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ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Optimal allocation of distributed generation with the presence of photovoltaic and battery energy storage system using improved barnacles mating optimizer

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Abstract

This paper proposes an improved version of Barnacles mating optimizer (BMO) for solving the optimal allocation problem of distribution generator (DGs) in radial distribution systems (RDSs). BMO is a recent bioinspired optimization algorithm that mimics the intelligence behavior of Barnacles' mating. However, like with any metaheuristic optimization approach, it may face issues such as local optima trapping and low convergence rate. Hence, an improved BMO is adopted based on the quasi oppositional (QOBMO) and the chaos maps theories (CQOBMO). The two improvement methods are applied to increase the convergence performance of the conventional BMO. To prove the efficiency of the improved QOBMO and CQOBMO algorithms, 23 benchmark functions are used, and the accomplished results are compared with the conventional BMO. Then, the improved algorithm is applied to minimize the total power and energy losses in the distribution systems considering the uncertainty of DG power generation and time‐varying load demand. The uncertainty of DG is represented using photovoltaic‐based DG (PVDG). The improved method is employed to find the optimal power scheduling of PVDG and battery energy storage (BES) during 24 h. Two standard IEEE RDS (IEEE 33‐bus and IEEE 69‐bus) are used to simulate the case studies. Finally, the obtained results show that significant loss reductions (LRs) are achieved using the improved BMO where LRs reach 65.26%, and 68.86% in IEEE 33‐bus and 69‐bus, respectively, in the case of PVDG integration. However, using PVDG and BES the energy loss reductions reach 64% and 67.80% in IEEE 33‐bus and 69‐bus, respectively, which prove the efficiency of the improved BMO algorithm in finding the optimal solutions obtained so far.

KEYWORDS

barnacles mating optimizer, chaos theories, DG placement, power losses reduction, quasi oppositional

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1 | INTRODUCTION

1.1 | Distribution generator (DG) allocation problem

The rising interest in mitigating the effects of $CO₂$ emissions has prompted the power systems community to consider using clean renewable energy resources. $¹$ $¹$ $¹$ DGs</sup> are small generation units that are directly inserted into distribution networks at appropriate locations to maximize customer reliability. 2 2 2 Moreover, because of their capability to inject sufficient power at a strategic place, DGs played an essential role in decreasing power loss in the distribution system. However, based on different points of view, the potential large‐scale penetration of DGs can result in both positive and negative consequences. Key negative effects include power flows, voltage levels, and power $loss^3$. As a result, assessing these resources and their implications on electricity is critical. As a consequence, various efforts have been made in recent years to tackle the challenge of optimal DG distribution.

Furthermore, numerous studies have focused on sizing DG units based on load demand and generating electricity at specific times (snapshot or peak demand). Therefore, several variables have been neglected, particularly when integrating DG units that depend on renewable energy sources like photovoltaic base DG (PVDG). The generation levels of this type of DG are varied due to the intermittent nature of resources. The time‐varying nature of load demand and the unpredictability of DG power output has been studied by a few studies. $4,5$

Two techniques have been used to deal with nondispatchable energy resources. The first one used power curtailment used in case of high generation or low demand, while the second used energy storage.^{[6](#page-30-4)} Because of its capacity to charge or discharge the appropriate energy during demand and generation variations, battery energy storage (BES) is regarded as more efficient than power curtailment.^{[7,8](#page-30-5)} Consequently, optimal scheduling of BES and PVDG is necessary to convert the nondispatchable PVDG to a dispatchable power generation.

Consequently, optimization methods have been used in many types of research works to achieve the optimal allocation of the DG and BES into the distribution system.

1.2 | Overview of the optimization algorithms

Optimization can be defined as a procedure of accomplishing the most appropriate solutions for a

SELIM ET AL. $\begin{bmatrix} 2971 \end{bmatrix}$

combination of variables that achieve the objective of a problem in terms of maximization or minimization.^{[9](#page-30-6)} Recently, many optimization algorithms have been suggested to find the appropriate solutions to optimization problems. These optimization algorithms may be classified into several groups based on their nature, such as numerical approaches and stochastic algorithms. $10,11$

A mathematical model for the optimization issue should be used in the numerical-based approach. However, this technique requires certain gradient information to evaluate better solutions around the starting locations of the local search. Furthermore, it is more sensitive to the starting locations.^{[10](#page-30-7)}

On the other hand, stochastic algorithms have a random nature and may provide a different result each time. 11 The most common stochastic algorithm is the metaheuristic optimization method, which is distinguished by its simplicity and efficiency. Based on the source of inspiration, metaheuristic optimization algorithms are divided into four groups. These groups are; evolutionary, swarm, physics, and human behavior‐ based algorithms.^{12,13}

In the first group (evolutionary‐based algorithm), The nature of genetic evolution serves as the primary motivation. Where a generation of superior children inheriting the characteristics of the parents leads to the achievement of the global optimum. Hence, in this form, a method, mutation, selection, and crossover have been used. These are some good instances of these algorithms that have demonstrated their usefulness in optimization problems; DE,¹⁴ genetic algorithms (GA) ,^{[15](#page-30-11)} Physarum inspired computational model (PCM) ,^{[16](#page-30-12)} human evolutionary model, 17 and biogeography based optimization.^{[18](#page-31-1)}

The social behavior of groupings of particles and animals inspires swarm‐based algorithms. The intelligent behavior of the individual search agent in the swarm and the combination of these behaviors offer these kinds an advantage over other algorithms in achieving the global optima. The most widely used swarm algorithms are as follows: particle swarm optimization (PSO) , ^{[19](#page-31-2)} mothflame optimization algorithm $(MFO)²⁰$ $(MFO)²⁰$ $(MFO)²⁰$ social spider optimization $(SSO)^{21}$ grey wolf optimizer $(GWO)^{22}$ $(GWO)^{22}$ $(GWO)^{22}$ artificial bee colony (ABC) ,²³ grasshoppers optimization algorithm (GOA), 24 24 24 border collie optimization (BCO), 11 11 11 whale optimization algorithm (WOA) , algorithm salp swarm algorithm (SSA) ,^{[25](#page-31-8)} Harris hawk optimization (HHO),^{[26](#page-31-9)} bear smell search algorithm $BSSA₁²⁷$ $BSSA₁²⁷$ $BSSA₁²⁷$ bonobo optimizer (BO) ,^{[28](#page-31-11)} moth search algorithm (MSA) ,^{[29](#page-31-12)} hunger games search (HGS), $30 \text{ colony predation algorithm (CPA)}$, and monarch butterfly optimization (MBO). 32

Physical‐based algorithms exploit the occurrence of physical phenomena to execute the optimization paradigm, as follows: atom search optimization (ASO) , 33

simulated annealings (SA) , ^{[34](#page-31-17)} water cycle algorithm (WCA) ,^{[35](#page-31-18)} gravitational search optimization algorithm (GSA) ,^{[36](#page-31-19)} water evaporation optimization (WEO), 37 lightning search algorithm (LSA) ,³⁸ equilibrium Optimizer (EO) , 39 and artificial ecosystem-based optimization (AEO) ,^{[10](#page-30-7)} and slime mold algorithm (SMA) .^{[40](#page-31-23)}

Human behavior-based algorithms, which replicate human social actions and beliefs, are the fourth type; examples of these algorithms are known as; the most valuable player algorithm $(MVPA)$,⁴¹ human-inspired algorithms (HIA) ,^{[42](#page-31-25)} teaching–learning-based optimization (TLBO), $43 \text{ social group optimization (SGO)}$ $43 \text{ social group optimization (SGO)}$, 44 league 44 league championship algorithm (LCA) ,^{[45](#page-31-28)} and gaining-sharing knowledge $(GSK)⁴⁶$ $(GSK)⁴⁶$ $(GSK)⁴⁶$ However, some optimization algorithms have been implemented based on the metaphor such as the Runge–Kutta method (RUN) ,⁴⁷ Rao optimi-zer,^{[48](#page-31-31)} and others based on the weighted mean of vectors $(INFO).⁴⁹$ $(INFO).⁴⁹$ $(INFO).⁴⁹$

1.3 | Improving the optimization algorithms

The power of meta-heuristic optimizations comes from their simplicity of implementation. Besides, they are more efficient in dealing with many optimization problems. However, based on the theorem of optimization called no-free-lunch, 50 which rises that no optimization algorithm can deal with all optimization problems and achieve the best results so far. Hence, many researchers tended to improve existing optimization algorithms or tried to develop new algorithms.

Various methods have been applied to improve the metaheuristic optimization algorithms. Chaos theory^{[51](#page-31-34)} has been widely utilized in metaheuristic algorithms to change their random parameters. Ten chaotic maps have been employed to enhance many optimization algorithms, achieving better results.⁵² The application of chaos in GA has been introduced in Li-Jiang and Tian-Lun^{[53](#page-31-36)} and improved chaotic PSO proposed in Li et al.⁵⁴ Besides, the chaos theory has been used in the new optimization algorithms such as chaotic antlion optimization $(CALO)$, 55 Chaotic whale optimization algorithm, 56 Chaotic grey wolf optimization algorithmCGWO, 57 chaotic biogeographybased optimizations (CBBO), 58 and recently in chaotic sine cosine algorithm $(CSCA)^4$ and CHHO.^{[59](#page-32-0)}

Also, opposition-based learning $(OBL)^{60}$ $(OBL)^{60}$ $(OBL)^{60}$ has been handled to improve metaheuristic optimization algorithms where the improvement can be accomplished using both the candidate solutions and their opposites at the same time, and then the best one will be applied for the next process. Some of the applications of OBL are in quasi-oppositional TLBO $(QOTLBO)$, $61,62$ and quasioppositional swine influenza model‐based optimization with quarantine ($OOSIMBO-O$), 63 63 63 and oppositional Java algorithm.⁶⁴

Moreover, a multipopulation method has been proposed and applied to metaheuristic algorithms. The economic dispatch problem has been solved using a multipopulation Jaya algorithm in Lian et al.⁶⁵ and Mingxue et al., 66 and a multipopulation GA has been presented to control the adjustable hydraulic torque converter.

1.4 | Application of optimization algorithms in DG allocation

Optimization approaches have been utilized in a variety of research studies to obtain the best possible allocation of DG and BES into the distribution system. 67 The power system employed two main optimization algorithms: analytical algorithms and metaheuristic algorithms.^{[68](#page-32-8)}

To explore the impact of injected DG power on power system performance, a mathematical framework for the power system is completely defined in analytical algorithms as specified in the improved analytical (IA) and exhaustive load flow (ELF) optimization algorithms. 69 However, because of their dependence on the system topology, several of the analytical approaches are unsuitable for determining the appropriate size and position of numerous $DGs.⁷⁰$ $DGs.⁷⁰$ $DGs.⁷⁰$

Therefore, some researchers shifted to optimization algorithms based on metaheuristics. The effectiveness of metaheuristic algorithms to solve optimization problems without going in-depth into the problem's complexity is a significant feature of their employment.

A GA, which optimizes the DG in the distribution system, has been used to minimize the total power consumption for a single objective problem. 71 To minimize the active power loss, the optimization of the particle swarm (PSO) has been implemented for the DG allocation, including various load models. $68,72$ Optimization algorithms based on artificial intelligence have been used to evaluate the optimum location for multiple DGs in Hung and Colleagues.^{[69,73](#page-32-9)} An algorithm for fuzzy and clonal selection has been developed for DG allocation in Lalitha et al.^{[74](#page-32-12)} Recently, a variety of nature‐inspired optimization algorithms were used in the DG allocation problem, such as the backtracking optimization algorithm $(BSOA)$,^{[75](#page-32-13)} bacterial foraging optimization algorithm $(BFOA),^{76}$ $(BFOA),^{76}$ $(BFOA),^{76}$ stud krill herd algorithm $(SKHA)$,^{[77](#page-32-15)} whale optimization algorithm (WOA) ,^{[78](#page-32-16)} and chaotic sine cosine $(CSCA)$.^{[4](#page-30-3)}

1.5 | Contribution and paper organization

Based on the above literature, improvement of the metaheuristic optimization algorithms leads to achieving better results. Hence, in this paper, a new bioinspired barnacle mating optimizer (BMO) that belongs to evolutionary algorithms is improved using the OBL and chaos theories. BMO has been proposed in Sulaiman et al., 9 and it mimics the mating process in the barnacles to produce new offspring. In the improved BMO, a quasi-oppositional of the new offspring is calculated and applied accompanied to the existing offspring in the primary objective function. The best one that gives the best objective function will be used in the next process. Besides, chaos maps are utilized to vary the exploration parameter of the BMO instead of using random values.

Hence, the main contributions of this paper can be summarized as follows:

- To study the impact of the intermittent nature of the PV power and the load variation on the performance of the radial distribution system (RDSs), an uncertainty model for PV power is formulated based on statistical data of the solar irradiance. In addition, to avoid the uncertainty of the PV power, BES is modeled to be optimally scheduled over 24 h.
- To enhance the optimization algorithms, improved versions of the original BMO optimization algorithms are proposed. Two improved methods are applied based on chaos and quasi oppositional theories.
- To check the efficiency of the improved BMO method, 23 benchmark functions are used and parametric and nonparametric statistical analyses are carried out.
- The improved BMO is used to allocate PVDG into standard IEEE 33‐bus and IEEE 69‐bus systems to minimize the total power loss.
- Finally, the improved optimization BMO algorithm is applied to allocate PV+BES into RDSs which leads to significant enhancements in the energy reduction and voltage profile.

The remainder of the paper is prepared as follows: Section [2](#page-5-0) gives the mathematical formulation of the DG allocation problem; Section [3](#page-7-0) presents an overview of the BMO algorithm; Section [4](#page-8-0) presents the improved BMO based on the OBL and chaos maps. Section [5](#page-9-0) demonstrates numerical results; Section [6](#page-30-14) exhibits the conclusions.

FIGURE 1 Single line diagram for radial distribution system.

2 | FORMULATION OF THE DG ALLOCATION PROBLEM

The goal of DG allocation in the power system is to reduce the total active power losses P_{loss} .

$$
f = \min(P_{\text{loss}}). \tag{1}
$$

Figure [1](#page-5-1) exhibits a simple representation of the RDS where:

n is the number of buses. \bar{S}_1 and \bar{V}_1 are the complex power and the voltage at Bus 1. Rik and *Xik* are the resistance and reactance between Bus *i* and *k*. $\overline{I_i}$ and $\overline{I_k}$ are the load current at Bus i and k. T_p is the sum of current from Bus k to n .

To calculate the power losses a branch's current $|\overline{I_z}|$ (see Figure [1\)](#page-5-1) and the branch resistance R_{ik} are used as^{[70](#page-32-10)}:

$$
P_{\text{loss}} = \sum_{z=1}^{N_{\text{br}}} |\overline{I_z}|^2 R_{ik},\tag{2}
$$

where z is the branch number and $N_{\rm br}$ is the total number of branches

2.1 | Problem constraints

To optimally place the DG in the power system, some important constraints must be considered, such as equality and inequality.

(1) Equality constraints

The generation power P_{g_i} by *NG* number of DG should not exceed the power loss and the load demand *Pd* :

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{NG} P_{g_i} = P_{loss} + P_d,
$$
\n(3)

where the number of installed DG is represented by *NG*

(2) Inequality constraints

The inequality constraints are very important for the operation of the power system; hence, these boundaries should be considered as:

(a) Active power generation limits

$$
P_{g_i}^{\min} \le P_{g_i} \le P_{g_i}^{\max}.
$$
\n(4)

(b) Reactive power generation limits

$$
Q_{g_i}^{\text{min}} \le Q_{g_i} \le Q_{g_i}^{\text{max}}.
$$
 (5)

(c) Limits of the bus voltage

$$
0.95 \le V_i \le 1.05. \tag{6}
$$

2.2 | PVDG power generation

To model the intermittent nature of the PV power during 24 h, probability distribution functions (PDF) are used.⁷⁹ Based on historical data, a typical day of solar irradiance can be generated. The output power of the PV can be implemented using beta PDF as follows:

(1) Modelling of solar irradiance

In this model, beta PDF is employed to formulate the probabilistic nature of solar irradiance *s^t* (kW/m2) at each time *t* as follows:

$$
f_b(s^t)
$$
\n
$$
= \begin{cases}\n\frac{\Gamma(\alpha^t + \beta^t)}{\Gamma\alpha^t + \Gamma\beta^t} & (s^t)^{\alpha^t - 1}(1 - s^t)^{\beta^t - 1} \\
0 \leq s^t \leq 1 \\
\alpha^t, \beta^t > 0 \\
0 & \text{otherwise}\n\end{cases}
$$
\n(7)

where α^t and β^t are the beta PDF parameters and their values are computed with the mean μ_s^t and the standard deviation σ_s^t of the solar irradiance as:

$$
\beta^{t} = \left(1 - \mu_{s}^{t}\right) \left(\frac{\left(1 + \mu_{s}^{t}\right) \mu_{s}^{t}}{\left(\sigma_{s}^{t}\right)^{2}}\right),\tag{8}
$$

$$
\alpha^t = \frac{\mu_s^t * \beta^t}{\left(1 - \mu_s^t\right)}.
$$
\n(9)

(2) Power generation of PV

The average power P_{PV}^t of the PV array at time *t* is calculated as follows:

$$
P_{\rm PV}^t = \sum_{i=1}^{n_s} P_o \left(s_i^t \right) f_b \left(s_i^t \right), \tag{10}
$$

where $P_0(s^t)$ is the output power of the PV module and can be computed as 79 79 79 :

$$
P_o(s^t) = N_m \times V_c \times I_c \quad \left(\frac{V_{\text{MPP}} \times I_{\text{MPP}}}{V_o \times I_s}\right), \tag{11}
$$

where N_m is the modules' number of the PV, V_{MPP} and *I*_{MPP} the maximum power point voltage and current, respectively, V_0 is the open-circuit voltage and I_s is the short circuit current, and V_c , I_c are the cell voltage and current, respectively, and they can be calculated using the following equations:

$$
V_c = V_o - K_v \times T_c, \qquad (12)
$$

$$
I_c = s^t (I_s + K_i (T_c - 25)), \tag{13}
$$

where K_v , K_i are the voltage and current temperature coefficient (V/ $^{\circ}$ C), (A/ $^{\circ}$ C), respectively, T_c is the cell temperature $(^{\circ}C)$, and it can be determined as:

$$
T_c = T_A + s^t \bigg(\frac{T_0 - 20}{0.8} \bigg). \tag{14}
$$

where T_A is the ambient temperature and T_0 is the nominal operating temperature.

In this study, 3 years of data on the solar irradiance are used as given in Hung et al., 80 and the beta PDF of the solar irradiance is calculated and drawn as shown in Figures [2](#page-7-1) and [3](#page-7-2).

2.3 | PVDG and BES power model

The main problem with the integration of PVDG is its intermittent nature and availability for 24 h. Hence, to avoid these problems, the charging/discharging of BES can be used with the PVDG. The mathematical formulation of the daily energy charging $(E_{\text{BES}_i})_c$ and discharging $(E_{\text{BES}_i})_d$ at the bus, *i* are obtained as:

$$
(E_{\rm BES_i})_c = \sum_{t=1}^{24} (P_{\rm BES_i})_c \times \Delta t, \qquad (15)
$$

$$
(E_{\rm BES_i})_d = \sum_{t=1}^{24} (P_{\rm BES_i})_d \times \Delta t,\tag{16}
$$

FIGURE 2 The mean and standard deviation of the solar irradiance.

FIGURE 3 Photovoltaic output power generation per unit.

where $(P_{\text{BES}_i}^t)_c$ and $(P_{\text{BES}_i}^t)_d$ are the charge and discharge power of the BES, respectively. The PV + BES system has two output energies based on the BES status (either charge or discharge), as shown in Figure [4.](#page-7-3) Hence, the total output energy $E_{(PV+BES)}$ in case of discharging can be expressed as:

$$
E_{(PV+BES)_i} = (E_{BES_i})_d + (E_{PV_i})_G, \tag{17}
$$

where $(E_{\text{PV}_i})_G$ is the energy of PV, which is injected into the grid at bus *i*.

On the other hand, the energy of the PV unit at bus *i* which is named E_{PV} in the case of BES charging is:

$$
E_{\text{PV}_i} = (E_{\text{BES}_i})_c + (E_{\text{PV}_i})_G. \tag{18}
$$

The relation between the charging and discharging energies of the BES can be expressed using the roundtrip efficiency ($\eta_B = \eta_d * \eta_c$) as:

$$
(E_{\text{BES}_i})_d = \eta_B (E_{\text{BES}_i})_c. \tag{19}
$$

To find the E_{PV} of the PV generation, Equations [\(17\)](#page-7-4) and [\(18](#page-7-5)) are reformulated as:

$$
E_{\text{PV}_i} = \frac{E_{\text{(PV+BES)}_i} - (1 - \eta_B)(E_{\text{PV}_i})_G}{\eta_B} \tag{20}
$$

FIGURE 4 PV + BES output power generation per unit. BES, battery energy storage; PV, photovoltaic.

After obtaining the E_{PV_i} , the maximum power of the PV unit can be calculated using the capacity factor of the PV module (C_{PV}^{U}) as follows:

$$
P_{\text{PV}_i} = C_{\text{PV}}^U E_{\text{PV}_i}
$$
\n(21)

where

$$
C_{\text{PV}}^U = \frac{P_{\text{PV}}^U}{E_{\text{PV}}^U},\tag{22}
$$

 P_{PV}^U is the maximum output of a PV module unit, and E_{PV}^U is the energy of PV that is generated over a 24-h day.

According to Equations ([20\)](#page-7-6) and [\(21](#page-7-7)), the required power of the PVDG can be expressed in the following equation:

$$
P_{\text{PV}_i} = C_{\text{PV}}^U \left(\frac{E_{\text{(PV+BES)}_i} - (1 - \eta_B)(E_{\text{PV}_i})_G}{\eta_B} \right). \tag{23}
$$

3 | OVERVIEW OF BMO

The structure of the BMO algorithm involves three main steps that start with the initialization of the barnacles, then the mating process, and finally, the reproduction of the offspring.⁹ These steps are mathematically implemented in the next sections.

3.1 | Initialization of the barnacles

In the BMO, barnacles are randomly initialized based on control variables number *N* and the number of barnacles *n* as follows:

$$
X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^1 \cdots x_1^N \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_n^1 \cdots x_n^N \end{bmatrix}
$$
 (24)

where the barnacles *X* should be within the boundary limits as:

$$
X_{\rm lb} \le X \le X_{\rm ub},\tag{25}
$$

where X_{lb} and X_{ub} are the lower and upper vector bounds, respectively, and can be expressed as:

$$
X_{\text{lb}} = [x_{\text{lb}}^1, ..., x_{\text{lb}}^N],
$$

$$
X_{\text{ub}} = [x_{\text{ub}}^1, ..., x_{\text{ub}}^N].
$$
 (26)

3.2 | Mating process

In real life, each barnacle can inject its sperm as well as absorb it from other barnacles. Hence, three mating scenarios can occur. These scenarios are named normal mating, self-mating, and sperm cast mating. However, as assumed in the BMO algorithm, 9 the mating process occurs only between two barnacles. Hence, self‐mating is not considered in BMO.

On the one hand, normal mating (exploitation) occurs when the absolute distance between two barnacles is less than the penis length *pl* that has been set. On the other hand, the sperm cast (exploration) happens when the absolute distance is more than *pl*.

The mathematical formulation of this behavior can be achieved by forming two vectors of parents' IDs from the overall barnacles' population as follows:

$$
IDD = randomIDM = random(N)
$$
 (27)

where ID_D and ID_M are vectors of identification numbers of Dads and Mums, respectively. *randperm* is a function that returns a vector including a random variation of the integers 1 to N.

3.3 | Reproduction process

The reproduction of the new offspring in the BMO has been achieved based on the mating scenario in a simple formulation. For normal mating, the latest offspring can be expressed as:

$$
x_i^{\text{N_new}} = \alpha x_{ID_D}^N + \beta x_{ID_M}^N, \qquad (28)
$$

where α is a random number between [0,1], $\beta = (1 - \alpha)$, $x_{\text{ID}_\text{D}}^N$, and $x_{\text{ID}_\text{M}}^N$ are the Dad and Mum variables of the selected barnacles.

On the other hand, if the barnacles exceed the range of *pl* then the sperm cast should occur as follows:

$$
x_i^{\text{N_new}} = \gamma x_{\text{ID}_M}^N,\tag{29}
$$

where γ is a random variable between [0,1], it can be noticed that the Mum generates the new offspring, and thus, the Mum receives the sperm from the water injected by other barnacles elsewhere.

The overall description of the BMO algorithm is shown in Figure [5](#page-9-1).

4 | IMPROVED BMO

As discussed in Section 1, different methods have been applied to improve the metaheuristic optimization algorithms. Therefore, quasi oppositional and chaos maps are handled to improve the performance of conventional BMO.

4.1 | Chaos maps

The second improvement in the BMO is using chaos theory based on several chaotic maps to enhance the exploration. Where chaotic maps are used to improve the convergence by applying the chaotic equation instead of utilizing random parameters Thus, 10 chaotic maps are adopted (see Table [1\)](#page-10-0) and applied to the BMO and named CBMO algorithms to update the exploration parameter *α* instead of using random probability as follows:

$$
\alpha = y_{\text{iter}+1},\tag{32}
$$

where $y_{\text{iter}+1}$ is the selected chaos map as presented in Table [1.](#page-10-0)

4.2 | Quasi oppositional

In this study, the opposite solutions of the BMO barnacles $X_i^{\text{N_new}}$ can be expressed as:

$$
X_i^{\text{QN_new}} = \begin{cases} C + r_1(C - X_i^{\text{N_new}}), & X_i^{\text{N_new}} < C \\ C - r_1(X_i^{\text{N_new}} - C), & X_i^{\text{N_new}} \ge C \end{cases} \tag{30}
$$

Where $X_i^{\text{QN_new}}$ is quasi oppositional of the $X_i^{\text{N_new}}$ barnacle and *C* are calculated as:

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FIGURE 5 Barnacles mating optimizer algorithm.

$$
C = \frac{x_{\text{lb}}^i + x_{\text{ub}}^i}{2}.
$$
 (31)

Hence $X_i^{\text{N_new}}$ and $X_i^{\text{QN_new}}$ are used to calculate the objective function, then the one who achieves the best objective is used in the next iterative process.

The overall steps of the QOBMO based on the quasi oppositional method are presented in Figure [6](#page-11-0).

The chaotic maps and quasi oppositional are applied to the BMO to formulate CQOBMO. Hence, the overall steps of the CQOBMO are exhibited in the flowchart and shown in Figure [7](#page-11-1).

Algorithm 1 presents a pseudo‐code of the CQOBMO algorithm which explains the process of fusion of quasi oppositional and chaos maps by the BMO algorithm,

Algorithm 1. CQOBMO formulation.

- 1: **Initialize** a set of random barnacles $X_i = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_n,)$ within the limits $X_{\text{lb}} \leq X_i \leq X_{\text{ub}}$.
- 2: Calculate the objective function for each search barnacle.
- 3: Sort the fitness in ascending order and store the best solution in X_{Best}
- 4: Set the value of *pl*
- 5: while (iter \lt iter_{max})
- 6: **Update** the selected chaotic map parameter y_{iter}
- 7: Form two vectors of parents' IDs using (27)
- 8: Using the chaotic y_{iter} , update the parameters, α using (32)
- 9: for each search agent *Xi*
- 10: **if** $|ID_D ID_M| \leq pl$
- 11: Generate a new offspring using (28)
- 12: else 13: Generate a new offspring using (29)
- 14: end if 15: Calculate the quasi oppositional for all new barnacles
- using (30)
- 16: Calculate the objective function.
- 17: Sort the fitness in ascending order and update the best solution X_{Best}
- 18: iter = iter + 1
- 19: end while

20: **return** the final best solution stored X_{Best}

5 | RESULT AND DISCUSSION

5.1 | Performance of the improved BMO

The performance of the improved BMO based on the quasi oppositional and chaotic maps is tested in this section using 23 benchmark functions. 22 These benchmarks have been divided into three main groups. The first group is unimodal, which includes the functions (F1–F7) and is characterized by one global optima solution; hence, they have been used to test the exploitation phase. The second and the third groups (F8–F14) are multimodal and composite (F15–F23), respectively, which test the algorithm's exploration phase.

In Sulaiman et al., 9 the conventional BMO proved its effectiveness compared to many metaheuristic algorithms such as GA, PSO, ALO, MFO, WOA, GOA, SSA, and SCA. Hence, in this study, a comparison between BMO, 10 CBMOs, QOBMO, and 10 CQOBMOs

algorithms is presented to check the performance of the improved methods.

Statistical analysis is performed based on the average, worst, and best values for each benchmark function at 30 runs for each algorithm with 200 iterations and 30 barnacles. In addition, Wilcoxon signed‐rank test (WSRT) is used as a nonparametric statistical test.

(1) First group benchmarks

As mentioned earlier, the first group of the benchmarks is unimodal, which has one global optimum. The numerical results of this group are summarized in Tables [2](#page-12-0) and [3](#page-13-0) for the improved CBMO and CQOBMO methods. The improved method QOBMO gives better results for all benchmark functions than the conventional BMO and CBMOs algorithms which proves the efficiency of the QOBMO. However, incorporating the chaotic maps into the BMO (CBMO_1, CBMO_2, etc., based on the chaotic map number) improve the obtained results as presented in Table [2](#page-12-0). The results in Table [2](#page-12-0) show that CBMO_7 gives the best results compared to the conventional and the other chaotic maps in F1, F2, F4, and F7. However, applying the chaotic maps and quasi oppositional to BMO gives the best results so far as presented in Table [3](#page-13-0) and noticed in F2, F4, and F5 using CQOBMO_10, CQOBMO_7, and CQOBMO_9, respectively. Also, the improvement in the convergence characteristic is shown in Figure [7](#page-11-1) for F1 and F2. Where all improved methods reach a better performance than the conventional BMO and the best-recorded methods are CQOBMO 1, and CQOB-MO_10 in F1 and F2, respectively.

(2) Second group benchmarks

This group is characterized by its multiple local solutions, which leads the optimization algorithms to fall in them, as exhibited in Figure [8](#page-14-0) (see F9 and F10). However, the improved methods still accomplish the best and are almost the same as the conventional BMO, as clear in Tables [4](#page-17-0) and [5,](#page-18-0) unless the improved methods using the chaotic maps and quasi oppositional obtain the optimal solution in less iteration, as presented in Figure [8](#page-14-0). Thus, the best objective function of F9 is obtained by the CQOB-MO_3 in five iterations. For F10, the CQOBMO_10 reaches the minimum objective value in fourteen iterations, which is less than the conventional BMO and the QOBMO.

FIGURE 6 OOBMO algorithm.

(3) Third group benchmarks

FIGURE 7 Flowchart of the CQOBMO algorithm.

Return the best solution $\boldsymbol{X_{Best}}$

 Yes

This group was established by combining many real search spaces and different test functions, introducing challenging examinations for the optimization algorithms. Hence, the optimization suitable should be more stable and have an excellent balance between the exploration and exploitation phases to pass this test. Tables [6](#page-19-0) and [7](#page-20-0) give the obtained results of all algorithms applied to this group. The tables prove that the QOBMO gives the best

solutions obtained so far besides the improved chaotic versions. The convergence characteristics (see Figure [8](#page-14-0) for F15 and F16) illustrate that the CQOBMO_5 and CQOBMO_4 attain the best solutions obtained so far in F15 and F16, respectively.

From this analysis, the improved QOBMO and CQOBMO prove their ability to achieve the optimal

TABLE 2 Statistical analysis for the first group of the benchmarks (F1-F7) using Choatic maps. TABLE 2 Statistical analysis for the first group of the benchmarks (F1–F7) using Choatic maps.

TABLE 3 Statistical analysis for the first group of the benchmarks (F1-F7) using chaotic maps and quasi oppostional. TABLE 3 Statistical analysis for the first group of the benchmarks (F1‐F7) using chaotic maps and quasi oppostional.

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FIGURE 8 Performance characteristics of the optimization algorithms.

FIGURE 8 Continued

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FIGURE 8 Continued

TABLE 4 Statistical analysis for the second group of the benchmarks $(F8-F14)$ using Choatic maps. TABLE 4 Statistical analysis for the second group of the benchmarks (F8–F14) using Choatic maps.

TABLE 5 Statistical analysis for the second group of the benchmarks (F8–F14) using chaotic maps and quasi oppositional. $\ddot{.}$ -E - p

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TABLE 8 Results of the Wilcoxon signed-rank test BMO and the other algorithms for the first group of the benchmarks (F1-F7). TABLE 8 Results of the Wilcoxon signed‐rank test BMO and the other algorithms for the first group of the benchmarks (F1–F7). ŚC

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TABLE 11 The average computation time of all simulations per (sec).

Benchmark	BMO	OOBMO	CBMO 7	COOBMO 7	Benchmark	BMO	OOBMO	CBMO ₇	COOBMO ₇
F1	0.215	0.419	0.169	0.356	F13	0.644	1.297	0.626	1.274
F ₂	0.195	0.394	0.172	0.364	F14	1.076	2.133	1.076	2.144
F3	0.524	1.078	0.526	1.064	F ₁₅	0.190	0.342	0.175	0.338
F ₄	0.190	0.369	0.169	0.356	F ₁₆	0.167	0.316	0.167	0.368
F5	0.227	0.444	0.207	0.430	F17	0.152	0.296	0.162	0.282
F ₆	0.193	0.384	0.170	0.350	F18	0.150	0.288	0.157	0.289
F7	0.343	0.702	0.328	0.648	F19	0.241	0.474	0.236	0.452
F8	0.233	0.451	0.213	0.452	F20	0.207	0.390	0.193	0.364
F ₉	0.193	0.381	0.175	0.366	F ₂₁	0.222	0.420	0.209	0.413
F ₁₀	0.200	0.415	0.184	0.393	F ₂₂	0.254	0.449	0.231	0.458
F11	0.231	0.449	0.219	0.435	F23	0.268	0.512	0.261	0.510
F ₁₂	0.671	1.364	0.640	1.317					

FIGURE 9 Illustration of the IEEE 33bus connection lines.

solution to different optimization problems compared to the conventional BMO.

(4) Wilcoxon signed‐rank test

To demonstrate the efficiency of the improved BMO methods based on the quasi opposition and the chaotic theories over the conventional BMO, a nonparametric statistical test is performed using Wilcoxon signed‐rank test (WSRT). 81 When using WSRT, the R+ and Rrelated to the comparisons between two algorithms can be calculated and their p values can be obtained. ΣR^+ denotes the total of positive differences ranks for the problem in which the first algorithm outperformed the second, and ∑R[−] denotes the sum of ranks for the problem in which the second method exceeded the first.

In this study, there are 11 improved versions of the BMO; hence, the conventional BMO is used as a reference in the WSRT to demonstrate the efficiency of the improved methods. By using the BMO as a reference, the high value of *R*[−] means that the improved method is better than the conventional BMO. The obtained results are summarized in Tables [8,](#page-21-0) [9](#page-22-0), and [10](#page-23-0) for the benchmarks' first, second, and third groups, respectively.

According to the obtained results, the overall number of *∑R*[−] rankings *w*,*v* is higher than the total number of $\sum R$ ⁺ difference rankings. However, WSRT cannot be used in the cases of F9, F10, F11, and F19 since there are no variances in the results. In addition, the *p*-value is computed. Consequently, this study proves that the

TABLE 12 Results of different optimization algorithms for DG allocation in IEEE 33‐bus system.

improved versions of the BMO using the quasi opposition and chaos theories are able to find the optimal solution to different optimization problems.

(5) Time complexity analysis

To demonstrate the efficiency of the improved versions of the BMO algorithm, the average computation time for the 30 runs of all simulations is calculated and summarized in Table [11.](#page-24-0) The results

FIGURE 10 Convergence characteristics of the BMO, CBMO, QOBMO, and CQOBMO for the IEEE 33‐bus test system.

FIGURE 11 Enhancement of the IEEE 33-bus voltage profile using optimal DG allocation.

FIGURE 12 Residential, industrial, and commercial daily load curves.

FIGURE 13 Photovoltaic output power at buses 13, 24, and 30.

FIGURE 14 Power losses in IEEE 33-bus during 24 h at different case studies.

FIGURE 15 Voltage profile of IEEE 33-bus during 24 h at base case (without photovoltaic).

show that CBMO_7 takes the lowest time compared to all BMO versions. However, QOBMO takes more time due to the calculation of the quasi oppositional. the computation time in the CQOB-MO_7 is decreased compared to the QOBMO which demonstrates the impact of the chaotic maps.

5.2 | DG allocation using the improved BMO

The problem of the DG allocation is studied using two IEEE test systems (IEEE 33‐bus and IEEE 69‐bus). The improved BMO based on the quasi oppositional and chaos map theories is applied to find the optimal size and location of the DG, then the PV power generation based on the uncertainty model with a daily load curve is applied to present the impact of the intermittent nature of the PV on the voltage profile and the power loss during 24 h. Finally, the improved method is employed to find the optimal PV+BES power, which minimizes the distribution system's total energy loss.

- (1) IEEE 33‐bus system
	- (a) Optimal size and location of DG using improved BMO

The improved methods are studied using the IEEE 33-bus test system. 82 The one-line diagram is given in Figure [9.](#page-24-1) The base case power flow

FIGURE 16 Voltage profile of IEEE 33-bus during 24 h with photovoltaic.

results verified that the active power loss is 210.98 kW, where the reactive power losses are 143.14 kVAR. BMO, CBMO, QOBMO, and CQOBMO are applied to find the best solutions (sizes and locations) of the three DG units for reducing the power loss (objective function), and the results are given in Table [12](#page-25-0).

It can be detected from Table [12](#page-25-0) that using the CQOBMO_7, a loss reduction (LR) in the power loss quals 65.26% is achieved, which is higher than those obtained by LSF^{69} LSF^{69} LSF^{69} (59.72%), Fuzzy-IAS⁷⁴ which is 42.45%, 57.76% given in BSOA,^{[75](#page-32-13)} 65.14% in BFOA. 76 TLBO 83 which reaches 64.20%, 64.88% in OOTLBO.[83](#page-32-20)

Also, a comparison in the convergence characteristics between the improved methods and the conventional BMO is depicted in Figure [10.](#page-25-1) The figure efficiency of the CQOB-MO_7 over the CBMO_7, QOBMO, and BMO. The impact of the DG placement on the voltage profile is displayed in Figure [11](#page-25-2). It is evident that the optimal installation of the DGs in the distribution system leads to a significant enhancement in the voltage profile besides the minimization of power losses.

(b) The optimal size of $PV + BES$ using improved BMO The improved BMO based on the quasi oppositional and sine chaotic map is used in this section to find the optimal $PV + BES$ size after approving its feasibility in the previous sections.

In this study, a combination of residential, industrial, and commercial daily load curves (see Figure [12\)](#page-25-3) is adopted and used to present the variation in the load demand. However, the intermittent nature of the PV is modeled using uncertainty analysis. Hence, using the optimal sizes and location of the DG obtained earlier, time‐series load flow is carried out using the daily load curves and PV power shown in Figure [13](#page-25-4). The results show that the power loss increases at the base case (without PV) when high load demand is presented in Figure [14.](#page-26-0) In addition, the voltage

TABLE 13 The optimal size of $PV + BES$ in IEEE 33-bus system.

Abbreviations: BES, battery energy storage; PV, photovoltaic.

FIGURE 17 Voltage profile of IEEE 33-bus for 24 h with photovoltaic + battery energy storage.

profile of some buses is lower than the limits (0.95 p.u) as exhibited in Figure [15.](#page-26-1)

However, integrating PV at bus 13, 24, and 30 reduce the power loss and improve the voltage profile during the availability of the PV power, as displayed in Figures [14](#page-26-0) and [16](#page-26-2), respectively. However, the power loss is still high, and the voltage profile is still lower than the limits at the time when no PV power is injected (from 19:00 to 24:00).

FIGURE 18 Charging/discharging powers of different battery energy storage integration in IEEE 33‐bus.

Abbreviations: BES, battery energy storage; PV, photovoltaic.

BES is used with the PV to avoid this problem, and the optimal size of the $PV + BES$ power during 24 h is calculated using the CQOBMO_7, then the final PV power is computed using (23). Hence, the optimal sizes of the PV and the BES are summarized in Table [13.](#page-27-0) Consequently, the integration of the PV + BES minimizes the power loss as presented in Figure [14](#page-26-0) and enhances the voltage profile as shown in Figure [17](#page-27-1).

Figure [18](#page-27-2) shows the BES charging and discharging power at the optimal locations, and the BES

FIGURE 19 Illustration of the IEEE 69-bus connection lines.

TABLE 15 Results of different optimization algorithms for DG allocation in IEEE 69‐bus system.

	DG allocation		Power	
Method	Location	Size (kW)	loss (kW)	LR %
CQOBMO_7	11	573.02	70.05	68.86
	18	355.20		
	61	1583.50		
QOBMO	21	246.45	70.43	68.69
	61	1704.45		
	66	489.5		
CBMO_7	10	371.74	70.44	68.69
	17	414.33		
	61	1833.01		
BMO	17	451.49	70.86	68.5
	55	569.4		
	61	1683.92		
QOTLBO83	18	533.4	71.63	68.17
	61	1198.6		
	63	567.2		
TLBO83	15	591.9	72.41	67.82
	61	818.8		
	63	900.3		
BFOA ⁷⁶	27	295.4	75.23	66.56
	65	446		
	61	1345.1		
GAPSO ⁷⁷	63	884.9	81.1	63.96
	61	1196		
	21	910.5		

FIGURE 20 Convergence characteristics of the BMO, QOBMO, CBMO_7, and CQOBMO for IEEE 69‐bus test system.

capacities are calculated based on the maximum charging power of each BES and given in Table [13.](#page-27-0) Table [14](#page-27-3) proves the benefits of the $PV + BES$ in reducing the total energy losses, where the reduction

FIGURE 21 Enhancement of the IEEE 69-bus voltage profile using optimal DG allocation.

FIGURE 22 Photovoltaic output power at buses 11, 18, and 61.

reaches 64% compared to 27.5% in the case of using the PV.

- (2) IEEE 69‐Bus system
	- (a) Optimal size and location of DG using improved BMO

IEEE 69‐bus is larger than the previous IEEE 33‐ bus, which is better to prove the performance of the improved methods. The full description of this system can be found in Baran and Wu ^{[84](#page-32-22)} and the connection line is revealed in Figure [19.](#page-27-4)

In the base case (without DG), The load flow calculation of the IEEE 69‐bus system stated that 224.95 kW of the active power loss and 102.15 kVAR of the reactive power loss. Hence, three DG are suitably placed to minimize the power loss using the improved methods.

Table [15](#page-28-0) yields the optimal allocations of the DGs in IEEE 69 bus using different optimization algorithms compared to the CQOBMO_7, the QOBMO, CBMO_7, and BMO. Evidence shows that the highest LR is 68.86%, which was obtained by CQOBMO_7 when integrated with three DG at 11, 18, and 61 with active powers equal to 573.02, 355.20, and 1583.50 kW, respectively. The convergence performance of CQOB-MO_7, QOBMO, CBMO_7, and BMO is

FIGURE 23 Power losses in IEEE 69-bus during 24 h at different case studies.

FIGURE 24 Voltage profile of IEEE 69 bus during 24 h at base case (without photovoltaic).

FIGURE 25 Voltage profile of IEEE 69 bus during 24 h with photovoltaic.

FIGURE 26 Voltage profile of IEEE 69 bus during 24 h with photovoltaic + battery energy storage.

displayed in Figure [20.](#page-28-1) The figure shows the power of the CQOBMO_7 in reaching the optimal solution.

A considerable improvement in the voltage profile is accomplished when installing DGs in the IEEE 69 bus system, as presented in Figure [21](#page-28-2). Furthermore, that approving the importance of the optimal settlement of the DG in the distribution systems.

FIGURE 27 Charging/discharging powers of different BES integration in IEEE 69 bus. BES, battery energy storage.

TABLE 16 The optimal size of $PV + BES$ in the IEEE 69-bus system.

Location	PV size (MW)	BES rated power (MW)	BES capacity (MW h)
Bus 11	0.88	0.57	4.55
Bus 18	0.62	0.40	3.05
Bus 61	2.72	1.77	14.63

Abbreviations: BES, battery energy storage; PV, photovoltaic.

TABLE 17 Daily energy losses for IEEE 69-bus.

Case	Energy losses (kW h)	Reduction %
Without PV	1822.33	
With PV	1417.30	22.23
With $PV + BES$	586.87	67.80

Abbreviations: BES, battery energy storage; PV, photovoltaic.

(b) The optimal size of $PV + BES$ using improved BMO Similarly, the impact of the PV and the $PV + BES$ is observed in the IEEE 69‐bus system. Three PV units with different power generation are installed at the optimal locations, as shown in Figure [22.](#page-28-3) The performance of the IEEE 69‐bus is improved by using the optimal power generation based on PV + BES, and that is clear in Figure [23.](#page-29-0) The figure shows that the power loss is significantly decreased in the case of $PV + BES$ compared to the base case and when PV is installed.

In addition, the voltage profile is improved in the case of $PV + BES$ (see Figure [26\)](#page-29-1) compared to the base case and PV (see Figures [24](#page-29-2) and [25](#page-29-3)), which shows the merits of installing BES with the PV systems.

Figure [27](#page-29-4) presents the behavior of the BES at a different location during the 24 h. The BESs start discharging when the PV power is low, and they charge when the PV power is high to minimize the power loss.

The optimal sizes of the $PV + BES$ for the IEEE 69‐bus system are given in Table [16,](#page-29-5) and the

reduction in the energy is summarized in Table [17.](#page-29-6) The table shows that a significant energy reduction is achieved in the case of PV + BES, which reaches 67.80%.

6 | CONCLUSION

In this paper, improved versions of a new bioinspired optimization algorithm called BMO have been proposed for the optimal allocation and scheduling of the PVDG and BES in RDS. The conventional BMO has been improved using two improvement methods; the first method used a quasi oppositional of the search agents to increase the search space within the variable limits. The second method used the chaotic maps to improve the exploration phase of the improved QOBMO. The improved methods have been validated using 23 benchmarks, which proved the efficiency of the improved methods in achieving the optimal solution for the unimodal, multimodal, and composite functions. Parametric and non‐parametric statistical analyses have been performed to measure the performance of the improved methods. Then, the improved methods have been applied for optimal PVDG allocation in the distribution power system using two standard IEEE 33‐bus and IEEE 69‐bus systems. A comparison between the improved methods and other optimization algorithms has been performed, and the results showed their effectiveness. In addition, the intermittent nature of DG has been studied using PVDG, considering the load variation for 24 h. Suitable scheduling of PVDG + BES using the improved CQOBMO has been achieved to solve the variation in the PV power generation; The results show that significant reductions have been achieved in the energy loss reaching 64% and 67.80% in IEEE 33‐bus and 69‐bus, respectively, when integrating PVDG + BES. In future work, further DG‐ based renewable energy resources such as wind could be modeled using uncertainty and optimally allocated in the RDSs. Besides this, long‐term analysis considering both capital and operational expenditure of the PV and BES system will be optimized.

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CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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