



Article Analysis of the Practical Implementation of Flicker Measurement Coprocessor for AMI Meters [†]

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Abstract: Monitoring power quality (PQ) indicators is an important part of modern power grids' maintenance. Among different PQ indicators, flicker severity coefficients P_{st} and P_{lt} are measures of voltage fluctuations. In state-of-the-art PQ measuring devices, the flicker measurement channel is usually implemented as a dedicated processor subsystem. Implementation of the IEC 61000-4-15 compliant flicker measurement algorithm requires a significant amount of computational power. In typical PQ analysers, the flicker measurement is usually implemented as a part of the meter's algorithm performed by the main processor. This paper considers the implementation of the flicker measurement as an FPGA module to offload the processor subsystem or operate as an IP core in FPGA-based system-on-chip units. The measurement algorithm is developed and validated as a Simulink diagram, which is then converted to a fixed-point representation. Parts of the diagram are applied for automatic VHDL code generation, and the classifier block is implemented as a local soft-processor system. A simple eight-bit processor operates within the flicker measurement coprocessor and performs statistical operations. Finally, an IP module is created that can be considered as a flicker coprocessor module. When using the coprocessor, the main processor's only role is to trigger the coprocessor and read the results, while the coprocessor independently calculates the flicker coefficients.

Keywords: flicker measurements; power quality; voltage fluctuations; FPGA; fixed-point arithmetic; AMI meters with power quality indicators

1. Introduction

Power quality (PQ) monitoring and evaluation are important topics in modern power systems [1,2]. Works related to measurements and long-term recording of the PQ indicators have become almost a daily practice of distribution and transmission system operators (DSOs, TSOs). They are mainly related to the complaints reported by electric energy consumers but, more and more often, they result from the desire to gain knowledge about the levels of PQ indicators in the power system. This data is a valuable source of information on the technical condition of a particular part of the network, and it can be used to take preventive, modernisation and investment actions. Apart from portable analysers used for ad hoc measurement works, operators are also equipped with continuous monitoring systems based on stationary units. Such analysers are usually placed in key points of the power system.

The ability to measure supply voltage parameters, load emissions, and the location of disturbance sources in a large number of nodes is crucial for the grid's correct and reliable operation. Currently, PQ analysers are complex digital meters, which can process at least eight signal channels simultaneously in real-time. The measurement of PQ indicators is standardised by the IEC 61000-4-30 [3], which also provides technical guidelines for implementation of the metering algorithms. In consequence, a PQ class A analyser is quite an expensive device, which makes PQ metering in a wide area economically inefficient.



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Copyright: © 2021 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by/ 4.0/). Relatively high PQ metering costs prevent their application in household's energy meters, which in turn makes it difficult to monitor PQ in end users' nodes. However, in the era of smart grids, there is a need to implement a light flicker measurement device–a flickermeter, for example, Advanced Metering Infrastructure (AMI) meters, whose prices are usually down-regulated to be acceptable for municipal users. Among the different PQ coefficients, the flicker severity is the most complex to implement and greatly determines an AMI meter's final cost.

The flickering phenomena, manifested mostly in the changes in electric lighting intensity, is an important parameter for the life comfort of people in the lighted rooms [4–6]. The flicker measurement can be done by measuring the flux of light, but the only standardised method is to measure the voltage variations and, on this basis, to determine the flicker metrics [7,8]. It should be noted that the UIE/IEC flickermeter [9] simulates the lamp-eyebrain response to the voltage fluctuations in the weighting filter, which parameters have been chosen based on measurements carried out for a coiled filament gas-filled 60 W incandescent lamp [10]. Since different lamp types have different flicker responses [11], there is a potential need for new flickermeters to cope with new lighting technologies [12,13]. Flicker coefficients are also the commonly accepted and standardised way of metering voltage fluctuations on each voltage level. Therefore, the coefficients are widely used by grid operators and define the permissible level of voltage fluctuations in standards, e.g., EN 50160 [14] and grid codes.

In this paper, the implementation of a flickermeter in an FPGA fabric is presented. The objective is to show an implementation method of flicker severity measurement according to the IEC 61000-4-15 [9] standard in a relatively small and cheap integrated circuit. This technique enables a digital meter to be extended to carry the functionality of a flickermeter by adding a hardware coprocessor or an existing flickermeter to be implemented as an IP (intellectual property) core in the FPGA (see Figure 1).



Figure 1. Configuration of a flickermeter as a part of a PQ measurement device.

The main idea is to move flicker severity computation to the FPGA fabric, thereby ensuring simple access to the flicker parameters and offloading the main microprocessor.

2. Algorithm of Flickermeter and Implementation Issues

Several attempts have been made to implement a flicker severity measurement algorithm. In [15] the author discusses the realisation of a flickermeter in the time domain in a Matlab/Simulink environment. The model of the analogue UIE/IEC flickermeter in Matlab/Simulink is presented there. In [16] the authors present a discrete model of the IEC 61000-4-15 flickermeter developed for use with the Matlab/Simulink simulation software package. The model duplicates the functional blocks described in the standard and operates in the same way as the standardised instrument to ensure complete consistency of results. Some implementation issues and flicker calculation algorithms are presented in [17–25]. Various hardware platforms have been applied for implementing and testing the flickermeter: LabView [5], low-cost embedded systems [26] and digital signal processors [27].

Moreover, some flicker measurement methods that do not follow the IEC recommendations have been investigated. Examples here include the applications of wavelets [28–30], artificial neural networks [31], the Walsh–Hadamard transform [32], the Hilbert transform [33], the fast S-transform [34] and the FFT-based method [35]. Algorithms reducing a large amount of evaluation data during measurement by compressing redundant data were also implemented [36].

The international standard IEC 61000-4-15 describes in detail the functional specification and design of a flickermeter. It also specifies that new flickermeter designs should correspond to the flickermeter of class F1. The flickermeter is divided into several functional blocks, as shown in Figure 2.



Figure 2. Functional diagram of the IEC flickermeter.

The standard also describes tests that have to be carried out to check the flickermeter's compliance. For a PQ meter to qualify as compliant with IEC 61000-4-30, the flicker measurement has to pass the tests given in the IEC 61000-4-15 standard.

Since the standard describes the flickermeter as an analogue device, numerous attempts have been made to digitalise the flickermeter blocks. The main challenge is to obtain discrete transfer functions for filters in blocks 3 and 4. Its implementation in an FPGA raises some additional issues mostly connected to fixed-point operations and sampling frequency reduction. The considered blocks are (see Figure 2):

- Input gain control block—the block operates as a signal conditioning unit and provides scaling to the reference value. The reference is the half-period RMS value processed by the 1st order digital filter with a 27.3 s time constant. In the digital implementation, this block provides only scaling, which can be performed by automatic gain control (AGC).
- Square multiplier block—this block, together with the high pass filter in the next block, operate as a demodulator. The FPGA implementation requires the implementation of the integer multiplier.
- High pass and weighting filters—this block consist of three filters. The first is a high pass filter, which eliminates the DC component of the voltage. The standard suggests that the filter should be of first-order with -3 dB attenuation at 0.05 Hz cut-off frequency. The second filter is a low pass one, and the standard requires a 6th-order Butterworth filter with an attenuation of -3 dB at 35 Hz (for 230 V system). The last filter is a so-called weighting filter. It simulates the spectral nature of the human visual system. The filter is defined by the transfer function:

$$G(s) = \frac{k\omega_1 s}{s^2 + 2\lambda s + \omega_1^2} \cdot \frac{1 + s/\omega_2}{(1 + s/\omega_3)(1 + s/\omega_4)}$$
(1)

where the parameters k, λ , ω_i ($i = 1 \dots 4$) are given in the standard and vary for 230 V and 110 V systems. Digital implementation of the filters requires the utilisation of filter design tools in order to evaluate fixed-point parameters. It is possible to use a standard FPGA implementation of IIR filters.

• Squaring and smoothing—this block performs two functions: it simulates the eyebrain visual channel through a squaring operation and emulates the brain's memory effect. Such functions can be achieved through the sliding mean operator; however, the standard suggests utilising a 1st-order filter with 300 ms time constant. The output of this block is an instantaneous flicker P_{inst} . FPGA implementation requires the utilisation of fixed-point squaring and filtering as described above.

Statistical analysis—it is the only block that utilises typical digital data processing to
obtain short-term P_{st} and long-term P_{lt} flicker coefficients. The computation is based
on the percentile evaluation according to the formula:

$$P_A = 0.314P_{0.1} + 0.0525P_{1s} + 0.0657P_{3s} + 0.28P_{10s} + 0.08P_{50s}$$

$$P_{st} = \sqrt{P_A}$$
(2)

where:

$$P_{50s} = (P_{30} + P_{50} + P_{80})/3$$

$$P_{10s} = (P_6 + P_8 + P_{10} + P_{13} + P_{17})/5$$

$$P_{5s} = (P_{2.2} + P_3 + P_4)/3$$

$$P_{1s} = (P_{0.7} + P_1 + P_{1.5})/3$$
(3)

and P_x is the *x*-th percentile of the P_{inst} values logged during a specified time interval, where *x* is 0.1, 0.7, 1, 1.5, 2.2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 10, 13, 17, 30, 50, and 80, respectively. The interval can vary from 1 to 15 min; however, the IEC 61000-4-30 standard assumes 10 min for a typical flicker severity evaluation. The evaluation of P_{lt} is performed using 12 samples of P_{st} . Hence the long-term flicker describes the flicker severity for the last two hours according to the formula:

$$P_{lt} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} P_{st,i}}$$
(4)

where P_{lt} is the long-term flicker coefficient, $P_{st,i}$ is the *i*-th consecutive value of the short-term coefficient, N = 12 is the number of P_{st} levels taken to compute the P_{lt} coefficient. Due to the sequential nature of the computation, this block is the most difficult to implement in an FPGA.

A typical method of implementing block 5 is to utilise a memory buffer to save all P_{inst} samples during the interval. Next, the buffer is sorted, and the percentile values are obtained as values of known memory cells in the buffer. Since the implementation of sorting in an FPGA is quite complex, a local soft-processor core is utilised to perform this task. Despite many values to sort, there is usually enough time to run at least a simple sorting algorithm. The details of this operation are described in Section 3. As a result, the percentile values are obtained, meaning the P_{st} coefficient can be computed according to Equation (2). The computation can be performed by the local processor core, implemented in the FPGA or calculated by the main processor.

3. Rapid Implementation and Hardware Platform

The rapid development approach focuses on model-based design (MBD), where most of the development effort is concentrated in a simulation of the algorithm, while the major parts of the implementation are done automatically. The MBD approach allows focusing on the problem simultaneously, skipping the details of its implementation [25]. The algorithm is tested at the very first design stage, reducing the number of implementation errors. It is also crucial that there are no references to the hardware on which the algorithm is intended to run so far.

The flicker measurement algorithm was developed as Simulink diagram and tuned in Simulink simulator till full compliance with the IEC 61000-4-15 specification. Next, the algorithm can be processed dually, depending on the target hardware platform:

- 1. To generate C-code finally executed in real-time by a microprocessor, or
- 2. To generate HDL code applied for building an IP module dedicated to an FPGA.

Figure 3 shows two possible paths for the implementation of rapid prototyping. The first option is the more common one. The generated code is functionally equivalent to the

Simulink diagram. The simulation model must be extended by feeding the flickermeter algorithm with real signals and storing the results. These operations are implemented as S-function device driver blocks. The S-function blocks are C-code procedures, which connect the algorithm to real signals: measurements from A/D converters and the memory to store the results. A real-time kernel is used to meet the real-time execution requirements. It was FreeRTOS in our case. The real-time kernel triggers the generated code's execution at given sampling rates (see Figure 4).



Figure 3. Two possible paths for the implementation of rapid prototyping.



Figure 4. Dataflow of the flickermeter coprocessor.

The generated code was executed on ARM Cortex A9 processor running with the 666.66 MHz clock signal. The major part of the algorithm runs at 10.24 kHz sampling rate, which gives 98 microseconds sampling period. Most of the time, the processing of a single sample takes 33 microseconds. However, occasionally the calculation time rises to 48 microseconds. The worst-case execution time is equivalent to 49% of CPU utilisation introduced by single-channel flicker calculations. As usually, at least three flicker channels are required, it may be necessary to apply a multicore processor system to

calculate all flicker coefficients. Additionally, the measurement device usually performs other operations related to measurements and provides services required from modern devices, e.g., runs a Modbus TCP server. Therefore, it seems reasonable to shift the most time-consuming calculations to a dedicated unit.

As an alternative to the microprocessor implementation, the flicker severity measurement is implemented through an FPGA module. The module is autonomous and operates independently from the other parts of the metering device. For the purposes of presenting this idea, it is assumed that the metering device contains a main processor that performs basic calculations, e.g., voltage RMS, frequency, etc. (see Figure 1). The processor is also responsible for other non-metering tasks, such as communication or displaying results. Flicker severity coefficients are computed in the external FPGA module to minimise hardware resources and save the main processor's computational capacity. The module operates as a coprocessor—it performs computational-intensive calculations to supplement the main processor.

It may seem that adding an FPGA to the devices to implement the flickermeter coprocessor is not economically justified because the coprocessor task can be performed by an extra processor, usually cheaper than an FPGA. However, currently, many devices are designed in an FPGA-based system-on- chip configuration. In the SoC approach, the designer decides on the division of the device's tasks into software-based and hardware-based domains. In this case, the coprocessor can be implemented in free FPGA resources at no cost, or a larger FPGA can be used with little increase in cost, which makes the described approach economically viable. Also, the HDL definition of the flickermeter coprocessor can be a starting point for the mass production of ASIC flickermeter integrated circuits.

3.1. Data Flow

The dataflow of the flicker coprocessor is presented in Figure 4. The colours in Figure 4 represent the constant sampling rates at which operate the stages of the algorithm. The flickermeter algorithm contains low-pass filters, so the data rate can lower as the signal passes the blocks without information losses. The input voltage samples U_a are processed by the AGC block to keep the RMS level of the measured voltage close to a constant reference value without influencing any modulating components. The time constant of the AGC loop is 27.3 s. The synchronisation block is applied to trigger the measurement of the half-cycle RMS values. The P_{inst} block calculates the instantaneous flicker values (see the next section for details). The synchronisation, AGC and part of the P_{inst} blocks operate at a 10.24 kHz sampling rate. The final stages of the P_{inst} calculation chain are down-sampled and operate fourteen times slower. The P_{inst} samples are stored in the dual-port memory buffers. Each buffer stores 16,000 values with the 26 2/3 Hz frequency during 10 min periods. The buffers operate alternately—one acquires *P*_{inst} samples, and the local processor processes the second. The local processor operates as the level classifier and calculates the percentiles required for $P_{\rm st}$ calculation. The classifier runs every 10 min and is performed by a simple 8-bit soft-processor. In the presented case, a PicoBlaze softcore has been chosen due to its small FPGA resource requirements. Finally, the $P_{\rm st}$ levels are stored in the buffer (12 samples) and applied to calculate long-term flicker severity $P_{\rm lt}$.

The P_{inst} , P_{st} and P_{lt} values are the coprocessor outputs and can be accessed by the main processor. The aim of the coprocessor is to offload flicker calculations from the main processor. Therefore, the main processor only triggers the measurements, waits to complete the calculations and reads the results.

3.2. P_{inst} Fixed-Point Algorithm

Flicker calculations were initially modelled in a high-level language Matlab/Simulink environment to develop the FPGA module. Simulink diagrams usually process floating-point data to support a wide dynamic range while simultaneously maintaining data precision. However, in most cases, the floating-point arithmetic is unsuitable for implementation in an FPGA. Floating-point modules, usually compatible with the IEEE-754

specification, require a significant amount of logical resources, increase power consumption and reduce maximum clock frequency. It leads to the conclusion that the cost of the floating-point implementation is too high, and the algorithm has to be converted to fixed-point operations.

The fixed-point numbers can be represented as Qm.n. The *m* integer value is the number of bits allocated for the two's complement integer part of the number. The *n* integer determines the fractional portion. The value of the fixed-point number can be calculated as:

$$a_{m-1}\dots a_{1}a_{0} \bullet b_{1}b_{2}\dots b_{n}; a_{i}, b_{i} = \{0,1\} \text{ eqivalent to} -2^{m-1}a_{m-1} + \sum_{k=0}^{m-2} 2^{k}a_{k} + \sum_{l=1}^{n} 2^{-l}b_{l}$$
(5)

where:

 $a_{m-1} \dots a_1 a_0$ are bits of the integer part;

 $b_1b_2...b_n$ are bits of the fractional part; and

• is the fractional point character.

The selection of the numbers *m* and *n* determines the range and the precision of the calculations. It is required that the conversion has to meet some constraints. The obvious one is the capacity of the target FPGA unit. The second constraint is related to multiplication operations. Usually, the FPGA units contain some hardware arithmetic blocks, and in order to minimise the used resources, the arithmetic operations should be compatible with the hardware multipliers and adders. In our case, the FPGA fabric contains digital signal processing blocks that operate as 25×18 two's complement multiplier and a 48-bit accumulator. In order to optimise the capacity of the applied resources, it was assumed that the total number of bits of all signals should not exceed 25 bits, the number of bits to represent gain values should be less than or equal to 18, and the maximum number of bits to store the state of the accumulators should be 48.

The fixed-point Simulink model of the P_{inst} calculation block is shown in Figure 5. The drawing shows diagram areas operating with different sampling periods: 10.24 kHz, 2.048 kHz and 741.4 Hz.



Figure 5. Fixed-point flickermeter Simulink diagram.

Figure 5 shows that the fixed-point types are represented in the format *sfixyy_Enxx*, where *yy* means the total number of bits and *xx* denotes the fraction length. The blocks included in the main diagram are also converted to fixed-point signals. As an example, the view of the *DC Stop 0.05Hz* filter is presented in Figure 6.



Figure 6. Fixed-point filter Simulink diagram.

3.3. Rapid Prototyping

The *Synchronization*, *AGC* and P_{inst} blocks (see Figure 4) are applied to automatic VHDL code generation supported by the Mathworks HDL Coder (Natick, MA, USA). Similarly, P_{st} calculations are achieved through a Simulink model and used for VHDL code generation. The generated VHDL code, the manually implemented dual-port buffers and the local processor core are used to build the coprocessor IP module. The synthesis process was performed using a Vivado package from Xilinx (San Jose, CA, USA).

The computation of P_{lt} is not considered as a part of the flicker coprocessor. It involves a cube root and a third power evaluation that is resource-demanding and complex to implement in an FPGA. On the other hand, the computation is executed relatively rarely compared to other computations. It seems reasonable to perform the calculation in the main processor as it could have floating-point computation capacity.

3.4. Hardware Platform

The evaluation board, Mars Starter Kit from Enclustra (Zurich, Switzerland), was selected to be the test hardware platform. The board contains Zynq-integrated circuits from Xilinx equipped with a reconfigurable FPGA fabric with gate, register and RAM resources. The laboratory test platform of the flickermeter is shown in Figure 7. It consists of two boards—the lower one equipped with Zynq and the upper one operating as the interface to analogue inputs.



Figure 7. Laboratory test platform of the flickermeter.

Resource utilisation required to implement a single metering channel in Zynq 7010, Zynq 7100 and Artix XC7A200t is shown in Table 1. The table presents the number and percentage utilisation of applied Look-Up Tables (LUT), registers, block RAMs, and DSP blocks.

	LUTs	Registers	Block RAM	DSP Blocks
Zynq 7010	6202	1403	25	51
	35.24%	3.99%	41.67%	63.75%
Zynq 7100	6202	1403	25	51
	1.24%	0.25%	3.31%	2.52%
Artix 7	4597	1542	25	71
XC7A200t	3.42%	0.57%	3.38%	9.60%

Table 1. Resource utilisation of a single flickermeter channel.

4. Simulation Test Respective to the IEC 61000-4-15 and IEC 61000-4-30

Two series of tests of the flickermeter model were passed. First, the model was simulated in a Simulink environment. Usually, Simulink uses floating-point numbers. In our case, the simulation excitation signals and the data processing algorithm were represented first as floating-point values and then as fixed-point numbers. The floating-point simulations test the correctness of the algorithm. The fixed-point simulations test the accurateness of the floating-point to fixed-point conversion.

The second series of tests were performed in the Hardware-In-the-Loop (HIL) configuration. The fixed-point flickermeter model was translated to the VHDL code and implemented as an FPGA module. Next, the FPGA module was fed by the simulated test signal, processed the data, and returned the simulation environment results. The HIL approach enables the simulation of sensors and tests the final implementation of the flicker measurement algorithm.

In all scenarios, test excitations were generated, respectively, to the IEC 61000-4-15 and IEC 61000-4-30 requirements. According to this standard, the testing procedure shall consist of eight tests, which check the correctness of voltage fluctuations measurement:

- 1. Sinusoidal/rectangular voltage changes;
- 2. Rectangular voltage changes and performance testing;
- 3. Combined frequency and voltage changes;
- 4. Distorted voltage with multiple zero crossings;
- 5. Bandwidth test using harmonic and interharmonic sideband modulation;
- 6. Phase jumps;
- 7. Rectangular voltage changes with a duty ratio; and
- 8. Measuring range.

Tables 2–9 present the test results. The tests were performed for the 230 V, 50 Hz system. It is worth mentioning that in all cases, the results of the fixed-point simulation and HIL tests were the same, so only the floating-point and HIL results are given in the tables. The results prove that the coprocessor meets the requirements of the accuracy demanded by the IEC.

4.1. Sinusoidal/Rectangular Voltage Changes

In this test, the total response characteristic from input to output P_{inst} is checked for sinusoidal and rectangular voltage changes. Tables 2 and 3 present the normalised flickermeter response (Tables 1b and 2b in IEC 61000-4-15). The $P_{\text{inst,max}}$ has to be 1.00 with a tolerance of ±8%. 20

25

33 1/3

0.704

1.037

2.128

Table 2. Response to sinusoidal voltage fluctuations.							
Fluctuation Frequency [Hz]	Voltage		nst,max				
	Fluctuation ΔU/U [%]	Floating-Point Simulation	Relative Error	HIL Fixed-Point Test	Relative Error		
0.5	2.325	0.9987	-0.13%	0.9952	-0.48%		
1.5	1.067	0.9983	-0.17%	0.9874	-1.26%		
8.8	0.250	0.9986	-0.14%	1.0339	3.39%		

-0.12%

-0.28%

-0.24%

1.0023

0.9862

0.9850

Table 2. Response to sinusoidal voltage fluctuations.

Table 3. Response to rectangular voltage fluctuations.

0.9988

0.9972

0.9976

Fluctuation	Voltage	P _{inst,max}			
Frequency [Hz]	Fluctuation ΔU/U [%]	Floating-Point Simulation	Relative Error	HIL Fixed-Point Test	Relative Error
0.5	0.509	0.9991	-0.09%	0.9895	0.33%
3.5	0.342	0.9965	-0.35%	1.0024	0.17%
8.8	0.196	0.9991	-0.09%	1.0347	-0.09%
18.0	0.446	0.9968	-0.32%	0.9845	-1.02%
21.5	0.592	0.9981	-0.19%	0.9945	-0.98%
25.0	0.764	0.9984	-0.16%	0.9840	-0.46%
28.0	0.915	0.9991	-0.09%	0.9972	0.57%
30.5	0.847	0.9988	-0.12%	1.0160	0.33%
33 1/3	1.671	1.0001	0.01%	1.0240	0.17%

4.2. Rectangular Voltage Changes and Performance Testing

This test is sufficient for the purpose of calibration in regular time intervals. The voltage fluctuations are centred around the nominal test voltage 230 V. Table 4 shows the $P_{\rm st}$ values during the rectangular voltage changes (as defined in Table 5 in IEC 61000-4-15). The required $P_{\rm st}$ value has to be 1.00 with a tolerance of $\pm 5\%$.

 Table 4. Rectangular voltage changes and performance testing.

Rectangular	Voltage	 P _{st}				
Changes Per Minute [CPM]	Fluctuation ΔU/U [%]	Floating-Point Simulation	Relative Error	HIL Fixed-Point Test	Relative Error	
1	2.715	0.9935	-0.65%	1.0033	0.33%	
2	2.191	1.0020	0.20%	1.0017	0.17%	
7	1.450	0.9988	-0.12%	0.9991	-0.09%	
39	0.894	0.9994	-0.06%	0.9898	-1.02%	
110	0.722	1.0005	0.05%	0.9902	-0.98%	
1620	0.407	0.9981	-0.19%	0.9954	-0.46%	
4000	2.343	0.9990	-0.10%	1.0057	0.57%	

Table 5. Combined frequency and voltage changes.

Fluctuation Frequency [Hz]	Voltage Fluctuation ∆U/U ☐ [%]	P _{inst,max}			
		Floating-Point Simulation	Relative Error	HIL Fixed-Point Test	Relative Error
49.75 50.25	230.000 228.812	1.0064	0.64%	1.0306	3.06%

0.23%

-1.38%

-1.50%

4.3. Combined Frequency and Voltage Changes

The results of the combined frequency and voltage changes tests are given in Table 5. The calculated $P_{\text{inst,max}}$ shall be 1.00 with a tolerance of $\pm 8\%$ (as defined in Section 6.4 in IEC 61000-4-15).

4.4. Distorted Voltage with Multiple Zero Crossings

 $P_{\text{inst,max}}$ of the test (Section 6.5 in IEC 61000-4-15) was 0.9986 during the floating-point simulation and 1.0657 during the HIL test (relative error, respectively: -0.14%, 6.57%). It complies with the requirement that $P_{\text{inst,max}}$ should remain in the range of $1.00 \pm 8\%$.

4.5. Harmonics with Sideband

The bandwidth test using harmonic and interharmonic sideband modulation determines the highest frequency $f_{v,max}$, for which $P_{inst,max}$ is 1.00 with a tolerance of ±8% (as defined in Section 6.6 in IEC 61000-4-15). $f_{v,max}$ has to be at least 450 Hz. The test signal contains the system frequency (50 Hz) component modulated by superposing two spectral components with frequencies f_i and f_v , which are 10 Hz apart, as presented in Table 6. The two modulating voltages shall have an equal relative amplitude of (U_i/U). The measured input bandwidth of the flicker is at least 550 Hz.

Table 6. Bandwidth test using harmonic and interharmonic sideband modulation.

f:/f.,	$U_{\rm v}/U = U_{\rm i}/U$ [%]	P _{inst,max}			
[Hz]		Floating-Point Simulation	Relative Error	HIL Fixed-Point Test	Relative Error
140/150		0.9902	-0.98%	0.9392	-6.08%
190/200		0.9941	-0.59%	1.0526	5.26%
240/250		0.9911	-0.89%	0.9496	-5.04%
290/300		0.9941	-0.59%	1.0550	5.50%
340/350	3.611	0.9913	-0.87%	0.9866	-1.34%
390/400		0.9941	-0.59%	1.0315	3.15%
440/450		0.9914	-0.86%	0.9867	-1.33%
490/500		0.9945	-0.55%	1.0531	5.31%
540/550		0.9915	-0.85%	0.9961	-0.39%

4.6. Phase Jumps

For this test, the voltage consists of a sequence of phase jumps. Each phase jump shall occur at the positive zero crossing after 1 min, 3 min, 5 min, 7 min and 9 min (\pm 10 s) from the beginning of a 10 min observation period. The calculated 10 min *P*_{st} has to match the required *P*_{st} given in Table 7 with a tolerance of \pm 5% or \pm 0.05, whichever is bigger (as defined in Section 6.7 in IEC 61000-4-15).

Table 7. Results of the phase jumps test	ts.
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		P _{st}						
Phase Jump Angle $\Delta \beta$	Required P _{st}	Floating- Point Simulation	Relative Error	Absolute Error	HIL Fixed-Point Test	Relative Error	Absolute Error	
+30 deg	0.913	0.8710	-4.60%	-0.042	0.9041	-0.97%	-0.009	
$-30 \deg$	0.913	0.9564	4.75%	0.043	0.9539	4.48%	0.041	
+45 deg	1.060	1.0879	2.63%	0.028	1.0582	-0.17%	-0.002	
-45 deg	1.060	1.1020	3.96%	0.042	1.0708	1.02%	0.011	

4.7. Rectangular Voltage Changes with a Duty Ratio

The final excitation verifies the reaction to the rectangular voltage changes with a 20% duty cycle. The expected value of the P_{st} is 1.00 with a tolerance of $\pm 5\%$ (as defined in Section 6.8 in IEC 61000-4-15). The P_{st} value simulated in floating-point mode was 0.9974, and the result of the fixed-point HIL experiment was 1.0010 (relative error, respectively: -0.26%, 0.10%).

4.8. Pst measuring Range

In order to become the class A IEC 61000-4-30 standard compliant unit, the analyser has to be tested for the P_{st} range from 0.2 to 10.0. Tables 8 and 9 present the comparison of the floating-point algorithm and the HIL test results for the rectangular voltage fluctuations, which result in P_{st} equal to 0.2, 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 5.0 and 10.0. The expected value of the P_{st} has a tolerance of $\pm 5\%$ (based on IEC 61000-4-15).

Table 8. Response to rectangular voltage fluctuations-floating-point tests.

Rectangular	HIL Floating-Point Test Relative Errors					
Changes per Minute [CPM]	Reference $P_{\rm st} = 0.2$	Reference $P_{st} = 0.5$	Reference $P_{st} = 2$	Reference $P_{st} = 5$	Reference $P_{\rm st} = 10$	
1	0.70%	0.14%	-0.29%	0.62%	-1.37%	
2	1.11%	0.71%	-0.57%	1.82%	-4.20%	
7	0.11%	-0.04%	-0.11%	0.23%	-2.48%	
39	0.07%	-0.02%	-0.07%	-0.09%	-0.81%	
110	0.17%	0.07%	0.05%	0.04%	-1.07%	
1620	-0.08%	-0.18%	-0.20%	-0.20%	-0.92%	
4000	0.00%	-0.08%	-0.13%	-0.36%	-1.26%	

Table 9. Response to rectangular voltage fluctuations—HIL fixed-point tests.

Rectangular	HIL Fixed-Point Test Relative Errors					
Changes per Minute [CPM]	Reference $P_{\rm st} = 0.2$	Reference $P_{\rm st} = 0.5$	Reference $P_{st} = 2$	Reference $P_{st} = 5$	Reference $P_{\rm st} = 10$	
1	-0.07%	0.07%	-1.71%	-3.37%	-3.94%	
2	0.34%	-0.21%	-4.31%	3.31%	-0.93%	
7	0.12%	-0.10%	0.24%	0.09%	-0.38%	
39	-0.63%	0.75%	-0.84%	-0.86%	0.07%	
110	-0.56%	0.85%	-0.97%	-0.81%	-0.03%	
1620	-0.87%	0.53%	-1.00%	-0.80%	0.21%	
4000	2.20%	-0.73%	0.62%	0.45%	1.19%	

The presented results prove that by subjecting the coprocessor to the tests outlined in the IEC via a simulation-based on Matlab and HIL tests, the coprocessor meets the requirement of the accuracy demanded by the IEC. For the FPGA-based implementation, it is crucial that fixed-point tests meet all the requirements.

5. Field Tests

The real-time measurements were performed for comparative analysis of the developed algorithm and its hardware implementation. The commercial PQ analysers and the developed flickermeter coprocessor module were connected in parallel. The list of used PQ analysers is shown in Table 10.

Table 10. PQ analysers were used for comparative analysis.

PQ Analyser	Manufacturer
Fluke 1760TR	FLUKE Corporation, Everett, WA, USA
PQM-703	Sonel S.A., Swidnica, Poland
PQI-DA	A. Eberle GmbH & Co., Nuremberg, Germany
ION7650	Schneider Electric, Rueil-Malmaison, France

The PQ analysers are certified Class A according to IEC 61000-4-30 and comply with the requirements of IEC 61000-4-15 for flicker metering. The price range of the analysers is from $2000 \notin$ to $19,000 \notin$.

The measurement point is a large institutional municipal energy consumer located in the urban area. The analysers were connected to the low voltage side of a supply transformer 15/0.4 kV. The flickermeter coprocessor and PQ analysers were connected, as shown in Figure 8.



Figure 8. Simplified diagram of the test power system.

Figure 9 presents the RMS voltage and its variation. The RMS values are aggregated in the 10-min interval, while min/max RMS values are aggregated for one voltage cycle. The changes in the RMS and the difference between maximum and minimum values indicate voltage fluctuations.



Figure 9. Changes in the RMS voltage (phase L1): the top graph—aggregated 10-min RMS values; the bottom graph—min/max 20 ms RMS values.

Figure 10 presents the P_{st} and P_{lt} measurements. It can be observed that the results of the flicker coprocessor follow flicker indicators calculated and recorded by the commercial PQ analysers. The P_{st} and P_{lt} values recorded by the flicker coprocessor, analyser PQI-DA and PQM0-703 are very similar; hence the waveforms overlap.



Figure 10. Measurements of P_{st} and P_{lt} (phase L1) from three PQ analysers (Fluke 1760TR, PQI-DA, PQM-703) compared with the flicker coprocessor: (**a**) the entire measurement period; (**b**) zoom of the selected fragment.

Statistical measures (values) are calculated in the process of analysis and evaluation of the recorded power quality indicators. It also applies to the flicker severity coefficients P_{st} and P_{lt} , the P_{lt} especially. For example, according to EN 50160 [14], a 95% value or percentile CP95 value is calculated for P_{lt} . Tables 11 and 12 present the statistical measures calculated for the Pst and Plt coefficients' values, respectively, presented in Figure 10. The calculated values of the flicker coprocessor's statistical measures are similar to the values obtained for the PQ analysers. However, it can be seen that there are few visible differences in readings, incidentally exceeding 5% of the relative error, between individual analysers. It may be caused by the measuring algorithm inaccuracy that appeared when measuring real signals or too long of a time since the last calibration. A more accurate assessment of this phenomenon would require the use of a reference signal calibrator. However, it is not the main focus of this paper.

Table 11. Statistical measures calculated for the recorded P_{st} values by the PQ analysers and flicker coprocessor.

Statistical Values			$P_{\rm st}$		
Statistical values	Fluke 1760TR	PQI-DA	Sonel	Average Value	Flicker Coprocessor
Max	0.887	0.755	0.740	0.794	0.751
CP99 (99%)	0.468	0.527	0.528	0.508	0.533
CP95 (95%)	0.380	0.380	0.370	0.377	0.382
CP50 (50%)	0.259	0.260	0.260	0.260	0.264
CP05 (5%)	0.109	0.106	0.110	0.108	0.116

Table 12. Statistical values calculated for the recorded $P_{\rm lt}$ values by the PQ analysers and flicker coprocessor.

Statistical Values -	P _{lt}				
	Fluke 1760TR	PQI-DA	Sonel	Average Value	Flicker Coprocessor
Max	0.469	0.477	0.471	0.472	0.477
CP99 (99%)	0.429	0.434	0.429	0.431	0.434
CP95 (95%)	0.354	0.358	0.353	0.355	0.360
CP50 (50%)	0.276	0.277	0.273	0.275	0.280
CP05 (5%)	0.172	0.172	0.169	0.171	0.175

6. Discussion and Conclusions

This article presents a method of implementing a flicker measurement algorithm as an IP core within a reconfigurable digital circuit. The method covers not only the implementation but also redesigning the algorithm to process fixed-point signals and generate VHDL code. The simulation, HIL and field tests provided evidence of the correct operation of the IP module.

The module can operate in PQ meters as a kind of coprocessor, offloading timeconsuming flicker calculations from the main processor. By analogy to military terminology, the module operates in a *fire-and-forget* mode. The main processor only triggers the calculations and reads the results when data processing is completed. The presented use case is only an example. The module can be integrated with a meter in different ways, e.g., as a separate application-specific integrated circuit (ASIC) chip or as a part of an existing FPGA fabric. Modern specialised integrated circuits dedicated to PQ measurements measure values such as RMS, THD, asymmetry, harmonics, energy, power, power factor and detect sag and swell events, but they lack flicker measurement [37]. The presented IP core is a natural extension of this class of integrated circuits.

The number of the FPGA resources required by the coprocessor prevents implementation in the simplest and cheapest integrated circuits, in particular when multichannel flicker measurement is considered. However, the capacity of the reconfigurable circuits increases while the cost decreases. Moreover, ASIC technology can be considered for highvolume mass production. On the other hand, there is still scope to optimise the final design and decrease resource occupation. Voltage samples can be pre-processed and sent to the flicker coprocessor by the main processor, which removes the need for synchronisation and reference RMS computation blocks. Multichannel operations can be simulated by means of serialising each channel's samples and performing the computation sequentially. The implementation of these functionalities depends on the available capacity of the main processor and its peripherals.

Moving computation-intense tasks to specialised chips is a well-known approach. Applying it to the PQ metering together with increasing hardware solutions could facilitate the designs of power grid metering systems. It allows low-cost PQ metering functionalities to be available for AMI meters.

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