Air Compressor Mode Identification Using Real-Time Clustering Methods for Efficiency Degradation Detection

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Abstract Insert your abstract here. Include keywords, PACS and mathematical subject classification numbers as needed.

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1 Introduction

In 2012 industry consumed 2,542 Mtoe of energy globally, which represented over 28% of the 8,980 Mtoe of global final energy consumption IEA (2012). In an Irish context, industry consumed 2.26 Mtoe of energy in 2012, representing almost 22% of Irelands 10.3 Mtoe of final energy consumption. Within the category of industrial energy, compressed air is recognised as an energy intensive utility, accounting for 10% of industrial electricity in the European Union Saidur et al (2010). Energy costs typically account for 78% of the total life cycle cost of a compressed air system Radgen (2006). Compressed air is known colloquially in industry as the fourth fuel, due to the high electrical cost associated with generation. Compressed air systems are typically running at 19% overall system efficiency Saidur et al (2010), due to energy losses largely due to lost heat of generation and leakages.

Compressed air has been recognised as having significant energy saving potential in the food industry Wang (2014), not least through measures such as retrofitting of variable speed drives, inlet air temperature reduction, waste heat re-

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covery, and pressure and leakage reduction (cite Wang 2008 from Wang 2014 paper).

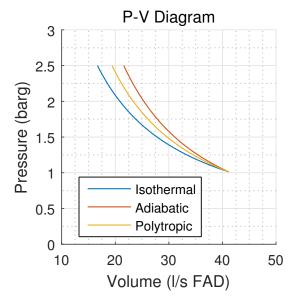
2 Thermodynamics of Air Compression

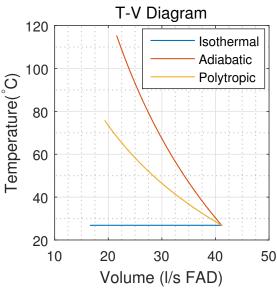
The thermodynamics of air compression are outlined in Figure 1.

3 Determining the operational performance of an air compressor

A wide range of configurations and types of compressed air systems are installed in industry. In many cases there exist systems which are running sub-optimally, either due to unsuitability for the task at hand or running in a faulty condition. Given that compressed air represents such a dense form of energy transport, it is beneficial in terms of long and short term overall energy efficiency goals to manage the performance of air compressors. Performance management is typically achieved through means such as those in Table 1. The key disadvantages of existing methods are either that they are manual and periodic in nature, or that they require the intervention of a human expert in compressed air systems to be effective. In the case of maintenance contracts and periodic audits, there is also the potential for unnecessary work to be carried out, as both these measures are typically carried out on a timescale basis. The intervention of a human expert also lends itself to an inefficient method of performance measurement. An expert may be particularly well versed with one type of system, but not another. The disparate range of compressed air systems can lead to an expert restricting themselves to one type of system, preventing possible lessons learned to be applied in other suitable cases.

In order to analyse a particular compressed air system it is useful to understand how it might relate to other instal-





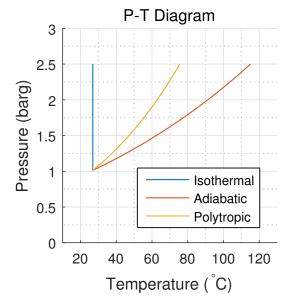


Fig. 1 Thermodynamics of Air Compression

Table 1 Existing Compressed Air System Performance Management Methods

Performance Management Method	Advantages	Disadvantages
Maintenance Contracts Periodic Audits	Security of asset reliability Likely to pick up on common opportunities for improvement	Potential for unnec- essary work Dependent on skill level of auditor
Sequence Controllers	Can draw on man- ufacturer knowledge of system operation	Initial configuration may not be main- tained due to system changes
BMS Monitoring	Desk-based site wide monitoring capabil- ity	Dependent on skill level of BMS re- viewer. Unable to pick up on sensor errors

lations. The system analysed in this paper consists of two rotary tooth air compressors with a heated desiccant dryer, with the layout given in Figure 2. These machines are rotary tooth type machines, which are widely deployed across industry for applications with medium pressure and capacity requirements, as shown in Figure 3SEAI (2007) The various types of compressors typically used in industry are shown in Figure 4. Reciprocating and rotary machines are both positive displacement type machines. They work through isolation of a quantity of air in a space which is then reduced in volume. Centrifugal machines are aerodynamic machines, which operate by imparting kinetic energy to air, which is then converted to pressure energy by stopping the moving air. The three most common types of compressor in industry are rotary, reciprocating and centrifugal machines. The application ranges of these types are shown in Figure 3 SEAI (2007).

Research is being carried out to define the future of compressed air system performance management. In this review the research considered is that of ongoing analysis of compressed air system data. This ongoing analysis could be designated as having any of the goals outlined in Table 2.

3.1 Current research into performance management

Figure 5.

Quantitative model based methods are summarised in ...

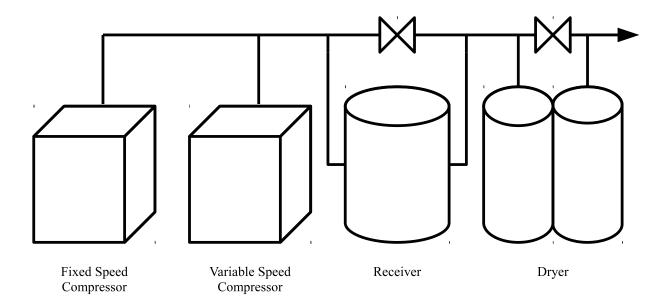


Fig. 2 Test Site Compressed Air System Layout

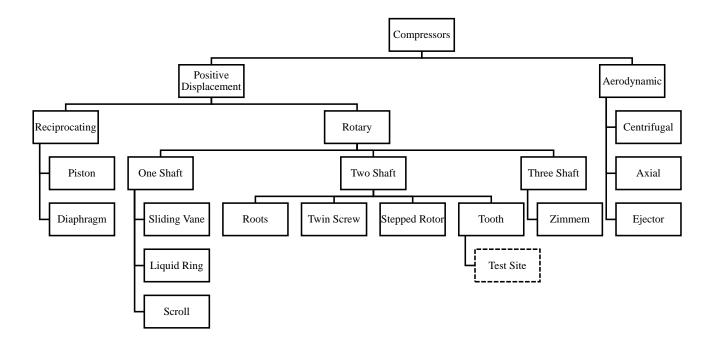


Fig. 4 Compressor Types

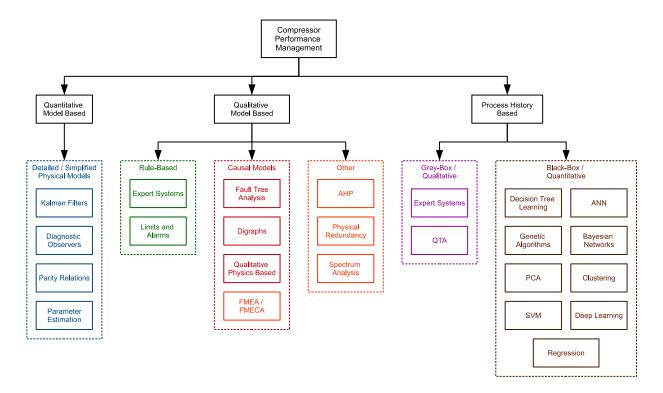


Fig. 5 Current research into performance management methods

Table 3 Quantitative model based methods

Method	Description	Benefits	Disadvantages	Examples
Kalman Filters	A Kalman filter allows the combination of observed and predicted parameters to more accurately predict future parameters than with a physical model alone. It also allows for the reduction of the effects of noisy data on models.	Very accurate Transients may be modelled	Computationally expensive Complex to create Typically require many inputs from system	Surge control for axial compressors Backi et al (2013) Fault detection for gas turbine compressors Salar et al (2010) State estimation of a thermal power plant Nair et al (2011)) Leakage detection of a pneumatic network Krichel and Sawodny (2011)
Diagnostic Observers	Employing state observers, typically one for each fault, which represent a different output from a model, in order that observed differences in outputs may be attributed to faults to how to change a model to remove deviations from expected behaviour	Accurate isolation of individual faults possible	Observers required for each individual potential fault state	Fault detection of a steam boiler feed water preheater Tarantino et al (2000) Estimation of a steam boilers pressure given fuel and feed water conditions Ramezanifar et al (2006) Surge control for axial compressors Backi et al (2013)
Parity Relations	Rearranging and trans- forming input-output models of a system in or- der to highlight individual fault conditions	Accurate isolation of individual faults possible	Less effective at identifying multiplicative faults	Fault diagnosis of a wind farm using interval non- linear parameter-varying parity equations Blesa et al (2014)
Parameter Estimation	Comparison of modelled data, normally using ordinary and partial differential equations, with measured data, with analysis of any residuals to diagnose faults	High level of confidence in modelled data	Detailed physical model required for accuracy	Optimisation of the modelling of a multi- stage compressor using parameter estimation to determine the surge line Dapeng Niu et al (2011)

 Table 4 Qualitative model based methods

Method	Description	Benefits	Disadvantages	Examples
Expert Systems	Using if-then-else rules derived from engineering knowledge of a systems operation to flag when and why a fault is present in operation	Quick deployment potential	Potential that knowledge remains undiscovered/undocumented	Fault diagnosis assistance using IF-THEN rules for an air compressor Liu (2001)
Physical Redundancy	Installing parallel sensors in order that site person- nel be notified of an er- ror if sensor values do not match	Simple in concept	Cost and space constraints may limit additional sensor placement	Analysis framework of fault detection schemes based on redundant sen- sors for aircraft Wheeler et al (2011)
Analytical Hierarchy Process	Decision support for se- lection of a particular ap- proach, e.g. for mainte- nance strategy, over an- other based on pairwise comparisons of suitability toward various goals	Allows documentation of expert decision making in formal manner	Limited real-time performance analysis potential	Maintenance strategy selection for equipment at an oil refinery Bevilacqua and Braglia (2000)
Spectrum Analysis	-			
Fault Tree Analysis	Postulation of potential areas of failure in equipment	Allows formal documentation of human expert knowledge	Scope of fault detection is as limited as human ex- perts knowledge and ex- pertise	Reliability assessment of an anti-surge control sys- tem for a centrifugal com- pressor Ren et al (2012)
FMEA / FMECA	Analysis of site equip- ment potential areas of failure and potential effect on other equipment	Critical analysis of most risk-prone areas of a sys- tem	Time consuming for development	Compressor safety evaluation model Zhu et al (2013)
Qualitative Physics Based	Derivation of qualitative equations from fundamental physical equations governing system operation to allow for analysis without explicit requirement for numerical values	No requirement for numerically accurate measurement of system variables	Requires initial under- standing of physical processes governing system operation	Fault Detection for an AHU Glass et al (1995)
Digraphs	Representation of qualitative models using directed graphs to efficiently incorporate system behaviour for effective analysis	Allows visual representa- tion of qualitative physical equations	Requires considerable domain expertise for creation	FDD for a typical industrial process using SDG for model decomposition Shin et al (2007)
Limits and Alarms	Implementation of user defined limits on key parameters which flag when exceeded or are not met	With correct identification of thresholds can quickly highlight issues with systems	Little diagnosis and isolation potential Correct selection of thresholds dependent on user expertise	Incorporated into modern compressor PLCs

Table 5 – continued from previous page

Method	Description	Benefits	Disadvantages	Examples	
	Table 5	: Process history based m	nethods		
Method	Description	Benefits	Disadvantages	Examples	
Support Vector Machine / Relevance Vector Machine	A supervised learning technique which when given a sample data set which is labelled according to which class each point belongs in, can determine the optimal plane which splits classes allowing accurate future classification of variables	Can accurately classify non-linear data	Can be computationally expensive in implementation	Compressed air load forecasting for large flows Liu et al (2013); Fault diagnosis for reciprocating air compressor valves Wang et al (2010), Cui et al (2009), Qin et al (2012), James Li and Yu (1995); Fault diagnosis for reciprocating air compressors Verma et al (2011)	
PCA	Analysis of a population of variables to determine the population extremes in a given number of directions or components, allowing categorisation of each data point in terms of its position in each direction	Decreased sensitivity of data analysis to noise Reduced dimension- ality increases data understanding	Training data must explicitly demonstrate variance in data	Sensor fault detection, diagnosis and estimation for centrifugal chillers Wang and Cui (2005) Fault detection and isolation for a centrifugal compressor Zanoli and Astolfi (2013) Sensor and actuator fault diagnosis for a centrifugal compressor Zanoli et al (2010a)	
Artificial Neural Networks	Creation of a network of elements or neurons which may determine output values based on interconnected element's response to external inputs. Networks may be supervised where instances of faulty operation are labelled, allowing the network to generate expected outputs for arbitrary unknown inputs. Networks may also be unsupervised, in which case the topology is adaptively determined based on the inputs.	Can effectively predict non-linear relationships in data	Structure of neural network requires intuitive development	Valve failure detection for reciprocating com- pressors (Namdeo et al. 2008) Neural network based fault diagnosis of a re- ciprocating compres- sor employing genetic algorithms for initial parameter identifica- tion Jinru et al (2008)	

Table 5 – continued from previous page

Method	Description	Benefits	Disadvantages	Examples
				Performance prediction of a centrifugal air compressor employing artificial neural networks and genetic algorithms Luo Fangqiong and Huang Shengzhong (2011) Generation of a gas generators compressor performance characteristic map Ghorbanian and Gholamrezaei (2009) Yu et al (2007)
Genetic Algorithms	Determining the optimum point a system can operate at, by selecting random members of a population of samples and using them as parents of successive samples, which tend toward the optimal sample	Easily transferred to existing simulations and models	No assurance that optimal application will indeed be the global optimum	Noise minimisation of a hermetic compressor Dasilva (2004) Neural network based fault diagnosis of a reciprocating compressor employing genetic algorithms for initial parameter identification Jinru et al (2008) Performance prediction of a centrifugal air compressor employing artificial neural networks and genetic algorithms Luo Fangqiong and Huang Shengzhong (2011) Parameter identification for a centrifugal compressor model Xiaogang et al (2013)
Decision Tree Learning	Automatic classifica- tion of output vari- ables by organising data into subsets, gen- erating rules in a tree like structure	Require reasonably low data preparation effort	Highly unstable when perturbations in training data are present	Fault diagnosis for a modular production system Demetgul (2013)

Table 5 – continued from previous page

Method	Description	Benefits	Disadvantages	Examples
Deep Belief Networks	Stacked Restricted Boltzmann Machines (RBMs), which are themselves simple unsupervised neural networks	Allow more complex understanding of data relationships than with lower level machine learning techniques	Complex to initially understand structure	Reciprocating compressor valve fault diagnosis Tran et al (2014)
Clustering	Grouping data readings into different groups where intragroup similarity is greater than intergroup similarity	Relatively simple to deploy	Some qualitative assessment for optimal number of clusters may be required	Fault detection and isolation for a centrifugal compressor based on PCA and Clustering Zanoli et al (2010b) Adaptive clustering for pneumatic system fault detection Petković et al (2012)
Bayesian Networks	Creation by learning or using prior knowledge of graphical probabilistic models which give relationships between variables	Can provide an excellent interpolation to real world simulations	Calculation of parameters for Bayesian models can be initially difficult	Fault diagnosis of a pneumatic air braking system Lingling (2010) Fault detection via classification of compressor variables compressed dimensionally via PCA Liu and Chen (2009)
Regression Modelling	Statistical estimation of the relationship be- tween two or more variables	Reasonably low ef- fort required for de- ployment with con- cept simple to under- stand	Requires strongly defined relationships between variables to be of any use	Optimisation of a network of compressors in parallel Kopanos et al (2015)

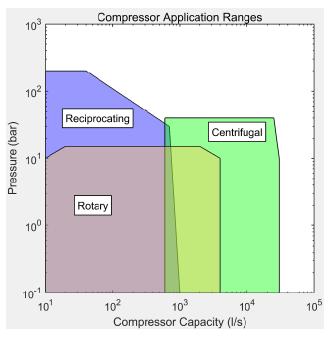


Fig. 3 Compressor Application Suitability

 Table 2 Goals of Performance Management

Goal	Description	Example Work
Fault Detection and	Monitor system	Using vibration,
Diagnosis	parameters to deter-	pressure and current
	mine when system is	signals to diagnose
	in fault condition and	valve faults for a
	the potential reasons	reciprocating com-
	for the identified	pressor Tran et al
.	fault	(2014)
Prognostics	Monitoring sys-	Determining the re- maining useful life
	tem parameters to determine when	of a gaseous circuit
	a component of	breaker based on gas
	a system will no	pressure and ambi-
	longer perform its	ent temperature Cat-
	intended function	terson and Costello
	Vachtsevanos et al	(2013)
	(2006)	
Analytics	Monitoring system	Determining ab-
	parameters to dis-	normal appliance
	cover meaningful patterns which may	power consumption based on analysis
	advise on potential	of individual appli-
	improvements to	ances acoustic noise
	system operation	Pathak et al (2015)
Automated Commis-	Achieving, verifying	Automatically carry-
sioning	and documenting	ing out the normal
	that the performance	testing procedure for
	of a system satisfies the current user	an air compressor by replicating the tasks
	requirement user	normally carried out
	requirement	during commission-
		ing Mazid and Mar-
		tin (2008)
Optimisation	Improving system	Development of a
	operation or design	tool which delivers
	as measured against	an optimal design
	some defined criteria	for a compressed air system based on
		energy and life cycle
		costing Friden et al
		(2012)
Control	Managing the oper-	Development of a
	ation of a system	control algorithm for
	in order that oper-	fixed speed compres-
	ating conditions re-	sors that provides
	main in line with design states and un-	the pressure control capabilities of a
	desirable states are	variable speed sys-
	avoided	tem while limiting
		energy consumption
		Facchinetti et al
		(????)

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4 Rule base development and testing

4.1 Nomenclature for rule parameters

4.2 Rule formulation methodology

One of the approaches for performance management of air compressors outlined in subsection 3.1 is that of Expert Systems. This is a qualitative method which can use rule sets to encode expert knowledge about a system for flagging when a fault in operation is present. This method has been used with success in the case of HVAC (Bruton et al (2014), House et al (2001)) and the area of air compressors (Liu (2001)). Rules for system analysis are typically derived by taking a fundamental engineering overview of the system, and hypothesising potential rules to determine particular faults.

Figure 6 shows a high level overview of the test site air compressor, which is a two-stage rotary tooth machine. The figure highlights the expected temperature changes as the compressed air is operated on y each fundamental component. These expected operations form the basis for an initial set of rules to flag when the machine is not operating as expected. To illustrate this point the first element of compression is analysed in detail.

Element 1 of the air compressor compresses air from atmospheric pressure (101325 Pa) to 250000 Pa. When the compressor is at minimum loading, it is designed to produce $41 \, \mathrm{L \, s^{-1}}$ of free air. It is useful to analyse the thermodynamics of compressing air at this point. Figure 1 shows the relevant thermodynamic diagrams for the compression of this volume of air isothermally, adiabatically and polytropically. The air is compressed in a space which is surrounded by ambient air, which is not an ideal heat reservoir. Therefore the isothermal compression case is not valid. The air is not however thermally isolated from its surroundings, therefore the adiabatic case is also not valid. Actual air compression typically follows the polytropic process model, with the polytropic exponent of Equation 1 ranging between 1 and 1.4.

Table 6 Nomenclature

Reference	Item	Value
	Sensors	
T1	Plant Room Temperature	_
T2	Element 1 Outlet Temperature	_
Т3	Element 2 Inlet Temperature	_
T4	Element 2 Outlet Temperature	_
T5	Final Delivery Temperature	-
P1	Compressed Air Pressure in Intercooler	-
P2	Compressed Air Final Delivery Pressure	_
P3	Compressed Air Receiver Pressure	_
P4	Oil Pressure	-
P5	Ambient Pressure	-
N1	Motor starts per 5 minutes	-
K1	Compressor power	
	Components	
C1	Element 1	-
C2	Intercooler	-
C3	Element 2	-
C4	After Cooler	-
C5	Motor	-
C6	Oil Pump	-
C7	Load/Unload Valve	-
	Expected Levels	
Т6	Plant Room Temperature	25 °C
T7	Element 1 Outlet Temperature	140 °C
Т8	Element 2 Inlet Temperature	22 °C
Т9	Element 2 Outlet Temperature	100 °C
T10	Final Delivery Temperature	21 °C
P6	Compressed Air Pressure in Intercooler	2.5 bar
P7	Compressed Air Final Delivery Pressure	7.25 bar
P8	Compressed Air Receiver Pressure	7.25 bar
N2	Motor starts per 5 minutes	1
K2	Compressor power idle	1.5 kW
K3	Compressor maximum power unloaded	$8.4\mathrm{kW}$
	Warning Levels (High)	
T11	Plant Room Temperature	35 °C
T12	Element 1 Outlet Temperature	155 °C
T13	Element 2 Inlet Temperature	24 °C
T14	Element 2 Outlet Temperature	120 °C
T15	Final Delivery Temperature	21 °C
P7	Compressed Air Pressure in Intercooler	2.6 bar
P8	Compressed Air Final Delivery Pressure	7.6 bar
P9	Compressed Air Receiver Pressure	7.6 bar
N3	Motor starts per 5 minutes	2
	Error Thresholds	
E1	Plant Room Temperature	5 °C
E2	Element 1 Outlet Temperature	5 °C
E3	Element 2 Inlet Temperature	5°C
E4	Element 2 Outlet Temperature	5°C
E5	Final Delivery Temperature	5°C
E6	Compressed Air Pressure in Intercooler	0.1 bar
E7	Compressed Air Final Delivery Pressure	0.1 bar
E8	Compressed Air Receiver Pressure	0.1 bar
E9	Oil Pressure	0.1 bar

$$P_1 V_1^n = P_2 V_2^n (1)$$

where P = Absolute pressure (Pa)

V = Absolute volume (m³)

n = Polytropic exponent

Given that the compression process taking place is not isothermal, it is logical to expect that the temperature of the compressed air will increase through the first element of compression, in accordance with Figure 1. If a decrease in temperature is observed, then either a failure in the first stage of compression or in a temperature sensor can be determined. This forms the basis for the first rule of the rule set created for compressor performance analysis, which is summarised in Table 7.

Rule 1.
$$T1 - T2 > 0$$
 (2)

In a similar manner to Rule 1, Rules 2, 3 and 4 fire when the expected temperature of the compressed air does not change as expected across the intercooler, second element of compression and aftercooler respectively.

Rule 2.
$$T3 - T2 > 0$$
 (3)

Rule 3.
$$T3 - T4 > 0$$
 (4)

Rule 4.
$$T5 - T4 > 0$$
 (5)

Rules 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 are threshold rules, in that they fire when defined thresholds for T1, T2, T3, T4 and T5 respectively are exceeded. These threshold values have been devised through a combination of historical data analysis and manufacturer defined alarm levels where available.

Rule 5.
$$T1 > 35$$
 °C (6)

Rule 6.
$$T2 > 155$$
 °C (7)

Rule 7.
$$T3 > 24$$
 °C (8)

Rule 8.
$$T4 > 120$$
 °C (9)

Rule 9.
$$T5 > 21$$
 °C (10)

The first element of compression in a two-stage compressor is designed to compress air to an intermediate pressure, before intercooling and compression to final delivery pressure by the second element of compression. If this intermediate pressure is not acheived, it is indicative of either a pressure sensor fault, or a fault in element 1 operation. If the first element of compression is faulty in operation, this will lead to excessive strain on the second element of compression to achieve final delivery pressure. Rule 10 flags when this intermediate pressure is not met.

Rule 10.
$$P1 < 2.5 \,\text{bar} + E6$$
 (11)

For a single compressor in isolation, if the final delivery pressure continues to rise when the compressor is running in unloaded mode, it is indicative of either a fault in the relevant pressure sensor, or that the load/unload valve of the compressor has failed. Rule 11 fires when this pressure rise in unloaded mode takes place.

Rule 11.
$$(P2(t) - (P2(t-1)) > 0$$
 (12)

If the motor driving the compressor is switching on and off excessively, it will lead to premature wear and tear on the compressor mechanical drive. Rule 12 fires when a threshold for the number of motor starts has been exceeded.

Rule 12.
$$\sum_{t=0}^{300s} N1 > 2$$
 (13)

In an air compressor lubricated by oil, the oil should circulate when the compressor is loaded. If the oil pressure does not rise with the compressor loaded, it is indicative of a blockage in the oil circulation system, a failure of the oil pump, or a pressure sensor fault.

Rule 13.
$$(P4(t) + 100 \,\text{mbar}) < P4(t-1)$$
 (14)

The compression of air in both the first and second element of a two-stage air compressor follows defined thermodynamic principles. If the compression chamber were thermally isolated from its surroundings, the compression would be adiabatic. If it were in thermal contact with an ideal heat reservoir, the compression would be isothermal. Neither of these is the case, and actual air compression is polytropic, as defined by Equation 1. The temperature rise of compressed air for each of the three types of compression is given in Figure 1. The theoretical maximum temperature rise of air under compression is given by the adiabatic case. Therefore, while it is known that the air will compress polytropically, it can be assumed that if the outlet temperature of either the first or second element of compression is greater than that

dictated by the adiabatic case (with the polytropic exponent of page 15 set to 1.4), then a fault is present in the system. This fault may either be in one of the relevant temperature sensors, or additional heat may be being supplied to the air under compression. This principle dictates when Rules 14 and 15 are fired.

Rule 14.
$$T2 > T1 * \left(\frac{P1}{P5}\right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma}}$$
 (15)

Rule 15.
$$T4 > T3 * \left(\frac{P2}{P1}\right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma}}$$
 (16)

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Figure 7 shows the mechanical layout of a two stage air compressor.

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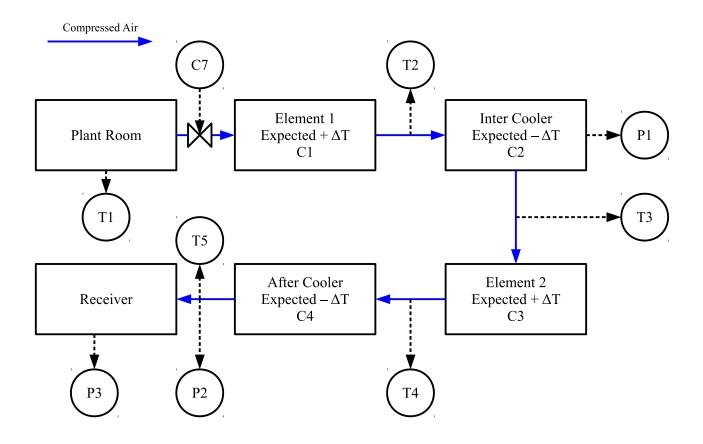


Fig. 6 Two stage compressor air flow

Table 7 Compressor performance assessment rule set

	Rules								Potent	ial Fault	s						
ID	Description	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	P1	P2	N1	P10	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7
1	Element 1 Temperature Decrease	X	X								X						
2	Intercooler Temperature Increase		X	X								X					
3	Element 2 Temperature Decrease			X	X								X				
4	Aftercooler Temperature Increase				X	X					İ	İ		X			
5	Plant Room Temperature High	X									İ						
6	Element 1 Outlet Temperature High		X								X						
7	Element 2 Inlet Temperature High			X							İ	X					
8	Element 2 Outlet Temperature High		İ		X						İ	İ	X				
9	Final Outlet Temperature High					X					İ			X			
10	Expected Intercooler Pressure not Achieved						X				X						
11	Increase in Outlet Pressure when Unloaded							X			İ						X
12	High Stop-Start Frequency of Motor Observed								X		İ				X		
13	Failure of Oil Pressure to Rise under Loading									X						X	
14	Theoretical Element 1 Temperature Rise Exceeded		X								X						
15	Theoretical Element 2 Temperature Rise Exceeded				X								X				

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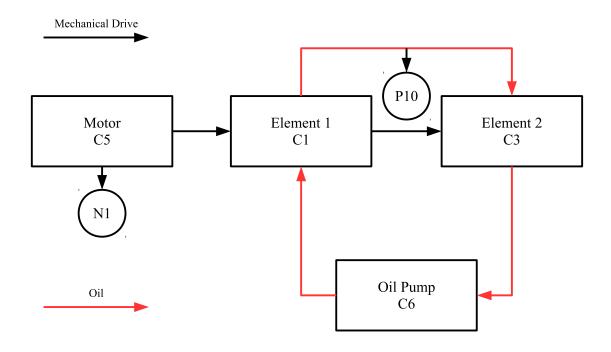


Fig. 7 Mechanical drive two stage compressor

Table 8 Add caption

								Potent	ial Faul	ts								Impact	
Rule	T1	T2	Т3	T4	T5	P1	P2	N1	P10	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	CA User Re- quire- ment	Energy	Maintenanc / Equip- ment Life
1	X	X								X							X		X
2		X	X								X							X	X
3			X	X								X					X		X
4				X	X								X					X	
5	X																	X	
6		X								X								X	X
7			X								X							X	X
8				X								X						X	X
9					X								X					X	X
10						X				X							X		
11							X									X		X	X
12								X						X				X	X
13									X						X				X
14		X								X								X	X
15				X								X						X	X

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Table 9 Rule set naming convention

Reference	Item
T1	Plant Room Temperature
T2	Element 1 Outlet Temperature
T3	Element 2 Inlet Temperature
T4	Element 2 Outlet Temperature
T5	Final Delivery Temperature
P1	Compressed Air Pressure in Intercooler
P2	Compressed Air Final Delivery Pressure
P3	Compressed Air Receiver Pressure
N1	Motor starts per 5 minutes
P10	Oil Pressure
P11	Ambient Pressure
C1	Element 1
C2	Intercooler
C3	Element 2
C4	After Cooler
C5	Motor
C6	Oil Pump
C7	Load/Unload Valve

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5 Operational mode identification

It was noted during rule set development that it is desirable to know the mode of operation of an air compressor when applying rules. This follows on from lessons learned in similar work relating to HVAC Bruton et al (2014). With a HVAC unit, the different modes of operation that are useful to determine which rules to apply are Heating, Cooling with Outdoor Air, Mechanical Cooling with 100% Air and Mechanical Cooling with Minimum Outdoor Air, with these modes categorised into Occupied and Unoccupied Modes House et al (2001). Knowing the mode of operation of equipment can ensure that rules are only applied where pertinent, reducing false positives.

The modes of operation designated for a variable speed air compressor are given in Table 10. To determine which mode of operation the compressor is actually in, the power drawn by the machine was analysed. The Compressed Air and Gas Institute (CAGI) specifies a standard data sheet for air compressors which major manufacturers adhere to CAGI (2015). The input power to the compressor as given on this sheet where available is also given in Table 10. Modes 1 and 3 were recognised as being useful modes to have knowledge of, despite not having prior knowledge of the associated input power from the CAGI data sheet. From visual observation of a power meter installed at the test site, it was noted that Mode 1 had an approximate power requirement of 1 kW, and Mode 2 an approximate power requirement of 20 kW

Table 10 VSD compressor operation modes

Mode	Description	CAGI Input Power (kW)
1	Idle	-
2	Unloaded	8.9
3	Minimally Loaded	-
4	VSD 0-20%	27.2
5	VSD 20-40%	31.2
6	VSD 40-60%	38.3
7	VSD 60-80%	42.6
8	VSD 80-100%	52

To monitor the power drawn by the compressor for mode identification, a clustering methodology was trialled. This unsupervised learning method allows the compressor power meter data to be grouped into distinct clusters as per Table 10. An additional benefit to be gained from this approach is that a drift upward in the geometric mean or centroid of any cluster could diagnose a decrease in efficiency of the machine at that operating point, as more power is required to achieve the same output.

K-means clustering was used to group the electrical meter data into clusters. The general methodology of K-means clustering is shown in Figure 8. K-means clustering consists

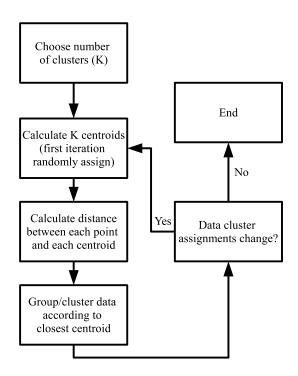


Fig. 8 K-means clustering methodology

of two fundamental iterative steps preceded by one initial step. The number of clusters is set initially and denoted K. Centroids for the K clusters are then randomly initialised. All data points are then indexed according the cluster centroid closest to them, as shown in Equation 17,

$$c^{(i)} := \min_{k} ||x^{(i)} - \mu_k||^2 \quad \text{for} \quad i = (1, 2, ..., m)$$
 (17)

where C is a vector of elements $c^{(i)}$ the same length as the data set X with m points $x^{(i)}$, and K is a vector of length k, i.e. the number of clusters used for clustering. The vector C gives the index of the cluster centroid closest to each point in X.

Following this step there are K clusters in the dataset X, each of which is a subset of the overall dataset and is denoted by S_j . The centroids of each cluster are recomputed as the mean of all points assigned to each cluster, as shown in Equation 18,

$$\mu_j := \frac{1}{|S_j|} \sum_{x_j \in S_j} x_j \quad \text{for} \quad j = (1, 2, ..., k)$$
(18)

where x_j is a point in the dataset X which is assigned to the j^{th} cluster. Equation 17 and Equation 18 are then iterated until the assignments of data points to different clusters no longer change.

An initial attempt was made to cluster the power consumption data into two groups, i.e. Idle/Unloaded and Loaded

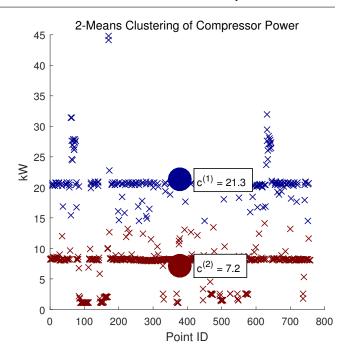


Fig. 9 2-Means Clustering Results

or Modes 1-2 and 3-8 from Table 10 respectively. K was therefore initially set to 2. The results of this exercise are shown in Figure 9. When comparing the cluster centroids to the values in Table 10 and visual observation of the compressor power under operation, it can be determined that one of the two clusters formed is of use in further analysis, i.e. $c^{(1)} = 21.3\,\mathrm{kW}$. This is a reasonable representation of the power drawn by the compressor at minimal loading. However $c^{(2)} = 7.2\,\mathrm{kW}$ is not as useful a value, as it is clear from Figure 9 that the cluster centroid is significantly below the clear cluster of compressor power operating in unloaded mode.

In order to try to gain more useful information about compressor power at different operating modes, K was increased to 3. The intention was that the clear distortion of $c^{(2)}$ by the grouping of compressor power in idle mode at approximately 1 kW be removed by forming a new cluster for idle mode or Mode 1 as per Table 10. The results of this exercise are shown in Figure 10. Mode identification is accurate with this approach for Modes 1, 2 and 3 as per Table 10, as the cluster centroids are consistent with both known and observed values for the different modes.

The ideal level of accuracy for mode identification would be to determine cluster centroids for each of Modes 1-8. However the test site air compressors are significantly oversized compared to the compressed air demand. It was known that at no point in the training set did the compressor operate in Mode 8, and very rarely operated in Modes 4-7. Therefore a 7-means clustering approach was trialled. The results of this trial are shown in Figure 11. When comparing the results with Table 10, it is clear that there are two superfluous

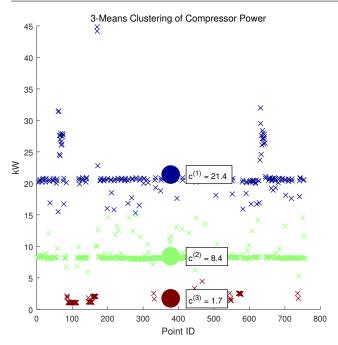


Fig. 10 3-Means Clustering Results

clusters in the region between Modes 2 and 3. That the analysis was unable to identify cluster centroids for Modes 5 and 6 is attributable to two factors. Firstly, there is a very low incidence of data points in these operating modes in the data set used. Secondly, the compressor takes a number of seconds to ramp up or down between Modes 2 and 3. The high granularity of the data set (recording every 10 s) meant that a reasonably significant number of data points are recorded between these modes, and so the superfluous clusters have been identified.

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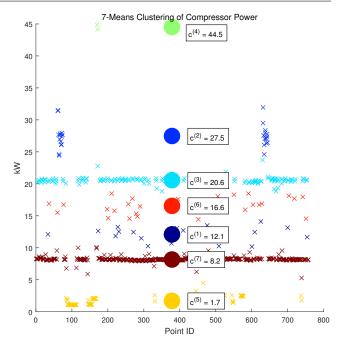


Fig. 11 7-Means Clustering Results

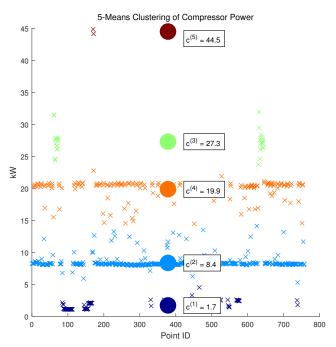


Fig. 12 5-Means Clustering Results

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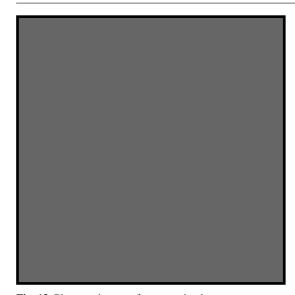


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6 Fault detection effectiveness

- 7 Conclusions and future work
- 8 Background: Air Compressor Operational Concerns
- 9 Variable Speed Compressor Operational Modes
- 10 Clustering for Mode Identification
- 11 Real-Time Analysis Implementation
- 12 Results
- 13 Discussion
- 14 Conclusions
- 15 Section title

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16 Section X

16.1 Subsection title

as required. Don't forget to give each section and subsection a unique label (see Sect. 8).

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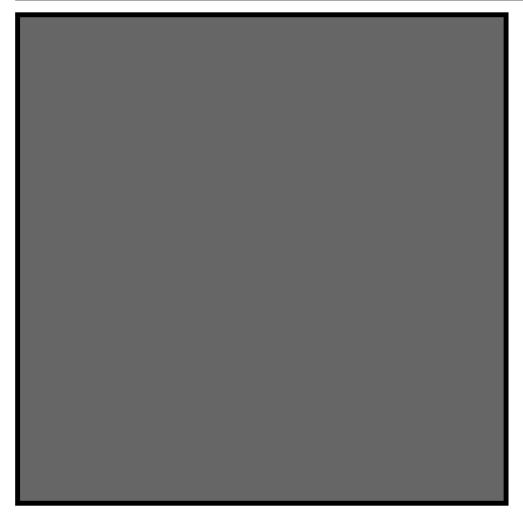


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