation costs while meeting demand and operational constraints [22]. Utilizing the dFDB method for balanced exploration and exploitation, the algorithm ensures accurate and diverse solutions, making it well-suited for ELD's complex and multimodal landscape. Its demonstrated accuracy and robustness in global optimization tasks, such as photovoltaic modeling,

further underscore its potential effectiveness in achieving cost-effective and reliable power system operation [22].

Through adaptive parameter tuning and a fitness-distance balancing mechanism, the improved adaptive gaining-sharing knowledge algorithm developed by Kaharaman et al. with FDB-based guiding mechanism (FDBAGSK) offers a robust solution for the ELD problem by balancing exploration and exploitation. FDBAGSK efficiently develops optimal generation schedules by formulating the ELD issue with an objective function to minimize operational expenses and include restrictions like power balance and generating limits. Benchmark comparisons indicate its effectiveness and show that it can manage complex constraints and nonconvex objectives, which makes it a valuable tool for modern power systems optimization [26].

By scoring each candidate based on both fitness value and distance from the optimum solution, the FDB selection method improves MHS methods. Due to its dual consideration, it is beneficial in handling complicated problems such as ELD by preventing early convergence and maintaining diversity. FDB guarantees balanced exploration and exploitation in ELD applications, enhancing search efficiency and preventing local optima. Integrating FDB with algorithms such as SOS leads to more dependable and efficient optimal load distribution schemes. Overall, FDB is a strong option for optimizing ELD problems because of its capacity to strike a compromise between fitness and diversity.

The fitness-distance balance artificial ecosystem optimization (FDBAEAO) algorithm can solve ELD problems by balancing exploration and exploitation through fitness and distance metrics. This involves evaluating candidates based on cost efficiency and diversity, then selecting and optimizing the best candidates iteratively to minimize fuel costs while meeting system constraints. FDBAEAO's robust search performance and diversity maintenance ensure efficient convergence to the optimal load distribution [27].

The fitness distance balance-based chimp optimization algorithm (FDBChOA) enhances the original ChOA by addressing its premature convergence and poor diversity issues, thus improving its global optimization capabilities. FDBChOA has been applied to optimize power system stabilizer parameters, yielding superior results to the original ChOA in unconstrained benchmarks and constrained engineering design problems [28]. This demonstrates FDBChOA's effectiveness in solving real-world engineering and global optimization problems.

The original ChOA's premature convergence and poor diversity flaws are addressed by the FDBChOA, which strengthens the algorithm's capacity for worldwide optimization. Applying FDBChOA to power system stabilizer parameter optimization has produced better results than using the original ChOA in limited engineering design issues and unconstrained benchmarks. This shows that a variety of real-world engineering and global optimization problems, including the ELD problem, can be successfully solved by FDBChOA [28].

The OPF problem in hybrid AC/DC power grids is better searched for using the Improved phasor particle swarm optimization (PPSO) with FDB. The algorithm improves exploration and balanced search capabilities by revamping PPSO's search operators and using FDB to pick solution possibilities.

Empirical findings reveal that FDBPPSO proficiently addresses the intricate OPF problem and additional benchmark optimization assignments, offering resilient and effective solutions for hybrid AC/DC power systems [29]. When solving ELD problems, the FDBPPSO technique can be used to optimize load distribution across power-generating units to reduce costs while maintaining system restrictions.

Apart from the algorithms listed above, some other algorithms that can be used to solve ELD problems are FDB-CHOA [28], dFDB-GBO [30], and FDB-AOA [31]. Though these algorithms have the potential to solve ELD problems, customizing them is a time-consuming task. Hence, comparative studies with these algorithms are intended for future studies.

Rao [32] first presented the Jaya algorithm, a population-based optimization technique, in 2016. In several disciplines, including engineering, finance, and medicine, complicated issues are optimized using this straightforward yet effective technique. In each iteration, the Jaya algorithm modifies the population of solutions utilizing two main rules, attraction and repulsion. Repulsion keeps the population from local minima and guarantees that the best solutions are drawn toward the ideal solution, preventing stagnation [33]. The algorithm calculates the new solution using the attraction and repulsion principles in each iteration, updating the population while assessing the fitness of each solution. A termination criterion must be satisfied for the process to end.

However, Xue and Wu proposed another population-based algorithm called the TLBO [34] algorithm before proposing the Jaya algorithm in 2011. It is a population-based optimization technique. It is modeled after the teaching-learning process in the classroom, where students and teachers work together to increase comprehension of a subject. The teachers and students comprise the two groups the TLBO algorithm divides into. Students benefit from teachers' information sharing by learning from it and expanding their knowledge. The algorithm then updates the population by the top answers discovered by teachers and pupils, causing the process to converge to the global optimum. In the context of ELD, the TLBO algorithm is applied in the context of ELD by simulating a teaching and learning process among a population of solutions to iteratively optimize the allocation of power generation among different units, aiming to achieve the most cost-effective distribution while satisfying load demand and operational constraints.

The ELD problem, which is a critical task in power system operation to distribute the load among multiple generators optimally, is addressed by the suggested hybrid Jaya-TLBO algorithm in this paper, which is referred to as the hybrid Jaya algorithm in the rest of the paper. To increase the convergence rate and correctness of the solution, the algorithm combines the exploitation ability of the TLBO algorithm with the exploration ability of the Jaya algorithm. The Jaya algorithm is used to initialize the population in the hybrid algorithm, and the TLBO method is then used to enhance the quality of the result. In terms of lowering fuel costs and minimizing power loss, the suggested algorithm outperforms other existing algorithms regarding accuracy and dependability. A viable method for addressing the ELD problem in the electricity sector is the hybrid Jaya-TLBO algorithm.

The hybrid Jaya approach has been used to address the ELD problem. This study investigates a quadratic cost function with generator limitations, VPLE, power loss, ramp rate limits, and POZ to determine the proposed hybrid Jaya algorithm's effectiveness in solving the ELD problem. On test systems with six generators, 13 generators, 20 generators, 40 generators, and Indonesian 10-unit generators, the suggested hybrid Jaya algorithm is tested. The outcomes of the hybrid Jaya are contrasted with those of newly proposed supply-demand-based optimization (SDO) [35], the eagle-strategy supply-demand-based optimization algorithm [35], the hunger games search (HGS) [36], and other widely used techniques as well as classical algorithms such as GA, PSO, and so on.

The following is a summary of the main contributions of this work:

- The novel hybrid Jaya-TLBO optimization algorithm is evaluated using IEEE test system data and has been proven efficient in minimizing generation fuel costs.
- The hybrid Jaya algorithm is suggested to solve the ELD with VPLE, power loss, and POZ.
- The simulation results demonstrate the supreme efficacy of the suggested hybrid technique and the solution strategy for handling the ELD problem.
- In terms of strength, solution precision, and efficacy, the proposed hybrid Jaya is compared to several recommended algorithms in the literature.

Summary of the literature and the proposed solution are illustrated in Table 1.

The rest of the article is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the mathematical model of the ELD problem. Section 3 describes the proposed hybrid Jaya algorithm for solving the ELD problem. Section 4 presents the simulation findings from many case studies. Section 5 describes the sensitivity analysis, and finally, Section 6 concludes the paper.

2. Mathematical Model of the ELD

The ELD problem is an optimization problem that aims to reduce fuel costs while taking into account inequality restrictions such as generating capacity limit, ramp rate limit, VPLE, and prohibited operating zones.

The objective function for the ELD problem is determined as follows: To generate the most power, the fuel cost function is optimized [33]. The following functions are used to represent overall fuel costs:

$$F_T = \sum_{i=1}^n F(P_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i P_i^2 + b_i P_i + c_i. \quad (1)$$

F_T is regarded as the overall cost of producing electricity in dollars per hour. The fuel cost coefficients are a_i , b_i , and c_i , and P_{Gi} is the output unit i of real power generation.

The equation above can be restated as follows when the generator's valve point impact is considered:

TABLE 1: Summary of literature review [36].

Research gap	Proposed solution
Optimization challenges exist in the ELD problem in power systems due to valve point loading, power loss, ramp rate limits, and POZs	Development of a novel hybrid Jaya–TLBO optimization algorithm to address ELD with improved efficiency
Limited effectiveness of existing optimization algorithms (e.g., GA, PSO) in solving nonconvex and nonsmooth ELD problems in power systems	Integration of Jaya and TLBO algorithms to enhance convergence rate and solution accuracy in ELD problem-solving
Lack of a comprehensive approach to minimize generation fuel costs while considering complex generator constraints	Proposal of a hybrid Jaya algorithm that addresses ELD problems with generator limitations, valve point loading effect, power loss, ramp rate limits, and POZ
The proposed hybrid Jaya algorithm needs empirical testing and comparison against existing techniques on various test systems, including IEEE cases and Indonesian power units	Evaluation of the hybrid Jaya algorithm's effectiveness in minimizing fuel costs, its solution strategy, and comparison with other recommended algorithms
The importance of demonstrating the algorithm's strength, solution precision, and efficacy through simulation results and sensitivity analysis	Presentation of simulation results from multiple case studies, sensitivity analysis, and a conclusion summarizing the findings

Abbreviations: ELD, economic load dispatch; GA, genetic algorithm; IEEE, Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers; POZs, prohibited operation zones; PSO, particle swarm optimization; TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

$$F_T = \sum_{i=1}^n F(P_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i P_i^2 + b_i P_i + c_i + |e_i \sin(f_i(P_{Gi\min} - P_{Gi}))|. \quad (2)$$

The cost function F_T is a quadratic function of the cost coefficients a_i , b_i , c_i , e_i , and f_i concerning the output power and P_i^{\min} is the minimum active power generation from the i th generating unit.

2.1. Constraints

2.1.1. Power Balance Constraints. Total power generated must equal the sum of total power demand P_D and total transmission losses P_L , which is expressed as follows [37]:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n P_i - P_D - P_L = 0, \quad (3)$$

where P_L is calculated using the Kroon's loss formula for power dispatch [38]:

$$P_L = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n P_i B_{ij} P_j + \sum_{i=1}^n B_{i0} P_i + B_{00}. \quad (4)$$

Loss coefficient matrices are denoted with B_{ij} , B_{i0} , B_{00} in normal operating conditions.

2.1.2. Power Generation Constraints. The minimum and maximum power generation limits are denoted by the following equation [39]:

$$P_i^{\min} \leq P_i \leq P_i^{\max}, \quad (5)$$

where P_i^{\min} is the minimum limit of the generator, and P_i^{\max} is the maximum.

2.1.3. Ramping Rate Constraints. Practical limitations prevent instantaneous changes to output power P_i since each generator's working limit is constrained by its ramp rate limit. The following are the up- and down-ramp limits [40]:

$$\begin{aligned} P_i - P_i^0 &\leq \text{UR}_i, \\ P_i^0 - P_i &\leq \text{DR}_i, \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where current output power is denoted with P_i , P_i^0 is the previous output power, UR_i is the up-ramping limit of the i th generator, and DR_i is the down-ramping limit.

2.1.4. Prohibited Operating Zones. Generators cannot operate in the prohibited operating zone [41]:

$$P_i \in \begin{cases} P_{i,\min} \leq P_i \leq P_{i,1}^L \\ P_{i,k-1}^U \leq P_i \leq P_{i,k}^L, k = 2, 3, \dots, p_{z_i} \\ P_{i,p_{z_i}}^U \leq P_i \leq P_{i,\max} \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

Since each generator's operating limit is bound by its ramp rate limit, practical restrictions prevent instantaneous changes to the output power P_i .

3. Methodology

3.1. Jaya Algorithm. The Jaya method is a population-based optimization technique for problem-solving. Rao [8] proposed it in 2016. The method works by keeping a population of possible solutions and improving them repeatedly through a series of updates. In each iteration, the method takes two randomly picked solutions from the population and seeks to develop a new solution that is better than both of them. This is accomplished by modifying each variable of the new solution toward the better solution, with the amount of adjustment equal to the difference between the two solutions.

Let $f(x)$ represents the reduced (or maximized) objective function. Assume that at any iteration i , there is m number of design variables i.e., $j = 1, 2, \dots, m$ and n number of potential solutions *population size*, $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Let the best candidate receive the best value of $f(x)$ in the entire set of candidates, that is, C best, and the worst candidate obtain the worst value of $f(x)$ in all candidate solutions, that is, $f(x)$ worst. If $X_{j,k,i}$ is the value of the j th variable for the k th

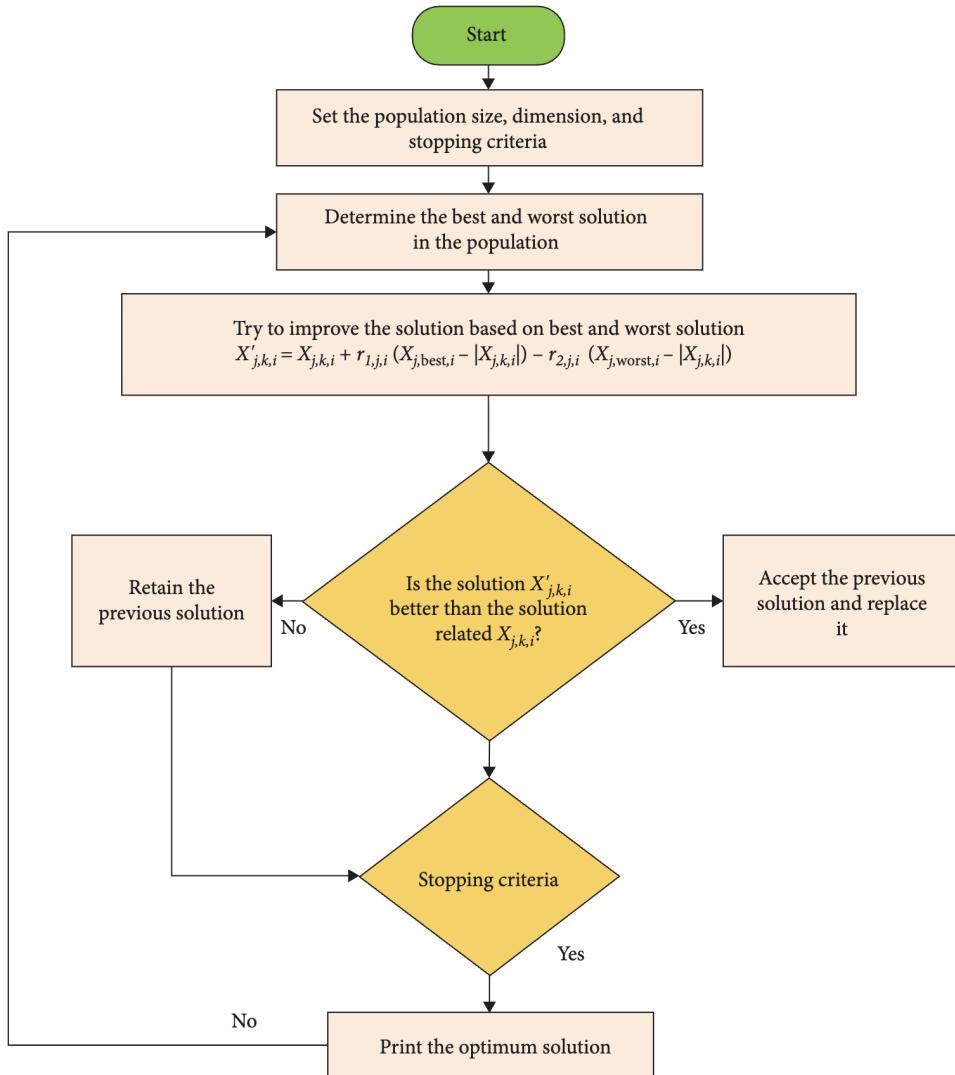


FIGURE 1: Jaya algorithm.

candidate during the i th iteration, then the following equation updates this value [33]:

$$X'_{j,k,i} = X_{j,k,i} + r_{1,j,i}(X_{j,best,i} - |X_{j,k,i}|) - r_{2,j,i}(X_{j,worst,i} - |X_{j,k,i}|), \quad (8)$$

where $X_{j,best,i}$ denotes the j value for the best candidate. On the other hand, the worst candidate is denoted by $X_{j,worst,i}$. During i th iteration, the two random numbers $r_{1,j,i}$ and $r_{2,j,i}$ range from 0 to 1. The terms $r_{1,j,i}(X_{j,best,i} - |X_{j,k,i}|)$ can be used to calculate how near the solution is to the best answer. At the same time, the solution attempts to avoid the worst solution. $-r_{2,j,i}(X_{j,worst,i} - |X_{j,k,i}|)$ shows how far the solution tries to avoid the worst solution. The term $X'_{j,k,i}$ is supposed to produce improved function value each time. It is approved for calculation if it delivers a superior function value. All acceptable function values are saved until the conclusion of each iteration and carried forward to the next. Figure 1 shows the flowchart of Jaya algorithm.

3.2. TLBO Algorithm. TLBO is a population-based optimization technique that has been shown to be a successful optimization algorithm like other nature-inspired algorithms. The algorithm mimics what is being taught and learned in a classroom. It was proposed by Venkata Rao in 2011 [42]. The algorithm is quite simple to use. There are two phases to the TLBO process. The first section is called the “teacher phase,” and the second is the “learner phase.” In the “teacher phase,” the teacher instructs the class while the students learn from him or her; in the “learner phase,” the students engage with one another in the classroom to learn. In TLBO, the population is viewed as a class of students. Every learner has the potential to be the answer to the optimization problem.

3.2.0.1. Teacher Phase. In this phase, the learners enhance their understanding of the teacher and class means. Let the teacher T be the population’s optimal solution in terms of fitness, M be the mean, and T_F be the teaching factor. For the i th learner X_i , $new X_i$ is the updated state of the learner X_i . The process of updating techniques is described in the

following equation [42]:

$$\text{new } X_i = X_i + r_i \times (T - T_F \times M), \quad (9)$$

where r_i denotes a random number, and T_F determines the amount by which the mean will be altered as a teaching element. Each component of the random vector rand, which has the range $[0, 1]$, is a random number. T_F is determined by Equation (10):

$$T_F = \text{round}[1 + \text{rand}(0, 1)]. \quad (10)$$

Following the teaching phase, the better learner among the learner and the newly created learner will be accepted and begin the learning phase.

3.2.0.2. Learner Phase. Students may actively participate in this phase through activities, including presentations, formal communications, and group debates, to broaden their knowledge. If the other student is more skilled than them, the learner picks up new information. The updated state of the learner X_i is represented by *new* X_i for the i th learner, which is determined by Equation (11) [42]:

$$\text{new } X_i = \begin{cases} X_i + r_i \times (X_i - X_j), & \text{if } f(X_i) < f(X_j) \\ X_i + r_i \times (X_i - X_j), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}, \quad (11)$$

where X_i and X_j are arbitrarily chosen from the class, and their respective fitness scores are $f(X_i)$ and $f(X_j)$. r_i is a random vector with a range of $[0, 1]$.

Like the teaching phase, the improved learner among the learner and the newly created learner will be approved and will proceed toward the next teaching phase after the learning phase. Figure 2 illustrates the detailed flowchart of the TLBO algorithm.

3.3. Hybrid Jaya Algorithm. The Jaya-TLBO meta-heuristic method addresses the ELD problem. It combines two well-known meta-heuristic algorithms: TLBO and Jaya. TLBO is used for improved exploration, while the Jaya algorithm is used to use the search space better.

Appendix G provides the pseudocode and computational stages for the hybrid Jaya algorithm. As the ELD technique is used to estimate the generator's highest output at the lowest cost to satisfy the total demand while considering the system limitation, the Jaya-TLBO algorithm is an excellent option for solving the ELD problem precisely. Both the algorithms are run inside the loop simultaneously and it stores the greedy selection to find out the best results found from the cost function. The stored value is then compared with the previously existing value to find out the best solution. The flowchart of this hybrid algorithm is shown in Figure 3. This study demonstrates how the hybrid Jaya technique can be used to manage the ELD problem. The nonconvex and nonlinear features of the ELD issue can be resolved using this method, and it quickly finds the optimal solution. The hybrid Jaya technique, like other meta-heuristic algorithms like PSO, GA, BAT algorithm (BA), and differential evolution

(DE), is effective for solving the ELD problem. Figure 3 illustrates the flowchart of the hybrid Jaya algorithm.

By balancing exploration and exploitation, the hybrid algorithm that combines the TLBO and Jaya algorithms performs exceptionally well regarding fairness for the ELD issue. The Jaya algorithm avoids local optima, but TLBO improves solutions through phases of teaching and learning. Premature convergence is less likely when a varied solution pool is maintained. It exhibits resilience in various situations, guaranteeing equitable outcomes irrespective of the magnitude or configuration of the issue. A major asset is the ability to effectively minimize expenditures, which regularly results in decreased expenses. The superiority of the algorithm is confirmed through benchmarking against other well-established techniques, including GA, PSO, and DE. Adjusting parameters dynamically enables flexibility in response to changing load demands and circumstances. The hybrid strategy fully addresses economic objectives while ensuring equitable and optimal load allocation. All in all, it guarantees a just assessment and optimization procedure.

4. Simulation and Optimization Results

4.1. Case Studies. This subsection conducts experiments on ELD problems involving 6-, 13-, 20-, 40-, and 10-unit real-world Indonesian power system, under various operational constraint functions, making it the best choice as it closely resembles real-world power systems encompassing small and medium-scale power plants. To examine the robustness, convergence behavior, and computational effectiveness of applying the suggested hybrid Jaya in solving the ELD issues, four test cases of ELD problems with varying sizes and limitations were considered. Table 2 gives an overview of these cases' characteristics.

Table 2 shows the characteristics of different test cases. The “✓” symbol signifies that the constraint is one of the constraints taken into account for solving the ELD problem, whereas the “—” symbol signifies that the constraint is ignored as the data are not available in the literature.

The suggested hybrid Jaya is implemented in the Windows 10 operating system's MATLAB programming language (R2021a). A computer with an Intel i7 central processing unit (CPU) clocked at 2.8 GHz and 16 GB of random access memory (RAM) was used for this study. All these parameters are provided in tabular format in Table 3. The findings are compared with those from several current algorithms and other published literature. The population sizes are 10 times the respective dimensions for cases 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. Therefore, 60, 130, 200, 400, and 100 population sizes are used for the respective cases. The maximum iteration is set to 100 for test case 1 and 500 for the rest. The iteration numbers are kept the same or fewer when compared to the other algorithms being contrasted. This demonstrates that this hybrid algorithm reaches optimal results even with fewer iterations. This paper diligently contrasts our algorithm's performance with contemporary state-of-the-art solutions, as evidenced by the detailed comparisons presented in Tables 3–6, showcasing the relevance of our findings against recent advancements in the field. In all these case studies, NA stands for not applicable.

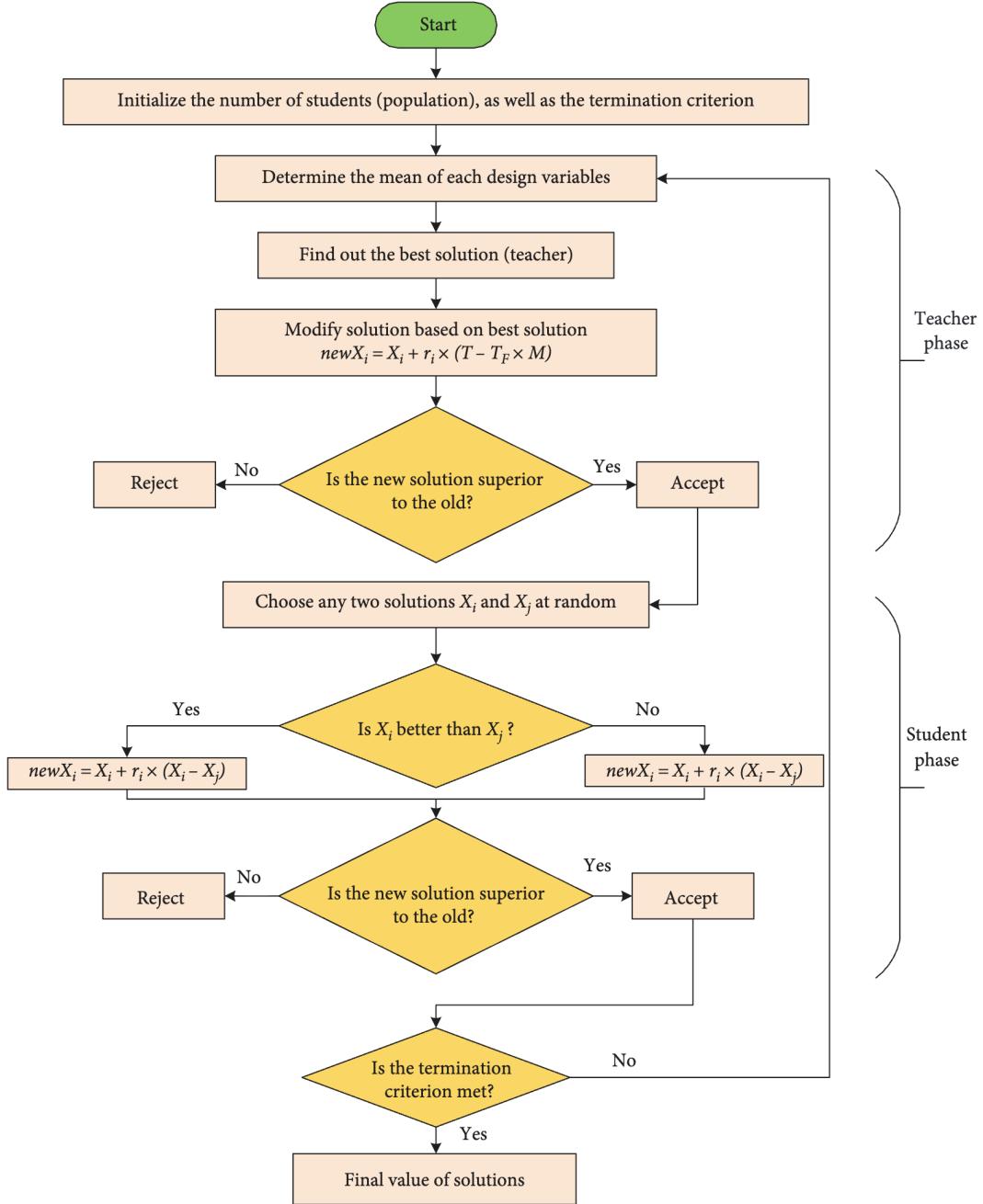


FIGURE 2: TLBO algorithm [8]. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

4.1.1. Case 1: Six Thermal Units and 1263 MW Load Demand. This scenario's system comprises six thermal units, 26 buses, and 46 transmission lines. The load demand is 1263 MW. In addition, ramp rate limits and power losses are taken into account, and all thermal units have POZs. The cost coefficients, loss coefficients B, and the upper and lower ramp limits, POZs, and initial power output of the units are given in Appendix A, where the maximum and minimum power limit cost coefficients, ramp rates, initial power output, and POZs are given in Appendix A, and the B loss coefficients are taken from Appendix B.

Table 2 shows the optimal scheduling results of the proposed hybrid Jaya compared to existing approaches. The results

shown in Table 3 show that the proposed strategy gives better solution quality at a lower operating cost than existing techniques. The cost is 15,444.186310 \$/h, less than the optimal cost reported in earlier publications while satisfying all restrictions such as ramp rate limits and POZs, load demand, and power generation boundaries. This improvement in performance can be attributed to the inherent capabilities of the hybrid Jaya algorithm, which effectively combines the strengths of both optimization techniques, allowing for a more comprehensive exploration of the solution space and thus leading to the identification of better solutions that fulfill the operational constraints and minimize the cost more efficiently than

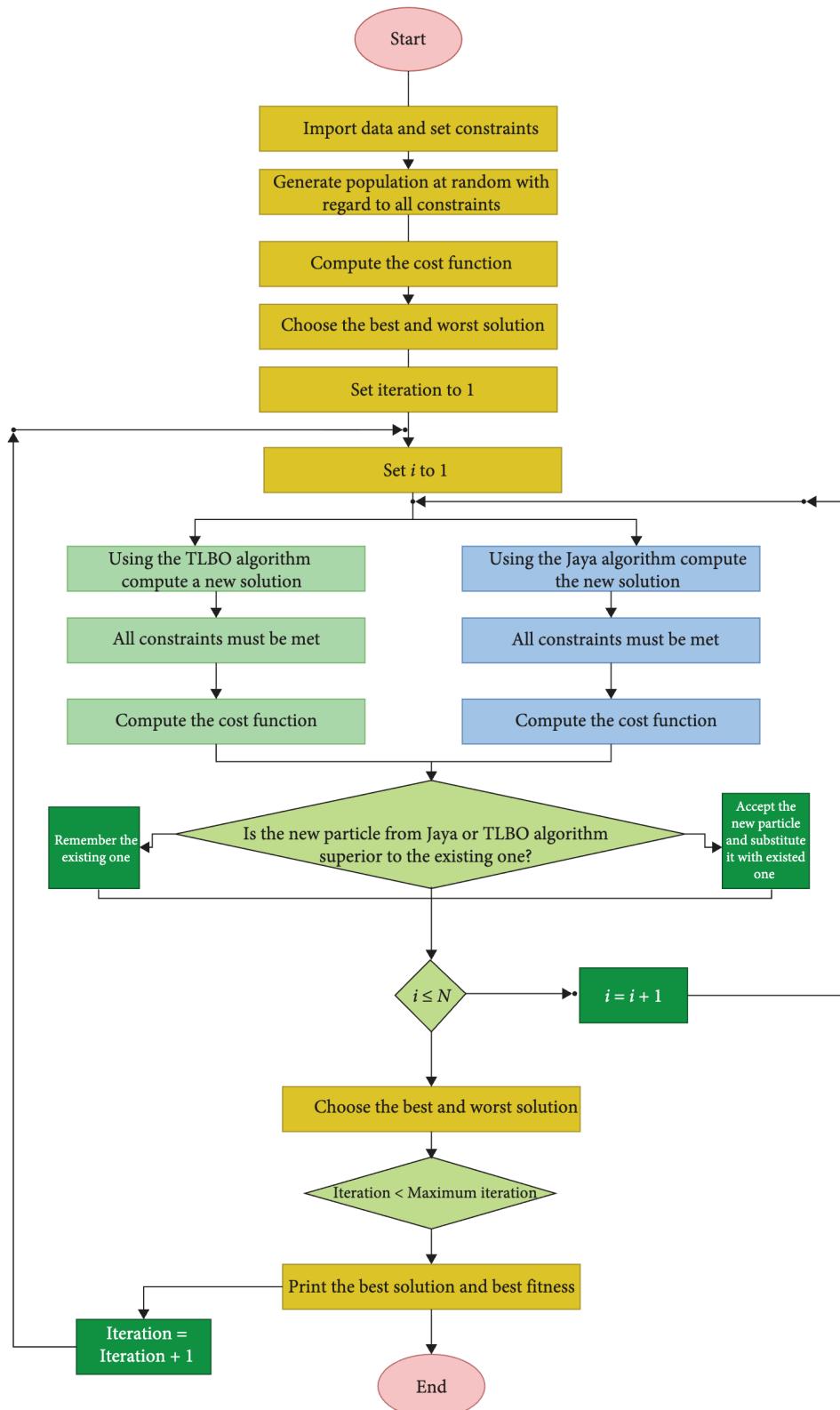


FIGURE 3: Hybrid Jaya algorithm. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

previous approaches. They can also clearly manage the generation and demand equality constraints. To explain this, consider the power inequality error as $\text{error}(V) = P_i - P_D - P_L$. The convergence characteristic curves of Jaya, TLBO, and

hybrid Jaya in the ELD problem for optimal performance in the test system are shown in Figure 4, suggesting that the hybrid Jaya algorithm has greater convergence than the others. The optimal generation schedule from unit 1 to unit

TABLE 2: Characteristics of different test cases for ELD problem.

Test case	Generating unit	Load demand (MW)	Transmission loss	Power balance	Generating capacity	Ramp rate limit	Prohibited operating zone
1	6	1263	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
2	13	1800	—	✓	✓	✓	✓
3	20	2500	✓	✓	✓	—	—
4	40	10,500	—	✓	✓	✓	✓

Abbreviation: ELD, economic load dispatch.

TABLE 3: The parameters of algorithm used.

Parameter	Setting
Operating system	Windows 10
MATLAB version	R2021a
CPU	Intel i7, 2.8 GHz
RAM	16 GB
Population sizes	Case 1 : 60, Case 2 : 130, Case 3 : 200, Case 4 : 400, Case 5 : 100
Maximum iterations	Case 1 : 100, Cases 2–5 : 500
Iteration comparison	Iteration numbers are the same or fewer than other algorithms

Abbreviations: CPU, central processing unit; RAM, random access memory.

TABLE 4: Fuel costs (\$/h) for case 1 by various algorithms.

Algorithm	Best	Worst	Average	STD
GA [43]	15,459	15,524	15,469	NA
PSO [43]	15,450	15,492	15,454	NA
MABC [44]	15,449.9000	15,449.9000	15,449.9000	6.04×10^{-8}
CBA [45]	15,450.2400	15,518.6600	15,454.7600	2.9650
NPSO-LRS [46]	15,450	15,454	15,452	NA
MSSA [47]	15,449.9000	15,453.5500	15,449.9400	0.3647
DE [48]	15,449.7700	15,449.8700	15,449.7800	NA
ST-IRDPSO [49]	15,449.8900	NA	15,450.7000	1.4160
SOH-PSO [50]	15,446.0200	15,609.6400	15,497.3500	NA
MCSA [51]	15,449.1700	15,449.3900	15,449.2400	0.2681
MTS [52]	15,450.0600	15,453.6400	15,451.1700	NA
HHS [53]	15,449	15,453	15,450	NA
SDO [35]	15,444.1863	15,444.1863	15,444.1863	3.42E – 06
ESSDO [35]	15,444.1863	15,444.1863	15,444.1863	3.42E – 06
ESCSDO10 [35]	15,444.1863	15,444.1863	15,444.1863	4.03E – 06
Rao-1 [54]	15,445.8082	15,445.8082	15,445.8082	1.5099e-13
Rao-2 [54]	15,445.8082	15,445.8082	15,445.8082	1.4210e-14
Rao-3 [54]	15,445.8082	15,445.8082	15,445.8082	1.2434e-13
TLBO	15,293.0463	15,293.3239	15,293.0803	0.084799655
Jaya	15,293.0500	15,294.7100	15,293.2000	0.393441
Hybrid Jaya	15,293.0463	15,293.0463	15,293.0463	4.48128E-06

Abbreviations: CBA, classification based on association rules; DE, differential evolution; ESSDO, eagle-strategy supply–demand optimizer; GA, genetic algorithm; HHS, hybrid harmony search; MABC, multispecies artificial bee colony; MCSA, modified crow search algorithm; MSSA, multivariate singular spectrum algorithm; MTS, moving target search; NPSO-LRS, new PSO local random search; PSO, particle swarm optimization; SDO, supply–demand-based optimization; SOH-PSO, self-organizing hierarchical particle swarm optimization; STD, standard deviation; ST-IRDPSO, improved random drift particle swarm optimization algorithm; TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

6 ($U_1 - U_6$) in MW of various algorithms for case study 1 is stated in Table 7.

The overall cost values of different optimization techniques are similar when dealing with tiny systems because of the relatively lesser complexity. The best-performing algorithm

stands out brightly, but as the system size grows, performance disparities become more noticeable. The exponential increase in the complexity of the optimization problem, the size of the solution space, and the difficulties presented by local optima are the leading causes of this. An algorithm's scalability,

TABLE 5: Comparison of the simulation results for test case 2 (13-unit system).

Algorithm	U_1	U_2	U_3	U_4	U_5	U_6	U_7	U_8	U_9	U_{10}	U_{11}	U_{12}	U_{13}	Cost(\$/h)	
SDO [35]	448.7990	152.9354	224.3995	159.7331	60.0001	159.7331	109.8665	109.8665	109.8665	40.0000	77.3999	55	92.3999	18,041,4900	
ESSDO [35]	448.7990	152.9302	224.4018	109.8673	109.8665	109.8668	159.7331	109.8665	109.8668	40.0002	40.0002	92.3998	92.4000	18,028,5600	
ESCSDO10 [35]	538.5587	75.6427	224.3995	109.8666	109.8666	109.8666	109.8666	109.8666	109.8666	40	77.3999	92.3999	92.3999	18,028,1900	
HGS [35]	360.8537	360	224.4438	180	129.6487	60	112.2345	60	60	40	40	117.8193	55	18,552,1900	
NN-EPSO [55]	490	189	214	160	90	120	103	88	104	13	58	66	55	18,442,5900	
PSO [46]	538.5610	299.3550	75.0370	159.7540	60.0780	109.8640	109.9130	109.8700	60.0690	40.0350	77.5610	55.0420	55	18,014,1600	
θ -PSO [56]	628.3482	149.5978	222.7512	109.8665	109.8665	109.8665	109.8665	109.8665	60	109.8665	40	40	55	17,963,8297	
MTVPSO [57]	628.3185	149.5995	222.7491	109.8666	109.8666	109.8666	109.8666	109.8666	60	109.8666	40	40	55	17,960,3659	
Jaya	511.1597	256.2348	247.6432	100.7954	100.0629	101.2559	93.2996	98.8472	100.6672	40.0154	40.0173	55.0008	55.0007	17,932,7603	
TLBO	512.0295	253.0990	248.0280	98.4799	101.5352	100.9320	99.0455	99.1925	97.6022	40.0061	40.0055	55.0224	55.0236	17,932,6903	
Hybrid Jaya	500.8437	250.7712	259.3479	99.2483	100.2738	101.1728	8	99.0763	98.9119	100.3148	40.0174	40.0179	55.0028	55.0028	17,932,6538

Abbreviations: θ -PSO, theta-PSO; ESSDO, eagle-strategy supply–demand optimizer; HGS, hunger games search; MTVPSO, modified time varying PSO; NN-EPSO, neural network enhanced particle swarm optimization; PSO, particle swarm optimization; SDO, supply–demand-based optimization; TLBO, teaching–learning–based optimization.

TABLE 6: Best solution for case 3 (20-unit system considering transmission loss).

Generating unit	Lambda method [58]	NR [59]	HM [58]	EHNN [59]	BBO [60]	GSO [61]	BSA [62]	CQGSO [61]	Jaya	TIBO	Hybrid Jaya
U_1	512.7805	524.0166	512.7804	403.3043	513.0892	512.6382	510.4477	512.730	512.7814	512.7817	512.7814
U_2	169.1035	160.9879	169.1035	134.4348	173.3553	169.1817	168.3973	169.0263	169.1009	169.1015	169.1009
U_3	126.8898	130.2468	126.8897	134.4348	126.9231	126.8581	125.9721	126.806	126.8910	126.8907	126.8910
U_4	102.8657	100.4129	102.8656	134.4348	103.3292	102.8404	103.5291	102.8723	102.8673	102.8673	102.8673
U_5	113.6386	115.2559	113.6836	107.5478	113.7741	113.6931	113.8212	113.6836	113.6826	113.6829	113.6826
U_6	73.5710	78.7385	73.5709	67.2174	73.0669	73.4903	73.7901	73.5741	73.5726	73.5720	73.5726
U_7	115.2878	118.1765	115.2876	84.0217	114.9843	115.1345	115.0664	115.3037	115.2905	115.2900	115.2905
U_8	116.3994	118.9390	116.3994	100.8261	116.4238	116.4033	116.3401	116.4090	116.3998	116.3998	116.3998
U_9	100.4062	104.7037	100.4063	134.4348	100.6948	100.4915	100.7093	100.4303	100.4050	100.4049	100.4050
U_{10}	106.0267	113.7706	106.0267	100.8261	99.9998	106.0393	107.1366	106.0581	106.0279	106.0273	106.0279
U_{11}	150.2394	148.7055	150.2395	201.6522	148.9770	150.3287	150.7060	150.2337	150.2389	150.2389	150.2389
U_{12}	292.7648	2,959,623	292.7647	336.0869	294.0207	292.7553	291.1304	292.7813	292.7658	292.7658	292.7658
U_{13}	119.1154	118.0200	119.1155	107.5478	119.5754	119.1552	119.1528	119.1165	119.1139	119.1142	119.1139
U_{14}	30.8340	35.4054	30.8342	87.326	30.5479	30.8990	32.4521	30.8431	30.8313	30.8313	30.8313
U_{15}	115.8057	121.3720	115.8056	124.3522	116.4546	115.8099	116.1479	115.8179	115.8057	115.8057	115.8057
U_{16}	36.2545	36.0465	36.2545	53.7739	36.2279	36.2584	36.2816	36.2542	36.2543	36.2543	36.2543
U_{17}	66.8590	72.4550	66.8590	57.1348	66.8594	66.8621	67.7355	66.8611	66.8595	66.8595	66.8595
U_{18}	87.9720	42.2129	87.9720	80.6609	88.5470	87.9949	87.2547	87.9696	87.9708	87.9712	87.9708
U_{19}	100.8033	102.6087	100.8033	80.6609	100.9802	100.8210	101.5559	100.8088	100.8025	100.8025	100.8025
U_{20}	54.3050	55.7560	54.3050	67.2174	54.2275	54.3340	54.2861	54.3106	54.3047	54.3048	54.3047
Total generation (MW)	2591.9670	2593.7615	2591.9670	2597.9520	2592.1011	2591.9687	2591.8930	2591.9650	2591.9666	2591.9666	2591.9666
Power loss	91.9670	93.7615	91.9669	97.9520	92.1011	91.9687	91.8930	91.9650	91.9663	91.9666	91.9666
Total cost (\$/h)	62,456.6391	62,489.5000	62,456.6341	62,610.0000	62,456.7793	62,456.6332	62,456.6925	62,456.6330	62,456.63309	62,456.63309	62,456.63309
Average cost (\$/h)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	62,456.7928	62,456.6336	62,457.1517	62,456.6330	62,457.36592
Maximum cost (\$/h)	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	62,456.7928	62,456.6353	62,458.1272	62,456.6334	62,459.5557

Abbreviations: BBO, biography-based optimization; BSA, backtracking spiral algorithm; CQGSO, continuous quick group search algorithm; EHNN, enhanced hopfield neural network; GSO, glowworm swarm optimization; HM, harmony search; NR, Newton–Raphson; TIBO, teaching–learning–based optimization.

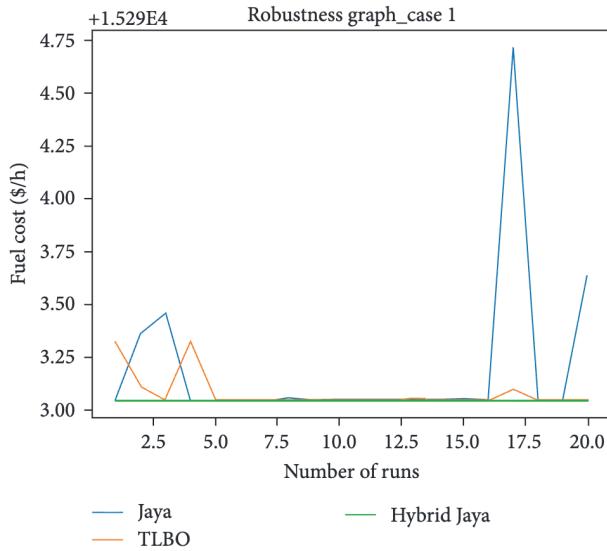


FIGURE 4: Robustness characteristics hybrid Jaya, TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

TABLE 7: Optimal generations schedule (MW) of various algorithms for case study 1.

Algorithm	U_1	U_2	U_3	U_4	U_5	U_6	P_L	Total cost (\$/h)
GA [43]	474.8066	178.6363	262.2089	134.2826	151.9039	74.1812	13.0217	15,459
PSO [43]	447.4970	173.3221	263.4745	139.0594	165.4761	87.1280	12.9584	15,450
MABC [44]	447.5039	173.3187	263.4622	139.0650	165.4731	87.1350	12.9582	15,449.8995
CBA [45]	447.4187	172.8255	264.0759	139.2469	165.6526	86.7652	12.9840	15,450.2381
NPSO-LRS [46]	446.9600	173.3944	262.3436	139.5120	164.7089	89.0162	12.9361	15,450
MSSA [47]	447.5029	173.3186	263.4630	139.0656	165.4730	87.1349	12.9580	15,449.8995
DE [48]	447.7440	173.4070	263.4110	139.0760	165.3640	86.9440	12.9570	15,449.7660
ST-IRDPSO [49]	447.5131	173.297500	263.4668	139.0360	165.4843	87.1605	12.9580	15,449.8945
SOH-PSO [50]	438.2100	172.5800	257.4200	141.0900	179.3700	86.8800	12.5500	15,446.0200
MCSA [51]	444.6373	174.6410	265	139.2251	165.7121	86.6807	12.9576	15,449.1672
HGS [35]	446.7435	174.2509	261.7852	143.8329	162.0692	86.70681	12.3885	15,444.25963
MTS [52]	448.1277	172.8082	262.5932	136.9605	168.2031	87.3304	13.0205	15,450.0600
HHS [53]	447.4960	173.3140	263.4450	139.0550	165.4750	87.1250	12.9500	15,449
SDO [35]	446.7266	173.1453	262.7876	143.4916	163.9212	85.3496	12.4220	15,444.1863
ESSDO [35]	446.7121	173.1520	262.7918	143.4897	163.9107	85.3656	12.4219	15,444.1863
ESCSDO10 [35]	446.7116	173.1449	262.8022	143.4911	163.9180	85.35426	12.4220	15,444.18631
Rao-1 [54]	438.5000	172.7700	266.0100	130.0700	178.8600	89.5090	12.7140	15,445.8082
Rao-2 [54]	438.5000	172.7700	266.0100	130.0700	178.8600	89.50900	12.7140	15,445.8082
Rao-3 [54]	438.5000	172.7700	266.0100	130.0700	178.8600	89.5090	12.7140	15,445.8082
TLBO	447.1176	171.617400	263.5761	126.4763	171.1611	84.3406	1.28906	15,293.0463
Jaya	447.1102	171.6074	263.5453	126.5025	171.1620	84.3615	1.2889	15,293.0463
Hybrid Jaya	447.1528	171.5934	263.6175	126.4406	171.1284	84.3565	1.2891	15,293.0463

Abbreviations: CBA, classification based on association rules; DE, differential evolution; ESSDO, eagle-strategy supply–demand optimizer; GA, genetic algorithm; HHS, hybrid harmony search; MABC, multispecies artificial bee colony; MCSA, modified crow search algorithm; MSSA, multivariate singular spectrum algorithm; MTS, moving target search; NPSO-LRS, new PSO local random search; PSO, particle swarm optimization; SDO, supply–demand-based optimization; SOH-PSO, self-organizing hierarchical particle swarm optimization; ST-IRDPSO, improved random drift particle swarm optimization algorithm; TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

numerical accuracy, and resource efficiency become increasingly crucial in producing superior results for larger systems because algorithms must efficiently navigate a wider search field. Therefore, selecting the best algorithm becomes crucial when handling

optimization problems on a large scale. In this specific case, the hybrid Jaya algorithm provides the best possible results.

Figure 5 displays the convergence characteristic curves of Jaya and hybrid Jaya. This figure demonstrates that the hybrid

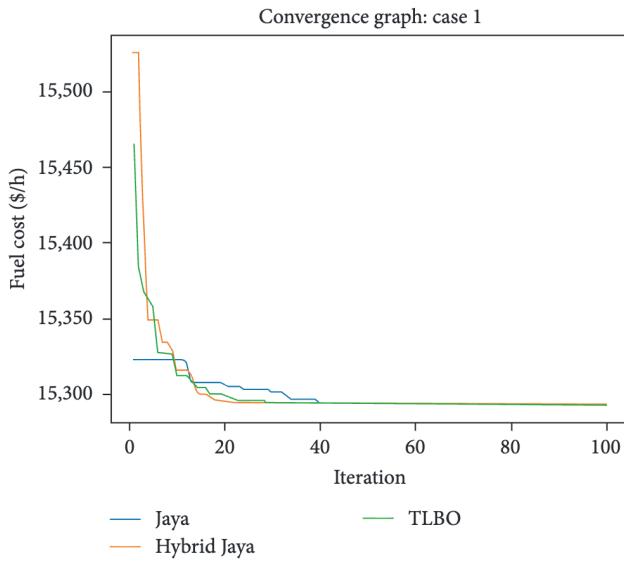


FIGURE 5: Best case convergence characteristics of Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya algorithm for 6-unit system. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

Jaya algorithm converges more than the Jaya algorithm. As a result, it is utilized in the remainder of the paper.

Compared to Jaya, hybrid Jaya regularly reaches a minimum value of 15,293.04631 \$/h. This displays hybrid Jaya's outstanding optimization ability. Hybrid Jaya's convergence to a low value also suggests that it has the potential to approach the global minimum, which is evident from the robustness characteristics, shown in Figure 4, which indicates that minimum value is attained in almost every individual run. In contrast, TLBO displays varying values and lacks a distinct convergence pattern. Thus, hybrid Jaya's resilience is demonstrated in Figure 5 since it converges to a lower minimum value faster and exhibits a steady convergence pattern, outperforming both basic Jaya and TLBO regarding convergence properties.

Fuel costs from 20 individual runs of the Jaya, hybrid Jaya, and TLBO algorithms make it clear that the hybrid Jaya algorithm is reliable. Throughout the 20 individual runs, the fuel cost for hybrid Jaya ranges from 15,293.04631 to 15,293.04646 \$/h. Jaya, on the other hand, shows minor changes with a range of 15,293.04646 to 15,294.7127 \$/h, and TLBO has more variability with a range of 15,293.04631 to 15,293.32391 \$/h. Additionally, hybrid Jaya constantly offers the lowest fuel cost of 15,293.04631 \$/h, demonstrating its capacity to discover the best minimal fuel cost. Due to its stability and low fuel cost variability, the hybrid Jaya algorithm outperforms Jaya and TLBO in fuel cost optimization, demonstrating its resilience and dependability. While the Jaya algorithm's fuel cost values vary, hybrid Jaya's remain consistent throughout, showing better stability and reliability. This shows that hybrid Jaya is more stable regarding fuel cost than the Jaya algorithm, as it keeps almost the same value without variation.

Moreover, a complete examination demonstrates the superiority of the hybrid Jaya algorithm over TLBO and Jaya in the optimization issue involving six thermal units and a 1263 MW

TABLE 8: Best solution values obtained from total fuel cost for the 4-unit system with a load demand of 10,500 MW.

Algorithm	Best fuel cost (\$/h)	Average fuel cost (\$/h)
HHO [1]	121,731.9500	122,343.1700
ABC [63]	121,441.0300	121,995.8200
HHO-A β HC [1]	121,414.8300	121,468.7400
ABOMDE [64]	121,414.8700	121,487.8500
ARCGA [65]	121,415.5000	121,462.1500
β HC [66]	121,414.6800	121,496.8400
CBPSO-RVM [67]	121,555.3200	122,281.1400
CLCS-CLM [68]	121,412.5400	121,412.9900
CSOMA [69]	121,414.7000	121,415.0500
CS [68]	121,457.1600	121,512.3000
CS-CLM [68]	121,450.4100	121,503.5500
FAPSO [70]	121,712.4000	121,778.2500
FCASO-SQP [71]	121,456.9800	122,026.2100
FAPSO-NM [70]	121,418.3000	121,418.8000
FFA [72]	121,415.0500	121,416.5700
GWO [73]	121,488.4000	NA
HGWO [74]	121,412.0000	121,419.0000
HCASO [71]	121,865.6300	122,100.7400
HCPSO [75]	121,865.2300	122,100.8700
HMAPSO [76]	121,586.9000	121,586.9000
HQIPSO [77]	121,418.6000	121,427.4700
HSSA [78]	121,960.2700	122,239.5300
NDS [79]	121,647.4000	121,647.4000
NSABC [80]	122,270.9100	123,675.4000
NUHS [81]	121,412.7400	121,549.9500
RCGA [77]	121,418.7200	NA
SOMA [69]	121,418.7900	121,449.8800
THS [82]	121,425.1500	121,528.6500
TSARGA [83]	121,463.0700	122,928.3100
TLA [84]	122,009.7700	122,074.9000
TLBO	119,167.9000	120,529.5000
Jaya	119,000.4000	120,410.3000
Hybrid Jaya	118,666.1000	119,198.3000

Abbreviations: ABC, artificial bee colony; ABOMDE, accelerated biogeography-based optimization differential evolution; ARCGA, adaptive real coded genetic algorithm; CLCS-CLM, comprehensive learning cuckoo search with chaos-lambda method; CSOMA, cultural self-organizing migrating algorithm; FAPSO, fuzzy adaptive particle swarm optimization; FAPSO-NM, fuzzy adaptive particle swarm optimization with Nelder–Mead; FCASO-SQP, fuzzy adaptive chaotic ant swarm optimization-sequential quadratic programming; FFA, firefly algorithm; GWO, gray wolf optimization; HCASO, hybrid chaotic ant swarm optimization; HCPSO, hybrid coding particle swarm optimization; HGWO, hybrid gray wolf optimizer; HHO, Harris hawk optimizer; HHO-A β HC, Harris hawk optimizer with adaptive beta hill climbing; HMAPSO, hybrid multiagent particle swarm optimization; HQIPSO, hybrid quantum inspired particle swarm optimization; HSSA, hybrid salp swarm algorithm; NDS, novel direct search; NSABC, nondominated sorting based artificial bee colony; NUHS, natural updated harmony search; RCGA, real coded genetic algorithm; SOMA, self-organizing migrating algorithm; THS, tournament-based harmony search; TLA, teaching–learning algorithm; TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization; TSARGA, Taguchi self-adaptive real-coded genetic algorithm.

load demand. Statistical analyses demonstrated a statistically significant difference in favor of hybrid Jaya in Table 8. The sensitivity study demonstrated the algorithm's robustness and

flexibility to parameter modifications. Across more test situations, hybrid Jaya continuously beat the other methods, demonstrating its generalizability. The convergence graph in Figure 5 further revealed that hybrid Jaya converges faster and achieves better solutions. Its ability to utilize the strengths of both optimization techniques, successfully explore solution spaces, and manage equality constraints further strengthens its dominance. Furthermore, hybrid Jaya regularly outperformed traditional optimization techniques. This collected data, supported by current research, indisputably validates hybrid Jaya as the ideal solution for addressing the optimization problem, demonstrating its practical effectiveness and dependability.

4.1.2. Test Case 2: 13 Units With an 1800 MW Load Demand. In this instance, a test system with 13 thermal units is used to implement the hybrid Jaya, Jaya, standard SDO, ESSDO, HGS, and other well-known algorithms to solve the ELD problem with an 1800 MW load requirement. Without considering power losses, the fuel cost using VPLE is calculated. Appendix C contains the system data.

Table 5 provides the best-scheduled powers (MW) for generating unit 1 to generating unit 13, as determined by the hybrid Jaya algorithm. Table 5 makes it evident that the proposed hybrid Jaya offers a solution more affordably (and with higher quality) than the other methods. A comparative analysis between Jaya, TLBO, hybrid Jaya, and some other recent algorithms is listed in Table 9. In Figure 6, the suggested hybrid Jaya, Jaya, and TLBO algorithms' convergence characteristic curves are shown for this situation. The suggested algorithm converges in comparatively fewer cycles, demonstrating good convergence qualities and resulting in a cheap generation cost, as demonstrated in the convergence characteristic curves in Figure 6. The hybrid Jaya algorithm achieves the global minimal fuel compared to the other algorithms.

Figure 6 shows the best-case convergence characteristics comparison of Jaya, TLBO, and the hybrid Jaya algorithm. The figure shows that the TLBO method differs from the other two algorithms in terms of cost reduction and achieving global minima. The TLBO algorithm continuously has more significant fuel costs throughout the iterations than the Jaya and hybrid Jaya algorithms. Hybrid Jaya reaches global optima faster than the Jaya algorithm. After 500 iterations, the Jaya algorithm gives a result of 17,932.76036 \$/h, while hybrid Jaya produced a value of 17,932.65587 \$/h.

According to the robustness characteristics shown in Figure 7, the hybrid Jaya algorithm performs better than the Jaya algorithm at minimizing fuel costs. Throughout the 20 runs, the hybrid Jaya algorithm's average fuel cost of 17,932.77432 \$/h is cheaper than the basic Jaya algorithm's 17,933.10838 \$/h. This shows that the hybrid Jaya algorithm consistently produces output with lower fuel costs. Thus, it can be inferred from the data that the hybrid Jaya algorithm outperforms the basic Jaya algorithm in reducing fuel costs. The hybrid Jaya algorithm is more reliable than the basic Jaya algorithm. The lower mean fuel cost achieved by the hybrid Jaya algorithm suggests more excellent performance in fuel cost minimization. In this test situation, TLBO

underperforms Jaya and hybrid Jaya in terms of minimizing fuel costs. According to the average fuel costs over 20 runs, hybrid Jaya has the lowest average of 17,933.16 \$/h, Jaya is second at 17,932.83 \$/h, and TLBO has the highest average of 17,936.61 \$/h.

The hybrid Jaya algorithm performs better than the Jaya algorithm. Compared to the basic Jaya algorithm, the hybrid Jaya algorithm has a minimum fuel cost value of 17,932.65587 \$/h. With a maximum value of 17,932.95598 \$/h, the hybrid Jaya algorithm performs noticeably better than the Jaya algorithm, which has a worst value of 17,935.86917 \$/h. The median value of the hybrid Jaya algorithm is better at 17,932.77367 \$/h, while the median value of the Jaya algorithm is marginally higher at 17,933.19303 \$/h. The hybrid Jaya algorithm's superiority is further highlighted by the standard deviation (STD), which contrasts the hybrid Jaya algorithm's value of 0.084509078 with the basic Jaya algorithm's value of 0.938524044.

The findings from Tables 4 and 7 shed important light on how well different optimization strategies perform in solving the ELD problem for a 13-unit system with an 1800 MW load demand. The overall expenses for TLBO, Jaya, and hybrid Jaya do appear to be relatively similar. However, to prove the superiority of the hybrid Jaya algorithm, it is necessary to look more closely at the study.

Take into account the "best" column in Table 4, which shows the most cost-effective algorithm overall. When compared to other algorithms, hybrid Jaya regularly has one of the lowest total costs, matching their top performance. According to this, hybrid Jaya is one of the best algorithms for solving this issue.

The average overall cost for hybrid Jaya across several runs is competitive, falling within a constrained range comparable to the top methods, as shown by the "mean" column in Table 4. This demonstrates how hybrid Jaya consistently offers the best solutions that are close to ideal.

Additionally, hybrid Jaya's STD is remarkably low (0.084509078), demonstrating excellent reliability and accuracy in continually providing cost-effective solutions. In comparison, TLBO and Jaya have STD values that are comparatively higher (3.481836968 and 0.938524, respectively), indicating that their performance is more variable.

In addition, the convergence characteristic curves shown in the text demonstrate that hybrid Jaya converges faster than TLBO and Jaya, showcasing improved convergence qualities critical in real-world situations where computational efficiency is vital.

The analysis of the "best," "mean," and STD values, along with convergence characteristics, confirms the validity of the claim that hybrid Jaya is indeed a superior algorithm for solving the ELD problem in this 13-unit system with an 1800 MW load demand, even though the total cost values for TLBO, Jaya, and hybrid Jaya may appear similar. It is an appealing option for real-world applications due to its reliable performance, minimal variability, and effective convergence.

4.1.3. Test Case 3: 20 Units With a Load Demand of 2500 MW. The demand for this system, which comprises 20 generating units, is 2500 MW. The loss coefficients are given in

TABLE 9: Comparison of the different metrics for case 2 (13-unit system).

Algorithm	HGS [35]	SDO [35]	ESSDO [35]	ESCSDO10 [35]	PSO [46]	θ -PSO [56]	MTVPSO [57]	JAVA	TIBO	HYBRID JAYA
Best	18,552.1900	18,041.4900	18,028.5600	18,028.1900	18,014.1600	17,963.82970	17,960.3659	17,932.76036	17,932.6903	17,932.65587
Worst	19,091.2600	18,160.1800	18,186.57000	18,184.3500	18,104.6500	17,980.2030	17,961.0615	17,935.86917	17,946.03656	17,932.95598
Mean	18,816.5000	18,092.7900	18,090.5000	18,106.8700	18,104.6500	17,965.2055	17,960.4226	17,933.1930	17,936.0019	17,932.7736
STD	179.7230	26.0366	32.1778	40.5607	NA	4.3807	1.9200	0.9385	3.48183	0.0845

Abbreviations: θ -PSO, theta-PSO; ESSDO, eagle-strategy supply–demand optimizer; HGS, hunger games search; MTVPSO, modified time varying PSO; PSO, particle swarm optimization; SDO, supply–demand-based optimization; STD, standard deviations; TIBO, teaching–learning based optimization.

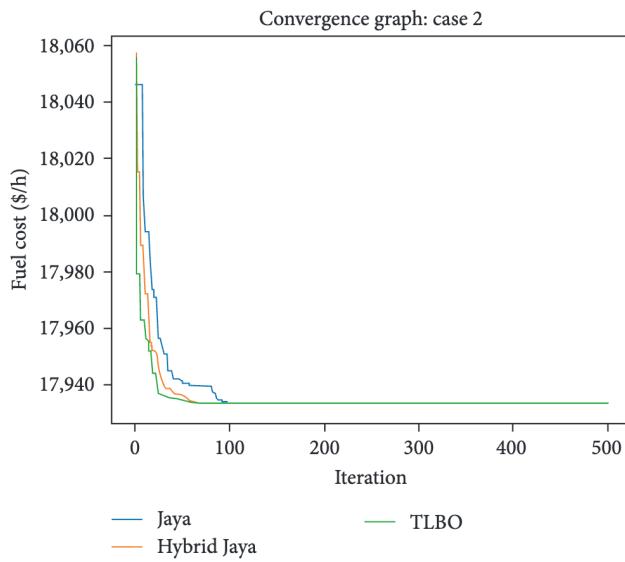


FIGURE 6: Convergence characteristics of Jaya and hybrid Jaya algorithm. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

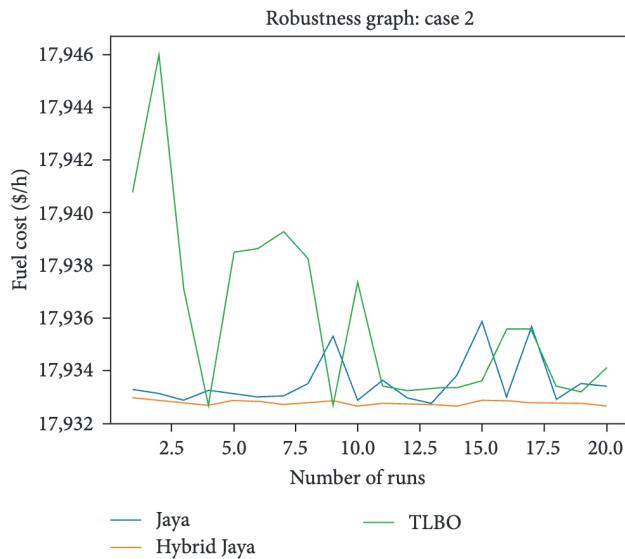


FIGURE 7: Robustness characteristics comparison between Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya for 13-unit system. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

Appendix D and the transmission loss is considered. The data for the unit are summarized in Appendix E.

Table 6 shows the optimal ELD schedule for generating unit 1 to generating unit 20 ($U_1 - U_{20}$) along with some traditional and evolutionary methods (for this particular case study: biography-based optimization [BBO] [60], lambda iteration [58], harmony search [HM] [58], Newton–Raphson [NR] [59], enhanced hopfield neural network [EHNN] [59], glow-worm swarm optimization [GSO] [61], and continuous quick group search algorithm [CQGSO] [61]). A comparison reveals that hybrid Jaya converges to the optimal value at the same level as or lower than other approaches.

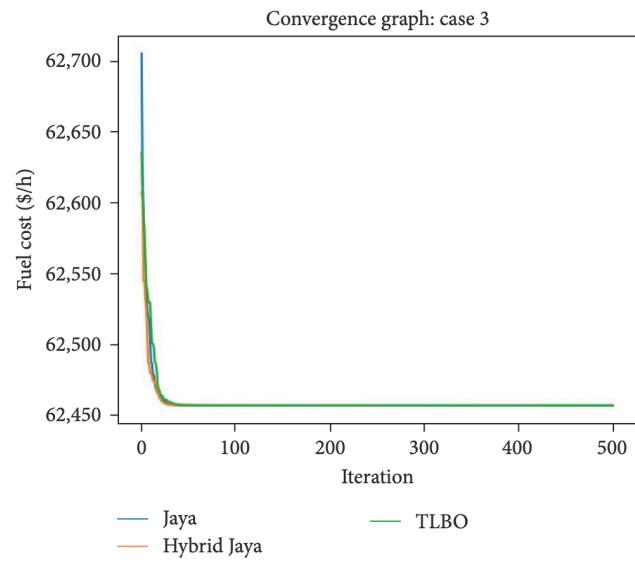


FIGURE 8: Best case convergence characteristics of Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya algorithm for the 20-unit system. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

Figure 8 illustrates the convergence of total generation fuel costs for Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya among the 20 trial runs of this case study's solutions.

The hybrid Jaya approach stands out from the others in the chart because it offers the lowest total cost and average cost. It results in a 62,456.63309 \$/h total cost and a 62,456.66712 \$/h average cost. These results are more significant than those from other techniques, including NR, HM, EHNN, BBO, GSO, backtracking spiral algorithm [BSA], CQGSO, Jaya, and TLBO. Additionally, the hybrid Jaya approach performs well when compared to the maximum cost (\$/h), which is 62,457.26 \$/h, suggesting that it has less cost fluctuation than some other methods like CQGSO and TLBO. The hybrid Jaya method consistently generates lower total cost and average cost values for the 20 generating units than other well-known optimization techniques, demonstrating that it is superior in fuel cost minimization.

Over 500 iterations, the convergence fuel cost values for the three algorithms, Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya, were examined. Compared to the other two methods, the hybrid Jaya algorithm consistently showed faster convergence to both the minimum value and the global minimum. The fuel cost for the hybrid Jaya algorithm was 62,606.85861 \$/h at the first iteration, compared to 62,704.89073 and 62,635.08481 \$/h for the Jaya and TLBO algorithms. The hybrid Jaya algorithm consistently outperformed the other algorithms throughout the iterations, and this pattern persisted. For instance, the hybrid Jaya algorithm reached a fuel cost of 62,456.66615 \$/h at iteration 50, but the fuel cost for the Jaya and TLBO algorithms were 62,456.71986 and 62,456.80135 \$/h, respectively. The final value of the hybrid Jaya algorithm was 62,456.63309 \$/h, while the final values of the Jaya and TLBO algorithms were 62,456.63341 and 62,456.63312 \$/h, respectively. This indicates that the hybrid Jaya method consistently approached the global minimum more closely than the other

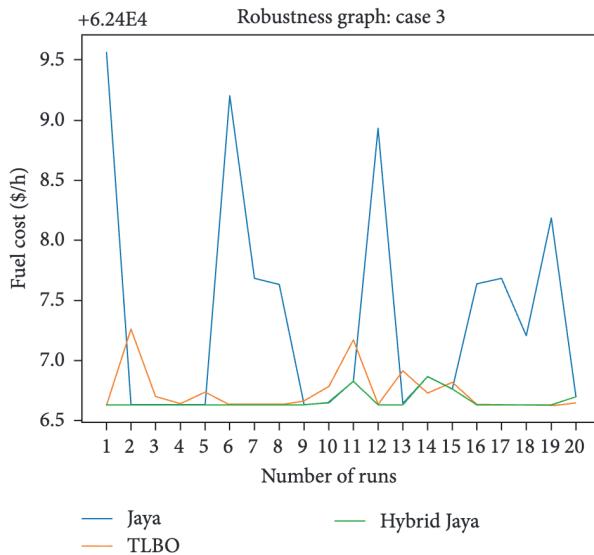


FIGURE 9: Robustness characteristics of hybrid Jaya over 20 trial runs. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

algorithms. These findings unequivocally demonstrate that the hybrid Jaya algorithm outperforms the Jaya and TLBO algorithms regarding convergence speed and precision. Figure 8 shows the convergence characteristics of the Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya algorithms for the best-case scenario.

Among the 20 individual trial runs of this case study's solutions, Figure 9 illustrates the robustness of Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya.

Across all 20 individual runs, hybrid Jaya consistently outperformed the Jaya algorithm and TLBO algorithm in terms of minimizing fuel costs. Its average fuel price, 62,456.67124 \$/h, is less than that of TLBO 62,456.82395 and Jaya 62,457.07409 \$/h. The limited variance in its fuel cost values (e.g., run 1: 62,456.63314 \$/h, run 10: 62,456.64952 \$/h, run 20: 62,456.69632 \$/h) further demonstrates hybrid Jaya's stability and resilience. TLBO and Jaya, on the other hand, both show higher average fuel costs (e.g., TLBO: 62,456.82395 \$/h, basic Jaya: 62,457.07409 \$/h) and more notable changes in fuel cost values (e.g., Jaya: run 1: 62,459.55571 \$/h, run 10: 62,456.63309 \$/h, run 20: 62,456.69632 \$/h). Hybrid Jaya performs better than its competitors by constantly reducing fuel cost and preserving stability throughout the course of the 20 runs.

4.1.4. Test Case 4: 40 Units With a Load Demand of 10,500 MW. This scenario uses the VPLE to solve the ELD problem on a test system with 40 thermal units without considering power loss. The system has a 10,500 MW total load demand, and the information used is from Appendix F. In the search space for finding a solution, there are more local minima when working with larger power systems. This demonstrates the necessity of optimization methods with improved search capabilities to avoid premature convergence.

Table 10 provides the optimal scheduled powers in MW obtained for generating unit 1 to unit 40 ($U_1 - U_{40}$) through various algorithms such as Jaya, hybrid Jaya, eagle-strategy supply–demand based optimization algorithm with chaotic version 10 (EESCSDO10), SDO, ESSDO, HGS, DE, TLBO,

and HSSA. Hybrid Jaya outperforms all other techniques in terms of achieving the best results. The convergence curve and boxplots for hybrid Jaya and the other techniques are illustrated in Figure 10. To further evaluate the performance, Table 8 compares the minimum and average fuel cost values with some of the well-known and recent algorithms reported in the literature. The hybrid Jaya algorithm achieves the best average value among the widely commonly compared techniques in the literature illustrated in Table 8.

As illustrated in the best-case convergence graph of Figure 10, Hybrid Jaya's combination of exploration and exploitation operations helps it continuously explore fruitful search space areas, improving convergence and minimizing objective function values. As a result, the evidence suggests that hybrid Jaya outperforms Jaya and TLBO algorithm in terms of minimization with iteration due to its capacity to combine optimization techniques with adaptability.

The results of 20 individual runs shown in Figure 11 show that the hybrid Jaya algorithm regularly outperforms basic Jaya in terms of cost minimization and robustness. In comparison to basic Jaya, the hybrid Jaya algorithm produced reduced cost values throughout all runs. Cost figures for the Jaya algorithm ranged from 119,000.3672 to 122,501.7593 \$/h, while those for hybrid Jaya ranged from 118,666.1433 to 119,763.4359 \$/h. Hybrid Jaya's average cost was 119,285.0171 \$/h, which was considerably less than Jaya's average cost of 120,290.1795 \$/h. In addition, compared to the Jaya algorithm, hybrid Jaya's performance was more consistent and stable, and its cost values varied less. These findings show that, compared to the Jaya algorithm, the hybrid Jaya algorithm consistently lowers costs more successfully and demonstrates better robustness, making it the algorithm of choice for cost optimization for ELD.

4.1.5. Test Case 5: East Java-Indonesia 10 Units With a Load Demand of 616 MW. As illustrated in Figure 12, the fifth case study is implemented in the East Java 150 kV power system,

TABLE 10: Optimal scheduled power obtained through various algorithms for test case 4.

Algorithm	DE [85]	HSSA [78]	QOPO [86]	HGS [35]	ESSDO [35]	SDO [35]	ESCSDO10 [35]	TLBO	Jaya	Hybrid Jaya
U1	110.9520	113.9994	113.7611	114	111.3958	1121.1391	110.8002	113.8627	112.4252	110.8160
U2	113.3000	113.9999	113.9886	114	111.7094	113.1060	110.7814	112.8244	113.9999	109.6472
U3	98.6160	119.999	119.9993	60.1394	97.4077	97.4006	97.3987	68.5019	117.5888	71.7316
U4	184.1470	189.9998	189.8949	179.7998	179.7576	179.7355	179.7312	188.4780	187.2487	188.2762
U5	86.4010	97	97	97	89.1816	87.8015	87.7911	96.5550	92.7811	72.7449
U6	140	140	139.9986	140	105.5467	105.4210	139.9984	138.6233	140	111.5046
U7	300	280.6695	300	300	259.6439	259.6137	259.5963	299.6909	297.825	299.9319
U8	285.4560	290.4195	299.9992	300	284.5999	284.6095	284.5963	299.5610	299.9433	294.8961
U9	297.5110	292.5067	299.9970	300	284.6077	284.5989	284.5915	298.4900	299.9999	273.1729
U10	130	130.0001	130	130	130.0001	130.0001	130.0107	132.4978	130.2949	196.8798
U11	168.7480	168.7998	94.0001	94.0006	94.0001	168.8005	239.0063	99.2196	94	354.2813
U12	95.6950	168.7998	94.3599	94	168.8010	168.8032	166.3011	95.0155	94	357.1914
U13	125	214.7598	125.1963	125	394.2750	304.5121	214.7574	154.9432	125	125.0505
U14	394.3550	304.5196	304.5059	394.2847	394.2988	394.2813	304.5057	253.0544	291.7584	231.2003
U15	365.523	304.5196	394.4782	394.2796	304.5235	304.5089	394.2829	378.9166	287.8407	387.0639
U16	394.7150	394.2793	394.2599	394.2794	394.2794	304.5268	394.2769	257.1037	286.9811	243.4541
U17	489.7970	489.2812	489.3310	489.3126	489.2851	489.3018	489.2760	499.8478	500	499.9992
U18	489.3620	489.2795	489.4125	489.2963	489.3087	489.2864	489.2794	498.5064	499.7137	491.1156
U19	520.9020	511.2795	511.2939	511.2809	511.3006	511.2827	511.2789	549.7678	550	548.2185
U20	510.6410	511.2795	511.3354	511.2800	511.3390	511.2788	549.4886	550	382.1751	
U21	524.5340	523.2794	525.4610	523.5524	523.2836	523.3314	523.2804	527.8708	549.9867	521.9748
U22	526.6980	523.7119	523.5896	523.3660	523.2759	523.2799	523.2774	549.4911	549.9239	402.804
U23	530.7470	523.2794	526.5896	539.7297	523.2844	523.2755	523.2791	548.0739	550	549.4699
U24	526.3270	523.2795	524.3047	523.8539	523.2795	523.4085	523.2744	549.9884	550	536.2256
U25	525.6540	523.8181	524.7312	523.3309	523.5598	523.2736	523.2783	528.8443	550	549.9870
U26	522.9500	523.2794	523.5606	523.3843	523.3029	523.2832	523.2836	549.8235	550	548.7541
U27	10	13.8386	10	10	10.0190	10.0630	10.0024	10.0848	10.0002	15.8095
U28	11.5520	11.7804	10.22341	10	10.0149	10.0080	10.0007	15.2925	10	10.004
U29	10	10.1857	10.0892	10	10.00053	10.00798	10.00303	11.4367	10	17.8544
U30	89.9080	94.8277	97	97	90.3466	89.64376	87.7960	97	48.7476	96.5777
U31	190	189.9999	190	190	161.6513	161.1230	189.9963	189.9987	189.9928	173.3851
U32	190	181.8970	189.9998	190	189.9978	189.9989	189.9999	189.2053	189.9999	189.9227
U33	190	187.1620	190	190	161.1450	189.9791	189.9845	189.9977	190	189.9337
U34	198.8400	164.8096	200	172.5026	164.8925	164.7992	164.8044	196.5762	200	109.2134
U35	174.1780	180.4562	200	200	164.9190	164.9028	164.8001	190.6148	200	180.7268
U36	197.1600	199.9853	196.9969	200	164.9784	164.8301	164.7669	194.6316	200	199.8789
U37	110	108.2447	109.9804	110	95.7665	109.9967	109.9969	106.7947	110	89.4107
U38	109.3570	90.2908	110	110	109.9943	97.5983	99.1136	109.9147	110	108.7441
U39	110	89.2026	110	110	109.9976	109.9988	99.1141	109.9961	109.9967	109.8763
U40	510.6750	511.2793	511.4018	511.3023	511.2872	511.2801	511.2784	550	550	549.9693
Cost (\$/h)	121.8400	121.960.3000	121.789.6000	121.696.5000	121.873.6000	121.750.2000	121.627	119.000.3672	118666.1000	

Abbreviations: DE, differential evolution; ESSDO, eagle-strategy supply-demand optimizer; HGS, hunger games search; HSSA, hybrid salp swarm algorithm; QOPQ, quasi-positional search-based political optimizer; SDO, supply-demand-based optimization; TLBO, teaching-learning-based optimization.

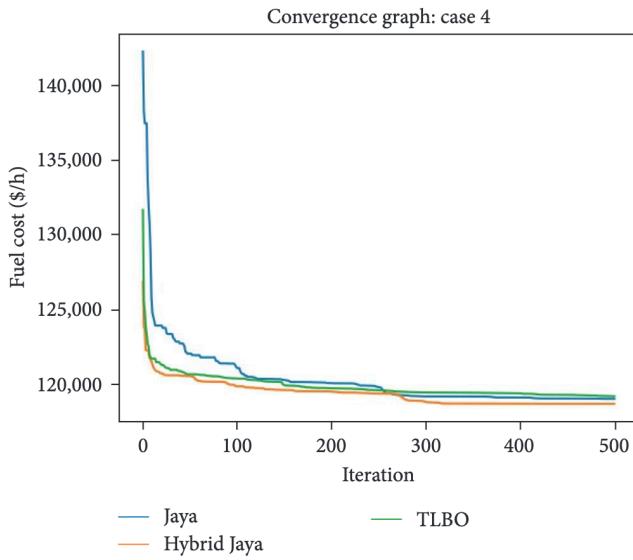


FIGURE 10: Best case convergence characteristics comparison between Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

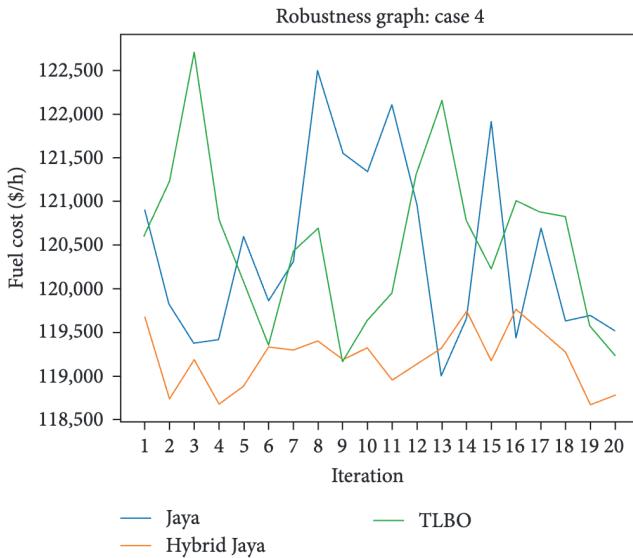


FIGURE 11: Robustness characteristics of Jaya and hybrid Jaya. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

which is situated in East Java, Indonesia. This power system consists of 10 generating units that play a crucial role in supplying electricity to the region. The Gresik 1 electric steam power plant, also known simply as Gresik 1, houses units 1–4 and is a key facility within this system. Located strategically to optimize power distribution, Gresik 1 is integral to maintaining the stability and reliability of the power grid in East Java. The implementation of this case study in the East Java power system highlights the practical applicability and effectiveness of the proposed methodologies in real-world power systems, demonstrating their potential for enhancing operational efficiency and meeting the growing energy demands of the region. Units 5 and 6 of the Pembangkit Listrik Tenaga Uap Gresik 1 (PLTU Gresik 1) are situated in the Perak electric steam power plant known as PLTU Perak in Indonesia and Gresik 2 integrated gasification combined cycle plants, which are in Indonesia, are where units 7–10 are situated is

known as PLTGU Gresik 2, or pembangkit listrik tenaga gas dan uap Gresik 2. Figure 13 shows the single line diagram of the East Java 150 KV line. Generator unit capacity and cost coefficients are shown in Appendix G.

Table 11 compares the outcomes of the hybrid Jaya with those of other algorithms, including the BA, GA, PSO, directional bat algorithm (dBA) and modified inertial weight (MIW)-based PSO. When compared to all other listed methodologies, the hybrid Jaya offers a cheap fuel cost, 95,633 \$/h, proving its viability. This economic fuel cost is also represented in Figure 14 convergence characteristics for the Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya. The convergence characteristics are drawn for 500 iterations for comparison.

It was discovered that all three algorithms—hybrid Jaya, Jaya, and TLBO—successfully obtained the same minimum value of 95,632.12566 \$/h in the comparative convergence

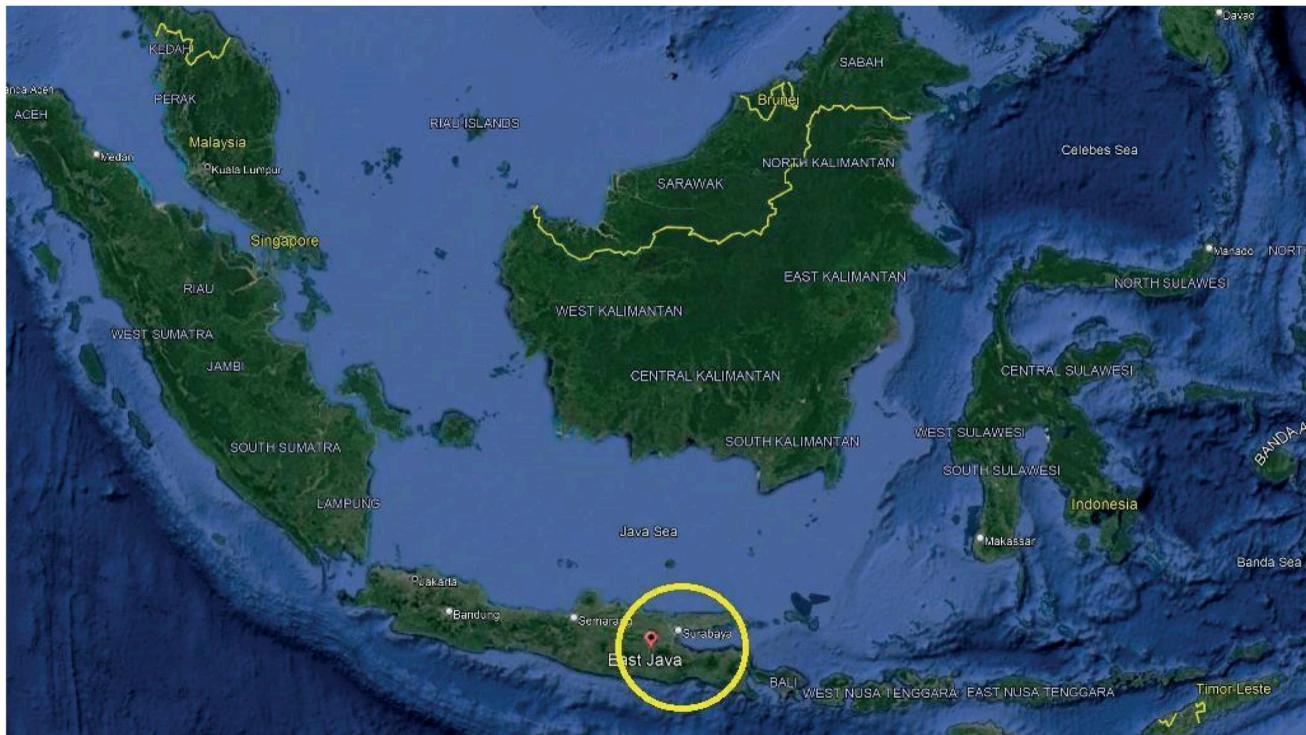


FIGURE 12: The location of the 150 kV electricity system in East Java.

analysis of optimization methods that included these. However, as shown in Figure 14, it took them various amounts of iterations to get this convergence. The TLBO and Jaya algorithms required 227 and 122 iterations, respectively, but the hybrid Jaya algorithm reached the minimal value after just 189 iterations. According to these findings, the hybrid Jaya method can converge more quickly and efficiently to obtain a minimal fuel cost compared to the essential Jaya and TLBO algorithms.

As shown in Figure 15, over 20 runs, the hybrid Jaya algorithm consistently achieves a mean fuel cost of \$ 95,632.12652, which is lower than Jaya's mean of \$ 95,726.32549 and TLBO's mean of \$ 95,633.05032. This performance implies its robust optimization capabilities, which could be attributed to the successful integration of Jaya and TLBO strengths, a balanced exploration-exploitation strategy, domain-specific features, fine-tuned parameters, and consistent convergence. The lower mean cost of the hybrid Jaya algorithm indicates its ability to continuously generate cost-effective solutions, validating its potential as a robust optimization strategy.

Despite producing similar generator contributions and overall costs as TLBO and Jaya, the hybrid Jaya algorithm's efficiency and effectiveness can be ascribed to several vital aspects. First, it shows a far faster convergence rate, achieving the lowest fuel cost in just 189 iterations as opposed to 227 iterations for TLBO and 122 iterations for Jaya, which is a significant advantage in computationally challenging real applications. Its reliability in producing cost-effective solutions while maintaining stability across multiple iterations—a crucial quality for real-world optimization scenarios—is further demonstrated by its consistent achievement of a lower

mean fuel cost over 20 runs, \$95,632.12652, in comparison to Jaya (\$95,726.32549) and TLBO (\$95,633.05032).

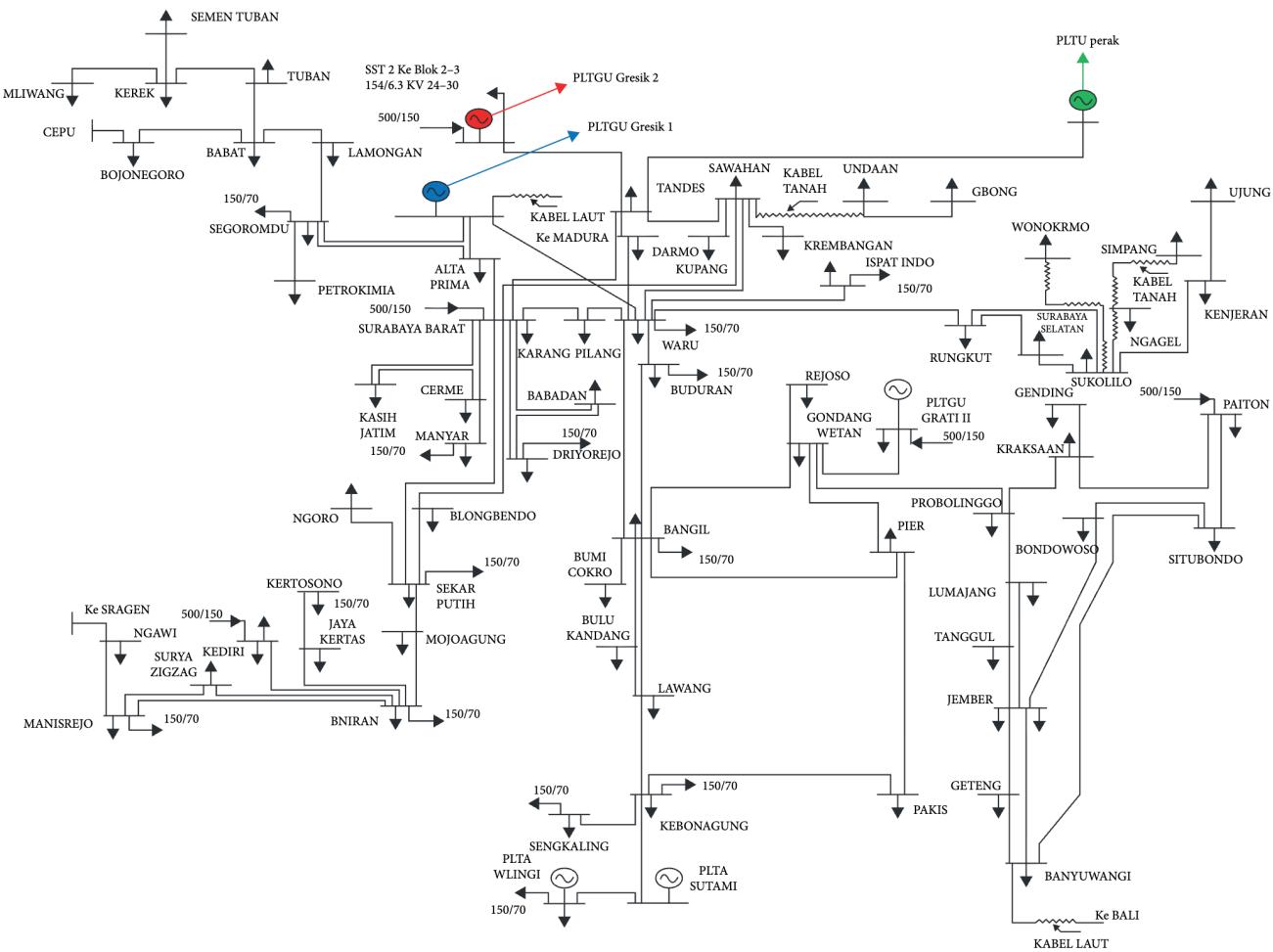
5. Sensitivity and Convergence Analysis

The suggested hybrid Jaya algorithm is applied to the situations above for 20 independent runs to evaluate its sensitivity, and the results are then contrasted with those from Jaya and TLBO separately. The box plot of Jaya, TLBO, and Jaya-TLBO for cases 1–4 is shown in Figures 16–20. A well-known statistical method called the “box plot” summarizes and compares the results visually. The “box plot” aids in locating any hidden patterns among a collection of numbers. For test cases 1–5, respectively, Figures 16–20 show the box plot for the Jaya-TLBO, Jaya, and TLBO algorithms.

The four case study's boxplots are displayed in Figures 16–20. As can be observed, when compared to those of the Jaya and TLBO, the boxplots of the suggested hybrid Jaya algorithms are narrow and have the lowest values.

To determine the efficacy of the proposed hybrid Jaya algorithm, this paper uses a *T*-test analysis. A 5% confidence interval is taken and applied to the sampling data. This data is acquired over 20 individual runs for both the algorithms, Jaya and hybrid Jaya. Tables 12 and 13 display the conclusions drawn from the information. The null hypothesis is “There is no significant difference between the two algorithms.” The test statistics are translated to a *p*-value, and the results are derived using the following formula:

1. The observed difference is not significant when the *p*-value exceeds 0.10.



- PLTU Gresik 1 consists of four generator units, which are units 1–4
- PLTU Perak consists of two generator units, which are units 5 and 6
- PLTGU Gresik 2 consists of four generator units, which are units 7–10

FIGURE 13: East Java power system single line diagram [87]. PLTU, Pembangkit Listrik Tenaga Uap.

TABLE 11: Best solution values obtained from total fuel cost for the 40-unit system with a load demand of 616 MW.

Generating Unit	BA [88]	dBA [88]	PSO [87]	GA [88]	MIW-PSO [87]	Jaya	TLBO	Hybrid Jaya
U_1	23	35.8400	38.6300	42.4690	36.3400	34.1381	34.1380	34.1420
U_2	52.5100	44.4700	38.9400	54.9640	46.5800	44.7553	44.7553	44.7414
U_3	185.9700	189	178	69.7650	189	189	189	188.9999
U_4	150.5600	138.4000	142.2000	73.7550	139.1600	138.2608	138.2608	138.2692
U_5	10.2500	10.2500	13.4300	32.7880	11.0600	10.2500	10.2500	10.2500
U_6	10.2500	10.2500	13.4200	37.7720	10.2500	10.2500	10.2500	10.2500
U_7	23	23	29	23.0090	23	23	23	23
U_8	23	31.6200	26.8400	93.5910	29.9000	31.8661	31.8661	31.8651
U_9	23	23	29	23.0320	23	23	23	23
U_{10}	114.4700	110.1700	106.5400	164.8540	107.7100	111.4796	111.4795	111.4823
Total power generation	616	616	616	616	616	616	616	616
Cost (\$/h)	95,745.5400	95,633	95,840.5700	10,0207.1500	95,835.5300	95,632.1256	95,632.1256	95,632.1256

Abbreviations: dBA, directional bat algorithm; GA, genetic algorithm; MIW-PSO, modified inertial weight-based particle swarm optimization; TLBO, teaching-learning-based optimization.

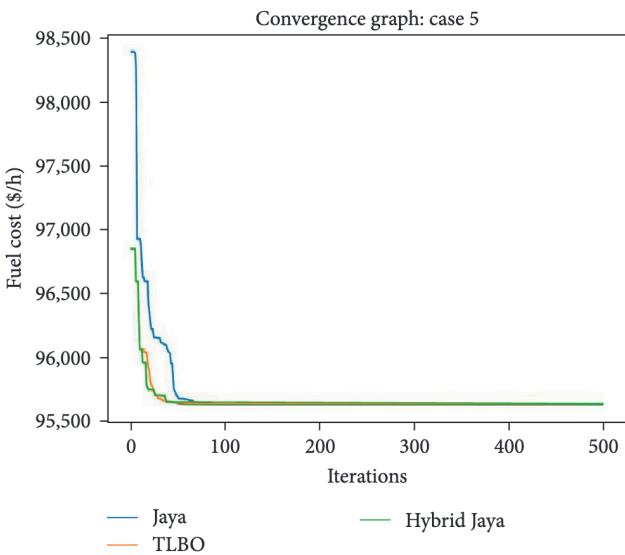


FIGURE 14: Best case convergence characteristics comparison between Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya for case 5. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

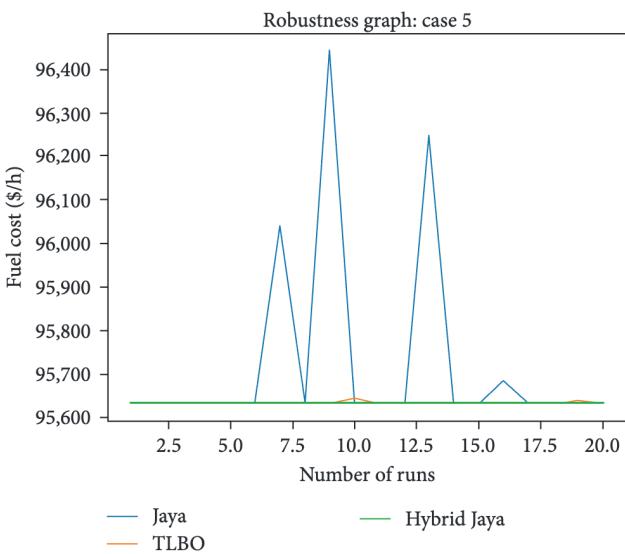


FIGURE 15: Robustness characteristics comparison between Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya for case 5. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

2. The observed difference is marginally significant when the p -value is less than 0.10.
3. The observed difference is null (the behavior is the same) when the p -value is 0.05.
4. The observed difference is significant when the p -value is less than 0.05.
5. The observed difference is very significant when the p -value is less than 0.01.

Though the main objective of this hybrid Jaya algorithm is to minimize the cost of generation, the simple

computation time for each algorithm is presented in Table 14.

The computation time of the hybrid algorithm is awe-inspiring. The main objective of this paper was to study cost minimization, in which this algorithm performed exceptionally well compared to other well-known algorithms in the literature. However, limited literature mentions the computation or CPU time required to solve each test case. In our future work, we will investigate each algorithm's computation and CPU time by running them individually, as this data is only readily available for some comparative algorithms.

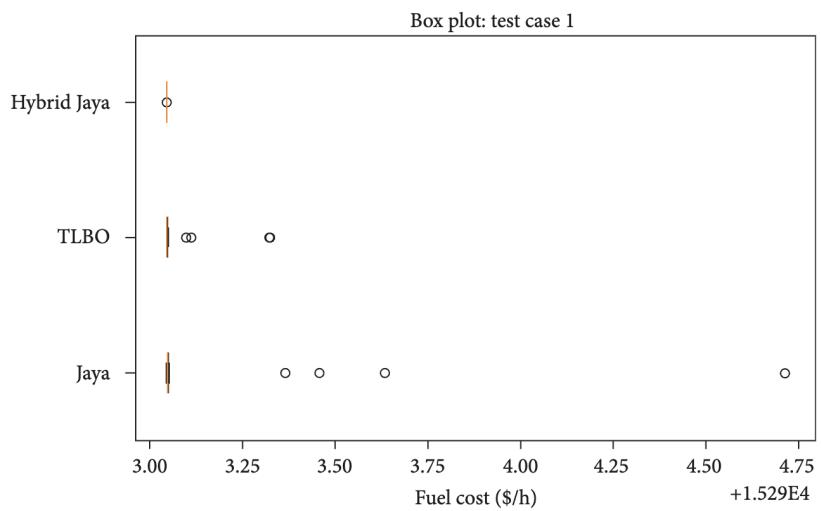


FIGURE 16: Box plot of Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya for test case 1. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

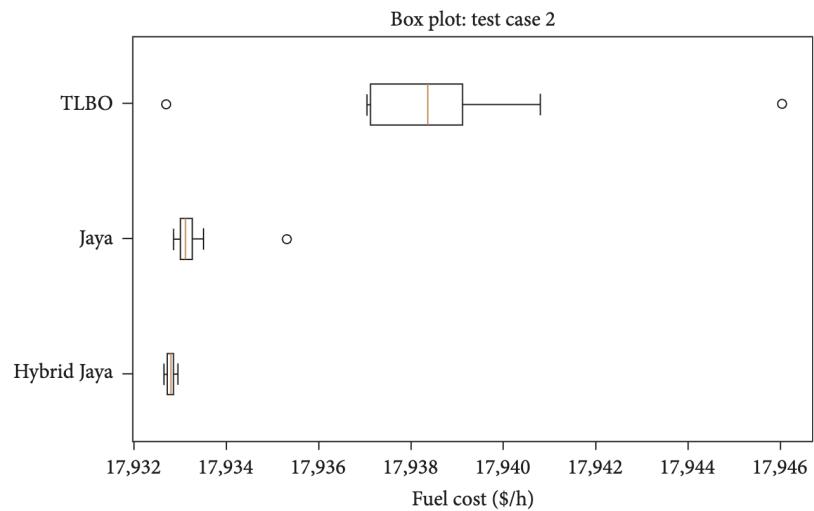


FIGURE 17: Box plot of Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya for test case 2. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

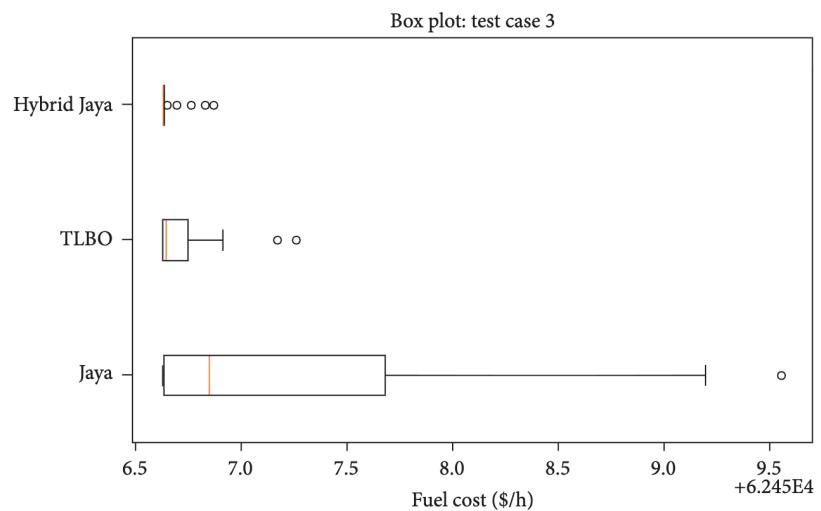


FIGURE 18: Box plot of Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya for test case 3. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

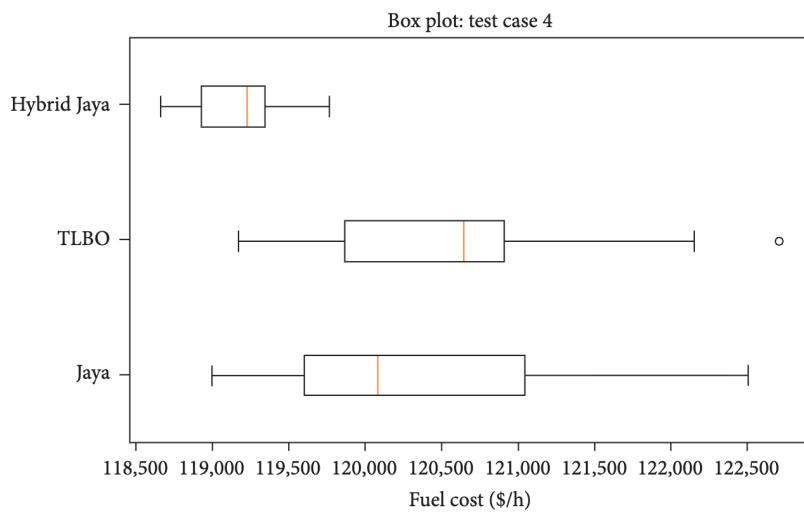


FIGURE 19: Box plot of Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya for test case 4. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

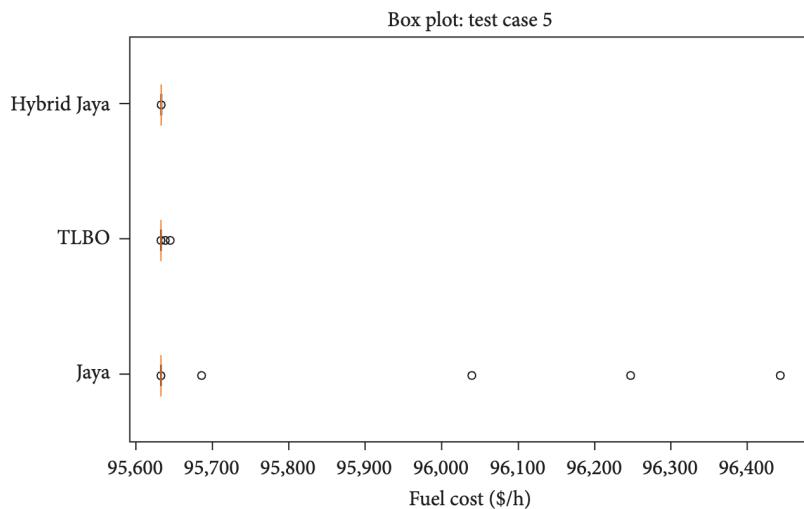


FIGURE 20: Box plot of Jaya, TLBO, and hybrid Jaya for test case 5. TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

TABLE 12: *T*-test analysis of Jaya and hybrid Jaya for ELD problems.

Serial	Test case	Degree of freedom	<i>p</i> value	Conclusion
1	1	20	0.100	Marginally significant
2	2	20	3.2503E-64	Highly significant
3	3	20	3.0150E-05	Highly significant
4	4	20	6.3323E-05	Highly significant
5	5	20	0.0854	Marginally significant

Abbreviation: ELD, economic load dispatch.

TABLE 13: *T*-test analysis of TLBO and hybrid Jaya for ELD problems.

Serial	Test case	Degree of freedom	<i>p</i> value	Conclusion
1	1	20	0.0889	Marginally significant
2	2	20	0.0004	Highly significant
3	3	20	0.0676	Highly significant
4	4	20	0.0004	Highly significant
5	5	20	0.1000	Marginally significant

Abbreviations: ELD, economic load dispatch; TLBO, teaching–learning-based optimization.

TABLE 14: Computation time of hybrid Jaya algorithm.

Serial	Test Case	Units	CPU meantime
1	1	6	0.0630
2	2	13	0.7012
3	3	20	0.0935
4	4	40	103.9565
5	5	10	0.0652

Abbreviation: CPU, central processing unit.

6. Conclusion

This paper proposes an efficient hybrid Jaya optimization method. To enhance the functionality of the standard Jaya method, this version is based on the hybridization of Jaya and TLBO algorithms. The new hybrid algorithm outperformed the traditional Jaya in a set of a 6-unit nonconvex search space ELD problem that took into account power losses, power limits, ramp rate limits, and POZ for each unit, a 13-unit system with VPLE on the cost function and power generation boundaries, a 20-unit nonconvex search space ELD problem that took into account power losses, power limits, and in a 40-unit system using VPLE on the cost function and power generation limits, offering superior solutions than the original Jaya and TLBO employed in these four case studies. The simulation results demonstrate the proposed hybrid Jaya optimization algorithm's high accuracy and minimized cost, allowing it to be used in various real-world optimization situations.

However, the proposed method's performance is reliant on the ELD search space. The ELD problem has various variants, and the proposed hybrid approach is only intended for situations with specific constraints addressed in this work.

It is essential to delve into more challenging and significantly larger scale generation problems. Future research will focus on applying these algorithms to solve more demanding constrained optimization problems. Additionally, further exploration of integrating other metrics such as success rates [89] and adapting them with other parameter-less approaches will be conducted in future studies.

Nomenclature

GA-API:	Hybrid ant colony-genetic algorithm
GA:	Genetic algorithm
PSO:	Particle swarm optimization
MABC:	Multispecies artificial bee colony
CBA:	Classification based on association rules
NPSO-LRS:	New PSO local random search
MSSA:	Multivariate singular spectrum algorithm
DE:	Differential evolution
ST-IRDPSO:	Improved random drift particle swarm optimization algorithm
SOH-PSO:	Self-organizing hierarchical particle swarm optimization
MCSA:	Modified crow search algorithm
HGS:	Hunger games search
MTS:	Moving target search
HHS:	Hybrid harmony search
ESSDO:	Eagle-strategy supply-demand optimizer

NN-EPSO:	Neural network enhanced particle swarm optimization
MTV-PSO:	Modified time-varying particle swarm optimization
NR:	Newton–Raphson
HM:	Harmony search
EHNN:	Enhanced hopfield neural network
BBO:	Biography-based optimization
GSO:	Glowworm swarm optimization
BSA:	Backtracking spiral algorithm
HHO:	Harris hawk optimizer
ABC:	Artificial bee colony
HHO-A βHC:	Harris hawk optimizer with adaptive beta hill climbing
ABOMDE:	Accelerated biogeography-based optimization differential evolution
ARCGA:	Adaptive real coded genetic algorithm
βHC:	Beta hill climbing
RVMPSO:	Real-valued mutation particle swarm optimization
CLCS-CLM:	Comprehensive learning cuckoo search with chaos-lambda method
CSOMA:	Cultural self-organizing migrating algorithm
FAPSO:	Fuzzy adaptive particle swarm optimization
FCASO-SQP:	Fuzzy adaptive chaotic ant swarm optimization- sequential quadratic programing
FAPSO-NM:	Fuzzy adaptive particle swarm optimization with Nelder–Mead
FFA:	Firefly algorithm
GWO:	Gray wolf optimization
HGWO:	Hybrid gray wolf optimizer
HCASO:	Hybrid chaotic ant swarm optimization
HCPSO:	Hybrid coding particle swarm optimization
HMAPSO:	Hybrid multiagent particle swarm optimization
HQIPSO:	Hybrid quantum inspired particle swarm optimization
HMAPSO:	Hybrid multiagent particle swarm optimization
HSSA:	Hybrid salp swarm algorithm
NDS:	Novel direct search
NSABC:	Nondominated sorting based artificial bee colony
NUHS:	Natural updated harmony search
RCGA:	Real coded genetic algorithm
SOMA:	Self-organizing migrating algorithm
THS:	Tournament-based harmony search
TSARGA:	Taguchi self-adaptive real-coded genetic algorithm
TLA:	Teaching–learning algorithm.

Appendix A

TABLE A1: Data for the 6-unit system: generating unit capacity, coefficients, ramp rate limitations, and banned zones for producing units.

Unit	a_i (\$)	b_i (\$/MW)	c_i (\$/MW ²)	$P_{i\max}$ (MW)	P_i^0	DR_i	Prohibited operating zones
1	240	0.7	0.007	500	440	120	[210, 240] [350, 380]
2	200	10	0.0095	200	170	90	[90, 110] [140, 160)
3	220	8.5	0.009	300	200	100	I 150, 170] [210, 240]
4	200	11	0.009	150	150	90	[80, 90] [110, 120]
5	220	10.5	0.008	200	190	90	[90, 110] [140, 150]
6	190	12	0.0075	120	110	90	[75, 85] [100, 105]

Abbreviation: down ramp.

Appendix B

TABLE A2: The 6-unit test system's actual loss B -coefficients.

$B_{oi} = 1.0E-3$	-0.3908	-0.1297	0.7047	0.0591	0.2161	-0.6635
B_{00}	0.056	—	—	—	—	—
B_{ij}	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	0.0017	0.0012	0.0007	-0.0001	-0.0005	-0.0002
2	0.0012	0.0011	0.0009	0.0001	-0.0006	-0.0001
3	0.0007	0.0009	0.0031	0	-0.001	-0.0006
4	-0.0001	0.0001	0	0.0024	-0.0006	-0.0008
5	-0.0005	-0.0006	-0.001	-0.0006	0.0129	-0.0006
6	-0.0002	-0.0001	-0.0006	-0.0008	-0.0002	0.015

Appendix C

TABLE A3: Data for the 13-unit system with the valve point effect: fuel cost coefficients and generation limits.

Unit	a_i (\$)	b_i (\$/MW)	c_i (\$/MW ²)	d_i (\$)	e_i (1/MW)	$P_{i\min}$ (MW)	$P_{i\max}$ (MW)
1	0.00028	8.1	550	300	0.035	0	680
2	0.00056	8.1	309	200	0.042	0	360
3	0.00056	8.1	307	200	0.042	0	360
4	0.00324	7.74	240	150	0.063	60	180
5	0.00324	7.74	240	150	0.063	60	180
6	0.00324	7.74	240	150	0.063	60	180
7	0.00324	7.74	240	150	0.063	60	180
8	0.00324	7.74	240	150	0.063	60	180
9	0.00324	7.74	240	150	0.063	60	180
10	0.00284	8.6	126	100	0.084	40	120
11	0.00284	8.6	126	100	0.084	40	120
12	0.00284	8.6	126	100	0.084	55	120
13	0.00284	8.6	126	100	0.084	55	120

Appendix D. Transmission Loss Coefficients for Case 2.

$B = 10^{-5}$	8.70	0.43	-4.61	0.36	0.32	-0.66	0.96	-1.60	0.80	-0.10	3.60	0.64	0.79	2.10	1.70	0.80	-3.20	0.70	0.48	-0.70
	0.43	8.30	-0.97	0.22	0.75	-0.28	5.04	1.70	0.54	7.20	-0.28	0.98	-0.46	1.30	0.80	-0.20	0.52	-1.70	0.80	0.20
	-4.61	-0.97	9.00	-2.00	0.63	3.00	1.70	-4.30	3.10	-2.00	0.70	-0.77	0.93	4.60	-0.30	4.20	0.38	0.70	-2.00	3.60
	0.36	0.22	-2.00	5.30	0.47	2.62	-1.96	2.10	0.67	1.80	-0.45	0.92	2.40	7.60	-0.20	0.70	-1.00	0.86	1.60	0.87
	0.32	0.75	0.63	0.47	8.60	-0.80	0.37	0.72	-0.90	0.69	1.80	4.30	-2.80	-0.70	2.30	3.60	0.80	0.20	-3.00	0.50
	-0.66	-0.28	3.00	2.62	-0.80	11.80	-4.90	0.30	3	-3	0.40	0.78	6.40	2.60	-0.20	2.10	-0.40	2.30	1.60	-2.10
	0.96	5.04	1.70	-1.96	0.37	-4.90	8.24	-0.90	5.90	-0.60	8.50	-0.83	7.20	4.80	-0.90	-0.10	1.30	0.76	1.90	1.30
	-1.60	1.70	-4.30	2.10	0.72	0.30	-0.90	1.20	-0.96	0.93	-0.30	6.50	2.30	2.60	0.58	-0.10	0.23	-0.30	5.30	0.80
	0.80	0.54	3.10	0.67	-0.90	3.00	5.90	-0.96	0.93	-0.30	6.50	2.30	2.60	0.58	-0.10	0.23	-0.30	1.50	0.74	0.70
x	-0.10	7.20	-2.00	1.80	0.69	-3.00	-0.60	0.56	-0.30	0.99	-6.60	3.90	2.30	-0.30	2.80	-0.80	0.38	1.90	0.47	-0.26
	3.60	-0.28	0.70	-0.45	1.80	0.40	8.50	1.60	6.50	-6.60	10.70	5.30	-0.60	0.70	1.90	-2.60	0.93	-0.60	3.80	-1.50
	0.64	0.98	-0.77	0.92	4.30	0.78	-0.83	0.80	2.30	3.90	5.30	8.00	0.90	2.10	-0.70	5.70	5.40	1.50	0.70	0.10
	0.79	-0.46	0.93	2.40	-2.80	6.40	7.20	-0.40	2.60	2.30	-0.60	0.90	11.00	0.87	-1.00	3.60	0.46	-0.90	0.60	1.50
	2.10	1.30	4.60	7.60	-0.70	2.60	4.80	0.23	0.58	-0.30	0.70	2.10	0.87	3.80	0.50	-0.70	1.90	2.30	-0.97	0.90
	1.70	0.80	-0.30	-0.20	2.30	-0.20	-0.90	0.75	-0.10	2.80	1.90	-0.70	-1.00	0.50	11.00	1.90	-0.80	2.60	2.30	-0.10
	0.80	-0.20	4.20	0.70	3.60	2.10	-0.10	-0.56	0.23	-0.80	-2.60	5.70	3.60	-0.70	1.90	10.80	2.50	-1.80	0.90	-2.60
	-3.20	0.52	0.38	-1.00	0.80	-0.40	1.20	0.80	-0.20	0.38	0.93	5.40	0.46	1.90	-0.80	2.50	8.70	4.20	-0.30	0.68
	0.70	-1.70	0.70	0.86	0.20	2.30	0.76	-0.30	1.50	1.90	-0.60	1.50	-0.90	2.30	2.60	-1.80	4.20	2.20	0.16	-0.30
	0.48	0.80	-2.00	1.60	-3.00	1.60	1.90	5.30	0.74	0.47	3.80	0.70	0.60	-0.97	2.30	0.90	-0.30	0.16	7.60	0.69
	-0.70	0.20	3.60	0.87	0.50	2.10	1.30	0.80	0.70	-0.26	-1.50	0.10	1.50	0.90	-0.10	-2.60	0.68	-0.30	0.69	7.00

Appendix E

TABLE A4: Data for the 20-unit system with transmission loss and generation limits.

Generating unit	a	b	c	P_{\min} (MW)	P_{\max} (MW)
U_1	0.00068	18.19	1000	150	600
U_2	0.00071	19.26	970	50	200
U_3	0.0065	19.8	600	50	200
U_4	0.005	19.1	700	50	200
U_5	0.00738	18.1	420	50	160
U_6	0.00612	19.26	360	20	100
U_7	0.0079	17.14	490	25	125
U_8	0.00813	18.92	660	50	150
U_9	0.00522	18.27	765	50	200
U_{10}	0.00573	18.92	770	30	150
U_{11}	0.0048	16.69	800	100	300
U_{12}	0.0031	16.76	970	150	500
U_{13}	0.0085	17.36	900	40	160
U_{14}	0.00511	18.7	700	20	130
U_{15}	0.00398	18.7	450	25	185
U_{16}	0.0712	14.26	370	20	80
U_{17}	0.0089	19.14	480	30	85
U_{18}	0.00713	18.92	680	30	120
U_{19}	0.00622	18.47	700	40	120
U_{20}	0.00773	19.79	850	30	100

Appendix F

TABLE A5: Data for the 40-unit system with the valve-point effect: fuel cost coefficients and generation limits.

Unit	a_i (\$)	b_i (\$/MW)	c_i (\$/MW ²)	$P_{i\min}$ (MW)	$P_{i\max}$ (MW)	e_i (1/MW)	f_i (\$)
1	0.0069	6.73	94.705	36	114	0.084	100
2	0.0069	6.73	94.705	36	114	0.084	100
3	0.02028	7.07	309.54	60	120	0.084	100
4	0.00942	8.18	369.03	80	190	0.063	150
5	0.0114	5.35	148.89	47	97	0.077	120
6	0.01142	8.05	222.33	68	140	0.084	100
7	0.00357	8.03	287.71	110	300	0.042	200
8	0.00492	6.99	391.98	135	300	0.042	200
9	0.00573	6.6	455.76	135	300	0.042	200
10	0.00605	12.9	722.82	130	300	0.042	200
11	0.00515	12.9	635.2	94	375	0.042	200
12	0.00569	12.8	654.69	94	375	0.042	200
13	0.00421	12.5	913.4	125	500	0.035	300
14	0.00752	8.84	1760.4	125	500	0.035	300
15	0.00708	9.15	1728.3	125	500	0.035	300
16	0.00708	9.15	1728.3	125	500	0.035	300
17	0.00313	7.97	647.85	220	500	0.035	300
18	0.00313	7.95	649.69	220	500	0.035	300
19	0.00313	7.97	647.83	242	550	0.035	300
20	0.00313	7.97	647.81	242	550	0.035	300
21	0.00298	6.63	785.96	254	550	0.035	300
22	0.00298	6.63	785.96	254	550	0.035	300
23	0.00284	6.66	794.53	254	550	0.035	300
24	0.00284	6.66	794.53	254	550	0.035	300
25	0.00277	7.1	801.32	254	550	0.035	300
26	0.00277	7.1	801.32	254	550	0.035	300
27	0.52124	3.33	1055.1	10	150	0.077	120
28	0.52124	3.33	1055.1	10	150	0.077	120
29	0.52124	3.33	1055.1	10	150	0.077	120
30	0.0114	5.35	148.89	47	97	0.077	120
31	0.0016	6.43	222.92	60	190	0.063	150
32	0.0016	6.43	222.92	60	190	0.063	150
33	0.0016	6.43	222.92	60	190	0.063	150
34	0.0001	8.95	107.87	90	200	0.042	200
35	0.0001	8.62	116.58	90	200	0.042	200
36	0.0001	8.62	116.58	90	200	0.042	200
37	0.0161	5.88	307.45	25	110	0.098	80
38	0.0161	5.88	307.45	25	110	0.098	80
39	0.0161	5.88	307.45	25	110	0.098	80
40	0.00313	7.97	647.83	242	550	0.035	300

Appendix G

TABLE A6: Generator unit capacity and cost coefficient.

Unit	a_i (\$)	b_i (\$/MW)	c_i (\$/MW ²)	$P_{i\min}$ (MW)	$P_{i\max}$ (MW)
1	0.2162	42.5118	4088.5375	23.00	92
2	0.4108	20.5021	4547.8075	23.00	92
3	0.05620	32.9483	4601.9649	47.25	189
4	0.1266	22.2655	4316.1074	47.25	189
5	0.6210	50.6244	3707.7500	10.25	41
6	0.1255	69.7050	3459.6950	10.25	41
7	3.6454	370.6642	9045.7750	23.00	95
8	0.3981	31.9013	1124.9075	23.00	95
9	2.3185	484.7006	8549.5500	23.00	95
10	0.1142	31.8112	4486.6174	41.25	165

Appendix H. Pseudocode for the Proposed Hybrid Jaya Algorithm.

```

1. Start
2. Initialize variables
3. Generate initial population randomly;
4. Evaluate the objective function for each member of the population;
5. Finding the best (fmin) and worst members of the population and its position;
6. Hybrid main function loop
7. for (i:= 1 to maximum_iteration_number)
8.   for (j:= 1 to number_of_population_size)
9.     Perform TLBO algorithm
10.    Teacher phase
11.      Find the mean and minimum value and its position
12.      Identify the best solution as teacher, Xnew
13.      Checks the bounds generates by the Xnew
14.      fnew = cost_function (Xnew)
15.      if fnew <fx (i,:)
16.        pos (i,:) = Xnew;
17.        fx (i,:) = fnew;
18.      End if
19.      Learner Phase
20.      Pa = 1: population_size;
21.      Pa (i) = [];
22.      Partner = Pa (randi (length (Pa)));
23.      Xp = Population (Partner,:);
24.      Fp = Cost_function (Xp);
25.      X = Population (I,:);
26.      if fx (I,:)<fp
27.        Xnew = X + random_value.* (X-Xp);
28.      else Xnew = X-random_value.* (X-Xp);
29.      End else
30.    End if
31.    Perform greedy solution
32.    Evaluate the fitness with cost function for the new position Xnew;
33.    if the new fitness fnew is better than the current fitness fx (i,:);
34.      Update the current position population (i,:) with the new position Xnew;
35.      Update the current fitness fx (i,:) with the new fitness fnew;
36.    End if
37.    Find TLBO algorithm optimum value
38.    Perform JAYA algorithm
39.    Get the current position of a population i as X;
40.    Generate a new position Xnew using the equation (Xbest-abs (X))- random_value.* (Xworst abs (X));
41.    Keep Xnew within the lower and upper bounds
42.    Evaluate the fitness value with cost function of Xnew
43.    Perform Greedy selection for JAYA algorithm
44.    If the fitness value of Xnew is better than the current fitness value fx (i), update the particle's position to Xnew and the fitness value to fnew;
45.    Find JAYA algorithm optimum value
46.    if the value of JAYA_optimal_value is less than both TLBO_optimal_value and fmin, then update fmin to JAYA_optimal_value
47.    else if the value of TLBO_optimal_value is less than both JAYA_optimal_value and fmin, then update fmin to TLBO_optimal_value
48.    else keep the value of fmin unchanged
49.  End else
50. End else
51. End if

```

52. **End for**
53. **Show optimal solution for each iteration**
54. **End for**

Data Availability Statement

Data are publicly available.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

Author Contributions

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