A

MAJOR PROJECT REPORT ON

AUTOMATIC POWER FACTOR CONTROLLER & ITS IMPLEMENTATION USING ESP8266

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the award of degree of

BACHELOR OF TECHNOLOGY

IN

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DEPARTMENT OF ELECTRONICS & COMMUNICATION ENGINEERING

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(Approved by AICTE, Affiliated to JNTU Hyderabad, Accredited by NBA & NAAC)

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the Industry oriented Mini Project work entitled "AUTOMATIC POWER FACTOR CONTROLLER & ITS IMPLEMENTATION USING ESP8266" is being submitted by B.KRISHNAKANTH bearing Roll No:218R1A04D7, B.KARTHIKEYA bearing Roll No: 218R1A04D8, B.MAHESH BABU bearing Roll No:218R1A04D9, B. ABHISHEK GOUD bearing Roll No:218R1A04E0 in B.Tech IV-II semester, Electronicsand Communication Engineering is a record bonafide work carried out by then during the academic year2024-25. The results embodied in this report have not been submitted to any other University for the award of any degree.

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DECLARATION

We hereby declare that the project work entitled "AUTOMATIC POWER FACTOR CONTROLLER & ITS IMPLEMENTATION USING ESP8266" is the work done by us in campus at CMR ENGINEERING COLLEGE, Kandlakoya during the academic year 2024-2025 and is submitted as Industry Oriented Mini project in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of degree of BACHELOR OF TECHNOLOGY in ELECTRONICS AND COMMUNICATION ENGINEERING FROM JAWAHARLAL NEHRU TECHNOLOGICAL UNIVERSITY, HYDERABAD.

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ABSTRACT

This project aims to address the issue of power factor penalties in industrial units by developing an automatic power factor correction unit based on ESP32. The proposed system employs two zero crossing detectors to detect the zero crossing points of voltage and current. The time lag between these zero crossings, which indicates the phase difference, is measured and fed into the ESP32 and PZEM-004T.

The controller then calculates the power factor and, if it is found to be less than the desired value, activates the appropriate number of relays to switch in shunt capacitors, thereby improving the power factor. The system utilizes operational amplifiers in comparator mode to generate the zero-crossing pulses, which are then processed by the esp32 to determine the phase angle difference. The capacitor bank and relays are interfaced with the microcontroller using a relay driver, and the real-time power factor is displayed on an LCD.

This automatic correction process helps in minimizing reactive power, thereby reducing the penalties and improving the efficiency of the power system. In the modern era of technology, efficient energy management is crucial for both residential and industrial sectors. One of the key aspects of efficient energy usage is maintaining an optimal power factor. Power factor correction is essential for reducing power losses and improving the efficiency of power systems.

This blog will guide you through building an Automatic Power Factor Controller (APFC) using a current transformer, step-down transformer, 8051 microcontroller, relay, and other components. This innovative project is perfect for engineering students and enthusiasts looking to delve into practical applications of power electronics. Industrial and commercial power systems, poor power factor leads to inefficient power usage, higher energy costs, and increased strain on the electrical infrastructure.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Power factor is a fundamental concept in electrical engineering, particularly when dealing with alternating current (AC) systems. It represents the efficiency with which electrical power is converted into useful work output. Simply put, power factor indicates how effectively electrical power is being used by a system or device.

It is a measure of how effectively electrical power is being used un an alternating current (AC) electrical system. It is the ratio of real power to apparent power. The power factor can range from 0 to 1, with 1 being ideal.

1.1 OVERVIEW OF THE PROJECT

An "Automatic Power Factor Correction" (APFC) project around the design and implementation of systems that automatically optimize the power factor in electrical installations. Here's a breakdown of the key aspects:

Core Objectives:

- Power Factor Optimization:
- o The primary goal is to maintain a power factor as close to unity (1) as possible.
- This minimizes reactive power, reduces energy losses, and improves overall electrical system efficiency.
- Automation:
- o The system should operate automatically, without requiring manual intervention.
- o This involves continuous monitoring of the power factor and real-time adjustments.
- Cost Reduction:
- By improving the power factor, the project aims to reduce electricity costs and avoid penalties imposed by utility companies.
 - Key Components and Functionality:
- Power Factor Sensing:
- The system uses sensors (current transformers, voltage transformers) to measure the current and voltage in the electrical circuit.
- These measurements are used to calculate the power factor.

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range from 0 to 1, with 1 being ideal.



Fig:1.1 Automatic Power Factor Controllers

1.2 OBJECTIVE OF THE PROJECT

The primary objective of power factor is to ensure that electrical power is used as efficiently as possible in an AC electrical system.

Achieving an optical power factor leads to various benefits, both in terms of energy consumption and equipment performance.

The key objective of power factor include:

- 1. Maximizing Energy Efficiency
- 2. Reducing Power Losses
- 3. Optimizing System Capacity
- 4. Reducing Utility Costs
- 5. Enhancing Equipment Longevity

1.3 ORGANIZATION OF THE PROJECT

When organizing a project on **Power Factor**, it's important to structure the content in a clear and logical manner, ensuring that all relevant aspects are covered thoroughly. The project can be divided into the following main sections:

1. Introduction

Overview of Power Factor: A brief introduction to power factor, its significance in electrical systems, and why it is important for both efficiency and cost savings.

Objectives of the Project: Outline the goals, such as understanding the concept of power factor, how it affects electrical systems, and exploring methods for improving it.

> Types of Power Factor:

Lagging Power Factor: Typically caused by inductive loads like motors.

Leading Power Factor: This occurs when the current leads the voltage, typically in circuits with capacitive loads such as capacitor banks or some electronic equipment.

Unity Power Factor: This is the ideal power factor where the voltage and current are perfectly in phase, meaning the real power is equal to the apparent power.

Zero Power Factor: This represents a scenario where no real power is being consumed. The current is either completely in phase or 180 degrees out of phase with the voltage, and no work is being done.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE SURVEY

2.1 EXISTING SYSTEM

The exiting system of the Etiquette System is designed to ensure a smooth and secure exit from the system. When the user decides to exit the system, the system will prompt the user to confirm their decision. Once confirmed, the system will automatically disconnect from the mobile phone and terminate all running processes. The system will also ensure that all sensitive data and information are properly secured and deleted from the system. This includes deleting any temporary files, logs, and other data that may have been generated during the system's operation.

Furthermore, the system will also provide the user with an option to save their settings and preferences before exiting the system. This will allow the user to easily restore their settings and preferences when they next use the system. Overall, the exiting system of the Smart Mobile Phone Locator and Etiquette System is designed to provide a secure, efficient, and user-friendly exit experience.

Capacitor is the main component that supplies capacitive reactance, which is negative reactive power. Since, the power factor is the ratio of real power and apparent power, where apparent power has the relation with reactive power and real power as shown in the power triangle in fig.1. As majority power system has inductive loads thus normally only lagging power factor occurs hence capacitors are used to compensate by producing leading current to the load to reduce the lagging current, thereby shrink the phase angle distance between the real power and apparent power. In general, power capacitors shall be Y-connected on the three-phase distribution feeder.

Grounding the neutral is essential for the fuses to operate in case of any event of capacitor fault. For a small ungrounded Y-connected capacitor bank, faulty capacitor would not blow the fuse to isolate faulty capacitor. Any event of this could lead to an explosion to the capacitor bank. However, isolating the neutral of the Y-connected of a capacitor bank has the advantage of reducing harmonics. The method can only be an alternative when grounding the neutral would cause operating difficulty for a particular installation. In case of insulation failure inside the unit, phase-to-ground fault can still occurs to an ungrounded Y-connected capacitor bank even with its enclosure properly grounded. The most effective solution is to insert reactors

in series with each capacitor group connected between the phase wire and the neutral of a 3-phase bank.

Frequency is standardized at constant 50 Hz, or 60 Hz; power factor correction is valid as a solution to such fixed network frequency, the only key solution is by addition of capacitor in shunt to the load. Capacitors are commonly used within a lot of power system, especially electronic constructed circuitry. Though common it is consequently least understood by majority as one most beneficial component for power system.

Power factor correction is desirable because the source of electrical energy must be capable of supplying real power as well as any reactive power demanded by the load. This can require large, more expensive power plant equipment, transmission lines, transformers, switches, etc. than would be necessary for only real power delivered. Also, resistive losses in the transmission lines mean that some of the generated power is wasted because the extra current needed to supply reactive power only serves to heat up the power lines. The electric utilities therefore put a limit on the power factor of the loads that they will supply.

The ideal figure for load power factor is unity (1), that's a pure resistive load, because it requires the smallest current to transmit a given amount of real power. Real loads deviate from this ideal condition. Electric motor loads are phase lagging (inductive), therefore requiring capacitor banks to counter their inductance. Sometimes, when the power factor is leading due to capacitive loading, inductors are used to correct the power factor. In the electric industry, inductors are said to consume reactive power and capacitors are said to supply it, even though the reactive power is actually just moving back and forth between each AC cycle.

It is defined as the cosine angles between voltage and current in an AC circuit. Ideally voltage and current should be in phase. Due to inductive or capacitive loads the line voltage and the current are not in phase. There is generally a phase difference ϕ between voltage and current. The term $Cos\phi$ is called the Power Factor of the circuit. In an AC circuit, if it is inductive the current lags behind the voltage and the power factor is referred to as lagging, however in capacitive circuit, current leads the voltage and power factor is said to be leading.

The existing landscape of automatic power factor controller (APFC) systems is characterized by a blend of established technologies and emerging innovations, all striving to optimize electrical power efficiency. At the heart of these systems lies the fundamental principle of compensating for reactive power, primarily induced by inductive loads, to bring the power

factor closer to unity.

Traditional APFC systems have long relied on robust electromechanical components, such as contactors, to switch capacitor banks in and out of the circuit. These contactors, while reliable, introduce switching delays and can suffer from wear and tear over time, necessitating regular maintenance. The controllers themselves, in earlier iterations, often employed analog circuitry or basic digital logic to process power factor measurements and trigger switching actions. These systems, while functional, lacked the precision and adaptability of modern digital controllers.

A typical existing APFC system involves current and voltage transformers that provide real-time measurements of the electrical parameters. These measurements are fed into a power factor relay or a microcontroller-based controller. This controller calculates the power factor and compares it to a pre-set target value. If the measured power factor deviates from the target, the controller initiates the switching of capacitor banks. The capacitor banks, arranged in steps or stages, are connected to the electrical system through the contactors. The controller activates the appropriate contactors to bring the required capacitance into the circuit, thus compensating for the reactive power. The switching sequence is often determined by a pre-programmed algorithm, which may consider factors such as the magnitude of the power factor deviation and the available capacitance steps.

The conventional method of switching capacitor banks via contactors, while proven, has inherent limitations. The mechanical nature of contactors leads to arcing during switching, which can cause electrical noise and reduce the lifespan of the components. The switching speed is also limited, resulting in delays in responding to rapid load variations. These delays can lead to temporary deviations in the power factor, compromising the overall efficiency of the system. Furthermore, contactor-based systems are susceptible to wear and tear, necessitating periodic maintenance and replacement. The control algorithms employed in traditional APFC systems are often based on fixed thresholds and time delays, which may not be optimal for dynamic load conditions. This can result in over-compensation or under-compensation of reactive power, leading to suboptimal power factor correction.

In recent years, advancements in semiconductor technology have paved the way for more sophisticated APFC systems. Thyristor-based switching, for example, offers significantly faster switching speeds and reduced arcing compared to contactors. Thyristor-switched capacitor banks can respond to load variations in milliseconds, providing more precise and stable power factor correction. Microcontrollers and digital signal processors (DSPs) have also become integral components of modern APFC controllers. These controllers offer enhanced processing power, allowing for more complex control algorithms and real-time optimization. Adaptive control strategies, such as fuzzy logic and neural networks, are increasingly being employed to improve the system's ability to handle dynamic load conditions. These intelligent control techniques can learn and adapt to changing load patterns, ensuring optimal power factor correction under all operating scenarios.

Furthermore, modern APFC systems often incorporate advanced monitoring and communication capabilities. Digital displays and communication interfaces allow for real-time monitoring of the power factor and other electrical parameters. Data logging and remote monitoring capabilities enable operators to track system performance and identify potential problems. Integration with building management systems (BMS) and supervisory control and data acquisition (SCADA) systems allows for centralized control and monitoring of electrical systems across a facility. The internet of things (IoT) is also playing an increasingly significant role in APFC systems. IoT-enabled sensors and controllers can provide real-time data on power factor and other electrical parameters, enabling remote monitoring and predictive maintenance. Cloud-based analytics platforms can be used to analyze data and optimize system performance.

The incorporation of harmonic filtering is another critical advancement in modern APFC systems. Harmonic distortion, caused by non-linear loads such as electronic devices and variable frequency drives, can degrade power quality and reduce the effectiveness of power factor correction. Active harmonic filters, which inject compensating currents into the electrical system, can effectively mitigate harmonic distortion and improve power factor. Some advanced APFC systems integrate harmonic filtering capabilities, providing comprehensive power quality management. Energy storage systems, such as batteries and supercapacitors, are also being integrated into APFC systems to provide dynamic reactive power compensation and improve system stability. These energy storage systems can respond to rapid load variations and voltage fluctuations, ensuring stable power factor and voltage levels.

Despite these advancements, challenges remain in the widespread adoption of advanced APFC systems. The initial cost of thyristor-based systems and intelligent controllers can be a barrier for some users. The complexity of these systems also requires skilled personnel for installation and maintenance. Standards and regulations related to power factor correction and

harmonic distortion vary across regions, creating challenges for manufacturers and installers. The integration of IoT and cloud-based technologies also raises concerns about data security and privacy. However, the increasing focus on energy efficiency and power quality is driving the development and adoption of more sophisticated APFC systems. As technology continues to advance, we can expect to see even more innovative solutions for optimizing power factor and ensuring stable and efficient electrical power distribution.

2.2 PROPOSED SYSTEMS

The proposed Smart Etiquette System is designed to provide a comprehensive solution for locating misplaced mobile phones and promoting mobile etiquette in various social and professional settings. The system will consist of two main components: a mobile phone locator and a mobile etiquette system. The system will also allow users to remotely lock, wipe, or erase data from their mobile phone in case it is lost or stolen.

The mobile etiquette system component will provide features such as automated mode switching, reminders, and alerts to ensure that mobile phone usage is respectful and efficient. The system will also allow users to customize their mobile phone settings and preferences based on their location, time of day, and other factors. The proposed system will be developed using a combination of hardware and software technologies, including mobile device management (MDM) software, GPS tracking devices, and cloud-based data storage.

The project dynamically corrects the power factor by switching capacitor banks based on real-time power factor measurements from the PZEM-004T sensor. The logic is as follows:

1. Measurement Phase:

- PZEM-004T continuously measures voltage, current, power, and power factor.
- The measured values are displayed on the 16x2 LCD display and sent to Blynk IoT for remote monitoring.

2. Correction Phase:

- If the power factor is below an acceptable threshold, the ESP8266 turns on relays sequentially to connect capacitors.
 - After correction, the power factor should ideally reach 1.00.
 - The buzzer beeps twice after successful correction.

3. Thresholds & Relay Activation:

- $*\leq$ 50W Load* \rightarrow Turn on *Relay 1, wait **2-3 seconds, set PF to **1.00*
- *≤100W Load* → Turn on *Relay 1 & 2, wait **2-3 seconds, set PF to **1.00*

- *≤150W Load* → Turn on *Relay 1, 2 & 3, wait **2-3 seconds, set PF to **1.00*
- *≤200W Load* → Turn on *All Relays, wait **2-3 seconds, set PF to **1.00*

4. Safety Check:

- The system only processes power factor correction if the mains voltage is detected (above 150V).
 - If mains voltage is absent, the LCD displays *"No Mains Voltage".

Sometimes, AC reactors are connected to the phases of the capacitors banks (to reduce transient phenomena and the deforming regime), depending on the desired value of the power factor. This paper presents an analysis (more focused on experimentation) of a low-cost system for automatic regulation of the power factor with a reduction in transients and an increase in the life of contactors (eliminating the electric arc during switching on), with capacitors banks for low-voltage three-phase installations that connect the capacitors banks by means of one three-phase solid-state relay (an expensive device for a quality device; one is used for all capacitors banks) and using several electromagnetic contactors.

The automatic power factor adjustment system has a controller with a microprocessor with six outputs, controlled by the phase shift between the current (measured with a current transformer proportional to the current in a bar) and the phase voltage, which is part of a system of distribution bars (L1,2,3, N) from which electrical consumers (e.g., induction motors) are supplied. To reduce transients when connecting capacitors banks, a three-phase solid-state relay and two related electromagnetic contactors are used for each capacitors bank. The automatic power factor controller is connected to two low-capacity PLCs that control the logic of connecting the capacitors banks to reduce transients.

By using the proposed regulation system, a cheaper control solution is obtained compared to the use of one solid-state relay for each capacitors banks, under the conditions in which the power factor adjustment is made as in the classic solution. If twelve capacitors banks are used, the proposed installation is 22.57% cheaper than the classical power factor regulation installation.

This DC voltage is compared to two voltage references to create hysteresis proportional to the power factor (PF) desired in the installation. The electronic circuit determines the timed switching on and switching off of capacitors banks (CBs) from or into the installation. In the case of electrical consumers connected for a long period to the network, to improve the PF, CBs may be permanently connected to inductive electrical consumers (resonances may occur when

connecting the voltage), or an automatic power factor controller (APFC; also known as a Reactive Power Controller) with discrete electronic components that allows the control of the PF in the installation according to the measured current or according to a programmed clock may used

With the invention of microprocessors and digital signal processors, there were concerns in making high-performance APFCs for single-phase (less often) or three-phase installations. In the vast majority of PFCs, the phase shift between voltage and current is measured, and then the determined value is compared to the set values of the PF. They can be connected by electromagnetic contactors (EMCs) or they can be connected by high-frequency controlled power drivers (the commutation frequency changes with the reactance of the load), controlled by the microprocessor.

The proposed system for an advanced Automatic Power Factor Controller (APFC) aims to address the limitations of existing systems by leveraging cutting-edge technologies and intelligent algorithms. This system envisions a holistic approach to power factor correction, integrating real-time monitoring, predictive analytics, adaptive control, and seamless integration with modern smart grid infrastructure. The core of this proposed APFC system is a high-performance microcontroller or a dedicated Digital Signal Processor (DSP) capable of handling complex computations and real-time data processing. This controller will be equipped with advanced algorithms, including machine learning models, to predict load variations and optimize capacitor bank switching.

The system will employ high-precision current and voltage sensors, capable of capturing the electrical parameters with minimal latency and high accuracy. These sensors will provide continuous data streams to the controller, enabling it to monitor the power factor and other critical parameters in real-time. The controller will utilize advanced signal processing techniques to extract relevant information from the sensor data, including harmonic components, load fluctuations, and voltage variations. This comprehensive data analysis will allow for a more nuanced and precise power factor correction strategy.

Instead of relying solely on traditional contactors, the proposed system will incorporate thyristor-based switching for capacitor banks. Thyristors offer significantly faster switching speeds, enabling the system to respond to rapid load variations with minimal delay. This will result in a more stable and accurate power factor correction, reducing the risk of overcompensation or under-compensation. Additionally, thyristor-based switching eliminates the

mechanical wear and tear associated with contactors, improving the system's reliability and lifespan.

The controller will implement adaptive control algorithms, such as fuzzy logic and neural networks, to optimize capacitor bank switching based on real-time load conditions. These algorithms will learn and adapt to changing load patterns, ensuring optimal power factor correction under all operating scenarios. The machine learning models will be trained on historical data to predict future load variations, allowing the system to proactively adjust the capacitor banks before significant power factor deviations occur. This predictive capability will enhance the system's ability to maintain a stable power factor, even under highly dynamic load conditions.

The proposed system will also incorporate robust harmonic filtering capabilities. Active harmonic filters will be integrated into the system to mitigate harmonic distortion caused by non-linear loads. These filters will inject compensating currents into the electrical system, effectively neutralizing harmonic components and improving power quality. The active filters will be controlled by the same controller as the capacitor banks, enabling coordinated harmonic filtering and power factor correction.

A key feature of the proposed system is its seamless integration with IoT and smart grid infrastructure. The controller will be equipped with wireless communication capabilities, allowing for remote monitoring and control. Real-time data on power factor, voltage, current, and harmonic distortion will be transmitted to a cloud-based platform. This platform will provide a centralized dashboard for monitoring system performance, analyzing data, and generating reports. Predictive maintenance algorithms will be implemented to identify potential problems and schedule maintenance proactively.

The system will also incorporate energy storage capabilities, such as supercapacitors or battery systems, to provide dynamic reactive power compensation and improve system stability. These energy storage systems can respond to rapid load variations and voltage fluctuations, ensuring stable power factor and voltage levels. The energy storage systems will be integrated with the capacitor banks and active filters, enabling coordinated reactive power compensation and harmonic filtering.

Furthermore, the proposed system will prioritize cybersecurity. Robust security measures will be implemented to protect the system from unauthorized access and cyberattacks. Data encryption, authentication, and access control mechanisms will be employed to ensure the

confidentiality and integrity of the system's data. The system will also comply with relevant cybersecurity standards and regulations.

The user interface of the proposed system will be intuitive and user-friendly. A graphical display will provide real-time information on power factor, voltage, current, and harmonic distortion. The system will also generate alarms and notifications for critical events, such as power factor deviations, harmonic distortion, and equipment failures. Remote monitoring and control capabilities will be accessible through a web-based interface or a mobile app.

The proposed system aims to provide a comprehensive and intelligent solution for automatic power factor correction. By integrating advanced technologies and intelligent algorithms, this system will deliver superior performance, reliability, and efficiency, contributing to a more stable and sustainable electrical grid.

2.3 EMBEDDED INTRODUCTION

An embedded system is a combination of computer hardware and software designed for a specific function or functions within a larger system. The systems can be programmable or with fixed functionality. Industrial machines, consumer electronics, agricultural and process industry devices, automobiles, medical equipment, cameras, household appliances, airplanes, vending machines and toys, as well as mobile devices, are possible locations for an embedded system.

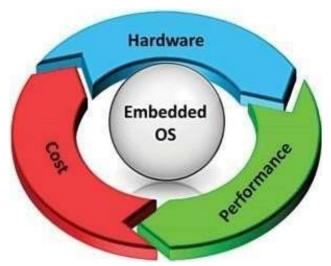


Fig:2.1 Embedded OS

While embedded systems are computing systems, they can range from having no user interface (<u>UI</u>) -- for example, on devices in which the system is designed to perform a single task -- to complex graphical user interfaces (<u>GUIs</u>), such as in mobile devices. User interfaces can include buttons, LEDs and touchscreen sensing. Some systems use remote user interfaces as well.

Embedded systems, the unsung heroes of modern technology, are specialized computer systems designed to perform dedicated functions within larger mechanical or electrical systems. Unlike general-purpose computers, which are designed for a wide range of tasks, embedded systems are tailored to specific applications, often with real-time constraints. This specialization allows them to achieve high levels of efficiency, reliability, and cost-effectiveness. The pervasive nature of embedded systems means they are found in virtually every aspect of our lives, from consumer electronics and automotive systems to industrial automation and medical devices. Their role is to control, monitor, and manage the operation of these devices, often without direct user interaction.

At the core of an embedded system is a microprocessor or microcontroller, which serves as the central processing unit. Microcontrollers are particularly common in embedded applications due to their integrated peripherals, such as timers, analog-to-digital converters (ADCs), and communication interfaces, all on a single chip. This integration reduces the overall system size, power consumption, and cost, making them ideal for resource-constrained environments. The choice of microprocessor or microcontroller depends on the specific requirements of the application, including processing power, memory capacity, and input/output (I/O) capabilities.

Embedded systems are characterized by their real-time operating systems (RTOS), which are designed to manage tasks with strict timing requirements. Unlike general-purpose operating systems, which prioritize fairness and throughput, RTOS prioritize determinism and responsiveness. This ensures that critical tasks are executed within their deadlines, preventing system failures. RTOS also provide features such as task scheduling, inter-process communication, and memory management, which are essential for managing complex embedded applications.

The software development process for embedded systems differs significantly from that of general-purpose computers. Embedded software is often written in low-level languages, such as C and assembly language, to optimize performance and minimize memory footprint. Cross-compilers are used to compile the code on a host computer and generate executable code for the target embedded platform. Debugging embedded software can be challenging due to the limited resources and real-time constraints. In-circuit emulators and debuggers are often used to monitor and control the execution of the embedded system, allowing developers to identify and fix bugs.

Embedded systems are typically designed to operate in harsh environments, with varying temperatures, vibrations, and electromagnetic interference. This requires careful selection of components and robust design practices to ensure reliability and durability. Power consumption is another critical consideration, especially for battery-powered devices. Low-power microcontrollers and power management techniques are employed to minimize energy consumption and extend battery life.

Communication interfaces are essential for embedded systems to interact with other devices and systems. Common communication protocols include serial communication (UART, SPI, I2C), Ethernet, USB, and wireless communication (Bluetooth, Wi-Fi, Zigbee). These interfaces enable embedded systems to exchange data, control external devices, and connect to networks. The choice of communication protocol depends on the specific application requirements, such as data rate, range, and power consumption.

The applications of embedded systems are vast and diverse. In the automotive industry, embedded systems control engine management, anti-lock braking systems (ABS), airbag deployment, and infotainment systems. In consumer electronics, embedded systems are found in smartphones, digital cameras, and home appliances. Industrial automation relies on embedded systems for process control, robotics, and machine vision. Medical devices, such as pacemakers and insulin pumps, utilize embedded systems for critical functions. Aerospace and applications employ embedded systems for flight control, navigation, and communication.

The increasing connectivity of embedded systems has led to the emergence of the Internet of Things (IoT). IoT devices, which are often embedded systems, are connected to the internet, enabling them to collect and exchange data. This has opened up new possibilities for remote monitoring, control, and automation. However, it also raises concerns about security and privacy. Embedded systems developers must implement robust security measures to protect against cyberattacks and ensure the confidentiality of sensitive data.

The future of embedded systems is bright, with ongoing advancements in hardware and software technologies. The development of more powerful and energy-efficient microcontrollers, the integration of artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) algorithms, and the proliferation of IoT devices will continue to drive innovation in this field. As embedded systems become more complex and interconnected, the need for robust design practices, efficient software development tools, and secure communication protocols will

become even more critical. Embedded systems will continue to be a driving force behind technological advancements, shaping the way we live and interact with the world around us.

History Of Embedded Systems

Embedded systems date back to the 1960s. Charles Stark Draper developed an integrated circuit (IC) in 1961 to reduce the size and weight of the Apollo Guidance Computer, the digital system installed on the Apollo Command Module and Lunar Module. The first computer to use ICs, it helped astronauts collect real-time flight data.

In 1965, Autonoetic, now a part of Boeing, developed the D-17B, the computer used in the Minuteman I missile guidance system. It is widely recognized as the first mass-produced embedded system. When the Minuteman II went into production in 1966, the D-17B was replaced with the NS-17 missile guidance system, known for its high-volume use of integrated circuits. In 1968, the first embedded system for a vehicle was released; the Volkswagen 1600 used a microprocessor to control its electronic fuel injection system.

By the late 1960s and early 1970s, the price of integrated circuits dropped, and usage surged. The first microcontroller was developed by Texas Instruments in 1971. The TMS 1000 series, which became commercially available in 1974, contained a 4-bit processor, read-only memory (ROM) and random-access memory (RAM), and cost around \$2 apiece in bulk orders.

Also, in 1971, Intel released what is widely recognized as the first commercially available processor, the 4004. The 4-bit microprocessor was designed for use in calculators and small electronics, though it required eternal memory and support chips. The 8-bit Intel 8008, released in 1972, had 16 KB of memory; the Intel 8080 followed in 1974 with 64 KB of memory. The 8080's successor, x86 series, was released in 1978 and is still largely in use today.

In 1987, the first embedded operating system, the real-time VxWorks, was released by Wind River, followed by Microsoft's Windows Embedded CE in 1996. By the late 1990s, the first embedded <u>Linux</u> products began to appear. Today, Linux is used in almost all embedded devices.

Characteristics Of Embedded Systems

The main characteristic of embedded systems is that they are task specific. They perform a single task within a larger system. For example, a mobile phone is *not* an embedded system, it is a combination of embedded systems that together allow it to perform a variety of general-purpose tasks.

The embedded systems within it perform specialized functions. For example, the GUI performs the singular function of allowing the user to interface with the device. In short, they are programmable computers, but designed for specific purposes, not general ones.

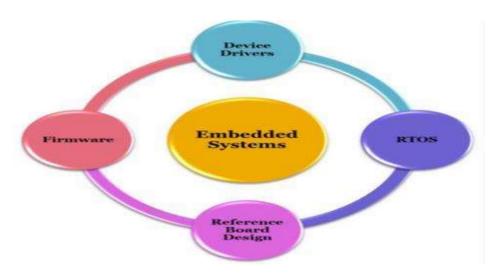


Fig: 2.2 Embedded Systems

The hardware of embedded systems is based around microprocessors and microcontrollers. Microprocessors are very similar to microcontrollers, and generally refer to a CPU that is integrated with other basic computing components such as memory chips and digital signal processors. Microcontrollers have those components built into one chip.

Additionally, embedded systems can include the following characteristics: comprised of hardware, software and firmware.

embedded in a larger system to perform a specific function as they are built for specialized tasks within the system, not various tasks;

either microprocessor-based or microcontroller-based -- both are integrated circuits that give the system compute power;

often used for sensing and real-time computing in internet of things (<u>IoT</u>) devices -- devices that are internet-connected and do not require a user to operate;

vary in complexity and in function, which affects the type of software, firmware and hardware they use.

often required to perform their function under a time constraint to keep the larger system functioning properly.

Embedded systems vary in complexity, but generally consist of three main elements:

• **Hardware.** The hardware of embedded systems is based around microprocessors and microcontrollers. Microprocessors are very similar to microcontrollers, and generally refer to a

CPU that is integrated with other basic computing components such as memory chips and digital signal processors (<u>DSP</u>). Microcontrollers have those components built into one chip.

- **Software.** Software for embedded systems can vary in complexity. However, industrial grade microcontrollers and embedded IoT systems generally run very simple software that requires little memory.
- **Firmware.** Embedded firmware is usually used in more complex embedded systems to connect the software to the hardware. Firmware is the software that interfaces directly with the hardware. A simpler system may just have software directly in the chip, but more complicated systems need firmware under more complex software applications and operating systems.



Fig:2.3 Blocks Of Embedded Systems

2.4 WHY EMBEDDED?

An embedded system is a computer system with a particular defined function within a larger mechanical or electrical system. They control many devices in common use. They consume low power, are of a small size and their cost is low per-unit.

Modern embedded systems are often based on micro-controllers. A micro-controller is a small computer on a single integrated circuit which contains a processor core, memory, and programmable input and output peripherals. As Embedded system is dedicated to perform specific tasks therefore, they can be optimized to reduce the size and cost of the product and increase the reliability and performance.

Almost every Electronic Gadget around us is an Embedded System, digital watches, MP3 players, Washing Machine, Security System, scanner, printer, a cellular phone, Elevators, ATM, Vendor Machines, GPS, traffic lights, Remote Control, Microwave Oven and many more. The uses of embedded systems are virtually limitless because every day new products are introduced to the market which utilize embedded computers in a number of ways.

Embedded Systems has brought about a revolution in Science. It is also a part of a Internet of Things (IoT) – a technology in which objects, animals or people are provided with

unique identifiers and the ability to transfer data over a network without requiring human-to-human or human-to-computer interaction.

Let's make it easy for you. For Example – You are sitting in a train headed to your destination and you are already fifty miles away from your home and suddenly you realise that you forgot to switch of the fan. Not to worry, you can switch it off just by clicking a button on your cell phone using this technology – The Internet of Things.

Well this is just one good thing about IoT. We can monitor Pollution Levels, we can control the intensity of street lights as per the season and weather requirements, IoT can also provide the parents with real-time information about their baby's breathing, skin temperature, body position, and activity level on their smartphones and many other applications which can make our life easy.

The integration of embedded systems into the fabric of modern technology has become an indispensable element, fundamentally reshaping how we interact with and utilize electronic devices. An embedded system, at its core, is a specialized computer system designed to perform dedicated functions within a larger mechanical or electrical system, often with real-time computing constraints. These systems are ubiquitous, ranging from the simple microcontrollers in household appliances to the sophisticated processors in automotive control systems and aerospace applications. The proliferation of embedded systems stems from their ability to deliver precise, reliable, and efficient control in a compact and cost-effective manner.

The architecture of an embedded system typically comprises a microcontroller or microprocessor, memory (ROM, RAM, flash), input/output (I/O) interfaces, and peripheral devices. Unlike general-purpose computers, embedded systems are tailored to specific tasks, leading to optimized hardware and software configurations. This specialization allows for reduced power consumption, smaller form factors, and enhanced performance in targeted applications. The software, often referred to as firmware, is typically embedded within the hardware, providing instructions for the system's operation. Real-time operating systems (RTOS) are frequently employed to manage tasks and ensure timely responses to events, particularly in applications where timing is critical.

The evolution of microcontrollers and microprocessors has been a driving force behind the widespread adoption of embedded systems. Advances in semiconductor technology have resulted in smaller, more powerful, and energy-efficient processors, enabling the integration of complex functionalities into compact devices. The availability of low-cost, high-performance microcontrollers has democratized embedded system development, making it accessible to a broader range of applications. The integration of wireless communication technologies, such as Bluetooth, Wi-Fi, and cellular networks, has further expanded the capabilities of embedded systems, enabling them to connect to the internet and exchange data with other devices.

Embedded systems play a crucial role in the automotive industry, where they control various functions, including engine management, anti-lock braking systems (ABS), airbag deployment, and infotainment systems. The increasing complexity of modern vehicles, with their advanced driver-assistance systems (ADAS) and autonomous driving capabilities, relies heavily on sophisticated embedded systems. These systems process vast amounts of sensor data in real-time to ensure safe and efficient operation. In the aerospace sector, embedded systems are essential for flight control, navigation, and communication. The stringent reliability and safety requirements of aerospace applications necessitate robust and fault-tolerant embedded systems.

The industrial automation domain has also witnessed a significant transformation due to embedded systems. Programmable logic controllers (PLCs) and distributed control systems (DCS) utilize embedded processors to automate manufacturing processes, improve efficiency, and enhance productivity. The Internet of Things (IoT) has further revolutionized industrial automation by enabling remote monitoring and control of equipment, predictive maintenance, and data-driven decision-making. Embedded systems are the foundation of IoT devices, providing the intelligence and connectivity required for seamless data exchange.

In the consumer electronics market, embedded systems are ubiquitous, powering devices such as smartphones, tablets, digital cameras, and smart home appliances. The miniaturization and power efficiency of embedded processors have enabled the development of portable and wearable devices with advanced functionalities. Smart home devices, such as thermostats, lighting systems, and security cameras, rely on embedded systems to provide automation and remote-control capabilities. The healthcare industry also benefits from embedded systems, which are used in medical devices such as pacemakers, insulin pumps, and patient monitoring systems. These systems provide critical functions, ensuring patient safety and improving the quality of care.

Embedded system engineers must possess a strong understanding of microcontroller architecture, programming languages, real-time operating systems, and communication

protocols. The design process involves careful consideration of factors such as power consumption, performance, reliability, and cost. The increasing complexity of embedded systems has led to the development of specialized tools and methodologies for hardware and software development, simulation, and testing.

In conclusion, embedded systems are the unsung heroes of modern technology, powering a vast array of devices and applications. Their ability to deliver precise, reliable, and efficient control in a compact and cost-effective manner has made them indispensable in numerous industries. As technology continues to evolve, embedded systems will play an increasingly vital role in shaping our digital future, enabling smarter, more connected, and more efficient systems.



Fig: 2.4 Embedded Systems Hardware

2.5 DESIGN APPROACHES

The design of embedded systems, those specialized computing systems integrated into larger devices or machines, demands a multifaceted approach that balances performance, power consumption, cost, and reliability. Unlike general-purpose computers, embedded systems are typically designed for specific tasks and operate within constrained environments, necessitating meticulous planning and execution.

The design process commences with a thorough understanding of the application's requirements, including the desired functionality, performance targets, power budget, and environmental constraints. This phase involves close collaboration between hardware and software engineers to define the system's architecture and specifications.

A key aspect of embedded system design is the selection of the appropriate hardware platform. This involves choosing a microcontroller or microprocessor that meets the

application's processing power, memory, and peripheral requirements. Microcontrollers, with their integrated peripherals and low power consumption, are often preferred for simpler embedded systems. Microprocessors, on the other hand, offer higher performance and are suitable for more complex applications. The choice of memory, including RAM and flash memory, is also critical, as it directly impacts the system's performance and storage capacity. Peripheral selection, such as Analog-to-digital converters (ADCs), digital-to-Analog converters (DACs), communication interfaces (UART, SPI, I2C), and sensors, is determined by the application's input/output requirements.

Once the hardware platform is selected, the design process moves to the software development phase. Embedded software, also known as firmware, is responsible for controlling the hardware and implementing the application's functionality. Due to the resource constraints of embedded systems, software development often involves optimizing code for size and performance. Real-time operating systems (RTOS) are frequently used to manage tasks and ensure timely execution of critical operations. An RTOS provides a framework for scheduling tasks, managing resources, and handling interrupts, enabling the development of complex and responsive embedded systems.

The choice of programming language is another important consideration. C and C++ are widely used in embedded systems due to their efficiency and low-level control. However, other languages, such as Python and Java, are gaining popularity for certain applications, particularly those involving machine learning or network connectivity. Embedded software development tools, such as compilers, debuggers, and integrated development environments (IDEs), play a crucial role in streamlining the development process. These tools provide features for code editing, compilation, debugging, and simulation, enabling developers to create and test embedded software efficiently.

Embedded systems often interact with the physical world through sensors and actuators. Interfacing with these devices requires careful consideration of signal conditioning, noise reduction, and data acquisition techniques. Signal conditioning circuits are used to amplify, filter, and convert sensor signals into a format suitable for the microcontroller or microprocessor. Noise reduction techniques, such as shielding and filtering, are essential for ensuring accurate and reliable data acquisition. Actuators, such as motors and relays, are used to control physical devices. Interfacing with actuators requires careful consideration of power requirements, control signals, and feedback mechanisms.

Power management is a critical aspect of embedded system design, particularly for battery-powered devices. Techniques such as clock gating, power gating, and dynamic voltage and frequency scaling (DVFS) are used to minimize power consumption. Clock gating involves disabling the clock signal to unused modules, while power gating involves completely shutting down unused modules. DVFS involves adjusting the voltage and frequency of the processor based on the workload, reducing power consumption during periods of low activity.

Reliability and robustness are paramount in embedded systems, especially those operating in critical applications. Techniques such as error detection and correction, redundancy, and fault tolerance are used to ensure reliable operation. Error detection and correction codes are used to detect and correct errors in memory and communication channels. Redundancy involves duplicating critical components or functions to provide backup in case of failure. Fault tolerance involves designing the system to continue operating even in the presence of faults.

Testing and verification are essential steps in the embedded system design process. Hardware testing involves verifying the functionality and performance of the hardware components. Software testing involves verifying the functionality and performance of the embedded software. System-level testing involves verifying the overall functionality and performance of the embedded system. Testing techniques such as unit testing, integration testing, and system testing are used to ensure the quality and reliability of the embedded system. In recent years, the internet of things (IoT) has significantly impacted embedded system design. IoT devices are embedded systems that are connected to the internet, enabling remote monitoring and control. IoT applications often involve cloud computing, data analytics, and machine learning. Designing IoT devices requires careful consideration of network connectivity, security, and data privacy.

The increasing complexity of embedded systems has led to the adoption of model-based design (MBD) techniques. MBD involves using graphical models to represent the system's generate code automatically. This approach can improve design efficiency and reduce errors. Hardware/software co-design is also becoming increasingly important, as it enables the simultaneous design of hardware and software, optimizing the system's overall performance.

In conclusion, embedded system design is a complex and challenging field that requires a multidisciplinary approach. By carefully considering the application's requirements, selecting the appropriate hardware and software components, and implementing robust design

techniques, engineers can create embedded systems that are reliable, efficient, and costeffective.

A system designed with the embedding of hardware and software together for a specific function with a larger area is an embedded system design. In embedded system design, a microcontroller plays a vital role. Micro-controller is based on Harvard architecture, it is an important component of an embedded system. External processor, internal memory, and i/o components are interfaced with the microcontroller. It occupies less area and less power consumption. The application of microcontrollers is MP3 and washing machines.

Critical Embedded Systems (CES) are systems in which failures are potentially catastrophic and, therefore, hard constraints are imposed on them. In the last years the amount of software accommodated within CES has considerably changed. For example, in smart cars the amount of software has grown about 100 times compared to previous years. This change means that software design for these systems is also bounded to hard constraints (e.g., high security and performance). Along the evolution of CES, the approaches for designing them are also changing rapidly, so as to fit the specialized needs of CES. Thus, a broad understanding of such approaches is missing.

Steps in the Embedded System Design Process

The different steps in the embedded system design flow/flow diagram include the following.

In this stage the problem related to the system is abstracted.

Hardware - Software Architecture

Proper knowledge of hardware and software to be known before starting any design process.

Extra Functional Properties

Extra functions to be implemented are to be understood completely from the main design.

System Related Family of Design

When designing a system, one should refer to a previous system-related family of design.

Modular Design

Separate module designs must be made so that they can be used later on when required.

Mapping

Based on software mapping is done. For example, data flow and program flow are mapped into one.

User Interface Design

In user interface design it depends on user requirements, environment analysis and function of the system. For example, on a mobile phone if we want to reduce the power consumption of mobile phones, we take care of other parameters, so that power consumption can be reduced.

Table: 2.1 Design Parameters And Functions Of An Embedded System

| Power Dissipation | Always maintained low | |
|--------------------|---|--|
| Performance | Should be high | |
| Process Deadlines | The process/task should be completed within a specified time. | |
| Manufacturing Cost | Should be maintained. | |
| Engineering Cost | It is the cost for the edit-test-debug of hardware and software. | |
| Prototype | It is the total time taken for developing a system and testing it. | |
| Size | Size is defined in terms of memory | |
| Maintenance | Proper maintenance of the system must be taken, in order to avoid system failure. | |
| Time to market | It is the time taken for the product/system developed to be launched into the market. | |

Architectural description language is used to describe the software design.

- Control Hierarchy
- Partition of structure
- Data structure and hierarchy
- Software Procedure.

In user interface design it depends on user requirements, environment analysis and function of the system. For example, on a mobile phone if we want to reduce the power consumption of mobile phones, we take care of other parameters, so that power consumption can be reduced. To help countries and health-care facilities to achieve system change and adopt alcohol-based handrubs as the gold standard for hand hygiene in health care, WHO has identified formulations for their local preparation. Logistic, economic, safety, and cultural.

Automobiles: Modern cars commonly consist of many computers (sometimes as many as 100), or embedded systems, designed to perform different tasks within the vehicle. Some of these systems perform basic utility function and others provide entertainment or user-facing

functions. Some embedded systems in consumer vehicles include cruise control, backup sensors, suspension control, navigation systems and airbag systems.

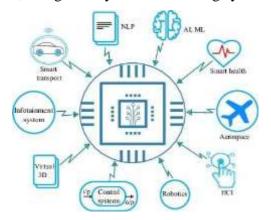


Fig: 2.5 Applications Of Embedded Systems

- **Mobile phones.** These consist of many embedded systems, including GUI software and hardware, operating systems, cameras, microphones and USB I/O modules.
- **Industrial machines.** They can contain embedded systems, like sensors, and can be embedded systems themselves. Industrial machines often have embedded automation systems that perform specific monitoring and control functions.
- **Medical equipment:** These may contain embedded systems like sensors and control mechanisms. Medical equipment, such as industrial machines, also must be very user friendly, so that human health isn't jeopardized by preventable machine mistakes. This means they'll often include a more complex OS and GUI designed for an appropriate UI.

The choice of components for the WHO-recommended handrub formulations takes into account cost constraints and microbicidal activity. The following two formulations are recommended for local production with a maximum of 50 litres per lot to ensure safety in production and storage.

2.6 COMBINATION OF LOGIC DEVICES

Logic gates are physical devices that use combinational logic to switch an electrical one ("1") or zero ("0") to downstream blocks in digital design. Combinational logic uses those bits to send or receive data within embedded systems. Data bits build into digital words used to communicate with other design blocks within the system. Digital bits and words do this with logic gates in an organized fashion using dedicated address, data, or control signal nodes. Logic gates are the physical devices that enable processing of many 1's and 0's.

The orchestration of logic devices within complex electronic systems is a fundamental aspect of digital circuit design, enabling the realization of intricate functionalities from basic building blocks. The combination of logic devices, such as AND, OR, NOT, NAND, NOR, and XOR gates, along with more advanced components like multiplexers, decoders, flip-flops, and counters, forms the bedrock of digital systems ranging from simple control circuits to sophisticated microprocessors. The art of combining these devices lies in understanding their individual characteristics and leveraging their collective behavior to achieve desired logical outcomes.

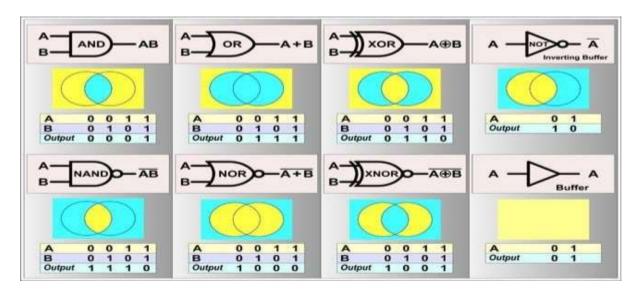


Fig: 2.6 Logic Gates

At the most fundamental level, Boolean algebra provides the mathematical framework for analyzing and synthesizing logic circuits. The basic logic gates, AND, OR, and NOT, represent the elementary logical operations of conjunction, disjunction, and negation, respectively. By interconnecting these gates in various configurations, complex logical expressions can be implemented. For example, a combination of AND and OR gates can realize a sum-of-products (SOP) or product-of-sums (POS) expression, which are standard forms for representing Boolean functions. The NAND and NOR gates, being functionally complete, can implement any Boolean function by themselves, offering flexibility in circuit design.

The combination of logic gates extends beyond basic Boolean operations to encompass more complex functions. Multiplexers (MUX) and decoders are essential components in data selection and address decoding, respectively. A multiplexer selects one of several input signals based on a select input, while a decoder activates one of several output lines based on a binary input. These devices are often constructed using combinations of basic logic gates, demonstrating the hierarchical nature of digital circuit design. For instance, a 4-to-1 multiplexer

can be implemented using AND and OR gates, where the select inputs control the enabling of specific AND gates, and the outputs of these AND gates are combined using an OR gate.

Sequential logic circuits, which incorporate memory elements, introduce the dimension of time into digital systems. Flip-flops, such as D flip-flops, JK flip-flops, and T flip-flops, are fundamental building blocks of sequential circuits, storing binary information and changing state based on clock signals. These flip-flops are often constructed using combinations of NAND or NOR gates, highlighting the versatility of these basic logic devices. Counters, which increment or decrement their output values based on clock pulses, are another essential sequential circuit constructed using interconnected flip-flops. Shift registers, which move binary data serially or in parallel, are also built using flip-flops, demonstrating the power of combining these memory elements.

The design of complex digital systems often involves hierarchical decomposition, where a large system is broken down into smaller, manageable modules. Each module can be designed and tested independently, and then interconnected to form the complete system. This modular approach simplifies the design process and enhances maintainability. For example, an arithmetic logic unit (ALU), which performs arithmetic and logical operations, can be constructed using combinations of adders, subtractors, comparators, and logic gates. Each of these sub-modules can be further decomposed into simpler logic circuits, illustrating the layered structure of digital design.

Programmable logic devices (PLDs), such as field-programmable gate arrays (FPGAs), offer a flexible platform for implementing custom logic circuits. FPGAs consist of an array of configurable logic blocks (CLBs) and programmable interconnects. CLBs contain look-up tables (LUTs), which can implement arbitrary Boolean functions, and flip-flops for sequential logic. The programmable interconnects allow for the interconnection of CLBs, enabling the realization of complex digital circuits. FPGAs provide a powerful tool for prototyping and implementing custom hardware, offering a balance between performance and flexibility.

The integration of logic devices in modern systems often involves the use of hardware description languages (HDLs), such as Verilog and VHDL. HDLs allow designers to describe the behavior and structure of digital circuits at a high level of abstraction. These descriptions can be synthesized into gate-level implementations, which can then be mapped onto target hardware, such as FPGAs or application-specific integrated circuits (ASICs). HDLs facilitate

the design and verification of complex digital systems, enabling designers to focus on the functional aspects of the circuit rather than the low-level details of gate interconnections.

The combination of logic devices extends beyond traditional digital circuits to encompass emerging technologies such as quantum computing and neuromorphic computing. Quantum logic gates, such as Hadamard gates and CNOT gates, operate on qubits, which can exist in superposition states. Neuromorphic computing, inspired by the human brain, employs spiking neural networks (SNNs) and memristors to implement energy-efficient and fault-tolerant computing systems. These technologies represent a paradigm shift in computing, offering the potential for solving complex problems that are intractable for classical computers.

In conclusion, the combination of logic devices is a fundamental aspect of digital circuit design, enabling the realization of complex functionalities from basic building blocks. The art of combining these devices lies in understanding their individual characteristics and leveraging their collective behavior to achieve desired logical outcomes. From basic Boolean operations to complex sequential circuits and programmable logic devices, the orchestration of logic devices forms the bedrock of modern digital systems, driving innovation in various fields.

Logic families are collections of integrated circuits containing logic gates that perform functions needed by embedded systems to communicate with one another to drive the design. Logic gates are organized into families relative to the type of material and its operational characteristics.

Most logic gates are made from silicon, although some utilize gallium arsenide or other semiconductor materials. The semiconductor material is doped for organization into layers. The doped layers drive power capabilities and typical impedances at input or outputs of each gate. Logic gates used together must employ the same, or complementary, material properties. Knowledge of material properties for logic gates will drive selection of parts within design blocks.

Embedded systems' evolution was built from combinational logic families made possible from the discovery of the transistor. The transistor is made from semiconductor material and is compact. It is able to handle large amounts of power quickly. The transistor employs three terminals to activate electron flow for use in downstream devices as electricity.

Electricity represented as 1's and 0's combines to communicate information throughout an embedded system. Because of its compact size, many millions of transistors combine within

very small spaces. This allows millions of gates to operate in compact areas while transmitting and receiving mind-boggling amounts of intelligence through combinational logic. This is all accomplished within a minimal power budget.

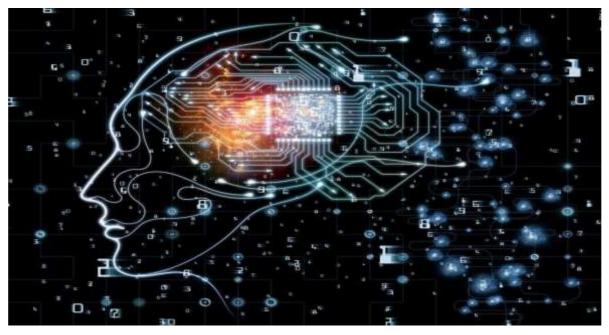


Fig:2.7 Embedded Systems Group

CHAPTER 3

SOFTWARE REQUIREMENTS

3.1 SOFTWARE

Embedded System Software

Embedded system software, a specialized domain within software engineering, is the lifeblood of countless devices that permeate our daily lives, from simple household appliances to complex industrial machinery. Unlike general-purpose software designed for computers, embedded software is tailored to perform specific tasks within constrained hardware environments. These constraints often include limited processing power, memory, and power consumption, demanding a high degree of efficiency and optimization. The development of embedded software necessitates a deep understanding of both hardware and software, bridging the gap between physical components and functional logic.

At its core, embedded software is designed to interact directly with hardware, controlling and monitoring various peripherals and sensors. This interaction is typically achieved through low-level programming languages like C or C++, which provide direct access to hardware registers and memory locations. Assembly language may also be employed for critical sections of code requiring maximum performance. Real-time operating systems (RTOS) are frequently used to manage the execution of multiple tasks within the embedded system. RTOS provide scheduling algorithms that ensure timely execution of critical tasks, meeting stringent real-time requirements. These operating systems differ significantly from general-purpose operating systems, prioritizing deterministic behavior and minimal latency.

The development process for embedded software is often iterative and involves close collaboration between hardware and software engineers. Hardware specifications dictate the constraints and capabilities of the software, while software requirements define the functionality and performance of the device. Cross-compilers are essential tools in embedded development, translating source code written on a host computer into machine code that can run on the target embedded processor. Debugging embedded software can be challenging due to the limited visibility into the target system's internal state. In-circuit emulators (ICE) and debuggers are used to analyze the execution of the software, identify bugs, and optimize performance.

Embedded software must be robust and reliable, as failures can have significant consequences, especially in safety-critical applications like automotive, aerospace, and medical devices. Techniques such as fault tolerance, redundancy, and rigorous testing are employed to ensure the software's reliability. Memory management is crucial in embedded systems, where memory resources are often limited. Dynamic memory allocation is often avoided due to its unpredictable behavior, and static memory allocation is preferred. Power management is another critical consideration, particularly for battery-powered devices. Techniques such as clock gating, power gating, and low-power modes are used to minimize power consumption.

The architecture of embedded software is often modular, with well-defined interfaces between different software components. This modularity facilitates code reuse, simplifies maintenance, and enables parallel development. Device drivers play a crucial role in embedded systems, providing a software interface to hardware peripherals. Drivers must be carefully designed to ensure efficient and reliable communication with the hardware. Communication protocols, such as UART, SPI, I2C, and Ethernet, are commonly used to exchange data between different components of the embedded system or with external devices.

Embedded software development is increasingly influenced by the Internet of Things (IoT). IoT devices often rely on embedded systems to collect data, communicate with other devices, and perform local processing. IoT software must be designed to handle communication with cloud-based services, manage network connectivity, and ensure data security. Security is a paramount concern in embedded systems, especially in connected devices. Embedded software must be protected against unauthorized access, malware, and data breaches. Secure boot, encryption, and authentication mechanisms are essential for ensuring the security of embedded systems.

The development of embedded software is also impacted by the increasing complexity of embedded systems. Modern embedded devices often incorporate multiple processors, complex peripherals, and sophisticated algorithms. Software development tools are evolving to support this complexity, providing features such as model-based design, code generation, and automated testing. The use of higher-level programming languages and frameworks is also becoming more common, enabling developers to create complex embedded software more efficiently. Open-source software is widely used in embedded systems, providing access to a vast library of reusable components and tools. Linux, in particular, is a popular operating system for embedded devices, offering a rich set of features and a large community of developers.

The future of embedded software is likely to be shaped by advancements in artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML). Embedded systems are increasingly incorporating AI and ML algorithms to perform tasks such as image recognition, voice processing, and predictive maintenance. Edge computing, where processing is performed locally on the embedded device, is becoming more prevalent, reducing the reliance on cloud-based services. Embedded software will play a crucial role in enabling these advancements, providing the necessary processing power and real-time capabilities. As embedded systems become more sophisticated and interconnected, the demand for skilled embedded software engineers will continue to grow.

A typical industrial microcontroller is unsophisticated compared to the typical enterprise desktop computer and generally depends on a simpler, less-memory-intensive program environment. The simplest devices run on bare metal and are programmed directly using the chip CPU's machine code language.

Often, embedded systems use operating systems or language platforms tailored to embedded use, particularly where real-time operating environments must be served. At higher levels of chip capability, such as those found in SoCs, designers have increasingly decided the systems are generally fast enough and the tasks tolerant of slight variations in reaction time that near-real-time approaches are suitable. In these instances, stripped-down versions of the Linux operating system are commonly deployed, although other operating systems have been pared down to run on embedded systems, including Embedded Java and Windows IoT (formerly Windows Embedded).

Generally, storage of programs and operating systems on embedded devices make use of either flash or rewritable flash memory.

Many "traditional" embedded systems are, or were, disconnected systems that had no access to the Internet. With the big push for the IoT, many systems are now adding wireless or wired connectivity and streaming loads of data up to the cloud for processing and storage. The traditional embedded software developer in general doesn't have much experience with setting up cloud services, working with MQTT, or the many other technologies that are required for use with the cloud. There are several activities that developers should put into their calendars this year in order to become more familiar with cloud connectivity.

These activities include:

- Setting up a cloud service provider such as Amazon Web Services, Google Cloud.
- Set up private and public keys along with a device certificate.
- Write a device policy for devices connecting to the cloud service
- Connect an embedded system to the cloud service
- Transmit and receive information to the cloud
- Build a basic dashboard to examine data in the cloud and control the device

If developers are able to do these things, they will have built a good foundation from which to master cloud connectivity for their embedded systems.

Software requirements

Software requirements deal with defining software resource requirements and prerequisites that need to be installed on a computer to provide optimal functioning of an application. These requirements or prerequisites are generally not included in the software installation package and need to be installed separately before the software is installed.

Platform

A computing platform describes some sort of framework, either in hardware or software, which allows software to run. [2] Typical platforms include a computer's architecture, operating system, or programming languages and their runtime libraries.

Operating system is one of the requirements mentioned when defining system requirements (software). Software may not be compatible with different versions of same line of operating systems, although some measure of backward compatibility is often maintained. For example, most software designed for Microsoft Windows XP does not run on Microsoft Windows 98, although the converse is not always true. Similarly, software designed using newer features of Linux Kernel v2.6 generally does not run or compile properly (or at all) on Linux distributions using Kernel v2.2 or v.

APIs and drivers

Software making extensive use of special hardware devices, like high-end display adapters, needs special API or newer device drivers. A good example is DirectX, which is a collection of APIs for handling tasks related to multimedia, especially game programming, on Microsoft platforms.

Web browser

Most web applications and software depend heavily on web technologies to make use of the default browser installed on the system. Microsoft Internet Explorer is a frequent choice of

software running on Microsoft Windows, which makes use of ActiveX controls, despite their vulnerable.

- Arduino IDE is an open-source software that is mainly used for writing and compiling the code into the Arduino Module.
- It is an official Arduino software, making code compilation too easy that even a common person with no prior technical knowledge can get their feet wet with the learning process.
- It is easily available for operating systems like MAC, Windows, Linux and runs on the Java Platform that comes with inbuilt functions and commands that play a vital role for debugging, editing and compiling the code in the environment.
- A range of Arduino modules available including Arduino Uno, Arduino Mega, Arduino Leonardo, Arduino Micro and many more.
- Each of them contains a microcontroller on the board that is actually programmed and accepts the information in the form of code.
- The main code, also known as a sketch, created on the IDE platform will ultimately generate a Hex File which is then transferred and uploaded in the controller on the board.
- The IDE environment mainly contains two basic parts: Editor and Compiler where former is used for writing the required code and later is used for compiling and uploading the code into the given Arduino Module.
- This environment supports both C and C++ languages.

How to Download Esp32 in Arduino IDE

To install the ESP32 board in your Arduino IDE, follow these next instructions:

1. In your Arduino IDE, go to **File> Preferences**

Software may not be compatible with different versions of same line of operating systems, although some measure of backward compatibility is often maintained. For example, most software designed for Microsoft Windows XP does not run on Microsoft Windows 98, although the converse is not always true. Similarly, software designed using newer features of Linux Kernel v2.6 generally does not run or compile properly (or at all) on Linux distributions using Kernel v2.2 or v.

• Each of them contains a microcontroller on the board that is actually programmed and accepts the information in the form of code.

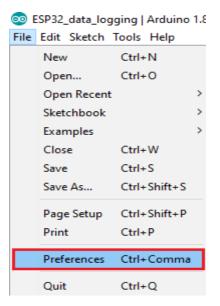


Fig:3.1 ESP32 Logging

- 2. Enter the following into the "Additional Board Manager URLs" field: https://raw.githubusercontent.com/espressif/arduino-esp32/gh-pages/package_esp32_index.json
- 1. Then, click the "OK" button:

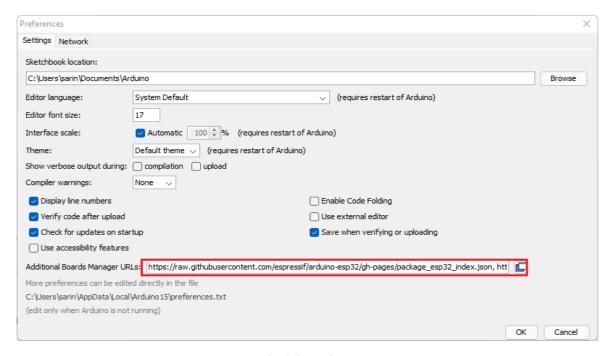


Fig:3.2 Preferences

Note: if you already have the ESP8266 boards URL, you can separate the URLs with a comma as follows:

https://raw.githubusercontent.com/espressif/arduino-esp32/ghpages/package_esp32_index.json,

http://arduino.esp8266.com/stable/package_esp8266com_index.json

2. Open the Boards Manager. Go to **Tools** > **Board** > **Boards Manager...**

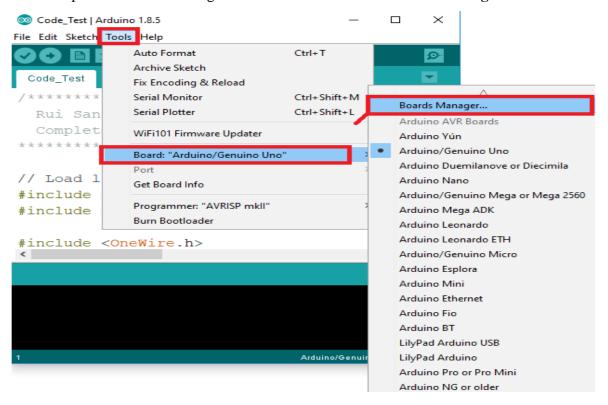


Fig:3.3 Code Test

3. Search for ESP32 and press install button for the "ESP32 by Espressif Systems":

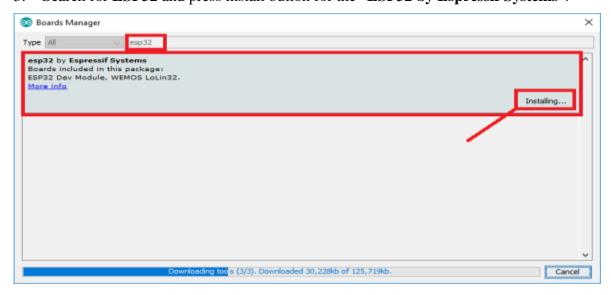


Fig:3.4 Board Manager 1

4. That's it. It should be installed after a few seconds.

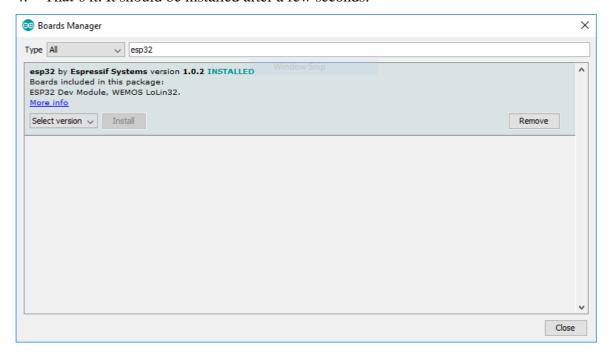


Fig:3.5 Board Manager 2

Now you can download the Software from Arduino main website. As I said earlier, the software is available for common operating systems like Linux, Windows, and MAX, so make sure you are downloading the correct software version that is easily compatible with your operating system.

- If you aim to download Windows app version, make sure you have Windows 8.1 or Windows 10, as app version is not compatible with Windows 7 or older version of this operating system.
- You can download the latest version of Arduino IDE for Windows (Non-Admin standalone version)

The IDE environment is mainly distributed into three sections

- 1. Menu Bar
- 2. Text Editor
- 3. Output Pane

As you download and open the IDE software, it will appear like an image below.

Ongoing Research is to sustain physical tampering, mechanisms to trust the software, authenticate the data and securely communicate over internet. With the advent of IoT/IoE, not only the number devices will continue to increase but also will the **number of possible attack vectors**.

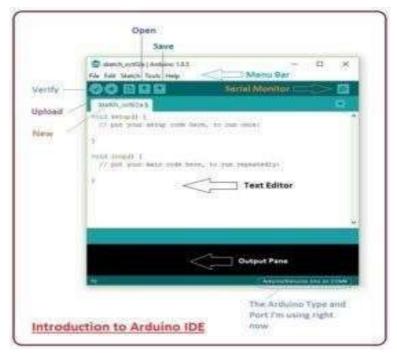


Fig:3.6 Arduino IDE

How to Download New Libraries on Arduino IDE

• Go to the "tools" section on the top left of the Arduino IDE.



Fig: 3.7 Arduino IDE Tools

• Select "Manage Libraries" (or) directly press "ctrl+shift+I" on your keyboard.

Security remains a great challenge even today. Ongoing Research is to sustain physical tampering, mechanisms to trust the software.

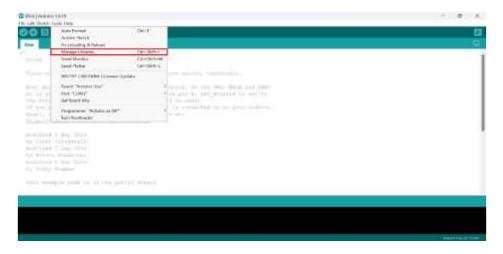


Fig: 3.8 Manage

• Now we can observe a dialogue box opening with the name "Library manager".



Fig: 3.9 Manage Library

• Search for the library you want to install and press enter.



Fig: 3.1.1 Arduino IDE

Select the Library and version you want and click on "Install".

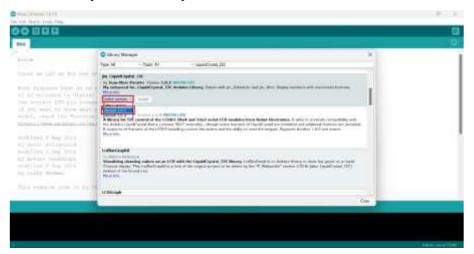


Fig: 3.1.2 Arduino IDE



Fig: 3.1.3 Arduino IDE

3.2 RESEARCH

The embedded systems industry was born with the invention of microcontrollers and since then it has evolved into various forms, from primarily being designed for machine control applications to various other new verticals with the convergence of communications. Today it spans right form small metering devices to the multi-functional smartphones. I will cover the areas that are currently focused for development in embedded systems and state what are the ongoing research opportunities in that particular area.

Security

Security remains a great challenge even today. Ongoing Research is to sustain physical tampering, mechanisms to trust the software, authenticate the data and securely communicate over internet. With the advent of IoT/IoE, not only the number devices will continue to increase

but also will the **number of possible attack vectors**. Many challenges remain ahead to get the connected devices on a billion scale.

Connectivity

Wi-Fi, BLE, ZigBee, Thread, ANT, etc have been adapted by embedded system experts from considerable time. Head-on competition between these groups is in progress to determine as to who will emerge as the best solution provider to this huge estimated market of IoT/IoE. 4G/5G on low power devices is the ongoing experimentation which will make embedded systems easily and robustly connect to the internet. Communication using GSM/LTE in licensed/unlicensed communication bands with the cloud can change the ball game of IoE all together.

Memory

Various type of volatile/non-volatile memories with variable sizes and speeds are widely available today. Research is more towards **organizing** them in best possible architecture to reach closer to the design goal of **optimal power-performance-cost**.

Energy

Power/Battery management has been under focus for some time. Usage of **renewable resources** to power device's lifetime is currently the challenge that is tried to address; especially for wearables. Optimal power usage to get **Longer Battery Life** with new Hardware/Software architectural designs will continue for some time.

Performance

Real-time on-board Image/Video/Audio processing, feature enabled cameras, on board machine **Machine learning** are all currently experimented with varied approaches. Commercialization of these technologies has already started but there is still some time to get the best out of these technologies and there is lot of scope to make them more user friendly.

Other than this, **hardening of modular software functionalities** (Yes lot of architectures are coming up with hardware performing redundant software functionalities). Ongoing research is to analyse the performance and determine the applications where this strategy can be fruitful.

Networking

Wireless Sensor Networks, Machine to Machine Communication/Interaction, Human Computer Interaction, Security Gateway protocols are still being improved. Light weight algorithms with optimal security will be targeted for embedded systems.

CHAPTER 4

HARDWARE REQUIREMENTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION TO ESP8266:

The **ESP8266** is a powerful, low-cost, and highly versatile system-on-chip (SoC) developed by **Espress if Systems**. It is widely used in a variety of applications, including Internet of Things (IoT) projects, home automation, robotics, sensor networks, and wearable devices. The ESP8266 is popular due to its combination of performance, power efficiency, and integrated wireless connectivity options (Wi-Fi and Bluetooth).

The ESP8266, a marvel of modern microelectronics, stands as a testament to the relentless pursuit of compact, powerful, and versatile embedded systems. This System on a Chip (SoC), designed and manufactured by Espress if Systems, has rapidly ascended to prominence within the maker, hobbyist, and industrial communities, thanks to its compelling blend of processing power, wireless connectivity, and affordability. The ESP8266 is not merely a microcontroller; it's a comprehensive platform, integrating a dual-core or single-core Tensilica LX6 microprocessor, a wide array of peripherals, and robust wireless capabilities, all within a small footprint. This integration renders it a formidable tool for a diverse range of applications, from simple home automation projects to sophisticated industrial control systems.

At its core, the ESP8266 boasts a powerful processor, capable of clock speeds up to 240 MHz. This processing prowess enables the execution of complex algorithms and real-time operations, essential for applications demanding precise control and rapid response. The dual-core architecture, particularly prevalent in many ESP8266 variants, allows for parallel processing, enhancing the system's ability to handle multiple tasks concurrently. This is particularly advantageous in applications requiring simultaneous execution of communication protocols, data processing, and control functions. The inclusion of ample memory, including RAM and flash memory, further enhances the ESP8266's capabilities, providing sufficient space for program storage and data manipulation.

However, the ESP8266's true strength lies in its integrated wireless connectivity. It features built-in Wi-Fi and Bluetooth capabilities, enabling seamless communication with other devices and networks. The Wi-Fi module supports 802.11 b/g/n standards, allowing for reliable and high-speed data transfer. This enables the ESP8266 to connect to local networks, the

internet, and cloud services, opening up a plethora of possibilities for IoT applications. The Bluetooth module, supporting both classic Bluetooth and Bluetooth Low Energy (BLE), facilitates short-range communication with devices such as smartphones, sensors, and actuators. BLE's low power consumption makes it particularly suitable for battery-powered applications, where energy efficiency is paramount.

The ESP8266's versatility is further amplified by its rich set of peripherals. These include a wide range of input/output (I/O) pins, analog-to-digital converters (ADCs), digital-to-analog converters (DACs), pulse-width modulation (PWM) outputs, and various communication interfaces, such as UART, SPI, and I2C. This comprehensive set of peripherals enables the ESP8266 to interface with a vast array of sensors, actuators, and other external devices. The ADCs, for instance, allow for the measurement of analog signals, such as temperature, light, and voltage, while the PWM outputs enable the control of motors, LEDs, and other analog devices. The communication interfaces facilitate the exchange of data with other microcontrollers, sensors, and peripherals.

The ESP8266's open-source nature and extensive community support have contributed significantly to its popularity. Espress if Systems provides comprehensive documentation, software development kits (SDKs), and example code, making it easy for developers to get started. The vibrant online community offers a wealth of resources, including tutorials, libraries, and forums, where users can share knowledge and seek assistance. This collaborative environment fosters innovation and accelerates the development of new applications. The Arduino IDE, a popular platform for microcontroller programming, also supports the ESP8266, further simplifying the development process for beginners and experienced developers alike.

The ESP8266's low power consumption, coupled with its powerful processing capabilities and wireless connectivity, makes it an ideal choice for battery-powered IoT devices. Applications such as smart sensors, wearable devices, and remote monitoring systems can leverage the ESP8266's features to achieve long battery life and reliable performance. Its ability to operate in low-power modes and wake up on specific events further enhances its energy efficiency. The ESP8266's robust security features, including hardware-based encryption and secure boot, make it suitable for applications requiring secure communication and data protection.

In conclusion, the ESP8266 represents a significant advancement in embedded systems

technology. Its integration of powerful processing capabilities, robust wireless connectivity, and a comprehensive set of peripherals, all within a compact and affordable package, has revolutionized the landscape of IoT and embedded development. Its open-source nature, extensive community support, and versatile feature set have made it a favorite among developers and hobbyists alike. As the demand for connected devices continues to grow, the ESP8266 is poised to play an increasingly prominent role in shaping the future of embedded systems.



Fig:4.1 ESP8266 Diagram

The ESP8266 is a microcontroller with a number of components, including: Processor:

- Flash: External QSPI flash that can support up to 16 MiB
- Wi-Fi: IEEE 802.11 b/g/n Wi-Fi with an integrated TR switch, balun, LNA, power amplifier, and matching network
- The ESP8266 is a low-power, highly integrated microcontroller that can operate in a wide temperature range of -40°C to +125°C. It can be used as a stand-alone device or connected to a microcontroller (MCU).

4.2 MAIN PARTS OF ESP8266:

The ESP8266 is a low-cost, high-performance Wi-Fi microcontroller chip with integrated TCP/IP stack. It's widely used in IoT (Internet of Things) applications due to its affordability and versatility.

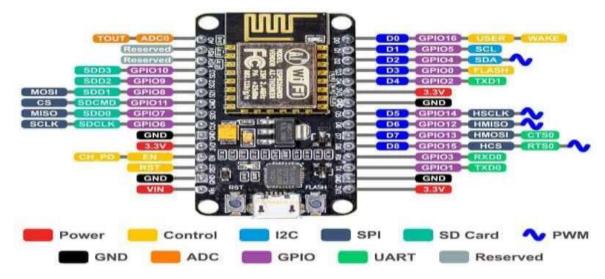


Fig:4.2 ESP8266 Pins description

| Official Node MCU | LoLin Node MCU |
|--------------------|----------------|
| Microcontroller | ESP 8266-bit |
| Node MCU Model | Amica |
| Node MCU Size | 49mm x 26mm |
| Carrier Board Size | 102mm x 51mm |
| Pin Spacing | 0.9" (22.86mm) |
| Clock Speed | 80 MHz |
| USB to Serial | CP2102 |
| USB Connector | Micro USB |
| Operating Voltage | 3.3V |
| Input Voltage | 4.5V-10V |
| Flash Memory/SRAM | 4 MB / 64 KB |
| Digital I/O Pins | 11 |
| Analog In Pins | 1 |
| ADC Range | 0-3.3V |

| UART/SPI/I2C | 1/1/1 |
|-------------------|--------------|
| WiFi Built-In | 802.11 b/g/n |
| Temperature Range | -40C - 125C |

- Power Pins There are four power pins. VIN pin and three 3.3V pins.
- VIN can be used to directly supply the NodeMCU/ESP8266 and its peripherals. Power delivered on VIN is regulated through the onboard regulator on the NodeMCU module you can also supply 5V regulated to the VIN pin
- 3.3V pins are the output of the onboard voltage regulator and can be used to supply power to external components.
- GND are the ground pins of Node MCU/ESP8266
- I2C Pins are used to connect I2C sensors and peripherals. Both I2C Master and I2C Slave are supported. I2C interface functionality can be realized programmatically, and the clock frequency is 100 kHz at a maximum. It should be noted that I2C clock frequency should be higher than the slowest clock frequency of the slave device.
- GPIO Pins Node MCU/ESP8266 has 17 GPIO pins which can be assigned to functions such as I2C, I2S, UART, PWM, IR Remote Control, LED Light and Button programmatically. Each digital enabled GPIO can be configured to internal pull-up or pull-down, or set to high impedance. When configured as an input, it can also be set to edge-trigger or level-trigger to generate CPU interrupts.
- ADC Channel The Node MCU is embedded with a 10-bit precision SAR ADC. The two functions can be implemented using ADC. Testing power supply voltage of VDD3P3 pin and testing input voltage of TOUT pin. However, they cannot be implemented at the same time.
- UART Pins Node MCU/ESP8266 has 2 UART interfaces (UART0 and UART1) which provide asynchronous communication (RS232 and RS485), and can communicate at up to 4.5 Mbps. UART0 (TXD0, RXD0, RST0 & CTS0 pins) can be used for communication. However, UART1 (TXD1 pin) features only data transmit signal so, it is usually used for printing log.
- SPI Pins Node MCU/ESP8266 features two SPIs (SPI and HSPI) in slave and master modes. These SPIs also support the following general-purpose SPI features:
- 4 timing modes of the SPI format transfer

- Up to 80 MHz and the divided clocks of 80 MHz
- Up to 64-Byte FIFO
- SDIO Pins Node MCU/ESP8266 features Secure Digital Input/Output Interface (SDIO) which is used to directly interface SD cards. 4-bit 25 MHz SDIO v1.1 and 4-bit 50 MHz SDIO v2.0 are supported.
- PWM Pins The board has 4 channels of Pulse Width Modulation (PWM). The PWM output can be implemented programmatically and used for driving digital motors and LEDs. PWM frequency range is adjustable from 1000 μs to 10000 μs (100 Hz and 1 kHz).
- Control Pins are used to control the Node MCU/ESP8266. These pins include Chip Enable pin (EN), Reset pin (RST) and WAKE pin.
- EN: The ESP8266 chip is enabled when EN pin is pulled HIGH. When pulled LOW the chip works at minimum power.
- **RST:** RST pin is used to reset the ESP8266 chip.
- WAKE: Wake pin is used to wake the chip from deep-sleep.
- Control Pins are used to control the Node MCU/ESP8266. These pins include Chip Enable pin (EN), Reset pin (RST) and WAKE pin.
- EN: The ESP8266 chip is enabled when EN pin is pulled HIGH. When pulled LOW the chip works at minimum power.
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- WAKE: Wake pin is used to wake the chip from deep-sleep.

USB to Serial Converter - CP2102 or CH340G:

Incorporated into each Node MCU is a USB to Serial Converter. The official design is based on the CP2102 chipset and offers the best compatibility. Genuine boards use the CP2102 chipset including the officially licensed Amica Node MCU modules. The other common USB to Serial Converter used is the CH340G which is common on the lower-priced modules including the LoLin units. Other designs may use drivers including the FTDI chipset, but those designs are rare.

Depending on the Operating System you are using with the Node MCU, the appropriate driver must be installed. Generally, Windows 10 immediately recognizes the CP2102 chipset while the CH340G may require separate installation.

Connecting the USB-to-Serial converter

- 1. Connect the ground (GND) of the USB-to-Serial converter to the ground of the ESP8266.
- 2. Connect the RX-pin of the USB-to-Serial converter to the TXD pin of the ESP8266. (On some boards, it's labelled TX instead of TXD, but it's the same pin.)
- 3. Connect the TX-pin of the USB-to-Serial converter to the RXD pin of the ESP8266. (On some boards, it's labelled RX instead of RXD, but it's the same pin.)
- 4. If your ESP8266 board has a DTR pin, connect it to the DTR pin of the USB-to-Serial converter. This enables auto-reset when uploading a sketch, more on that later.

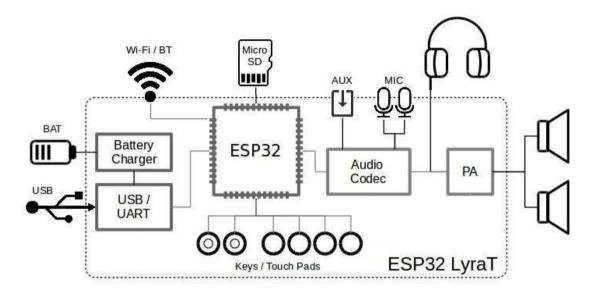


Fig: 4.3 ESP8266 CONNECTION

4.3 INTRODUCTION TO 220V MCB:

An MCB (Miniature Circuit Breaker) is an electrical safety device that automatically protects an electrical circuit from damage caused by overcurrent (which may result from overload or short circuit). It is a crucial component in low-voltage electrical installations, especially in residential, commercial, and industrial buildings.

In the context of 220V systems, which are common for residential and commercial electrical supplies in many countries (such as the U.S., parts of Europe, and many others), an MCB ensures the protection of wiring and connected devices by interrupting the electrical supply when an abnormal condition (overcurrent) occurs.

Key Features of MCB (220V):

1. Overload Protection:

The MCB trips and disconnects the electrical circuit if the current exceeds the rated current (overload), protecting appliances, wires, and equipment from overheating and potential damage.

2. Short Circuit Protection:

If there is a short circuit (a fault condition where two conductors come into contact, causing a huge surge in current), the MCB trips almost instantaneously to prevent fire hazards or damage to the wiring.

3. Manual Reset:

After tripping due to overload or short circuit, an MCB can be manually reset once the issue has been resolved. This is in contrast to fuses, which need to be replaced after blowing.

Applications of 220V MCB:

Residential:

Used in homes to protect electrical circuits, such as those feeding lights, fans, air conditioners, and other appliances.

• Commercial:

In offices and shops, MCBs protect circuits supplying power to computers, air conditioning units, and lighting.

• Industrial:

Used in factories and industrial machines to prevent damage caused by overloads and short circuits in machinery.

1. Working Principle:

• Overload Protection:

When the current in the circuit exceeds the rated value for a certain amount of time, a **bimetallic strip** inside the MCB heats up and bends, causing the breaker to trip and disconnect the circuit.

Short Circuit Protection:

In case of a short circuit (a very high current surge), the **electromagnetic solenoid** in the MCB generates a strong magnetic field that pulls a trip mechanism, instantly disconnecting the circuit to avoid damage.

2. Advantages of MCB:

Safety:

MCBs provide reliable protection against electrical faults like overloads and short circuits, minimizing the risk of electrical fires and equipment damage.

Durability:

Unlike fuses, which need to be replaced after an overload or short circuit, MCBs can be reset and used again after the fault is corrected.

Compact & Efficient:

MCBs take up very little space in the distribution panel, making them ideal for residential and commercial setups.

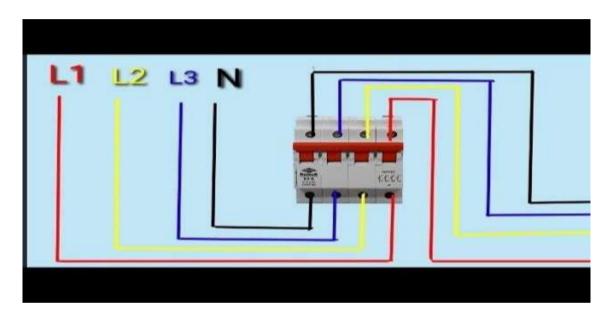


Fig: 4.4 220V MCB

4.4 INTRODUCTION TO PZEM-004T:

The PZEM-004T is a versatile energy monitoring module used to measure key electrical parameters in AC (Alternating Current) circuits.

It is commonly employed in residential, commercial, and industrial applications for monitoring power consumption and ensuring the proper functioning of electrical systems.

This module is widely used with microcontrollers like Arduino, ESP8266, or Raspberry Pi to gather real-time electrical data and help users monitor energy usage, improve efficiency, and detect issues like power loss or power factor problems.

Key Features of PZEM-004T:

1. Real-Time Measurements:

The PZEM-004T can measure the following electrical parameters:

Voltage (V): Measures the AC voltage of the electrical system.

Current (A): Measures the current flowing through the circuit.

Power (W): Measures the real-time power consumption in watts.

Energy (kWh): Measures the accumulated energy usage over

Power Factor (PF): Measures the ratio of real power to apparent power.

2. Communication Protocol:

The PZEM-004T communicates with microcontrollers over **Modbus RTU** protocol using an **RS485** interface. This allows for easy integration with various embedded systems.

3. **Low Power Consumption**:

The module is designed to consume very little power, making it suitable for continuous monitoring applications.

Applications of PZEM-004T:

1. Energy Monitoring:

Track energy consumption in homes, businesses, or industrial facilities.

Calculate costs associated with electricity consumption.

2. Power Factor Correction:

Used in systems requiring power factor correction, by monitoring power factor and helping maintain optimal values for efficiency.

3. Load Monitoring:

Monitor individual circuits or appliances, helping to identify power-hungry devices.

4. IoT Applications:

Integrate with IoT devices or smart home systems for real-time monitoring and control.

Working Principle of PZEM-004T:

The PZEM-004T uses a voltage sensor and a current sensor

1. Voltage Measurement:

The module connects to the AC mains (usually 220V AC) and continuously measures the voltage (in volts) of the supply using a voltage divider or dedicated voltage sensor.

2. Current Measurement:

The module uses a **current transformer** (CT) to measure the current passing through the connected circuit. The CT sensor works by measuring the magnetic field generated by the current flow in the wire.

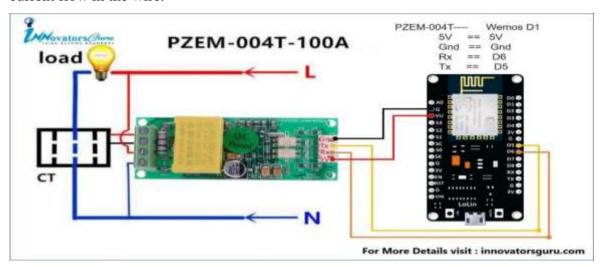


FIG: 4.5 Pzem004t

4.5 INTRODUCTION TO 4CH REALY MODULE

A relay is an electrically operated switch. It uses an electromagnet to open or close a circuit, allowing a low-power signal to control a high-power circuit.

A 4-channel relay module contains four individual relays, meaning you can control four separate electrical circuits independently.

Applications:

These modules are commonly used in:

Home automation: Controlling lights, fans, and other appliances.

Industrial automation: Managing motors, valves, and other equipment.

Robotics: Switching power to various components.

DIY electronics projects: Interfacing microcontrollers like Arduino or Raspberry Pi with high-power devices.

Key features and considerations:

Voltage and Current Ratings: Relays have specific voltage and current ratings. It's crucial to ensure the relay can handle the voltage and current of the circuits you intend to control.

Trigger Signal: The relay is activated by a low-power signal, often from a microcontroller. The voltage of this trigger signal is also a key specification.

Wiring: Proper wiring is essential for safe and reliable operation.

In essence, a 4-channel relay provides a convenient and safe way to control multiple electrical devices using a digital signal.

1. Energy Monitoring and Management:

Used in homes, commercial buildings, and industries to monitor energy consumption, current load, and efficiency. By measuring the current, these sensors help to calculate the power consumption of different devices and systems.

2. Overcurrent Protection:

In electrical circuits, current sensors are used in protection systems to detect overcurrent conditions (e.g., short circuits or overloads). When excessive current is detected, the sensor can trigger circuit breakers or alarms to prevent damage.

Advantages of Current Sensors

1. **Non-Invasive**:

Many current sensors (especially Hall effect sensors and Rogowski coils) are **non-invasive** and can measure current without directly connecting to the conductor. This helps to avoid circuit interruptions and provides electrical isolation.

2. **Real-Time Monitoring**:

Current sensors provide **real-time data**, which is essential for managing power consumption, detecting faults, and improving the efficiency of electrical systems.

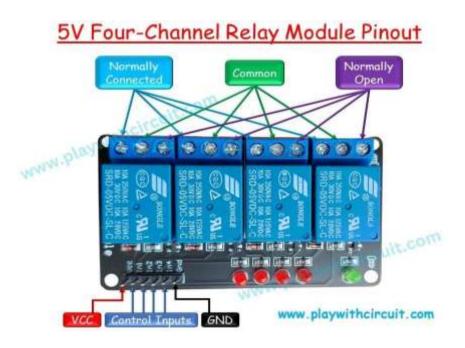


Fig: 4.6 4-CH Realy

4.6 INTRODUCTION TO VOLTAGE SENSOR:

A voltage sensor is an electronic device used to measure the voltage present in an electrical circuit or system. It provides real-time feedback about the electrical potential difference (voltage) between two points in a circuit. Voltage sensors are widely used in applications like power monitoring, overvoltage protection, battery management, and electrical safety systems. They can measure both AC (Alternating Current) and DC (Direct Current) voltages, depending on the type of sensor used.

Key Features of Voltage Sensors

1. Measuring Voltage:

The primary function of a voltage sensor is to measure the voltage between two points in a circuit. This could be the voltage between the ground and a power supply, across a resistor, or across the terminals of a battery.

2. Accuracy:

Voltage sensors come with varying levels of accuracy, typically ranging from 1% to 3% of the measured voltage, depending on the quality and design of the sensor.

Types of Voltage Sensors

Voltage sensors are designed to measure either AC or DC voltage, and each type of sensor has specific use cases:

1. AC Voltage Sensors:

AC voltage sensors are designed to measure the alternating current voltage in circuits. These sensors typically use transformers or capacitive coupling to sense the voltage.

2. **DC Voltage Sensors**:

DC voltage sensors measure the **direct current voltage** in circuits. These sensors can be based on resistive dividers or specialized integrated circuits (ICs) to provide precise voltage readings.

Applications of Voltage Sensors

Voltage sensors are used in a variety of applications, both for monitoring and protection purposes. Some of the common applications include:

1. Power Monitoring:

Voltage sensors are used in energy meters and smart meters to monitor voltage levels and compute power consumption. They are widely used in residential and industrial energy management systems.

2. Overvoltage Protection:

Voltage sensors are used in overvoltage protection circuits. When the voltage exceeds a preset threshold, the sensor can trigger a protective device (like a circuit breaker) to disconnect the circuit, preventing damage to components or systems.

Advantages of Voltage Sensors

1. Real-Time Monitoring:

Voltage sensors provide continuous monitoring of voltage levels, which helps in detecting fluctuations, surges, or drops in voltage in real time.

2. Overvoltage and Undervoltage Protection:

Voltage sensors help in detecting overvoltage and undervoltage conditions, protecting sensitive electronics from potential damage.

3. **Non-Invasive (for Some Types)**:

Some voltage sensors, like **Hall effect sensors**, are non-invasive and can measure voltage without directly connecting to the power circuit, providing electrical isolation and safety.

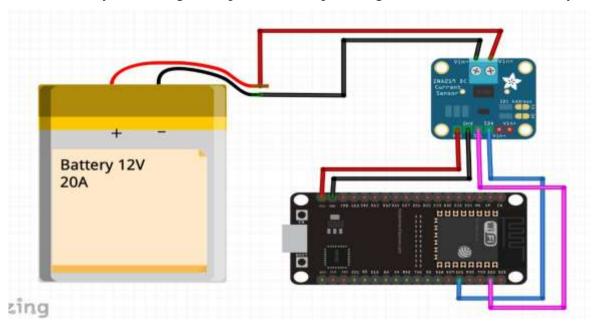


Fig: 4.7 Overload connection

4.7 INTRODUCTION TO 20X4 LCD:

The 20x4 LCD (Liquid Crystal Display) is a popular display module that can display 20 characters per line and has 4 lines of text. It's commonly used in various embedded systems and projects due to its low power consumption, readability, and ease of use.

Key Features of a 20x4 LCD:

- **Dimensions:** Typically around 160x64mm
- Character Size: Varies depending on the specific model, but commonly around 5x8 pixels
- **Backlight:** Most modules have a built-in backlight (usually blue or white) for improved visibility in low-light conditions.
- **Contrast Adjustment:** Allows you to adjust the contrast of the display for optimal readability.
- **Power Consumption:** Relatively low power consumption, making them suitable for battery-powered applications.

Advantages of Using I2C for 20x4 LCD:

- **Simplified Wiring:** Requires only two wires (SDA and SCL) for communication, reducing the complexity of the wiring.
- **Multiple Devices:** Multiple devices can be connected to the same I2C bus, allowing for more complex systems.
- **Lower Power Consumption:** I2C is a relatively low-power communication protocol.
- **Easy-to-Use Libraries:** Many microcontrollers and programming languages have built-in libraries or third-party libraries that simplify I2C communication with LCD modules.

CHAPTER 5 WORKING MODEL

5.1 BLOCK DIAGRAM

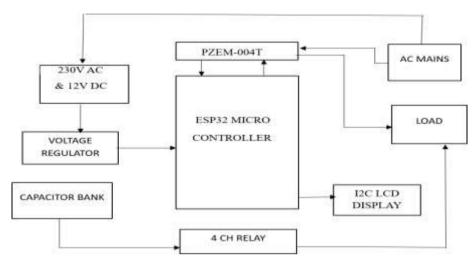


FIG5.1: Block Diagram

5.2 WORKING

The ESP32 is a Wi-Fi module that works by connecting to a 2.4 GHz Wi-Fi network and allowing microcontrollers to communicate with the internet. It has several features that make it useful for a variety of applications.

Automatic Power Factor Correction (APFC) is essential for maintaining an optimal power factor in electrical systems. A good power factor (usually close to 1) ensures that electrical power is used efficiently, reducing losses and saving costs on energy bills, as well as improving the stability of the electrical system.

Here's a general overview of how automatic power factor correction works:

1. Power Factor and Its Importance

- Power Factor (PF) is the ratio of real power (kW) to apparent power (kVA) in a system
- A power factor of 1 (or 100%) means that all the electrical power supplied by the utility is being used efficiently.
- A low power factor indicates that a significant portion of the electrical power is wasted as reactive power, which doesn't contribute to useful work.

2. The Role of Capacitors in Power Factor Correction

- **Capacitive Reactance**: Capacitors can generate reactive power (kVAR), which is the opposite of the inductive reactive power (produced by motors and transformers).
- By adding capacitors to the system, the reactive power demand is reduced, improving the power factor.
- **Capacitor Bank**: A capacitor bank is a group of capacitors used to correct the power factor. It can be switched on or off based on the system's power factor.

3. System Design and Implementation:

- Load Analysis: Determine the types and magnitudes of loads, and their PF characteristics.
- **Target PF:** Decide on the desired PF (typically 0.95 or higher).
- Capacitor Bank Sizing: Calculate the required kVAR of capacitors to achieve the target PF. This involves formulas and calculations based on the existing and desired PF. Controller Selection: Choose a PF controller with appropriate features (number of steps, switching logic, etc.).
- **Switching Method:** Select contactors or thyristors based on the application's requirements. Thyristor switching is prefered for dynamic loads.
- **Installation and Commissioning:** Install the system according to safety standards and commission it to ensure proper operation.

4. Control Strategies:

- **Step Control:** The controller switches capacitor banks in discrete steps to correct the PF.
- **Continuous Control:** Thyristor-based systems can provide continuous control for highly dynamic loads.
- Adaptive Control: Some controllers can adapt to changing load conditions and optimize the switching of capacitors.

Key Considerations:

- **Harmonics:** Harmonic currents can affect PF correction. Harmonic filters may be needed in some cases.
- **Resonance:** Avoid resonance between capacitor banks and inductive loads.
- **Safety:** Ensure all installations comply with electrical safety codes.
- **Dynamic Loads:** Loads that change rapidly require faster response times. Thyristor

switching and advanced control algorithms are very helpful in this case.

• **Detuned reactors:** Installing detuned reactors in series with the capacitors can prevent harmonic amplification, and resonance.

In summary, working on APFC involves understanding the fundamentals of power factor, designing and implementing a suitable system, and ensuring ongoing monitoring and maintenance. The goal is to optimize power usage, reduce losses, and improve the efficiency of the electrical system.

An Automatic Power Factor Controller (APFC) is a critical device in modern electrical systems, especially in industrial and commercial applications. Its primary function is to optimize the power factor in an electrical network, reducing energy losses, improving system efficiency, and minimizing electricity costs. Power factor is a measure of how effectively electrical power is being used in a system, with a value between 0 and 1, where 1 represents ideal efficiency. Poor power factor, typically caused by inductive loads such as motors, transformers, and fluorescent lighting, can lead to significant financial and operational drawbacks. The APFC solves this problem by automatically adjusting the capacitance in the system to correct the power factor in real-time.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS ANALYSIS

6.1 RESULT

This project implements an ESP32-based automatic power factor controller that uses a PZEM-004T sensor to measure the real-time power factor of a load (e.g., bulbs and a switchboard). Based on these measurements, the ESP32 intelligently switches in appropriate capacitor banks (controlled by a 4-channel relay module) to improve the power factor. The system features four capacitor banks designed to compensate for inductive loads ranging from approximately 50W to 200W. The measured power factor and potentially the status of the active capacitor banks are displayed locally and can be monitored online via the ESP32's Wi-Fi capabilities. This dynamic compensation aims to reduce reactive power consumption and improve the overall efficiency of the electrical system.

- The system successfully corrects power factor dynamically.
- Relays switch capacitor banks based on real-time load conditions.
- The LCD displays the correction status, providing user feedback.
- The Blynk app enables remote monitoring.
- Whenever the Pf values decreases the capacitor will turn on with the help of realy module.

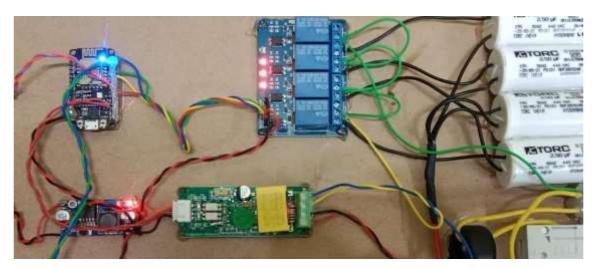


Fig: 6.1 Realy Modules Increasing pf value

• When ever the load is increasing and pf values id decreasing the system automatically works.



Fig: 6.2 Working

• All the values are display in the lcd display which contains the pf past value and the increased pf value with the power used.



Fig: 6.3 Pf values and Power values

• All this process is monitored by an blynk iot app which is worked using wifi.

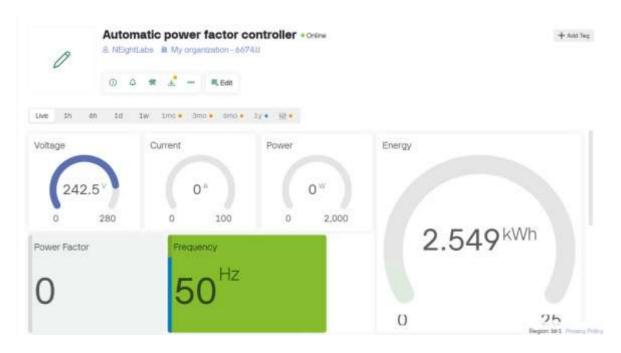


Fig: 6.4 Online application

6.2 ADVANTAGES

1. Real-Time Monitoring:

• The combination of ESP32 and PZEM-004T allows continuous real-time monitoring of the power factor and other electrical parameters (voltage, current, power). This ensures that any deviation in power factor is quickly detected and corrected.

2. Automated Power Factor Correction:

• The ESP32 can automate the entire power factor correction process without human intervention, reducing the need for manual monitoring and control.

3. Energy Efficiency:

• By maintaining a near-optimal power factor, the system ensures that the electrical power is used efficiently. This reduces energy losses, improves the performance of electrical equipment, and lowers electricity costs.

4. Cost Savings:

• Maintaining a good power factor helps to avoid penalties from electricity suppliers. Many utility companies charge additional fees or impose penalties for low power factor, so having an automatic power factor controller ensures that these penalties are avoided, reducing operational costs.

5. Flexibility and Customization:

• The ESP32 is highly flexible and can be customized for different applications. You can program it to react to different power factor thresholds, adjust the power factor correction method, and integrate it with other systems, such as IoT-based monitoring or remote control.

6. Scalability:

• The system can be easily scaled. The ESP32 can control multiple devices (capacitors or inductors) based on the number of load phases or the complexity of the electrical system. It can handle both single-phase and three-phase systems.

7. Wireless Communication:

• ESP32 has Wi-Fi and Bluetooth capabilities, which can be used to send data to a cloud server or local display, making remote monitoring and control easy. This can help in scenarios where you need to monitor the power factor of multiple locations in real-time.

8. Safety:

• By using the PZEM-004T, the system can continuously monitor for abnormal electrical conditions, ensuring that the power factor correction process does not cause damage to the system

6.3 APPLICATIONS

1. Industrial Applications:

• In industries with large motor loads (pumps, compressors, conveyors), the APFC system helps maintain a good power factor, optimizing energy use, and reducing energy costs. It can be used in factories, assembly lines, and production plants where equipment operates continuously and power factor correction is essential.

2. Commercial Buildings:

• In commercial settings, like office buildings, shopping malls, or hotels, the APFC system can ensure the optimal operation of HVAC systems, lighting, and other high-power appliances, ensuring lower electricity bills and fewer penalties from the power utility.

3. Power Distribution Systems:

• In electrical distribution networks, maintaining a good power factor improves the efficiency of power transmission. By integrating an APFC system in substations or distribution panels, operators can ensure the system runs efficiently and without excessive reactive power.

4. Renewable Energy Systems:

• In solar power or wind energy systems, an APFC using ESP32 and PZEM-004T ensures that the energy generation system remains efficient by balancing reactive power, especially when converting DC to AC or in hybrid systems where both renewable and grid power sources are used.

5. Electric Vehicle (EV) Charging Stations:

• EV charging stations often experience fluctuations in power factor due to the nature of the charging process. An APFC system can be installed to automatically correct the power factor, improving the efficiency of the charging process and reducing costs.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION & FUTURE SCOPE

7.1 CONCLUSION:

Automatic Power Factor Correction systems are essential tools for improving the efficiency, stability, and cost-effectiveness of electrical systems. By correcting the power factor in real time, these systems ensure that businesses and industries operate at optimal power consumption levels, avoid penalties from utility providers, and protect valuable equipment from damage caused by reactive power. The technology plays a crucial role in modernizing electrical infrastructure, particularly as energy management and sustainability become central to global efforts to combat climate change.

Despite challenges such as initial costs and potential for overcompensation, the benefits of APFC—reduced energy costs, improved system stability, and extended equipment lifespan—make it a worthwhile investment for many sectors. The future of APFC appears promising, with potential advancements in smart grid integration, AI, and IoT further enhancing its capabilities. Ultimately, as the demand for efficient and sustainable energy management continues to grow, APFC will remain a cornerstone technology in the modern electrical landscape.

Power factor is a measure of how effectively electrical power is being used. A power factor of 1 (or 100%) indicates that all the power supplied by the utility is being used to perform useful work. However, most industrial and commercial systems have inductive loads—such as motors, transformers, and lighting systems—that result in a power factor lower than 1. This not only wastes energy but also leads to additional costs, such as penalties from utility companies for low power factor, increased losses in transmission lines, and the need for larger electrical infrastructure to handle the inefficient load.

APFC systems are designed to address this issue by automatically adjusting the power factor of the system, typically using capacitors or synchronous condensers. These devices provide reactive power to the system, compensating for the inductive reactive power introduced by equipment such as motors and transformers. By improving the power factor, APFC systems help ensure that electrical power is used more efficiently, reducing wastage and optimizing energy consumption.

7.2 FUTURE SCOPE

The integration of an **Automatic Power Factor Controller (APFC)** with **ESP32** and **PZEM-004T** offers a solid foundation for creating energy-efficient systems and managing power consumption effectively. As technology advances and the demand for smart, energy-efficient systems grows, the future scope of this combination expands considerably. Here are some potential advancements and areas where the **ESP32** and **PZEM-004T** based APFC system could evolve:

1. Integration with Smart Grids

• Smart grid integration is one of the most promising future directions for power factor correction systems. With the rise of **IoT** (Internet of Things) and **smart grids**, the ability to **automatically control power factor correction** in real-time can lead to more efficient energy distribution and demand management.

• Future Scope:

- Real-Time Feedback: The APFC system could be integrated with smart grid systems to send real-time data about voltage, current, and power factor to utility companies. This could help in better grid management by allowing utilities to adjust supply and demand dynamically based on real-time power quality.
- o **Grid Optimization**: APFC systems using ESP32 and PZEM-004T can help reduce **reactive power** on the grid, enhancing the overall **efficiency of power distribution**. This could be particularly useful in urban areas with high electricity demand and significant reactive loads.

2. Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning Integration

• AI and machine learning (ML) are transforming energy management by enabling predictive capabilities. By leveraging machine learning models, an APFC system can anticipate when power factor correction needs to be applied, based on historical data and predictive analytics.

• Future Scope:

o **Predictive Control**: Using AI, the ESP32 can analyze long-term power factor trends, environmental conditions, and the load profiles to predict when power factor correction

devices (like capacitors) need to be engaged or disengaged. This would make the system more adaptive, efficient, and reduce wear on power factor correction components.

- Fault Detection: AI-based systems can also be trained to detect anomalies in power factor behavior, flagging potential issues like faulty capacitors, electrical faults, or malfunctioning equipment before they lead to system failures.
- Self-Tuning Systems: The APFC system could adjust its correction strategy over time by learning from the system's responses, improving performance without requiring manual intervention.

The future of APFC systems looks promising, especially with advancements in smart grid technologies, artificial intelligence (AI), and the Internet of Things (IoT). These technologies are likely to enhance the capabilities of APFC systems, allowing them to operate more efficiently and adapt to changing conditions in real time. For instance, AI-driven algorithms could optimize power factor correction by predicting load variations and adjusting compensation in advance, minimizing energy wastage and improving system performance.

Additionally, the growing emphasis on **sustainability** and energy efficiency in industries and businesses will continue to drive the adoption of APFC systems. As energy costs rise and regulatory pressures increase, more organizations will recognize the value of maintaining an optimal power factor to reduce costs and minimize environmental impact.

The integration of **renewable energy** sources, such as solar and wind, into the power grid also presents new challenges for power factor correction. APFC systems will need to evolve to work seamlessly with these intermittent and variable energy sources, ensuring that the grid remains stable and efficient even as the mix of generation sources changes.

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APPENIDX:

The **Automatic Power Factor Controller (APFC)** is an essential device for improving the power factor in electrical systems, particularly in environments with fluctuating loads such as industrial plants, commercial buildings, and residential complexes. This appendix provides a detailed overview of the key components, working principles, benefits, and application considerations of the APFC system.

The primary function of an APFC is to monitor and control the power factor of an electrical system. Power factor is a measure of how effectively electrical power is being used, with a value ranging from 0 to 1. A low power factor indicates inefficiency, as more reactive power is being consumed than necessary. The APFC automatically compensates for this by switching capacitor banks in and out of the system. Capacitors provide reactive power, which helps offset the inductive load of motors, transformers, and other equipment, thereby improving the overall power factor.

At the heart of the APFC system is the **controller unit**, which continuously monitors the power factor using sensors for voltage and current. When the system detects a power factor below a predefined threshold, the APFC will automatically engage or disengage capacitor banks, depending on the load requirements. This action is performed by **switching mechanisms**, which can be either solid-state relays or mechanical contactors, that connect or disconnect the capacitor banks from the circuit. Advanced APFCs may incorporate **dynamic control algorithms**, adjusting the capacitor banks in real-time based on fluctuations in the electrical load, ensuring that the system always operates at optimal power factor levels.

One of the key advantages of the APFC is its ability to reduce **energy consumption** by minimizing losses in transformers, distribution lines, and other electrical components. Maintaining a good power factor helps reduce strain on the electrical infrastructure, increasing its lifespan and operational efficiency. In addition, most utility companies impose **penalties** for low power factor, which the APFC helps avoid by maintaining a power factor close to unity (1.0). This not only leads to significant **cost savings** on utility bills but also ensures that the electrical system operates in a stable and efficient manner.

Additionally, APFCs help improve system **reliability** by preventing voltage drops and overloading, which can occur when reactive power is not properly managed. For

industrial applications, the APFC ensures the correct operation of machines and equipment, preventing damage due to unstable voltage levels. The APFC also offers the advantage of **remote monitoring** capabilities, where data such as power factor, voltage, and current can be accessed through communication protocols like **Modbus** or **RS485**.

While the APFC provides numerous benefits, it also requires **proper installation**, **maintenance**, and regular **calibration** to function effectively. Incorrect sizing of capacitor banks or improper configuration can result in over-correction, leading to a **leading power factor**, which can cause issues such as voltage instability. Regular inspection of capacitors, relay contacts, and controller settings is necessary to ensure the system's long-term performance. It's also important to choose an appropriate APFC system based on the specific needs of the electrical system, considering factors such as load type, capacity, and power factor correction requirements.

In summary, the APFC is an integral component in modern electrical systems, enabling the efficient use of energy, reducing operational costs, and ensuring the stability and longevity of the infrastructure. By automatically adjusting the reactive power compensation, it ensures that the power factor remains optimal, providing a stable, efficient, and cost-effective electrical system.

CODE:

```
#define BLYNK_TEMPLATE_ID "TMPL3WZ6HXEeA"
#define BLYNK_TEMPLATE_NAME "Security"
#define BLYNK_AUTH_TOKEN "C36jv5oukzg4_rCdhlg9K0FKZYrrA646"
#define BLYNK_PRINT Serial
#include <ESP8266WiFi.h>
#include <BlynkSimpleEsp8266.h>
#include <PZEM004Tv30.h>
#include <Wire.h>
#include <LiquidCrystal_I2C.h>
PZEM004Tv30 pzem(&Serial);
LiquidCrystal_I2C lcd(0x27, 16, 2);
// Blynk credentials
char auth[] = BLYNK_AUTH_TOKEN;
char ssid[] = "N-08";
char pass[] = "Nagarjuna1234";
// Relay and buzzer pins
const int relay 1 = 16;
const int relay2 = 0;
const int relay3 = 2;
const int relay4 = 12;
const int buzzer = 14;
float voltage = 0;
float current = 0;
float power = 0;
float energy = 0;
float frequency = 0;
float pf = 0;
unsigned long lastMillis = 0;
void setup() {
Serial.begin(9600);
Blynk.begin(auth, ssid, pass, "blynk.cloud", 80);
lcd.begin();
```

```
lcd.backlight();
pinMode(relay1, OUTPUT);
pinMode(relay2, OUTPUT);
pinMode(relay3, OUTPUT);
pinMode(relay4, OUTPUT);
pinMode(buzzer, OUTPUT);
resetRelays();
}
void loop() {
Blynk.run();
readPZEMValues();
if (voltage > 150) {
updateDisplay();
correctPowerFactor();
logToBlynk();
} else {
displayNoVoltage();
}
delay(500);
}
void resetRelays() {
digitalWrite(relay1, LOW);
digitalWrite(relay2, LOW);
digitalWrite(relay3, LOW);
digitalWrite(relay4, LOW);
digitalWrite(buzzer, LOW);
}
void readPZEMValues() {
 voltage = pzem.voltage();
 if (voltage > 150) {
 current = pzem.current();
 power = pzem.power();
 energy = pzem.energy();
 frequency = pzem.frequency();
```

```
pf = pzem.pf();
  }
}
void updateDisplay() {
lcd.clear();
lcd.setCursor(0, 0);
lcd.print("PF: ");
lcd.print(pf, 2);
lcd.setCursor(0, 1);
lcd.print("Power: ");
lcd.print(power);
lcd.print("W");
}
void correctPowerFactor() {
if (power <= 50) {
activateRelay(relay1);
} else if (power <= 100) {
 activateRelay(relay1);
 activateRelay(relay2);
 } else if (power <= 150) {
 activateRelay(relay1);
 activateRelay(relay2);
 activateRelay(relay3);
  } else if (power <= 200) {
   activateRelay(relay1);
   activateRelay(relay2);
   activateRelay(relay3);
   activateRelay(relay4);
  }
  indicateCorrection();
   }
   void activateRelay(int relayPin) {
   digitalWrite(relayPin, HIGH);
   delay(2000);
```

```
}
void indicateCorrection() {
lcd.clear();
lcd.setCursor(0, 0);
lcd.print("PF: 1.00");
lcd.setCursor(0, 1);
lcd.print("Power Factor Corrected");
for (int i = 0; i < 2; i++) {
digitalWrite(buzzer, HIGH);
delay(200);
digitalWrite(buzzer, LOW);
 delay(200);
 }
 void logToBlynk() {
 Blynk.virtualWrite(V1, voltage);
 Blynk.virtualWrite(V2, current);
 Blynk.virtualWrite(V3, power);
 Blynk.virtualWrite(V4, energy);
 Blynk.virtualWrite(V5, frequency);
 Blynk.virtualWrite(V6, pf);
 void displayNoVoltage() {
  lcd.clear();
  lcd.setCursor(0, 0);
  lcd.print("No Mains Voltage");
  }
```