

Received July 3, 2018, accepted August 7, 2018, date of publication August 17, 2018, date of current version September 7, 2018. *Digital Object Identifier 10.1109/ACCESS.2018.2865960*

Chaos Firefly Algorithm With Self-Adaptation Mutation Mechanism for Solving Large-Scale Economic Dispatch With Valve-Point Effects and Multiple Fuel Options

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This work was supported in part by the National Natural Science Foundation of China under Grant 51577085 and Grant 51867003, in part by the National High-Tech R&D Program of China (863 Program) under Grant 2015AA050204, in part by the Natural Science Foundation of Guangxi under Grant 2015GXNSFBA139235, in part by the Foundation of Guangxi Science and Technology Department under Grant AE020069, in part by the Foundation of Guangxi Education Department under Grant T3020097903, in part by the National Key Research and Development Program of China under Grant 2016YFB0900101, and in part by the Training Program for Thousands of Young and Middle-Aged Backbone Teachers in Guangxi, Guangxi Education Department.

ABSTRACT This paper presents a new metaheuristic optimization algorithm, the firefly algorithm (FA), and an enhanced version of it, called chaos mutation FA (CMFA), for solving power economic dispatch problems while considering various power constraints, such as valve-point effects, ramp rate limits, prohibited operating zones, and multiple generator fuel options. The algorithm is enhanced by adding a new mutation strategy using self-adaptation parameter selection while replacing the parameters with fixed values. The proposed algorithm is also enhanced by a self-adaptation mechanism that avoids challenges associated with tuning the algorithm parameters directed against characteristics of the optimization problem to be solved. The effectiveness of the CMFA method to solve economic dispatch problems with high nonlinearities is demonstrated using five classic test power systems. The solutions obtained are compared with the results of the original algorithm and several methods of optimization proposed in the previous literature. The high performance of the CMFA algorithm is demonstrated by its ability to achieve search solution quality and reliability, which reflected in minimum total cost, convergence speed, and consistency.

INDEX TERMS Economic dispatch, firefly algorithm, multiple fuel options, valve-point effects.

I. INTRODUCTION

Facing the reduction of energy reserves and environmental degradation due to excessive use of conventional fuels, the Economic Dispatch (ED)problem has become the focus of researchers [1], [2]. For ED, the main objective is to find the operating point leading to optimal generator output power so as to minimize the operating cost while meeting all the physical and operational constraints [3]. The ED is considered as an important economic operation optimization problem in power system. Under normal circumstances, the objective of the problem can be modeled as a convex cost function whose satisfactory solution can be found at a small cost. However, when actual characteristics of real power

systems such as prohibited operating zones, transmission loss, ramp rate limits, and multiple fuel options are taken into consideration, the cost function becomes highly quadratic, non-smooth, non-convex, and multi-modal [4]–[7]. Solving such a problem is no longer an easy task. Ignoring, approximating or inaccurately handling these characteristics may lead to erroneous results of the ED problem and significant economic losses or accidents [8]–[10]. In the published article on this issue, many methods have been applied to deal with the ED problem. These methods can be divided into two categories as 1) classical optimization methods and 2) metaheuristic optimization methods.

Classical optimization technologies include Lagrange relaxation [11], λ-iteration method [12] and nonlinear programming [13],etc. The advantages of the classical optimization methods are the guarantee of optimization convergence, the lack of parameters requiring special settings depending on the characteristics of the problem and computational efficiency; however, they deal mainly with convex cost functions because this kind of optimization method is based on the gradient theory, which has powerful ability when facing smooth and continuous functions. Regrettably, practical features of real power system form a complex non-convex model of ED problem with extremely high complexity and the application of the classical optimization methods is faced with difficult-to-handle restrictions. In order to improve the ability of classic optimization algorithms to solve ED problems, some improved algorithms have been proposed in recent years. Examples of this include, the dimensional steepest decline method [13] and Big-M method [14]. Although these methods show a stronger ability to solve non-convex objective functions, the tradeoff introduces additional variables that need additional computation. Its performance, therefore, is increasingly worsened by the dimension of the problem.

Many modern metaheuristic optimization methods, such as the genetic algorithm (GA) [15], the particle swarm optimization (PSO) [16], [17], and Differential Evolution (DE) [18] have been developed and utilized successfully to solve the ED problem due to their ability to find global or near-global solution of a nonconvex optimization problem. Furthermore, modified and improved versions of the metaheuristic methods, with the intention of improving the convergence and global optimum search capability of the original algorithms, have been proposed for dealing with the ED problem. Examples of these improved versions include, conventional genetic algorithm with multiplier updating (CGA-MU) [19], fuzzy adaptive particle swarm optimization (FAPSO) [20], new global particle swarm optimization (NGPSO) [21] and shuffled differential evolution (SDE) [22]. Also, hybrid methods, generally combined with two methods, one method is used as the primary search tool, while the other is used to fine-tune the search process, like combined DE and PSO algorithms [23], hybrid chemical reaction optimization with differential evolution(HCRO-DE) [24], have been applied for solving the ED problem and achieved satisfactory effect by improving the global search capability while using fast computational analysis. However, for hybrid methods, how to determine the integration points between methods and balance the positive and negative effects of methods is a headache for practitioners.

Many of the metaheuristic optimization methods reported in previous literature have a disturbing limitation. They require adjustment of the algorithm parameters based on the particular problem before they can be applied. When the parameters of the algorithm are determined, a satisfactory result may be obtained in a test system, but at the same time, satisfactory results may not always be obtained in another test system. Changes in system load or unit constraints will lead to the need for algorithm parameter adjustment, which is a difficult problem. To solve this problem, the mechanism for adaptively adjusting parameter values must be added to the algorithm. However, any metaheuristic optimization method that adds a parameter to the self-tuning mechanism may obtain the result of reduced computational efficiency because additional computational effort is required because of the need for adjusting algorithm parameters when solving the main optimization problem. Because of this reason, only the method that adds self-adjusting parameter is highly efficient. A novel high efficiency optimization algorithm, firefly algorithm(FA), has been proposed in [25]. Yang [26] showed that the FA could compete and outperform many of metaheuristic optimization algorithms in many aspects, like convergence rate, numerical stability, and calculation accuracy. In fact, the FA has proven to have a great advantage over other recently developed algorithms in solving a variety of optimization problems, for instance the dynamic economic dispatch problem of power systems [27] and the optimal chiller loading design [28]. The author of the firefly algorithm, Yang, has successfully applied the FA to solve ED problem of small and medium power systems in [29], but the ED problem consider multiple fuel options was not considered in the study, which is the contribution of this paper.

In this paper, FA is applied for solving non-convex and complex ED problem of five (medium and large) power systems considering actual characteristics such as prohibited operating zones, transmission loss, ramp rate limits, and multiple fuel options. Large-scale test systems with both multiple fuel options and valve-point effects are included. Furthermore, after carefully considering different components in designing the algorithms, two modifications are proposed to significantly increase the FA efficacy. The proposed modifications are to replace the fixed-parameters of the FA with a new dynamic adjustment of parameters in the FA, and to add a new powerful self-adaptive mutation mechanism while replacing the parameter of the mechanism as a fixed value. An improved version of firefly algorithm, called chaos mutation firefly algorithm(CMFA), is thus generated. In addition, in most of metaheuristic optimization methods, the equality constraints are usually handled using the penalty-function technique, which makes it difficult to generate feasible solutions and maintain feasibility after crossover and mutation operations, resulting in no good result. Thus, a constraint handling scheme was proposed for correcting a solution in infeasible domain region to the space of feasible region without adding any additional goal on the objective function. This mechanism not only has the ability to handle constraints, but also has the ability to prevent premature convergence by introducing a diversity strategy, which ensures that the fireflies always be a feasible solution to the problem. Indeed, the proposed measures have positive and reliable effect on the convergence of the algorithm and the quality of the solution provided by algorithm. Results of the proposed technique for solving the known ED problems are compared with other

algorithms that are recently published. The numerical analysis of results proves the superiority performance of the proposed method over the other methods mentioned in this paper.

The rest of this paper is organized as the follows: Section 2 presents the ED problem formulation. Section 3 introduces the proposed methodology. Application of CMFA for solving ED shown in Section 4. Section 5 introduces the simulation results and discussion, followed by the conclusions and future work in Section 6.

II. MATHEMATICAL FORMULATION OF THE ED PROBLEM A. OBJECTIVE FUNCTION

The mathematical model of the ED problem of considering different conditions can be modeled as different objective functions. A comprehensive mathematical model of the ED problem can be presented as [30]:

Minimize:
$$
F_C = \sum_{i=1}^{NG} F_i(P_i)
$$
. (1)

where, P_i represents the power output of *i*th generator; F_C denotes the total generation cost; $F_i(P_i)$ are generation cost of unit *i*; *NG* meaning the total number of generator.

The objective function as a quadratic polynomial is convex when neglecting the VPE. It can be shown as:

$$
F_i(P_i) = a_i * P_i^2 + b_i * P_i + c_i.
$$
 (2)

where, a_i (\$/MW²), b_i (\$/MW), c_i (\$) are the cost coefficients of the *i*th unit.

Furthermore, the objective function becomes non-convex by adding a sinusoidal term to the quadratic objective function when considering the VPE and can be modeled as:

$$
F_i(P_i) = a_i P_i^2 + b_i P_i + c_i + |e_i(f_i \sin(P_i^{min} - P_i))| \tag{3}
$$

where, e_i (\$) and f_i (rad/MW) are the valve-point coefficients of generator *i*, P_i^{min} is the minimum power output of the *i*th unit.

If generators with multiple fuel options and the VPE are also considered, the objective function can be written as follows:

$$
F_i(P_i) = a_{ij}P_i^2 + b_{ij}P_i + c_{ij} + |e_{ij}(f_{ij}\sin(P_{ij}^{min} - P_i))|
$$

if $P_{ij}^{min} \le P_i \le P_{ij}^{max}$. (4)

where, a_{ij} (\$/MW²), b_{ij} (\$/MW), c_{ij} (\$) are the cost coefficients, and $e_{ij}(\$)$, $f_{ij}(\text{rad}/\text{MW})$ are the valve-point coefficients of the *i*th unit using fuel type *j*; P_{ij}^{min} and P_{ij}^{max} are the lower bound and upper bound of the *i*th unit using the *j*th fuel type, respectively.

The objective function is subject to the following constraints.

The sum of generator output powers must be equal to the sum of load demand and transmission loss.

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{NG} (P_i) = P_{load} + P_{loss}.
$$
 (5)

where *Pload* and *Ploss* are the load demand and the transmission loss, respectively. *Ploss* is calculated by *B* matrix coefficients as follow:

$$
P_{loss} = \sum_{i=1}^{NG} \sum_{i=1}^{NG} P_i B_{ij} P_j + \sum_{i=1}^{NG} B_{0i} P_i + B_{00}.
$$
 (6)

where B_{ij} , B_{0i} and B_{00} are the loss coefficients.

C. POWER OUTPUT AND PROHIBITED OPERATING ZONES LIMITS

In realistic power systems, the output of the generator should be within its output range. Also there are some prohibited operating zones for the generator due to the VPE. The limits can be described as follows:

$$
P_i = \begin{cases} P_i^{min} \le P_i \le P_{i,1}^l; \\ \dots \\ P_{i,z-1}^u \le P_i \le P_{i,z-1}^l; & z = 2, 3, \dots, N \\ P_{i,z}^u \le P_i \le P_i^{max}. \end{cases} (7)
$$

where P_i^{min} and P_i^{max} are the minimum and maximum output powers of the *i*th unit, and *N* is the total number of prohibited operating zones for unit *i*. $P_{i,z}^u$ and $P_{i,z}^l$ presented upper limit and lower limit the *z*th prohibited zone of unit *i*, respectively.

D. RAMP RATE LIMITS

In practice, the output of the generator cannot be adjusted instantaneously without limitation. The operating range of each generator is restricted by their corresponding ramp-up and ramp-down constraints, which can be formulated as follow:

$$
\max(P_i^{\min}, P_i^0 - DR_i) \le P_i \le \min(P_i^{\max}, P_i^0 + UR_i). \tag{8}
$$

where, P_i^0 is power output of the *i*th unit at the previous time interval; DR_i and UR_i are down-ramp rate and upper-ramp rate limitation of the *i*th generator, respectively.

III. PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

A. FIREFLY ALGORITHM

The FA is categorized as one of the population-based algorithm proposed by Yang (2008) [25]. It simulates the social behavior of the flashing characteristics of fireflies. For the FA, a firefly of population means a potential solution of the optimal problem. In terms of the search space, a firefly represents a point that moves in the search space with the optimization process. The structure of each firefly in the candidate solution for solving ED problem, in this paper, can be described as the following:

$$
X_i = [P_{i,1}, P_{i,2}, \dots, P_{i,D}]; \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N. \tag{9}
$$

where *N* is the total number of population, and *D* is the dimensionality of the problem. In this paper, it if defined as $D = NG$.

The higher the light intensity of a firefly, the greater its attractiveness to other nearby fireflies, and the attractiveness β of a firefly can be defined as:

$$
\beta(r) = \beta_0 e^{-\gamma r^2}.
$$
\n(10)

where γ is absorption coefficient and commonly set to 1 [26]. β_0 is the maximum attractiveness obtained when $r = 0$; *r* is the Cartesian or Euclidean distance between the *m*th and *n*th fireflies, which can be written as:

$$
r_{mn}^k = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{NG} (X_{m,i}^k - X_{n,i}^k)^2}; \quad m, n = 1, 2, ..., N. \quad (11)
$$

where $X_{m,i}^k$ and $X_{n,i}^k$ are the *i*th variables of the *k*th generation of *m*th and *n*th fireflies, respectively.

In the previous study, it was found that when β changes according to Eq[.10,](#page-3-0) the resulting effects could not achieve the desired effect. So the researchers proposed a variety of transformation strategies for it. The most obvious strategy was proposed by Fister *et al.* [31] and can be described as:

$$
\beta = \beta_{min} + (\beta_{max} - \beta_{min})e^{-\gamma r^2}.
$$
 (12)

where β_{max} and β_{min} are set to 1 and 0.2, respectively.

Fig. 1. Change of β based on different strategies.

However, there are potential pitfalls. As we can see from Fig[.1,](#page-3-1) Eq[.12'](#page-3-2)s strategy keeps β 's value at the beginning of 0.2, and quickly increases to 1 after reaching a certain number of iterations. The value of β stays at 0.2 for too long, and increase from 0.2 to 1 too quickly. This will have an adverse influence on the optimization. Therefore, improved strategy based on Equation [12](#page-3-2) was proposed, which can be written as:

$$
\beta = (\beta_{min} + (\beta_{max} - \beta_{min})e^{-\gamma r^2}) \times (\frac{k}{K_{max}}). \tag{13}
$$

where β*max* and β*min* are set to 0.9 and 0.4, respectively. *k* and *Kmax* represent the current number of iterations and the maximum number of iterations, respectively.

[Figure 1](#page-3-1) shows the effect of the proposed strategy. It can be clearly seen that, compared to Eq[.12,](#page-3-2) the increase speed of β

is significantly slower, which increases the ability to escape from the local optimum; and the later change is more gradual, which can increase the speed of convergence.

Similar to other evolutionary algorithms, in the firefly algorithm, the fireflies update their position by moving towards the brighter fireflies which means better position in search space, and the modified position can be formulated as:

$$
X_{m}^{k+1} = \begin{cases} X_{m}^{k} + \beta^{k}(X_{n}^{k} - X_{m}^{k}) + \alpha^{k}(rand(.)_{1 \times D} - 0.5), \\ \quad \text{if } F_{C}(X_{n}^{k}) < F_{C}(X_{m}^{k}); \\ X_{m}^{k}, \quad otherwise. \end{cases} \tag{14}
$$

where α is the randomness parameter which commonly selected in the rang [0, 1], and *rand* represents a random number generated from a uniformly distributed set between 0 and 1.

The framework of the FA is given in Algorith[m1.](#page-3-3)

Algorithm 1 The Standard FA

- 1: Generate an initial population $X = (X_1^k, X_2^k, \dots, X_N^k)$ and set $k = 0$.
- 2: Define initial value of α and γ .
- 3: Evaluate the fitness values $F(X_i^k)$ of all *N* initial fireflies.
- 4: **while** $k < K_{max}$ **do**
- 5: **for** $i = 1$ to *n* **do**
- 6: **for** $j = 1$ to *n* **do**
- 7: **if** $F(X_j^k) < F(X_i^k)$ then
- 8: Update position of X_i^k using the formula in (14).
- 9: Evaluate the fitness values of $X_{i,move}^{k}$
- 10: **if** $F(X_{i,move}^k) < F(X_i^k)$ then

11:
$$
X_i^{k+1} = X_{i,move}^k
$$
; else, $X_i^{k+1} = X_i^k$.

- 12: **end if**
- 13: **end if**
- 14: **end for**
- 15: **end for**
- 16: $k = k + 1$.
- 17: **end while**
- 18: Output the Optimum solution *Xbest* .

B. CHAOS MUTATION FIREFLY ALGORITHM

Because of its advantages, the application of FA to solve the problems in various aspects of the power system has aroused great concern Simple concept and low number of parameters need for tuning are its obvious advantages, Having the ability to seek global optimums and local optima at the same time makes it highly applicable. However, it also has a vexing defects. For instance, premature convergence or convergence to an inappropriate position often occurs because the algorithm falls into a local optimum. However, the existing mechanism of diversifying populations does not have the ability to help it escape from the local optimum. Even if the algorithm

can successfully avoid the local optimum, the cost is an unbearable computational burden. When the FA is applied to solve constrained optimization problems, its performance depends largely on the selection of control parameters. Also, the population diversity has a great effect on computational efficiency and convergence rate. In addition, it is obvious that an appropriate constraint handling mechanism can improve the performance of the algorithm. Therefore, special care in redesigning the algorithm based on these considerations has been taken in this paper. The control parameters and mutation mechanism are discussed in the following few subsections.

1) DYNAMIC ADJUSTMENT OF α AND γ

As we know, a powerful optimization algorithm, not only have the ability to effectively exploit the current solutions that have good fitness, but also has a strong ability to explore the unknown fields in the search space. The random movement factor, α , controls the range of random search of firefly, and generally determined in the range [0, 1], has a huge impact on the balance between the ability of algorithm exploration and exploitation in search space. Too large value of an α makes the random search range of solution too large to cause convergence difficulties and the smaller α will trap firefly in the local optimum. The absorption coefficient γ controls the decrease of light intensity and commonly set to 1 [26]. It is a fact that FA's parameter control deeply influences its performance, and how to select the appropriate parameter is an intractable optimization problem..

Numerous studies showed that the performance of the evolutionary optimization algorithms are improved when chaotic sequences were used [32]. Therefore, after testing different chaotic operator, a dynamic adjustment mechanism base on chaotic sequences for the random movement factor is deployed in this paper, opposed to monotonically decreased as the iterations progress in basic firefly algorithm, parameter α of the proposed methods also being variety decreased from its initial value based on chaotic formula with optimization process, which can be calculated as:

$$
\alpha_c^k = x^k \times \alpha_l^k. \tag{15}
$$

where, α_c^k and α_l^k are the chaotic-based random movement factor and the random movement factor with linear decrease at iteration *k*. The value of α_i^k is decreased linearly from a set initial value to zero, and x^k is the chaotic parameter at iteration *k*, which produced by a so-called sinusoidal iterator [32], can be represented as the following:

$$
x^{k+1} = \sin(\pi \times x^k). \tag{16}
$$

in this paper, x^0 was set to 0.7.

The chaotic-based α we introduced enhance the searching capability and efficiency of FA and illustrated in the numerical results. Also, the performance of α in dynamic adjustment mechanism is shown in Fig. [2](#page-4-0) for better understanding.

As for the absorption coefficient γ , a fixed value is replaced with a variable that needs to be optimized, and then it was added to the firefly as a variable in the candidate

Fig. 2. Two change trajectories of α.

solution vector [27]. The new structure of solution vector can be written in the following form:

$$
X_i = [P_{i,1}, P_{i,2}, \dots, P_{i,D}, \gamma_i], \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N. \quad (17)
$$

2) ADAPTIVE MUTATION MECHANISM

In the previously mentioned methods, inappropriate convergence and local optima traps may still be impossible to avoid. Also, each enhancement of the algorithm optimization will become very slow before the global optimal solution is obtained. We have noticed that the optimization mechanism of FA itself is simple and efficient, even adding additional strategies that increase search power will not have an unacceptable negative impact on the computational efficiency of the algorithm. Therefore, a new powerful mutation mechanism, which mainly for enhancing the ability of the algorithm to exploit the unknown area of the search space, is introduced to solve the afore-discussed problems, thus the ability of the FA to eventually be enhanced.

Since mutation has been applied to the algorithmic process, many mutation operators have been proposed. Unfortunately, there exists no single optimal solution to all problems. Therefore, a new powerful mutation strategy that contains two mutation operators is considered in this paper. First, three vectors m_1 to m_3 obtained from solution are randomly selected as $m_1 \neq m_2 \neq m_3 \neq m$. Consequently, a mutant firefly X_m^{mut} is generated as the following:

$$
X_{m}^{mut} = \begin{cases} X_{m_{1}}^{k} + F_{m}(X_{m_{2}}^{k} - X_{m_{3}}^{k}), & \text{if } rand_{1} \leq C r_{m} \text{ and } rand_{2} \leq 0.5; \\ X_{m}^{k} + F_{m}((X_{m_{1}}^{k} - X_{m_{3}}^{k}) + (X_{best}^{k} - X_{m_{2}}^{k})), & \text{if } rand_{1} \leq C r_{m} \text{ and } rand_{2} > 0.5; \\ X_{m_{1}}^{k}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}
$$
(18)

where, *rand*₁ and *rand*₂ are random numbers generated from a uniform distribution in the interval $[0, 1]$. F_m is the scale factor and *Cr^m* is the crossover rate. They should be fixed values, but picking the optimum values for a specific problem is tricky. Thus, a self-adaptation strategy was introduced to select the most appropriate value. For each firefly in the

search space, with two control parameters (*F* and *Cr*) of the mutation mechanism. In the beginning, $\vec{F} \in N(0.5, 0.1)$ and $Cr \in N(0.5, 0.1)$. $N(0.5, 0.1)$ means a normal distributions whose mean equals to 0.5 and standard deviation is 0.1. Consequently, F_m and Cr_m in [\(18\)](#page-4-1) are generated as described below:

$$
F_m = \begin{cases} \vec{F}_{m_1} + rand_1(\vec{F}_{m_2} - \vec{F}_{m_3}), & \text{if } (rand_2 < \delta); \\ rand_3, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \tag{19}
$$
\n
$$
Cr_m = \begin{cases} \vec{C}r_{m_1} + rand_4(\vec{C}r_{m_2} - \vec{C}r_{m_3}), & \text{if } (rand_5 < \delta); \\ rand_6, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \tag{20}
$$

where \vec{F}_{m_λ} and $\vec{C}r_{m_\lambda}$ ($\lambda = 1, 2, 3$) are parameters of corresponding firefly $(X_{m_\lambda}^k)$ in \vec{F} and $\vec{C}r$, respectively; and *rand*_{μ} ∈ $(0, 1)(\mu = 1, 2, \ldots, 6)$, are generated using uniform distribution of 0 to 1. The value of δ , in this paper, set to 0.75 according to the test, appropriate range of F_m and Cr_m is 0.1 to 1, so, if their value is outside this range, it is truncated to 0.1 and 1, respectively [33].

The proposed mutation mechanism followed by a greedy selection process is such that, the brightest one between the current firefly (X_m^k) and the mutant firefly (X_m^{mut}) , will replace the position of the current firefly and become the new offspring of the fireflies. The process can be written as:

$$
X_m^{k+1} = \begin{cases} X_i^{k, mut}, & if (F_C(X_i^{k, mut}) \le F_C(X_m^k));\\ X_m^k, & otherwise. \end{cases}
$$
 (21)

It is important to point out that the value of \vec{F} and \vec{Cr} are also updated with the optimization process. If the mutant firefly is better than the current firefly, then, $\dot{F}_m = F_m$ and $\tilde{C}r_m = Cr_m.$

Fig. 3. A schematic diagram of the role of the first mutation operator.

The main effect of the first mutation operator is to speed up the convergence, as shown in Fig. [3.](#page-5-0) The main purpose of the second one is to diversify population. The point behind

using two multi-operators instead of more is to control the computing burden within a reasonable range. The main function of this mechanism is to provide better information to the main algorithm of the proposed algorithm, rather than determine the optimization process of algorithm.

The framework of the CMFA is given in Algorith[m2.](#page-5-1)

- 1: Generate an initial population $(X=X_1^k, X_2^k, \ldots, X_N^k)$ and set $k = 0$.
- 2: Define initial value of α , *F* and *Cr*.
- 3: Evaluate the fitness values $F(X_i^k)$ of all *N* initial fireflies.
- 4: **while** $k < K_{max}$ **do**
- 5: **for** $i = 1$ to N **do**
- 6: **for** $j = 1$ to N **do**
- 7: **if** $F(X_j^k) < F(X_i^k)$ then
- 8: Update position of X_i^k using the formula in (14).
- 9: Evaluate the fitness values of $X_i^{move,k}$
- 10: **if** $F(X_i^{move,k}) < F(X_i^k)$ then

$$
11: \tX_i^k = X_i^{move,k};
$$

$$
12:
$$

12: **else**
13:
$$
X_i^{k+1} = X_i^k;
$$

- 14: **end if**
- 15: **end if**
- 16: **end for**
- 17: **end for**
- 18: **for** $i = 1$ to N **do**
- 19: Generate mutant firefly X_m^{mut} using the formula in (18).
- 20: Evaluate the fitness values of X_{m}^{mut} using the formula in (1) .

21: if
$$
F(X_m^{mut,k}) < F(X_i^k)
$$
 then

- 22: $X_i^{k+1} = X_m^{mut,k};$
- 23: **else**

$$
24: \qquad \qquad X_i^{k+1} = X_i(k);
$$

- 25: **end if**
- 26: **end for**
- 27: Update α using the formula in (15).
- 28: Update F_m and Cr_m according to (19)-(20).
- 29: $k = k + 1$.
- 30: **end while**
- 31: Output the Optimum solution *Xbest* .

IV. IMPLEMENTING CMFA FOR SOLVING ED PROBLEM

In this section, the steps of the proposed CMFA for solving the ED problems under various constraints of power system will be described. But before that, various constraints, especially equality constraints, will be described. The ED problem is a nonlinear constrained optimization problem, which contains a large amount of equality and inequality constraints. Thus, the initial fireflies are hard to satisfy all the constraints due to the fact that they are randomly generated, even though

one may satisfy all the constraints, it is difficult to maintain it feasible after updating its position. Generally, there are two strategies to deal with constraints of the ED problem, one is to use a penalty function which is achieved through adding an extra objective function for punishing violations of constraints on the original objective function, and the other way is to generate solutions that satisfy all constraints by some strategies and maintain the feasibility of the solution in the optimization process so that optimization is only done in the feasible region. The first method is simple and can maintain population diversity but not adequate for handling constraints. The second method will lose a certain population diversity but with high efficiency in finding feasible solution. Therefore, in this paper, the latter method is chosen since mutation mechanism has been applied for diversifying the population. Also, the constraints handling mechanism we used, which will be described in detail next, will also improve the diversity of the population simultaneously.

Implementing the CMFA for solving ED problem can be briefly described via the following steps:

1) Generate initial individual $X_i(i = 1, 2, \ldots, N)$, considering ramp rate limits:

$$
X_i = P_{i,t}^{min} + rand(.) (P_{i,t}^{max} - P_{i,t}^{min});
$$

$$
\begin{cases} P_{i,t}^{min} = max (P_i^{min}, P_i^0 - DR_i) \\ P_{i,t}^{max} = min (P_i^{max}, P_i^0 + UR_i) \end{cases}
$$
(22)

where $P_{i,t}^{max}$ and $P_{i,t}^{min}$ are the maximum and minimum output powers of the *i*th unit in *t*th, respectively.

2) Check whether the solution satisfies the other system constraints such as the prohibited operating zones, if the output of a unit(P_i) fall in a prohibited zone of [*L*, *U*], its value will be determined by the following way:

$$
P_i = \begin{cases} L, & \text{if } (P_i - L) < (U - P_i); \\ U, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \tag{23}
$$

3) To make solutions satisfy equality constraints, the feasibility of a solution is checked as:

$$
|\sum_{i=1}^{NG}(P_i) - (P_{load} + P_{loss})| < \varepsilon. \tag{24}
$$

where, ε is a tolerance limit factor, the value of ε , in this paper, from a larger initial value gradually reduced to a small final value set to 10^{-5} (an acceptable accuracy [34]). The way ε changes can be given as [35]:

$$
\varepsilon(0) = \phi(x_{\theta}) = \varepsilon_{\theta}^{initial};
$$
\n(25)

$$
\varepsilon(k) = \begin{cases} \varepsilon(0)(1 - \frac{k}{T_c})^{cp}, & \text{if } 0 < k < T_c; \\ 10^{-8}, & k \ge T_c. \end{cases} \tag{26}
$$

where x_{θ} is the top θ th individual and $\theta = 0.4N$. cp is a control parameter of the θ level and set to 5 in this paper. With the number of iterations *k* increase to the control generation T_c , The θ level has been updated. There are no solutions that violates the constraints in the population when the control generation is reached. The value of T_c is 150 in this paper.

If the value of the power deviation is larger than the preset value, a slack unit P_s ($s = 1, 2, ..., NG$) that choose randomly from the unit poor was used to balance the power deviation follow the following rules:

$$
\begin{cases}\nP_s = (P_{load} + P_{loss}) - \sum_{i=1 (i \neq s)}^{NG} (P_i); \\
P_s = \begin{cases}\nP_{i,t}^{max}, & \text{if } P_s > P_{i,t}^{max}; \\
P_{i,t}^{min}, & \text{if } P_s < P_{i,t}^{min}.\n\end{cases}\n\end{cases}\n\tag{27}
$$

If the power balance constraint is still not satisfied, similarly, one unit from the remaining units is randomly select as the slack generator to balance the power deviation. This process continues until all units are selected, and when the output is in a prohibited operation zone after balancing power deviation, its output can be determined using Eq[.21.](#page-5-2)

- 4) Calculating the value of the objective function of all fireflies using the formula in Eq[.1.](#page-2-0)
- 5) Update the position of each firefly using Eq[.14,](#page-3-4) calculate fitness of new firefly as described in Step4, and select the best solution among all fireflies as P_{best}^k .
- 6) Generation mutant firefly using the formula in Eq[.18.](#page-4-1)
- 7) Modify the fireflies produced by the mutation mechanism to satisfy the constraints using Step2 and Step3, and generation offspring fireflies using the formula in Eq[.21.](#page-5-2)
- 8) Check stopping criterion. In this paper, the termination condition of the algorithm is reaching the maximum number of iterations. If the termination condition has not been reached, go to Step5. If the maximum number of iterations has been reached, stop and output the best optimization results.

[Figure 4](#page-7-0) shows the flowchart of the CMFA method.

V. SIMULATION RESULTS

For comparison with other methods, several commonly ED tests of different sizes are used. A list of state-of-the-art algorithms and abbreviations of each algorithm mentioned in this paper is showed in [Table 1.](#page-7-1) There are 65 methods in [Table 1.](#page-7-1) The references for these methods are also exhibited in the same table. The simulations are carried out on MATLAB (R2013a) environment using a desktop machine, which CPU is Intel Core(TM) i7 processor with 3.6 G-Hz clock frequency and 8 GB of RAM.

In order to more effectively verify the effectiveness of the proposed method of solving ED problem in large-scale systems, a few systems used by a large number of literature that involve up to 160 units are tested. Large-scale systems, like 160-unit system, make the cost function of ED problem highly non-convex and complex when both considering VPE and multiple fuel options. Thus, the ability to consistently

Fig. 4. The flow chart of the CMFA algorithm.

obtain good optimization results, will demonstrate the efficiency of the algorithm. The robustness of the proposed algorithm, in this paper, will be validated from the results of 100 independent runs for each case study. The quality of the solution provided in this paper is compared with the results provided by the most advanced methods reported in the previous literature.

In this paper, the number of populations is set to 20 for 6-unit,10-unit and 15-unit system. The maximum number of generations for these three systems are 500. The population size of 80- and 160-unit are 25, and the optimized process will stop when 1000 generations are reached.

A. CASE 1: 6-UNIT SYSTEM

The system of this case study has six thermal generators and supply a total load demand of 1263 MW. In this case study, the prohibited operating zones, the ramp rate limits, and the transmission losses are considered. The data of the test system are the same as reported in [16].

The detailed best output dispatch optimization results provided by the FA, CMFA and other 8 algorithms reported in previous literature are listed in [Table 2](#page-8-0) for comparing

TABLE 1. List of algorithms mentioned in the previous literature and corresponding Acronyms.

the differences among the results of different methods. The accuracy of the calculations of the FA and CMFA are for this case are 3.28946E-08 and 9.89811E-06, respectively.

TABLE 2. The system generator parameters in case 1 (6-unit system).

Power output (MW)	GA[15]	MTS[15]	PSO[16]	BSA[15]	TSA[42]	CBA[13]	FA	CMFA
	474.8066	448.1277	447.497	447.4902	449.3651	447.4187	439.293500	447.5026568
P ₂	178.6363	172.8082	173.3221	173.3308	182.252	172.8255	175.0455644	173.3160988
P_3	262.2089	262.5932	263.4745	263.4559	254.2904	264.0759	265,0000000	263.4717081
P_4	134.2826	136.9605	139.0594	139.0602	143.4506	139.2469	140.7740665	139.0669181
P_5	151.9039	168.2031	165.4761	165.4804	161.9682	165.6526	167.042084	165.4677395
P_6	74.1812	87.3304	87.128	87.1409	86.0185	86.7652	88.78165465	87.13305585
Total power (MW)	1276.03	1276.023	1276.01	1275.958	1277.345	1275.9848	1275.9367	1275.958177
$P_{loss}(MW)$	13.0217	13.0205	12.9584	12.9583	14.3449	12.9848	12.93686954	12.95818715
Total generation cost (\$/h)	15459	15450.06	15450	15449.898	15451.63	15450.23	15450.50896	15449.899391

TABLE 3. Comparison of results in the 6-unit system.

[Table 3](#page-8-1) shows the super efficiency of the CMFA in obtaining high quality solutions over 100 independent experiments, when compared with other methods. The bold values indicate the best result provided by its corresponding method. Obviously, the CMFA can provide better solutions than other algorithms under the condition of guaranteeing stability and computing efficiency. The standard deviation of GA is smaller than the proposed algorithm in this paper, however, even the worst result of the CMFA is better than the best solution of GA, which proves the superior ability of the proposed method to avoid trapping into local optimum.

Fig. 5. Convergence characteristics of FA and CMFA (6-units system).

[Figure 5](#page-8-2) shows the convergence properties of the FA and CMFA when the optimal results are obtained in 100 independent trials. It can be seen that the FA settles at about

Fig. 6. Generation cost distribution of FA and CMFA (6-unit system).

20 iterations and provides a value of the total generation cost of about 15451(\$/*h*); the settle iteration number of the CMFA is about 80 and achieves about 15450(\$/*h*). This indicates that the CMFA provides more accurate results, although more iterations are needed, compared to the FA. The cost value distribution of the FA and CMFA running 100 times independently are shown in Fig[.6,](#page-8-3) which proves that the CMFA has an obvious effect on improving the stability of results when comparing with the FA.

B. CASE 2: 15-UNIT SYSTEM

In this case study, a 15 thermal-unit system with the prohibited operating zones, ramp rate limits, transmission losses and the valve point effects are considered [16]. The detailed information of the generator parameters and the loss coefficients are provided in [15]. The total power load demand is 2630MW. [Table 4](#page-9-0) lists the detailed best results obtained by the CMFA and the FA, as well as the best solutions provided by the other eight methods reported in the previous literature. It can be seen that both the FA and the CMFA provide solutions that satisfy all constraints. The minimum, average and maximum generation cost value of the CMFA and the FA obtained from 100 independent trials are presented in [Table 5](#page-9-1) with the other twenty-seven state-of-the-art methods. Also, standard deviation(Std.dev) and computational average time are given in the same table. Obviously, the best solution of the proposed algorithm is better than the FA and many

TABLE 4. Best results for case 2 (15-unit system).

TABLE 5. Comparison of results in the 15-unit system.

The loss coefficients B_{0i} and B_{00} without considered
Ramp rate limits without considered.

NA: data not available.

algorithms that have been recognized as efficient in solving ED problems, which proves the superiority performance of the proposed algorithm. Furthermore, a small standard deviation reflects the robustness of the CMFA.

[Figure 7](#page-9-2) shows the convergence properties of the FA and the CMFA. It can be seen that the FA and the CMFA settles at about 270 and 240 iterations with cost value of about 32705(\$/*h*) and 32700 (\$/*h*), respectively. This shows that the CMFA is superior to the FA in both efficiency and accuracy as the complexity of the problem increases. Fig. [8](#page-9-3) shows the distribution of the generation cost value obtained from running the FA and the CMFA with 100 independent trials, respectively. This figure clearly shows that the CMFA provides more consistent and reliable solutions, compared to those of the FA.

C. CASE 3: 10-UNIT SYSTEM

In this case study, a slightly larger benchmark system that has 10 units is used. The total load demand of the system

Fig. 7. Convergence characteristics of FA and CMFA (15-unit system).

Fig. 8. Generation cost distribution of FA and CMFA (15-unit system).

is 2700MW. The valve point effects, the ramp rate limits, and multiple fuel options are considered when optimizing the allocation of unit output. The generators' cost coefficients, the valve-point coefficients, and multiple fuel data of this test system are given in [19]. The optimal allocation of unit output and fuel types provided by the FA and the

TABLE 6. Best results for case 3 (10-unit system).

						Methods						
IGA-MU[19] Output power (MW)			TSA[42]		PSO[16]		BSA[15]		FA		CMFA	
	PG (MW)	Fuel type	PG (MW)	Fuel type	PG (MW)	Fuel type	PG (MW)	Fuel type	PG (MW)	Fuel type	PG (MW)	Fuel type
P_1	219.1261		219.4959		225.5729		218,5777		219.6434	◠	218,6003	
P ₂	211.1645		206.7093		208.224		211.2153		212.7272		210.9692	
P_3	280.6572		291.3532		278.8078		279.5619		279.6276		280.6565	
P_4	238.477		237.6731	3	238.0062		239.5024		238.5630		239.6396	
P_5	276.4179		279.2478		282.4136		279.9724		281.0941		279.9307	
P_6	240.4672		237.3793	3	239.6464		241.1174		239.3707		239.7734	
P_7	287.7399		277.9598		285.4269		289.7965		288.0566		287.7242	
P_8	240.7614		238.9435		239.1045		240.5785		239.2376		239.7738	
P_9	429.337		429.9256	3	425.5856		426.8873		426.5232		427.0638	
P_{10}	275.8518		281.3126		277.2121		272.7907		275.1567		275.8686	
Total power (MW)	2700		2700		2700		2700		2700		2700	
Generation cost (\$/h)	624.5178		624.3078		624.3046		623.9016		623.9351		623.8334	

TABLE 7. Comparison of results in case 3 (10-unit system).

*: The total computed cost by the authors for the optimal solutions reported in [51] are much higher than reported in references NA: data not available

CMFA are presented in [Table 6,](#page-10-0) with the best solutions of 4 literature published in recent years. It can be sure that the solution satisfies all the generation limit constraints. The total generation cost obtained by the CMFA is 623.8334 (\$/*h*) when meeting the power demand of 2700MW while the violation of power balance is zero, which reveals a powerful ability of the proposed algorithm that provides better results in the case of keeping accuracy. [Table 7](#page-10-1) lists the comparison of generation cost values among the FA, the CMFA and other 23 methods. It can be seen that the least generation cost is provided by the CMFA with a good standard deviation (0.0189) and a fast calculation time (3.78 s). The FA also provides a good standard deviation of results and calculation time, but it falls into a mediocre local minimum of 623.9351(\$/*h*), although it's better than the other 11 methods.

[Figure 9](#page-10-2) shows the convergence properties of the FA and the CMFA. It can be seen that both the FA and the CMFA provide smooth convergence. Fig. [10](#page-10-3) shows the distribution of the total generation cost value provided by running the

Fig. 9. Generation cost distribution of FA and CMFA (10-unit system).

Fig. 10. Generation cost distribution of FA and CMFA (10-unit system).

FA and CMFA with 100 independent trials, respectively. It intuitively shows that the results provided by the CMFA are in a small range between 623.8334 (\$/*h*) and 623.9062 (\$/*h*), and the solutions of the FA are in a larger range between 623.9351 (\$/*h*) and 624.2512 (\$/*h*). This demonstrates that the CMFA is more accurate, stable and reliable than the FA.

TABLE 8. Best results for case 4 (80-unit system).

	FA	CMFA			FA	CMFA			FA	CMFA			FA	CMFA	
Unit	Output(MW)		Fuel type	Unit	Output(MW)		Fuel type	Unit	Output(MW)		Fuel type	Unit		Output(MW)	Fuel type
G_1	214.6768	220.0854	2		221.6592	218.5876	$\overline{2}$		202.3496	221.5771	$\overline{2}$		222.5073	218.3111	
				G_{21}				G_{41}				G_{61}			
G_2	214.2034	213.6888		G_{22}	213.7086	210.7270		G_{42}	210.7252	211.4615		G_{62}	212.1928	211.4507	
G_3	272.5517	282.7161		G_{23}	285.9261	282.9041		G_{43}	279.1123	285.7622		G_{63}	283.1551	281.6243	
G_4	239.6338	240.3123		G_{24}	241.3704	241.1210	3	\mathcal{G}_{44}	241.5169	238.8336		G_{64}	240.1839	240.5803	
G_5	279.9324	281.2814		G_{25}	284.9724	275.2641		G_{45}	277.3431	279.9167		G_{65}	279.1448	279.3733	
G_6	237.2130	241.3849	3	G_{26}	240.1811	239.1008	3	G_{46}	241.0066	240.3111	3	G_{66}	238.6957	238.6983	
G_7	286.9389	284.6647		G_{27}	287.3132	285.7905		G_{47}	292.2747	286.0424		G_{67}	282.0482	288.6673	
G_8	238.5608	239.1023	3	G_{28}	236.8020	240.1735	3	G_{48}	239.3699	237.8927	3	G_{68}	239.2352	239.3714	
G_9	424.8441	423.2263		G_{29}	432.3391	423.7396	3	G_{49}	431.8699	423.3299	3	G_{69}	425.7379	427.1530	
G_{10}	273.2563	277.8224		G_{30}	279.8028	271.1403		G_{50}	277.8151	277.9563		G_{70}	270.7472	275.5865	
G_{11}	220.7616	220.7842		G_{31}	216.1175	215.5818		G_{51}	214.0925	219.7209	2	G_{71}	218.3198	219.6253	
G_{12}	209.7294	211.9482		G_{32}	210.4939	213.4437		G_{52}	210.7533	211.7136		G_{72}	214.1919	208.7501	
G_{13}	286.4163	281.2083		G_{33}	287.5734	287.7624		G_{53}	280.0570	278.9925		G_{73}	281.5130	279.8381	
G_{14}	238.1615	238.8331		G_{34}	241.9306	240.0396	3	G_{54}	240.1775	241.9235		G_{74}	241.2503	241.1195	
G_{15}	279.7888	276.4529		G_{35}	281.3822	284.0416		G_{55}	281.4912	275.3101		G_{75}	282.7339	270.1158	
G_{16}	238.1685	240.0412		G_{36}	239.7666	239.2346	3	$G_{\bf 56}$	241.7915	238.8320		G_{76}	238.6903	240.9832	
G_{17}	296.5628	290.5925		G_{37}	286.8823	284.7568		G_{57}	289.6894	289.6645		G_{77}	292.8880	286.1451	
G_{18}	238.1583	239.3725	3	G_{38}	237.7603	240.4446	3	G_{58}	240.7379	237.8933	3	G_{78}	240.4406	242.7281	
G_{19}	423.7026	427.4155		G_{39}	430.2566	428.9713	3	G_{59}	416.1985	432.8728		G_{79}	418.4742	421.5532	
G_{20}	272.0008	279.6887		G_{40}	276.9149	276.0346		G_{60}	274.5754	272.8368		G_{80}	276.4871	276.0011	
			Total generation cost (\$/h):		4994.0583	4992.0655				Total power output (MW) :			21600	21600	

D. CASE 4: 80-UNIT SYSTEM

In the third case study, an 80-unit power system 8 times larger than the system of case-3 supplying a load demand of 21600 MW is utilized. Multiple fuel options and the VPE are considered. The problem has become more complex due to the existence of as many as 80 nonconvex cost functions. It may be more difficult to solve an ED problem under such conditions than the real power system, because not all the units in a real system need to consider the valve-point effects. [Table 8](#page-11-0) shows the optimal unit output allocation results obtained by the FA and the CMFA. It is clear that all the constraints of the ED problem are satisfied. The comparison of objective function values among the FA, the CMFA and other recently reported methods are presented in [Table 9,](#page-11-1) which shows that the cost of the CMFA is the lowest among the other methods, and the standard deviation is the least of all methods except for the ORCSA [62].

[Figure 11](#page-11-2) shows the convergence properties of the FA and the CMFA. It can be seen that both the FA and the CMFA provide smooth convergence, and settles at about 240 and 200 iterations, respectively. It indicates that, in spite of facing such a high dimension $(d = 80)$ ED problem, both the FA and the CMFA can still converge at a fast speed. Fig. [12](#page-12-0) shows the distribution of the total generation cost value provided by running the FA and the CMFA with 100 independent trials, respectively. It intuitively shows that the results provided by the CMFA vary between 4992.06 (\$/*h*) and 4994.97 (\$/*h*), and in the FA, it varies between 4994.06 (\$/*h*) and 5006.63 (\$/*h*). This demonstrates that the CMFA is more accurate, stable and reliable than the FA.

E. CASE 5: 160-UNIT SYSTEM

In this case study, a 160-unit system is generated by combining sixteen 10-unit systems, and supplying a load demand of 43200MW. Multiple fuel options and the VPE are considered. In such a large system, the cost function is highly

TABLE 9. Comparison of results in case 4 (80-unit system).

Fig. 11. Convergence characteristics of FA and CMFA (80-unit system).

non-smooth and dimensionality. Therefore, finding the global optimal result of this system is a very difficult challenge. In recent research, a large number of algorithms have been applied to solve this problem. Though have shown good results, but there still exists room for further improvement. The detailed optimization results provided by the CMFA are listed in [Table 10.](#page-12-1) The detailed optimization results of other methods are no longer shown, as in previous cases. [Table 11](#page-12-2) shows a comparison of the solution of the FA, the CMFA, and

TABLE 10. Best results for case 5 (160-unit system).

Fig. 12. Generation cost distribution of FA and CMFA (80-unit system).

the other 15 methods. It's clear that the best generation cost provided by the CMFA is the lowest among all the methods mentioned. Furthermore, the average generation cost is better than the best cost value of residual algorithm, and a standard deviation is a small number that equal to 2.5174.

[Figure 13](#page-13-0) shows the convergence curve of the FA and the CMFA when provided the best solution for case-5. It can be seen that the FA settles at about 350 iterations and for the CMFA is about 500, which indicates that the FA converges

TABLE 11. Best results for case 5 (160-unit system).

Methods		Generation cost (\$/h)	Std.dev	Average time (s)					
	Minimum	Average	Maximum						
CGA MU[19]	10143.72	10143.72	NA	NA	621.3				
IGA MU[19]	10042.47	10042.47	NA	NA	174.62				
PSO[46]	10036.199	NA	NA	NA	204.73				
BSA[15]	10014.085	10035.403	10060.93	9.037	9.44				
$HPSO-DE^{\alpha}[46]$	10013.008	NA	NA.	NA	101.44				
ED-DE[44]	10012.68	NA	NA	NA	NA				
FBHPSO-DE ^{a} [46]	10011.072	NA	NА	NA.	97.01				
RCCRO _[38]	10009.518	10009.52	10009.58	NA	50.216/iter				
BBO[38]	10008.71	10009.16	10010.59	NA	0.62 /iter				
DE/BBO[38]	10007.05	10007.56	10010.26	NA	0.56 /iter				
ORCCRO[61]	10004.20	10004.21	10004.45	NA	0.019 /iter				
CBA[15]	10002.859	10006.33	10045.23	9.5811	5.71				
CSA[39]	9996.639	9996.639	10014.02	4.9268	75.42				
PI-CBA[65]	9995.805	10029.08	10069.74	NA.	NA				
ORCSA _[62]	9989.9444	9992.0503	9996.832	1.4138	67.50				
FA	9995.6720	10011.185	10038.068	8.8454	43.86				
CMFA	9985.5965	9987.5525	9996.9409	2.5174	76.78				
a:Lack of detailed optimization result.									

NA: Data not available

faster than the CMFA. However, the cost value provided by the CMFA is significantly better than that of the FA, which indicates that the FA has early convergence and trapped into a local minimum but the CMFA successfully avoided. The generation costs distribution of the 100 independent run validates the robustness of the CMFA, which shown in Fig. [14](#page-13-1) with the FA. This makes clear that the CMFA has the ability to provide a consistent and reliable optimal solution. On the other hand, The performance of the FA is weak and the optimal solution cannot be provided due to the high complexity of the problem.

Fig. 13. Convergence characteristics of FA and CMFA (160-units system).

Fig. 14. Generation cost distribution of FA and CMFA (160-units system).

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, a new metaheuristic algorithm called firefly algorithm (FA) is proposed in which the concept is simple and easy to implement. The Firefly Algorithm is used to solve non-convex and large scale economic dispatch problems when considering both the valve-point effects and the multiple fuel options. Furthermore, a modified version of the FA, the CMFA, is proposed for solving the ED problems after carefully considering different components in designing the method. A sinusoidal chaotic map was incorporated into FA for the adaptation of the random movement factor (α) , and the absorption coefficient (γ) was introduced into candidate solutions as variables that need to be optimized for enhancing the search capability of the FA and eliminate the need for manually tuning the algorithm. Besides, a new powerful self-adaptive mutation mechanism is used to maintain diversity in the population and enhance the global searching ability of the CMFA. In addition to the above contribution, a new equality constraint handling mechanism is set up, a dynamic relaxation factor has been used and some solutions that slight violations of the constraint but have good fitness for the objective function are retained. This mechanism

biases the optimization towards the feasible region, which enhances convergence rate and handling different constraints in ED problems simultaneously. The FA and the CMFA were applied to five test systems having 6, 10, 15, 80, 160-units and the analysis of simulation results demonstrates that the proposed methods exhibit superior performances in solving ED problems including the prohibited operating zones, the valve-point effects, the transmission losses, the multiple fuel options, and other constraints of power systems like ramp rate limits and so on, compared to previously proposed stateof-the-art methods.

In future work, we intend to apply these methods to solve other problems related to power systems optimization because the CMFA has shown good performance in solving the ED problem.

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