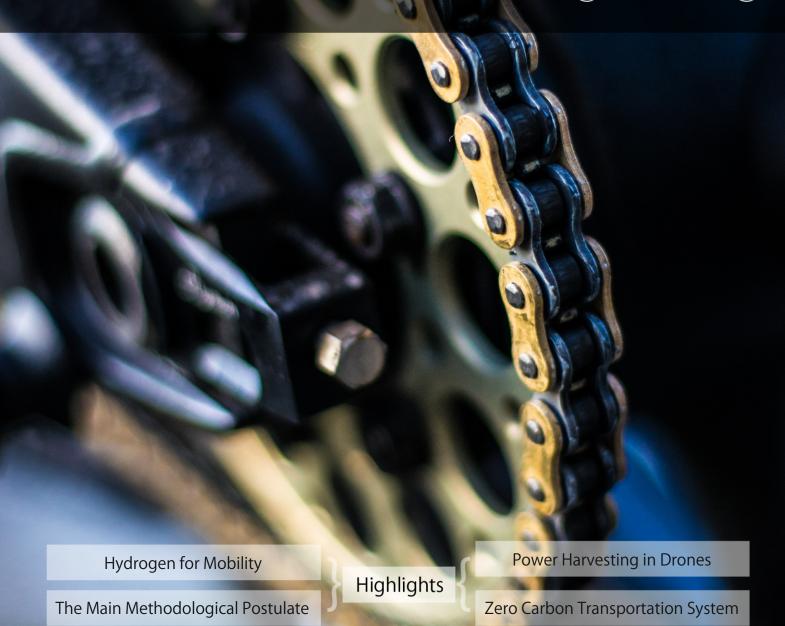
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CONTENTS OF THE ISSUE

- i. Copyright Notice
- ii. Editorial Board Members
- iii. Chief Author and Dean
- iv. Contents of the Issue
- Hydrogen for Mobility: A Pathway to a Zero Carbon Transportation System.
 1-9
- 2. The Main Methodological Postulate of Pyrometry and the Need for its Revision. 11-19
- 3. A Survey on Methods to Optimize Power Harvesting in Drones. 21-28
- v. Fellows
- vi. Auxiliary Memberships
- vii. Preferred Author Guidelines
- viii. Index



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Hydrogen for Mobility: A Pathway to a Zero Carbon Transportation System

By Marc Abbott

Abstract- Eliminating hydrocarbon transportation must be a fundamental goal for society if we are to negate Climate Change and its consequences. No source of CO2 emissions comes close to that of hydrocarbon fueled internal combustion engines and if we are to transition to a zero-carbon energy system, a viable alternative to hydrocarbon fuels must be found. Lithium-lon powered vehicles or EV's present society with a paradox, they emit zero emissions however the life cycle of Lithium-lon batteries is a source of environmental concern through mining, deforestation of carbon sinks, the immense electrification requirements for battery production, recycling, and recharging.

This communication proposes Hydrogen for Mobility as the future fuel for a pathway to a Zero Carbon Transportation System through utilizing both the existing internal combustion engine (ICE) and most existing transportation infrastructure, at the same time being cost effective, efficient and zero emitting. An overview of technologies will be discussed along with their Technology Readiness, benefits, and issues. This discussion expands on the concepts discussed in 'Mobile Modular Hydrogen Power Generation – a Zero Carbon Energy System'. https://doi.org/10.5296/ijgs.v7i1.xxxx

Keywords: hydrogen, biofuel, fuel cell, electric, mobility, engine, vehicle, emissions.

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Hydrogen for Mobility: A Pathway to a Zero Carbon Transportation System

Marc Abbott

Abstract- Eliminating hydrocarbon transportation must be a fundamental goal for society if we are to negate Climate Change and its consequences. No source of CO₂ emissions comes close to that of hydrocarbon fueled internal combustion engines and if we are to transition to a zero-carbon energy system, a viable alternative to hydrocarbon fuels must be found. Lithium-Ion powered vehicles or EV's present society with a paradox, they emit zero emissions however the life cycle of Lithium-Ion batteries is a source of environmental concern through mining, deforestation of carbon sinks, the immense electrification requirements for battery production, recycling, and recharging.

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I. Introduction

Transporting Humanity: The Internal Combustion Engine (ICE)

he internal combustion engine has powered vehicle transportation on an enormous scale for the last century from people finding freedom to travel 24/7 using passenger cars to freight transported by trucks. The internal combustion engine has played a fundamental part in developing this transportation system and modern society as we know it today.

As of 2016 the estimated global vehicle transport fleet stood at 1.416 billion (Michaux, 2021a), transportation 2022 global contributed approximately 20% of global CO2 emissions or 7.97 Gigatons, road or vehicle transportation contributed to 12% of global CO₂ emissions (Statista, 2023). By 2050 global passenger demand alone is expected to double (OCED, 2023) with urban passenger (vehicle, bus, train) CO₂ emissions increasing by 39% to 3012 million tons per annum (OCED, 2023a). Given the growth forecasts our 2015 Paris agreement commitments and transition to net zero by 2050 are simply not achievable without fundamental change in our consumption hydrocarbons or change in demand for global mobility.

b) What problems need to be solved?

To achieve a Zero Carbon Transportation system will require many problems to be solved, with some likely still unknown.

Vehicle transport is low cost, efficient and accessible on a global scale; for example, at the end of 2021 there were approximately 250 million passenger cars in the European Union (Eurostat, 2023), with access to 113,642 services stations (Fuels Europe, 2022) giving a staggering accessibility ratio of 1 service station for every 2200 passenger cars, undoubtably we take this ease of access for granted, and this gives rise to two problems that will take decades to solve:

- 1. How do you replace the existing vehicle transportation system on a like for like basis? That is to say that any alternative system must be at a minimum as efficient, accessible, and low cost as the existing system.
- Practically transition from hydrocarbons to an equivalent zero carbon fuel bearing in mind hydrocarbons have powered society through generating electricity on a global scale, produced plastics, medicines and even DVDs. Couple this with the employment and economic benefits of the last century and you have what I call 'The Hydrocarbon Complex" This complex will be extremely difficult to replicate or replace from a fuel or energy perspective let alone from a selfpreservation point of view.

This short communication will address these problems by discussing why hydrogen should be the zero carbon alternative to hydrocarbon fuels for vehicle transportation and through 'Repurposing' how we can utilize almost all our existing transportation infrastructure and the internal combustion engine to support hydrogen as the zero emission vehicle ZEV standard (emit less than 1g of CO2 per kWh per km) fuel of the future with minimal life cycle environmental impact. (European Commission, 2023)

**Note 1,2,3

II. Analysis of the Solution

a) Mobility is Needed 24/7/365

Mobility is not only needed 24/7/365 but demanded and, in many ways, taken as a given. The COVID pandemic accelerated demand for mobility through the growth in home deliveries, drive through convenience services and mobility services like Uber and Lyft. In 2022 Uber drivers completed 7.6 billion trips surpassing its previous peak of 6.9 billion trips in 2019 (Business of Apps, 2023) coupled with population growth which by 2050 will grow to 9.8 billion from 7.6 billion an increase of 29% (United Nations, 2023) and it reinforces inevitable growth of people and freight transportation and with it increased demand for hydrocarbons. Now more than ever we need to start transitioning to hydrogen as the zero emissions fuel for future mobility. To put into perspective the urgency needed one gallon of gasoline contains 5.5 pounds of carbon by weight and emits 20 pounds of CO2 when combusted (Fuel Economy Gov, 2021). By comparison hydrogen chemically contains no carbon and will meet ZEV European standards when used in internal combustion engines.

Aside from emerging electrolysis and engine technologies that will enable hydrogen as the future fuel for mobility it also creates circularity through continuously repurposing and recycling not only existing vehicle engines but also existing hydrocarbon fueling infrastructure. Why mine Lithium and Cobalt and other metals for EV batteries with their associated environmental impacts: deforestation, water pollution, etc. (Washington Post, 2018) when we can create a circular zero carbon hydrogen mobility ecosystem?

b) The Alternatives: Biofuel, Electric and Fuel Cell Vehicles?

In the vehicle and engine technology race there are three main alternatives to hydrogen: biofuels, electric, and fuel cell vehicles. I now discuss these including their benefits, issues, technology readiness, and environmental impacts summarized.

i. Biofuel Vehicles

Biofuels are fuels composed of or produced from biological raw materials such as Ethanol (bio-alcohol), Palm Oil, Fatty Acid Methyl Ester (FAME) and Hydrotreated Vegetable Oil (HVO), these raw materials are almost always used as a bio-blend to standard gasoline or diesel, with the exception being pure ethanol fuels. Biofuels are classified as Low Carbon Fuels (US Energy Information Administration, 2022) and not Zero Carbon Fuels, with existing concerns including environmental and social (food and agriculture for fuels), engine compatibility and low fuel economy. Vehicles that use bio-blends above E15 namely E20, E25 and E85 are commonly referred to as flex-fuel vehicles and require specially coated fuel lines and engine components due

to corrosion issues. E85 fuel efficiency is 27% less than that of regular gasoline (which contains up to 10% ethanol) and requires more frequent engine oil changes due to fuel dilution. (The Drive, 2023) The highest ethanol blend E100 is only available in Brazil and cannot be used in standard flex fuel engines since they are designed to work with a maximum of E85, an additional major drawback of E100 is its unavailability at retail fuel stations in the USA. (Protech Fuel, 2023) Given this there is still a case for biofuels as a low carbon fuel alternative but realistically only a transition fuel. The most often overlooked drawback with alternative energy sources including fuels is the energy penalty and on average energy outputs from ethanol production is less than the respective fossil fuel energy inputs. (Pimentel. D., Patzek, T.W., 2005)

It is inescapable that gasoline and diesel are needed for ethanol blending and when you consider the production energy penalty, biofuels become less attractive as a future fuel solution and will never achieve zero carbon emissions.

ii. Electric Vehicles (EV's)

Electric vehicles or EV's as they are commonly referred to have come to the fore as the zero emission solution primarily for passenger cars and to a lesser extent heavy duty vehicles and motorcycles. Demand for EV's is surging as can be noted by Tesla's recent production record of 1,845,985 EV units in 2023 (CNBC, 2023). However, perception versus reality in the EV ecosystem that they are zero emission vehicles is questionable especially when we consider the full lifecycle of an EV.

EV's use either NMC (Nickel Manganese Cobalt) or LFP (Lithium Iron Phosphate) batteries as their power source with LFP batteries now preferred as they can accommodate 2.5 times the discharge cycles of a NMC battery (ZeCar, 2023). Aside known negative environmental impacts of mining minerals such Cobalt and Nickel and associated labor exploitation practices (Earth Org, 2022) EV's have a higher environmental footprint than combustion vehicles when they are first produced at the factory (ZeCar, 2022) for example "it takes the all-electric Volvo XC40 to drive 146,000km until it breaks even the carbon footprint of the gasoline XC40 (assuming grid charging)". (ZeCar, 2022a) The counter argument is that EV's will be charged using wind or solar power only, but that is wishful thinking as daily wind and solar only account for a maximum of 13.7% of US electricity generation (EIA, 2022) and assumes favorable weather conditions.

EV battery recycling is a growing area of concern from an environmental perspective. Not only do you have to consider the metallurgical recycling processes but also the disposal processes for electrolytes and their additives. The two main recycling processes Pyrometallurgical and Hydrometallurgy both

emit carbon as part of the process (5.81 kg $\rm CO_2$ - eq/kwh) for the former given the high temperature smelting required through using hydrocarbons and (2.86 kg $\rm CO_2$ -eq/kwh) for the latter. (Floodlight, 2023) Although Hydrometallurgy is less energy intense it produces significant toxic gases and wastewater adding to environmental concerns.

Direct Physical recycling is a promising technology, albeit there are still carbon emissions associated with the process (3.65 kg CO₂ -eq/kwh) but much less secondary waste, however it is still in its infancy as the technology is not mature. (Floodlight, 2023a)

Both NMC and LFP batteries contain electrolyte additives to stabilize the cathodes, organic compounds such as 1,3,2-dioxathiolane 2,2-dioxide in NMC electrolytes (Nature, 2022) and Fluoroethylene Carbonate in LFP electrolytes (JACS, 2018) are toxic substances and extremely harmful to humans and the environment. (ECHA, 2023 & 2023a)

The EV revolution is well underway but to claim zero emissions is simply not true. Considering the questionable sustainability and ethics in battery production and end of life environmental concerns it is reasonable to state that EV's do not provide a pathway to a zero emissions transportation system.

iii. Hydrogen Fuel Cell Vehicles

Fuel Cell Vehicles (FCV's) are electric vehicles powered by hydrogen fuel cells instead of batteries (batteries are still used albeit on a smaller scale to capture energy from the regenerative braking system, to be used when extra power is required). Hydrogen fuel cells convert hydrogen into electricity using a Proton/Polymer Electrolyte Membrane (PEM) and Platinum catalyst at the anode which is then used to power the vehicles electric motor. Figure 1.0 illustrates how a typical PEM Hydrogen Fuel Cell works (Fuel Economy, 2023).

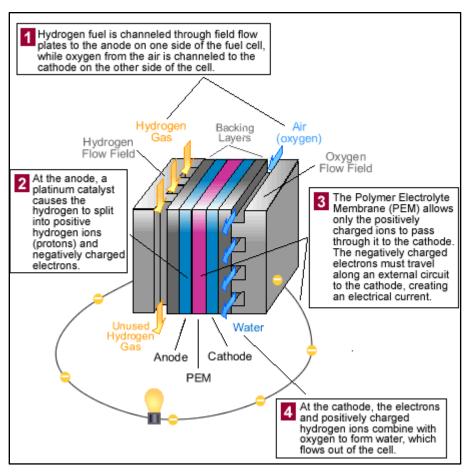


Figure 1.0: Typical PEM Hydrogen Fuel Cell

At the major vehicle component level there is very little difference between a fuel cell vehicle and electric vehicle with only the power sources and the hydrogen fuel tank the major differences. Figure 1.1

illustrates a Fuel Cell Vehicle vs. Electric Vehicle (AFDC, 2023 and 2023a).

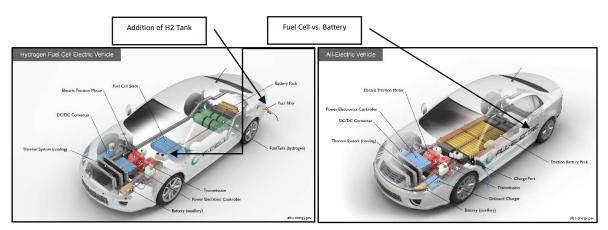


Figure 1.1: Hydrogen Fuel Cell Vehicle comparison vs. Electric Vehicle

The benefit of FCV's is the use of hydrogen as fuel instead of large battery cells such as those in EV's, however it is critical that green hydrogen is used to ensure fewer carbon emissions, or the emissions argument is weak. Other benefits include less time to refuel with hydrogen versus EV recharging and a lower vehicle weight. A Tesla battery on average weighs 1190lbs (The Motor Digest, 2023) this extra weight negatively impacts stopping distance and inflicts additional damage to road infrastructure (Streets NM, 2016).

The downside of FCV's and likely the reason for slow adaption are numerous but three main challenges stand out, low voltage produced by the fuel cell, the cost of platinum for use as a catalyst and the absence of hydrogen fueling infrastructure. A typical fuel cell produces less than 1.16volts (Fuel Economy, 2023a) not near enough to drive an electric motor, therefore fuel cells are stacked together to achieve the desired voltage for example the Toyota Mirai has 330 fuel cells stacked together to power the 310-volt electric motor (Toyota, 2023). The fuel cell anode Platinum catalyst is a costly precious metal making fuel cell stacks prohibitively expensive. The biggest issue though is the absence of hydrogen fueling infrastructure, California leads the way in hydrogen infrastructure investment with the remainder of the US as of December 2023 having one hydrogen refueling station in Hawaii with others on the east coast under construction (GLP Autogas, 2024). The issue of available hydrogen infrastructure applies equally to the proposed hydrogen fueled internal combustion engine; however, a novel solution is proposed that significantly reduces cost and timeline for deployment.

c) The Hydrogen Fueled Internal Combustion Engine (H2 for ICE)

The public perception of the internal combustion engine (ICE) one could argue is flawed and by that, I mean that it is seen by the public as simply a gasoline or diesel engine for vehicles and nothing more, you can therefore reasonably conclude that the drive to abolish the internal combustion engine by governments

2023) is based (CNET, on this perception. Fundamentally this is false, the internal combustion engine is nothing more than a heat engine that converts heat to mechanical work. Heat generation is through combustion of fuel with oxygen, usually air. Gasoline and diesel dominate as the preferred fuel for the internal combustion engine, however using hydrogen as a fuel is physically no different than using diesel or gasoline, at the same time hydrogen achieves the European ZEV standards. A zero carbon transportation system can only be achieved using hydrogen as a fuel while preserving our future demand for global population mobility.

Development of the internal combustion engine has historically always focused on gasoline or diesel as the primary source of fuel, however recent industry developments have focused on re-purposing the existing internal combustion engine to use hydrogen with on road trials expected mid-2024. The technology package for ICE conversion to hydrogen consists of three main activities, engine modification, vehicle integration, calibration and testing, all discussed below:

i. Internal Combustion Engine Modifications Required for Hydrogen Fuel

Maximizing reuse of existing components is critical as it reduces cost and ensures the simplest solution. Taking this into consideration repurposing the existing internal combustion engine involves, at the highest level, three fundamental tasks where original component removal or replacement is needed. There are many lesser sub-tasks that could be discussed, and these are also dependent on the type of engine being converted, but for the purposes of this discussion the focus is on three engine modifications:

 Removal of Exhaust Gas Recirculation (EGR): The primary function of the EGR system is to reduce nitrogen oxide emissions. This is achieved through routing a percentage of oxygen deficient exhaust gases back to the engine intake to limit peak combustion temperatures and thus limiting NOx production. Whether the EGR needs to be removed

- or can be disabled will be determined through on road testing.
- 2. Intake Manifold Modification: Existing intake manifolds need to be modified for hydrogen fuel. Modification will likely be through adoption of a dedicated hydrogen manifold spacer that includes provision for hydrogen injection and pressure sensing along with ports to direct flow to the intake valves. A consequence of this modification and a vehicle integration task to be addressed is increased engine width.
- 3. Boosting: Installation of a Super Turbo: The function of a Super Turbo is to allow increased performance and efficiency across the engine's range of duty

cycles. The Super Turbo is a mechanically driven turbocharger that enables bi-directional power transfer and speed ratio control between the turbocharger and the engine. It is an on-demand boost system that responds to the engine's command for air flow. (SuperTurbo Technologies, 2020) The Super Turbo enables the hydrogen engine to achieve the European ZEV standards while maintaining diesel or gasoline ICE power, efficiency and on road performance.

Figure 1.2 Innovative High Speed Traction Drive (SuperTurbo Technologies, 2020) illustrates a Super Turbo installed in a typical Internal Combustion Engine.

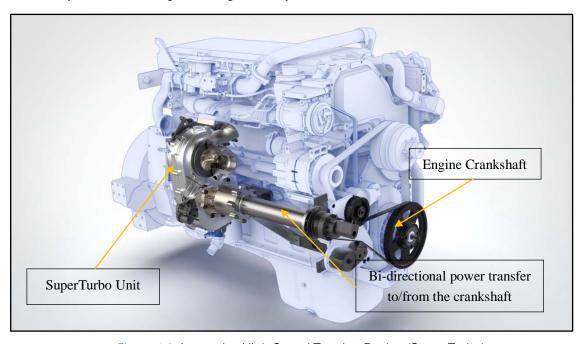


Figure 1.2: Innovative High Speed Traction Device (Super Turbo)

In addition to engine and vehicle integration modifications, appropriate calibration and testing is required. Vehicle integration addresses activities such as modifying the engine bay to accommodate added engine width, addition of hydrogen storage tanks and upgrading of the engine control systems (ECU) to combust hydrogen fuel efficiently. Calibration focuses primarily on steady state engine operation, hydrogen combustion performance and qualification of emissions to meet European ZEV standards. Testing will initially be conducted using specialized engine test benches and vehicle dynamometers to confirm all calibrations meet standards, then on-road durability testing before operational deployment in late 2024.

Figure 1.3 illustrates a hydrogen vehicle integration package using a Cummins base engine (Cummins, 2022).

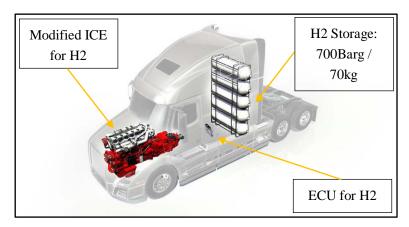


Figure 1.3: Hydrogen Vehicle Integration Package

ii. Hydrogen Vehicle Use Cases

Hydrogen fuelled internal combustion engines are currently being developed for Heavy Duty vehicles (any vehicle exceeding 26,000lbs) along government research funding now being available for development of H₂ in ICE for the rail sector (US DOE, 2024). In the longer term when infrastructure starts to develop there is no reason that medium and light duty trucks along with passenger cars cannot transition to hydrogen fuelled internal combustion engines.

d) The Hydrogen Refuelling Platform

We already have global retail or service stations in place designed and optimized over decades for not only fuel but everyday items such as groceries, would it not therefore seem logical to repurpose this existing infrastructure for hydrogen? What would need to be done to the existing infrastructure to achieve this? Let's discuss the two technology platforms needed to repurpose existing infrastructure for hydrogen fuel on a alobal scale.

i. Hydrogen Forecourt Production Technology

The end goal is a zero carbon transportation system therefore, all sources of CO₂ emissions need to be eliminated, whether being in supply, production, or demand. Forecourt production technology objectives are to eliminate supply and production CO₂ emissions, there are two key activities:

- On site production of green hydrogen: The proposal is to use the same in-situ modular AEM Electrolysis concept as discussed in 'Mobile Modular Hydrogen Power Generation – a Zero Carbon Energy System' (https://doi.org/10.5296/ijgs.v7i1.xxxx) to generate on-site green hydrogen with the electrolyzer capacity sized to expected daily demand. No other method of hydrogen production is considered.
- 2. Reduced Cost and Environmental Impact: Producing on-site hydrogen eliminates distribution compressed gas trucking reducing significantly overall supply costs but more importantly eliminating all CO₂ emissions from trucking. A

standalone renewable energy source would need to be installed should the grid not be 100% green.

ii. Hydrogen Retail Technology Platform

Retail sales of hydrogen have evolved very slowly and only to a small extent in California. To scale for a global market a hydrogen retail technology platform needs to focus on safety, quality, and customer experience with high utilization, there are three key activities:

- Retail safety: Safe scaling of hydrogen fueling infrastructure requires focus on developing safety activities and standards that differ significantly from gasoline and diesel. Baseline safety standards are in place but need refining and developed further for highly utilized service stations in densely populated areas.
- 2. Hydrogen quality sensor: Off-spec hydrogen will damage internal combustion engines and can cause spurious emissions. Quality sensors to detect CO and water will need refining for high utilization.
- Hydrogen dispenser design: Current dispensers are designed for dispensing on a small scale and require upgrading to accommodate high volume dispensing and further mistake and error proofing before mass adaption by the public.

iii. Comparing Future Fuel Vehicles

Table 1.0 compares the differences of biofuel, electric and fuel cell vehicles versus hydrogen for internal combustion engine (H2 for ICE).

Table 1.0: Comparison of Biofuels, Electric and Fuel Cell Vehicles vs. (H2 for ICE)

	Biofuel Vehicle	Electric Vehicle	Fuel Cell Vehicle	H2 for ICE
Technology Readiness	9 – System proven and operational	9 – System proven and operational	9 – System proven and in service at small scale	7 – Prototype demonstrated; road trials planned
Benefit 1	Fuel sourced from partly renewable sources	High on road performance	Zero on road emissions	Zero emission lifecycle
Benefit 2	Low carbon fuel classification	Zero on road emissions	Supported by several states including California	Circularity and ability to repurpose existing engines and vehicles
Benefit 3	Practicable interim solution	Access to EV charging solutions growing rapidly	Hydrogen fuelling infrastructure attracting investment	Equal performance versus gasoline engine
Benefit 4		Starting to be price competitive with mass adaption	Hydrogen safety concerns already mitigated	Existing infrastructure can be used with modifications
Issue 1	Needs blended with gasoline and diesel	Environmental impact of battery materials including recycling	Needs fuel cells to be stacked to achieve required voltage for the electric motor	Hydrogen fuelling infrastructure needs to expand rapidly
Issue 2	Social concerns. 'Food for fuels'	Fossil fuel charging is the norm not the exception	Platinum catalyst makes vehicle costly	AEM electrolysis technology needs fully proved at scale
Issue 3	Lower fuel efficiency at higher blends E85 for example	Heavier vehicle negatively impacts infrastructure	Low power vehicle needs battery to boost under certain conditions	Low public awareness and still concerns with using hydrogen
Issue 4	Needs specific flex fuel vehicles to be successful	High milage needed for emissions to break even with ICE vehicles	Hydrogen fuelling infrastructure needs to expand rapidly	Scarcity of parts for hydrogen engine modifications

III. Discussion

Our modern transportation system has taken over a century to establish and often taken for granted is the scale it has achieved, the convenience provided through service or retail stations where you can purchase gasoline to groceries and quite simply how humanity could not function without this network that exists today. As already discussed, there are approximately 113,000 service stations in Europe, why not repurpose these to accommodate hydrogen as the zero-carbon fuel of the future?

Biofuel, electric and fuel cell vehicles present alternative solutions to reducing carbon emissions, some achieve this better than others, but none achieve hydrogen's lifecycle of zero carbon emissions.

Biofuels with their reliance on hydrocarbons for blending and the need for flex fuel vehicles are not the solution and electric vehicles are surely just an interim fix as we cannot ignore the environmental and societal impacts of mineral mining and the sources of electricity for re-charging. The USA as an example, generates most of its electricity from hydrocarbon fueled power stations, EV charging using renewable power is the exception rather than the norm. Fuel cell vehicles are an anomaly somewhere in between EV and H2 for ICE, but with no game-changing benefits for the user, coupled

with the need for expensive precious metals as a catalyst and their longevity as a solution is questionable.

Hydrogen is the most abundant element in the universe and up until now there has been no reason to develop it as a source of fuel, but this needs to change. Hydrocarbon resources are finite, and we underestimate the transition from them to an efficient, globally accessible, and cost-effective alternative such as hydrogen at our peril. Using hydrogen as a pathway to a zero carbon transportation system comes with many challenges but they are not all conceptual we have engineered exceptionally efficient internal combustion engines, to not capitalize on them is a waste of technological progress, modifying them for hydrogen fuel is well within our technical capabilities. The infrastructure is in place but repurposing this is more a challenge to our 'Group Think' on energy transition solutions than a technical hurdle. Producing green hydrogen using AEM water electrolysis will be the production solution, scaling the electrolyzer output to the huge volumes needed for global transportation will be the final challenge.

Lastly, I leave you with a very elegant graph that leaves no doubt the positive impact using hydrogen as fuel has on CO_2 emissions. Figure 1.4 illustrates the relationship between CO_2 emissions versus using hydrogen (Power Magazine, 2021).

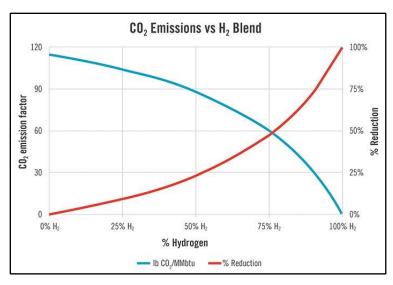


Figure 1.4: CO2 Emissions versus H2 Blend

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Notes

Note 1: For the purposes of this discussion when referring to hydrogen, I mean green hydrogen produced via renewable energy and AEM water electrolysis.

Note 2: The number in an ethanol blend, for example 10 in E10 represents the maximum percentage of ethanol the blend contains; E10 contains up to a maximum of 10% ethanol.

Note 3: The terms zero carbon and zero emission are used interchangeably in this document but refer to the same outcome, the same is applicable to retail or service station.

Note 4: I have worked in the energy industry for over twenty-five years in many countries and currently lead the deployment of new energy technologies for a large global technology company with a focus on water electrolysis and carbon capture development. Aside from the references listed I have first-hand experience and knowledge of the advances in AEM electrolysis, materials-based storage and fuel and lubricants technology including vehicle testing. Please feel free to contact me for further information or discussion.

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The Main Methodological Postulate of Pyrometry and the Need for its Revision

By Alexandr Frunze

Abstract- The analysis of the methodological principles on which pyrometry is based is carried out. Special attention is paid to the main methodological postulate and its consequences. The roots of its formation are considered. It is shown that the large methodological errors characteristic of pyrometry are a direct consequence of the system of priorities arising from this postulate. A new basic methodological postulate of pyrometry is formulated, it is shown that the development of the ideas contained in it will reduce the number of methodological errors by an order of magnitude or more, and the necessary and sufficient conditions for this reduction are formulated.

Keywords: pyrometry, methodological principles, radiation laws, spectral emissivity, temperature dependence of emissivity, reference means for spectral emissivity.

GJRF-A Classification: LCC Code: TJ1-1570



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The Main Methodological Postulate of Pyrometry and the Need for its Revision

Alexandr Frunze

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I. Introduction

he rapid development of microelectronics and microprocessor technology in the last quarter of the 20th century made it possible to bring instrument engineering to a qualitatively higher level. In many industries, the instrumental errors of measuring instruments have decreased to fractions of a percent. Pyrometers are no exception here.

But at the same time, as is known, any of the pyrometry methods has inherent methodical errors¹, the magnitude of which can reach 10 ... 15%, i.e. an order of magnitude or more exceeding the instrumental ones. There are still no ways to *guarantee* their reduction to the level of 1-2%. And the most significant thing is that over the past half century, it has not been possible to reduce the magnitude of these methodological errors in relation to any material whose non-contact temperature measurement may be in demand. And the reason for this, of course, is not at all due to dishonesty or low qualifications of researchers.

II. On the Need to Analyze the Methodology of Pyrometry

The author of this work argues that the problems of pyrometry are methodological in nature. Their solution requires analysis and possible revision of the methodological principles of pyrometry. The work [1] is devoted to this analysis.

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¹ The errors of the method

For applied science, methodology is understood as a system (complex, interconnected set) of postulates and principles of research activity, which a scientist relies on in the course of obtaining and developing knowledge within a given specific scientific discipline or several scientific disciplines ([2]).

Obviously, there are methodological postulates, principles and approaches common to all branches of technical sciences (the obligation of mathematical calculations or modeling, the correspondence of calculated data to experimental data, etc.), and there are also particular, specific ones that apply only to individual industries or to one specific industry. It is quite obvious that it is not methodological principles and postulates common to all branches of technical sciences that slow down the development of pyrometry. because even in related fields (for example, in contact methods of temperature control) there are no problems of large methodical errors. Therefore, the source of irreducible methodical errors should be sought in specific methodological postulates and principles of pyrometry.

However, the methodological postulates and principles specific to pyrometry have not yet been clearly formulated. The reason is that most specialists in this field have not yet realized that the problems of incessant huge methodical errors are methodical in nature. The desire to formulate methodological principles and postulates that determine the course of development of a particular industry arises only after realizing the futility of trying to solve the problem within the framework of existing knowledge. Half a century of stomping in place on the issue of reducing methodical errors from a 10...20 percent level to units or fractions of a percent just suggests that there is a need to revise the methodological postulates and principles of pyrometry.

III. METHODOLOGICAL PRINCIPLES AND Approaches in Pyrometry

The principles and approaches most characteristic of modern pyrometry are listed below ([1]):

 Regular resumption of attempts to find the temperature of the measured object only by its radiation, based only on Planck's or Wien's laws, without taking into account its radiative properties.

- Consideration of the emissivity 2 as a minor, secondary, and even interfering factor, both in theoretical constructions and in the practical implementation of pyrometry methods.
- The use of only those reference means during verification³ and calibration that perfectly implement the laws of radiation ("absolutely black bodies", BB).
- The lack of reference means and measuring instruments of spectral emissivity.
- The almost universal disregard of the dependence of the spectral emissivity characteristic of most objects on the temperature of the object and on the state of its surface (roughness, the presence of liquids, oil films, etc.).
- Reduction (both in theoretical calculations and in practice) of the complex influence of emissivity to a one-dimensional effect described by a simple numerical coefficient, with complete disregard for the fact that emissivity is not a coefficient, but a function of at least two variables.
- The use of various adjustment organs in almost all modern pyrometers, which make it possible to adjust the measurement results in any direction within a fairly wide range.
- The lack of developed algorithms for determining the actual temperature of an object by its pseudotemperature (brightness, partial radiation, radiation or spectral ratio), taking into account the temperature dependence of the emissivity characteristic of most objects.

As for paragraphs 3, 4 and 7, they are obvious. The statement of paragraph 2 also becomes obvious when analyzing almost all books published over the past 50 years, the authors of which try to cover pyrometry as a whole, rather than highlight certain selected issues. In these books, the laws of Planck, Wien, Stefan-Boltzmann, Rayleigh-Jeans, Kirchhoff, Lambert are usually described in detail first, and only after that the concept of emissivity is introduced, characterizing the difference between the radiation of real objects and the radiation of the BB.

According to claim 1, measurements in polarized light can be noted [3], the use of multiband spectral-ratio pyrometers with narrow spectral bands [4], the use of spectrometers [5], etc.

As a confirmation of what was said in paragraphs 5, 6 and 8, the following can be cited.

In the known relations present in almost all books on pyrometry, linking the actual temperature of an object T_d with its brightness or radiation temperature, the emissivity appears in the form of constants ε_{λ} , ε_{s} :

$$\frac{1}{T_{\rm d}} = \frac{1}{T_{\rm b}} + \frac{\lambda}{c_2} \ln \varepsilon_{\lambda} \tag{1}$$

where $T_{\rm d}$ is the actual temperature, K; $T_{\rm b}$ is the brightness temperature measured by the pyrometer, K; $c_2 = 1.4380 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{m·K}$; λ is the operating wavelength of the monochromatic brightness pyrometer, m; ε_{λ} is the radiation coefficient of the object at the wavelength λ .

$$T_{_{\rm II}} = T_{_{\rm I}} / \sqrt[4]{\varepsilon_{_{\rm S}}} \tag{2}$$

where T_d is the actual temperature, K; T_r is the radiation temperature measured by the pyrometer, K; $\varepsilon_{\rm s}$ is the integral radiation coefficient.

However, if we take into account that ε_{λ} and ε_{s} are not constants, but functions of wavelength λ and temperature T_{d} , and instead of constants substitute functions $\varepsilon(\lambda, T_d)$ in (1) and $\varepsilon_s(T_d)$ in (2), then simple calculation relations (1) and (2) turn into equations unsolvable in analytical form. There are no algorithms for solving these equations in general.

IV. THE MAIN METHODOLOGICAL POSTULATE OF PYROMETRY

The analysis of the above methodological principles and approaches characteristic of modern pyrometry allows us to identify something common to all of them without exception. This is the implicitly postulated priority of radiation laws in this industry over all other laws and patterns used to determine the temperature of heated bodies by their radiation. It is she who is today the main methodological postulate specific to pyrometry, which hinders its development.

This methodological postulate has a historical origin, since the laws of radiation were formulated back in the XIX century, and there is still no theory that would link the radiative characteristics of a substance with its physico-chemical constants, and at the same time would not diverge from experimental data in the entire spectral range.

Of particular importance is the fact that this priority is postulated implicitly, by stealth. None of the researchers claims that finding the exact temperature of an object by its radiation without knowing its radiative properties is possible. But in practice, all modern research in pyrometry is aimed precisely at finding the temperature of heated objects without knowing their radiative characteristics. After all, if this succeeds, it will be possible to forget about the dreary measurements of the emissivity, depending on both the state of the object's surface and its temperature. From this point of view, the game is worth the candle, since there are still no devices for measuring emissivity, and experimental installations that allow this to be done are large, expensive, low-mobility, measurements on them require

² Further, everywhere by the emissivity of an object we will understand its spectral $\varepsilon(\lambda)$ or temperature-spectral $\varepsilon(\lambda, T)$ emissivity

³ In Russia, verification is the confirmation by one of the accredited state metrological centers of the declared metrological characteristics of the device being verified

high qualifications and a lot of time. Therefore, the prospect of learning how to measure temperature by radiation without knowing the radiative properties looks very tempting.

The most likely solution to this problem seems to be using spectrometers, so today most research is conducted in this area [5]. However, the possibility of such a solution for any predetermined material is not yet obvious.

If we return to the pyrometers, then the following should be noted. The above-mentioned emissivity characterizes the difference between the radiation of a real object and the radiation of an BB. If the differences are small, then the measurement error with a pyrometer calibrated according to the BB is also small. But for many objects that have to be measured with pyrometers, the differences in their radiation spectrum are quite large from the spectrum of the radiation of the BB.

An BB-calibrated pyrometer, by definition. cannot correctly measure the temperature of an object that does not emit as an BB. The error that occurs during such measurements is the main methodical error, it is determined not by the quality of calibration, but by the problem of the measurement method (i.e., the need to measure an object that emits differently from the sample from which the pyrometer was calibrated). How can such an error be reduced or eliminated altogether?

In today's practice, pyrometers are equipped with regulators, with the help of which a certain coefficient can be entered into them, usually taking a value from 0.1 to 0.99...1. This coefficient is usually "blackness coefficient", called the blackness" "radiation coefficient". Using this or coefficient, the operator can change the measurement result. It is assumed that he knows the "correct" value of this coefficient, and by setting it, he will correct the pyrometer readings and eliminate the mentioned methodical error.

To understand the negative consequences of this approach, you need to ask yourself - where do these coefficients come from? In the best case. measurements once made under these conditions are usually quite rough, with a small number of samples, without fully taking into account all factors affecting the result, without estimating the error. But more often from literary sources compiled according to the same measurement results, performed by unknown people, unknown when, and with the same disadvantages.

The main thing here is that with this approach, the correction value is not calculated, but determined experimentally by selecting the radiation coefficient for the value at which the pyrometer will show the correct result (or one that is considered correct for one reason or another)4. Let's add to this that manufacturers do not provide information about what the algorithm for correcting the measurement results of the radiation coefficient entered into this pyrometer is. The latter completely excludes the possibility of correctly accounting for the effect on the pyrometer measurement result of the difference between the radiation spectrum of the measuring object and the frequency response spectrum, the dependence of this difference on the temperature of the object itself, and on the spectral range of the pyrometer, and on the width of the range, and on the state of the surface of the object, and a number of other parameters. As a result, fitting to the expected result remains the only way to correct. In production practice, this leads to the fact that the technologist does not know which of the radiation coefficients to choose from the abundance available in various sources. As a result, the selection is made "by eye" so that the measurement result corresponds to the expected one. This is where users have measurement errors with pyrometers up to 10-20%.

That is, the user is trying to eliminate the methodical error, but the method used today to exclude it does not guarantee its reduction. With a successful combination of circumstances, it can decrease to the level of 1-2%, and if unsuccessful, it can remain at the same level of 10-20%. And at the same time, the instrumental errors of modern pyrometers often do not exceed 0.2... 0.5%. That is, the improvement of pyrometers in terms of further reducing the instrumental error at this stage is meaningless, because it does not lead to an increase in measurement accuracy. Improving the accuracy of measurements in pyrometry has run into a barrier of methodical errors. How to overcome it?

⁴ This is a problem that many still do not realize. Correction by experimentally selected coefficients causes very serious complaints from the point of view of metrology. This can be explained using such a simple example. Let's assume that we measure small voltage values in a printed circuit assembly with a DC microvoltmeter. As is known, when the copper probe of the device comes into contact with the Kovar pin of the chip, a fairly significant contact potential difference occurs, about 30 mV at room temperature. It is quite obvious that if, instead of subtracting this potential difference from the measurement result (adjusted, moreover, taking into account the temperature of the output of the chip), we smoothly "tweak" the gain of the microvoltmeter to the value that, according to someone once made estimates, gives the correct value of the measured value, then not only about the unity of measurements in radio engineering, but also their accuracy can be forgotten. It is unacceptable to exclude errors by the method of "fitting an experimentally selected coefficient to the correct result", without relying on the measurement of the influencing quantity and on knowledge of its dependencies on certain environmental parameters.

V. The Need to Isolate the Planck Component from the Total RADIATION OF THE OBJECT

To overcome this barrier, it is necessary to realize what happens when measuring when we neglect the influence of the radiative properties of the measured object. Let's turn to Fig. 1. Here are the Spectral Radiance (SR) of transformer steel when heated to 1127°C in a nitrogen-hydrogen atmosphere (1) and high-alumina firebrick heated in air to the same temperature (2). The results are obtained based on the data given in [4]. Here, for comparison, the SR of the source of ideal Planck radiation - BB (3) at the same 1127°C is given. Obviously, the isolation of the Planck component⁵ 3 from dependencies 1 and 2 is an operation completely unobvious, none of the radiation temperature measuring devices is designed to solve this problem.

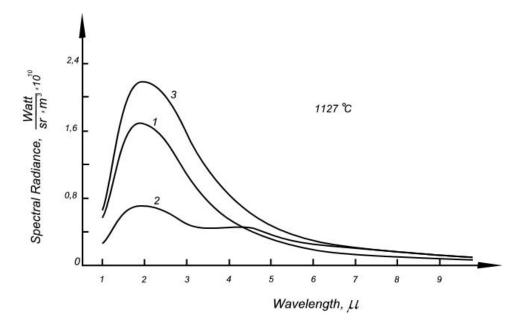


Figure 1: Spectral Radiance (SR) of transformer steel when heated to 1127°C in a nitrogen-hydrogen atmosphere (1), high-alumina firebrick heated in air to the same temperature (2) and BB at 1127°C (3)

The need to isolate the Planck component from the complete SR of an object arose at the dawn of the development of practical pyrometry. This turned out to be necessary because pyrometers are universally calibrated by BB, and after such calibration they can correctly measure the temperature of only those objects that emit as BB - "black" and "gray". When measuring other objects, it is that part of their radiation that distinguishes it from the radiation of the BB, and introduces an additional error, which we call methodical. Therefore, in order to exclude it, one way or another, its banking component must be isolated from the entire radiation of the object. Or somehow exclude the influence of non-Plank component.

VI. Spectral Emissivity and its Role in ELIMINATING METHODICAL ERRORS

The spectral emissivity can be defined as the result of the functional division of the SR of a real object into the SR of an BB (hereinafter, functional division is understood to be the division of the ordinate of the function-divisible by the ordinate of the divisor function for the same abscissa for the set of all possible abscissae).

Figure 2 shows the dependences on the wavelength of the spectral emissivity of transformer steel (1) and high alumina firebrick (2), corresponding to a temperature of 1127°C [4]. As noted, we call these functions spectral emissivity in order to distinguish them from the coefficients⁶ introduced into energy pyrometers and still called by inertia by many users of pyrometers and authors of articles on pyrometry "emissivity". Let's add that the spectral emissivity is also a function of the temperature of the object.

⁵ Here and further, under the Planck component (Planck curve), we will understand the CR BB.

⁶ In this paper, the author calls this coefficient the "radiation coefficient", not emissivity.

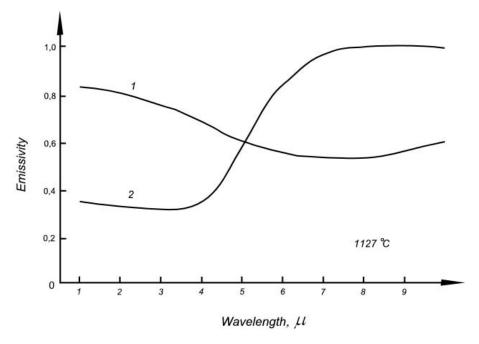


Figure 2: Spectral emissivity of transformer steel when heated to 1127°C in a nitrogen-hydrogen atmosphere (1), and high-alumina firebrick heated in air to the same temperature (2)

Thus, the spectral emissivity is a function that contains the difference between the SR of a real object and the SR of an BB having an equal temperature with the object. Its non-accounting (or incorrect accounting) does not make it possible to correctly convert the SR of the measured object into a Planck curve of equal temperature with the object, according to which this temperature can be measured without any systematic errors using an BB-calibrated pyrometer.

One of the ways of such a separation of the Planck component from the total radiation spectrum is the functional division of the SR of a real object into its real spectral emissivity. However, this is possible only if we have at our disposal almost complete spectral dependences of the SR and emissivity, i.e. lying in the wavelength range where the values of the Planck curves for these objects exceed 0.5-1% of their maxima. This is typical for spectral pyrometry, which is at the initial stage of its development. But pyrometers are not spectrometers, and such a functional division is impossible for them. Nevertheless, knowledge of the spectral emissivity is also necessary for classical energy pyrometers of spectral ratio (at least in the range of spectral sensitivity of these measuring instruments). However, it should be used in the allocation of the Planck component in a slightly different way. Here is one of the options for such a selection.

First, the full view of the object's SR is calculated for all measured temperatures (for example,

with a given step within the entire measurement range). To do this, for each of the temperatures, its spectral emissivity is functionally multiplied by its Planck function. Next, using the obtained SR, a set of pseudotemperatures (brightness, or radiation, or spectral ratio depending on which type of devices the correction is performed) is calculated. This calculation can be performed using calibration⁸ functions. Then a table is formed in which the actual temperature is assigned to each of the obtained pseudo-temperatures - the one whose Planck curve was used to calculate this pseudotemperature. And at the last stage, the actual temperature of the measured object is determined based on the result of the pyrometer measurement using the above-mentioned recalculation table ([6]). When using the real spectral emissivity in this algorithm, methodical errors are excluded, and the error is determined only by the instrumental errors of the pyrometer used.

In fact, in this case, we modify the scale determining function (inverse of the calibration function) of the pyrometer so that it takes into account the difference between the SR of the measured object and the SR of the BB. Which is essentially equivalent to separating the Planck component from the total flux of its radiation.

Once again, I would like to draw readers attention to an important statement – if we want to measure temperature with a pyrometer without

⁷ Energy pyrometers are understood to be all pyrometers having only one radiation receiver, which determine the temperature by the magnitude of the signal from the receiver, i.e. by the magnitude of the energy flow that came to it

⁸ The calibration function is, in this case, the dependence of the voltage at the output of the receiver signal amplifier (for an energy pyrometer) or the spectral ratio (for a pyrometer of the spectral ratio) on the temperature of the BB

methodical errors, we must somehow isolate the aforementioned Planck component from all the radiation that came to the pyrometer. Its measurement with an BB-calibrated pyrometer will give the desired result. Or, one way or another, exclude the influence of a non-Planck component, which will lead to the same measurement result.

And how do we allocate the Planck component today? Few people have thought about this - the extraction operation, which is the result of a complex mathematical calculation, has been replaced by coefficients 9 introduced correction using pyrometers, most often determined experimentally. The task of isolating the Planck component in today's pyrometry has been simplified to the limit – the radiation flux that came to the energy pyrometer is actually simply divided by the radiation coefficient introduced into it. A complex functional transformation is ultimately reduced to division by a constant taken from tables, which very often have a very distant relation to the measured object. Hence the methodical errors, which are absolutely independent of the pyrometer's instrumental error.

Naturally, classical pyrometers spectrometers, they do not measure the SR with some kind of normalizing coefficient, but its integral value in the form of a signal at the output of their radiation receiver. Therefore, the functional division mentioned above is not a task for them. If we are talking about energy pyrometers, then correction by the radiation coefficient is all they can do. But then the procedure for isolating the Planck component should somehow "migrate" at least to the calculation of the radiation coefficient. Such a calculation of the radiation coefficient, taking into account the spectral emissivity $\varepsilon(\lambda, T)$, is described below (see (4)). However, it has certain limitations, which will be described later. Therefore, the task of comprehensively eliminating the influence of temperature-spectral emissivity on the pyrometer measurement result is still relevant. Taking into account all the above, it will be formulated and specified in the last subsection of this article.

It is safe to say that devices for remote temperature measurement will continue to be calibrated according to BB in the future. Consequently, the task of isolating the Planck component from the full SR, according to which these devices will measure temperature, will also remain. And its solution is

impossible without knowledge of the spectral emissivity. And the more precisely it is determined (as well as the more accurately the calibration of the measuring instrument used is carried out), the more accurately the temperature of the measured object will be determined. In a different way, using some averaged coefficients introduced into pyrometers, it will not be possible to get rid of methodical errors.

VII. ABOUT THE NEW BASIC METHODOLOGICAL POSTULATE OF PYROMETRY

All of this means the need to rethink the basic methodological postulate mentioned above, which is specific to pyrometry, which consists in the fact that to determine the temperature of an object by its radiation, it is enough to know and use only the laws of radiation, ignoring accumulated or still missing knowledge about the radiative properties of specific objects. It should be replaced by a postulate proclaiming that the exclusion of methodical errors in non-contact measurement of its temperature is impossible without knowledge of the real (not generalized or averaged!) the spectral emissivity of a particular measured object, and its correct accounting. Attempts to deceive nature and continue to ignore the need to accumulate knowledge about the radiative properties of objects will leave unchanged methodical errors that have hindered the development of pyrometry for more than half a century.

However, this is not all. Since until now there has not been a theory that adequately connects the spectral emissivity with the physico-chemical constants of the object's material, it will be necessary to obtain the necessary information about the spectral emissivity experimentally. At the same time, it should be noted that at the moment there are no specialized measuring instruments for spectral emissivity on the market. Nevertheless, in the works of the author ([7, 8] the technical possibility of creating such measuring instruments is demonstrated, two such devices are described, one of which is protected by a patent of the Russian Federation.

The author also argues the need to have a verification scheme for such devices, as well as a currently missing standard of emissivity, which will stand at the top of this verification scheme ([9, 10]).

VIII. ABOUT WHAT ELSE IS NEEDED

However, knowledge of the spectral emissivity is only a necessary condition for reducing or completely eliminating large methodical errors inherent in pyrometry methods. It is not sufficient for this reduction, since algorithms and methods for minimizing/eliminating these errors with full consideration of temperature-spectral emissivity are either insufficiently developed or

⁹ For very narrow-band pyrometers and for full-radiation pyrometers, correction in accordance with (1) and (2) is quite acceptable, but with certain reservations: firstly, it is still necessary to know the temperature-spectral emissivity of the object, and secondly, the radiation coefficients depend on temperature, sometimes strongly, and for the choice of their exact values require knowledge of the very temperature of the object for which they are needed to measure. The latter greatly limits the correction according to (1) and (2) for accurate measurements.

absent. Therefore, it is necessary to solve the following scientific problems.

1. As is known, when measuring of "non-gray" objects with spectral-ratio pyrometers, they have a methodical error, the mechanism of which is discussed in detail in [11]. The ratio (3) is known, which allows (knowing the spectral emissivity) to compensate for this methodical error:

$$\frac{1}{T_d} - \frac{1}{T_{sp.rel}} = \ln \frac{\varepsilon_{\lambda_1}}{\varepsilon_{\lambda_2}} \frac{1}{c_2} \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\lambda_1} - \frac{1}{\lambda_2}}$$
(3)

where T_d is the actual temperature, K; $T_{sp,rel}$ is the temperature of the spectral ratio measured by the pyrometer, K; $c_2 = 1.4380 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ m} \cdot \text{ K}$; λ_1 and λ_2 are the operating wavelengths of the narrowband pyrometer of

the spectral ratio, m; \mathcal{E}_{λ_1} and \mathcal{E}_{λ_2} are the emission coefficients at wavelengths λ_1 and λ_2 .

However, this ratio is valid only for pyrometers with narrow (no more than 10...20nm) spectral bands.

At the same time, the vast majority of spectralratio pyrometers produced today are broadband, the width of the spectral bands of their sensitivity is tens or even hundreds of nanometers. As a result, ratio (3) is essentially inapplicable for the absolute majority of pyrometers used in practice, and has more theoretical than practical value. Therefore, a universal method is needed to correct the methodical error that occurs when measuring the temperature of "non-gray" objects with any pyrometers of spectral ratio. This method is developed and described in [6, 12]. They present an algorithm for machine calculation of the temperature of the spectral ratio of "non-gray" objects using a calibration function, and an experimental study of the method is carried out. However, the proposed method (as well as in the ratio (3)) does not take into account the temperature dependence of the spectral emissivity. Therefore, the method needs to be improved, taking into account this dependence.

Thus, the problem can be formulated as follows: the above-mentioned universal method correcting pyrometers of the spectral ratio must be improved in such a way as to take into account the temperature dependence of the spectral emissivity. After that, it, together with information about the spectral emissivity, will become necessary and sufficient conditions for minimizing/eliminating methodical errors in the method of pyrometry of the spectral ratio.

The solution of this problem is described by the author in [13].

In contrast to the spectral ratio pyrometry method, the emissivity correction is fundamentally necessary in the energy pyrometry method. To do this, before measuring, a correction factor is introduced into the energy pyrometer, which in this work is called the radiation coefficient. The radiation coefficients introduced into pyrometers are almost universally determined experimentally, by adjusting this coefficient to the value at which the result of temperature measurement using a pyrometer is close to the result of measurement by contact methods. Once selected in this way, the radiation coefficient is then usually transferred to all pyrometers that have to measure such an object. The measurement errors caused by such a transfer are described in [14]. And, moreover, with this approach, it is impossible to correctly take into account not only the spectral range of the pyrometer used, but also the temperature dependence of the emissivity. And this in turn leads to the appearance of additional methodical errors described in [15].

In [16], a ratio is given that allows the recognition of the spectral emissivity and spectral sensitivity characteristics of a photodiode pyrometer to correctly determine the radiation coefficient:

$$\varepsilon_{\lambda,T} = \frac{\int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} \varepsilon(\lambda, T) S(\lambda) E(\lambda, T) d\lambda}{\int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} S(\lambda) E(\lambda, T) d\lambda}$$
(4)

where $\varepsilon_{\lambda T}$ is the radiation coefficient at wavelength λ for temperature T, $\varepsilon(\lambda, T)$ is the spectral emissivity of the object; $S(\lambda)$ is the spectral characteristic of the pyrometer sensitivity; $E(\lambda, T)$ is the Planck function; λ_1 and λ_2 are the lower and upper limits of spectral sensitivity.

Since (4) represents the ratio of two definite integrals that are practically insoluble analytically, its use in practice by metrologists and technologists of enterprises is hardly possible – for this, a specialist must have a legally purchased package such as MathCad or Mathlab and be able to use it. Therefore, it is necessary to develop simple and freely distributed programs with which users with minimal computer skills could determine the radiation coefficient according to (4). One of the variants of the set of such programs is given in [17].

Further, since $\varepsilon(\lambda, T)$ and $E(\lambda, T)$ depend on the temperature of the object, the coefficient $\varepsilon_{\lambda T}$ also depends on temperature. That is, the radiation coefficient found using (4) depends on the temperature. In this case, a vicious circle arises – in order to measure the temperature correctly with an energy pyrometer, you need to enter the correct value of the radiation coefficient into it. But to find the correct value of the radiation coefficient, you need to know the temperature of the object, which we are still only going to measure. The established practice of adjusting the radiation coefficient to the correct result, if this correct result is unknown in advance, does not solve the problem.

It follows from the above that for the accurate correction of energy pyrometers for emissivity, not only the ratio (4) is required, but also a preliminary knowledge of the temperature to be measured, because without this it is impossible to correctly select those $\varepsilon(\lambda,T)$ and $E(\lambda,T)$ that are necessary to calculate $\varepsilon_{\lambda,T}$ according to (4).

Therefore, the task can be formulated as follows: for energy pyrometers, it is necessary to develop a method of correction for emissivity, different from the one currently used, in which there is no need for prior knowledge of the temperature to be measured in order to correctly use the temperature-dependent radiation coefficient $\epsilon_{\lambda,T}$ i.e. it is necessary to break this vicious circle when you need to know its correct value to measure temperature, and in order to calculate it correctly in accordance with (4), we need to know this temperature, which is still unknown to us. The current method of correction is not capable of breaking it without some additional information.

It is the above-mentioned method of correction. which differs from the currently used one, in combination with knowledge of temperature-dependent spectral emissivity, that will be the necessary and sufficient means to minimize/exclude methodical errors in the method of energy pyrometry.

The solution of the mentioned problem is planned by the author to be published in one of the next issues of one of the periodicals covering measuring topics. A general approach to solving this problem is formulated in [18].

The implementation of solutions to the formulated tasks will dramatically reduce the methodical errors in pyrometry to a level comparable to the level achieved by instrumental errors.

IX. CONCLUSION

- 1. The main methodological postulate specific to pyrometry is formulated - the implicitly postulated priority of radiation laws in this branch over all other laws and patterns used to determine the temperature of heated bodies. It is shown that it is the unconscious adherence to this postulate that does not allow for half a century to solve the problem of reducing/eliminating methodical errors in non-contact temperature control methods.
- new. alternative to the above. methodological postulate specific to pyrometry is formulated. He proclaims that without knowledge and use of the real (not generalized or averaged!) the temperature-spectral emissivity of a particular measured object it is impossible to exclude

- methodical errors in the non-contact measurement of its temperature.
- Since to date there has not been a theory that adequately connects the temperature-spectral emissivity with the physico-chemical constants of the object's material, it is argued that it will be necessary to obtain the necessary information about the spectral emissivity experimentally. At the same time, it should be noted that at the moment there are no specialized measuring instruments for spectral emissivity on the market. Nevertheless, in a number of the author's works, the technical possibility of their creation is demonstrated, two such devices are described, one of which is protected by a patent of the Russian Federation.
- However, knowledge of the spectral emissivity is only a necessary condition for reducing or completely eliminating large methodical errors inherent in pyrometry methods. For sufficiency, it is necessary to develop algorithms and methods for accounting for the effect on the spectral emissivity of the temperature of the measured object, which are now either insufficiently developed or completely absent.
- 5. References are given to the algorithms developed by the author of this article for taking into account the influence of temperature on the spectral emissivity of an object used in the methods of spectral ratio pyrometry and energy pyrometry.
- The algorithms noted in paragraph 5 (recognition of temperature-spectral emissivity). implemented, will reduce the methodical errors of pyrometry methods to a level comparable to the level achieved by instrumental errors.

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A Survey on Methods to Optimize Power Harvesting in Drones

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Abstract- This paper explores the challenges associated with limited battery capacity in drones and presents a comprehensive analysis of strategies to optimize energy harvesting and extend flight durations. Various energy generation methods, including piezoelectric and solar harvesting, are discussed, along with electrical circuit generation for wireless charging and communication-enabled energy delivery. The interdisciplinary nature of drone technology is highlighted, emphasizing the need for ongoing research in renewable energy models and innovative solutions like laser charging. The paper concludes with recommendations for further exploration and refinement of these strategies to enhance the future of UAVs.

Keywords: drones, battery capacity, energy harvesting, piezoelectric harvesting, solar-powered UAVs, wireless charging.

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A Survey on Methods to Optimize Power Harvesting in Drones

Dr. Fath Elrahman Ismaeal Ahmed α, Gihad Abdelaziz Abdelghani Ibrahim σ, Khalil. B. Ahmed. A ρ, Haiir Saeed [©] & Suhail Kamil [¥]

Abstract- This paper explores the challenges associated with limited battery capacity in drones and presents a comprehensive analysis of strategies to optimize energy harvesting and extend flight durations. Various energy generation methods, including piezoelectric and solar harvesting, are discussed, along with electrical circuit generation for wireless charging and communication-enabled energy delivery. The interdisciplinary nature of drone technology is highlighted, emphasizing the need for ongoing research in renewable energy models and innovative solutions like laser charging. The paper concludes recommendations for further exploration and refinement of these strategies to enhance the future of UAVs.

Keywords: drones, battery capacity, energy harvesting, piezoelectric harvesting, solar-powered UAVs, wireless charging.

I. Introduction

rones have become increasingly popular for civilian applications, including various commercial. scientific. recreational. agricultural tasks [1,2,3,4]. However, their limited onboard battery capacity has been a challenge [5,6,7]. development in artificial intelligence mechatronics technology have improved the capabilities of drones as aerial robots to making them cost-effective, user-friendly, safe, and environmentally friendly options [8,9,10,11,12,13]. This paper reviews studies that propose solutions to optimize energy harvesting from UAV body vibrations and explore ways to increase flight duration by improving the design and capacity of existing batteries.

II. Analysis of Power Loss during Flight

In the drone, power is lost during flight through mechanical loss (M_{Pl}) , magnetic loss (EMF_{Pl}) , iron (I_{Pl}) , and copper loss (C_{Pl}) . The total power loss (T_{Pl}) is calculated by summation of this power.

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$$T_{PL} = \sum M_{PL} + EMF_{PL} + I_{PL} + C_{PL}$$
 (1)

The UAV energy consumption is calculated as

$$E_{Con} = T_{PL} \times T \tag{2}$$

Where T is time is mints.

The total energy storage in the battery is calculated as

$$E_{\rm R} = V_{DC} \times C_R \times 60 \tag{3}$$

the total energy consumption percentage through the fighting is calculated as

$$C_{\%} = \frac{E_{\rm B} - E_{\rm Con}}{E_{\rm B}} \times 100\%$$
 (4)

The features and configurations of UAVs can vary significantly based on their missions. Developing accurate and efficient energy consumption models relies on thoroughly understanding of the contributing factors. Drone operations exhibit higher sensitivity to considerations than traditional [14,15,16,17,18,19]. Various internal and external factors come into play, impacting energy usage. For instance, flying into headwinds has been observed to resulted in lower power consumption, attributed to increased thrust generated during the transition from hovering to forward flight [20,21,22,23,24,25]. The weight and payload of UAVs emerge as crucial factors significantly affecting energy consumption [26,27]. [28] delve into an analysis of different parameters influencing the energy consumption of UAV routing problems, examining a scenario involving a single UAV on a multiple-delivery mission. The study highlights on the relationships between UAV energy consumption and influencing parameters. Drone design, environmental conditions, drone dynamics, and delivery operations are the four main elements influencing drone energy usage, as discussed by [29,30].

III. UAV Power Harvesting Methods

The increasing demand of drones for various civilian and military applications challenges with their power consumption or battery capacity. This paper explores UAV power harvesting methods, focusing on advancements in artificial intelligence and mechatronics technology to enhance drone capabilities as aerial robots. The authors delve into solutions to optimize energy harvesting from UAV body vibrations and extend flight durations. The paper highlights the diverse strategies employed to make drones cost-effective, user-friendly, safe, and environmentally friendly.

Several studies have been conducted to address the limitations of drone battery capacity and enhance their overall functionality.

Mohamad Hazwan et al. introduces a real-time fault detection system for multirotor. Vibration sensors are attached to the multirotor arms to collect data, which is then analyzed by Al decision-making systems like fuzzy logic, neuro-fuzzy, and NN. The fuzzy logic method performed the best in indoor testing, while the neuro-fuzzy or NN methods may be more effective outdoors. The study suggests expanding the research to include other parameters like propeller vibration, motor condition, and battery level. Also use the accelerometer to measure vibration. using of a printed circuit board (PCB) can reduce wiring and unwanted interference [31].

Matej Karasek, Discusses the significance of stability in flying systems and introduces a new model that incorporating vibrational stabilization. This form of stability is essential important for larger flyers like hawkmoths and hummingbirds. The paper also explores the potential applications of vibrational stabilization in flapping-wing robots and MEMS sensors [32].

Kejing Chen et al, introduce the vibration modes of large-scale multi-rotor manned drones by analyzing small-scale drones through experiments and finite element analysis. It found that, accelerometers measure drone vibrations to some extent. The study also developed a second-generation large-scale drone based on the vibration characteristics of small-scale drones. Circular tubular arms were found to have strong vibrations in the z-axis direction, while elliptical arms effectively reduced vibrations in the same direction. Factors such as motor mounting position and connection between the arms and the body were identified as influences on vibrations, with longer arms causing more noticeable vibration. The study suggested that connecting structures between adjacent arms can help decrease vibration in the drone's beam structure [33].

Xunhua Dai et al, describe the optimization of the UAVs systems, by modeling various components such as the propeller, ESC, motor, and battery. Mathematical derivations estimate important parameters for each element, resulting in improved efficiency. The effectiveness of this approach is demonstrated through experiments and feedback. Optimizing the propulsion system is crucial for designing multicopters and other aircraft systems, and the theoretical analysis can also be extended to enhance the endurance of UAVs, providing opportunities for future research [34].

Abera Tullu et al, discuss the increase use of small-scale UAVs for law enforcement missions, and the

need for robust autonomy in these drones. However, using multiple sensors for environmental information is often impractical due to weight and cost constraints

Adam Dáugosz et al. utilized the optimal design of a drone wing made of composite materials. The goal is to improve strength and rigidity while reducing weight. The study uses a multi-objective evolutionary algorithm to optimize the wing structure. Numerical simulations and experimental tests are used to validate the design. The results show that the current design is more rigid than all the other solutions found, and the ideal Pareto solution set offers a range of diverse options for the designer to choose from. Overall, the optimization task of the drone wing design is challenging, but this study provides a promising approach to improving current designs [36].

Heung Soo Kim et al. discuss the use of piezoelectric energy harvesting from vibration sources and the limitations of using monolithic or biomorphic ceramic layers. It introduces piezoelectric total fiber composites (MFC) and three new substrate materials (copper, zinc alloy, and galvanized steel) for energy harvesting. The study includes Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) and finite element analysis (FEA) to analyze the performance of different substrate materials and the effect of MFC patches on the shape of an airplane wing. The results show that using MFC patches can improve the aerodynamic performance and stability of the aircraft [37].

Nikola Gavrilovic et al. introduce the feasibility of using wind energy for small UAVs, and the potential for maximizing energy extraction from wind fluctuations. The equations of motion and energy equations are used to develop control strategies that minimize energy usage during flights and maximize energy obtained from wind fluctuations. The study also explores the effects of complex and random three-dimensional wind fields on aircraft performance and power acquisition. The future focus will be on defining the design process and optimal strategies for extracting energy from storms, flight tests with wind measurement systems are necessary for complete understanding of the dynamics and energy exchanges involved [38].

Rocco Citroni et al. develop new strategies for expanding the parameters of small air vehicles (MAVs), specifically in terms of travel distance and mission duration. The first section of the paper presents a model to analyze the energy consumption of drones and proposes different scenarios for improving mission parameters. The second section discusses the design and simulation of a harvesting machine using plasmatic Nano atom technology, which shows potential for enhancing parameters. The results suggest that a hybrid system with the harvesting machine and a new rechargeable battery could indefinitely power the MAVs.

Rutuja Shivgan et al. a model for drone path planning that considers energy consumption. The model focuses on drone acceleration, deceleration, hovering, and turning. The problem of finding an energy-efficient path is formulated as a traveling Salesman problem. The paper proposes a genetic algorithm to minimize energy usage by reducing the number of turns. The results demonstrate that the genetic algorithm with energy optimization significantly reduces energy consumption compared to the greedy algorithm, with more significant savings as the number of waypoints increases [40].

ALPER ERTURK et al. The study initiated a new L-shaped energy harvester design that can produce a broader range of energy. The authors propose an electromechanical model to analyze the harvester's behavior and suggest methods to avoid voltage cancellation. Additionally, the text discusses the potential use of the L-shaped harvester as a landing gear for drones, comparing it with a curved power harvester beam. The theoretical benefits of the L-shaped design are emphasized, and experiments are being conducted to confirm its performance [41].

Georgia Foutsitzi et al. The study aimed to optimize the design of a cantilever piezoelectric energy harvester (PEH) by considering multiple criteria, such as maximizing power output, minimizing system mass, and ensuring maximum bending stress constraint. Three optimization algorithms were used, and the results showed that all algorithms converged to the base Pareto optimal front after approximately ten generations. However, only the GDE3 algorithm could generate solutions with power output exceeding 284 mW/g2. Additionally, GDE3 outperformed the other algorithms regarding solution quality metrics [42].

Pedram Beigi et al. This paper explores the increasing demand for drones and how their energy consumption is crucial in determining effectiveness. It provides an overview of research on the energy consumption of UAVs and examines the factors influencing their energy consumption during missions

Alastair P et al. present static modeling approach for VTOL UAV power systems, the model accurately predicts losses and efficiency but tends to overestimate energy loss. The paper also showcases the application of the model in different power system architectures, highlighting the advantages of a hybrid system with a hydrogen fuel cell, which enables a lighter vehicle with increased payload or flight time. However, using a boost converter to a DC fixed bus reduces efficiency and flight time compared to the traditional approach [44].

Mohamed Nadir P et al. This paper examines the energy aspect of UAV propulsion systems and compares different power supply architectures and energy management strategies. It emphasizes the importance of hybrid power sources for better performance in various operating conditions. The paper also addresses the challenge of achieving unlimited endurance, and the lack of specific energy management approaches compared to electric cars. Due to limitations in weight and computational ability, real-time power optimization is limited, resulting in offline optimization based on prior knowledge of the task. The paper also discusses various power technologies, including switching [45].

Bowen Zhang et al. describe the different technologies used for propulsion in UAVs, such as fuel power, fuel-electric hybrid power, and electric power. This paper examines various power sources and their advantages, considering environmental concerns and the potential of electric propulsion systems. It emphasizes the importance of selecting suitable energy storage devices, distributed propulsion systems, highenergy-density motors, and superconducting motors. However, the paper also acknowledges the limitations in batteries, engines, and power management, especially for larger drones. The future focus should be developing safe and high-density energy storage technology, efficient motors and transformers, and adequate heat management technologies [46].

Jing Zhang et al. the author introduces the potential benefits of using solar-powered UAVs to increase flight time and decrease the need for human intervention in charging the drone batteries. Through augmented learning, the paper demonstrates that optimal decisions can be calculated, leading to increased communication productivity and harvested energy for UAVs, as shown in simulation results [47].

Yixin Yan et al. This paper proposes a magnetic resonance wireless charging system for lithium-battery powered drones, to address the limited battery life issue. The system comprises a transmitter inverter circuit, a coupling device, and a receiver rectifier circuit. The authors derive expressions for power reception and transmission efficiency to guide the system's design. ANSYS Maxwell analysis shows that the magnetic field is concentrated within a radius of 30 mm around the transmission coil. Experimental results demonstrate that the system can maintain stable self-induction of the coupling coil even when displaced, overcoming the low charging efficiency caused by coil misalignment during UAV landing. The system provides a constant voltage output, and the established model is accurate [48].

Zhaohui Yang et al. The paper investigates wireless communication system for energy harvesting capabilities. The system allows drones to deliver energy to users and users to harvest energy for data transfer. The problem is divided into two sub-problems: path planning and energy minimization with fixed path planning. The optimal solution is obtained through various optimization techniques. The paper also suggests that drones should stay directly overhead lowheight users for efficient power and information transmission. [49].

Toan V. Quyen et al. The proposed study aims to overcome energy constraints and optimize the harvested energy for UAVs. The study focuses on using radio frequency (RF) and solar energy as sources for energy harvesting. By combining these two energy sources, the output power for the drones is increased to meet the required power parameters. With a charging system, a constant voltage of up to 23.2 V can be achieved, satisfying the standard drone battery requirements. The proposed hybrid system has been optimized, evaluated, and compared to other systems. To further improve the system performance, the charging treatment of the battery and the MPPT algorithm for the solar system should be considered. [50].

Jingjing Yao et al. propose power control in time varying IOD networks with wireless charging for data collection. The authors propose an MDP model and a deep critical actor reinforcement learning algorithm to optimize radio transmission power for each drone, aiming to reduce power consumption. Simulations demonstrate the superiority of their algorithms over existing ones, with their performance being impacted by learning rates and the number of neurons in the actorcritical components [51].

Koszewnik et al. The text enclosed using onedimensional structures with piezo patches for energy harvesting. It focuses on optimizing the location and parameters of a piezoelectric Harvester connected to one arm of a six-rotor drone for maximum energy harvesting. Adding piezo harvesters to each arm of the drone can extend its flight duration, and further research will be done to improve the energy harvest of each arm [52].

Matthias Perez et al. the researchers conducted an analyzed of the vibrations and electrical energy generated by a quadcopter drone. They aimed to harvest energy by integrating piezoelectric elements into the drone's structure. They tested commercial and homemade transducers and found that while the energy levels obtained from the commercial transducers were suitable for sensor applications, they were insufficient to prolong the flight time. The homemade transducers showed potential, but further improvements are needed regarding adhesion and shelf life [53].

Wang, J et al. a new high-performance piezoelectric energy harvester called the three-stability runner (TGPEH). The researchers analyzed the output characteristics of TGPEH under different wind speeds and load resistance and found that it outperforms conventional power harvesters by having a lower threshold wind speed and higher output voltage. The paper also explores the transformation of potential energy into kinetic energy in the TGPEH. It discusses the increase in output voltage during the transition from

oscillations inside the well to oscillations between wells. Additionally, the TGPEH exhibits a higher output power than conventional power harvesters. However, the output response of TGPEH is greatly affected by the initial conditions during the movement between potential wells [54].

Ashleigh Townsend et al. This paper introduces combustion engines, solar energy, hydrogen fuel cells, and supercapacitors, hybrid systems combining different power sources can address issues such as slow charging and poor peak power supply. Supercapacitors are commonly used in hybrid systems due to their benefits. However, more research is needed to explore the effectiveness of supercapacitors in fuel cell systems for drone applications [55].

Cuong Van Nguyen et al. propose a hybrid RF solar harvesting system to improve the flight times of drones. The system addresses the performance drop issue in autonomous systems and introduces new designs and results to solve this problem. The study also suggests enhancing efficiency and reducing bypass time by using fuzzy algorithms or PSO to control the duty cycle of the DC-DC boost transformer. This hybrid can power the drones directly and charge their batteries simultaneously. Additionally, the paper mentions the possibility of increasing the battery storage capacity as another improvement [56].

Silvia Sekander et al. The text found the development and verification of statistical models for renewable energy harvesting. It explains the significance of accurately predicting and monitoring renewable energy sources. It discusses various statistical techniques like Time Series Analysis, Regression Analysis, and machine learning algorithms used to create these models. It also highlights the challenges in validating and verifying these models, including data quality, model robustness, and the impact of external variables [57].

NABIL A. AHMED et al. a new electric power train for solar-powered UAVs. The proposed system utilizes a Zyphry UAV for AC line feed to power the fans and includes solar panels, a lithium-sulfide batterybased power management system, an inverter, and an active output filter (AOF). The AOF reduces the size and weight of the power transmission system, improves conversion efficiency, and reduces unwanted harmonics. Simulation and experimental demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed system, which achieves high-quality sinusoidal line voltage waveforms with low distortion. We suggest further investigation of the proposed AOF for application in large-scale photovoltaic power plants [58].

Khac Lam Pham et al. The experiment focused on converting wind energy to electric energy and found that it is a promising method for powering UAVs. Overall, the paper highlights the importance of power supply in the operation of drones and suggests potential methods for improving their efficiency [59].

Karan. Jain et al. applied the concept of staging power sources for UAVs, focusing on multiple engines. The aim is to remove energy sources that no longer save energy, reducing the vehicle's weight and thus reducing energy consumption. The article presents a model for predicting the flight time of a multistage helicopter based on power supply and consumption parameters. [60].

Mohamed Nadir Boukoberine et al. bounded the limitations of battery-powered drones regarding endurance and proposes various solutions to address this problem. These solutions include switching the laser beam in-flight for recharging, a hybrid power supply system that combines battery with fuel and solar energy cells, and supercapacitors. The paper also provides a comparative and critical study of different power supply architectures, aiming to facilitate selecting a suitable power supply system for UAVs. Additionally, the paper highlights the importance of power supply systems in drones and provides recommendations for future research [61].

Krzysztof MATEJA et al. The text discusses the need to develop a system that allows the UAV to be fully independent and suggests two ways to achieve this: determining the number of solar cells used or increasing the capacity of the batteries. It also mentions the potential of paragliding to extend flight time and the importance of creating a detailed simulation model for specific flight scenarios and conditions. Additionally, the text highlights the components of the power supply system for UAVs, such as solar cells, charge controllers, battery cells, and the building management system [62].

Wael Jaafar et al. surrounded the relationship between power, battery dynamics, and the operation of a laser-charged four-wheel drive UAV. The authors emphasize the importance of considering the battery perspective in drone-related challenges such as route planning and resource optimization. They propose reevaluating the traditional energy perspective and evaluating energy as a function of the drone's movement system. The paper also discusses techniques for prolonging drone missions, including recharging using a low-power laser source and accurately estimating power consumption. The authors use graph theory approaches to solve the path planning problem, they find that the traditional energy perspective is conservative and propose an adjustment method to evaluate energy better. Finally, the influence of factors like turbulence and distance on the charging source is studied. The authors plan to validate their results through actual tests [63].

Steven R. Anton et al. develop wing include piezoelectric layers for power generation and thin-film batteries for energy storage. The text describes the electromechanical modeling and experimental testing of

the wing, as well as its ability to harvest and store electrical energy simultaneously. The potential applications of this technology in UAVs are also discussed [64].

Parvathy Rajendran et al., this paper presents a new mathematical design model for UAVs, that enhances their performance for long-duration missions. The model was verified and demonstrated a 25% decrease in power consumption compared to previous UAVs. The study also examined the differences between solar and nonsolar-powered UAVs, revealing that while they UAVs can carry more payload, they have limited endurance [65].

IV. Results and Discussion

The paper explores various strategies and technologies to overcome the limitations of drone battery capacity. It delves into energy consumption analysis during flight, power loss components, and methods to optimize energy harvesting. Notable contributions include advancements in Al-based fault detection, vibrational stabilization models, and design optimization for improved efficiency. Additionally, the integration of piezoelectric and solar energy harvesting, wireless charging systems, and hybrid power sources was discussed. The study emphasizes the importance of energy-efficient path planning, powertrain designs, and innovative solutions like the L-shaped energy harvester. Overall, it highlights various approaches to enhance drone endurance and performance across different applications.

V. Conclusions

In conclusion, the surge in drone applications across diverse industries has been accompanied by challenges, particularly in addressing limited battery Integrating artificial intelligence capacity. mechatronics has played a pivotal role in transforming drones into cost-effective, user-friendly, safe, and environmentally friendly options. Various studies propose innovative solutions to optimize energy harvesting from UAV body vibrations and extend flight durations.

Power loss analysis during flight underscores the importance of understanding mechanical, magnetic, iron, and copper losses. Energy consumption calculations, battery storage, and the percentage of consumption during flight energy provide comprehensive overview. Diverse UAV power harvesting methods, such as design improvements, stability considerations, vibration analysis, and propulsion system optimization, showcase the depth of research in this field.

Exploring energy generation strategies encompasses piezoelectric harvesting, wind energy utilization, solar-powered UAVs, and hybrid systems

combining different power sources. Each approach presents unique benefits and challenges, highlighting the need for a nuanced understanding of power generation for sustained drone operations.

Electrical circuit generation studies delve into wireless charging systems, communication-enabled energy delivery, and optimizing harvested energy for UAVs. These advancements aim to overcome energy constraints, enhance efficiency, and provide a seamless power supply for drones.

The paper concludes by emphasizing the significance of ongoing research in developing statistical models for renewable energy harvesting, exploring new power sources like supercapacitors, and proposing innovative solutions such as laser charging and multifunctional composite power collectors. The comprehensive analysis presented in this paper underscores the interdisciplinary nature of drone technology, encouraging further exploration and refinement of these strategies for the future of UAVs.

The recommendations based on the presented research are as follows:

- Enhance integration between artificial intelligence techniques and vibration data collection to enable real-time fault detection, improving the performance of UAVs.
- 2. Support research using optimized design to enhance the structural and vibrational efficiency of crucial components such as wings and engines.
- Explore the feasibility of utilizing piezoelectric technologies for energy harvesting from multiple vibration sources to enhance the power efficiency of UAV systems.
- 4. Encourage further research into integrating wireless charging systems and optimizing solar energy utilization to extend the flight capabilities of UAVs.
- Support ongoing research into efficient energy models for path planning, minimizing energy consumption during missions.
- Promote battery technology research performance enhancement techniques to achieve progress in increasing the capacity of UAV batteries.
- 7. Advocate for continued analysis of the advantages and challenges of hybrid energy systems to maximize the benefits of multiple power sources.
- Encourage research into energy harvesting technologies from diverse environmental sources such as wind and solar to improve endurance and mission sustainability.

These recommendations aim to foster innovative technologies and improve the performance of UAVs through a comprehensive set of technical innovations and engineering concepts.

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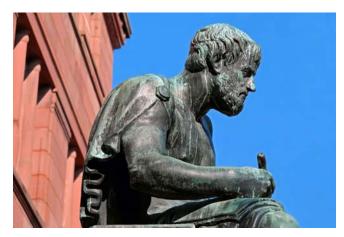
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The following is the official style and template developed for publication of a research paper. Authors are not required to follow this style during the submission of the paper. It is just for reference purposes.



Manuscript Style Instruction (Optional)

- Microsoft Word Document Setting Instructions.
- Font type of all text should be Swis721 Lt BT.
- Page size: 8.27" x 11'", left margin: 0.65, right margin: 0.65, bottom margin: 0.75.
- Paper title should be in one column of font size 24.
- Author name in font size of 11 in one column.
- Abstract: font size 9 with the word "Abstract" in bold italics.
- Main text: font size 10 with two justified columns.
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The recommended size of an original research paper is under 15,000 words and review papers under 7,000 words. Research articles should be less than 10,000 words. Research papers are usually longer than review papers. Review papers are reports of significant research (typically less than 7,000 words, including tables, figures, and references)

A research paper must include:

- a) A title which should be relevant to the theme of the paper.
- b) A summary, known as an abstract (less than 150 words), containing the major results and conclusions.
- c) Up to 10 keywords that precisely identify the paper's subject, purpose, and focus.
- d) An introduction, giving fundamental background objectives.
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- Results which should be presented concisely by well-designed tables and figures.
- g) Suitable statistical data should also be given.
- h) All data must have been gathered with attention to numerical detail in the planning stage.

Design has been recognized to be essential to experiments for a considerable time, and the editor has decided that any paper that appears not to have adequate numerical treatments of the data will be returned unrefereed.

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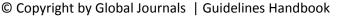
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- Please note the criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

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One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

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To make a paper clear: Adhere to recommended page limits.

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- Fundamental goal.
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- o Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
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Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

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- Describe the method entirely.
- o To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures.
- o Simplify—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
- o If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

Approach:

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Use standard style in this and every other part of the paper—avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

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- o Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings—save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.

Results:

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part as entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Use statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.

You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.



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Content:

- Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- o In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- o Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation of an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or manuscript.

What to stay away from:

- o Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present similar data more than once.
- o A manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate information.
- Never confuse figures with tables—there is a difference.

Approach:

As always, use past tense when you submit your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.

Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report.

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Figures and tables:

If you put figures and tables at the end of some details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attached appendix materials, such as raw facts. Whatever the position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other, and include a heading. All figures and tables must be divided from the text.

Discussion:

The discussion is expected to be the trickiest segment to write. A lot of papers submitted to the journal are discarded based on problems with the discussion. There is no rule for how long an argument should be.

Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully described.

Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact, you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved the prospect, and let it drop at that. Make a decision as to whether each premise is supported or discarded or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."

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- o You may propose future guidelines, such as how an experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- o Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
- Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
- One piece of research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind. Where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.



Approach:

When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from other available information. Present work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.

Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

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Result	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
Discussion	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring



INDEX

Μ

Monolithic · 21

A Abscissa · 13 Adhesion · 23 Albeit · 3 C Calibration · 5 Combustion · 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 23 D Dreary · 12 Ε Emissivity · 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19 F Facilitate · 24 Н Hydrometallurgy · 3 Incessant · 10 Inertia · 14 Interim · 7

P

Piezoelectric · 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 27 Postulate · 10, 11, 12, 16, 18 Propeller · 21 Pyrometallurgical · 3 Pyrometry · 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19

S

Spurious · 6 Stomping · 10 Summation · 20



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