

Experimental and Numerical Study of Flow in Prismatic and Non-prismatic Section of a Converging Compound Channel

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Abstract

Rivers have fascinated engineers and scientists for decades while providing water supply for domestic, irrigation, and industrial consumption or transportation and recreation use. As a result of topography changes along the open channels, designing the converging compound channel is an essential. Water surface prediction is an important task in flood risk management in urban area. In this paper based on the principle of the momentum balance, a one dimensional method is investigated to predict the water surface elevations in non-prismatic compound channels. The numerical method is then applied to calculate water surface elevation in non-prismatic compound channel configurations, the results of calculations show good agreement with the experimental data. In this paper a complete three-dimensional and two phase CFD model for flow distribution in a converging compound channel is investigated. The finite volume method (FVM) with a dynamic Sub grid-scale was carried out for convergence condition. The volume of fluid (VOF) method was used to allow the free-surface to deform freely with the underlying turbulence. The accuracy of the model was analyzed with observed data from experimental studies of a converging compound channel as the qualitative reference and the computed results of the present study were validated. The predicted results for the flow characteristics are in reasonable agreement with the experiment data.

Keywords: Experimental model, Numerical model, FVM method, VOF method, prismatic and non prismatic section, converging compound channel.

1. Introduction

Prediction of conveyance capacity in open channel flows is complex and requires adequate modeling of flow features such as secondary circulation cells and, specifically for over-bank channels, the momentum exchange that occurs at the main channel/floodplain interface. One of the significant characteristic attributes of flow in an open-channel bend is its secondary flow and therefore the helical motion that is the main reason of the winding river morphology and the tendency to create a succession of shoals and deeps along its way. Due to the existence of secondary flow, flow characteristics in channel bends are much more complicated than those in straight channels. In other words, close to the inner wall and also at the channel bed, pressure gradient exceeds centrifugal force and conveys water in a transverse direction towards the inner wall. At the free surface, centrifugal force drives the flow to the outer wall. This kind of flow is known as the secondary flow (Lien et al., 1999). Super-elevation, secondary flows and their tending to redistribute the mean velocity, permuting the boundary shear stress, bank erosion and shifting, flow separation (that its presence coming together with vortex bar formation decreases the channel width and conveyance capacity), and bed migration in mobile boundary channels have made the study of the non-prismatic open channels of a high interest in the field of river engineering.

A step has been taken to do numerical analysis on a non prismatic compound channel flow. The work will help to simulate the different flow variables in such type of complex flow geometry. Booij (2003) and VanBalen et al. (2008) modeled the flow pattern at a mildly-curved 180° bend and assessed the secondary flow structure using large eddy simulation (LES). Lu et al. (2004), Bodnar and Pihoda (2006) and Omid Seyedashraf, AliAkbar & Milad Khatib Shahidi (2012) applied a three-dimensional numerical model to simulate secondary flows, the distribution of bed shear stress, the longitudinal and transversal changes of water depth and the distribution of velocity components at bend using the standard $k-\epsilon$ turbulence model. B. K. Gandh, H.K. Verma and Bobby Abraham (2010) determined the velocity profiles in both the directions under different real flow conditions and investigated the effects of bed slope, upstream bend and a convergence / divergence of channel width of velocity profile. Ahmed Kassem; Jasim Imran and Jamil A. Khan analyzed from the three-dimensional modeling of negatively buoyant flow in a diverging channel with a sloping bottom and modified the $k-\epsilon$ turbulence model for the buoyancy effect. Anthony G. Dixon (2012) simulated CFD software with fluid flow interactions between phases. Other studies have been also conducted by researchers in this area (e.g. Ervine and Jasem (1995), Jasem (1990), James & Brown (1977), Elliott (1990), Bousmar (2002) and Bousmar et al. (2004a) Bahram Rezaei (2006)).

In the present work, an effort has been made to investigate the velocity profiles for prismatic and non-prismatic section of a convergent compound channel by using a commercial computational fluid dynamics (CFD) code, namely FLUENT. The CFD model developed for a real open-channel was first validated by comparing the velocity profile obtained from it with that obtained by actual measurement in the same channel

using preston tube. The CFD model has been the used to analyze the effects of upstream bend, convergence of channel width and bed slope, and to study the variations in velocity profiles along the horizontal and vertical directions.

2. Experimental Setup

Experiments was conducted in non-prismatic compound channels with varying cross section built inside a concrete flume measuring 15m×.9m×0.5m at National Institute of Technology Rourkela Hydraulic laboratory. The width ratio of the channel is $\alpha \leq 1.8$ and the aspect ratio is $\delta \geq 5$. The converging angle of the channel is 12.38°. Converging length of the channel is 0.84m. The channel is made up of cement concrete. Water will be supplied through a Centrifugal pumps (15 hp) discharging into a RCC overhead tank. In the downstream end there will be a measuring tank followed by a sump which will feed to over head tank through pumping thus completing recirculation path. Fig.1 shows the schematic diagram of experimental setup and dimensions of channel with test section respectively. Fig.2 shows the plan view of two different experimental sections. Water was supplied to the flume from an underground sump via an overhead tank by centrifugal pump (15 hp) and recirculate to the sump after flowing through the compound channel and a downstream volumetric tank fitted with closure valves for calibration purpose. Water entered the channel bell mouth section via an upstream rectangular notch specifically built to measure discharge in the laboratory channel. An adjustable vertical gate along with flow straighteners was provided in upstream section sufficiently ahead of rectangular notch to reduce turbulence and velocity of approach in the flow near the notch section. At the downstream end another adjustable tail gate was provided to control the flow depth and maintain a uniform flow in the channel. A movable bridge was provided across the flume for both span wise and stream wise movements over the channel area so that each location on the plan of compound converging channel could be accessed for taking measurements. The broad parameters of this channel such as aspect ratio of main channel (δ), width ratio (α).

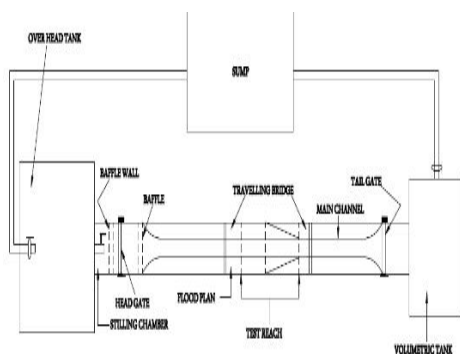


Fig. 1: Plan view of Experimental Set up

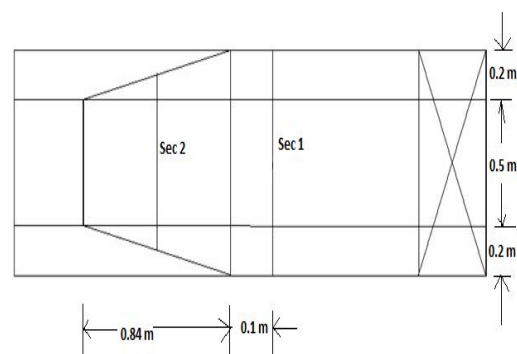


Fig. 2: Plan view of two different experimental section

3. Validation of CFD Model

For validation of CFD simulation, the velocity profile across the width of a channel is measured by a preston tube and compared with the numerical results. A long converging water conveying non prismatic channel has been selected for this purpose. The channel width is divided into cells of 0.05 m size for measurement of velocity at the centre of each cell by Preston tube. For CFD simulation, the flow domain is initially discretized with hexahedral elements of face length equals to 0.01 m for analysis. Flow is assumed to be steady, turbulent and three-dimensional. Experimental velocity profile was measured by preston tube and velocity contour was drawn by SURFER and then validated with CFD prediction.

Discharge evaluated from the two velocity profiles using velocity-area integration method are as under:

Discharge from Preston tube measurement data = 0.051 m³/s

Discharge from CFD simulation data = 0.063 m³/s

4. Results and Discussion

Results have been shown to demonstrate the performance of commercial generic CFD package when applied to open channel flows. In cases where the channel geometry is more complex and varies along the channel, the secondary flow is more as a result of the geometry than the turbulence. Thus the usefulness of CFD and applicability of the models for the problem under consideration depends very much upon the type of geometry and particularly on the nature of dominant forces.

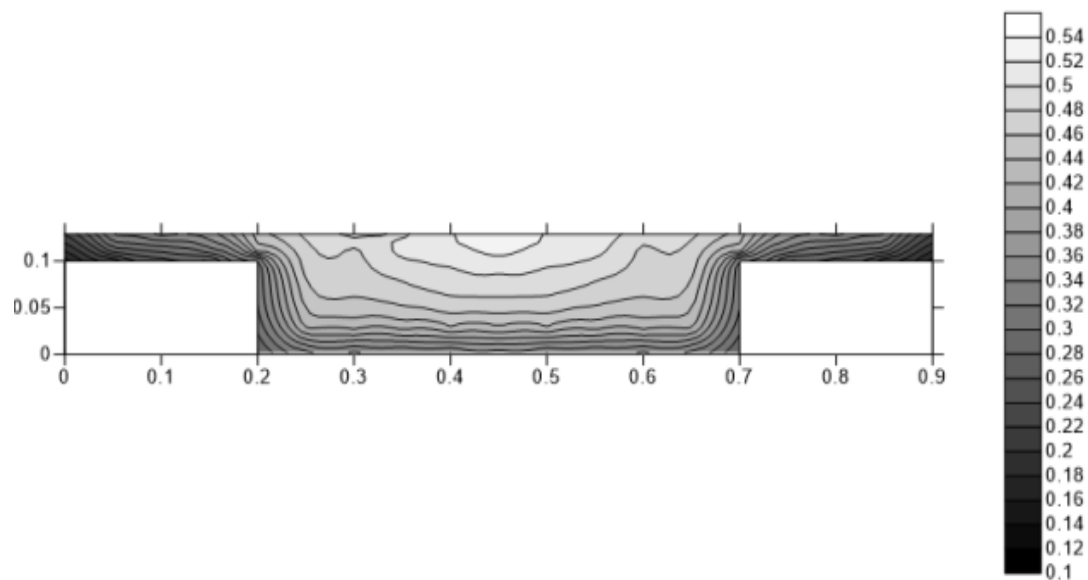


Fig.3 (a) Contour of Sec 1 of experimental results.

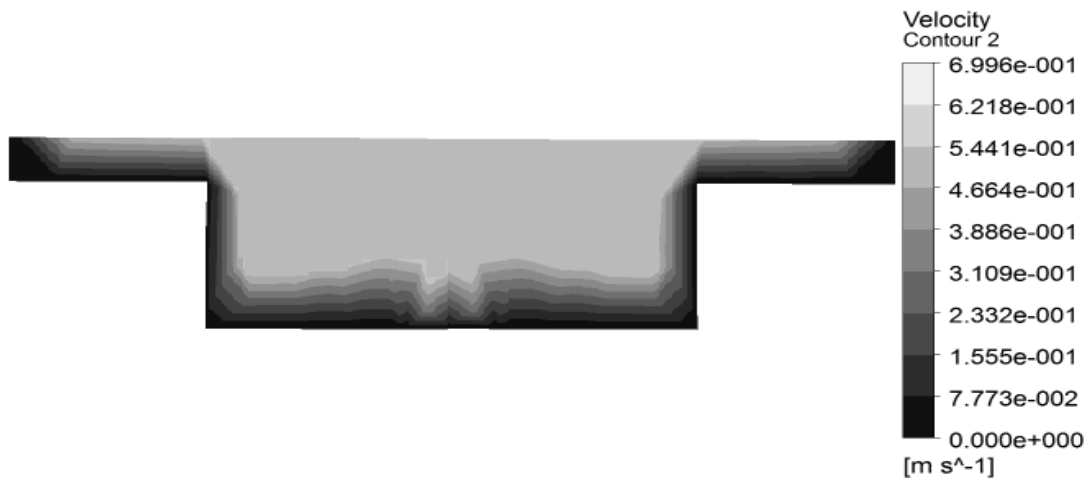


Fig.3 (b) Contour of Sec 1 by CFD simulation.

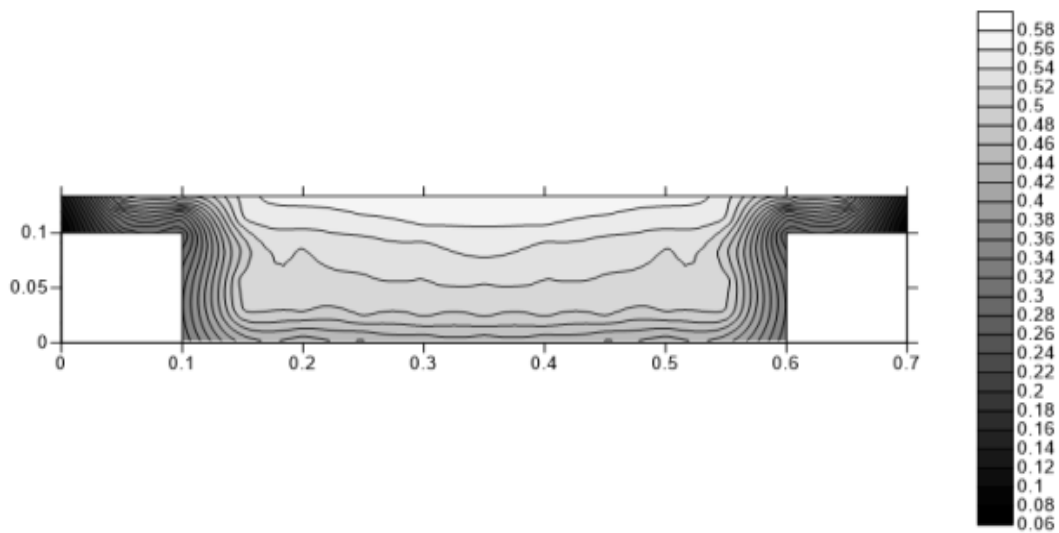


Fig. 4 (a) Contour of Sec 2 of experimental results.

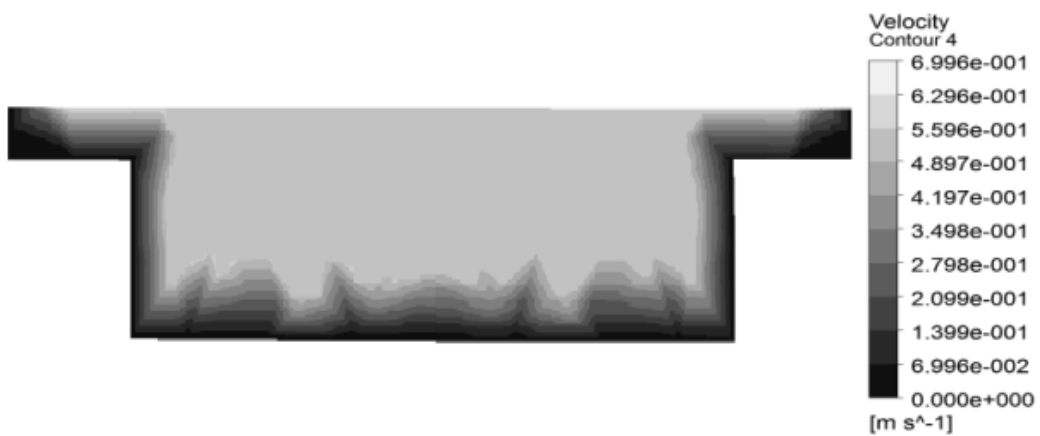


Fig. 4 (b) Contours of sec 2 by CFD simulation.

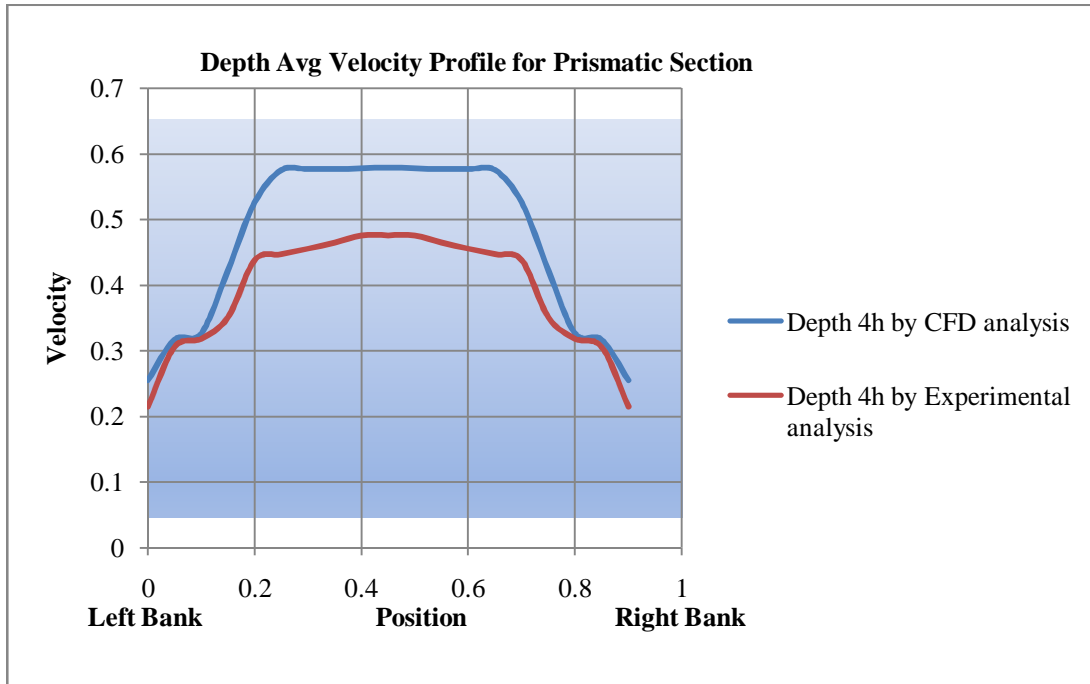


Fig. 5: Depth average velocity profile for sec 1 (by both experimental and Computational results)

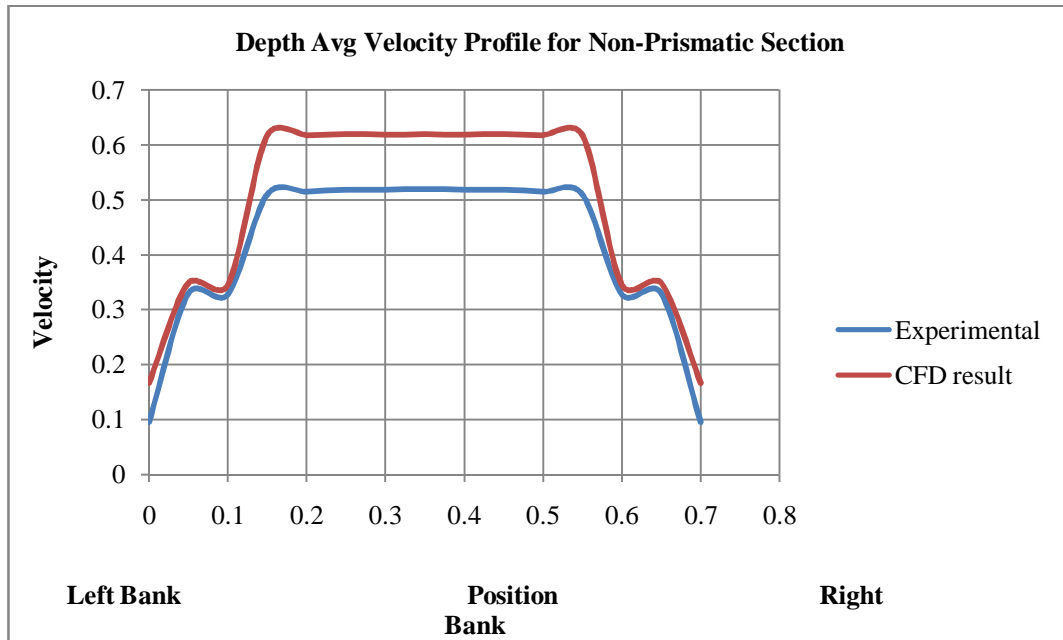


Fig. 6: Depth average velocity profile for section 2 (by both experimental and Computational results).

5. CONCLUSIONS

1. Fig.3 (a) and Fig.4 (a) shows the velocity contours for sec-1 & sec-2 obtained by experimental results. Fig.3 (b) and Fig.4 (b) shows the velocity contours for sec- 1 &2 by Numerical analysis. Fig.5 and Fig.6 shows the both experimental and Computational depth average velocity profile for sec-1 & sec-2. 2. The results show that the CFD predictions accurately predict the velocity and depth average velocity for LES turbulence model.3. In both the cases velocity was over predicted when smooth walls were applied as expected. In this paper the flow velocity profile in non prismatic compound channel has been numerically modeled. The CFD model has been validated by comparing the results with actual measurement carried out with Preston tube.

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Empirical Analysis for Web Based Projects - Software Components Reuse Techniques

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Abstract-The basic connect of systematic software reuse is simple. Develop systems of components of a reasonable size and reuse them. Then extend the idea of component system beyond code alone to requirements, analysis models, design, and test. All the stages of the software development process are subject to reuse. Developers can save problem-solving effort all along the development chain. They can minimize redundant work. They can enhance the reliability of their work because each reused component system has already been reviewed and inspected in the course of its original development. Code components have passed unit and system test elsewhere and often have stood the test of use in the field. By these means developers can reduce development time from years to months, or to weeks instead of months.

Keywords-Component, web engineering, azail

[1] INTRODUCTION & RELATED WORK.

The experience at companies such as AT & T, Brooklyn Union Gas, Ericsson, GTE, Hewlett-Packard, IBM, Motorola, NEC and Toshiba show that significant cost and time savings result from systematic reuse. Other companies, those that are doing nothing in particular about reuse, provide a base line. Several organizations have obtained reuse levels around 90% in certain projects or areas:

AT & T: 40 – 92 % in Telecom operation support system software.

Brooklyn Union Gas: 90 – 95 % in a process layer, and 67% in a user interface and business Object layer.

Ericsson AXE: 90 % in hundreds of customer-specific configurations.

Motorola: 85 % reuse and a 10: 1 productivity savings ratio in compiler and compiler-tool test Suites.

Many organizations have achieved through reuse persuades us that management may expect substantial gains:

Time to market: reductions of 2 to 5 times

Defect density: reductions of 5 to 10 times

Maintenance cost: reductions of 5 to 10 times

Overall software development cost: reduction of around 15% to as much as 75% for long-term projects.

Components are sometimes referred to as assets or work products. While the terms refer to the same underlying

reality, they carry somewhat different connotations. Components suggests interfaces and packaging Asset brings to mind matters of ownership and management work product highlights the fact that a components is a unit in a cycle of work, the software life cycle.

Revolution in application development: The growing popularity and availability of component-based software technologies is fueling a change in the habits and expectations of millions of programmers. New application development tools and technologies have made components the key to reusing larger grained objects to build application rapidly. These technologies include Micro Soft Visual Basic, ActiveX and OLE, SUN's JAVA and CORBA interface definition language. Internet computing using applets and scripting languages such as VB Scripts and Java Scripts make it easy to develop and quickly deploy novel interactive applications across the enterprise. Component objects models and distributed computing infrastructure in the form of OMGs. CORBA middle ware technologies or Microsoft operating system support for the distributed components object model and OLE technology enable more complex distributed large-grain objects and components to e used. These technologies define and mange component interfaces separately from component implementations.

Practical reuse has also been quite successful with non-object-oriented languages such as COBAL and FORTRAN. These non-object-oriented components-based technologies reinter face the fact the successful reuse is not really about object oriented languages or class libraries. While object oriented languages have many of the qualities sought when developing components, they are not sufficient in themselves. There is a growing commercial market for components providing larger chunks of functionality than typical object classes do called ActiveX components or OLE components OCXs.

As an increasing number of these component-based applications are constructed and deployed by independent developers. Business objects and components will be defined and constructed by separate groups, yet must work together to meet business information system needs.

Systematic Approaches:

1. Engineering
2. Process
3. Organizational
4. Business-oriented

1. **Engineering:** The technology and methods deficiencies include

- a) Means to identify clearly elements of the models that describe requirements, architecture, analysis, design, test, and implementation along the development stream. Clear identification underlines that ability either to reuse them or to allow them to be candidates for replacement by reusable component systems.
- b) Lack of components to reuse. This category covers a host of obstacles: failure to select and strengthen components for reuse in the first place lack of techniques to package, document, classify, and identify components inadequate design and implementation of library systems poor access to component libraries for potential reuses.
- c) Lack of flexibility in potentially reusable components if a component is rigid; it fits few or sometimes no reuse opportunities. In the past our methods for designing a flexible, layered architecture have been immature. Our ability to adapt a component to fit a new need or a new architecture has been limited.
- d) Lack of tools to carry out reuse procedures. A number of new tools are needed tools that can be integrated into reuse-oriented support environments.

2. **Process:** In the engineering and technology level, the traditional process of software development is itself deficient in opportunities to encourage reuse. Nowhere in most of the processes that are used to day is there a point where developer sit down and ask themselves. The potential role of the architect in reuse has not been defined. Similarly, the role of a reuse engineer or a reusable component engineer has not been worked out. The places in the process at which developers might consider inserting component systems have not been built in. after analysis, design, or code components have been blocked out, review, inspection and walkthrough procedures fail to contemplate reuse.

3. **Organizational:** very few organizations systematically practice reuse as an established best practice. One reason is that they focus on one project at a time. Reuse requires a border focus. The management group has to look ahead, focusing on a set of projects that cover an application area, that is, that they believe process some characteristics in common. This area is a domain from this domain someone – a domain engineer has to identify that reusable elements and carry on from there.

4. **Business:** Reuse takes capital and funding it takes capital to finance domain engineering. The building of components systems strong enough to justify reuse, and the creation of in house libraries of components. These operations tie up capital until projects that reuse the components pay for them. It takes funding to provide education, training and access to vendor

supplied components. It takes money to cope with an unstable domain as when the initial domain is poorly defined or when similar domains in different organizations must be merged. It may take money to penetrate the legal and social reasons for sharing or not sharing software.

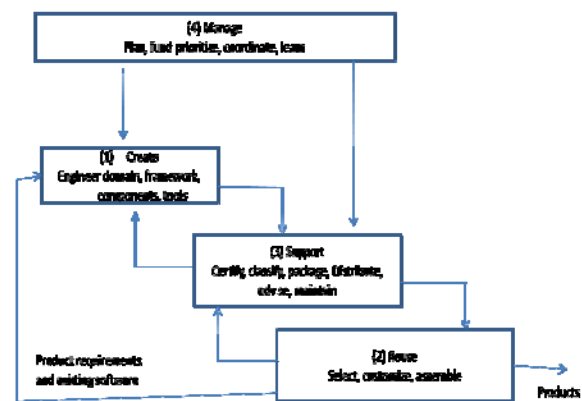
[2] REUSE INVOLVE CONCURRENT PROCESSES

The reuse community has come to understand on the basis of its experience that making systematic reuse effective requires major changes in the way organizations develop software. In the past the software process has focused on developing each application from scratch. At most, individual developers have shared code on an ad hoc basis.

The new way links many application development projects with processes that identify and create reusable assets. To do so, they must overhaul their business and organizational structures. We have come to understand that this significant organizational change can be thought of in terms of business process reengineering. It is rethinking of everything pertaining to software from there stand point of those who ultimately benefit from good software obtained quickly reliably and inexpensively.

Substantial reuse requires, first of all, that reusable assets be identified in terms of a system architecture. Then the assets must be created and appropriately packaged and stocked. Potential users must have confidence in the components integrity, secondly an organization must refashion its systems engineering process so that developer can identify opportunities for reuse and work selected components into the process.

Systematic software reuse is thus the purposeful creation, management, support, and reuse of assets. As illustrated in figure below this can be expressed in terms of four concurrent processes. We call the people in the reusable asset processes, creators, and those in the development projects, reusers.



Create: This process identifies and provides reusable assets appropriate to the needs of the reusers. These assets may be new, reengineered, or purchased of various kinds such as

code, interfaces, architectures, tests, tools and so on. This process may include activities such as inventory and analysis of existing applications and assets, domain analysis, architecture, definition, assessment of reusers needs technology evolution reusable asset testing and packaging.

Reuse This process uses the reusable assets to produce applications or products. Activities include the examination of domain models and reusable assets, the collection and analysis of end-user needs the design and implementation of additional components adaptation of provided assets, and the construction and testing of complete applications.

Support: This process supports the overall set of processes and manages and maintains the reusable asset collection. Activities may include the certification of submitted reusable assets. Classification and indexing in some library, announcing and distributing the asset, providing additional documentation, collecting feedback and defect reports from reusers.

Manage: This process plans, initiates, resources, tracks and coordinates the other processes. Activities include setting priorities and schedules for new asset construction, analyzing the impact and resolving conflict concerning alternative routes when a needed asset is not available, establishing training and setting direction.

Domain engineering:

In most reuse programs to date, a key activity associated with the create process is a fairly systematic way of identifying potentially reusable assets, and an architecture to enable their reuse. This activity is called domain engineering in the systematic reuse community. The development of reuse process is also sometimes called application system engineering. The essence of systematic software reuse is that initial investment by the creator to identify and carefully structure reusable assets will enable reusers to build application rapidly and cost effectively.

Domain engineering reflects the idea that sharing between related applications occurs in one or more application domain or problem domain or solution domains. Reuse of the assets then occurs during a subsequent application system engineering phase.

Sometimes domain engineering has been loosely described as just like ordinary systems engineering such as structure analysis structured design or object oriented analysis object oriented design except that it applies to a family of systems rather than just one. It is like systems engineering but it is also more than one of kind systems engineering. It seeks the family of similar systems that can inhabit a domain. As a result domain engineering is more complex than established systems engineering. Therefore management should not turn to it without forethought and should establish domain engineering. Therefore management should not turn to it without forethought and should establish domain engineering only when it foresees a business benefit in reuse.

Application System Engineering:

This activity has long existed in the form of building applications from scratch, possibly with the aid of a few back pocket programs. The goal now is to make use of the extensive set of reusable assets that have been provided. The intent is to build the application much more rapidly and cost effectively.

Application system engineering specializes and assembles these components into application. These applications are largely constrained to fit the architecture and the components. Typical applications usually consist of components from several different sets of components.

Starting from the models of the architecture and reusable components, the reusers puts together available reusable assets to meet at least the bulk of the new set of requirements. This is sometimes called a delta implementation because it is an outgrowth of what already exists.

The reusers have to find and specialize components by exploiting a variability mechanisms provided. If it is not possible to meet all the new requirements with the available reusable components additional programming will be needed.

This programming may be done by the creator, producing new reusable components or by the reusers.

Finally the components are integrated and the application tested.

Domain engineering	Application system Engineering
Define and scope domain	Do delta analysis and design relative to domain model and architecture
Analysis examples needs trends	Use component systems as starting point
Develop domain model and architecture	Find specialize and integrate components
Structure commonality and variability	Exploit variability mechanism language generators.
Engineer reusable component systems languages and tools	

[3] MOTIVATION AND BACKGROUND

Web-based systems [1] and applications deliver a complex array of content and functionality, to a broad population of end-users. Web engineering is the process that is used to create high-quality web applications. Web engineering is not a perfect clone of a software engineering, but it borrows many of software engineering fundamental concepts and principles. In addition, the web engineering process emphasizes similar technical and management activities are conducted, but the overriding Philosophy dictates a disciplined approach to the development of a computer-based system. Web engineers and non-technical content developers [2] create the web applications. As web becomes increasingly

integrated in business strategies, for small and large companies, the need to build reliable, usable, and adaptable systems grows in importance.

Contrary to popular belief, architecture is an important aspect of agile software development efforts, just like traditional efforts, and is a critical part of scaling agile approaches to meet the real-world needs of modern organizations. But, agile approach architecture a bit differently than traditionalists do architecture provides the foundation from which systems are built and an architectural model defines the vision on which your architecture is based. The scope of architecture can be that of a single application, of a family of applications, for an organization, or for an infrastructure such as the Internet that is shared by many organizations. Regardless of the scope, my experience is that you can take an agile approach to the modeling, development, and evolution of architecture.

An agile approach: Focus on people, not technology or techniques [3]

Keep it simple

Work iteratively and incrementally

Roll up your sleeves

Build it before you talk about it

An Agile Approach

First and foremost, the values, principles, and practices of Agile Modeling (AM) should help to guide your enterprise architecture modeling and documentation efforts. This is just a good start though these issues are:

Focus on people, not technology or techniques

Keep it simple

Work iteratively and incrementally

Roll up your sleeves

Look at the whole picture

Make enterprise architecture attractive to your customers

Potential Problems With The Agile Approach

No approach is perfect, including this one. We would like to address the issues:

It does not include an explicit way to ensure compliancy (although having enterprise architects embedded on the teams goes a long way towards this). It depends on people being responsible.

It requires you to actively strive to keep things simple.

It requires you to accept an agile approach to modeling and documentation[8].

Web Engineering

The World Wide Web and the Internet that empowers it are arguably the most important developments in the history of computing. The technologies have drawn us all into the information age. They have become integral to daily life in the first decade of the twenty-first century. For those who can remember a world without the web, the chaotic growth of the technology hackers backs to another era- the early days of software.

[4] ATTRIBUTES OF WEB-BASED SYSTEMS AND APPLICATIONS:

In the early days of World Wide Web “Web Sites” consisted of little more than a set of linked hypertext files, that presented information, using text and limited graphics. As time passed, HTML was augmented by Development Tools (e.g. XML, Java) that enabled web engineers, to provide computing capability along with information. Thus web-based systems and applications were born. Today, web application has evolved into sophisticated computing tools that not only provide standalone function to the end user, but also have been integrated with corporate databases and business applications[10]. There is little debate that web applications are different from many other categories of computer software. Powell summarizes the primary differences, when he states that web-based systems “involve a mixture between print publishing and software development, between marketing and computing, between internal communications and external relations, and between art and technology.” . The following attributes are encountered in the web applications.

Network Intensiveness: A web application resides on a network and must serve the needs of a diverse community of clients.

Concurrency: A large number of users may access the web application at one time. In many cases, the pattern of usage among end-user will vary greatly.

Unpredictable Load: The number of users of the web application may vary by orders of magnitude, from day to day.

Performance: If a web application user must wait too long, he or she may decide to go elsewhere.

Availability: Users of popular web application often demand access on a “24/7/365” basis.

Data Driven: The primary function of many web applications is to use hypermedia to present text, graphics, audio, and video content to the end-user. In addition, web applications are commonly used to access information that exists on databases that were not originally an integrated part of the web-based environment.

Content Sensitive: The quality and aesthetic nature of content remains an important determinant of the quality of a web application.

Continuous Evolution: Unlike conventional application software that evolves over a series of planned, chronologically spaced releases, web application evolves continuously.

Immediacy: The compiling needs to get software to market quickly. It is a characteristic of many application domains.

Security: Because web applications are available via network access, it is difficult, if not impossible, to limit the population of end-users who may access the application. In order to protect the sensitive content and provide secure modes of data transmission, strong security measures must be implemented throughout the infrastructure, that supports a web application and within the application itself.

Web Application Engineering Layers: The development of web-based systems and applications incorporates Specialized Process Models, Software Engineering Methods adapted to the characteristics of web application development and a set of important enabling technologies. Process, methods and technologies provide a layered approach to web engineering that is conceptually identical to the software engineering layer.

Process: Web engineering process embraces the agile development philosophy [9].

Agile development emphasizes a lean development approach that incorporates rapid development cycles. Aoyama [64] describes the motivation for the agile approach in the following manner: The Internet changed software development's [65] top priority from what to when. Reduced time-to-market has become the competitive edge that leading companies strive for. Thus, reducing the development cycle is, now, one of the software engineering's most important missions. Even when rapid cycle times dominate development thinking, it is important to recognize that the problem must still be analyzed, a design should be developed, implementation should proceed in an incremental fashion, and an organized testing approach must be initiated. However, these framework activities must be defined within a process that (1) embraces change (2) encourages the creativity and independence of development staff and strong interaction with web application stakeholders, (3) builds systems using small development teams, and (4) emphasizes evolutionary or incremental development, using short development cycles.

Web Methods: The web engineering methods landscape encompasses a set of technical tasks that enable a web engineer to understand, characterize, and then build a high-quality web application. Web methods can be categorized in the following manner:

Communication Methods: Communication Methods define the approach used to facilitate communication between web engineers and all other web application stakeholders. Communication techniques are particularly important during requirements gathering and whenever a web application increment is to be evaluated.

Requirements Analysis: They provide a basis for understanding the content to be delivered by a web application, the function to be provided for the end-user and the modes of interaction that each class of user will require for navigation through the web application.

Design Methods: They encompass a series of design techniques that address web application content, application and information architecture, and interface design and navigation structure.

Testing Methods: They incorporate formal technical reviews of both the content and design model and a wide array of testing techniques that address component level and architectural issues, navigation testing, usability testing and configuration testing.

Tools and Technology: They encompass a wide array of content description and modeling languages.

Web Engineering Framework: To be effective, any engineering process must be adaptable[5]. That is, the organization of the project team, the modes of communication among team members, the engineering activities and tasks to be performed, the information that is collected and created and the methods used to produce a high-quality product must all be adapted to the people doing the work.

Web Application is often delivered incrementally: That is, framework activities will occur repeatedly as each increment is engineered and delivered.

Changes will occur frequently: These changes may occur as a result of the evaluation of a delivered increment or as a consequence of changing business condition.

Business Analysis: Business analysis defines the business/organizational context for the web application. In addition, stakeholders are identified, potential changes in business environment or requirements are predicted and integration between the web application and other business applications, databases and functions are also designed.

Formulation: Formulation is a requirements gathering activity, involving all stakeholders. The intent is to describe the problem that the web application is to solve using the best information available. In addition an attempt is made to identify areas of uncertainty and where potential changes will occur.

Planning: The project plan for the web application increment is created. The plan consists of a task definition and a timeline schedule for the time period, projected for the development of the web application increment.

Modeling: Conventional Software Engineering Analysis and Design tasks are adapted to web application development, merged and then into the web engineering modeling activity. The intent is to develop "rapid" analysis and design models that define requirements and at the same time, represent a web application that will satisfy them.

Construction: Web engineering tools and technology are applied to construct the web application that has been modeled. Once the web application increment has been constructed, a series of rapid tests are conducted to ensure that errors in designs are uncovered.

Homepage: Web application should contain useful information or a simple listing of links that lead a user to more detail at lower level.

Page Layout: It varies depending upon the type of web application being developed.

Multimedia: Multimedia options are effective options for web application.

Engineering Best Practices: Web engineering teams are, sometimes, under enormous time pressure and will try to take short-cuts, but a set of fundamental best practices adopted from the software engineering practices should be applied, if industry quality web applications are to be built[7].

Product Objectives: It is essential to understand the business needs and product objectives, even if the details of the web applications are vague: Many web application developers, erroneously, believe that vague requirements relieve them from the need to be sure that the system, they are about to engineer, has a legitimate business purpose. The end result is good technical work that results in the wrong system, built for the wrong reasons, for the wrong audience.

If stakeholders cannot enunciate a business need for the web application, proceed with extreme caution. If stakeholders struggle to identify a set of clear objectives for the product, do not proceed until they can.

User Interaction: The user interaction with the web application should be described using a scenario-based approach: stakeholders must be convinced to develop use-cases to request how various actors will interact with the web application. These scenarios can then be used for project planning and tracking to guide analysis and design modeling, and as important input for the design of tests.

Project Plan: Project Plan, should be developed even if it is very brief. Then the plan has to be based on a predefined process framework that is acceptable to all stakeholders. Because project timeliness is short, schedule granularity should be fine.

Modeling: Modeling demands time spending to ascertain what it is being done to build: Generally, comprehensive analysis and design models are not developed during web engineering. However, UML class and sequence diagrams along with other selected UML notation may provide invaluable insight.

Review the models for consistency and quality: Formal technical reviews should be conducted throughout a web-engineering project. The time spent on reviews pays important dividends because; it often eliminates rework and results in a web application that exhibits high quality, thereby increasing customer satisfaction.

Tools and Technology: Tools and Technology that enable to construct the system with as many reusable components as possible: A wide array of web application tools is available for virtually every aspect of web application construction. Many of these tools enable a web engineer to build significant portions of the application using reusable components.

Testing: Don't rely on early users to debug the web application design comprehensive test and execute them before releasing the system. Users of a web application will often give it one chance. If it fails to

Perform, they move elsewhere-never to return. It is for this reason that "test first, then deploy" should be an overriding philosophy, even if deadlines must be stretched.

Other Software: Web application software is different from other categories of computer software.

Objectives: If stakeholders struggle to identify a set of clear objectives for the product, it is not advisable proceed, until they can.

Generic Process: The generic process framework-communication, planning, modeling, and deployment are applicable to web engineering[6].

Implementation: Having understood the significance of web engineering for successful development of web applications, the fundamental question that arises, for any web developer is, the concepts relevant for agile, various attributes that are vital for designing web applications, their relative significance and the emphasis required for each attribute, for the successful implementation of the web application using agile methodology. The present study is a humble beginning, to explore the concepts of web attributes and the agile & component technology methodology.

Keeping in view of the elements of web engineering and the process of developing web based projects based on different approaches like

1. Traditional T: Uses traditional approach –Waterfall model
2. Application A: Uses Programming Languages from scratch
3. Component C: Uses component for reuse
4. Agile and Component based AC: Reuse & Incremental along with client interaction

Analytic Hierarchy Process: The Pair wise Comparison Method was developed by Saaty (1980) in the context of the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP). This method involves pairwise comparisons to create a ratio matrix. It takes, as input, the pair wise comparisons and produces the relative weights as output

[5] DEVELOPMENT OF THE PAIR WISE COMPARISON

MATRIX: The method employs an Underlying scale with values ranging from 1 to 9 to rate the relative preferences for two criteria (see table).

Intensity of Importance	Definition
1	Equal importance
2	Equal to moderate importance
3	Moderate Importance
4	Moderate to strong importance
5	Strong importance
6	Strong to very strong importance
7	Very strong importance
8	Very to extremely strong importance
9	Extreme importance

Source: Saaty Scale for pair wise comparison

[6] DEVELOPMENT OF THE PAIR WISE COMPARISON MATRIX

This step involves the following operations:

- (a) Sum the values in each column of the pair wise comparison matrix;

	T	A	C	A&C
T	1	1/3	1/7	1/9
A	3	1	1/7	1/8
C	7	7	1	1/9
A & C	9	8	9	1

(b) Divide each element in the matrix by its column total (the resulting matrix is referred to as the normalized pair wise comparison matrix);

	T	A	C	A&C
T	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.08
A	0.15	0.06	0.01	0.09
C	0.35	0.44	0.10	0.08
A C	0.45	0.50	0.88	0.75

Compute the average of the elements in each row of the normalized matrix, that is, divide the sum of normalized scores for each row .

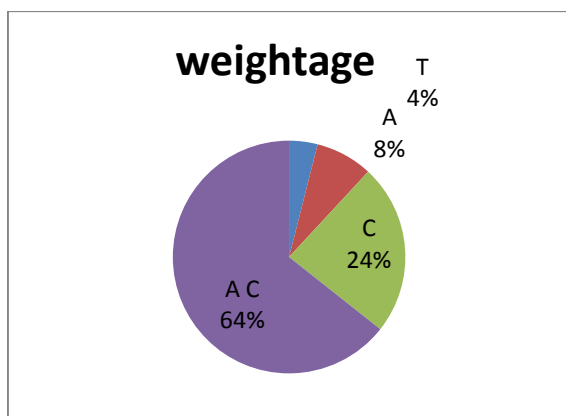
	T	A	C	A&C	w
T	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.08	0.04
A	0.15	0.06	0.01	0.09	0.08
C	0.35	0.44	0.10	0.08	0.24
A C	0.45	0.50	0.88	0.75	0.65

These averages provide an estimate of the relative weights of the criteria being compared. AHP technique is used to find the weights of web based development approaches and the results were as follows

1. Traditional T: Uses traditional approach –Waterfall model
2. Application A: Uses Programming Languages from scratch
3. Component C: Uses component for reuse
4. Agile and Component based AC: Reuse & Incremental along with client interaction

Approach	Weights in %
Traditional T	0.04
Application A	0.08
Component C	0.24
Agile and Component AC	0.65

And the graph has been depicted for the above table which is as follows



The graph shows that the approach for web based projects is more significant for Agile and Component base which takes 65% of the weight age when compared to other approaches

[7] CONCLUSION

There are many SDLC models such as Agile, RAD and Waterfall etc. used in various organizations depending upon the conditions prevailing in it like v-model gives the verification and validation for organization and it is very useful for organization. All these different software development models have their own advantages and disadvantages. Nevertheless, in the contemporary commercial software development world, the fusion of all these methodologies is incorporated. Timing is very crucial in software development. If a delay happens in The development phase, the market could be taken over by the competitor. Also if a bug' filled product is launched in a short period of time (quicker than the competitors), it may affect the reputation of the company. So, there should be a tradeoff between the development time and the quality of the product. Customers don't expect a bug free product but they expect a User-friendly product that results in Customer Ecstasy!

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Performance of Cryptographic Instructions in RISC Based Architecture

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Abstract: On a general purpose processor it results lower throughput and larger power consumption. In security is one of the most important features in data communication. Cryptographic algorithms are mainly used for this purpose to obtain confidentiality and integrity of data in communication. Implementing a cryptographic algorithm this work we propose processor architecture to perform the cryptographic algorithms and also it speed up the encryption and decryption process of data. This processor will perform the cryptographic operations as like general instructions in GPP. The data size of this processor is 32-bit. The processor architecture is designed using Verilog HDL.

Keywords: Cryptographic Algorithms, GPP, Verilog.

I. INTRODUCTION

There are two basic types of processors design philosophies: reduced instruction set computer (RISC) and complex instruction set computer (CISC). As the name suggests CISC systems use complex instructions. For example adding two integers is considered a simple instruction. But an instruction that copies an element from one array to another and automatically updates both array subscripts is considered a complex instruction. RISC systems use only simple instructions. RISC systems assume that the required operands are in the processors internal registers not in the main memory. A CISC design does not impose such restrictions. RISC designs use hardware to directly execute instructions.

Cryptography plays a significantly important role in the security of data transmission. On one hand with developing computing technology implementation of sophisticated cryptographic algorithms has become feasible. The cryptographic algorithms are classified into public key cryptography and private key cryptography. The private key cryptography which usually has a relatively compact architecture and smaller key size than public key cryptography is often used to encrypt/decrypt sensitive information or documents. Some well known examples of public key cryptographic algorithms are RSA (Rivest-Shamir-Adleman) and elliptic curve crypto systems and private key cryptographic algorithms are AES (Advance Encryption Standard), DES (Data Encryption Standard) and TEA (Tinny Encryption Algorithm). Implementation of these cryptographic algorithms on a general purpose processor is complex and also it has the drawback of lower throughput and higher power consumption.

In the present work the design of a 32-bit data width RISC processor is presented based on cryptographic algorithms. It was designed with

simplicity and efficiency in mind. It has a complete instruction set, Hayward architecture memory, general purpose registers and simple Arithmetical Logic Unit (ALU). Here the ALU design performs the cryptographic operations like operations in AES, Blowfish, IDEA algorithms. To design of RISC architecture we used Verilog HDL.

Present work is divided as follows: Section II presents the Processor architecture with cryptographic operations; section III presents the Cryptographic operations are presented; section IV is dedicated functional blocks and results discussions.

II. PROCESSOR ARCHITECTURE

The proposed processor has 32-bit data size, that its architecture has been designed in a way to be modular.

The ALU unit that uses a minimal instruction set, emphasizing the instructions used most often and optimizing them for the fastest possible execution. In this architecture the execution time of all instructions with the CPU clock cycle. The proposed architecture will perform both basic arithmetic and logical operations and cryptographic operations like rotate word, Swapping, Fixed coefficient multiplication, matrix multiplication.

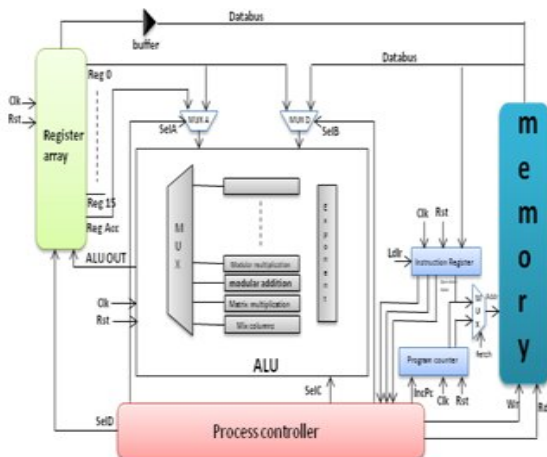


Figure no.1

III. CRYPTOGRAPHIC OPERATIONS

AES (Advance Encryption Standard) is a block cipher developed in effort to address threatened key size of Data Encryption Standard (DES). It allows the data length of 128 bits and different key lengths 128, 192, 256 bits. The main operations in AES are Shift Rows, Rotate Word, Matrix Multiplication, Mix column.

Blowfish is a symmetric block cipher that encrypts data in 8-byte blocks. The algorithm has two parts;

key expansion and data encryption. Key expansion consists of generating the initial contents of one array namely, eighteen 32-bit sub-keys and four arrays (S-Boxes), each of size 256 by 32 bits from a key of at most 448 bits. The main operations of this algorithm are addition modulo two (XoR) and addition modulo 2^{32} .

IDEA algorithm of the encryption process we provide the original (128 bits) cipher key to the mentioned unit. When the necessary the key generator unit produces different sub-keys by performing circular left shift operation by 25 bits on the current key and provides the sub-keys to other units. The unit named as multiplication modulo $2^{16}+1$ is used to perform all the multiplication modulo $2^{16}+1$ operation, when required the same unit is for bit wise Xor.

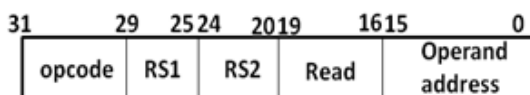
Instruction Set: for a complete design it was necessary to create a specific instruction set and its own instruction format. The instructions are classified in to Data manipulation and arithmetic logical operations.

The below table describes the complete instruction set. Each instruction having its own opcode.

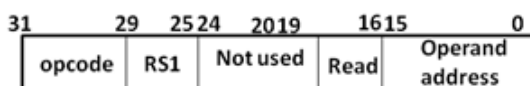
Table no.1

Syntax	Operation	Description
NoP	Nop	No operation
Ld Sr[A]	Sr= Memm[Address]	Move data from memory to register
Addition [A,B]	C=A xor B	GF(2m) addition
ModularMultiplication[A,B]	C=A+Bmod P	GF(2m) modular addition
Modular Multiplication[A,B]	C=A*Bmod P	GF(2m) modular multiplication
MatrixMultiplication[A,B]	Matrix multiplication	Polynomial matrix multiplication
Mix column[A,B]	C=Y*A mod X 4%1	Polynomial mix column transformation
Fixedmultiplier[A,B]	C=(03)*A	Reduction multiplication
AMXModulo [A]	C=A*(2A+1) mod P	Reduction modulo multiplication
Length rotation[A,B]	C=A<<B	Variable length rotation
Rotate word [A]	C=shiftrow(A)	Rotate word
LRShift[A,B]	C=A>>B,C=A<<B	Left, rotate shift operation

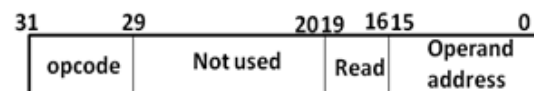
The logical operations like shift left shift right and rotate word which requires only one source register shown in below type.



The operations like addition, modular functions require two source registers and to store result in destination result as shown in below type.



The load instructions and store instructions requires address from different data sources shown in below.



IV. RESULT DISCUSSION

Instruction Register: Instruction registers store the instruction which read from the memory and keep it as an output for the control circuit like operation code, source registers, operand address

and operands these values set to general purpose registers.

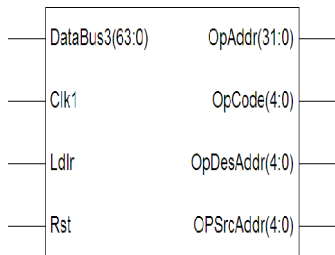


Figure no.2 Block diagram

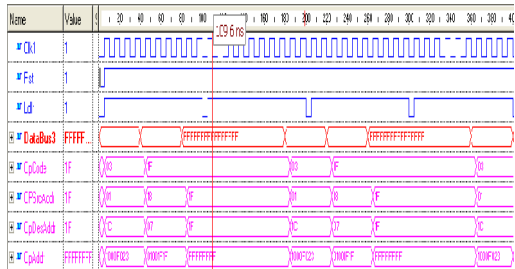


Figure no.3 simulation results

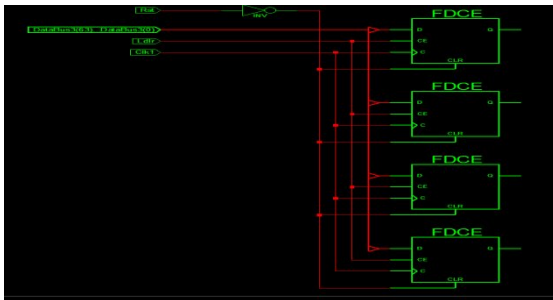


Figure no.4 Technology schematic

Table no.2 implementation results

Logic Utilization	Usage	Availability
Slices	1	768
Flip Flops	47	1536
LUTs	1	1536
IOBs	93	124

Arithmetic Logical Unit: The arithmetic logical unit has 16 operations each one of them was created and converted in to a symbol, and then a multiplexer was placed in order to obtain a 4-bit selector.

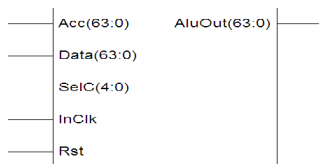


Figure no.6 block diagram

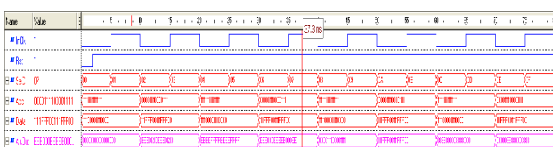


Figure no.7 simulation results

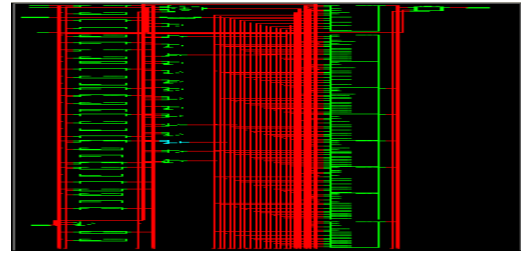


Figure no.8 Technology schematic

Table no.3 implementation results

Logic Utilization	Usage	Availability
Slices	360	768
Flip Flops	64	1536
LUTs	652	1536
IOBs	199	124

General Purpose Registers: General purpose registers store and save operands and results during program execution. ALU and memory must be able to write/read those registers so a set of sixteen 32-bit registers were used along with multiplexers and control circuit which are the operands to ALU which perform the operation.

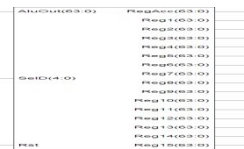


Figure no.10 block diagram



Figure no.11 simulation results

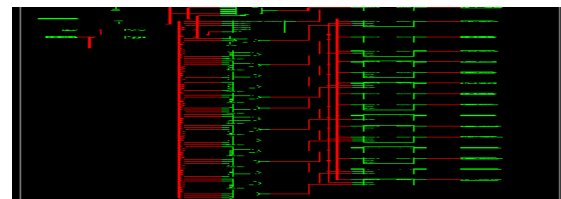


Figure no.12 Technology schematic

Table no.4 implementation results

Logic Utilization	Usage	Availability
Slices	48	768
Flip Flops	87	1536
LUTs	1024	1536
IOBs	8	124

Control Unit: The control unit is based on using FSM and we designed it in a way that allows each state to run at one clock cycle, the first state is the reset which is initializes the CPU internal registers and variables. The machine goes to the reset state by enabling the reset signal for certain number of clocks. Following the reset state would be the

instruction fetching and decoding states which will enable the appropriate signals for reading instruction data from the memory and decoding the parts of the instruction. The decoding state will also select the next state depending on the instruction since every instruction has its own set of states, the control unit will jump to the correct state based on the instruction given.



Figure no.13 block diagram

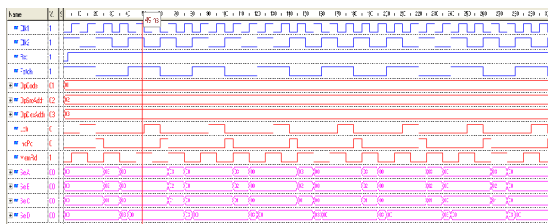


Figure no.14 simulation results

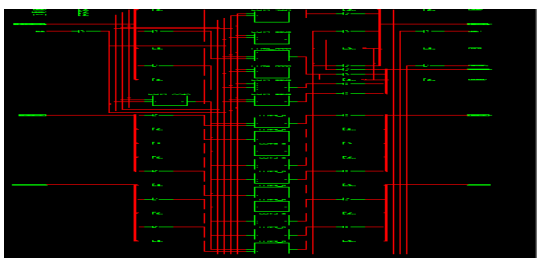


Figure no.15 Technology schematic

Table no.5 implementation results

Logic Utilization	Usage	Availability
Slices	12	768
Flip Flops	44	1536
LUTs	20	1536
IOBs	44	124

V. CONCLUSION

32-bit cryptographic processor perform mathematical computations used in symmetric key algorithms has been designed using Verilog HDL the simulations are performed using Active HDL and implementation performed using Xilinx tool.

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Original Research Paper

Effect of physical factors on pellet morphology of *Aspergillus awamori* MTCC 9166 and polygalacturonase productionK. Anuradha^c, P. Naga Padma^c, S. Venkateshwar^b, Gopal Reddy^{a,*}^a Department of Microbiology, Osmania University, Hyderabad 500007, India^b College of Technology, Osmania University, Hyderabad, India^c Department of Microbiology, BVB Vivekananda College, Secunderabad 500094, India

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 19 February 2014

Received in revised form

7 July 2014

Accepted 23 July 2014

Keywords:

Pellet morphology

Polygalacturonase

Temperature

Aeration

Agitation

Inoculum size

ABSTRACT

Polygalacturonase enzyme has its industrial application in extraction and clarification of fruit juices. Growth as pellet is an important character for any industrial fungal strain as product recovery becomes easy and simple. The simultaneous effect of fermentation conditions like pH, temperature, agitation and inoculum size were studied on pellet morphology and polygalacturonase production by *Aspergillus awamori* MTCC 9166 in submerged fermentation using crude pectin. The studies were done by unidimensional approach in which conventionally one parameter was selected and studied at a time. Optimum fermentation conditions for maximum polygalacturonase production were at pH 5.5, temperature 28 °C, agitation speed 200 rpm and inoculum size 1×10^6 spores/ml. The highest enzyme production at these conditions was 17.8 U/ml. The study revealed a significant fact that the same optimum fermentation conditions promoted both pellet formation and maximum enzyme production.

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1. Introduction

Pectin is a hetero polysaccharide polymer found in the middle lamella of cell wall of plants. Pectin is degraded by the action of several enzymes included under the generic term pectinases. Pectinases produced by different microorganisms are classified into depolymerizing enzymes and saponifying enzymes. Depolymerizing enzymes are those that catalyze the hydrolytic cleavage of the α -(1–4)-glycosidic bonds in the D-galacturonic acid moieties of the pectic substances. They are polymethylgalacturonases, pectin lyases, polygalacturonases and pectate lyases. Saponifying enzymes are esterases that catalyze the de-esterification of pectins by the removal of methoxy esters and are called pectinesterases (Whitaker, 1990).

About 75% of the estimated sale of industrial enzyme is contributed by pectinases (Sathyanarayana and Panda, 2003). These have wide applications in food industry for clarification of fruit juices, wines (Alkorta et al., 1998; Whitaker, 1984) coffee and tea fermentations (Jayani et al., 2005) and extraction of essential oils etc. The production of pectinolytic enzymes has been widely reported in bacteria and filamentous fungi (Naidu and Panda, 1998). Fungal polygalacturonases are very significant for clarification of fruit juices, wines and for extraction of vegetable oils (Castilho et al., 2000). Their significance in clarification of fruit

juices is due to the fact that their optimal pH closer to that of many fruit juices. Pellet morphology in fungi results in formation of spherical agglomerates of hyphae that not only increase the efficiency of nutrient transfer but also make recovery of product easy and simple (Cui et al., 1997; Ryoo, 1999; Zhaou et al., 2000).

In the present study the effect of fermentation conditions on both pellet morphology and production of polygalacturonase (PG) by *Aspergillus awamori* MTCC 9166 was studied. There was variation in size and number of pellets with variation in fermentation conditions like pH, temperature, agitation speed and inoculum size. Optimum fermentation conditions for polygalacturonase production were also identified in the study.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Microorganism

A. awamori MTCC 9166 was isolated from vegetable dumpyard soil and maintained on PDA slants in refrigerator (Anuradha et al., 2010).

2.2. Inoculum preparation

Fungal spores were scrapped from PDA slants to water suspension and added at a concentration 10^6 spores/ml to fermentation broth.

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2.3. Fermentation conditions

Experiments were carried out in 250 ml flasks with 50 ml Czapek's broth containing (g/l) – K₂HPO₄ 0.2, KCl 0.5, NaNO₃ 0.2, FeSO₄ 0.03, and 1% crude pectin as sole carbon source. Fermentation parameters like pH, temperature agitation and inoculum size were tested for optimization. The ranges were pH 2–7, temperature 20–40 °C, agitation speed 140–220 rpm and inoculum size 10⁴–10⁸ spores/ml.

2.4. Study of pellets

The size of different types of pellets formed under different physical conditions was determined. Experiments for pellet studies were carried out in 250 ml flasks with 100 ml Czapek's broth. The number of pellets and their total dry weight were simultaneously determined.

2.5. Recovery and enzyme assay

Polygalacturonase (PG) enzyme was extracted using acetate buffer at pH of 5.2 and assayed by measuring the D-galacturonic acid released from polygalacturonic acid as substrate by Miller's method (Miller, 1959). One unit of enzyme activity is defined as the amount of enzyme required to produce 1 μ mole of galacturonic acid per minute at 37 °C.

3. Results

The simultaneous effect of fermentation conditions like pH, temperature and agitation on pellet morphology and polygalacturonase production was studied. Pellet formation is a character of some fungi and fermentation conditions influence both the size and number of pellets formed. The size of *A. awamori* MTCC 9166 pellets formed ranged 0.5–1.8 mm and the number varied from 70–145/100 ml for pH range 4–6. The optimum pH was 5.5 as a maximum of 145 pellets/100 ml of 0.9 mm size weighing 1.05 g/100 ml were formed (Table 1). Effect of temperature on pellet morphology was also significant as pellets ranging in size 0.5–1.8 mm, with dry weight 0.9 g/100 ml and number variation of 90–145 were formed. The optimum temperature was 28 °C as a maximum of 145 pellets/100 ml of 0.9 mm size weighing 0.9 g/100 ml were formed (Table 2). The ranges of pellet size, number and dry weight formed in response to variation of agitation speed was almost similar to that of temperature (Table 3). The optimum agitation speed was 200 rpm as a maximum of 145 pellets/100 ml of 0.9 mm size weighing 1 gm/100 ml were formed (Table 3).

The studies for optimization of fermentation conditions like pH, incubation temperature, agitation and inoculum size were done by uni-dimensional approach in which conventionally one parameter was selected and studied at a time. As pH of the medium is one of the important factors effecting enzyme production its effect on PG production when studied at various pH ranging 2–7, it was observed that the PG production was maximum at pH 5.5 (17.6 units). Enzyme yields were low at pH 2–3.5 pH and also beyond pH 6 (Fig. 1). Effect of temperature was studied at various

Table 1
Effect of pH on pellet morphology and polygalacturonase production by *Aspergillus awamori* MTCC 9166.

Parameter	pH				
	4	4.5	5	5.5	6
Pellet number/100 ml medium	90	95	100	145	70
Pellet morphology (size in mm)	Very small 0.5	Very small 0.5	small 0.7	medium 0.9	large 1.8
Biomass dry weight (g/l) at 72 h	5	5	6	10.5	7.5
Maximum enzyme activity/ml	11.5	12.5	14	17.6	11.5

Table 2
Effect of temperature on pellet morphology and polygalacturonase production by *Aspergillus awamori* MTCC9166.

Parameter	Temperature (°C)				
	20	25	28	30	37
Pellet number/100 ml medium	90	100	145	120	100
Pellet morphology (size in mm)	Very small 0.5	small 0.7	medium 0.9	large 1.8	large 1.8
Biomass dry weight (g/l) at 72 h	6	8	9	8	7
Maximum enzyme activity/ml	14.5	16	17.8	16.3	15

Table 3
Effect of agitation on pellet morphology and polygalacturonase production by *Aspergillus awamori* MTCC 9166.

Parameter	Agitation speed (rpm)				
	140	160	180	200	220
Pellet number/ 100 ml medium	100	125	130	145	80
Pellet morphology (size in mm)	Very small 0.5	small 0.7	small 0.7	medium 0.9	large 1.8
Biomass dry weight (g/l) at 72 h	6	8	9	10	6.5
Maximum enzyme activity/ml	12.5	15	16	17.8	11.5

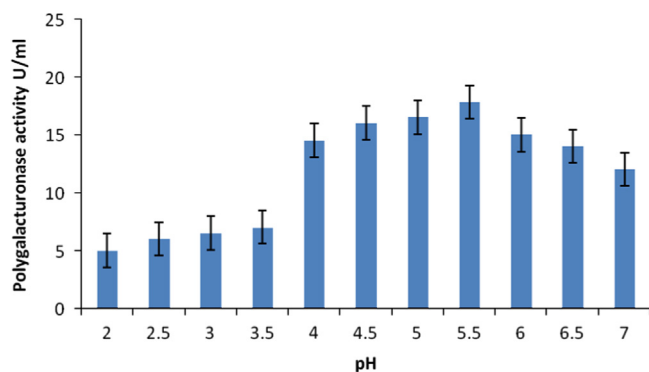


Fig. 1. Effect of pH on polygalacturonase production by *Aspergillus awamori* MTCC 9166. The p -value is 0.000213 and it is less than α .

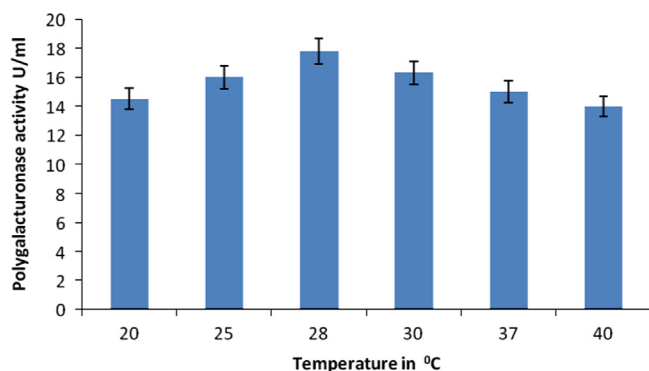


Fig. 2. Effect of temperature on polygalacturonase production by *Aspergillus awamori* MTCC 9166. The p -value is 0.005579 and it is less than α .

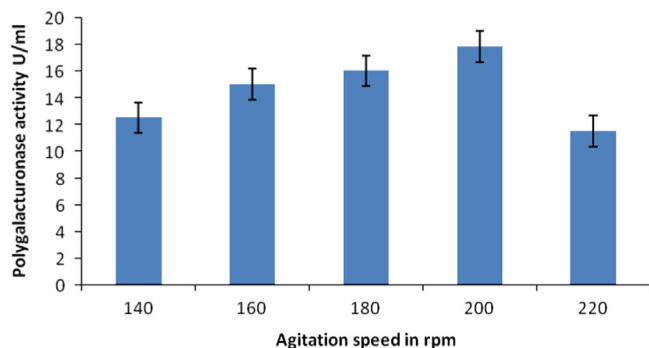


Fig. 3. Effect of agitation speed on polygalacturonase production by *Aspergillus awamori* MTCC 9166. The p -value is 0.000309 and it is less than α .

temperatures ranging from 20 to 40 °C. *A. awamori* MTCC 9166 was found to produce maximum PG (17.8 U/ml) at 28 °C (Fig. 2). Agitation speed in the range of 140–220 rpm was maintained and its effect studied for PG production by *A. awamori* MTCC 9166. Increased agitation was found to improve enzyme production with 17.8 U/ml, at 200 rpm and beyond that speed there was decrease in enzyme production (Fig. 3). When the inoculum size ranging in a spore count (10^4 – 10^8 spores/ml) was studied for its effect on PG production, it was observed that inoculum size of 10^6 spores/ml showed maximum PG production (Fig. 4).

4. Discussion

The *A. awamori* MTCC 9166 under present study exhibited pellet morphology which is an important character as it makes

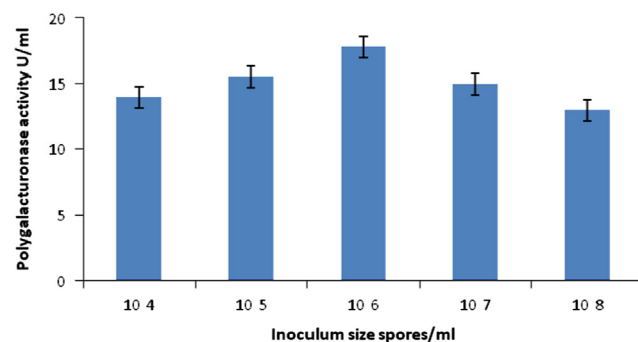


Fig. 4. Effect of Inoculum size on polygalacturonase production by *Aspergillus awamori* MTCC 9166. The p -value is 0.0053 and it is less than α .

both fermentation and downstream processing easy. Many studies on growth morphology in terms of different products have concluded that pellet morphology is more favorable for industrial strains as it not only improves culture rheology but also promotes better microbe nutrient interaction for efficient product yield (Lopez et al., 2005; Zhaou et al., 2000). Fermentation conditions are known to affect the growth morphology and enzyme production by *Aspergillus sojae* and *Rhizopus oryzae* (Oncü et al., 2007; Tari, et al., 2011). The physical factors influenced the size, number and dry weight of pellets and also the primary metabolite production like PG enzyme. In the present study it was found that a pH 5.5, temperature 28 °C and agitation 200 rpm were the optimum as they increased both the pellet formation (size and number) and PG enzyme production (17.8 U/ml) by *A. awamori* MTCC 9166. There was better enzyme production with medium sized pellets (0.9 mm) as these could promote more microbe-nutrient interaction and better oxygen transfer which is necessary for an aerobic organism like *Aspergillus*. Studies on optimization of inoculum size for both pellet formation and PG production revealed that 10^6 spores/ml was optimum and this is important to form both biomass (pellets) and enzyme as a primary metabolite. Similar results were obtained in earlier studies where the authors described the effects of the inoculum concentration for better production of enzymes (Kiro, 2010; Shah and Madamwar, 2005; Qinnge et al., 2004). This study on pellet morphology provides significant information for PG production as there are no such reports on *A. awamori*. Therefore the present findings serve as a base line study on pellet morphology and PG production or any other enzymes by fungal organisms.

5. Conclusion

A pellet forming fungal isolate *A. awamori* MTCC 9166 showed good polygalacturonase production. Optimum fermentation conditions for pellet formation and maximum polygalacturonase production were pH of 5.5, temperature 28 °C, agitation speed of 200 rpm and inoculum size of 1×10^6 spores/ml. The present study is significant for fungal polygalacturonase producer with pellet morphology, which is an important character in industrial product recovery.

Acknowledgments

The authors (KA and PNP) are grateful to the management of BVB Vivekananda College for encouraging to carry out this work. Financial assistance by the University Grants Commission, India is gratefully acknowledged. The authors are thankful to Mr. Selva Kumar for the statistical analysis of the data.

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Flow Analysis for a Converging Compound Channel

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Abstract

In overbank flow, due to interaction mechanism between the main channel and floodplain, the flow properties of the compound sections are greatly affected. The complexity raises more when dealing with a compound channel with converging floodplains. In converging compound channels, due to change in floodplain geometry, there is either severe change of momentum exchanges if the geometry of transition is contraction or expansion. Many investigators have studied and explained the complexity of such compound geometry in predicting the flow variable. In this paper, some experimental results in compound channels with converging floodplains are described and compared. The variations of flow properties for both prismatic and non-prismatic floodplains of different convergence angles are studied and analysed.

Keywords: compound channel, converging angle, water surface profile, flow depth, velocity.

1. Introduction

Open Channels are classified either Prismatic open channels or non-prismatic channels. The open channels in which shape, size of cross section and slope of the bed remain constant are said to be as the prismatic channels otherwise said to be non-prismatic channels. In non-prismatic compound channels with converging/diverging floodplains, due to continuous change in floodplain geometry along the flow path, the resulting interactions and momentum exchanges is increased. This extra momentum exchange is very important parameter and should be taken into account in the overall flow modelling of a river. As natural river data during flood are very difficult to obtain, research on such a topic is generally done in laboratory flumes. The present study focuses on converging compound channels. In a converging compound channel if the

flood plain is contracted, the flow is forced to leave the flood plains and enter to the main channel because of change in cross section area. New experiments have been conducted at the Hydraulics and Fluid mechanics Laboratory of Civil Engineering Department of NIT, Rourkela to analyse the behaviour of flow effect due to change in flood plain geometry in terms of converging angle.

2. Experimental Work

2.1 Experimental Setup

Experiments have been conducted in non-prismatic compound channels with varying cross section built inside a concrete flume measuring 15m long \times 9.5m width \times 0.55m depth. The width ratio of the channel is $\alpha > 1.72$ and the aspect ratio is $\delta > 5.78$. The converging angle of the channel is taken as 12.38° . Converging length of the channel is found to be 0.84m. The channel is made up of cement concrete. Water was supplied through a Centrifugal pumps (a 15 hp) discharging into a RCC overhead tank. In the downstream end there lies a measuring tank followed by a sump which feed the water to the overhead tank through pumping.. Water was supplied to the flume from an underground sump via an overhead tank by centrifugal pump (15 hp) and recirculated to the sump after flowing through the compound channel and a downstream volumetric tank fitted with closure valves for calibration purpose. An adjustable vertical gate along with flow straighteners was provided in upstream section sufficiently ahead of rectangular notch to reduce turbulence and velocity of approach in the flow near the notch section. At the downstream end another adjustable tail gate was provided to control the flow depth and maintain a uniform flow in the channel. A movable bridge was provided across the flume for both span wise and stream wise movements over the channel area so that each location on the plan of compound converging channel could be accessed for taking measurements.

Water surface measurements were measured directly with point. The measurements were made each 5mm and 10mm in converging flume of 840 mm length. Point velocities were measured along verticals spread across the main channel and flood plain so as to cover the width of entire cross section. Also at a no. of horizontal layers in each vertical, point velocities were measured. Measurements were thus taken from mid-point of main channel to the left edge of floodplain. The lateral spacing of grid points over which measurements were taken was kept 5cm inside the main channel and the flood plain. Velocity measurements were taken by pitot static tube (outside diameter 4.77mm) and two piezometers fitted inside a transparent fibre block fixed to a wooden board and hung vertically at the edge of flume the ends of which were open to atmosphere at one end and connected to total pressure hole and static hole of pitot tube by long transparent PVC tubes at other ends.. Steady uniform discharge was maintained the run of the experiment and several runs were conducted for overbank flow with relative depth varying between 0.05-0.51. The discharge varied between $39259.768\text{cm}^3/\text{s}$ to $146672.3\text{cm}^3/\text{s}$. Point depth average velocity were made at a depth of $0.4H$ from the bed in the main channel and $0.4(H-h)$ on the flood plains.

Table 1: Hydraulic parameters for the experimental runs.

Sl. No. of Runs	Discharge Q in cm ³ /s	Overbank depth H in cm	Relative depth $D_r=(H-h)/H$	Froude no.(Fr)	Reynolds no.(R)
1	39259.36	10	0.05	0.677465	34138.57
2	51338.78	11.7	0.19	0.537911	43360.45
3	62014.92	14.02	0.32	0.353251	50402.24
4	92108.59	15.83	0.4	0.259969	72721.13
5	146672.3	19.4	0.51	0.205241	109620.5

After obtaining the point velocities at various grid points representing the whole compound channel flow cross section, velocity contours were drawn. The velocity contours were drawn by normalizing the point velocities with the cross sectional means velocities for the respective overbank depth of flow

3. Result and Discussion

The new experimental results from non-prismatic compound channels are presented in this section. Velocity contour of prismatic non prismatic section are shown in **Fig1(a,b)**The stage discharge curve at experimental section-1&2 was plotted and shown in **Fig 2(a&b)** . The water surface profile of different relative depth are shown in **Fig 3(a)**.The depth average velocity of different converging part of relative depth of 0.5 are shown in the **Fig 4(a,b,c)**.. The boundary shear stress of different converging part of relative depth of 0.5 are shown in the **Fig 5(a,b,c)**.

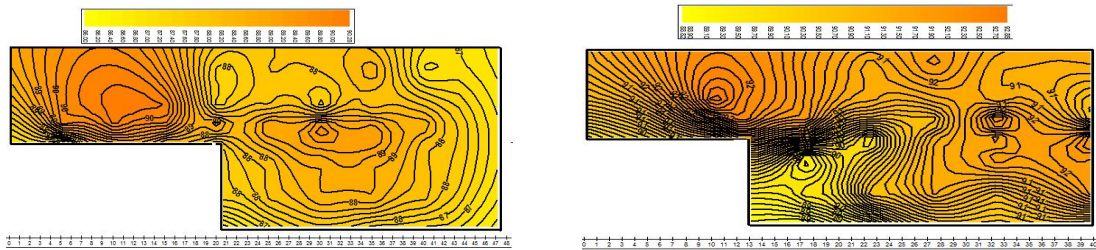


Fig. 1: (a)Velocity contour of sec-1 (b)Velocity contour of sec-2

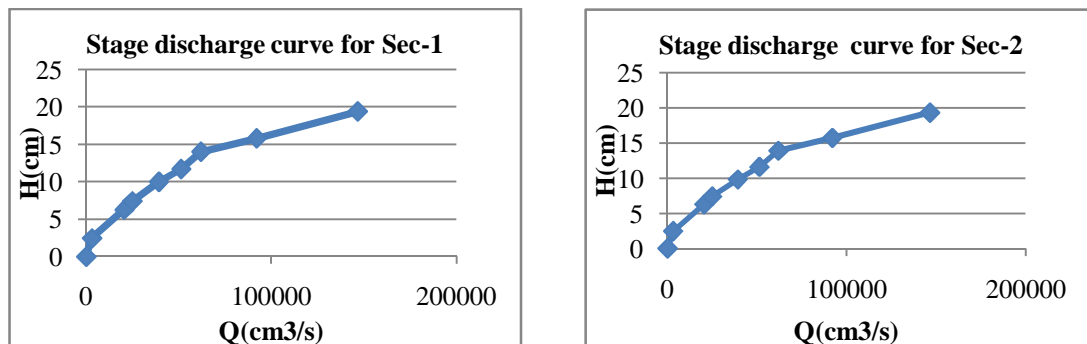


Fig. 2: (a,b)Stage discharge curve for Prismatic and Non prismatic section.

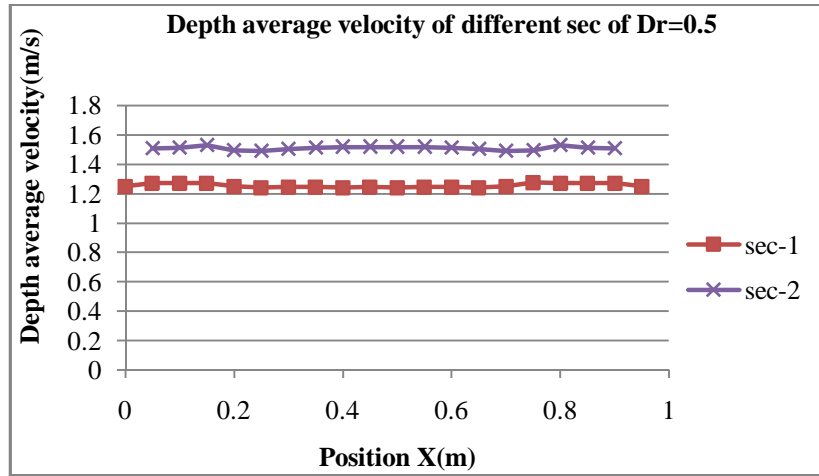
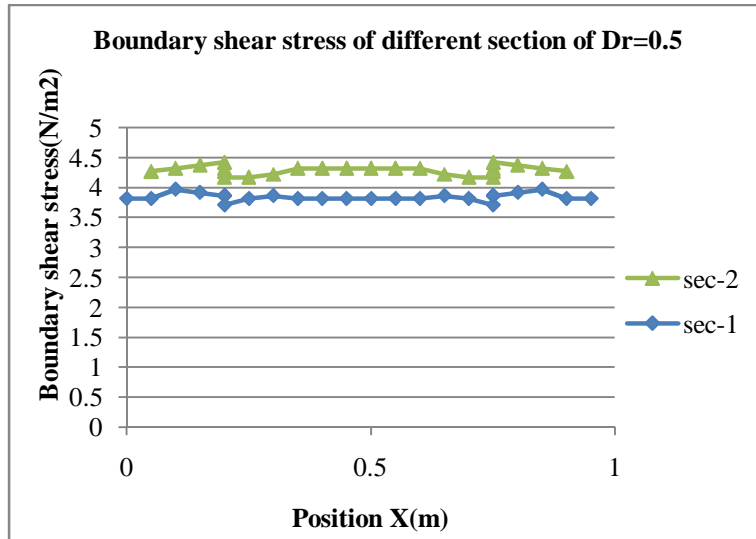


Fig. 3: (a) shows the Depth average velocity.



(b) shows the boundary shear of Prismatic and Non prismatic section

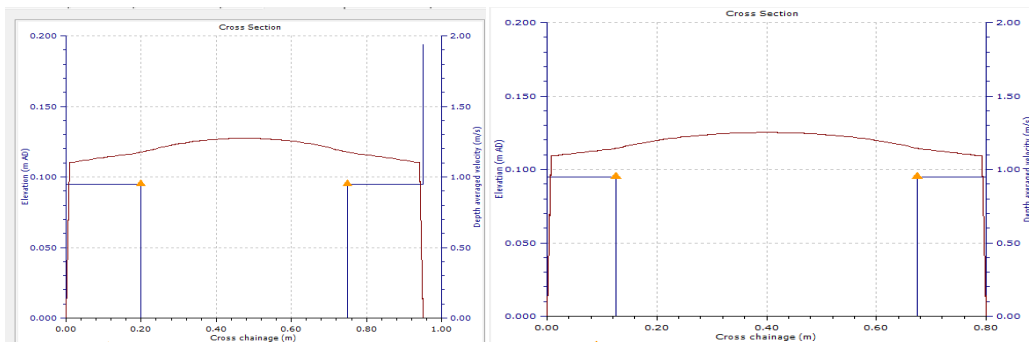


Fig. 4: (a) Depth average velocity of sec-1 (b) Depth average velocity of sec-2 by CES

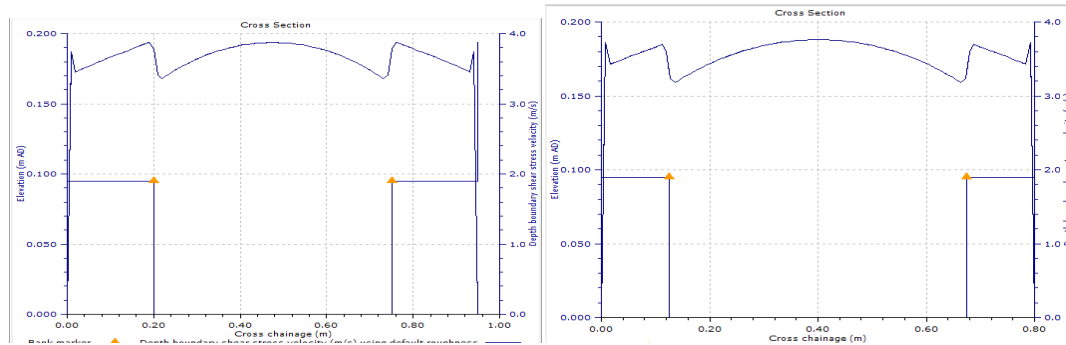


Fig. 5: (a) Boundary shear stress of sec-1 (b) Boundary shear stress of sec-2 by CES

4. Conclusions

1. Experiments are conducted to study the effect of flow variables for converging and non-converging compound channels.
2. From the Velocity contours of the experimental channels, it is seen that at section 1 the higher velocity contours occur both at the middle of flood plain and interface of main channel. At section 2 the occurrence of higher magnitude velocity contours happens same for floodplain however in the main channel region it is again at central region.
3. From the stage discharge curve it is seen that non of the methods is good agreement with the actual stage discharge.
4. From the water surface profile curve it is seen that the depth of flow start decreases from mid section of the converging part. It is clearly distinguish at higher relative depth
5. From the depth average velocity curve and boundary shear stress curve it is seen that both increases along the narrowing part of the flume.
6. In CES also the depth average velocity and boundary shear stress increase along the narrow part of the flume.

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An Approach to Automatic Generation of Test Cases from Use-Cases

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Abstract

A use case is a methodology used in system analysis to identify, clarify, and organize system requirements. The use case is made up of a set of possible sequences of interactions between systems and users in a particular environment and related to a particular goal. It consists of a group of elements (for example, classes and interfaces) that can be used together in a way that will have an effect larger than the sum of the separate elements combined. The use case should contain all system activities that have significance to the users. A use case can be thought of as a collection of possible scenarios related to a particular goal, indeed, the use case and goal are sometimes considered to be synonymous

Keywords

Use cases, Gent Case, Tools, Test Case

I. Introduction

A use case (or set of use cases) has these characteristics:

- Organizes functional requirements
- Models the goals of system/actor (user) interactions
- Records paths (called scenarios) from trigger events to goals

Describes one main flow of events (also called a basic course of action), and possibly other ones, called exceptional flows of events (also called alternate courses of action)[3] Is multi-level, so that one use case can use the functionality of another one.

Use case analysis is a technique used to identify the requirements of a system (normally associated with software/process design) and the information used to both define processes used and classes (which are a collection of actors and processes) which will be used both in the use case diagram and the overall use case in the development or redesign of a software system or program. The use case analysis is the foundation upon which the system will be built.

A use case analysis is the primary form for gathering usage requirements for a new software program or task to be completed.

The primary goals of a use case analysis are: designing a system from the user's perspective, communicating system behavior in the user's terms, and Specifying all externally visible behaviors. Another set of goals for a use case analysis is to clearly communicate: system requirements, how the system is to be used, the roles the user plays in the system, what the system does in response to the user stimulus, what the user receives from the system, and what value the customer or user will receive from the system. [5]

II. Reasons why use cases are indispensable to your software development project

Use cases help the analysis team, Improve communication among team members. Collaborative effort enhances the success of any team. As the team members work to describe business processes, use cases provide a repository of team members' business knowledge. As a written document, each use case spawns meaningful discussion within the group. The axiom, "the whole is greater than the sum of the parts", applies here. Group discussion exposes in-depth viewpoints that would otherwise remain hidden. With use cases, the team captures these perspectives while identifying the related business goals, conditions, and issues.

III. Encourage common agreement about system requirements

The process of writing and revising use cases produces three important outcomes in the analysis team clarity, consensus, and commitment. Remarkably, it is common for stakeholders to be uncertain about how a process they own actually works! Writing a use case helps stakeholders align the narrative with the details of an existing process.

In a recent project, it became clear that stakeholders could not agree about the specifics of several core processes. However, consensus came quickly as the team wrote and revised use cases.[6] For many stakeholders, these written documents offer a foothold on a sometimes bewildering mountain of complex business processes. Remarkably, use cases often help stakeholders reach common agreement on "best practice" processes as well. In a facilitated group setting, divergent perspectives are welcomed, understood, and appreciated. As a by-product of this agreement, team members inevitably commit to support improved processes to both management and peers.

IV. Reveal process alternatives, process exceptions, undefined terms, and outstanding issues

I always have the analysis team start a use case by developing the "Main Course of Events" (see the sample use case). As the group develops a coherent and ordered set of process steps, team members tend to volunteer statements that begin with the words "what about..." - a clue to previously unidentified "Alternative Paths" to a successful outcome. The "Exception Paths" often arise in a similar way. More of these become obvious when the team considers what happens if any step in the "Main Course" fails. As the facilitator of team meetings, carefully listen for any jargon used by stakeholders. Write these terms down in front of the group and ask for a definition for each one. Later, you'll add these definitions into the project glossary. Also, listen for issues as they arise. Is a process step fuzzy? Is there an area that needs more research, or an item on which team members disagree? Write these down as well and later include them in a project issue log.

V. Expose what belongs outside project scope

Constraints on the project may limit resources and/or the project timeline. As a result, the analysis team may need to prioritize development work, or separate project deliverables into phases.

You can help the analysis team by creating a catalog of the use case titles, and arranging them into some meaningful order (e.g., by sub-system or umbrella process). With this catalog, the analysis team can prioritize the use cases. They may decide that some fall outside the project scope, or that some are not needed in the first project phase. Either way, you have given the stakeholders an opportunity to declare which functions they need the most, or which ones they need first.

VI. Transform manual processes into automated processes

When software is being designed to automate aspects of an existing system, the analysis team usually begins by writing "as is" use cases to describe the current business processes. While this effort is time consuming, the result is valuable. Besides revealing the details of an existing business process (including business rules, alternative paths, and exception paths), you will create a launching pad for the team's imagination. As they are writing the use cases, they often discover an improved process, recognize unnecessary steps, or reach agreement on "best operational practices". The "as is" use cases may also allow the system architect to propose high-level process flow diagrams that represent how the new system could work. While the first attempts may not be viable, iterative review and revision by the analysis team may generate a workable architecture for the new system. Use cases help the development team...

VII. Understand business processes

Software developers often lack an understanding of the customer's business. It is easy to forget that software systems should help business people get work done -- effectively, efficiently, and inexpensively. To achieve these objectives, the development team must understand not only the business process the software must support, but also the process' alternatives and exceptions. Use cases provide this information in clear, structured language that developers can readily understand.[2] Use cases also offer a valuable perspective on the stakeholders' business goals, assumptions, and operational rules. These features provide developers with a solid foundation for developing cost-effective solutions to business challenges.

VIII. Recognize patterns and contexts in functional requirements

Developers may view a set of use cases horizontally. For example, one use case requires a customer lookup function. Another use case requires a similar function but with customer data sorted in a different order. The clever development team can find such patterns within a set of use cases. Patterns are often discovered in the "Business Rules" section of use cases as well. Developers may transform these patterns into universal software objects.

As another aid to developers, use cases also reveal operational context. The "Stakeholders Goals", "Pre-Conditions", "Assumptions", and "Post-Conditions" give developers a sense of how the software will be used. By reading these sections, the developer understands what the role identified in the use case is trying to accomplish, and what motivates him or her. Although the analysis team may have prioritized and winnowed the use cases, the development team views them from a far different perspective.[1] As a good development teams writes code, they search for coding efficiencies. While the analysis team may want 12 use cases completed in phase one, the technical manager and

the development team may see cost-savings in delivering phase one software for the 12 use cases, plus two more from phase two that are cheaper to build as part of phase one. Of course, the analysis team and the development should jointly consider the effect of this change.

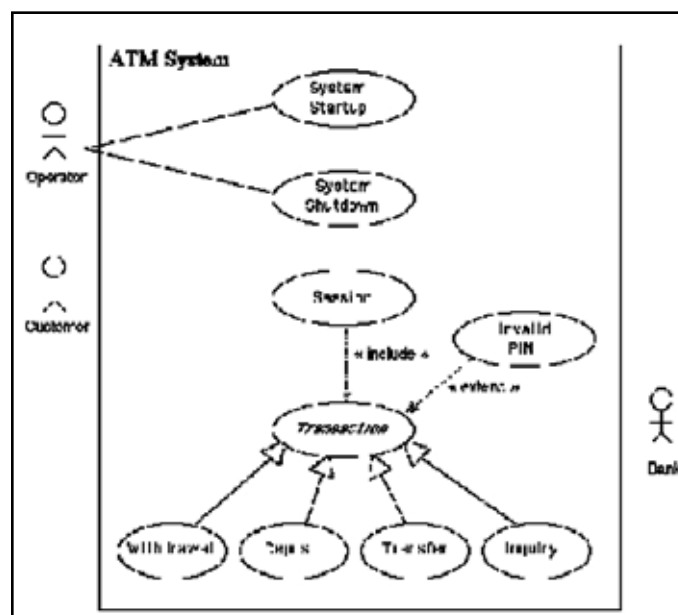
IX. Discover gaps between the requirements and the delivered software

Some years ago, I was asked to join a troubled project in which the system design phase was nearly complete. Unfortunately, detailed functional requirements were nowhere to be seen, and the developers had already begun writing code! In order to catch up, I taught a team of functional users to write use cases themselves. Although we completed the narratives quickly, the developers largely ignored our use cases. That condition changed, however, after the developers installed their first software release. It was clear to us that critical features were missing. The rooky analysis team and I compared the delivered software to our use cases. Although we created a long list of missing features, we challenged the developers to close the gaps rapidly. The next installation was acceptable.

X. Ensure the delivered software works properly

While use cases significantly differ from test cases, the former may be used to derive the latter. The "Assumptions", "Pre-Conditions", and "Post-Condition", "Main Course", "Alternative Paths", "Exception Paths", and "Business Rules" sections are all source material for creating good test scripts. Bundles of use cases organized into system-wide process flows become a source for writing comprehensive end-to-end test scripts. As an added bonus, the testing team develops test scripts from the use cases as the development team begins its work. The test scripts are now ready for use as developers complete programs.[8]

Example of use case diagram



Test case:

Test Cases are the implementation of a test case design which will help the software tester to detect defects in the application or the system being tested. This should be the primary goal of any test case or set of test cases. When I write a test case, I think of both

types of test cases, positive test cases and negative test cases. Positive test cases are those which execute the happy path in the application and make sure that the happy path is working fine. Negative test cases as the name suggests are destructive test cases which are documented with some out-of-box thinking to break the system.[10] A Test Case should be documented in a manner that is useful for the current test cycle and any future test cycles. At a bare minimum each test case should contain: Sr No, Summary or Title, Description, Steps to reproduce, Expected Results, Actual Results and Status of the test case or remarks.

Test Case in Sdlc

Software Development Life Cycle, or Software Development Process, defines the steps/stages/phases in the building of software. There are various kinds of software development models like:

- Waterfall model
- Spiral model
- Iterative and incremental development (like 'Unified Process' and 'Rational Unified Process')
- Agile development (like 'Extreme Programming' and 'Scrum')

Models are evolving with time and the development life cycle can vary significantly from one model to the other. It is beyond the scope of this particular article to discuss each model. However, each model comprises of all or some of the following phases/activities/tasks.

Test case vs. use cases

A Use Case is not a substitute for a Test Case. I start with this point because there is a growing trend of organizations using Use Cases as Test Cases. Writing Use Cases takes a lot less time, requires fewer resources and less expertise. Use Cases are user scenarios—typical sequences of tasks performed on the software by a typical user. A Use Case is useful for one purpose, in User Acceptance Test (UAT), to verify the software works correctly in typical workflows. Use Cases will include normal flow and alternate flow sequences, but they are still confined to fairly normal end-user workflows. Test Cases cover the software more thoroughly and in more detail than Use Cases. Test Cases include every function that the software is capable of (or is supposed to be capable of); handling every type of data input/output, every expected behavior, every design item, and every class of defect. There are a lot of Requirements that are not covered in Use Cases. But all Requirements must be covered in Test Cases. To satisfy a Test Case, there may be one, two, or more test scripts. Ideally, test scripts have step-by-step, click-by-click instructions that any person off the street could see and instantly perform with no training. (But because of reality constraints, test scripts often assume knowledge common to the designated testers.) When the test scripts pass, the Test Case passes. When the Test Cases pass, the Requirements pass. Every part of a Test Case must be traceable to specific items in the Requirements document, which is not complete until you have captured implied requirements, and converted them into documented Requirements.[9] For example, if I'm testing to verify that closing "print preview" takes the user back to the "print dialog box," then the Requirements document better state that closing "print preview" must take the user back to the "print dialog box." If I am testing the boundary of max characters allowed in a field, the Requirements document better state the max characters allowed in that field. Then you can trace the test back to the requirement.

The tool

The tool, which we call GenTCCase (Generator for Test Cases), can be used to layout the usecase diagram of any system. The tool is also able to automatically generate the test cases of the system according to the use-case diagram that has been formed previously. The tool is developed using object-oriented approach with C++ programming language. The tool has 3 major components as shown in The workspace is used as a place for a user to provide the system's requirements by means of a use-case diagram. In the workspace, a Toolbox is used to create, edit and display the use-case diagram. The Toolbox consists of standard symbols and arrows for a use-case diagram such as symbols for an actor and a use case, and arrows for connecting an actor with use cases as well as arrow for generalizations. In the Workspace, a user can also type-in the text for each of the use cases used in the Text Box provided by the tool. The Workspace will allow a user of the tool to layout the use- case diagram according to any system. Once the use-case diagram has been finalized, the user can generate the test cases by using the generator of the tool. The Engine will take all the use cases and search the keywords used in the provided database. The database consists of most standard keywords of a use case. Once the use case used matches the keyword inside the database, the engine will generate its respective test cases according to its use case. Intelligent search technique is used to search all the metadata fields in the entire database.

The intelligent searching technique includes three major processes. First, the keywords are pre-processed by some automatic text operation methods. The result is a collection of metadata, which is considered the logical view of the use case diagram. Next, the metadata describing the logical views are used to construct a metadata-oriented index. An index such as this "allows fast searching over large volumes of metadata field".

During the retrieval, the information retrieval engine first performs similar text operations on the user query as those performed on the original use cases. The output of the text operation is a list of metadata, each of which is used to locate, through the index, a list of all the documents in which it occurs. When multiple metadata are present in the query, the search returns the union of the additional information retrieved by all the words. In short, searching is a process of matching keywords in the use cases with those in the query. Lastly, every retrieved metadata is evaluated by its relevance to the query and the additional information of use cases. The way the engine works is by choosing the shortest time-to-locate the object being searched. This will ensure the result returns in few seconds.

The tool will produce the test cases based on the use-case diagram provided in the workspace. These test cases are generated automatically from the tool as the output of the tool. The output is displayed on the screen as well as stored in a file with extension .txt, namely output.txt. A user can open this output file by using a Notepad or Microsoft Word. The output can be used as a checklist for a programmer to test the system that he or she will develop according to the provided test cases. These test cases can also be used to validate the results of the test cases so the requirements of the system are met.

User who uses the tool can layout the use cases using the Workspace. The Toolbox is used in order to ease the drawing of the use-case diagram. Then, the button for Generator of test cases (GTC) in the Workspace can be used to generate the test cases.[7]

XI. Conclusion and Future Work

Gent Case is a tool that is able to generate the test cases automatically according to the system's requirements. The test cases can be used as a checklist for a programmer to validate that the system meets its requirements. The purpose of Gent Case is to reduce the cost of testing the system. However, Gent Case has its limitations where the use cases used are only for functional requirements of a system. The tool is unable to capture the non-functional requirements of a system. Therefore, the nonfunctional requirements need to be captured and tested outside of the tool.



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Selection of nutrients for polygalacturonase production by *Aspergillus awamori* MTCC 9166 using Plackett-Burman design

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Received 15 February 2013; revised 31 May 2013; accepted 16 July 2013

Selection of the best nutrients is one of the most critical stage in media optimization for polygalacturonase production. Plackett-Burman design was used to screen various pectin substrates, nitrogen sources and mineral nutrients for polygalacturonase production by *Aspergillus awamori* MTCC 9166. Fifteen different pectin sources like crude pectin, polygalacturonic acid, orange peel, citrus peel, jackfruit peel, etc. were selected for polygalacturonase production using 16 experimental design of Plackett-Burman. Similarly, eleven nitrogen sources like yeast extract, tryptone, casein hydrolysate, sodium nitrate, ammonium chloride, etc. and eleven mineral nutrients like NaCl, MgSO₄, KH₂PO₄, CaCl₂, etc. were screened for polygalacturonase production using 12 experimental design of Plackett-Burman. The enzyme production was studied for 5 d, where the maximum production was observed on 3rd d and so this data was analyzed using Indostat software to obtain regression coefficients and t-values. Based on these values significant nutrients like seven pectin sources (orange peel, jack fruit rind, apple peel, pine apple peel, mango peel, banana peel & tomato pulp), four nitrogen sources (urea, yeast extract, casein hydrolysate & potassium nitrate) and four mineral nutrients (NaCl, KH₂PO₄, CaCl₂ & K₂HPO₄) were selected for second level screening of efficient nutrients for polygalacturonase production using 16 experimental design of Plackett-Burman. Orange peel as pectin source, casein hydrolysate as nitrogen source and NaCl showed maximum enzyme production and so were selected for further quantitative optimization.

Keywords: *Aspergillus awamori* MTCC 9166, mineral nutrients, nitrogen sources, pectin sources, Plackett-Burman design, polygalacturonase

Introduction

Pectinases are a group of enzymes that degrade pectins present in middle lamella and primary cell walls of plant tissues¹. Pectinases produced by different microbes are divided into depolymerizing enzymes and saponifying enzymes. Depolymerizing enzymes are polymethylgalacturonases, pectin lyases, polygalacturonases and pectate lyases, and saponifying enzymes are pectinesterases^{2,3}. These enzymes have wide applications in food industry for clarification of fruit juices and wines^{2,4}, coffee and tea fermentations², extraction of essential oils⁵, etc. They have significant commercial value and today 75% of the estimated sale of industrial enzymes is contributed by pectinases⁶.

The production of pectinolytic enzymes has been widely reported in bacteria and filamentous fungi⁷. Fungal polygalacturonases are very significant for clarification of fruit juices and wines, and for

extraction of vegetable oils⁸. Their significance in clarification of fruit juices is due to the fact that their optimal pH is closer to that of many fruit juices.

Nutritional factors like pectin, nitrogen, mineral nutrients are significant as components of low cost production media that is of great interest in the industry. It is also known that 30-40% of the production cost of industrial enzymes is accounted for the cost of growth or fermentation medium^{6,9}. In our earlier study, a fungal polygalacturonase producer along with multienzyme production ability was screened¹⁰. Effective screening and selective isolation of pectinolytic microorganisms from different sources was done using enrichment culture technique. Different bacteria, yeasts and molds for enzyme production were screened. They were tested for pectinolytic activity and multienzyme production and one isolate characterized as *Aspergillus awamori* MTCC 9166 was selected for the study and it was deposited at Microbial Type Culture Collection and Gene Bank (MMTC), Institute of Microbial Technology, Chandigarh, India. The strain had a positive character of pellet formation, which could be very useful in product recovery.

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Polygalacturonase is known to be produced by different fungal strains like those of *Aspergillus*, *Penicillium* and *Rhizopus* using pectin as substrate¹¹. It is reported that *A. niger* produced 14.5 U/mL¹², *P. frequentans* produced 3 U/mL¹³ and *A. awamori* produced 0.046 U/mL¹⁴. The strain under study, *A. awamori* MTCC 9166 produced 17.8 U/mL initially¹⁰ and it improved after the media optimization. As a result, the enzyme yields increased to an average of 800 U/mL for pectin sources and 30 U/mL for nitrogen and mineral nutrients.

In the present study, locally available wastes or cheaper materials were used as pectic substrates. Different nitrogen and mineral nutrients were screened using Plackett-Burman¹⁵ statistical design in an attempt to optimize suitable production medium. This design is a statistical methodology used to screen up to n-1 variables in just n number of experiments.

Materials and Methods

Microorganism

A. awamori MTCC 9166 strain was isolated from vegetable dump yard soil and maintained on PDA slants in a refrigerator¹⁰.

Inoculum Preparation

Fungal spores were scrapped from PDA slants and added to water to get a concentration of 10⁶ spores/mL spore suspension.

Pretreatment of Solid Substrates

Peels of various fruits like apple, banana, citrus (sweet lime), jackfruit rind, mango, pine apple, etc.

were subjected to water treatment till sugar free. These were dried and powdered and their pectin content was determined by carbazole method¹⁰.

Screening of Nutrients

Sixteen run Plackett-Burman (PB) design of 15 variables at two levels (+1 and -1) was used for screening of pectin rich sources (Table 1). Submerged fermentation was carried out in 250 mL Erlenmeyer flasks containing 50 mL Czapek broth with 1% commercial pectin (citrus peel pectin, S D Fine Chemicals) and other raw pectins. The flasks were inoculated with 1× 10⁶ spores/mL. The spore number was estimated by direct microscopic count using haemocytometer. Flasks were incubated for 5 d at 28°C in an Orbital shaker incubator at 200 rpm. Broth samples were collected after 48 h (3rd d) and assayed for the enzyme activity.

The fifteen pectin sources, namely, pectin crude (S D Fine Chemical), polygalacturonic acid, orange peel, sweet lime peel, jack fruit peel, apple pomace, sapota peel, pineapple peel, mango peel, banana peel, guava pulp, sugar cane bagasse, papaya peel, tomato pulp and lemon peel, were tested for their significant effect on production of polygalacturonase (PGUase) enzyme. Eleven nitrogen sources (including organic and inorganic), namely, urea, yeast extract, tryptone, casein hydrolysate, corn steep liquor, peptone, ammonium sulphate, sodium nitrate, ammonium chloride, ammonium nitrate and potassium nitrate, were tested for their significant effect on production of PGUase enzyme using 12 run Plackett-Burman design¹⁵. Based on

Table 1—Plackett-Burman 16 experimental design for 15 pectin sources for PGUase production by *A. awamori* MTCC 9166

Runs	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	Set1	Set2
1	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	854*	825*
2	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	657	647
3	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	484	474
4	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	647	637
5	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	555	567
6	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	927	935
7	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	628	658
8	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	620	630
9	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	825	840
10	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	+	-	925	900
11	-	-	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	880	870
12	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	850	840
13	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	650	640
14	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	-	680	670
15	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	+	780	760
16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	620	630

*PGUase activity (U/mL)

[A, Pectin crude; B, Polygalacturonic acid; C, Orange peel; D, Sweet lime peel; E, Jack fruit peel; F, Apple pomace; G, Sapota peel; H, Pineapple peel; I, Mango peel; J, Banana peel; K, Guava pulp; L, Sugar cane bagasse; M, Papaya peel; N, Tomato pulp; & O, Lemon peel]

unidimensional experiments, concentrations of variables were fixed. The lower and upper levels fixed for the selected carbon sources were 0.1 and 1% and for the selected nitrogen sources were 0.02 and 0.2%, respectively. Similarly eleven mineral nutrients, namely, NaCl, MgSO₄, KH₂PO₄, CaCl₂, CuSO₄, FeCl₃, MnSO₄, ZnSO₄, CoCl₂, ZnCl₂ and K₂HPO₄, were selected for PGUase production and their lower and upper levels were 0.005 and 0.05%, respectively. The physical parameters like temperature, pH and agitation were held constant at 28°C, 5.5 and 200 rpm, respectively.

Enzyme Assay

Fermented broth was cold centrifuged at 4°C, 5000 rpm for 10 min and supernatant was taken as enzyme source. Sodium acetate buffer (0.05 M, pH 5.5) was used for assaying PGUase. One mL of enzyme with 1 mL substrate (1%) was incubated at 50°C temperature and the D-galacturonic acid released from polygalacturonic acid as substrate was measured^{16,17}. One unit of enzyme activity is defined as the amount of enzyme required to produce 1 μ mole of galacturonic acid per minute at 50°C^{8,16}.

Statistical Analysis

All experiments were conducted in triplicates and repeated thrice. Statistical analysis of the data was done using INDOSTAT software. The enzyme production was studied for 5 d, but maximum production was recorded on 3rd d and this data was analyzed using Indostat software to obtain regression coefficients and t-values. The most important nutrients under different categories were selected after

statistical analysis based on regression coefficients and highest t-values. Those with p-values less than 0.005 were considered to be significant and shortlisted for further optimization studies.

Results and Discussion

Screening of fifteen pectin sources was done for PGUase production by *A. awamori* MTCC 9166 using the sixteen run Plackett-Burman design. PGUase production was found to be maximum in combination 6 followed by 10 (Table 1). Seven variables, namely, orange peel, jack fruit peel, apple pomace, pine apple peel, mango peel, banana peel and tomato pulp, were found to be significantly affecting PGUase production as their P values were equal to zero with positive regression coefficients (Table 2). These were selected for further screening.

Similarly when 11 nitrogen sources were screened using 12 run design and PGUase production was found to be maximum in combination 5 (Table 3). Among the 11 variables, 4 variables were found to be significantly effecting PGUase production with P values <0.001 (Table 4). These were urea, yeast extract, casein hydrolysate and potassium nitrate. They had positive coefficients over enzyme production and they could be selected for further screening. Other variables, ammonium chloride, ammonium nitrate, sodium nitrate, tryptone, potassium nitrate, peptone and corn steep liquor were found to be insignificant. Among 11 variables screened, NaCl, K₂HPO₄, CaCl₂ and KH₂PO₄ were comparatively more significant in affecting PGUase production (Table 5) as their regression

Table 2—Estimated effects and coefficients of pectin sources for PGUase production by *A. awamori* MTCC 9166 using Plackett-Burman design

Variable	Term	Effect	Regression coefficient	Standard error coefficient	t	p	Significance
	Constant	363.91	727.81	6.31	115.34	0.000	
A	Pectin Crude	4.33	8.65	1.99	4.33	0.001	*
B	Polygalacturonic acid	-25.55	-51.09	1.99	25.6	0.000	*
C	Sweet lime peel	-4.70	-9.40	1.99	4.71	0.000	*
D	Orange peel	20.34	40.68	1.99	20.28	0.000	Significant
E	Jack Fruit peel	14.14	28.28	1.99	14.17	0.000	Significant
F	Apple pomace	6.35	12.71	1.99	6.37	0.000	Significant
G	Sapota peel	0.33	0.65	1.99	0.32	0.747	*
H	Pine apple peel	22.79	45.59	1.99	22.80	0.000	Significant
I	Mango peel	26.04	52.09	1.99	26.10	0.000	Significant
J	Banana peel	20.79	41.59	1.99	20.84	0.000	Significant
K	Guava pulp	-8.30	-16.60	1.99	8.34	0.000	*
L	Sugar cane bagasse	-22.54	-45.09	1.99	22.59	0.000	*
M	Papaya peel	-2.67	-5.34	1.99	2.67	0.017	*
N	Tomato pulp	18.01	36.03	1.99	18.05	0.000	Significant
O	Lemon peel	-20.7	-41.4	1.99	20.75	0.000	*

*Insignificant

Table 3—Plackett-Burman 12 experimental design for 11 nitrogen sources (NS) and 11 mineral nutrients (MNs) for PGUase production by *A. awamori* MTCC 9166

Runs	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	Set 1 NS (U/mL)*	Set 2 NS (U/mL)*	Set 1 MNs (U/mL)*	Set 2 MNs (U/mL)*
1	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	+	-	-	26.38	26.38	32.5	31.5
2	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	27.42	27.42	38.6	38.2
3	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	10.53	10.53	20.2	20.2
4	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	40.18	40.18	60.4	60.3
5	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	55.65	55.65	45.2	45.1
6	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	23.50	23.50	23.5	23.5
7	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	20.40	20.40	27.2	27.2
8	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	-	18.50	18.50	19.5	19.5
9	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	+	23.50	23.50	23.5	23.5
10	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	14.30	14.30	18.5	18.6
11	-	+	-	-	-	+	+	+	-	+	+	13.50	13.50	21.5	21.3
12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12.20	12.20	20.2	20.2

*PGUase activity

Nitrogen sources (NS): A, Urea; B, Yeast extract; C, Tryptone; D, Casein hydrolysate; E, Corn steep liquor; F, Peptone; G, Ammonium sulphate; H, Sodium nitrate; I, Ammonium chloride; J, Ammonium nitrate; & K, Potassium nitrate

Mineral Nutrients (MNs): A, NaCl; B, MgSO₄; C, KH₂PO₄; D, CaCl₂; E, CuSO₄; F, FeCl₃; G, MnSO₄; H, ZnSO₄; I, CoCl₂; J, ZnCl₂; & K, K₂HPO₄Table 4—Estimated effects and coefficients of nitrogen sources for PGUase production by *A. awamori* MTCC 9166 using Plackett- Burman design

Variable	Term	Effect	Regression coefficient	Standard error coefficient	t	p	Significance
	Constant	11.11	22.22	1.29	17.10	0.000	
A	Urea	3.83	7.66	0.41	18.65	0.000	Significant
B	Yeast Extract	1.07	2.14	0.41	5.21	0.000	Significant
C	Tryptone	-0.07	-0.14	0.41	0.34	0.735	*
D	Casein hydrolysate	3.62	7.24	0.41	17.64	0.000	Significant
E	Corn steep liquor	0.385	0.77	0.41	1.88	0.087	*
F	Peptone	-0.76	-1.52	0.41	3.70	0.003	*
G	Ammonium sulphate	0.695	1.39	0.41	3.40	0.006	*
H	Sodium nitrate	-0.805	-1.61	0.41	3.92	0.002	*
I	Ammonium chloride	-1.81	-3.62	0.41	8.81	0.000	*
J	Ammonium nitrate	-1.68	-3.36	0.41	8.18	0.000	*
K	Potassium nitrate	1.89	3.78	0.41	9.21	0.000	Significant

*Insignificant

Table 5—Estimated effects and coefficients of mineral nutrients for PGUase production by *A. awamori* MTCC 9166 using Plackett- Burman design

Variable	Term	Effect	Regression coefficient	Standard error coefficient	t	p	Significance
	Constant	14.555	29.11	1.06	27.32	0.000	
A	NaCl	3.790	7.58	0.33	22.50	0.000	Significant
B	MgSO ₄	-0.030	-0.06	0.33	0.19	0.847	*
C	KH ₂ PO ₄	0.830	1.66	0.33	4.94	0.000	Significant
D	CaCl ₂	3.240	6.48	0.33	19.24	0.000	Significant
E	CuSO ₄	-1.965	-3.93	0.33	11.60	0.000	*
F	FeCl ₃	0.100	0.20	0.33	0.59	0.565	*
G	MnSO ₄	-0.885	-1.77	0.33	5.26	0.000	*
H	ZnSO ₄	-1.685	-3.37	0.33	10.01	0.000	*
I	CoCl ₂	-1.465	-2.93	0.33	8.70	0.000	*
J	ZnCl ₂	0.465	0.93	0.33	2.77	0.018	*
K	K ₂ HPO ₄	2.325	4.65	0.33	13.82	0.000	Significant

*Insignificant

coefficients were positive with P values ≤ 0.001 . However CuSO_4 , MnSO_4 , ZnSO_4 and CoCl_2 had negative coefficients and found to be insignificant for PGUase production.

Nutritional parameters play vital role in enzyme production. The important nutrient substrates are mostly carbon and energy sources, a nitrogen source and mineral nutrients. With interest to screen the efficient nutrients for PGUase production, the effect of carbon sources, nitrogen sources and mineral nutrients were studied. Media optimization studies are generally done using unidimensional approach, which is both laborious and time consuming, especially for large number of variables. Statistical methods give scope for study of different nutrients at different levels by performing minimum experiments, which saves both time and materials. In the present study, the Plackett-Burman design¹⁵ was selected for screening nutrients as n-1 variables in n experiments. The statistical approach also gives scope for interactive and collective effect of nutrients on production of a product. There are reports of use of Plackett-Burman design in production of pectin lyases⁶ and protopectinase¹⁸.

Selection of pectin rich raw substrates for enzyme production is important as they not only serve as carbon and energy sources but also induce the inducible enzymes like PGUase. Earlier, studies in *A. awamori* on effect of glucose and pectin on PGUase production reported that addition of 0.4% pectin gave maximum enzyme production⁶. Similarly Nair *et al*¹⁹ also reported that *A. foetidus* NCIM 510 responded to the medium containing pectin without any additional sugars for pectinase production. Production cost of industrial enzymes is much influenced by the growth and production medium. Costs for pectic substrates, the chief carbon source, can be reduced by using fruit and vegetable waste as pectin sources for PGUase production. Earlier reports indicated the use of various agro-industrial wastes^{20, 21, 22}, such as, sugar cane bagasse, lemon peel and apple pomace, as substrates for PGUase production. Therefore, the present study concentrated on this aspect and pectin rich substrates like orange peel, jack fruit peel, apple pomace, pine apple peel, mango peel, banana peel and tomato pulp showed good response for PGUase production.

Nitrogen sources have a profound effect on the production of PGUase in culture medium. Nitrogen sources are very much required for enzyme

biosynthesis as they supply amino acids and various cellular proteins. In the present study, urea, yeast extract, casein hydrolysate and potassium nitrate were found to be more significant variables for PGUase production (Table 4). Similar findings were reported for production of PGUase from *Mucor circinelloides* ITCC 6025²³. Further, maximum PGUase activity was obtained when NH_4Cl was used as nitrogen source²⁴ and it was reported that nitrogen limitation had adverse effect on the PGUase production²⁵.

Mineral nutrients when tested for PGUase production by *A. awamori* MTCC 9166 revealed that among the 11 variables screened, NaCl , KH_2PO_4 , CaCl_2 and K_2HPO_4 were more significant in affecting PGUase production (Table 5). This response could be due to the fact that NaCl and CaCl_2 showed good ion balancing nutrients, while phosphate sources like KH_2PO_4 and K_2HPO_4 provide the much necessary phosphates.

Thus, the present study was useful in providing a number cheaper and locally available carbon (pectin), nitrogen sources and mineral nutrients for PGUase production. Good response from cheaper pectin sources like fruit peels is significant as low cost production media can be designed. The statistical design allowed to efficiently screen n-1 variables in just n number of experiments saving both time and chemicals, which is also a very important aspect in designing production medium.

Acknowledgement

The authors (PNP & KA) are grateful to the management of BVB Vivekananda College for its encouragement to carry out the present work.

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Software Reuse – Changes in Process and Organizations

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Abstract: The transition from no reuse to informal code reuse in which chunks of code are copied adapted slightly, and then incorporated into the new systems occurs when developers are familiar with each other's code and trust each other, later on the trend has changed and the programming paradigms' has changed there is evolution of object orientations, which formally "Never rewrite the code but reuse the code" reusability can be achieved by inheritance at the programming level but the context here is at the product level, which can be achieved by using component technologies which is order of the day, component is a readily available software module which can be used directly or can be tailor made according to the specification. For better reusability the company must have vision towards the market to find out which companies they create, the organizational strength must emphasize on domain engineering and application engineering. The company has to maintain reuse manager for the management of these components in a better way. Using component technologies the company can able to save development cost, time and can deliver product with quality.

Keywords: Software Reuse, Domain Engineering, Software Application Engineering, Software Cost.

I. INTRODUCTION

The basic concept of systematic software reuse is simple. Develop systems of components of a reasonable size and reuse them. Then extend the idea of "Component Systems" beyond code alone to requirements, analysis models, design, and test. All the stages of the software development process are subject to "reuse".

Developers can save problem-solving effort all along the development chain.[5] They can minimize redundant work. They can enhance the reliability of their work because each reused component system has already been reviewed and inspected in the course of its original developments. Code components have passed unit and system test elsewhere and often have stood the test of use in the field. By these means developers can reduce development time from years to months or to weeks instead of months.

II. REUSE INVOLVE CONCURRENT PROCESSES

The reuse community has come to understand on the basis of its experience that making systematic reuse effective requires major changes in the way organizations develop software. In the past the software process has focused on developing each application from scratch. At most, individual developers have shared code on an ad hoc basis.

The new way links many application development projects with processes that identify and create reusable assets. To do so, they must overhaul their business and organizational structures. We have come to understand that

this significant organizational change can be thought of in terms of business process reengineering. It is rethinking of everything pertaining to software from their stand point of those who ultimately benefit from good software obtained quickly reliably and inexpensively.

Substantial reuse requires, first of all, that reusable assets be identified in terms of a system architecture. Then the assets must be created and appropriately packaged and stocked. Potential users must have confidence in the components integrity, secondly an organization must refashion its systems engineering process so that developer can identify opportunities for reuse and work selected components into the process.

Systematic software reuse is thus the purposeful creation, management, support, and reuse of assets. As illustrated in figure below this can be expressed in terms of four concurrent processes. We call the people in the reusable asset processes, creators, and those in the development projects, reusers.

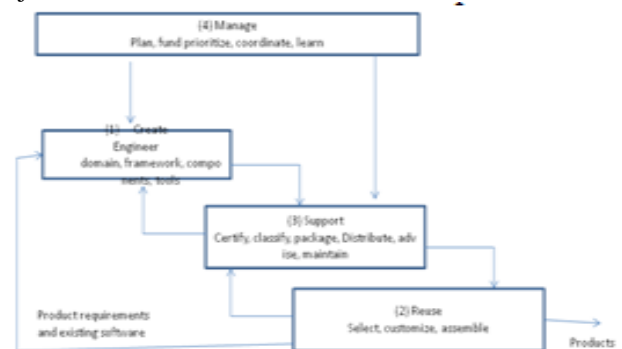


Figure: 1

- a. **Create:** This process identifies and provides reusable assets appropriate to the needs of the reusers. These assets may be new, reengineered, or purchased of various kinds such as code, interfaces, architectures, tests, tools and so on. This process may include activities such as inventory and analysis of existing applications and assets, domain analysis, architecture, definition, assessment of reusers needs technology evolution reusable asset testing and packaging.[1]
- b. **Reuse** This process uses the reusable assets to produce applications or products. Activities include the examination of domain models and reusable assets, the collection and analysis of end-user needs the design and implementation of additional components adaptation of provided assets, and the construction and testing of complete applications.
- c. **Support:** This process supports the overall set of processes and manages and maintains the reusable asset collection. Activities may include the certification of submitted reusable assets. Classification and indexing in some library, announcing and distributing the asset, providing additional documentation, collecting feedback and defect reports from reusers.
- d. **Manage:** This process plans, initiates, resources, tracks and coordinates the other processes. Activities include setting priorities and schedules for new asset construction, analyzing the impact and resolving conflict concerning alternative routes when a needed asset is not available, establishing training and setting direction.

A. Domain engineering:

In most reuse programs to date, a key activity associated with the create process is a fairly systematic way of identifying potentially reusable assets, and an architecture to enable their reuse.[2] This activity is called domain engineering in the systematic reuse community. The development of reuse process is also sometimes called application system engineering. The essence of systematic software reuse is that initial investment by the creator to identify and carefully structure reusable assets will enable reusers to build application rapidly and cost effectively.

Domain engineering reflects the idea that sharing between related applications occurs in one or more application domain or problem domain or solution domains. Reuse of the assets then occurs during a subsequent application system engineering phase.

Sometimes domain engineering has been loosely described as just like ordinary systems engineering such as structure analysis structured design or object oriented analysis object oriented design except that it applies to a family of systems rather than just one.[4] It is like systems engineering but it is also more than one of kind systems engineering. It seeks the family of similar systems that can inhabit a domain. As a result domain engineering is more complex than established systems engineering. Therefore management should not turn to it without forethought and should establish domain engineering only when it foresees a business benefit in reuse.

B. Application System Engineering:

This activity has long existed in the form of building applications from scratch, possibly with the aid of a few

back pocket programs. The goal now is to make use of the extensive set of reusable assets that have been provided. The intent is to build the application much more rapidly and cost effectively.[3]

Application system engineering specializes and assembles these components into application. These applications are largely constrained to fit the architecture and the components. Typical applications usually consist of components from several different sets of components.

Starting from the models of the architecture and reusable components, the reusers puts together available reusable assets to meet at least the bulk of the new set of requirements. This is sometimes called a delta implementation because it is an outgrowth of what already exists.

The reusers have to find and specialize components by exploiting a variability mechanisms provided. If it is not possible to meet all the new requirements with the available reusable components additional programming will be needed. This programming may be done by the creator, producing new reusable components or by the reusers.

Finally the components are integrated and the application tested.

Table: 1

Domain engineering	Application system Engineering
Define and scope domain	Do delta analysis and design relative to domain model and architecture
Analysis examples needs trends	Use component systems as starting point
Develop domain model and architecture	Find specialize and integrate components
Structure commonality and variability	Exploit variability mechanism language generators.
Engineer reusable component systems languages and tools	

III. REUSE REQUIRES CHANGED IN ORGANIZATION

The traditional software organization was a senior manager over a number of project managers. The senior manager allocated resources, such as people coming off projects that were completing, to projects that were building up. Each project manager ran his or her own project. There was no organized source of reusable components. An organization geared for reuse is different.[4]

A systematic reuse process is different because it involves two primary functions, which usually find expression as two organizations. One is the creator or domain engineering organization. The second is the reuser, or application engineering organization.[8] Companies with experience in systematic use generally find that a third function evolves that of support it in turn finds expression in organizational form as shown fig.

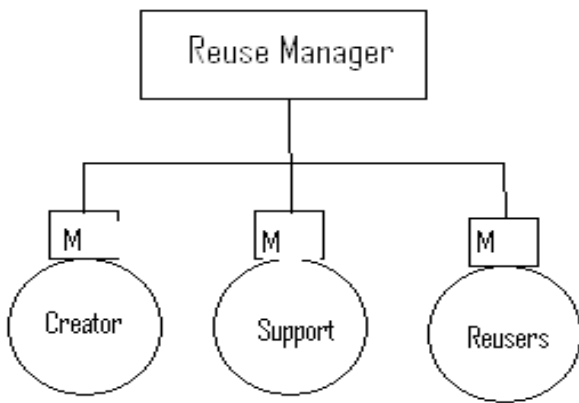


Figure: 2

Experience shows some problems with other organizational structures. For example if creators are put into the project organizations under project managers focused on getting something out the door, that objective often results in delaying, or even forgetting the creator objectives.[7] This pressures explains why setting goals on how much software is to be contributed to a library and establishing financial rewards for reuse have not worked.

However, if creator and reusers functions are totally separated, as happens when a reuse repository is set up in a geographically separate area, the creators tend to be working in a vacuum. That is the reusable components do not meet the practical needs of the reusers or they may appear too late to meet schedule needs.

The creators must be close enough to the reusers to keep reusable components practical. At the same time they must be insulated from daily project pressures if they are to get reusable components designed and built. The result is the three-function organization diagrammed in figure above.

Even with this organization structure, the pressures are still present. The creator and reusers functions have distinct goals. Creators need to build high quality assets that will serve the needs of many reusers over years of product cycles. Reusers have the usual business goals more faster, cheaper for example a project manager facing tight deadlines and a high challenging problem might kill to get a high qualified creator on his or her team. That would interfere with the more long-range goals of the creator organization. There is no right answer to issues such as this one. That is why the diagram shows a senior manager over all three functions. He or she has to adjudicate the interests of creators and reusers. Some organizations have labeled this post the “reuse manager”. That title has the advantage of focusing attention on the overall goal.

IV. INCREMENTAL ADOPTION OF REUSE

A company faces two conflicting pressures. On the one hand, it must keep the existing operations going. They are the activities that bring in the funds which keep the company going. Line managers are keenly aware of this need. On the other hand it must keep updating it practices because as it often seems, competition never sleeps. Unfortunately Line managers find it difficult to inaugurate new practice while keeping the old practices in motion.[10] Obviously a successful company has to do both. The adoption path common to several reuse strategies is to start with focused pilot projects. As these pilots meet a degree of success, expand them incrementally, increasing reuse coverage and penetration into the organization. Observation of the introduction of business process reengineering and indeed change management in general further reinforces this stepwise approach.

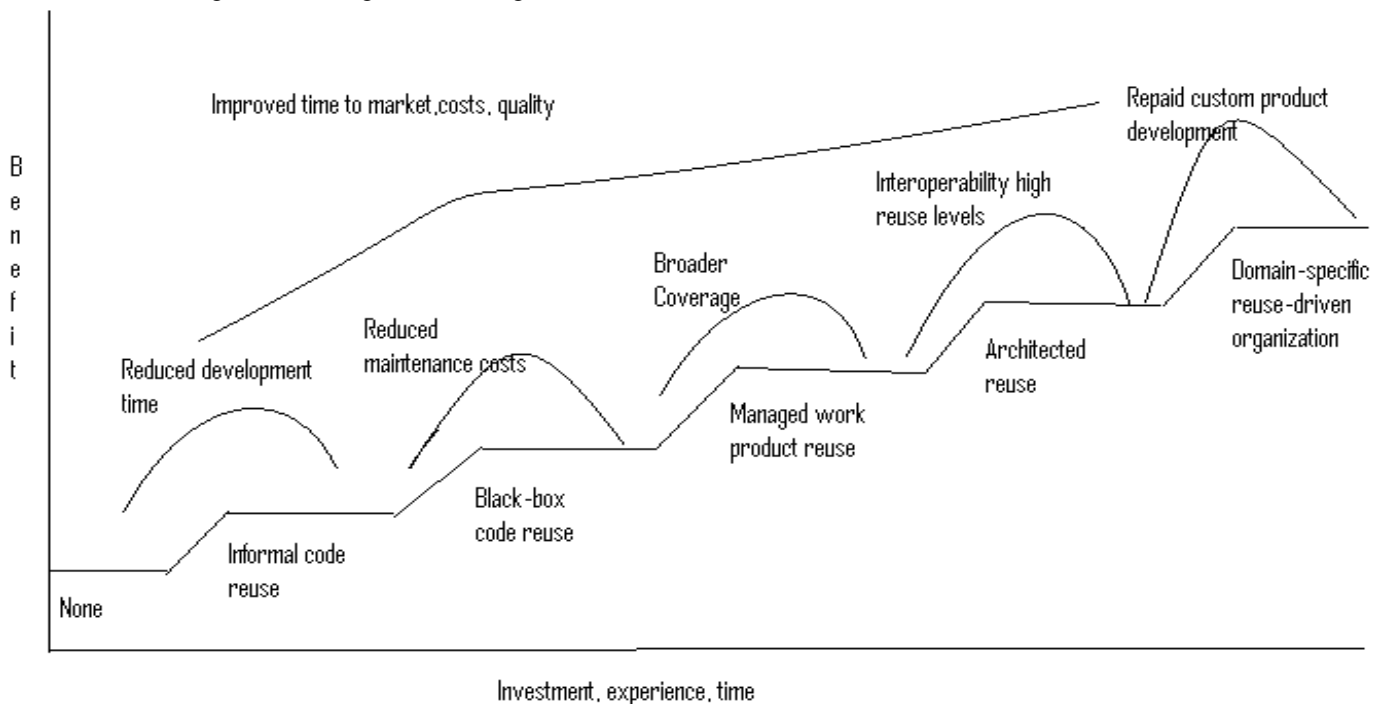


Figure: 3

The above figure illustrates some of the steps that a typical organization may progress through. This figure is based on synthesis of experience at several organizations.

What we observe is that the benefits due to reuse, such as improved time to market (TTM), or higher-quality systems, or lower overall development costs, increase as the levels of reuse and the sophistication of the reuse program

increase.[9] Furthermore it takes time investment and experience with reuse in each organization to get to those levels of reuse. So what seems to happen is that the organization moves from stage to stage as it consolidates its gain and feels the pressure for more improvement. For example, the transition from no reuse to informal code reuse in which chunks of code are copied adapted slightly, and then incorporated into the new system occurs when developers.

- a. Are familiar with each other’s code and trust each other
- b. Feel the need to reduce time to market, even though they would prefer to rewrite the software.
 - a) **This strategy works** – for a while. Development time is reduced, and testing is often less tedious than with totally new code. But as more products are developed using this approach, maintenance problems increase. Multiple copies of the software, each slightly different have to be managed. Defects found in one copy have to be found and fixed multiple times. This often leads to a black box code reuse strategy, in which a carefully chosen instance of code is reengineered, tested and documented for reuse.
 - b) **Measure progress:** Management will use a variety of measurements to gauge the progress of reuse programs. Fundamentally, they appear to fall into three categories. [6]

The first category measures levels of reuse within an application area for example each completed system employs 75% of reused components.

A second measures the properties of reusable components for the purpose of assessing their intrinsic reusability. These include measures of size, complexity, cohesion, and coupling to other components.

The third category measures process efficiency and savings in development time and cost.

An survey has taken out, the following are the metrics taken out by discussion from IT Professionals.

Table: 2

SNo	Item	With Reuse	Without Reuse
1	Time to delivery	Reduced by 40%	At delivery time
2	Cost	Reduced by 60%	Total product cost
3	Quality	Increments due to components usage 100%	Depends on the development up to 80%
4	Maintains	Easy & 100%	Has to work due to authentication engineering.

Scaling of reuse effect on product development. The following is the data compiled after having hands on experience on reuse factor of the software product development.

Scaling from 1- 5

Table: 3

Scale	Intensity	Remarks
1	Trivial	Not much impact on product.
2	Small	Less impact up to 10%
3	Medium	Impact on application developer
4	High	Good impact on application developer with respect domain engineering
5	Very High	Recommended to go for reuse

We have taken parameter of the product development and the results as follows.

Table: 4

S.No	Item	Scale
1	Time	4
2	Cost	5
3	Quality	4

Time, cost and quality are the basic principles of software engineering and the above table represents the success of reuse. The graphical representation of the above table

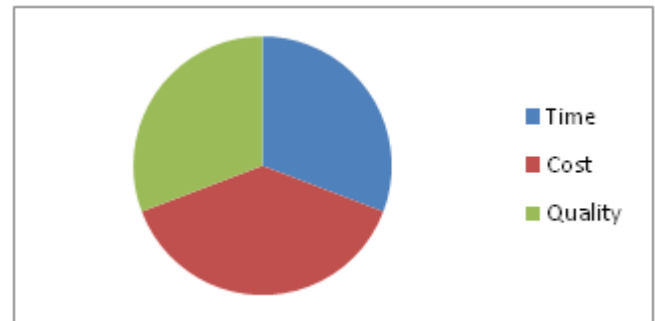


Figure: 4

A graph has been considered to show the effectiveness of reuse in the companies.

Table: 5

Reuse	%
With components	60%
Without components	0

Scaling from 1 – 10

Table: 6

SNo	Item	With Component Technology	Without Component Technology
1	Time to delivery	40%	More 10
2	Cost	60%	Max 10
3	Quality	100%	60%
4	Maintains	easy	40% product development cost.

V. CONCLUSION

- a. A component has to be used three to five times in application projects to recover the initial cost of creating it and the ongoing cost of supporting it.
- b. It costs 1.5 to 3.0 times as much to create and support a reusable component as it does to implement a similar component for a single application.
- c. It costs only one quarter as much to utilize a reusable component as it does to develop a new one from scratch.
- d. It takes two or three product cycles, usually about three years, before the benefits of reuse become significant. It takes time for the accumulating benefits to pay off the start-up cost.

VI. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to thank Sardar Tavinder Singh, Chairman and Mr. Gagandeep Singh Kohli, Vice Chairman and Dr. H S Saini, Managing Director, Guru Nanak Institutions for their encouragement and support for this research paper work. The authors would like to express their gratitude to the reviewers for their valuable suggestions and comments.

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Energy Reduction under Different Cache Configurations by using Way Tag Architecture

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ABSTRACT

To perform operations the processor has to fetch the instructions from the memory in this process the time taken to fetch the instructions from the larger process memory block (main memory) is more i.e., it does not reach the processor speed of execution, to decrease the gap between the processor speed of execution and data fetching of the processor we go for the cache memory. The cache memory performance is the most significant factor in achieving high processor performance because cache memory is the very small in size than the main memory it will helpful in fetching the data very fastly which increase the performance of the processor if the data is not present in the cache memory then it fetch the data from the main memory and stored in the cache memory.

The cache memory work on the principle of locality. Cache works by storing a small subset of the external memory contents, typically out of its original order. Data and instructions that are being used frequently, such as a data array or a small instruction loop, are stored in the cache and can be read quickly without having to access the main memory. Cache runs at the same speed as the rest of the processor, which is typically much faster than the external RAM operates at. This means that if data is in the cache, accessing it is faster than accessing memory.

In this paper we are going to increase the performance of the processor by a new policy called write-through and a new cache architecture referred to as way-tagged. In this way-tagged process we are having L1 cache and L2 cache and the address at which the data have to be stored is divided into three parts tag, index and offset address and the data which is going to be stored in the L1 & L2 caches are stored with reference with the tag address and the copy of the tag address is stored in the way-tag array. Way-tag array is an array where the way-tag address of the data is stored.

When the processor required the data to perform the required operations first it check the L1 cache and if the data is present in the L1 cache it fetches the data otherwise it check the L2 cache for the data and similarly if the data is not present in L2 cache the processor checks the data in the main memory .while processor fetching the data from the main memory it stores the data in the L2 & L1 cache respectively and stores the way-tag address in the respectively L1 and L2 way-tag arrays.

By this process of way-tag we are going to increase the performance of the processor than the previous cache process. Simulation results on the ModelSim and synthesis results on Xilinx demonstrate that the proposed technique achieves total power saving of 56.42% and dynamic power saving of 41.31% in L2 caches on average with small area overhead and no performance degradation.

Furthermore, the idea of way tagging can be applied to existing low-power cache design techniques to further improve energy efficiency.

Index Terms— Cache, dynamic power, write-through policy.

I. INTRODUCTION

A general-purpose processor is a finite-state automaton that executes instructions held in a memory. The state of the system is defined by the values held in the memory locations together with the values held in certain registers within the processor itself (see Fig. 1). Each instruction defines a particular way the total state should change and it also defines which instruction should be executed next.

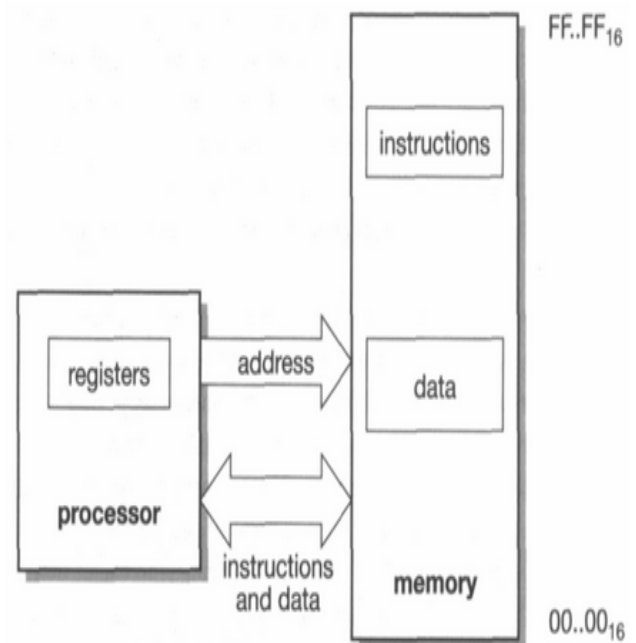


Fig.1: The state in a stored-program digital computer

If we want to make a processor go fast, we must first understand what it spends its time doing. It is a common misconception that computers spend their time computing, that is, carrying out arithmetic operations on user data. In practice they spend very little time 'computing' in this sense. Although

they do a fair amount of arithmetic, most of this is with addresses in order to locate the relevant data items and program routines. Then, having found the user's data, most of the work is in moving it around rather than processing it in any transformational sense.

At the instruction set level, it is possible to measure the frequency of use of the various different instructions. It is very important to obtain dynamic measurements, that is, to measure the frequency of instructions that are executed, rather than the static frequency, which is just a count of the various instruction types in the binary image.

A typical set of statistics is shown in Table. These statistics were gathered running a print preview program on an instruction emulator, but are broadly typical of what may be expected from other programs and instruction sets.

Instruction type	Dynamic usage
Data movement	43%
Control flow	23%
Arithmetic operations	15%
Comparisons	13%
Logical operations	5%
Other	1%

Table 1: Typical dynamic instruction usage

These sample statistics suggest that the most important instructions to optimize are those concerned with data movement, either between the processor registers and memory or from register to register. These account for almost half of all instructions executed. Second most frequent are the control flow instructions such as branches and procedure calls, which account for another quarter. Arithmetic operations are down at 15%, as are comparisons.

Now we have a feel for what processors spend their time doing, we can look at ways of making them go faster. The most important of these is pipelining. Another important technique is the use of a cache memory, which will be covered in Section 10.3 on page 272. A third technique, super-scalar instruction execution, is very complex, has not been used on processors.

In this paper we are concerned mainly about the Data movement by keeping the data very near to the processor by using the L1 & L2 Cache and by employing Write-through and Write-back polices. Under the write-back policy, a modified cache block is copied back to its corresponding lower level cache only when the block is about to be replaced. While under the write-through policy, all copies of a cache block are updated immediately after the cache block is modified at the current cache, even though the block might not be evicted. As a result, the write-through policy maintains identical data copies at all levels of the cache hierarchy throughout most of their life time of execution.

It has been reported that single-event multi bit upsets are getting worse in on-chip memories. Currently, this problem has been addressed at different levels of the design abstraction. At the architecture level, an effective solution is to keep data consistent among different levels of the memory hierarchy to prevent the system from collapse due to soft errors. Benfited from immediate update, cache write-through policy is inherently tolerant to soft errors because the data at all related levels of the cache hierarchy are always kept consistent. Due to this feature, many high-performance microprocessor designs have adopted the write-through policy.

II. TYPE RELATED WORK

To improve the performance of the processor we use Way-tagged cache this will help in storing the data in the L1 and L2 caches in a order that the data with same address tag are stored in the same location and the data with different address tag are stored in the different locations.

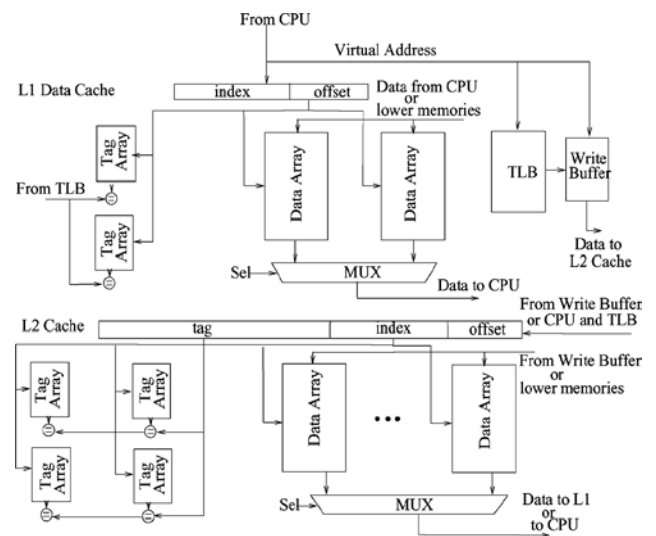


Fig. 2: Block diagram of way-tag cache

We consider a conventional set-associative cache system when the L1 data cache loads/writes data from/into the L2cache, all ways in the L2 cache are activated simultaneously for performance consideration at the cost of energy overhead.

By this process when the processor required the data for the execution of the instructions it directly check the any one of the way-tag array instead of checking all the memory location(all the way-tag array).This is shown in the Fig .2.

Example 1:

Consider the different data with different addresses

Data	Address
12342	00110011
12343	11001111
12344	01001100
12345	10100010
12346	00101010
12347	11001100
12348	10001111
12349	01010101

In this the data with address starting with 00 are stored in the same way-tag array in 00 location i.e., the data 12342 and 12346 are stored in same location. Similarly the data with address starting with 01,10,11 are stored in the same way-tag array in 01,10,11 location respectively.

Write-Back:

In this write-back police data is stored in memory when it is about to replace.

In this write-back policy there is a chance of data missing because it does not store the data instantly in the memory location when the data is modified. To over come this draw back we use write-through policy.

Write-Through:

In this write-through policy when ever the data is modified by the processor it stores the modified data in the memory location.

Different Operations perform in L1,L2 and Main Memory					
	Read_hit		Write_hit		
	Yes	No	Yes (If same data is not present)	No	
L1 Cache			Need to update	Need to copy	
L2 Cache	No need to check	Need to check (set-associative)	Need to update (direct mapping)	Need to copy (set-associative)	
		yes	No		
Main Memory	No need to check	No need to check	Need to update	Need to copy	

Fig. 3: Different Operations perform in L1,L2 and Main Memory

Under the write- through policy, the L2 cache always maintains the most recent copy of the data. Thus, whenever a data is updated in the L1 cache, the L2 cache is updated with the same data as well. This results in an increase in the write accesses to the L2 cache and consequently more energy consumption.

For read process initially the processor check the L1 cache memory for the data, if the required data is present read_hit signal is set to Yes other wise No. If read_hit signal in L1 is Yes then no-need to check the L2 and Main memory. If it is No it has to check L2 cache in that if the required data is found in L2 cache then the read_hit signal is set to Yes other wise No. If the data found in the L2 Cache no need to go for Main memory otherwise it has to checks the main memory.

For write process the processor initially checks the address location in the L1 cache if the address location is found the it compare the data. If the same data is present then no need write other wise it has to update. Same update operation is carried out in L2 and main Memory. If the required address is not found in the L1 cache then it has to copy the data in the L1, L2 and Main Memory.

III. WAY-TAGGED CACHE

Fig. 4 shows the system diagram of proposed way-tagged cache. We introduce several new components: way-tag arrays, way-tag buffer, way decoder, and way register, all shown in the dotted line. The way tags of each cache line in the L2 cache are maintained in the way-tag arrays, located with the L1 data cache. Note that write buffers are commonly employed in write-through caches (and even in many write-back caches) to improve the performance. With a write buffer, the data to be written into the L1 cache is also sent to the write buffer.

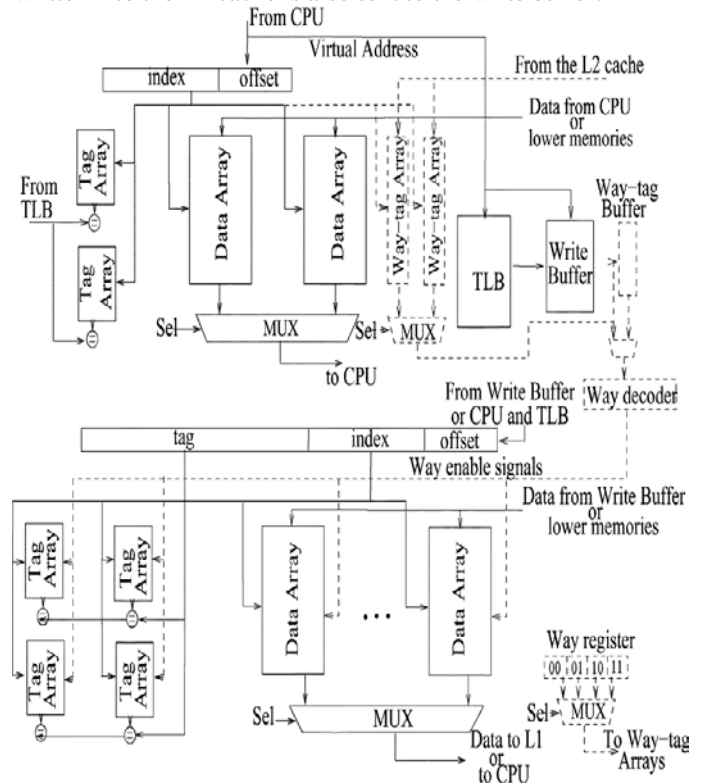


Fig. 4: Proposed way-tagged cache

The operations stored in the write buffer are then sent to the L2 cache in sequence. This avoids write stalls when the

processor waits for write operations to be completed in the L2 cache. In the proposed technique, we also need to send the way tags stored in the way-tag arrays to the L2 cache along with the operations in the write buffer. Thus, a small way-tag buffer is introduced to buffer the way tags read from the way-tag arrays. A way decoder is employed to decode way tags and generate the enable signals for the L2 cache, which activate only the desired way in the L2 cache. Each way in the L2 cache is encoded into a waytag. A way register stores way tags and provides this information to the way-tag arrays.

IV. IMPLEMENTATION OF WAY-TAG CACHE

Way-Tag Array: Way-tag array stores the tag information of the data in different location depending on the starting address location. And when ever the data is needed by the processor, the processor check address in the way-tag and if the tag address is found then the data is fetched from the corresponding address location. If not then there is no need in check the memory location.

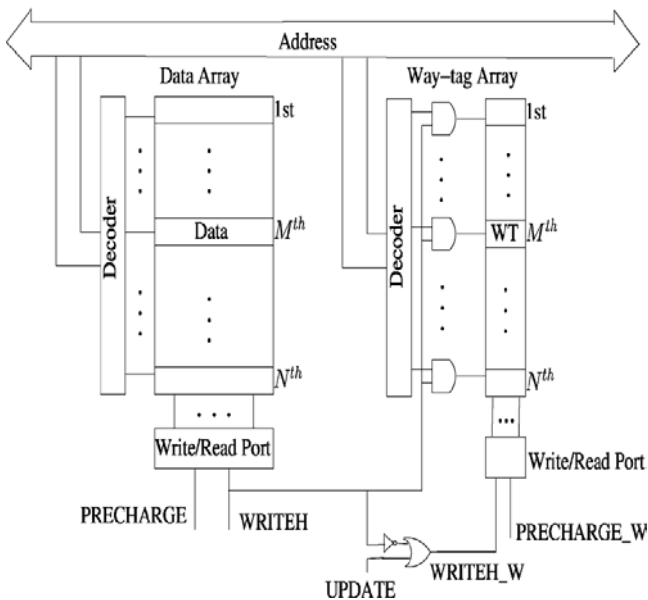


Fig. 5: Way-Tag Array

WRITEH	UPDATE	OPERATION
1	1	write way-tag arrays
1	0	read way-tag arrays
0	0	no access
0	1	no access

Table 2: Operations of Way-Tag array

Way-Tag buffer: Way-Tag buffer is used to mirroring the information from one place to another place. Way-tag buffer temporarily stores the way tags read from the way-tag arrays. Implementation is shown in below fig. 6.

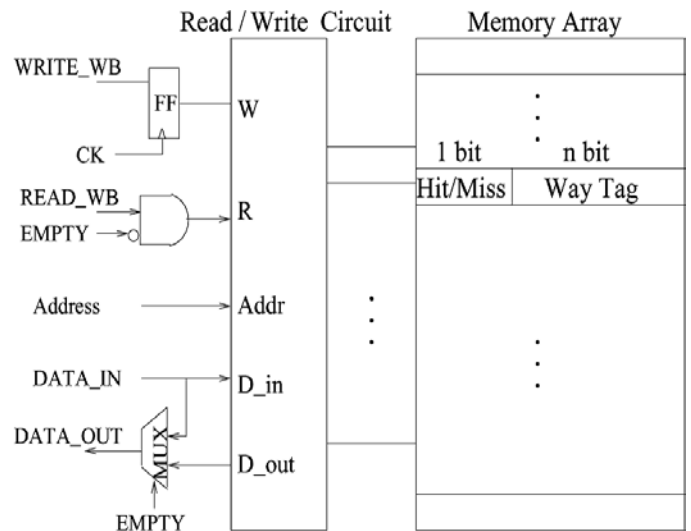


Fig. 6: Way-tag buffer.

Way-Decoder: Way decoders are used to select the way. And activate only the desired ways in the L2 cache. Below fig. 7 shows the block diagram of the Way-Decoder.

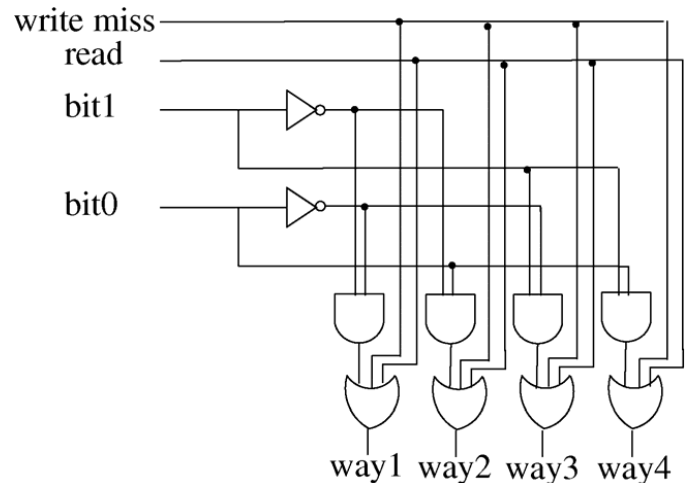


Fig. 7: Block diagram of Way-Decoder

Way Register: The way register are used to provide way tags for the way-tag arrays. When the data is carried from main memory to L2 cache and also from L2 to L1 cache i.e., when the data is carried the way-tag address is carried by way-register.

V. FURTHER EXTENSION

We can extend this 2-way tag L2 cache architecture to 4-way tag L2 architecture for more high performance. The below fig.8 shows the architecture of the 4-way tag L2Cache.

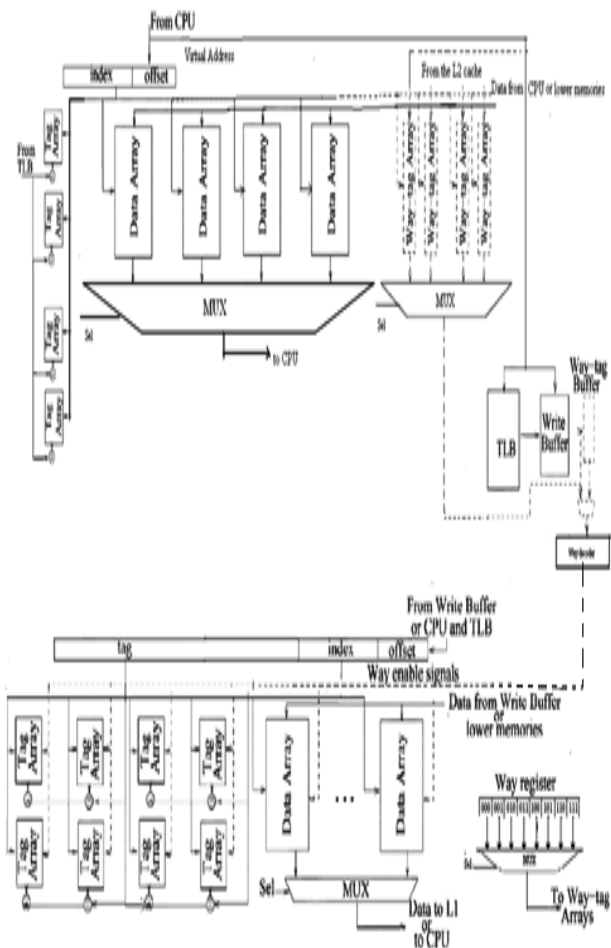


Fig. 8: The Architecture of the 4-way tag L2 Cache

VI. EVALUATION AND DISCUSSION

Simulation results of top module:

The below fig. 9 shows the simulation results of top module with Way-Tag of this project in that at the starting of the simulation we set CLK (clock) signal and initially we set RST(reset) signal as logic1 at that instant all the other signal values are at logic0.

In the next state we set the RST(reset) signal as logic0 then the operation of the cache controller take place in that process the processor will do two operation read and write.

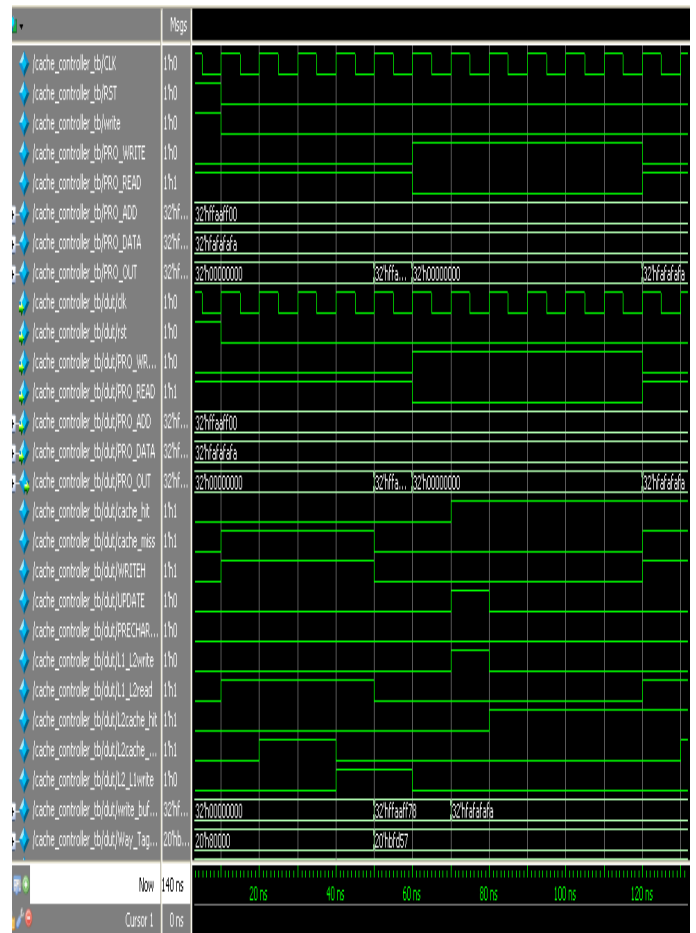


Fig.9: Simulation Result of Top Module with Way-Tag (capture 1)

Depending on the instructions of the programmer at the starting read operation is take place in that process the processor checks for the required data in the nearest and the smallest memory location (L1cache) if the data present in the L1cache (i.e., L1way_tag array is having the required way-tag address and data) then the cache-hit signal is set to logic1 otherwise cache-miss signal is set to logic1. If cache-hit is logic1 then the processor fetch the data from the L1cache memory and carry out its operations. If the cache-miss signal is logic1 then the processor check for the data in the L2 cache memory in the similar way if the data found in the l2cache(i.e., L2way_tag array is having the required way_tag address and data) then the L2cache_hit signal is set to logic1 otherwise the L2cache_mis signal is set to logic1. If L2cache_hit signal is logic1 then the processor fetch the data from the L2cache memory and carry out its operations.

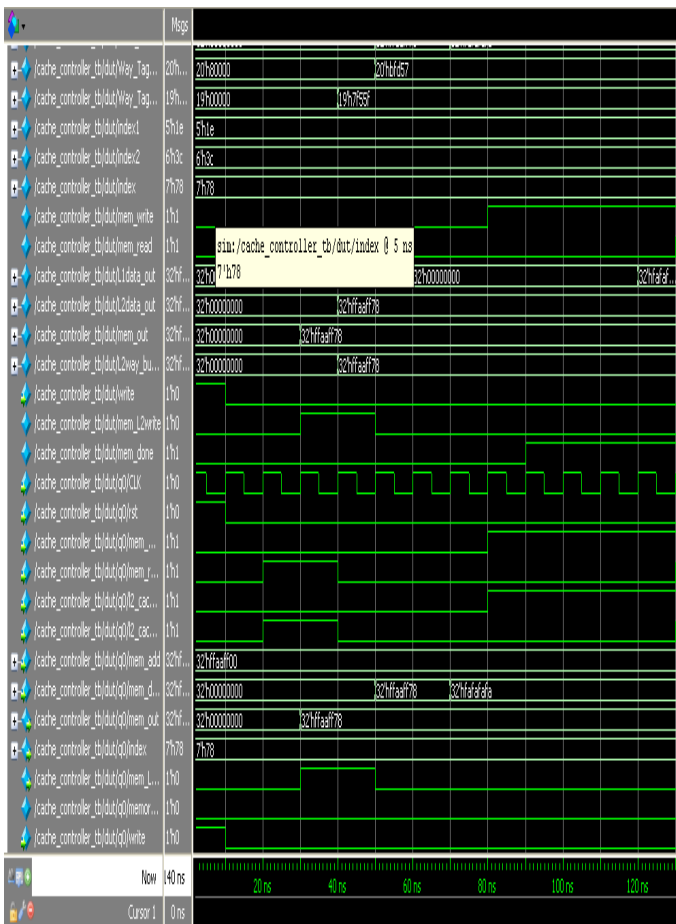


Fig. 10: Simulation Result of Top Module with Way-Tag (capture 2)

If the L2cache_mis signal is logic1 then the processor check for the data in the main memory in the similar way if the data found in the main memory then the processor fetch the data from the main memory and in the processor the data is stored in the L1cache memory and L2cache memory and the way-tag address is stored in the way-tag array as shown in fig.10.

The below fig. 11 shows the simulation results of the top module without Way-Tag in this we don't have any tag-array signal if the processor required the data from the memory location it has to check the entire L1cache memory if the required data found it is fetched by the processor otherwise it has to check the L2cache memory if the data is found in the L2cache memory it is fetched by the processor otherwise it checks the main memory and fetch the data from the main memory and in the same process the copies of the data is stored in the L1 and L2 cache memories.

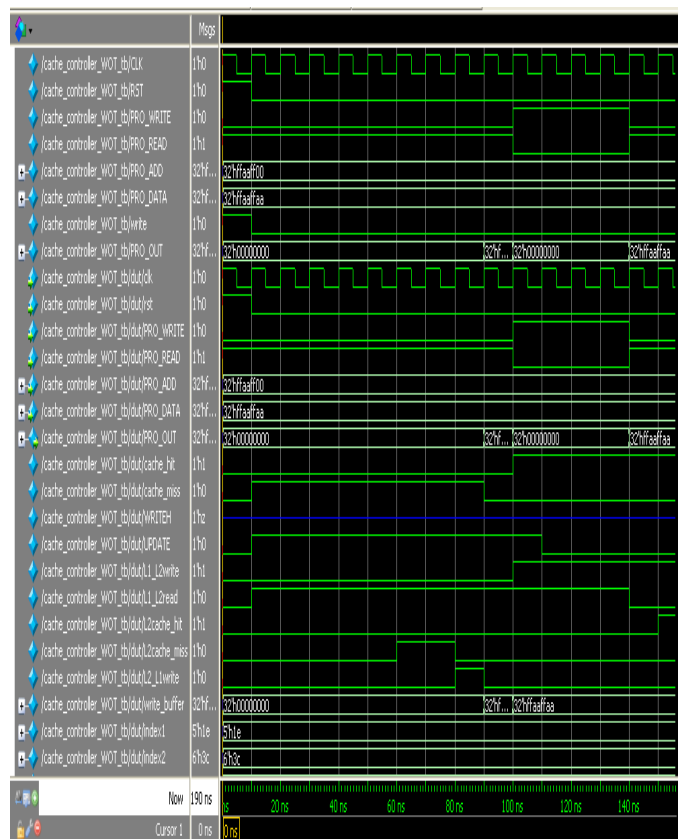


Fig. 11: Simulation Result of Top Module without Way-Tag

Synthesis Report:

Synthesis report without way-tag array

Power Supply Summary			
	Total	Dynamic	Quiescent
Supply Power (mW)	1597.00	355.56	1241.45

Synthesis report with way-tag array

Power Supply Summary			
	Total	Dynamic	Quiescent
Supply Power (mW)	901.15	146.89	1164.67

VII. CONCLUSION

This paper presents a new energy-efficient cache technique for high-performance microprocessors employing the write-through policy. The proposed technique attaches a tag

to each way in the L2 cache. This way tag is sent to the way-tag arrays in the L1 cache when the data is loaded from the L2 cache to the L1 cache. Utilizing the way tags stored in the way-tag arrays, the L2 cache can be accessed as a direct-mapping cache during the subsequent write hits, thereby reducing cache energy consumption. Simulation results demonstrate significantly reduction in cache energy consumption with minimal area overhead and no performance degradation. Furthermore, the idea of way tagging can be applied to many existing low-power cache techniques such as the phased access cache to further reduce cache energy consumption.

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Significance of IPV6 in real time approach

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Abstract: Communication is a key learning skills. Students using Video conferencing gain opportunities for higher level of thinking via, live face to face interactions with peers, tutors or experts from around the world. It can allow face to face teaching and learning at colleges, universities, home or other locations. It reduces the disadvantage of distance for learning and offers great flexibility for arranging a common time. It allows additional educational services for rural and remote students. Video conferencing allows meetings without the time, cost and organization involved with travel. The interactive voice and image provides a great way establishing or maintaining relationships. For transmitting video/audio requires more bandwidth. Keeping in mind the bandwidth constraint in wireless networks, we are designing the model for many-many interactive video conferencing.

The following are the objectives of the proposed research.

- To provide collaboration top nation development between teachers or students through Video conferencing.
- To provide experience of collaborative working by interacting with university experts for knowledge sharing.
- To develop an environment for sharing of educational resources.
- To learn about remote environments, mentoring of individual students.
- To enhance distance learning. To design an environment for sharing experiences with students from different cultures.
- To enhance travel buddy projects. To enhance professional development of staff.

Key Words: IPV6, Nation Development, Distance Education, Virtual Learning.

I. INTRODUCTION

Video conferencing enabled learning is a new way of acquiring knowledge, which is highly adaptable to different kinds of student profiles, from people that do not have time to attend normal courses to a practical enhancement of ordinary courses with additional access to the knowledge. Exchange of knowledge and consultation process among students and available expert authority (professor/instructor), are very important aspects of learning, in addition to the static contents that are provided in books and different digital multimedia.

The goal of the usage of technology as a support to learning process is to make information instantly available to users. In order a learning process to be effective, a communication and exchange of the knowledge is required. Video conferencing based learning can provide the needed interaction. So it is a logical step to create learning tools that utilize the benefits of the video conferencing technology. Distance Education System are commonly used to increase effectiveness of educational process by offering solutions that address some of the shortcomings of the traditional classroom.

When the role of a technology within learning is assessed, there are two separate criteria to consider, those of effectiveness and efficiency. Effectiveness refers to the opportunity that technology offers to improve what is obtainable with traditional methods. Video conferencing is particularly aimed at supporting dialogue as a form of interaction. Efficiency refers to the opportunity that technology offers to improve the access to educational materials. Video conferencing service, used in combination with other educational services significantly

eases this access by lowering the cost of original production of educational material and increasing the possibility to update educational materials more frequently.

Interactive videoconferences are often transmitted on dedicated T-1 phone lines. These high speed lines are very effective for videoconferencing, but they are typically leased circuits with an expensive monthly cost. The fixed monthly charge is usually based on distance, not usage. Therefore, the cost effectiveness of Interactive videoconference systems increases with use. Interactive videoconferencing systems can operate at different data rates, at various fractions of T-1 capacity, enabling the transmission of multiple simultaneous videoconferences over the same T-1 circuit. An Interactive videoconference system can also share a T-1 circuit with other digital data uses such as Internet transmissions or file transfers.

IPV6 protocol plays an important role in the next generation of Internet (NGI). It is expected that the elegant coexistence of IPv4 and IPv6 is the key point of IPv6 transition. To solve the transition problem, we propose a mesh unicast framework and a multicast framework in this paper. We describe two reference models for the mesh unicast framework, and put forward two potential solutions for the multicast framework. A Linux-based prototype is implemented for IPv4 over IPv6 scenario and a test bed is deployed with 8 nodes on CERNET2. The deployment demonstrates the advantages of the framework.

IPV6 with its 128-bit addressing system combines security and authentication, quality of service (reserving

bandwidth), plug-and-play for network device configuration, a hierarchically structured routing system, and is thereby ideal for use in IP enabled videoconferencing. Using IPv6 protocol, it is possible to achieve enhanced frame and transmission rate and bandwidth usage.

II. IPV6 ARCHTECTURE

Video conferencing has become popular over the last decade. Video conferencing is when two or more parties communicate in real time in separate locations with both video and audio signals.

Technology Used in Video Conferencing

Video conferencing works by using a few different technologies. Some of these technologies are hardware, others technologies involved in the video conferencing process are software related. Here is a list of technologies that are common to a video conference set up.



Video Input

Video input usually consists of either a video camera or a web cam. Usually there are two video cameras, at least one camera at each location. For larger video conferences there can be many more cameras. Digital projectors are used frequently to show a presentation not only in one location but sending the presentation as well as part of the video conference. Besides a standard video camera, more and more people are using web cams to conduct their video conference.

Video Output

Video output can be in the form of any video output form such as a standard TV set, digital TV set, computer monitor, etc.

Audio Input

Audio input takes the form of microphone. Sometimes each person might be individually miked, some video conferences have one general microphone that is passed around or can consist of a microphone in a central location.

Audio Output

Audio output usually consists of speakers. These speakers can range from professional equipment, headphones or even tiny speakers on a laptop computer.

Data Transfer

Video conferencing can work in a number of ways depending on the technology being used. Video conferencing uses several technologies including Digital technologies, as well as analog technologies. ISDN lines, a normal broadband internet connection and radio frequencies which can include Satellite transmission and even Wifi.

Data Compression Software

Software is extremely important to the video conferencing process. In order for digital video conferencing to take place over ISDN lines, broad band internet and Wifi there must be software to compress both the video and audio data. Video and audio data can take up a tremendous amount of space and can take a long time to travel from one location to another, it is important for any data being sent back and forth to be compressed and sent quickly and effectively. Today there are lots of software available to compress video and audio signals and unpack them once at the other location for high quality audio and video signals.

Acoustic Echo Cancellation

Another important software component is acoustic echo cancellation. Echo cancellation makes it possible for parties to talk to one another in real time without any distractions or interference. For instance, if one party is talking to another party and there is no echo cancellation software, they might hear themselves speaking a few seconds out of synch due to audio delays. In a few seconds of talking, each party wouldn't be able to understand the other party because of the distractions. Echo cancellation software processes audio to remove any distractions caused by delays

Advantages of Video Conferencing

Video conferencing is used by many businesses usually to save both time and money. One of the great advantages of video conferencing is that two or more parties can have a virtual face to face meeting to conduct business, which is seen as more beneficial than just a conference call. Other parties such as educators and health professionals use video conferencing when giving lectures, teaching about topics that require visual cues or visual information. Health professionals can give a diagnosis by conducting an examination via a video conference. There are many advantages to this technology and this has a lot to do with its exponential growth in recent years.

III. RELATED WORKS

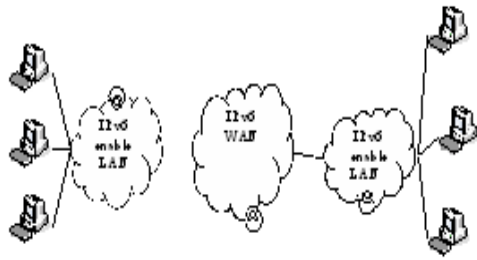
MCSV6-IPV6 BASED

There are many issue and challenges have to be addressed in order to get MCS working with IPv6.

First Phase:

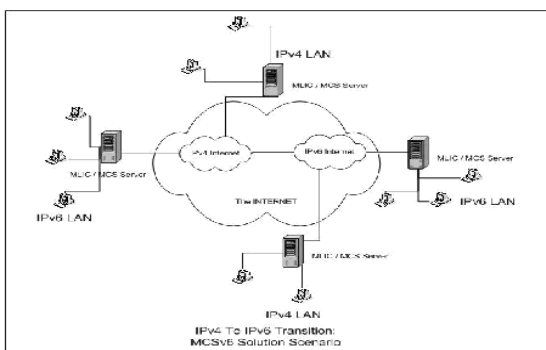
The MCS should be able to work on IPv6 islands which are interconnected over IPv4 network (mainly the Internet). As this scenario is the first phase of the IPv4 transition to IPv6 fully, the multicast tunneling software (MLIC) built in to the system will have to adapt v4 to v6 multicast and unicast transmission

Figure1 shows the MCS on IPV6 LAN



Second Phase

The IPv6 transition will result a mixture of IPv6 and IPv4 islands exist in the Internet itself. In order to allow transparency among the participants, MCSv6 will be able to interconnect all the participating LANs by tunneling the conference data over IPv6 Island and IPv4 islands.



IMPLEMENTATION OF RESEARCH PROPOSAL FOR NATION DEVELOPMENT

The Tools and Supplies Needed for Video conferencing

In order to take advantage of video conferencing you need the right ingredients or tools. There are some basic components that anyone, whether an organization, educational facility or individual needs before they can communicate with others using video conferencing technology.

Of course the most basic piece of equipment necessary is a camera. A camera will allow a user to capture video information at their site and transmit it to someone at another site. Parties using video conferencing will also need a video display to display the video at their site, a microphone to hear the video and speakers to play the audio material.

Video conferencing Equipment

Most video conferencing terminals also require what is called a codec or Compressor/Decompressor interface. This piece of equipment helps compress information being passed from audio to video to make transmission of materials feasible over the Net. Without this piece of equipment most files would be too large to send from one computer to another. The process of compression data using a codec machine is often referred to as decoding and encoding information.

Finally, a computer and reliable internet connection are also necessary to facilitate video conferencing. A high speed connection is recommended to make the video

conferencing experience not only enduring but also enjoyable. The actual computer you have is not as important as the size of your display. Remember that when using video conferencing equipment, the larger your display the better your picture and the more easily a time you will have 'conferencing' with other people on the Web.

Recommended Hardware

The following recommendations are based on our experience with active customer installations. If you have a favorite brand or spare camera not on our list, give it a try.

For PC & Laptop Users

Webcams & Cameras



Microsoft® HD Lifecam This is a USB 2.0 webcam that captures video in high definition at 720p.

Headsets with Boom Microphones

Headsets are strongly recommended for PC and laptop users. However, if you require external microphones and speakers, no problem. Please see the echo canceller microphone section below.



Plantronics Audio .610 single-ear USB

Audio Equipment

Standard Echo Canceller Microphones



Phoenix Audio Solo

The Solo is recommended for small conference rooms.

ClearOne Chat 150 Conference Room Microphone

The effective pickup range for this microphone is 10ft or less. Please remember to update your driver/firmware for this product. You can find those updates here.



Revolab Wireless Microphone

Recommended for trainers who need to move around a room or workstations where wiring is difficult.

Omni-Directional Microphones



Revolabs Fusion 4 Channel System (Wireless)

Designed for boardrooms and conference rooms.

Revolabs Fusion 8 Channel System (Wireless)

The Fusion 8 is shown at left, it is recommended for very large, or very long conference rooms. Each microphone provides good coverage for 4 to 6 feet.

Echo Cancellation Mixers



Headsets with earpieces and boom microphones are strongly recommended for desktop users, but in conference rooms, boardrooms and some training facilities, external speakers are required. In these cases, echo canceling audio inputs are required.

The Clear One product line is a mainstay in high-end video conferencing and telepresence installations, with multiple inputs, mixing, and standard audio out. It is suitable for medium and large boardrooms and applications where the highest quality is required. Almost every telepresence installation uses Clear One audio equipment.

For small conference rooms, tabletop units with speakers and built-in echo canceling mics are available from Phoenix Audio, Yamaha and others. The best choice depends on your budget, the size of your conference room and the application. The staff at Nefsis helps customers to configure A/V peripherals for boardrooms and conference rooms.



ClearOne Converge 560/590

The Converge 560 and 590 conferencing systems deliver optimum audio performance and configuration flexibility for medium-sized rooms requiring up to nine

microphones. They feature innovative microphone distribution boxes that deliver significant cost savings and flexibility for users.



3 x ClearOne Mic - Unidirectional Table Top Design



3.5 mm (M) - RCA (M) Y-Adapter



RCA (M) - RCA (F)

PC Video Capture Cards

Hauppauge 1250



This is a multipurpose, single-slot PCI Express x1 adapter for cable TV and ATSC high definition digital signals. In addition to standard and HD video capture, the built-in tuner can be used with cable TV inputs, which may be useful if you have TV in your conference room. In addition to Nefsis compatibility, this card supports Microsoft Media Center. This is a half-height card with a full-height bracket supplied.

Hauppauge 1850



Similar to the 1250 above, but full-height card with more hardware-based accelerators for better system performance. For details, please visit the Hauppauge Computer Works website.

Aja Kona LHi HD (Recommended) - For Sony EVI-HD1 or equivalent HD video input



The Aja Kona LHi is an excellent general purpose HD-capable capture card. It can manage analog SD composite and s-video inputs, and the latest digital 3Gb SDI and HDMI video streams. In particular the high definition Sony EVI-HD1 conference room camera (see above) was tested with this card. *Compatible with Windows Vista & Windows 7.

PCIe Video Capture Cards

Deck link SD for analog video only (PCI or PCIe)

- Available in PCI or PCIe slot format
- Uses BNC connections
- Must configure the Decklink card to use the NTSC/PAL (Y in)
- Compatible connectors

This adapter requires a BNC cable input. If you are using a video camera or other video device with s-video outputs, you must also purchase an s-video to BNC adapter

(female-to-female). Video inputs using RCA/Composite connectors must purchase an RCA/Composite to BNC adapter (female-to-female).

Recommended software's

- Codec or compressor/ decompression tools (mpeg)
- Web based application (free ware like java /php, mysql / postgresql)
- Linux Operating system (free ware of fedora)
- Microsoft windows operating systems

Budget proposal to implementation of ipv6 video conference.

S.No	Particulars	Qty	Approximate Cost in Rs.
1.	Video / Web Camera	03	25000.00
2.	Headset with microphone	01	2500.00
3.	Audio standard echo canceller microphone	01	25000.00
4.	Revolab wireless microphone	01	28000.00
5.	PC Video capture cards	01	10000.00
6.	HP xw8400 Workstation	01	320000.00
7.	Server (high configuration)	01	375000.00
8.	Codec tools	01	45000.00
9.	Operating systems	01	25000.00
10.	Network peripherals	01	800000.00
11.	High speed internet connection white bandwidth	01	1200000.00
			2855500.00

CONCLUSION

Communication is a key learning skills. Students using Video conferencing gain opportunities for higher level of thinking via, live face to face interactions with peers, tutors or experts from around the world. It can allow face to face teaching and learning at colleges, universities, home or other locations. It reduces the disadvantage of distance for learning and offers great flexibility for arranging a common time. It allows additional educational services for rural and remote students. Video conferencing allows meetings without the time, cost and organization involved with travel. The interactive voice and image provides a great way establishing or maintaining relationships. For transmitting video/audio requires more bandwidth. Keeping in mind the bandwidth constraint in wireless networks, we are designing the model for many-many interactive video conferencing.

IPv6 enabled Video Conferencing Program

True or near-reality human-size video rendering of participants with immersive environment. High-quality presentation and displays.

Video conferencing enabled learning is a new way of acquiring knowledge, which is highly adaptable to different kinds of student profiles, from people that do not have time to attend normal courses to a practical enhancement of ordinary courses with additional access to the knowledge. Exchange of knowledge and consultation process among students and available expert authority (professor/instructor), are very important aspects of learning, in addition to the static contents that are provided in books and different digital multimedia.

The goal of the usage of technology as a support to learning process is to make information instantly available to users. In order a learning process to be effective, a communication and exchange of the knowledge is required.

FUTURE SCOPE

Aim and Scope of Video conferencing based learning can provide the needed interaction. So it is a logical step to create learning tools that utilize the benefits of the video conferencing technology. Distance Education System are commonly used to increase effectiveness of educational process by offering solutions that address some of the shortcomings of the traditional classroom.

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Combined Logic 32-Bit Carry Select Adder by using Dominos CMOS Logic

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ABSTRACT

Highly-increasing requirement for mobile and several electronic devices want the use of VLSI circuits which are highly power efficient. The most primitive arithmetic operation in processors is addition and the adder is the most highly used arithmetic component of the processor. Carry Select Adder (CSA) is one of the fastest adders and the structure of the CSA shows that there is a possibility for increasing its efficiency by reducing the power dissipation and area in the CSA. This research paper presents power and delay analysis of various adders and proposed a 32-bit CSA that is implemented using Dominos CMOS logic style. This work evaluates and analyses the performance of the proposed designs in terms of area, delay, power, and their products in 90nm CMOS process technology. The results analysis is showing that the proposed CSA structure shows better result in terms of area, power and PDP (Power Delay Product) than the others.

Keywords--- power dissipation; adders; PDP; Dominos CMOS.

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the increasing demand for high-speed and low power arithmetic units in floating point co-processors, image processing units and DSP chips has resulted in the development of high-speed adders, as addition is an obligatory and mandatory function in these units. A compact and a high-performance adder play an important role in most of the hardware circuits. Adders are used in microprocessor system based application for arithmetic addition and for computation in large electronics circuit. Less efficient and low power adders would lead to an increase in the total power dissipation in the circuit and delay as well, so processing in these devices is required to be accomplished by making use of low-power; area-efficient circuits processing at a higher speed.

On the basis of requirements such as area, delay and power consumption, different types of adder, such as ripple carry, carry-skip and carry look-ahead are present in the literature [1-7]. Ripple carry adders shows the most compact design but slowest in speed, whereas carry look-ahead adder is the fastest one but it consumes more area. On the other hand, carry select adders act as a compromise between the two adders because it reduces the problem of carry propagation delay. However, the CSA generates partial sum and carry by using multiple pairs

of Ripple Carry Adders (RCA) so it requires large area. CMOS circuits are most commonly used building blocks in digital integrated circuits. One of the major concerns in VLSI design is power consumption. Power consumption has become an important factor due to continuous decline in size of CMOS circuits and increase in chip density and frequency at which circuits are operating.

Logic styles used in a particular logic circuit affect various parameters such as power dissipation, operating speed, size and wiring complexity of those logic circuits [2], [3]. Pass Transistor Logic (PTL) logic styles that have been developed in recent times are more efficient and exhibit better results, in comparison with traditional CMOS logic for some designs of arithmetic unit. In terms of power dissipation, delay and area PTL and CMOS logic have their respective advantages and disadvantages, so at the circuit level, by combining PTL with static CMOS logic that is Hybrid PTL/CMOS logic very low power dissipation, low power delay product and less area can be achieved in the circuit. Amount of power saved in Hybrid PTL/CMOS logic circuit is more than 60 percent as compared to conventional static CMOS logic circuit. [2]

This paper presents a comparative analysis of various adders and proposed design of a new 32 bit carry select adder by sharing common Boolean logic term using Hybrid PTL/CMOS logic style, which shows least power dissipation and PDP than other adders with less transistor count.

This brief is structured as follows. Section II surveys various digital adders. Section III presents Hybrid PTL/CMOS logic style. The proposed CSA using Hybrid PTL/CMOS logic presented in Sections IV. The simulation results are analyzed in Section V. Finally, the work is concluded in Section VI.

II. ADDERS

A. Carry ripple Adder

Carry-ripple adder (CRA) consists of cascaded "N" single-bit full-adders. Output carry of previous full adder becomes the carry input for the next full adder. Carry propagation delay exists between any two full adders in sequence For an

N-bit full-adder as shown in Fig. 1, the critical path is equal to N-bit carry propagation path in the cascaded full-adders. As the value of N increases, the corresponding delay of carry-ripple adder will increase in a linear way. CRA has the slowest speed amongst all adders because of the large carry propagation delay but occupies the least area.

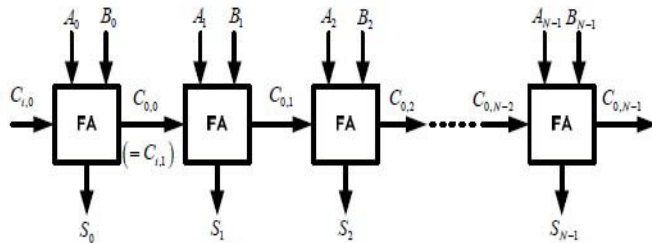


Figure 1. N- bit CRA using N set single bit full adders [1].

B. Conventional Carry Select Adder

The block diagram of conventional carry select (CSA) adder is shown in Fig. 2. CSA uses CRA to generate sum and carry values using initial carry as 0 and 1 respectively, before the actually carry comes in. Upper CRA is fed with carry initial value as logic “0” while lower CRA is fed with carry initial value as logic “1”. Multiplexer selects the result of carry “0” path if the previous carry is logic ‘0’ or the result of carry “1” path if the previous carry is logic ‘1’ i.e. actual carry is used to select the sum and carry using a multiplexer.

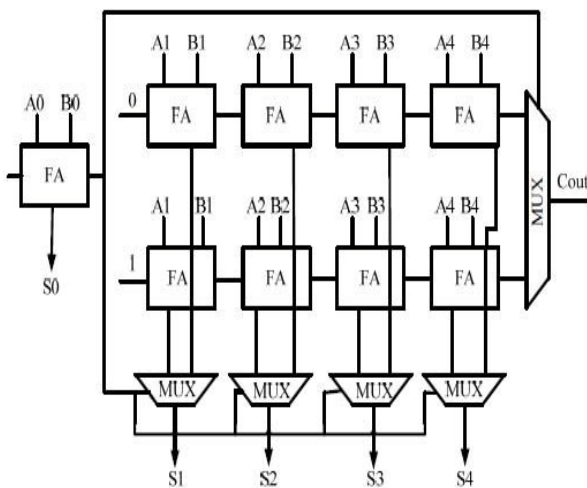


Figure 2. Block diagram of conventional CSA [1], [2], [3].

Each CRA pair in CSA can compute in parallel the value of sum before the previous stage carry comes. This reduces the critical path of an N bit adder. Delay in CSA is much lesser than CRA because the critical path in case of conventional adder is N-bit carry propagation path and one sum generating stage while in case of CSA, the critical path is (N/L)-bit carry propagation path and L stage multiplexer with one sum generating stage in the N- bit CSA,

where L is number of stages in CSA. Since L is much less than N and multiplexer delay is less than the delay in full adder, hence the delay in the CSA is much less than that in the CRA but there exists duplication of hardware in every stage which leads to an increase in the amount of power consumption and cost.

C. Improved Carry Select Adder

The truth table shown in Fig. 3 of a single-bit full-adder indicates that output sum (S0) is Ex-OR of inputs A and B when carry initial is logic “0” while output S0 is Ex-NOR of inputs A and B when carry initial is logic “1” as illustrate as two red circles in truth table. The improved CSA can be implemented by using this technique of sharing the common Boolean logic term in summation generation as shown in Fig. 4.

Cin	A	B	S0	C0
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

Figure 3. Truth table for 1-bit full adder [1].

Hence we need to use Ex-OR gate and INV gate to generate the output sum signal pair. Sum output either the Ex-OR or the Ex-NOR could be selected using the multiplexer with select line as previous carry signal. The truth table also reveals that output carry (C0) is AND of A, B inputs when initial carry is logic “0” while C0 is OR of A, B when initial carry is logic “1”. Same previous carry as select line to second multiplexer is used to select the carry output of the first stage which would act as select line of the multiplexers in the second stage. As both sum generation and carry generation is carried out in parallel therefore there exist some competitiveness in speed also the power consumption reduces as duplication of the hardware doesn’t exist in improved CSA as in case of the conventional.

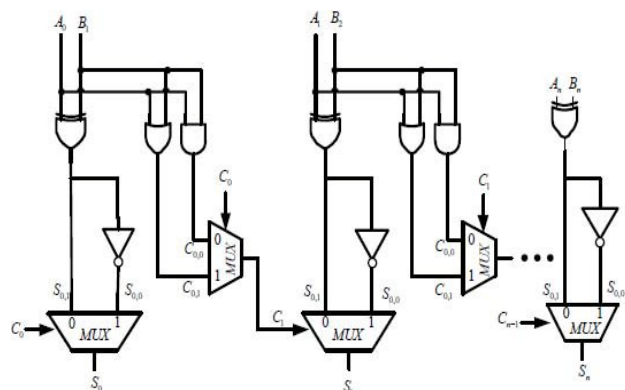


Figure 4. Improved CSA [1].

This paper proposed a 32-bit CSA by using improved CSA implementing with HYBRID PTL/CMOS logic style. PTL logic is used to implement the EX-OR, EX-NOR gates and multiplexer while AND, OR, NOT gates are designed using CMOS. Since PTL logic style doesn't give a full swing so to overcome this two CMOS inverters are used because CMOS have a high noise margin so it correctly detects the output of PTL and generates a full swing at its output. An EX-NOR gate is designed using PTL followed by two CMOS inverters whose output again is an EX-NOR logic while for an EX-OR logic output is taken after the first CMOS inverter used in EX-NOR gate.

III. HYBRID Dominos CMOS LOGIC STYLE

PTL is considered to be better than static CMOS because it possesses the capability for carrying out a logic function with less number of transistor counts, less delay and less power dissipation [8], [9], [10], and [11]. In order to obtain full swing output, at output gate, restoring logic is required consequently power dissipation of Dominos CMOS circuits would increase along with slowing down the circuit with these level-restoring logics.

PTL based multiplexer structure and XOR have less power (which includes dynamic power as well as static leakage power), power Delay product and less area. For NAND and NOR intensive circuit [10], PTL doesn't give good results while static CMOS do. Hence PTL is not considered better than CMOS for implementation of all types of logic structures.

IV. PROPOSED CARRY SELECT ADDER

Implementation of proposed carry select adder has been done using Dominos CMOS logic style with the help of BDD. The schematic diagram of proposed CSA is shown in Fig. 5. In the proposed design, improved CSA design is implemented using HYBRID Dominos CMOS logic style, where bitonic circuits are implemented using PTL and monotonic circuits is implemented using CMOS logic style. In proposed CSA design, each unit represents 4 bit full adder. An instance of 4 bit full adder has been replicated 8 times to form 32 bit Proposed CSA. Carry out of each stage is input to the next stage carry input. It encapsulates the advantages of logic style.

V. LAYOUT AND SIMULATION RESULTS

Implementation of 32 bit Carry Select Adder using Dominos CMOS logic has been done on Predictive Model Beta Version 90nm CMOS technology.

Simulation results of Power Dissipation and PDP are shown in Table I. It has been found that the area, power dissipation, power delay product of the proposed 32 bit carry select adder using CMOS logic style is less than that of the improved CSA, conventional CSA, and conventional CRA. Analysis shows that it results in 48 to 52 percent less power dissipation and 40% less PDP when implementation is done using Dominos CMOS logic style in

comparison to improved design at 1.5 volts operating voltage. Fig. 6 depicts power dissipation comparison graph of CRA, Conventional CSA, and Improved CSA over different values of supply voltages (V_{dd}). Here Fig. 7 depicts power delay product comparison graph for all the four adders.

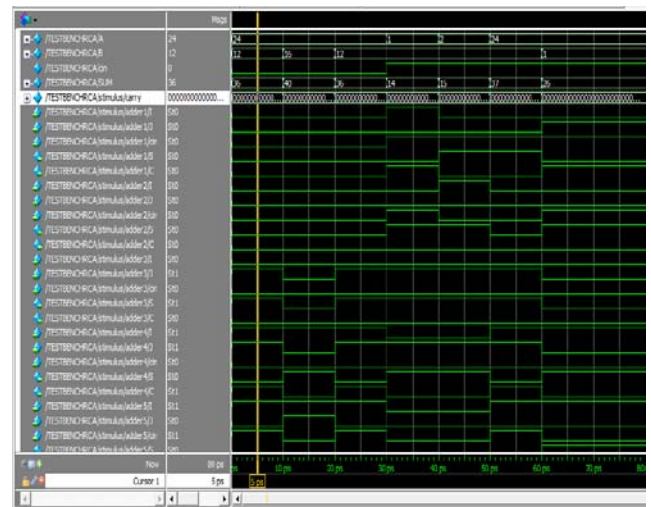


Figure 5: Simulation result for RCA 32 BIT Adder

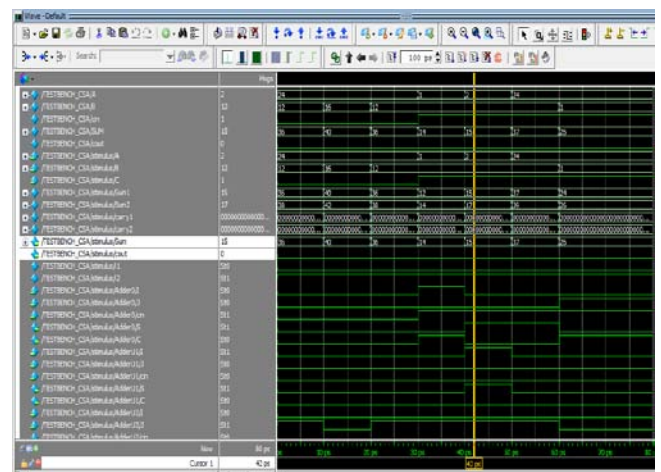


Figure 6: Simulation result for CSA 32 BIT Adder

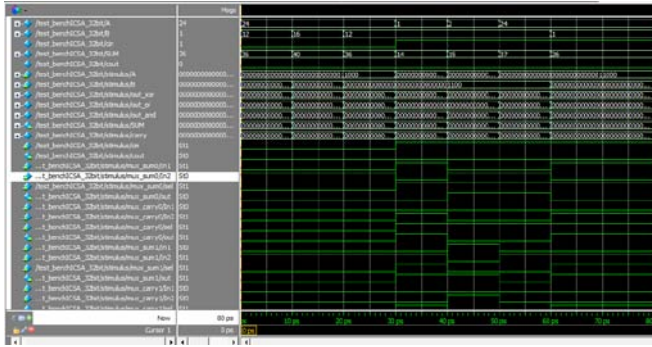


Figure 7:Simulation result for ICSA 32 BIT Adder

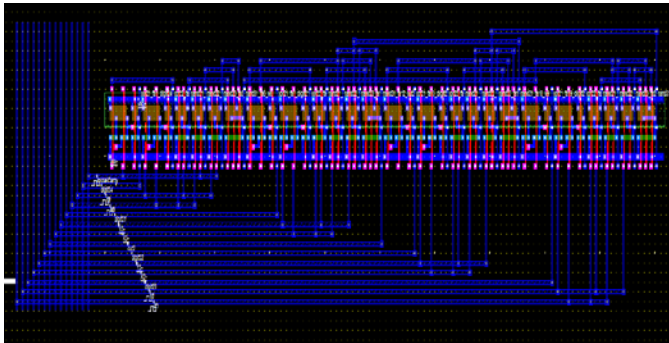


Figure 7:Layout Result for ICSA 32 BIT Adder for DOMINOS CMOS

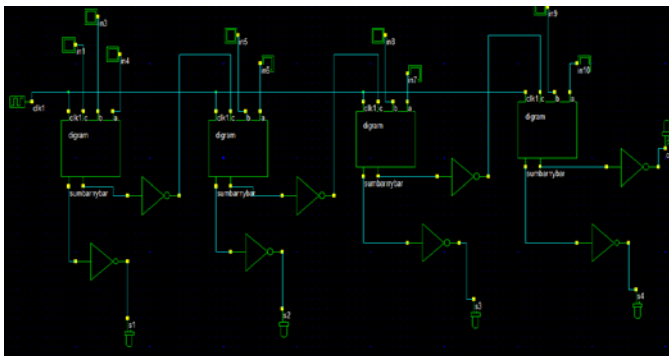


Figure 8:Schematic Result for ICSA 32 BIT Adder using DOMINOS CMOS Logic

VDD	Power Delay Product		Power Dissipation	
	1.5V	2V	1.5V	2V
Conventional Carry Select Adder	2.498E-13	5.991E-13	8.00E-04	2.08E-03
Improved Carry Select Adder	2.279E-13	5.931E-14	5.63E-04	9.95E-04
Proposed Carry Select Adder	8.415E-14	2.578E-13	2.81E-04	8.43E-04

Synthesis Result:

Ripple Carry Adder

RCA : Total	43.092ns (26.314ns logic, 16.778ns route)		
	(61.1% logic, 38.9% route)		
RCA : Number of Slices:	36 out of 8672	0% Utilization	
Number of 4 input LUTs:	63 out of 17344	0% Utilization	
RCA :	Total	Dynamic	Quiescent
Supply Power (mW)	182.50	23.54	158.97

Carry Select Adder

CSA : Total	37.390ns (25.966ns logic, 11.424ns route)		
	(61.3% logic, 38.7% route)		
CSA : Number of Slices:	66 out of 8672	0% Utilization	
Number of 4 input LUTs:	122 out of 17344	0% Utilization	
CSA :	Total	Dynamic	Quiescent
Supply Power (mW)	172.50	23.53	148.97

Improved Carry select Adder

ICSA : Total	35.462ns (23.018ns logic, 12.444ns route)		
	(60.8% logic, 39.2% route)		
ICSA: Number of Slices:	37 out of 8672	0%	
Number of 4 input LUTs:	64 out of 17344	0%	
Power Report:			
ICSA :	Total	Dynamic	Quiescent
Supply Power (mW)	162.51	23.54	138.05

VI. CONCLUSION

In VLSI design, power and area are the constituent factors which limit the performance of any circuit. High Performance and power efficient circuits can be designed using Hybrid PTL/CMOS logic style. Hence 32 bit CSA using Hybrid PTL/CMOS logic style has been proposed. It has been found that the transistor count, power dissipation of the improved adder using Hybrid PTL/CMOS logic style is less than that of other conventional designs .The comparisons of adder design are based upon Predictive Model Beta Version 90nm CMOS technology in tanner EDA Tool.

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Comparative Analysis of Software Development Process Models

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Abstract: *Software engineering is the establishment and application of sound engineering principals for obtaining economically feasible and reliable software that can run efficiently on any real time machine. The main objective of software engineering is to develop and deliver high quality software which basically is an intangible element that has no weight, volume or color. Software processes is an integral part of software engineering which helps in the development of product/software. Different software processes are available and each has its own significance depending on the type of the project. Software process models are the step by step activities to be taken out for the development of product. The main purpose of software processes model is to attain the feature within cost, within time and with good quality. Different process models are available in the industry; right process model is administered depending on the type of project, domain of type, size of project and so on. An attempt has been made to take out the comparative study of software processes model by signifying out the number scale from 0-5, influence increase from 0 to 5 on activity and process models.*

Keywords

Software Engineering, Software cost, Universal models. Agile model, feature of software projects.

I. Introduction

The Software Process Model defines a distinct set of activities, actions, task, milestones and work product that required to develop quality software. Process model describes a road map for software engineering work. The process model provides stability, control and organization to an activity. The process guides a software team through a set of framework activities that are organized into a process flow that may be linear, incremental or evolutionary. [2]

The software process models are listed:

II. Waterfall Model or Classical Life Cycle Model:

It suggests a systematic, sequential approach to the software development that begins with customer specification of the requirements and progress through planning, modeling, construction and deployment. [1]

Phases of Water Model:

a) Communication:

It is concern with the project initialization and requirements gathering for the development of the project.

b) Planning:

It emphasis on the estimation of Cost, Schedule and other related thing for the development of the project

c) Modeling:

It is concern with the analysis and design of software development.

d) Construction:

It converts the design into coding with help of programming Language and after the completion of the coding then testing will be performed.

e) Deployment:

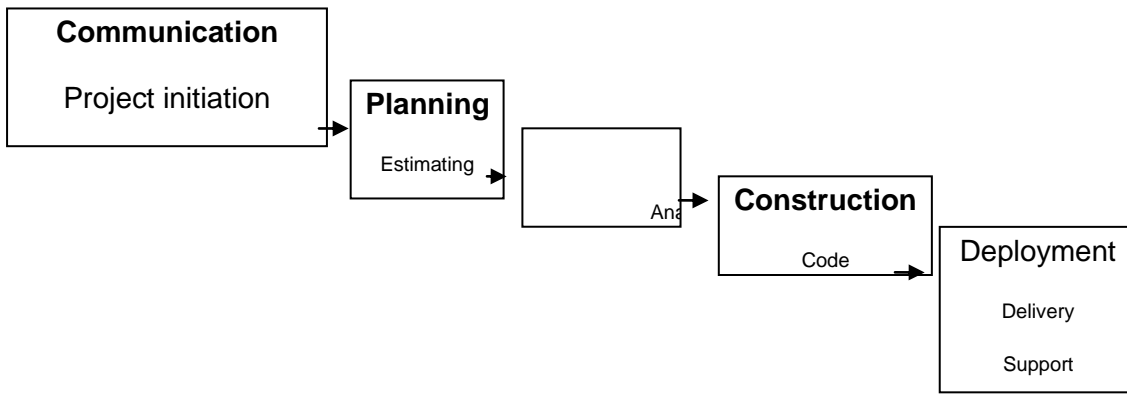
It is concern with delivery of the software to the customer and customer will provide feedback to the developer.

Advantages of Waterfall Model:

- 1) It provides for baseline Management, which identifies a fixed set of documents produced as a result of each phase in the life cycle.
- 2) It is a sequential process for the development of software [3]

Limitations of Waterfall Model:

- 1) Real projects rarely follow the sequential flow. In these changes results in confusion as the project team proceeds [6]
- 2) It is often difficult for the customer to the state all requirements at ones
- 3) A working version of the program will not be available until late in the software development.



III. Incremental Process Model:

In these model, the system and the software concepts and requirements are first identifies and then remaining activities of the software development are repeated each time there is a new release of the software.

It consist of two models

- 1) Incremental Model
- 2) Rapid Application Development model.

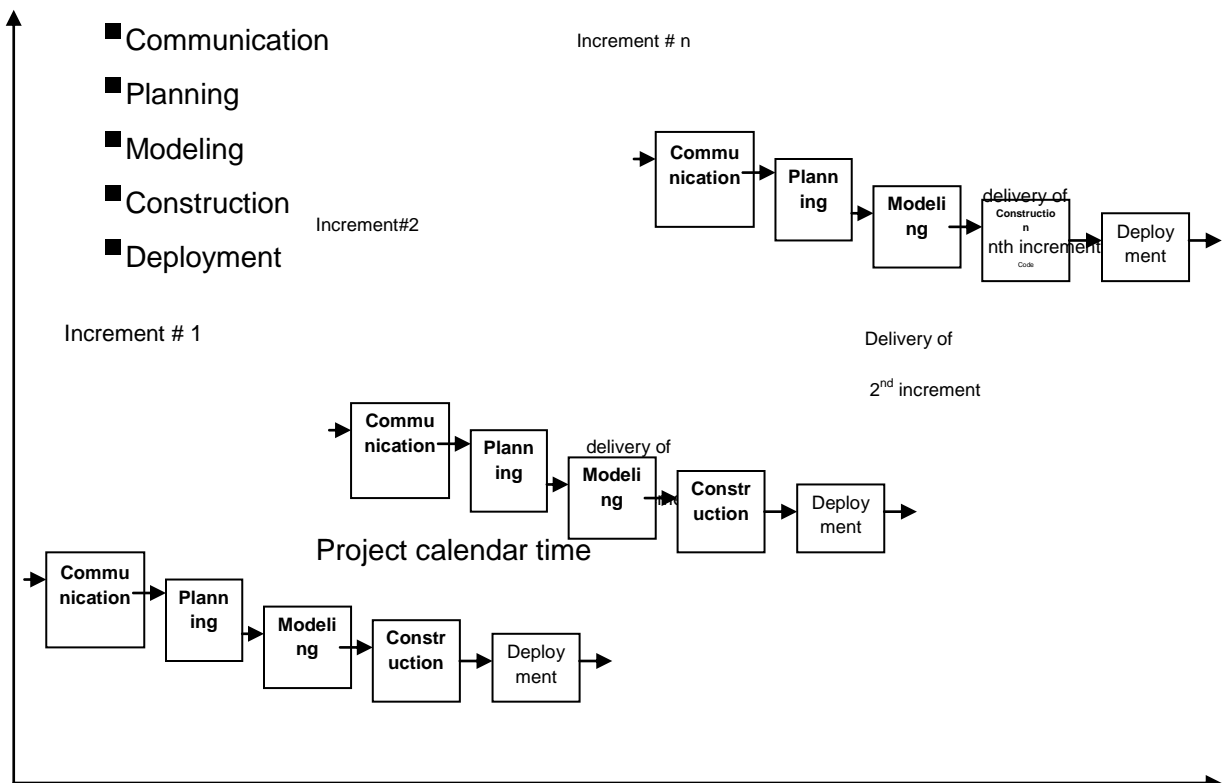
Incremental Model :

The incremental model combines the elements of the waterfall model applied in an iterative fashion .Each linear sequence produces a deliverable increment of the software.

In this model the first increment is often called a core product. The core product is used by the customer as a result of the use or evaluation a plan will be developed for the next increment. This plan addresses the modification to core product to meet the needs of the customer these process is repeated until the complete product is produced

The Incremental Model

Software functionality and features



IV. Rapid Application Development model (RAD)

RAD is an incremental software process model that emphasizes a short development cycle. It is a high speed adaptation of the waterfall model. If the requirements are understood and project scope is constrained then RAD team creates a fully functional system in with in a short time period example (60 -90) days.

Advantages of RAD Model:

This model is used to develop software in the fastest manner.

2 These model is used for large software development

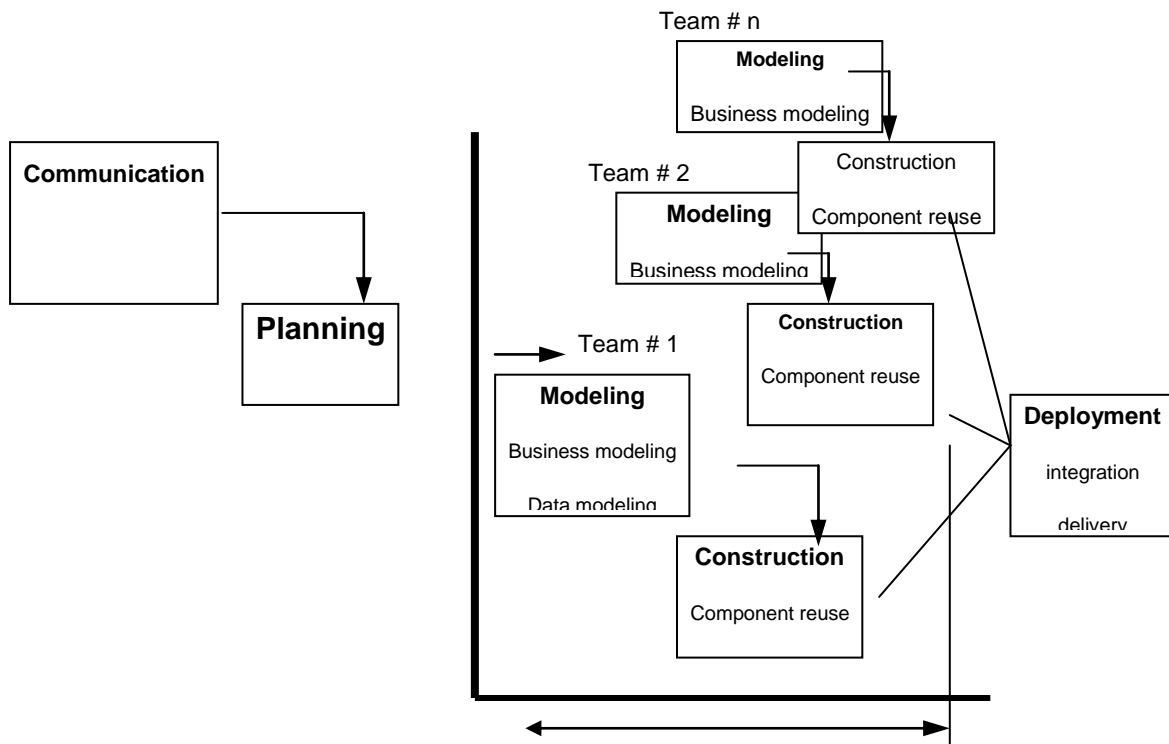
Limitations of RAD model:

1 It is used for large projects and not for small projects.

2 If developer and customer is not committed for the rapid fire activities then RAD model is not used

3 RAD may not be appropriate when technical risk is high

The RAD Model



Evolutionary process model:

Evolutionary process model are iterative. They are characterized in a manner that enables software engineers to develop increasingly more complete version of the software.[4]

It consists of three models:

- 1) Prototype Model
- 2) Spiral Model and
- 3) win –win spiral model

V. Prototype Model:

When a customer is not identify detail input processing and output requirement and if the developer may be ensure of the efficiency of an algorithm or adaptability of the operating system. In the above situations prototype process model is used to assist the software engineers and the customers to better understand what is being developed when requirements are fuzzy.

The prototype model begins with communication [1]. The software engineer and the customer meet and define the overall objective of the software then prototype iteration is planned quickly and then modeling occurs.

The quick design leads to construction of the prototype then the prototype will be evaluated by the customer and feedback of the customer is used to refine the requirements iterations occurs as the prototype is tuned to satisfy the customer while at the same time enabling the developer to better understand the what needs to be done.

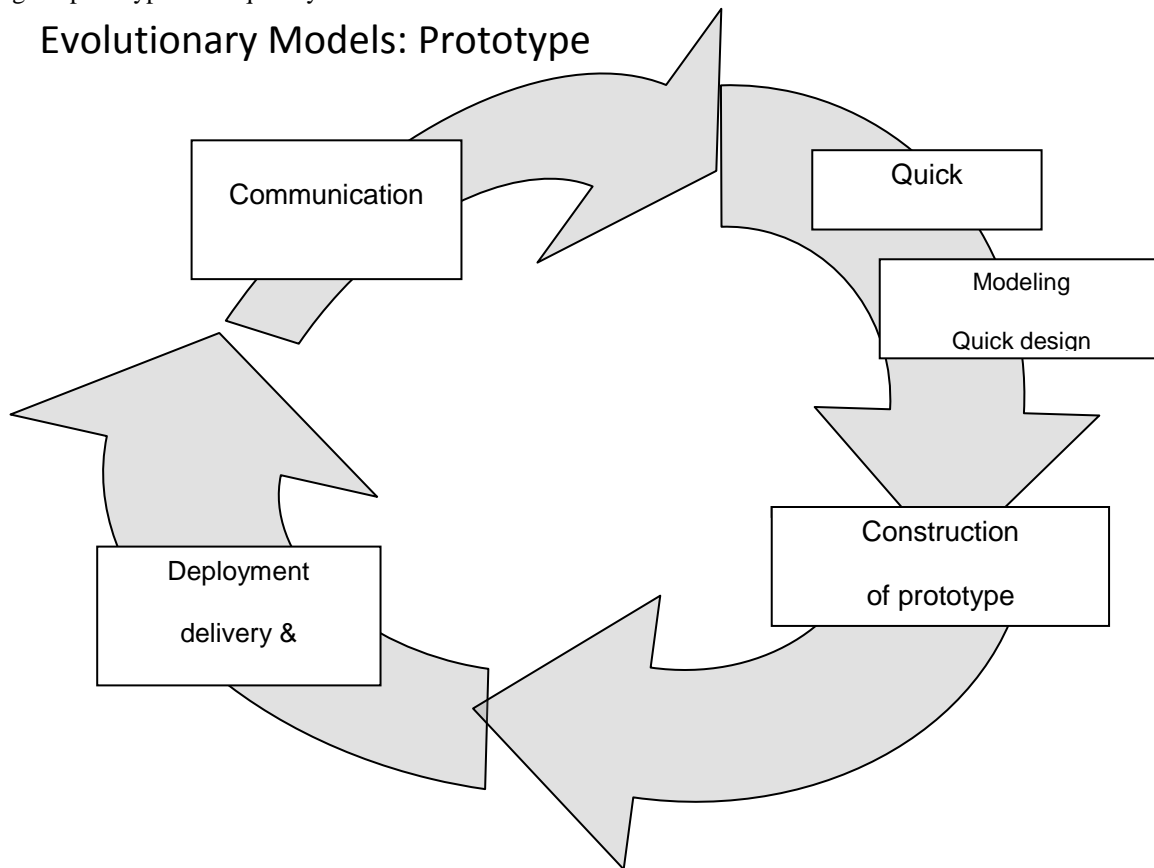
Advantages of Prototype model:

- 1. It first develops the working version of the programs.
- 2. The customer understand the software development process easily
- 3. Customer gives the feedback for the next increment of the prototype

Limitation of Prototype Model:

- 1. The customer sees what appears to be a working version of the software, unaware that the prototype is incomplete.
- 2. The developer is often makes implementation compromises in order to get a prototype work quickly.

Evolutionary Models: Prototype



VI. Spiral Model:

The spiral model is the iterative nature of the prototyping with the controlled and systematic aspects of the water model. In the spiral model software is developed in a series of the evolutionary releases.[6] A spiral model is divided into a set of frame work activities defined by the software engineering team. The software team performs the activities tat are implied by a circuit around the spiral in the clockwise direction, beginning at the center.

The first circuit around the spiral might result in in the development of the product specification. Each pass through the planning region results in the adjustment to the project plan, cost and schedule are adjusted based on the feedback from the customer

The first circuit around the spiral might represent the “concept of the development project” which starts at the center of the spiral and continues for multiple iterations until the concept of development is complete. In spiral model risk is considered at each activity of the software development.

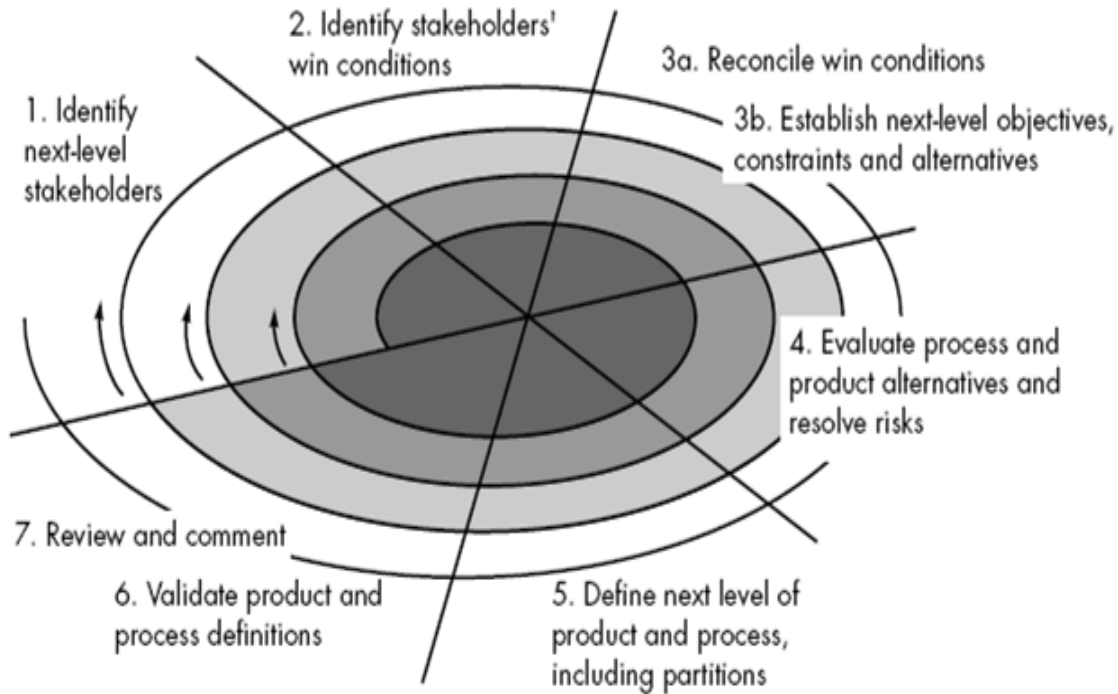
The spiral model is used for large scale systems and software.

Advantages of spiral model:

1. It is an iterative and interactive development of the software.
2. It consider risk analysis at each phase of the spiral model
3. It terminates a project if it is too risky.

Limitations of Spiral Model:

1. Origin of objective, constraints and alternatives are unclear in the spiral model
2. It does not define the organizations major milestones for development of the software



Win – win Spiral model:

The win – win spiral model has a provision for the system stakeholders (example customers, developers maintainers testers and general public) to hold a unique mutually satisfactory specification. [3] An industrial grade win – win groupware tool is being developed by terming it as win –win negotiation model. This model facilitates negotiation of the mutually satisfactory system specification by distributed stakeholders.

An agreement with the stakeholders is accompanied by a fundamental reason. These agreement covers win–win condition. During negotiation stakeholders adopt an option relative to an agreement. Associated with each option in an issue relative to the win conditions

Advantages of win – win Spiral Model:

- 1) It involves stakeholders in the development of the software
- 2) It provides the basis for a unified effort in tackling the essential difficulties of the software development.

Limitations of Win – win spiral model:

- 1) The win – win spiral model doesn't address the issues of how developers specify and design.
- 2) It doesn't specify the conceptual structure of the software.

Comparative Analysis

A comparative study of software process model has taken out with numerical scaling which depicts the influence on feature vs process model. The below comparative study is taken out on discussion and research to find out optional work schedules to be adopted for the software development life cycle depending on the nature of the project. Scaling influences from 0 to 5

- 0 – No influence
- 1 – trivial influence
- 2 – less influence
- 3- modern influence
- 4 – strong influence
- 5 – very strong influence

Feature/ Model	Waterfall	Prototype	Incremental	Spiral	RAD
Requirement Specifications	3	2	3	3	2
Understanding Requirements	5	3	4	3	3
Development Cost	4	3	3	3	2
Guarantee of Success	2	4	4	4	3
Risk Involvement	4	2	2	2	1
Expertise Required	5	3	3	3	2
Changes Incorporated	5	3	4	2	4
Overlapping phases	5	2	4	3	4
Flexibility	5	4	4	3	3
Maintenance	5	2	2	2	2
Reusability	5	2	2	3	4

VII. Conclusion

The software process model differ in the amount of detail with the software process is described, the number of work product products that are identified and used in the process, the interdependency factor, project tracking and control, requirement engineering, glenly in work structure with represent to product development and the above table represents that the development of product vs process model which depicts that for the project which has complete requirements and analysis waterfall model is advisable because it does not have back tracking and it is linear in nature any change to the product it is difficult to incorporate. Similarly a product with incomplete requirements and less in size RAD model is preferable than the other models. The comparative study will help to choose right process model to the project specification. Software processes model is core for software development life cycle in a phased phase. New processes model can be evolved by research depending on the type of projects, domain of the project and client specification. Software processes model can be tailor made to software projects and requirements. Many organizations has their own processes model to taken.

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Significances and Issues of Network Security

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Abstract: This is the age of universal electronic connectivity, where the activities like hacking, viruses, electronic fraud are very common. Unless security measures are taken, a network conversation or a distributed application can be compromised easily. Information security has been affected by two major developments over the last several decades. First one is introduction of computers into organizations and the second one being introduction of distributed systems and the use of networks and communication facilities for carrying data between users & computers. These two developments lead to 'computer security' and 'network security', where the computer security deals with collection of tools designed to protect data and to thwart hackers. Network security measures are needed to protect data during transmission. But keep in mind that, it is the information and our ability to access that information that we are really trying to protect and not the computers and networks.

Keywords: Security, Authentication, VPN, Firewalls, Antivirus

I. INTRODUCTION

Network security consists of the provisions and policies adopted by a network administrator to prevent and monitor unauthorized access, misuse, modification, or denial of a computer network and network-accessible resources. Network security covers a variety of computer networks, both public and private, that are used in everyday jobs conducting transactions and communications among businesses, government agencies and individuals. Networks can be private, such as within a company, and others which might be open to public access. Network security is involved in organizations, enterprises, and other types of institutions.

Network security is becoming more and more important as people spend more and more time connected. Compromising network security is often much easier than compromising physical or local security, and is much more common.

- Increasing online transactions
- Personal and sensitive information shared over network
- Protect Network and related resources from unauthorized access
- Monitor and measure its activeness

1. SECURITY SERVICES

It is a processing or communication service that is provided by a system to give a specific kind of protection to system resources. Security services implement security policies and are implemented by security mechanisms

1.1 CONFIDENTIALITY

Confidentiality is the protection of transmitted data from passive attacks. It is used to prevent the disclosure of information to unauthorized individuals or systems. It has been defined as "ensuring that information is accessible only to those authorized to have access". The other aspect of confidentiality is the protection of traffic flow from analysis. **Ex:** A credit card number has to be secured during online transaction.

1.2 AUTHENTICATION

This service assures that a communication is authentic. For a single message transmission, its function is to assure the recipient that the message is from intended source. For an ongoing interaction two aspects are involved. First, during connection initiation the service assures the authenticity of both parties. Second, the connection between the two hosts is not interfered allowing a third party to masquerade as one of the two parties. Two specific authentication services defines in X.800 are

1.3 PEER ENTITY AUTHENTICATION

Verifies the identities of the peer entities involved in communication. Provides use at time of connection establishment and during data transmission. Provides confidence against a masquerade or a replay attack.

1.4 DATA ORIGIN AUTHENTICATION

Assumes the authenticity of source of data unit, but does not provide protection against duplication or modification of data units. Supports applications like electronic mail, where no prior interactions take place between communicating entities.

1.5 INTEGRITY

Integrity means that data cannot be modified without authorization. Like confidentiality, it can be applied to a stream of messages, a single message or selected fields within a message. Two types of integrity services are available. They are

1.6 CONNECTION – ORIENTED INTEGRITY

SERVICE: This service deals with a stream of messages, assures that messages are received as sent, with no duplication, insertion, modification, reordering or replays. Destruction of data is also covered here. Hence, it attends to both message stream modification and denial of service.

CONNECTIONLESS-ORIENTED INTEGRITY SERVICE: It deals with individual messages regardless of larger context, providing protection against message

modification only. An integrity service can be applied with or without recovery. Because it is related to active attacks, major concern will be detection rather than prevention. If a violation is detected and the service reports it, either human intervention or automated recovery machines are required to recover.

NON-REPUDIATION: Non-repudiation prevents either sender or receiver from denying a transmitted message. This capability is crucial to e-commerce. Without it an individual or entity can deny that he, she or it is responsible for a transaction, therefore not financially liable.

ACCESS CONTROL: This refers to the ability to control the level of access that individuals or entities have to a network or system and how much information they can receive. It is the ability to limit and control the access to host systems and applications via communication links. For this, each entity trying to gain access must first be identified or authenticated, so that access rights can be tailored to the individuals.

AVAILABILITY: It is defined to be the property of a system or a system resource being accessible and usable upon demand by an authorized system entity. The availability can significantly be affected by a variety of attacks, some amenable to automated counter measures i.e authentication and encryption and others need some sort of physical action to prevent or recover from loss of availability of elements of a distributed system.

II. ISSUES IN NETWORK SECURITY

1. SECURITY MANAGEMENT

Security management for networks is different for all kinds of situations. A home or small office may only require basic security while large businesses may require high-maintenance and advanced software and hardware to prevent malicious attacks from hacking and spamming.

2. HOMES AND SMALL BUSINESSES

Basic firewall or a unified threat management system. For Windows users, basic Anti virus software. An anti-spyware program would also be a good idea. There are many other types of antivirus or anti-spyware programs available.

When using a wireless connection, use a robust password. Also one could try to use the strongest security supported by their wireless devices, such as WPA2 with AES. TKIP may be more widely supported by their devices and should only be considered in cases where they are NOT compliant with AES.

If using Wireless: Change the default SSID network name, also disable SSID Broadcast; as this function is unnecessary for home use. (Security experts consider this to be easily bypassed with modern technology and some knowledge of how wireless traffic is detected by software).

Enable MAC Address filtering to keep track of all home network MAC devices connecting to one's router. (This is not a security feature per se; However it can be used to limit and strictly monitor one's DHCP address pool for unwanted intruders if not just by exclusion, but by AP association.)

Assign STATIC IP addresses to network devices. (This is not a security feature per se; However it may be used, in conjunction with other features, to make one's AP less desirable to would-be intruders.)

Disable ICMP ping on router. Review router or firewall logs to help identify abnormal network connections or traffic to the Internet.

Use passwords for all accounts. For Windows users, Have multiple accounts per family member and use non-administrative accounts for day-to-day activities.

Raise awareness about information security to children.
Medium businesses: A fairly strong firewall or Unified Threat Management System Strong Antivirus software and Internet Security Software. For authentication, use strong passwords and change them on a bi-weekly/monthly basis. When using a wireless connection, use a robust password. Raise awareness about physical security to employees. Use an optional network analyzer or network monitor.

An enlightened administrator or manager: Use a VPN, or Virtual Private Network, to communicate between a main office and satellite offices using the Internet as a connectivity medium. A VPN offers a solution to the expense of leasing a data line while providing a secure network for the offices to communicate. A VPN provides the business with a way to communicate between two in a way mimics a private leased line. Although the Internet is used, it is private because the link is encrypted and convenient to use. A medium sized business needing a secure way to connect several offices will find this a good choice.

Clear employee guidelines should be implemented for using the Internet, including access to non-work related websites, sending and receiving information.

Individual accounts to log on and access company intranet and Internet with monitoring for accountability. Have a back-up policy to recover data in the event of a hardware failure or a security breach that changes, damages or deletes data.

Disable Messenger: Assign several employees to monitor a group like CERT which studies Internet security vulnerabilities and develops training to help improve security.

Large businesses: A strong firewall and proxy, or network Guard, to keep unwanted people out. A strong Antivirus software package and Internet Security Software package. For authentication, use strong passwords and change it on a weekly/bi-weekly basis.

When using a wireless connection, use a robust password. Exercise physical security precautions to employees. Prepare a network analyzer or network monitor and use it when needed. Implement physical security management like closed circuit television for entry areas and restricted zones. Security fencing to mark the company's perimeter. Fire extinguishers for fire-sensitive areas like server rooms and security rooms. Security guards can help to maximize physical security.

School: An adjustable firewall and proxy to allow authorized users access from the outside and inside. Strong Antivirus software and Internet Security Software packages. Wireless connections that lead to firewalls. Children's Internet Protection Act compliance. (Only schools in the USA) Supervision of network to guarantee updates and changes based on popular site usage.

Constant supervision by teachers, librarians, and administrators to guarantee protection against attacks by both internet and sneaker net sources. An enforceable and easy to understand acceptable use policy which differentiates between schools owned and personally owned devices FERPA compliance for institutes of higher education network.

Large government: A strong firewall and proxy to keep unwanted people out. Strong antivirus software and Internet Security Software suites. Strong encryption.

White list authorized wireless connection, block all else. All network hardware is in secure zones. All hosts should be on a private network that is invisible from the outside. Host web servers in a DMZ, or a firewall from the outside and from the inside. Security fencing to mark perimeter and set wireless range to this. Inventory controls of government owned mobile.

To port sweep is to scan multiple hosts for a specific listening port. The latter is typically used in searching for a specific service, for example, an SQL-based computer worm may port sweep looking for hosts listening on TCP port 1433

Idle scan is a TCP port scan method that consists of sending spoofed packets to a computer to find out what services are available. This is accomplished by impersonating another computer called a "zombie" (that is not transmitting or receiving information) and observing the behavior of the "zombie" system.

III. ACTIVE DENIAL-OF-SERVICE ATTACK
In computing, a **denial-of-service (DoS)** or **distributed denial-of-service (DDoS) attack** is an attempt to make a machine or network resource unavailable to its intended users. Although the means to carry out, motives for, and targets of a DoS attack may vary, it generally consists of efforts to temporarily or indefinitely interrupt or suspend services of a host connected to the Internet. As clarification, DDoS (Distributed Denial of Service) attacks are sent by two or more persons, or bots. (See botnet) DoS (Denial of Service) attacks are sent by one person or system.

Perpetrators of DoS attacks typically target sites or services hosted on high-profile web servers such as banks, credit card payment gateways, and even root nameservers. DoS threats are also common in business,^[1] and are sometimes responsible for website attacks. This technique has now seen extensive use in certain games, used by server owners, or disgruntled competitors on games, such as server owners' popular Minecraft servers. Increasingly, DoS attacks have also been used as a form of resistance. Richard Stallman has stated that DoS is a form of 'Internet Street Protests' The term is generally used relating to computer networks, but is not limited to this field; for example, it is also used in reference to CPU resource management.

One common method of attack involves saturating the target machine with external communications requests, so much so that it cannot respond to legitimate traffic or responds so slowly as to be rendered essentially unavailable. Such attacks usually lead to a server overload. In general terms, DoS attacks are implemented by either forcing the targeted computer(s) to reset, or consuming its resources' that it can no longer provide its intended service or obstructing the communication media between the intended users and the victim so that they can no longer communicate adequately.

Denial-of-service attacks are considered violations of the Internet Architecture Board's Internet proper use policy, and also violate the acceptable use policies of virtually all Internet service providers. They also commonly constitute violations of the laws of individual nations. Spoofing In computing

A denial-of-service (DoS) or distributed denial-of-service (DDoS) attack is an attempt to make a machine or network resource unavailable to its intended users. Although the means to carry out, motives for, and targets of a DoS attack may vary, it generally consists of efforts to temporarily or indefinitely interrupt or suspend services of a host connected to the Internet. As clarification, DDoS (Distributed Denial of Service) attacks are sent by two or more persons, or bots. (See botnet) DoS (Denial of Service) attacks are sent by one person or system.

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Man in the middle: In computing a denial-of-service (DoS) or distributed denial-of-service (DDoS) attack is an attempt to make a machine or network resource unavailable to its intended users. Although the means to carry out, motives for, and targets of a DoS attack may vary, it generally consists of efforts to temporarily or indefinitely interrupt or suspend services of a host connected to the Internet. As clarification, DDoS (Distributed Denial of Service) attacks are sent by two or more persons, or bots. DoS (Denial of Service) attacks are sent by one person or system.

ARP poisoning: ARP spoofing is a technique whereby an attacker sends fake ("spoofed") Address Resolution Protocol (ARP) messages onto a Local Area Network. Generally, the aim is to associate the attacker's MAC address with the IP address of another host (such as the default gateway), causing any traffic meant for that IP address to be sent to the attacker instead. ARP spoofing may allow an attacker to intercept data frames on a LAN, modify the traffic, or stop the traffic altogether. Often the attack is used as an opening for other attacks, such as denial of service, man in the middle, or session hijacking attacks. The attack can only be used on networks that make use of the Address Resolution Protocol (ARP), and are limited to local network segments.

Smurf attack: The Smurf Attack is a distributed denial-of-service attack in which large numbers of Internet Control Message Protocol (ICMP) packets with the intended victim's spoofed source IP are broadcast to a computer network using an IP Broadcast address. Most devices on a network will, by default, respond to this by sending a reply to the source IP address. If the number of machines on the network that receive and respond to these packets is very large, the victim's computer will be flooded with traffic. This can slow down the victim's computer to the point where it becomes impossible to work on. The name *Smurf* comes from the file "smurf.c", the source code of the attack program, which was released in 1997 by TFrea

Buffer overflow : The **Smurf Attack** is a distributed denial-of-service attack in which large numbers of Internet

Control Message Protocol (ICMP) packets with the intended victim's spoofed source IP are broadcast to a computer network using an IP Broadcast address. Most devices on a network will, by default, respond to this by sending a reply to the source IP address. If the number of machines on the network that receive and respond to these packets is very large, the victim's computer will be flooded with traffic. This can slow down the victim's computer to the point where it becomes impossible to work on. The name *Smurf* comes from the file "smurf.c", the source code of the attack program, which was released in 1997 by TFrea

Heap overflow: The **Smurf Attack** is a distributed denial-of-service attack in which large numbers of Internet Control Message Protocol (ICMP) packets with the intended victim's spoofed source IP are broadcast to a computer network using an IP Broadcast address. Most devices on a network will, by default, respond to this by sending a reply to the source IP address. If the number of machines on the network that receive and respond to these packets is very large, the victim's computer will be flooded with traffic. This can slow down the victim's computer to the point where it becomes impossible to work on. The name *Smurf* comes from the file "smurf.c", the source code of the attack program, which was released in 1997 by TFrea

Format string attack : The Smurf Attack is a distributed denial-of-service attack in which large numbers of Internet Control Message Protocol (ICMP) packets with the intended victim's spoofed source IP are broadcast to a computer network using an IP Broadcast address. Most devices on a network will, by default, respond to this by sending a reply to the source IP address. If the number of machines on the network that receive and respond to these packets is very large, the victim's computer will be flooded with traffic. This can slow down the victim's computer to the point where it becomes impossible to work on. The name *Smurf* comes from the file "smurf.c", the source code of the attack program, which was released in 1997 by TFrea

SQL injection : The Smurf Attack is a distributed denial-of-service attack in which large numbers of Internet Control Message Protocol (ICMP) packets with the intended victim's spoofed source IP are broadcast to a computer network using an IP Broadcast address. Most devices on a network will, by default, respond to this by sending a reply to the source IP address. If the number of machines on the network that receive and respond to these packets is very large, the victim's computer will be flooded with traffic. This can slow down the victim's computer to the point where it becomes impossible to work on. The name *Smurf* comes from the file "smurf.c", the source code of the attack program, which was released in 1997 by TFrea

CVBER attack: The Smurf Attack is a distributed denial-of-service attack in which large numbers of Internet Control Message Protocol (ICMP) packets with the

intended victim's spoofed source IP are broadcast to a computer network using an IP Broadcast address. Most devices on a network will, by default, respond to this by sending a reply to the source IP address. If the number of machines on the network that receive and respond to these packets is very large, the victim's computer will be flooded with traffic. This can slow down the victim's computer to the point where it becomes impossible to work on.

Cloud computing security: Cloud computing security or, more simply, cloud security is an evolving sub-domain of computer security, network security, and, more broadly, information security. It refers to a broad set of policies, technologies, and controls deployed to protect data, applications, and the associated infrastructure of cloud computing. Cloud security is not to be confused with security software offerings that are cloud-based such as security as a service.

Crime ware : Crime ware is a class of malware designed specifically to automate cybercrime. Crime ware (as distinct from spyware and adware) is designed to perpetrate identity theft through social engineering or technical stealth in order to access a computer user's online accounts at financial services companies and online retailers for the purpose of taking funds from those accounts or completing unauthorized transactions that enrich the thief controlling the crime ware. Crime ware also often has the intent to export confidential or sensitive information from a network for financial exploitation. Crime ware represents a growing problem in network security as many malicious code threats seek to pilfer confidential information.

Cyber security standards : Cyber security standards are security standards which enable organizations to practice safe security techniques to minimize the number of successful cyber security attacks. These guides provide general outlines as well as specific techniques for implementing cyber security. For certain standards, cyber security certification by an accredited body can be obtained. There are many advantages to obtaining certification including the ability to get cyber security insurance. (Spelling of Cyber Security or Cyber security depends on the institution, and there have been discrepancies on older documents. However, since the U.S. Federal Executive Order (EO) 13636, "Improving Critical Infrastructure Cyber security", most forums and media have embraced spelling "cybersecurity" as a single word.

Data Loss Prevention: Data loss/leak prevention solution is a system that is designed to detect potential data breach / data ex-filtration transmissions and prevent them by monitoring, detecting and blocking sensitive data while in-use (endpoint actions), in-motion (network traffic), and at-rest (data storage). In data leakage incidents, sensitive data is disclosed to unauthorized personnel either by malicious intent or inadvertent mistake. Such sensitive data can come in the form of private or company information, intellectual property (IP), financial or patient

information, credit-card data, and other information depending on the business and the industry.

The terms "data loss" and "data leak" are closely related and are often used interchangeably, though they are somewhat different. Data loss incidents turn into data leak incidents in cases where media containing sensitive information is lost and subsequently acquired by unauthorized party. However, a data leak is possible without the data being lost in the originating side.

Greynet greynet (or Grayware) is an elusive networked computer application that is downloaded and installed on end user systems without express permission from network administrators and often without awareness or cognition that it is deeply embedded in the organization's network fabric. These applications may be of some marginal use to the user, but inevitably consume system and network resources. In addition, greynet applications often open the door for end use systems to become compromised by additional applications, security risks and malware.

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Mobile security: Mobile security or mobile phone security has become increasingly important in mobile computing. It is of particular concern as it relates to the security of personal and business information now stored on smart phones. More and more users and businesses use smart phones as communication tools but also as a means of planning and organizing their work and private life. Within companies, these technologies are causing profound changes in the organization of information systems and therefore they have become the source of new risks. Indeed, smart phones collect and compile an increasing amount of sensitive information to which access must be controlled to protect the privacy of the user and the intellectual property of the company. According to ABI Research the Mobile Security Services market will total around \$1.88 billion by the end of 2013. All smart phones, as computers, are preferred targets of attacks. These attacks exploit weaknesses related to smart

phones that can come from means of communication like SMS, MMS, wifi networks, and GSM. There are also attacks that exploit software vulnerabilities from both the web browser and operating system. Finally, there are forms of malicious software that rely on the weak knowledge of average users.

Different security counter-measures are being developed and applied to smart phones, from security in different layers of software to the dissemination of information to end users. There are good practices to be observed at all levels, from design to use, through the development of operating systems, software layers, and downloadable apps.

Network Security Toolkit: The Network Security Toolkit (NST) is a Linux-based Live CD that provides a set of open source computer security and networking tools to perform routine security and networking diagnostic and monitoring tasks. The distribution can be used as a network security analysis, validation and monitoring tool on servers hosting virtual machines. The majority of tools published in the article "Top 125 security tools" by Insecure.org are available in the toolkit. NST has package management capabilities similar to Fedora and maintains its own repository of additional packages.

TCP Gender Changer: TCP Gender Changer refers to a method of making an internal TCP/IP based network server accessible beyond their protective firewall. It consists of two nodes, one resides on the internal the local area network where it can access the desired server, and the other node runs outside of the local area network, where the client can access it. These nodes are respectively called CC (Connect-Connect) and LL (Listen-Listen). The reason behind naming the nodes is the fact that Connect-Connect node initiates two connections one to the Listen-Listen node and one to the actual server. The Listen-Listen node, however, passively listens on two TCP/IP ports, one to receive a connection from CC and the other one for an incoming connection from the client. The CC node, which runs inside the network, will establish a control connection to the LL, and waiting for LL's signal to open a connection to the internal server. Upon receiving a client connection LL will signal the CC node to connect the server, once done CC will let LL know of the result and if successful LL will keep the client connection and thus the client and server can communicate while CC and LL both relay the data back and forth.

TCP sequence prediction attack: A TCP sequence prediction attack is an attempt to predict the sequence number used to identify the packets in a TCP connection, which can be used to counterfeit packets. The attacker hopes to correctly guess the sequence number to be used by the sending host. If they can do this, they will be able to send counterfeit packets to the receiving host which will seem to originate from the sending host, even though the counterfeit packets may in fact originate from some third host controlled by the attacker. One possible way for this to occur is for the attacker to listen to the conversation

occurring between the trusted hosts, and then to issue packets using the same source IP address. By monitoring the traffic before an attack is mounted, the malicious host can figure out the correct sequence number. After the IP address and the correct sequence number are known, it is basically a race between the attacker and the trusted host to get the correct packet sent. One common way for the attacker to send it first is to launch another attack on the trusted host, such as a Denial-of-Service attack. Once the attacker has control over the connection, it is able to send counterfeit packets without getting a response.

If an attacker can cause delivery of counterfeit packets of this sort, he or she may be able to cause various sorts of mischief, including the injection into an existing TCP connection of data of the attacker's choosing, and the premature closure of an existing TCP connection by the injection of counterfeit packets with the RST bit set. Theoretically, other information such as timing differences or information from lower protocol layers could allow the receiving host to distinguish authentic TCP packets from the sending host and counterfeit TCP packets with the correct sequence number sent by the attacker.

Another solution to this type of attack is to configure any router or firewall to not allow packets to come in from an external source but with an internal IP address. Although this does not fix the attack, it will prevent the potential attacks from reaching their targets. If such other information is available to the receiving host, if the attacker cannot also fake that other information, and if the receiving host gathers and uses the information correctly, then the receiving host may be fairly immune to TCP sequence prediction attacks. Usually this is not the case, so the TCP sequence number is the primary means of protection of TCP traffic against these types of attack.

Wireless LAN Security: Wireless security is the prevention of unauthorized access or damage to computers using wireless networks. The most common types of wireless security are Wired Equivalent Privacy (WEP) and Wi-Fi Protected Access (WPA). WEP is a notoriously weak security standard. The password it uses can often be cracked in a few minutes with a basic laptop computer and widely available software tools. WEP is an old IEEE 802.11 standard from 1999 which was outdated in 2003 by WPA or Wi-Fi Protected Access. WPA was a quick alternative to improve security over WEP. The current standard is WPA2; some hardware cannot support WPA2 without firmware upgrade or replacement. WPA2 uses an encryption device which encrypts the network with a 256 bit key; the longer key length improves security over WEP.

Many laptop computers have wireless cards pre-installed. The ability to enter a network while mobile has great benefits. However, wireless networking is prone to some security issues. Hackers have found wireless networks relatively easy to break into, and even use wireless technology to hack into wired networks. As a result, it is very important that enterprises define effective wireless

security policies that guard against unauthorized access to important resources. Wireless Intrusion Prevention Systems (WIPS) or Wireless Intrusion Detection Systems (WIDS) are commonly used to enforce wireless security policies. The risks to users of wireless technology have increased as the service has become more popular. There were relatively few dangers when wireless technology was first introduced. Hackers had not yet had time to latch on to the new technology and wireless was not commonly found in the work place. However, there are a great number of security risks associated with the current wireless protocols and encryption methods, and in the carelessness and ignorance that exists at the user and corporate IT level. Hacking methods have become much more sophisticated and innovative with wireless. Hacking has also become much easier and more accessible with easy-to-use Windows or Linux-based tools being made available on the web at no charge.

Some organizations that have no wireless access points installed do not feel that they need to address wireless security concerns. In-Stat MDR and META Group have estimated that 95% of all corporate laptop computers that were planned to be purchased in 2005 were equipped with wireless. Issues can arise in a supposedly non-wireless organization when a wireless laptop is plugged into the corporate network. A hacker could sit out in the parking lot and gather info from it through laptops and/or other devices as handhelds, or even break in through this wireless card-equipped laptop and gain access to the wired network.

Wireless security: Is the prevention of unauthorized access or damage to computers using wireless networks. The most common types of wireless security are Wired Equivalent Privacy (WEP) and Wi-Fi Protected Access (WPA). WEP is a notoriously weak security standard. The password it uses can often be cracked in a few minutes with a basic laptop computer and widely available software tools.

WEP is an old IEEE 802.11 standard from 1999 which was outdated in 2003 by WPA or Wi-Fi Protected Access. WPA was a quick alternative to improve security over WEP. The current standard is WPA2; some hardware cannot support WPA2 without firmware upgrade or replacement. WPA2 uses an encryption device which encrypts the network with a 256 bit key; the longer key length improves security over WEP.

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IV. CONCLUSION

The risks to users of wireless technology have increased as the service has become more popular. There were relatively few dangers when wireless technology was first introduced. Hackers had not yet had time to latch on to the new technology and wireless was not commonly found in the work place. However, there are a great number of security risks associated with the current wireless protocols and encryption methods, and in the carelessness and ignorance that exists at the user and corporate IT level.

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BIOGRAPHIES



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HIGH THROUGHPUT AND HIGH SPEED BLOWFISH ALGORITHM FOR SECURE INTEGRATED CIRCUITS

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ABSTRACT: Information Security is prime focus for current computer data communications. Insecurity in data transmission has increased cybercrimes through hacking. This paper presents four different implementations of Blowfish algorithm and analyzed the performance of it with and without Wave Dynamic Differential Logic (WDDL) style to provide security against Differential Power Analysis (DPA) attack. It compares propagation delay (T_p) and frequency (F) of Blowfish, Modified Blowfish with and without WDDL logic [VBS09, VBS10]. Throughput [S+12, SSS11] of Blowfish (BF) with modified modulo adder and WDDL Logic implementation has 840 Mbps compared to 570 Mbps of that of BF with modulo adder [VD12, TN08] and WDDL logic implementation. This paper is implemented using ModelSim6.1d, Leonardo Spectrum8.1 and Xilinx webpack9.2i with Verilog Hardware Description language.
KEYWORDS: WDDL, SIC, BF and DPA.

I. INTRODUCTION

Plaintext is encrypted to produce cipher-text for data transmission through wired or wireless means. The cipher-text message contains all the information of the plaintext, but is not in a format readable by a human or computer without the proper mechanism to decrypt it. If key length is more, number of iterations is more, the possibility of hacking is less and vice versa. At the encryption we apply plaintext and key as inputs and it produces cipher-text. At the other end, cipher-text and key are the input to decryption and the result is the recovery of original plaintext as shown in the figure no.1. It is a symmetric key algorithm.

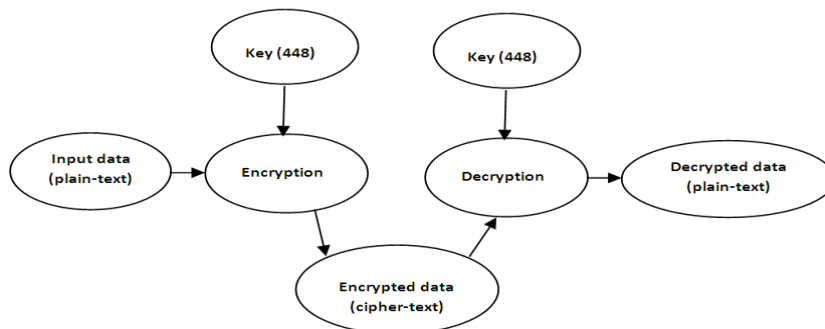


Figure 1: Process of Encryption and Decryption with symmetric Key

Analyzing Data Encryption Standard (DES), Triple DES, Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) and BF, BF algorithm is highly secured and yields high throughput (T_p) with large key size and its chosen as choice of cryptographic algorithm to implement secure ICs [TV04, TV06].

a. Wave Dynamic Differential Logic (WDDL)

WDDL logic is a constant power consumption logic which can overcome the DPA attack by the hacker. It consists of a parallel combination of two positive complementary gates, one calculating the true output using the true inputs, the other the false output using the false inputs. A positive gate produces a zero output for an all zero input. The AND gate and the OR gate are examples of positive gates. The AND gate fed with true input signals and the OR gate fed with false input signals are two dual gates [VBS10].

During the Precharge phase (clk-signal high), the normal and complemented outputs of the digital circuit produce equal outputs. Thus the differential power analysis results in zero differential power to not to allow the hacker to gain the information from the hardware integrated circuits. During evaluation phase (clk-signal low), it generates actual outputs as per logic with correct key.

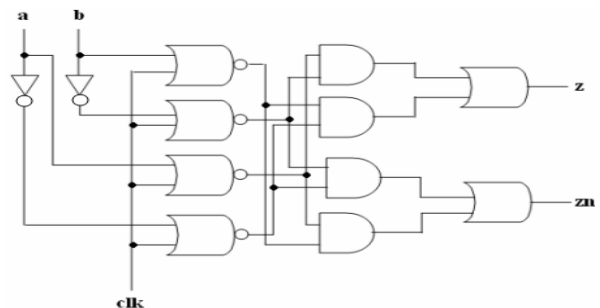


Figure 2: WDDL XOR GATE

In fig no.2, when clock is precharge mode (high), output is zero for both. When clock is evaluation mode (low), outputs are complemented and worked as XOR and XNOR.

b. Blowfish Algorithm

Blowfish is a 64-bit block cipher [AM12, PR12] is the replacement for DES (Data Encryption Standard). DES was the standard cryptographic algorithm for more than 19 years. It has a variable-length key block cipher of up to 448 bits. Although a complex initialization phase is required, the encryption of data is very efficient and highly secured. WDDL can be implemented for any logic design. Since the discussion moves around crypto processors, it would be wise to consider a cryptographic algorithm called Blowfish is a fast algorithm [S+12, VBS09].

II. ANALYSIS OF BLOWFISH ALGORITHM

Blowfish is a symmetric block cipher that encrypts and decrypts data in 8-byte (64-bit) blocks. The algorithm has two parts, key expansion and data encryption. Key expansion consists of generating the initial contents of one array (P-array), namely, eighteen 32-bit sub-keys, and four arrays (the S-boxes), each of size 256 by 32 bits, from a key of at most 448 bits (56 bytes). The data encryption and Decryption uses a 16-round Feistel Network as shown below in fig no.3 and fig no.4 [VBS09, VBS10] respectively.

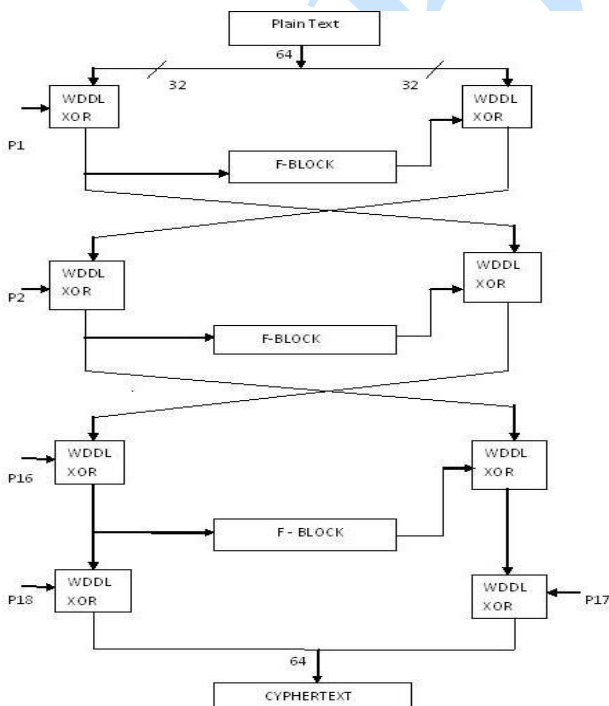


Figure 3: Blowfish Encryption

The encryption algorithm can be defined by the following pseudocode equation no.1:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{For } i = 1 \text{ to } 16 \text{ do} \\
 &\quad RE_i = LE_{i-1} \oplus P_i; \\
 &\quad LE_i = F [RE_i] \oplus RE_{i-1}; \\
 &LE_{17} = RE_{16} \oplus P_{18}; \\
 &RE_{17} = LE_{16} \oplus P_{17};
 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

The Decryption algorithm can be defined by the following pseudo code equation no.2:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{For } i = 1 \text{ to } 16 \text{ do} \\
 &\quad RD_i = LD_{i-1} \oplus P_i; \\
 &\quad LD_i = F [RD_i] \oplus RD_{i-1}; \\
 &LD_{17} = RD_{16} \oplus P_{17}; \\
 &RD_{17} = LD_{16} \oplus P_{18};
 \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

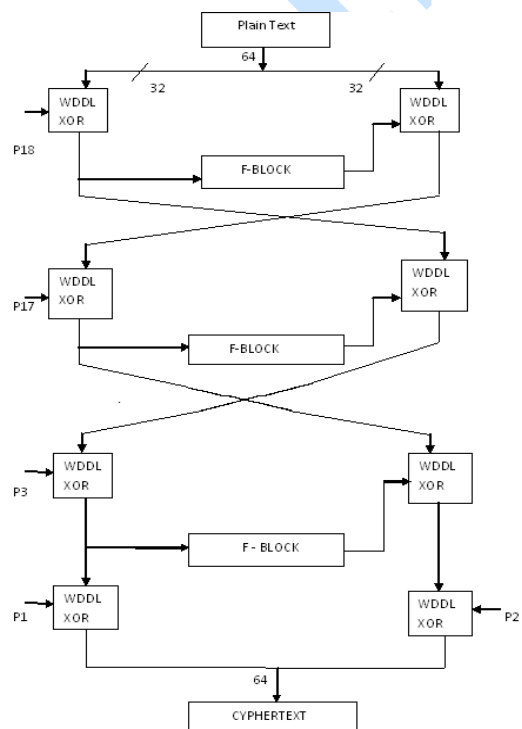


Figure 4: Blowfish Decryption

III. DESIGN OF BLOWFISH ALGORITHM

Encryption consists of sixteen rounds of operations. Each round-one operation consists of xor, 8-bit to 32-bit substitution, 32-bit modulo addition, xor, 32-bit modulo addition and swapping of result of Left Encryption (LE) to Right side and Right Encryption (RE) to left side of the data flow as shown in fig no.3. After performing 16 round-one operations right side output(31:0) xored with subkey p16 (31:0) and left hand side output (31:0) xored with subkey p17 (31:0) and then we get final cipher text(63:0). Decryption is same as that of encryption except we applied sub keys p0 to p17 in reverse order. Input data is the cipher text (output of encryption) and

then we get the output as Plaintext. Decryption consists of sixteen- round one operation. Each round-one operation consists of xor, 8-bit to 32-bit substitution, 32-bit modulo addition, xor, 32-bit modulo addition and swapping of result of Left Encryption (LE) to Right side and Right Encryption (RE) to left side of the data flow as shown in fig no.4. The input data ciphertext (63:0) performs 16 round-one operations with 16 subkeys (p17 to 2) and then after performing 16 round-one operations right side output (31:0) xored with subkey p1(31:0) and left hand side output (31:0) xored with subkey p0 (31:0) and then we get final plaintext. A crypto processor implementing Blowfish algorithm may be shown in fig no.5.

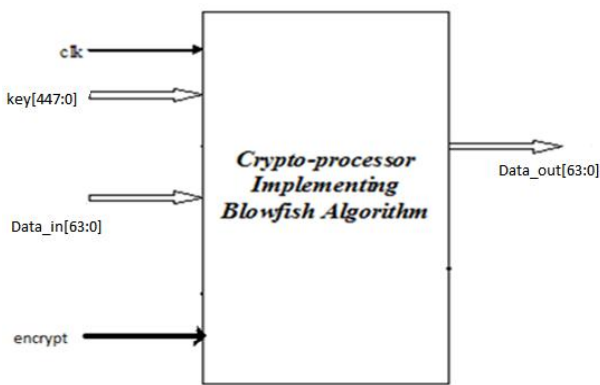


Figure 5: Top level module of Blowfish Crypto-processor

A. Substitution Boxes (S-boxes)

A substitution box (or S-box) is a basic component of symmetric key algorithm used to obscure the relationship between the plaintext and the cipher text. In general, an S-box takes some number of input bits, 8-bit, and transforms them into some number of output bits, 32-bit: an 8x32 S-box, implemented as a lookup table [1, 3, 8].

B. Feistel Function Block

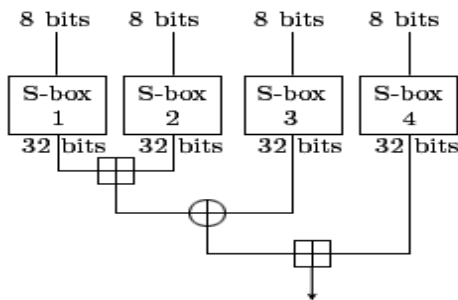


Figure 6: Function Block Internal Structure

Function ‘F’ is used to create ‘confusion’ to thwart cryptanalysis based on statistical analysis. ‘Confusion’ seeks to make the relationship between the statistics of the cipher text and the value of encryption key as complex as possible. One

advantage of this model is that the round function F does not have to be invertible, and can be very complex as shown in fig no.6 [AM12, S+12, VBS09].

C. Modulo 32-bit adder

To increase the speed of blowfish adders in this fig no.7 can be operated in parallel. one adder adds Two h-bit residues, X and Y to form their sum $S_1 + 2^h \text{Cout}_1$. Another one is 3-operand adder that computes “X+Y+m”. Note that if $m=2^n+1$, we have $h=n+1$. It has been reported that if either Cout1 or Cout2 of this addition is ‘1’ then the output is X+Y+m instead of X+Y. However, in the following we illustrate that only if the carry of “X+Y+m” is ‘1’, it is sufficient to select it as the final output [VD12, TN08].

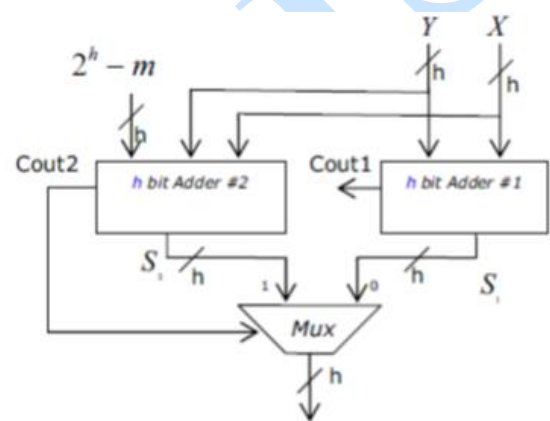


Figure 7: Modulo M-bit adder

D. Sub-key Generation Unit

The sub-key generation unit expands the given 448-bit key into 14 sub-keys and 4 more subkeys are internally generated, each of 32 bits, so that they can be used at different stages in the algorithm. The sub key generation process is designed to preserve the entire entropy of the key and to distribute that entropy uniformly throughout the sub keys. It is also designed to distribute the set of allowed sub keys randomly throughout the domain of possible sub keys. Then bit wise XOR of the P-array and K-array is performed reusing the words from K-array as needed shown in equation no.3:

$$P_1 = P_1 \wedge K \dots P_{14} = P_{14} \wedge K_{14}$$

$$P_{15} = P_{15} \wedge K_1 \dots P_{18} = P_{18} \wedge K_4 \tag{3}$$

The performance parameter throughput (TP) is defined as number of bits encrypted and decrypted per second.

$$TP = \frac{\text{Number of bits encrypted}}{\text{Propagation delay}} \tag{4}$$

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The encryption and decryption modules are integrated in the top level module to obtain the blowfish crypto-processor and the simulation and synthesis results are analyzed. Comparison is done for four forms i.e., Blowfish (BF), Modified Blowfish (MBF), Blowfish with WDDL (BFWDDL) and Modified Blowfish with WDDL (MBFWDDL) is given below in the table no.1 and the corresponding bar charts are shown in the fig no.8, 9 and 10 for performance parameters Et, Dt and Tt respectively.

Table 1: Comparison of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm for Et, Dt and Tt

SNo	Name of Crypt-algorithm	Performance parameters		
		Et(ns)	Dt(ns)	Tt(ns)
1	Blowfish	98.663	98.663	99.395
2	Modified Blowfish	70.08	70.08	71.067
3	Blowfish with WDDL	107.62	107.62	112.56
4	Modified Blowfish with WDDL	73.985	73.985	76.337

Et: Encrypt Time, Dt: Decrypt Time, Tt: Total Time

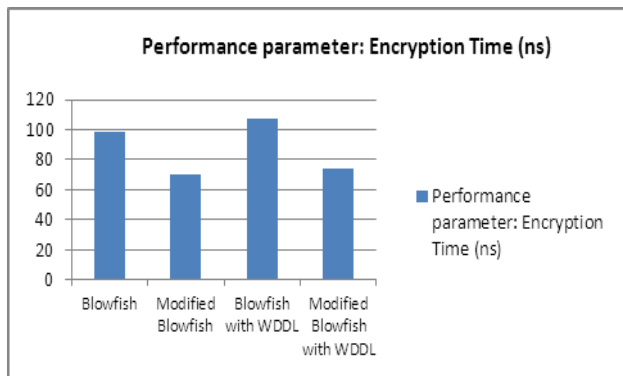


Figure 8: Bar Chart for Performance parameter Encryption Time of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm

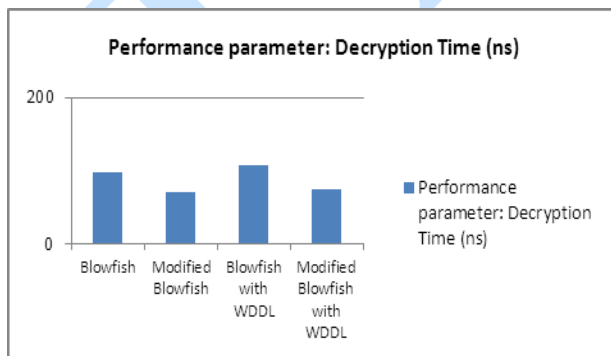


Figure 9: Bar Chart for Performance parameter Decryption Time of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm

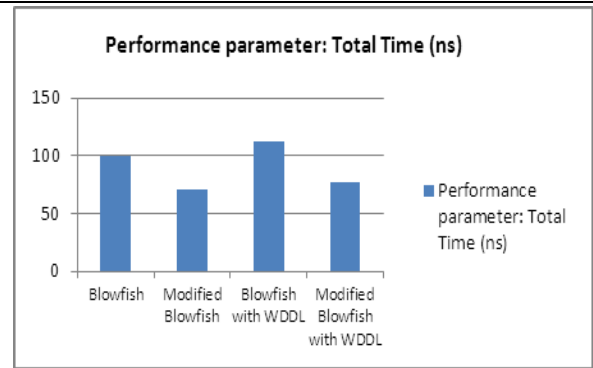


Figure 10: Bar Chart for Performance parameter Total Time (i.e., Propagation Delay) of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm

Blowfish Algorithm is implemented in four forms and compared its performance parameters which are given below in the table no.2 and the MBF with WDDL is yielded better results in terms of propagation delay (76.337ns) and throughput (840 Mbps) compared to that of BFWDDL with 112.56ns and 570 Mbps respectively . Analysis is done for blowfish with and without WDDL logic to secure the ICs against DPA attack by the hackers.

Table 2: Comparison of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm for propagation delay, frequency and Throughput

SNo	Name of Crypt-algorithm	Performance parameters		
		Tt(ns)	F (MHz)	TP (Mbps)
1	Blowfish	99.395	10.06	640
2	Modified Blowfish	71.067	14.07	900
3	Blowfish with WDDL	112.566	8.884	570
4	Modified Blowfish with WDDL	76.337	13.09	840

Tt: Propagation Delay, F; Frequency, TP: Throughput

Comparison is also shown below in the form of bar charts in fig no.11, 12 and 13 for performance parameters Tt, F and TP respectively.

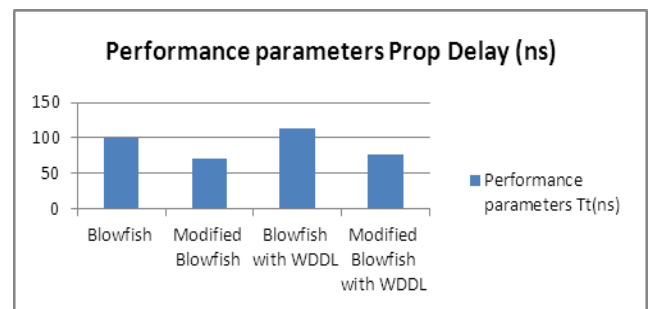


Figure 11: Bar Chart for Performance parameter propagation delay of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm

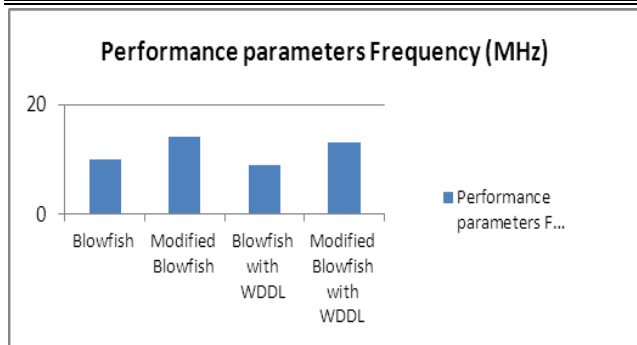


Figure 12: Bar Chart for Performance parameter Frequency of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm

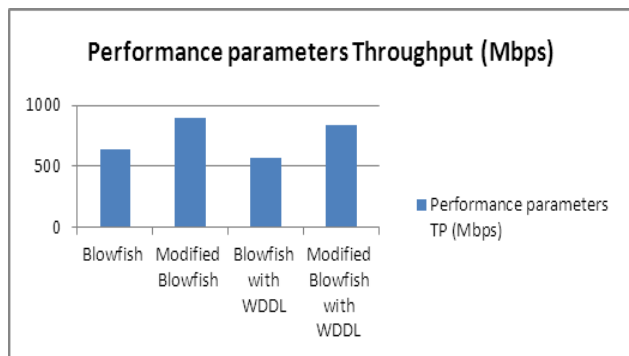


Figure 13: Bar Chart for Performance parameter Throughput of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, an implementation of Blowfish Algorithm is designed using WDDL Logic style. In the implementation bottom-up approach is used. The sub-keys generated for a particular key can be used for the encryption of the entire data to be encrypted with that key. The sub keys are given in reverse direction of the decryption data path without changing the design for decryption. The crypto processor has been designed for the key size of 448 bits and plain text of 64 bits. The code for the implementation has been written in Verilog HDL. The functional verification has been done using the ModelSim 6.1d simulation package. The synthesis of the design is done using the Xilinx Web Pack9.2i. Comparison with different implementations has been given in table no.1 and table no.2 and proved that Modified Blowfish and MBF with WDDL logic yielded the best results in delay, frequency and throughput compared to blowfish with and without WDDL logic respectively.

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ABSTRACT: Information Security is prime focus for current computer data communications. Insecurity in data transmission has increased cybercrimes through hacking. This paper presents four different implementations of Blowfish algorithm and analyzed the performance of it with and without Wave Dynamic Differential Logic (WDDL) style to provide security against Differential Power Analysis (DPA) attack. It compares propagation delay (T_p) and frequency (F) of Blowfish, Modified Blowfish with and without WDDL logic [VBS09, VBS10]. Throughput [S+12, SSS11] of Blowfish (BF) with modified modulo adder and WDDL Logic implementation has 840 Mbps compared to 570 Mbps of that of BF with modulo adder [VD12, TN08] and WDDL logic implementation. This paper is implemented using ModelSim6.1d, Leonardo Spectrum8.1 and Xilinx webpack9.2i with Verilog Hardware Description language.
KEYWORDS: WDDL, SIC, BF and DPA.

I. INTRODUCTION

Plaintext is encrypted to produce cipher-text for data transmission through wired or wireless means. The cipher-text message contains all the information of the plaintext, but is not in a format readable by a human or computer without the proper mechanism to decrypt it. If key length is more, number of iterations is more, the possibility of hacking is less and vice versa. At the encryption we apply plaintext and key as inputs and it produces cipher-text. At the other end, cipher-text and key are the input to decryption and the result is the recovery of original plaintext as shown in the figure no.1. It is a symmetric key algorithm.

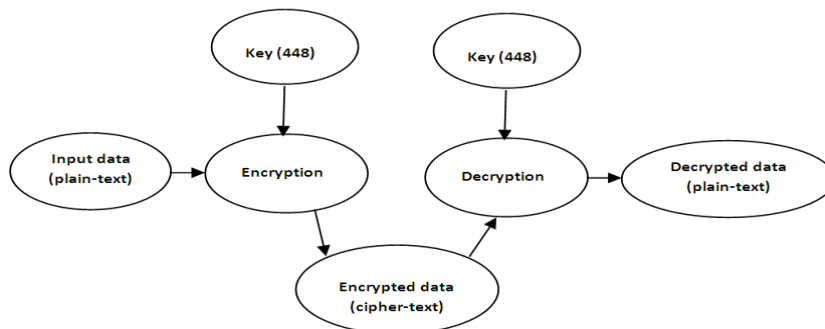


Figure 1: Process of Encryption and Decryption with symmetric Key

Analyzing Data Encryption Standard (DES), Triple DES, Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) and BF, BF algorithm is highly secured and yields high throughput (T_p) with large key size and its chosen as choice of cryptographic algorithm to implement secure ICs [TV04, TV06].

a. Wave Dynamic Differential Logic (WDDL)

WDDL logic is a constant power consumption logic which can overcome the DPA attack by the hacker. It consists of a parallel combination of two positive complementary gates, one calculating the true output using the true inputs, the other the false output using the false inputs. A positive gate produces a zero output for an all zero input. The AND gate and the OR gate are examples of positive gates. The AND gate fed with true input signals and the OR gate fed with false input signals are two dual gates [VBS10].

During the Precharge phase (clk-signal high), the normal and complemented outputs of the digital circuit produce equal outputs. Thus the differential power analysis results in zero differential power to not to allow the hacker to gain the information from the hardware integrated circuits. During evaluation phase (clk-signal low), it generates actual outputs as per logic with correct key.

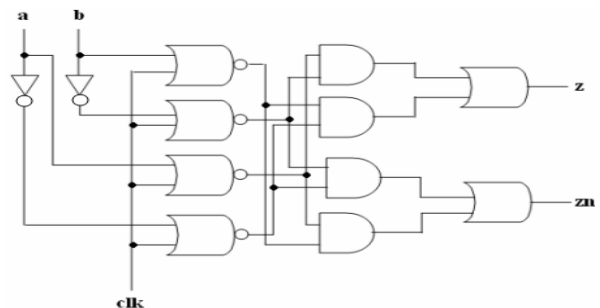


Figure 2: WDDL XOR GATE

In fig no.2, when clock is precharge mode (high), output is zero for both. When clock is evaluation mode (low), outputs are complemented and worked as XOR and XNOR.

b. Blowfish Algorithm

Blowfish is a 64-bit block cipher [AM12, PR12] is the replacement for DES (Data Encryption Standard). DES was the standard cryptographic algorithm for more than 19 years. It has a variable-length key block cipher of up to 448 bits. Although a complex initialization phase is required, the encryption of data is very efficient and highly secured. WDDL can be implemented for any logic design. Since the discussion moves around crypto processors, it would be wise to consider a cryptographic algorithm called Blowfish is a fast algorithm [S+12, VBS09].

II. ANALYSIS OF BLOWFISH ALGORITHM

Blowfish is a symmetric block cipher that encrypts and decrypts data in 8-byte (64-bit) blocks. The algorithm has two parts, key expansion and data encryption. Key expansion consists of generating the initial contents of one array (P-array), namely, eighteen 32-bit sub-keys, and four arrays (the S-boxes), each of size 256 by 32 bits, from a key of at most 448 bits (56 bytes). The data encryption and Decryption uses a 16-round Feistel Network as shown below in fig no.3 and fig no.4 [VBS09, VBS10] respectively.

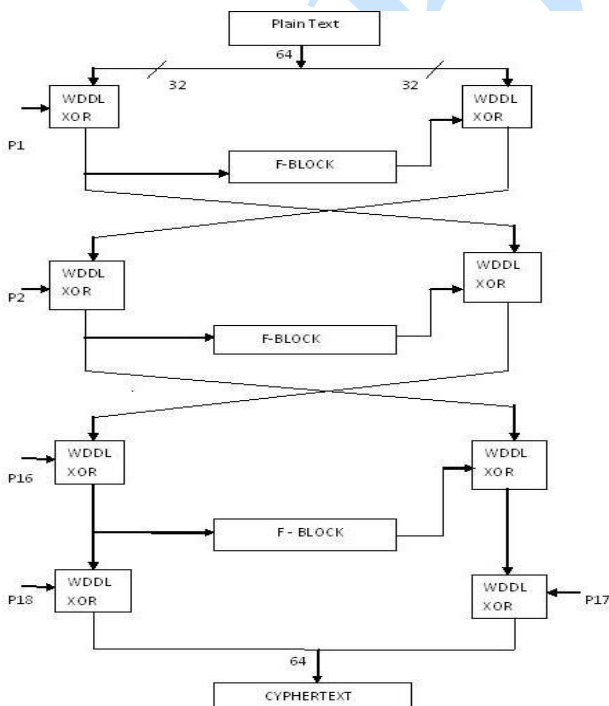


Figure 3: Blowfish Encryption

The encryption algorithm can be defined by the following pseudocode equation no.1:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{For } i = 1 \text{ to } 16 \text{ do} \\
 &\quad RE_i = LE_{i-1} \oplus P_i; \\
 &\quad LE_i = F [RE_i] \oplus RE_{i-1}; \\
 &LE_{17} = RE_{16} \oplus P_{18}; \\
 &RE_{17} = LE_{16} \oplus P_{17};
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{1}$$

The Decryption algorithm can be defined by the following pseudo code equation no.2:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{For } i = 1 \text{ to } 16 \text{ do} \\
 &\quad RD_i = LD_{i-1} \oplus P_i; \\
 &\quad LD_i = F [RD_i] \oplus RD_{i-1}; \\
 &LD_{17} = RD_{16} \oplus P_{17}; \\
 &RD_{17} = LD_{16} \oplus P_{18};
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{2}$$

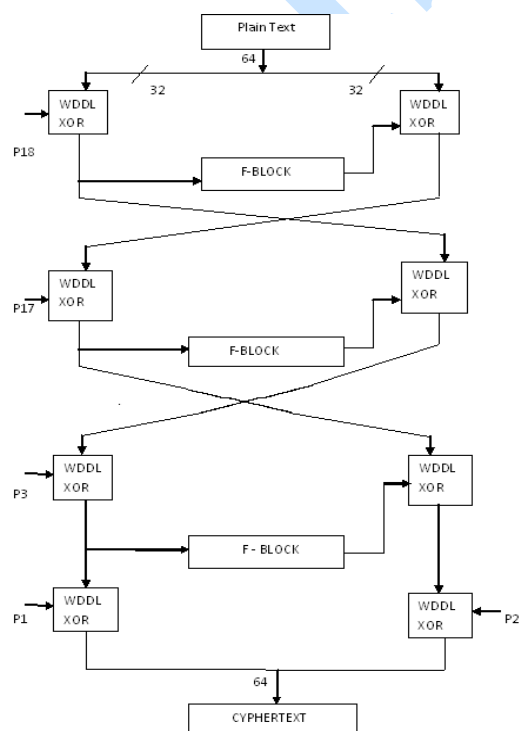


Figure 4: Blowfish Decryption

III. DESIGN OF BLOWFISH ALGORITHM

Encryption consists of sixteen rounds of operations. Each round-one operation consists of xor, 8-bit to 32-bit substitution, 32-bit modulo addition, xor, 32-bit modulo addition and swapping of result of Left Encryption (LE) to Right side and Right Encryption (RE) to left side of the data flow as shown in fig no.3. After performing 16 round-one operations right side output(31:0) xored with subkey p16 (31:0) and left hand side output (31:0) xored with subkey p17 (31:0) and then we get final cipher text(63:0). Decryption is same as that of encryption except we applied sub keys p0 to p17 in reverse order. Input data is the cipher text (output of encryption) and

then we get the output as Plaintext. Decryption consists of sixteen- round one operation. Each round-one operation consists of xor, 8-bit to 32-bit substitution, 32-bit modulo addition, xor, 32-bit modulo addition and swapping of result of Left Encryption (LE) to Right side and Right Encryption (RE) to left side of the data flow as shown in fig no.4. The input data ciphertext (63:0) performs 16 round-one operations with 16 subkeys (p17 to 2) and then after performing 16 round-one operations right side output (31:0) xored with subkey p1(31:0) and left hand side output (31:0) xored with subkey p0 (31:0) and then we get final plaintext. A crypto processor implementing Blowfish algorithm may be shown in fig no.5.

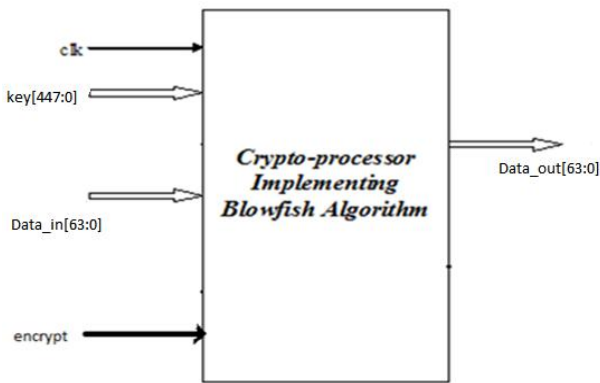


Figure 5: Top level module of Blowfish Crypto-processor

A. Substitution Boxes (S-boxes)

A substitution box (or S-box) is a basic component of symmetric key algorithm used to obscure the relationship between the plaintext and the cipher text. In general, an S-box takes some number of input bits, 8-bit, and transforms them into some number of output bits, 32-bit: an 8x32 S-box, implemented as a lookup table [1, 3, 8].

B. Feistel Function Block

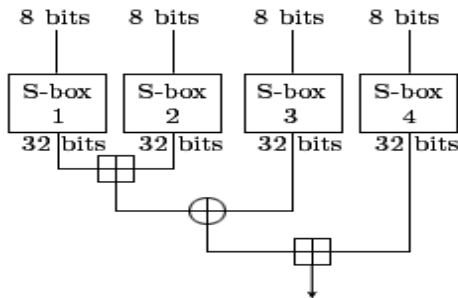


Figure 6: Function Block Internal Structure

Function ‘F’ is used to create ‘confusion’ to thwart cryptanalysis based on statistical analysis. ‘Confusion’ seeks to make the relationship between the statistics of the cipher text and the value of encryption key as complex as possible. One

advantage of this model is that the round function F does not have to be invertible, and can be very complex as shown in fig no.6 [AM12, S+12, VBS09].

C. Modulo 32-bit adder

To increase the speed of blowfish adders in this fig no.7 can be operated in parallel. one adder adds Two h-bit residues, X and Y to form their sum $S_1 + 2^h \text{Cout}_1$. Another one is 3-operand adder that computes “X+Y+m”. Note that if $m=2^n+1$, we have $h=n+1$. It has been reported that if either Cout1 or Cout2 of this addition is ‘1’ then the output is X+Y+m instead of X+Y. However, in the following we illustrate that only if the carry of “X+Y+m” is ‘1’, it is sufficient to select it as the final output [VD12, TN08].

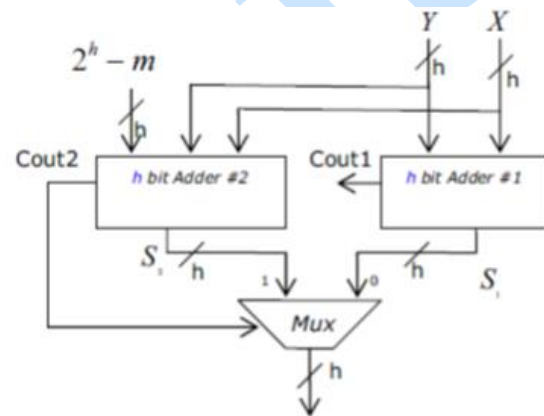


Figure 7: Modulo M-bit adder

D. Sub-key Generation Unit

The sub-key generation unit expands the given 448-bit key into 14 sub-keys and 4 more subkeys are internally generated, each of 32 bits, so that they can be used at different stages in the algorithm. The sub key generation process is designed to preserve the entire entropy of the key and to distribute that entropy uniformly throughout the sub keys. It is also designed to distribute the set of allowed sub keys randomly throughout the domain of possible sub keys. Then bit wise XOR of the P-array and K-array is performed reusing the words from K-array as needed shown in equation no.3:

$$P_1 = P_1 \wedge K \dots P_{14} = P_{14} \wedge K_{14}$$

$$P_{15} = P_{15} \wedge K_1 \dots P_{18} = P_{18} \wedge K_4 \tag{3}$$

The performance parameter throughput (TP) is defined as number of bits encrypted and decrypted per second.

$$TP = \frac{\text{Number of bits encrypted}}{\text{Propagation delay}} \tag{4}$$

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The encryption and decryption modules are integrated in the top level module to obtain the blowfish crypto-processor and the simulation and synthesis results are analyzed. Comparison is done for four forms i.e., Blowfish (BF), Modified Blowfish (MBF), Blowfish with WDDL (BFWDDL) and Modified Blowfish with WDDL (MBFWDDL) is given below in the table no.1 and the corresponding bar charts are shown in the fig no.8, 9 and 10 for performance parameters Et, Dt and Tt respectively.

Table 1: Comparison of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm for Et, Dt and Tt

SNo	Name of Crypt-algorithm	Performance parameters		
		Et(ns)	Dt(ns)	Tt(ns)
1	Blowfish	98.663	98.663	99.395
2	Modified Blowfish	70.08	70.08	71.067
3	Blowfish with WDDL	107.62	107.62	112.56
4	Modified Blowfish with WDDL	73.985	73.985	76.337

Et: Encrypt Time, Dt: Decrypt Time, Tt: Total Time

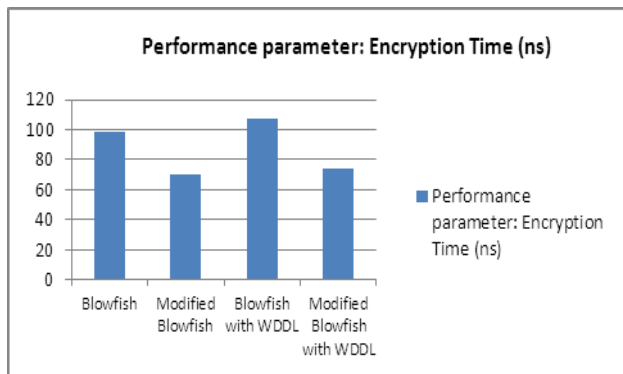


Figure 8: Bar Chart for Performance parameter Encryption Time of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm

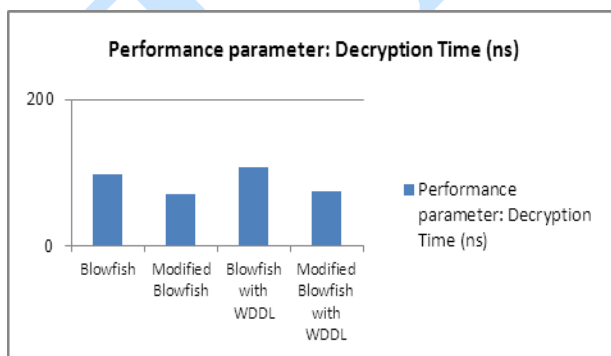


Figure 9: Bar Chart for Performance parameter Decryption Time of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm

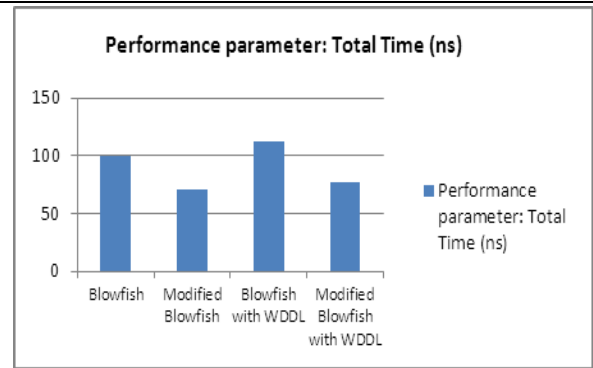


Figure 10: Bar Chart for Performance parameter Total Time (i.e., Propagation Delay) of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm

Blowfish Algorithm is implemented in four forms and compared its performance parameters which are given below in the table no.2 and the MBF with WDDL is yielded better results in terms of propagation delay (76.337ns) and throughput (840 Mbps) compared to that of BFWDDL with 112.56ns and 570 Mbps respectively. Analysis is done for blowfish with and without WDDL logic to secure the ICs against DPA attack by the hackers.

Table 2: Comparison of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm for propagation delay, frequency and Throughput

SNo	Name of Crypt-algorithm	Performance parameters		
		Tt(ns)	F (MHz)	TP (Mbps)
1	Blowfish	99.395	10.06	640
2	Modified Blowfish	71.067	14.07	900
3	Blowfish with WDDL	112.566	8.884	570
4	Modified Blowfish with WDDL	76.337	13.09	840

Tt: Propagation Delay, F; Frequency, TP: Throughput

Comparison is also shown below in the form of bar charts in fig no.11, 12 and 13 for performance parameters Tt, F and TP respectively.

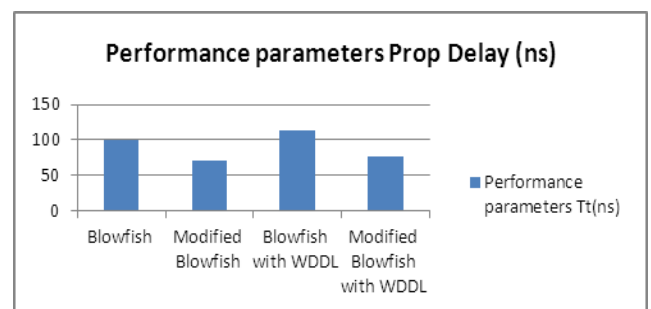


Figure 11: Bar Chart for Performance parameter propagation delay of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm

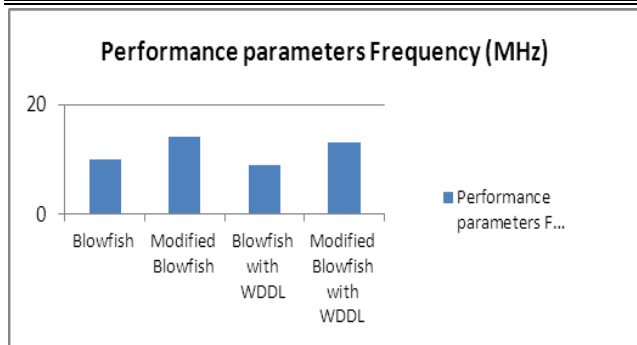


Figure 12: Bar Chart for Performance parameter Frequency of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm

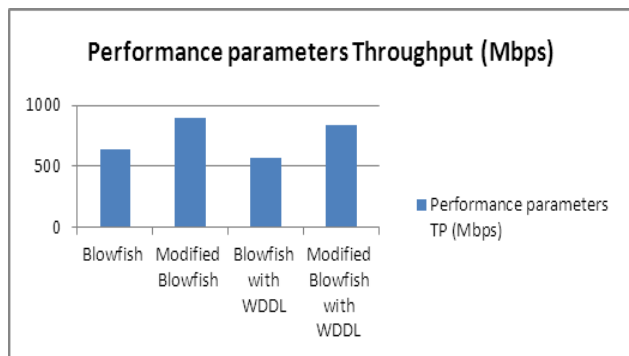


Figure 13: Bar Chart for Performance parameter Throughput of four implementations of Blowfish Algorithm

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, an implementation of Blowfish Algorithm is designed using WDDL Logic style. In the implementation bottom-up approach is used. The sub-keys generated for a particular key can be used for the encryption of the entire data to be encrypted with that key. The sub keys are given in reverse direction of the decryption data path without changing the design for decryption. The crypto processor has been designed for the key size of 448 bits and plain text of 64 bits. The code for the implementation has been written in Verilog HDL. The functional verification has been done using the ModelSim 6.1d simulation package. The synthesis of the design is done using the Xilinx Web Pack9.2i. Comparison with different implementations has been given in table no.1 and table no.2 and proved that Modified Blowfish and MBF with WDDL logic yielded the best results in delay, frequency and throughput compared to blowfish with and without WDDL logic respectively.

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Structural and Optical Studies of Pure and TICI Doped Poly (Vinyl Alcohol) Polymer Electrolyte Films

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Abstract— Poly (vinyl alcohol) (PVA) is a water-soluble amorphous/crystalline polymer that is widely used in protective coating, biomedical and optical materials, orbents and membranes. In the present investigation, an attempt has been made to characterize the polymer electrolytes based on Poly(vinyl alcohol) (PVA) complexed with thallium chloride(TICI) at different weight percentage ratio. Solid polymer electrolyte films based on poly(vinyl alcohol) complexed with TICI were prepared using solution cast technique. The structural properties of these films were examined by XRD. The XRD results show that the amorphous domains of PVA matrix increased in the composite films. In FTIR spectra, changes are noticed in the C-H stretching vibrational mode at 2900 cm^{-1} of PVA along with disappearance of few bands and the appearance of new bands. Morphological studies show that as the percentage of TICI concentration exceeds that of host concentration, the TICI gets aggregates on the surface of the film, increasing the surface roughness. The optical parameters including the energy band gaps (direct and indirect) and absorption edge are investigated. It is observed that direct and indirect band gaps (Direct band gap from 5.12-4.80 eV and indirect band gap from 4.82-4.67 eV) show a decreasing trend on complexing.

Keywords— Poly vinyl alcohol, thallium chloride, XRD, FTIR, SEM, Optical absorption, Absorption edge, Energy gap.

I. INTRODUCTION

Polymers have gained much experimental attention due to their unique properties, such as low density, ability to form intricate shapes, versatile electric properties and low manufacturing cost [1]. The physical properties of these polymer materials can be enhanced by incorporating filler into its matrix, because dispersed filler will improve various physical properties of the host polymer [2]. Poly (vinyl alcohol) (PVA) is a water-soluble amorphous/crystalline polymer that is widely used in protective coatings, biomedical and optical materials, orbents and membranes [3]. In the present investigation, an attempt has been made to characterize the polymer electrolytes based on Poly (vinyl alcohol) (PVA) complexed with thallium chloride (TICI) at different weight percentage ratio.

II. MATERIALS AND METHOD

Films of pure PVA and various compositions of complexed films of PVA with TICI salt were prepared in weight percent ratios (80:20), (60:40) and (40:60) by solution cast technique using double distilled water as solvent. The solution was stirred for 12hrs to get homogeneous mixture and then casted on polypropylene dishes and kept in hot air oven for 12hrs at a temperature of 40°C . The films thus formed were stored in desiccators. The XRD pattern of the films was recorded with a 'X' pert x-ray diffractometer at room temperature. The FITR spectra of these films were recorded using Bruker tensor-27 spectrometer with a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} . The measurements were taken over a wave number range $400\text{-}4000\text{ cm}^{-1}$. The surface morphology of these polymer electrolyte films have been observed using JEOL JSM 840A scanning electron microscope. The optical absorption spectra of the present samples were recorded at room temperature using Shimadzu UV-VIS-NIR in the wavelength range $300\text{-}900\text{nm}$ with a spectral width of 3nm .

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. XRD Analysis

The X-ray diffraction pattern of pure PVA, TICI salt and PVA complexed with TICI are shown in Fig.1. The XRD pattern of pure PVA reveal that a broad peak is appearing at scattering angle $19^\circ < 2\theta < 20^\circ$, corresponding to a 'd' spacing of 0.457 nm. The pure PVA characteristic peak becomes less intense as the TICI content in the composite is increased. This could be due to disruption of PVA crystalline structure by TICI. The diffraction peaks associated with PVA has disappeared in 80:20 composite and reappeared again when TICI present is increased in PVA films. This shows a decrease in the degree of crystallinity of the polymer after the addition of higher concentrations of TICI. The increase in the composition of TICI in PVA, results in increase in the amorphous nature of the composite films. Higher and broader peaks are obtained in the case of 60:40 compositions indicating greater accumulation of atoms at lattice sites, creating greater lattice distortion.

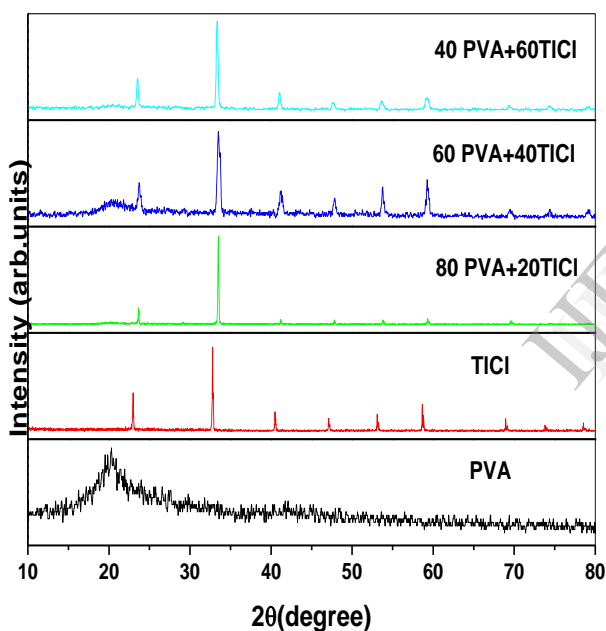


Fig. 1: XRD pattern of Pure PVA and PVA/TICI films.

B. FTIR

The FTIR spectra for pure PVA, TICI and PVA : TICI composites of different compositions are shown in the fig2. The following changes in the spectral features have been observed after comparing the spectrum of PVA : TICI composites. Changes are noticed in the C-H stretching vibrational mode at 2900 cm^{-1} of PVA along with disappearance of few bands and the appearance of new bands. The inter molecular hydrogen bonded O-H stretching frequency of PVA appearing in the range of 3590 cm^{-1} is shifted to 3507 cm^{-1} . In PVA : TICI (60:40) composition and at higher compositions of PVA : TICI (40:60), this band

appears at 3175 cm^{-1} . The C-H bonding of CH_2 in pure PVA exhibits absorption at 1474 cm^{-1} and is shifted to 1418 cm^{-1} and 1439 cm^{-1} in (80:20) and (40:60) compositions respectively.

C. SEM

Fig 3 (a,b,c) shows the SEM pictures of the surface of PVA : TICI(80:20); PVA : TICI (60:40)and PVA : TICI (40:60) films of different magnification respectively. These pictures show not many aggregates on the surface of the films. The increase in degree of roughness with increased TICI concentration, indicates, the presence of the dopant which is completely complexed with the polymer. As the percentage of TICI exceeds that of the host concentration the TICI gets aggregates on the surface of the film increasing the surface roughness.

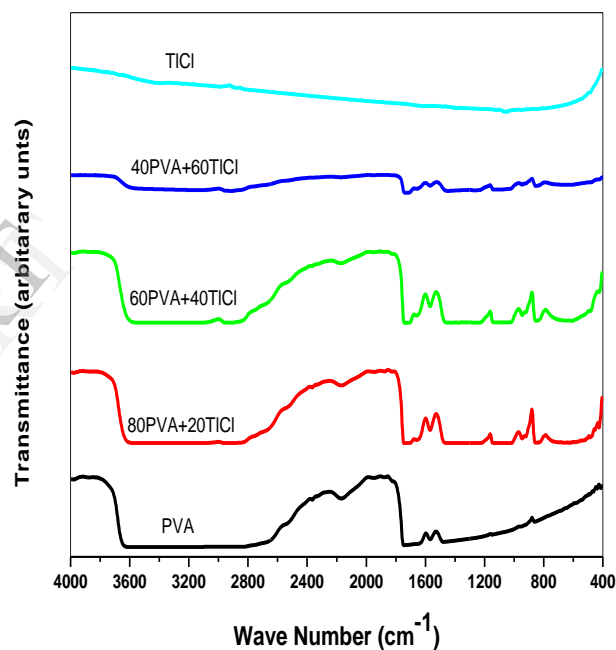


Fig. 2: FTIR spectra of Pure PVA, TICI salt and PVA/ TICI polymer films.

D. Optical Absorption Studies

The optical absorption (OA) studies are very interesting because it provides important information about the absorbance, transmittance and reflectance of the observed polymeric films [4]. The optical absorption and especially the absorption edge presents a useful method for the investigating optically induced transitions and for getting information about the band structure, the band tail and energy gap of the polymeric materials under consideration [5]. By studying the optical absorption spectrum, one can clearly identify its band structure [6-8]. The absorption coefficient $\alpha(\nu)$ can be estimated from the optical absorption spectrum from the following equation [9].

$$\alpha(\nu) = 2.303 \times A/d \quad \dots\dots(1)$$

where 'd' is the film thickness in cm and 'A' is defined by $\log(I/I_0)$ where I_0 and I are the intensities of the incident and

transmitted beams respectively.

Regarding the optical transitions resulting from photons of energy $h\nu > E_{opt}$, the present optical data is studied according to the following relationship for near edge optical absorption [10].

$$\alpha(\nu)h\nu = B (h\nu - E_{opt})^r \quad \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

where ‘ α ’ is the absorption coefficient, ν is the frequency, B is the constant, h is the Planck’s constant, E_{opt} is the optical energy band gap between the valence and conduction bands and r is the power that characterizes the transition process. Here ‘r’ takes the values of 1/2, 3/2, 2 and 3 for transitions designated as direct allowed, direct forbidden, indirect allowed and indirect forbidden respectively⁵. The determination of the

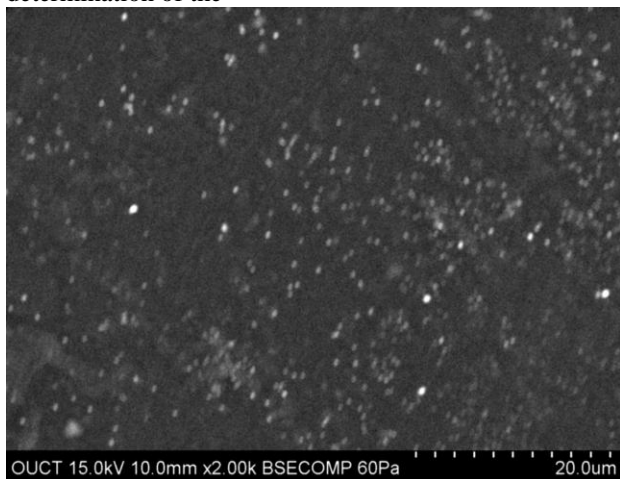


Fig 3 (a): SEM picture of PVA/TiCl (80:20)

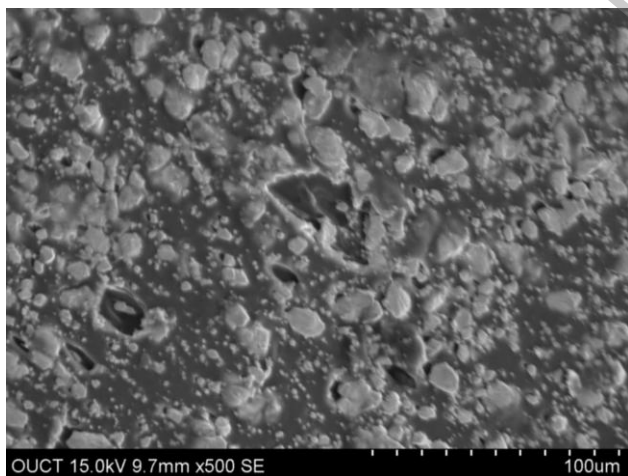


Fig 3 (b): SEM picture of PVA/TiCl (60:40)

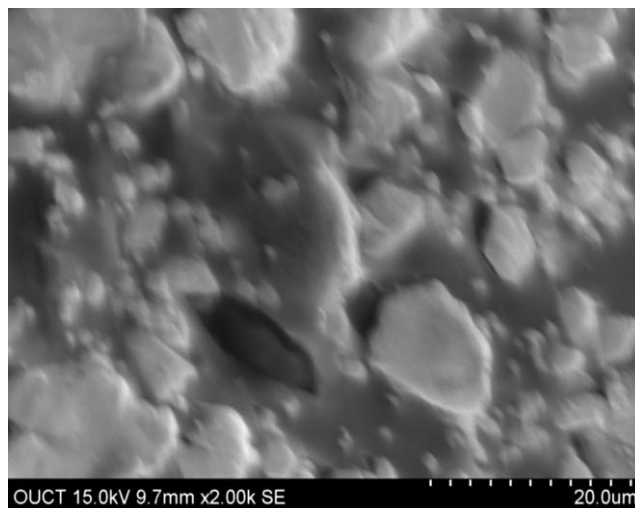


Fig 3(c): SEM picture of PVA/TiCl (40:60)

value of the optical energy band gap E_{opt} is done by plotting $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/r}$ against $h\nu$.

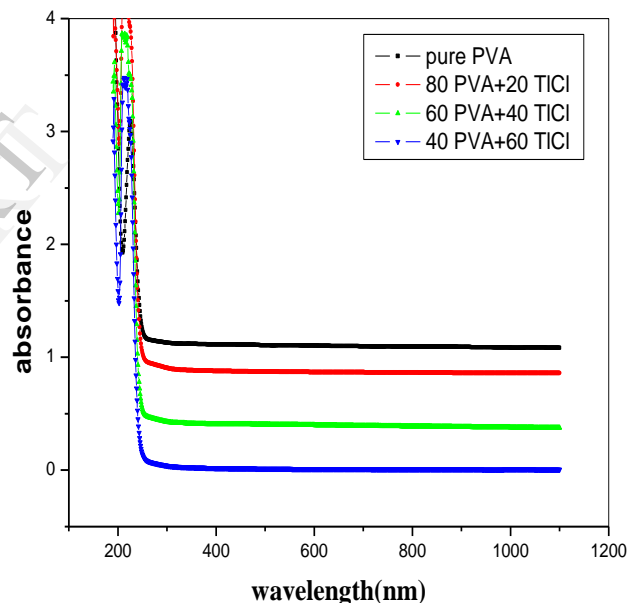
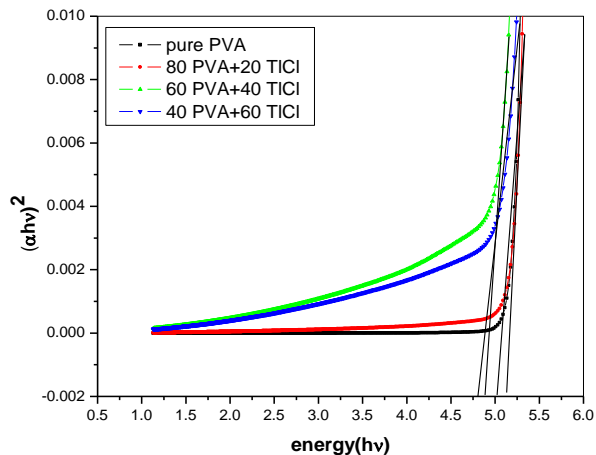
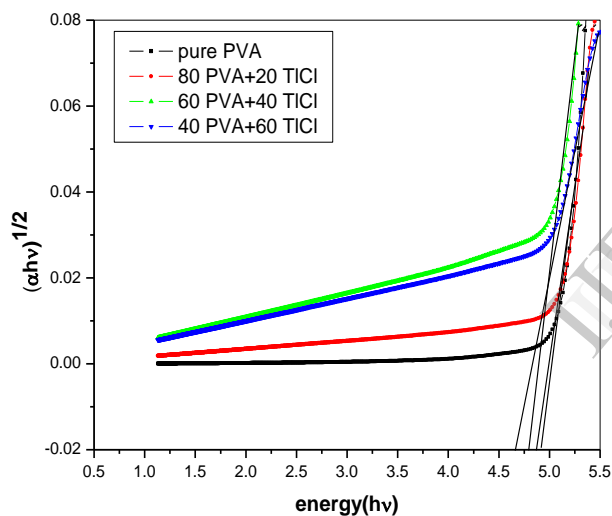


Fig. 4: OA spectra of Pure and TiCl complexed PVA films

The OA spectrum of pure PVA, PVA complexed with different concentrations of TiCl are shown in fig.4. The OA spectrum of pure PVA is characterized by an absorption peak at wavelength 283nm as well as unresolved shoulder at 330nm. No absorption peaks are noticed at higher wavelengths. The absorption peak at 283nm can be attributed to the absorption by simple carbonyl groups along the polymer chains. On the other hand shoulder can be assigned to the appearance of the $-\text{CO}-(\text{CH}=\text{CH})_3$ -groups (5).

Fig. 5(a): Plot of $(\alpha hv)^2$ versus photon energy (hv) for PVA:TICIFig. 5(b): $(\alpha hv)^{1/2}$ versus photon energy (hv) for PVA:TICI

The addition of TICI to PVA matrix shows no substantial change in 283 nm peak but the shoulder which appeared in pure PVA has disappeared on addition of TICI. There is a decrease in UV absorption in the case of PVA/TICI films. The fundamental band edge, both direct and indirect transitions can be observed by plotting $(\alpha hv)^2$ and $(\alpha hv)^{1/2}$ versus photon energy hv. These plots are shown in fig 5. These plots present experimental data near the absorption edge and give a linear fit in the high energy range. The intercept on the energy axis on extrapolating the linear portion of the curves to zero absorption value may be interpreted as the value of band gap. The values of experimental band gaps of pure PVA and PVA complexed with TICI are listed in table 1.

TABLE 1: Absorption edge and Band Gap for PVA films complexed with TICI.

Polymer		Absorption edge (eV)	Band gap (eV)	
			Direct	Indirect
PVA	-	5.02 (247 nm)	5.12	4.82
PVA: TICI	90:10	4.94 (251 nm)	5.02	4.79
	80:20	4.77 (260 nm)	4.85	4.71
	70:30	4.65 (267 nm)	4.80	4.67

It is clearly evident from the table that both the direct and indirect band gap show decreasing trend on complexing. The decrease in optical band gap energies with increase in the TICI concentrations respectively explains the fact that the addition of TICI increases the disorder of these films. The increase in the degree of the disorder causes the band tail to increase. The decrease in band gap on increasing the TICI content in PVA matrix also indicates that there are charge transfer complexes which arise between the PVA and TICI molecule.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The complexation of the salt with polymer is confirmed by XRD and FTIR studies. The morphological studies of pure PVA and (PVA:TICI) polymer electrolyte at different weight percentage is done using SEM. The optical band gap is evaluated and its dependence on filling was investigated. The decreasing trend of the optical band gap with increase in TICI concentration is attributed to the charge transfer complexes.

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An Intelligent Way to Generate and Track Traffic Challans with the Power of ML and IoT

Journal: GRENZE International Journal of Engineering and Technology
Authors: Unnati Khanapurkar, B Sowjanya, Sandeep Ravikanti
Volume: 4 **Issue:** 3
Grenze ID: 01.GIJET.4.3.15 **Pages:** 70-75

Abstract

Nowadays due to growing population the use of vehicles on roads has been increased randomly. Due to fast moving life violating traffic rules has become common. This paper presents an idea of automation of detecting helmet and car seat belt using machine learning with image processing and internet of things (IOT). The proposed approach first classifies the different objects passing through the junction using surveillance cameras and then verifies whether the biker is wearing helmet or the car driver is wearing seat belt or not. Based on the result the message regarding fine will be sent to the concerned object rider registered mobile number. In addition the proposed paper also classifies the different types of car number plates to have a record with RTO about the number of cars.

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GIJET



TITLE:

GRENZE International Journal of Engineering and Technology

EDITOR IN CHIEF:

Dr. Janahanlal Stephen (Matha College of Technology, India)

ISSN:

2395-5295(Online); 2395-5287(Print)

FREQUENCY:

Twice Yearly

ASSOCIATED PUBLISHER:

GRENZE

RELATED SUBJECTS:

Computer Science & Engineering, Electrical & Electronics Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Civil Engineering

RESEARCH GROUP:

GRENZE Engineering Group

INDEXING:

OFFICIAL WEBSITE:

<http://gijet.thegrenze.com/>

Research Article

Determination of the Solidification Time of Al-7%Si Alloy during Centrifugal Casting

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Accepted 10 January 2014, Available online 01 February 2014, **Special Issue-2, (February 2014)**

Abstract

The present work deals with an experimental and a theoretical investigation to determine the solidification time of cast components produced by centrifugal casting methods with different speeds. Al-7% Si alloy is considered in the present investigation at different pouring temperatures and rotational speeds. Solidification times are measured and a suitable mathematical formulation to estimate the freezing time is proposed. In the present work a horizontal axis centrifugal casting is studied both experimentally and numerically. Polar coordinate system is considered during the analysis and numerical investigation. Temperature dependent properties of aluminium alloy are taken into consideration for estimation of the solidification time. Radiative heat transfer from the outer surface of rotating cast iron mould is also taken into account along with convective heat transfer. The results are presented in both tabular and graphical form and comparisons made.

Keywords: Al-Si Alloy, Centrifugal Casting, Solidification Time.

1. Introduction

Centrifugal casting is extensively used for many applications of components made out of Aluminum alloys. The products made by centrifugal casting have better integrity than the components made by permanent mould Casting Process. A casting machine rotates the mould about a horizontal axis. Al-Si alloy at about 720°C and 780°C is fed into the mould through a pouring spout. As the liquid Al-Si alloy comes into contact with the mould it is spread centrifugally over the surface and then freezes. During this time heat is conducted between the outside surface of the mould and hot Al-Si alloy as shown in pro E-model and linear diagram in fig 1 and fig 2.

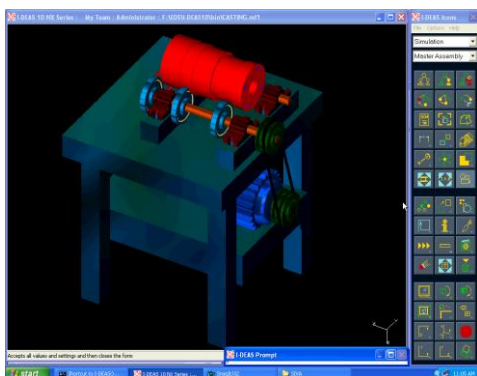


Fig 1: Horizontal Centrifugal Casting Pro-E Model

The internal surfaces of the metal moulds used in horizontal centrifugal casting are usually coated with a thin layer of insulating material before they come in contact with poured liquid metal. In this study analysis was made on Al-Si (4450 of IS 617:1975) for the radial temperature distribution with in the mould and molten method are utilized in estimating the solidification time. The solidification time behavior of a tubular part for centrifugal casting is influenced by various parameters like nature of the alloy, shape and size of the casting and thermo-physical properties of metal and mould. (Roshan *et.al* 1974), (Bahadoriet.al 1971)

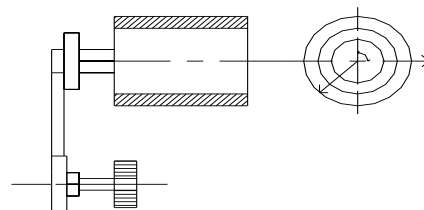


Fig: 2 Graphical diagram Horizontal Centrifugal Casting

The numerical simulation of this process is challenging, no description of its numerical simulation was found in literature. Some papers describe the less complex vertical centrifugal casting process (Kaschinitz *et.al*, 2012). Though an exhaustive literature survey it is understood that very little work was carried on the estimating of freezing time on centrifugal casting of Aluminum alloys. There are several theoretical and experimental

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investigations that involve the determination of the solidification time of aluminum alloys in casting area. Some of the important contributions in this area have been presented here to give the current state of ar (Jeziarski.J et.al 1970) (Lazardis.A et al1970).

A numerical solution is obtained for the solidification of a steel casting in a thermally insulated mould. The effect of the rate of metal pouring on the motion of the solidification interface is investigated. An experimental and numerical model on the time varying heat transfer coefficient h(t) between a tube-shaped casting and metal moulds. One-dimensional treatment was adopted in analyzing the heat flows between the casting and the inner and the outer mould (Tae-Gyu Kim et.al 1997) (Minosyan Ya P et.al 1983)

2. Experimental Investigations

A mathematical model for a Horizontal Centrifugal Casting for 4450 (Al-6.5-7.5%Si) alloy has been developed using a polar co-ordinate system. The average properties of the material are taken in the appropriate temperature range. Specific heat, density and thermal conductivity values are averaged for solid and molten metals. The radial temperature distribution with in the mould and molten metal are utilized in estimating the freezing time. In the estimation of heat transfer conduction in polar coordinate system, average values of air temperature are assumed to be about 35°C which represents a typical foundry environment. A program has been developed that can take a variety of casting conditions normally prevalent in foundry practice. The output from the program that runs iteratively gives typical freezing time based on specific inputs. The mathematical formulation for a general situation is given in the following sections. The casting conditions along with the assumptions made while preparing the code are clearly stated as and when necessary. Variable temperature dependant properties like thermal conductivity, specific heat and density are appropriately taken into consideration. The program can be run for various input conditions. Change of these input conditions can be made easily through modifying the input data file. The numerical code automatically opens a file and the data generated will be stored in it, when the program terminates.

3. Mathematical Formulation

The governing equation for heat conduction in the radial direction in cylindrical polar coordinates is:

$$\rho C_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\lambda r \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} \right) \tag{1}$$

This equation can be applied to the mould material. In the effective specific heat methods, the same equation is applied to the liquid and solid parts of the metal also with the appropriate values of the density, specific heat and thermal conductivity, with the solid and liquid parts distinguished based on the temperature. In the mushy zone of an alloy, between the solidus and liquids

temperatures, the density, specific heat and thermal conductivity are approximated as follows:

$$\rho = \frac{\rho_s + \rho_l}{2}; \quad C_p = \frac{\Delta h_{sl}}{2\Delta T} + \frac{C_{ps} + C_{pl}}{2}; \quad \rho = \frac{\lambda_s + \lambda_l}{2} \tag{2}$$

where ρh_{sl} is the latent heat of solidification and ρt is one-half of the mushy zone temperature width. For pure metal solidification, ρT is prescribed to be a very small quantities, say 0.5°C.

At the linear surface of the metal at $r = R_3$, the heat loss to the rotating mass of air will be very small and hence can be neglected. Accordingly, the boundary condition is $\partial T / \partial r = 0$ at $r = R_3$.

At the outer surface of the mould, the boundary conditions is $-\rho_m \partial T / \partial r = \rho(T - T_{amb})$, where T_{amb} is the ambient air temperature assumed here to be 35°C.

The heat transfer coefficient ρ is the sum of a mixed convection part ρ_{mc} and a radiation part ρ_r .

The quantity ρ_{mc} is calculated using the Dropkin-Carmi relation $Nu = 0.019(Re^2 + Gr)^{0.35}$. In this equation, the Reynolds number Re is $D_4^2 \rho / \rho_{air}$ where $D_4 = 2R_4$ is the mould outer diameter, $\rho = (2\rho/N)/60$ is the angular speed of casting and ρ_{air} is the kinematic viscosity of air. The Nusselt number is defined as $\rho_{mc} D_4 / \rho_{air}$. The Grashoff number is defined as $Gr = g \rho_{air} (T_{m,o} - T_{amb}) D_4^3 / \rho_{air}^2$. The properties are to be calculated at the mean temperature between $T_{m,o}$ and T_{amb} . Thus, they are to be calculated often as $T_{m,o}$ will be changing. The quantity ρ_r is given by $\rho \rho (T_{m,o} + 273.15)^4 - (T_{ss} + 273.15)^4 / (T_{m,o} - T_{ss})$, where T_{ss} is the temperature of the surrounding surfaces in °C. However, T_{ss} is assumed to be the same as T_{amb} for simplicity. The emissivity ρ of the mould outer surface is taken as 0.8. In the range of speeds 900-1440 rpm, the Reynolds number Re will be typically 70000-112000 and the Grashoff number Gr will be 2.5×10^7 . The mixed convection heat transfer coefficient will be typically 70 W/(m².°C), the radiation heat transfer coefficient will be 40 W/(m².C) and the total heat transfer coefficient will be about 100 W/(m².C). Note that radiation contributes to about 35% of the total heat transfer coefficient. Hence, radiation is not negligible.

At the interface between the metal and mould the heat flux continuity, namely, $-\rho \partial T_s / \partial r = -\rho_m \partial T_m / \partial r$, is applied, where the subscript m refers to mould and s refers to solid metal.

4. Numerical Formulation

The governing equation is discretised to yield:

$$\rho_i^{n+1,m} C_{p,i}^{n+1,m} \frac{T_i^{n+1,m+1} - T_i^N}{\Delta t} - \rho \frac{2}{r_i(\Delta r_{i-1} + \Delta r_i)} \left[\frac{\rho_i^{n+1,m} r_i}{r_{i+1/2}} \frac{T_{i+1}^{n+1,m+1} - T_i^{n+1,m+1}}{\Delta r_i} - \frac{\rho_i^{n+1,m} r_i}{r_{i-1/2}} \frac{T_i^{n+1,m+1} - T_{i-1}^{n+1,m+1}}{\Delta r_{i-1}} \right] \tag{3}$$

The above discretised equation can be written as:

$$A_i T_{i-1}^{n+1,m+1} + B_i T_i^{n+1,m+1} + C_i T_{i+1}^{n+1,m+1} = D_i \tag{4}$$

Where for $i=2$ to il (last grid point):

$$A_i = -q.p_1; B_i = 1 + q(p_1 + p_2); C_i = -q.p_2; D_i = T_i^n;$$

$$q = \frac{\Delta t}{0.5 \rho_i^{n+1,m} C_{p,i}^{n+1,m} r_i (\Delta r_{i-1} + \Delta r_i)};$$

$$p_1 = \frac{0.5(\lambda_{i-1}^{n+1,m} + \lambda_i^{n+1,m})0.5(r_{i-1} + r_i)}{\Delta r_{i-1}}$$

$$p_2 = \frac{0.5(\lambda_i^{n+1,m} + \lambda_{i+1}^{n+1,m})0.5(r_i + r_{i+1})}{\Delta r_i} \tag{5}$$

At I = 1, i.e., the metal inner radius:

$$A_i = 0; \quad B_i = 1.0; \quad C_i = -1.0. \tag{6}$$

At i = ii], i.e., the metal-mould interface radius;

$$A_i = -\rho_s \cdot \rho r_{ii}];$$

$$B_i = \rho_s \cdot \rho r_{ii}] + \rho_m \cdot \rho r_{ii}]-1;$$

$$C_i = \rho_m \cdot \rho r_{ii}]-1;$$

$$D_i = 0 \tag{7}$$

At I = il, i.e., the mould outer interface radius:

$$A_i = -1.0;$$

$$B_i = \left(1 + \frac{\alpha \cdot \Delta r_{il-1}}{\lambda_m}\right)$$

$$C_i = 0;$$

$$D_i = \frac{\alpha \cdot \Delta r_{il-1}}{\lambda_m} \cdot T_{amb}. \tag{8}$$

The quantity ρr_i is defined as $r_{i+1} - r_i$. Here $n+1$ is the new time step and $m+1$ is the new iteration at the same time step. Sufficient number of iterations (ten) are performed at every time step for proper evaluation of the properties and non-linear boundary condition involving radiation and mixed convection. At every iteration of a time step the solution is obtained using the tridiagonal matrix algorithm. The initial temperature of the mould is assumed to be 35°C and the initial temperature of the melt is as prescribed. The solidification time is the time when the inner surface temperature of metal falls just below the solidus temperature.

5. Results and Discussion

A suitable mathematical model for a Horizontal Centrifugal Casting of 4450 (Al-6.5-7.5% Si) alloy has been developed. A detailed computer programme is written in FORTRAN 77 in cylindrical polar coordinates.

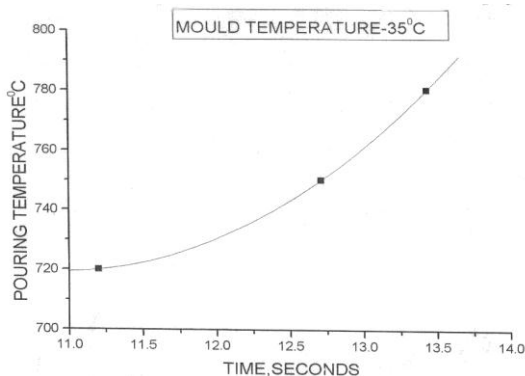


Fig. 3 shows pouring temperature Vs Time (Sec) at 35° C mould temperature

A number of numerical experiments were conducted using the developed code in a wide range of parameters and for three pouring temperatures and two different speeds. The pouring temperatures were taken as 720°C, 750°C and 780° C respectively. The two speeds at which the molten metal was poured are 900 and 1440 rpm. In the present

study, cylindrical shell Horizontal Centrifugal Casting mould having an internal diameter of 50.88 mm and a wall thickness 36 mm is considered. Parameters chosen in a wide range cover the large variations in thermal properties of mould material and cast material the convective heat transfer coefficient and radiative heat transfer coefficient. The results of the numerical solution were presented in the preceding sections. A graphical representation of variation in the freezing time as a function of pouring temperature is shown in Fig.3, Fig.4, and Fig5.

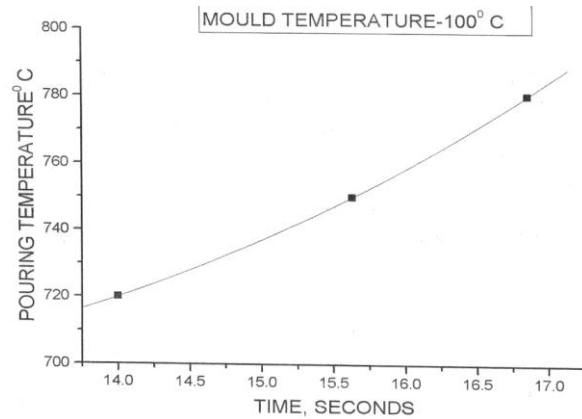


Fig. 4. Shows pouring temperature Vs Time (Sec) at 100°C mould temperature

Normally centrifugal casting process is a continuous process wherein the mould temperature will not be at room temperature. It is expected that the mould temperature will be around 100°C which would increase the freezing time considerably. The solidification time typically is of the order of 15 seconds. When the mould reaches the working temperature.

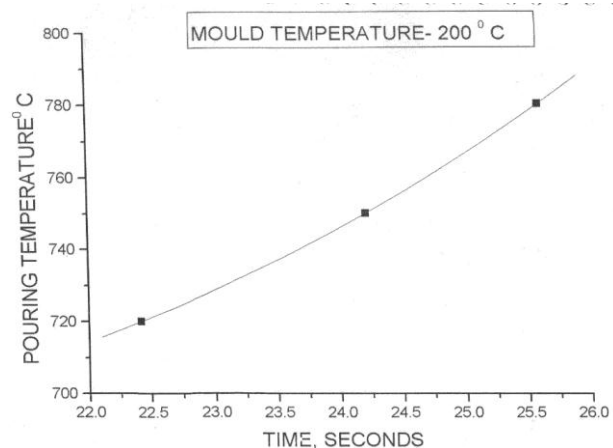


Fig. 5 Shows pouring temperature Vs Time (Sec) at 200° C mould temperature

The time temperature variation in the mould wall and solidification time for horizontal centrifugal casting of 4450 Al-7% Si Alloy were arrived at

- When the pouring temperature is at 720°C and the mould temperature is 35°C the freezing time is less i.e., at the solidus point. Whereas when the pouring temperature is increased to 780°C and the mould

temperature is 35°C there is a obvious rise in the solidification time.

- When the mould temperature is at 35°C and the pouring temperature is 720°C. the freezing time is 11.2 seconds at the solidus point. When the mould temperature is increased to 100°C while the pouring temperature is maintained at 720°C the freezing time increases to 15 seconds. Similarly when the mould temperature reaches 200°C for the pouring temperature of 720°C the freezing time further increases to 22.42 seconds.
- It has been observed that there is no rise in the solidification time when the rotation speed of the mould increases from 900 rpm to 1440 rpm.
- There is a good agreement between the numerical results and the experimentally observed values.
- The rate of heat extracted at any instant of time will be less in thin walled moulds than in thick walled moulds due to the heat capacity associated with the mould materials.
- The freezing time is found to be independent of the rotational speed of the Mould in the range considered in the present investigation.
- As the rotational speed of the mould increases the convective heat transfer coefficient on the External surface also increases, because the Reynolds number increases. As a consequence the cooling rates increases as a function of Reynolds number. This results in the reduced solidification time of the Molten Metal. The speed of the Mould as such will not have a great influence on the freezing time for the reason that the density of the molten metal does not change considerably. There may be a perceivable change in the freezing time at very high speeds such that the centrifugal force causes a change in the density of the molten metal. As these speeds are beyond the scope of present investigations the data is insufficient to make a firm conclusion in this regard.

6. Conclusions

Heat transfer analysis is carried out through FORTRAN programme indicated that

1. With increase in the preheat temperature of the die cast mould the thickness of the solidification layer is get reduced while preheating is desirable to remove the hot cracking tendency of the alloy. The same is not desirable from the mechanical strength point of view.
2. Freezing time of molten metal in centrifugal casting is a strong function of mould temperature as well as the pouring temperature.
3. The freezing time is completely independent of the rotational speed of the mould in the range considered in the present investigation.
4. The predictive capabilities of the numerical code developed for the present work is established by comparing numerical results with that of experimental values.

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A NEAR-DUPLICATE DETECTION ALGORITHM TO FACILITATE DOCUMENT CLUSTERING

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ABSTRACT

Web Mining faces huge problems due to Duplicate and Near Duplicate Web pages. Detecting Near Duplicates is very difficult in large collection of data like "internet". The presence of these web pages plays an important role in the performance degradation while integrating data from heterogeneous sources. These pages either increase the index storage space or increase the serving costs. Detecting these pages has many potential applications for example may indicate plagiarism or copyright infringement. This paper concerns detecting, and optionally removing duplicate and near duplicate documents which are used to perform clustering of documents. We demonstrated our approach in web news articles domain. The experimental results show that our algorithm outperforms in terms of similarity measures. The near duplicate and duplicate document identification has resulted reduced memory in repositories.

KEYWORDS

Web Content Mining, Information Retrieval, document clustering, duplicate, near-duplicate detection, similarity, web documents

1. INTRODUCTION

The WWW is a popular and interactive medium to disseminate information today. Holocene epoch has detected the enormous emergence of Internet document in the World Wide Web. The Web is huge, diverse, and dynamic and thus raises the scalability, multimedia data, and temporal issues respectively. Due to these situations, we are currently drowning in information and facing information overload [1]. In addition to this, the presence of duplicate and near duplicate web documents has created an additional overhead for the search engines critically affecting their performance [2]. The demand for integrating data from heterogeneous sources leads to the problem of near duplicate web pages. Near duplicate data bear high similarity to each other, yet they are not bitwise identical [3] [4] but strikingly similar. They are pages with minute differences and are not regarded as exactly similar pages. Two documents that are identical in content but differ in small portion of the document such as advertisement, counters and timestamps. These differences are irrelevant for web search. So if a newly-crawled page Pduplicate is deemed a near-duplicate of an already-crawled page P, the crawl engine should ignore Pduplicate and its entire out-going links (intuition suggests that these are probably near-duplicates of pages reachable from P) [4, 35]. Near Duplicate web pages from different mirrored sites may only differ in the header or footnote zones that denote the site URL and update time [5].

Duplicates and Near Duplicate Web pages are creating large problems for web search engines like they increase the space needed to store the index, either slow down or increase the COST of saving results and annoy the users [34]. Elimination of near-duplicates saves network bandwidth, reduces storage costs and improves the quality of search indexes. It also reduces the load on the remote host that is serving such web pages [10].

The determination of the near duplicate web pages [28-29] [21] aids the focused crawling, enhanced quality and diversity of the query results and identification on spam. The near duplicate and duplicate web page identification helps in Web mining applications for instance, community mining in a social network site [20], plagiarism detection [24], document clustering [29], collaborative filtering [30], detection of replicated web collections [31] and discovering large dense graphs [34]. NDD removal is required in Data Cleaning, Data integration, Digital libraries and electronic published collections of news archives. So in this paper, we propose a novel idea for finding near duplicate web pages from a huge repository.

2. RELATED WORK

The proposed research has been motivated by numerous existing works on and near duplicate documents detection. Duplicate and near-duplicate web pages are creating large problems for web search engines: they increase the space needed to store the index, either slow down or increase the cost of serving results, and annoy the users. This requires the creation of efficient algorithms for computing clusters of duplicates [4, 6, 7, 16, 21, 22, 29, 30]. The first algorithms for detecting near-duplicate documents with a reduced number of comparisons were proposed by Manber [25] and Heintze [17]. Both algorithms work on sequences of adjacent characters. Brin [40] started to use word sequences to detect copyright violations. Shiva Kumar and Garcia-Molina [31] continued this research and focused on scaling it up to multi-gigabyte databases. Broder et al [5] defined two concepts resemblance and containment to measure the similarity of degree of two documents. He used word sequences to efficiently find near-duplicate web pages.

The dimensionality reduction technique proposed by Charikar's Simhash [34] is to identify near duplicate documents which maps high dimensional vectors to small-sized fingerprints. They developed an approach based on random projections of the words in a document. Henzinger [9] compared Broder et al.'s [7] shingling algorithm and Charikar's [34] random projection based approach on a very large scale, specifically on a set of 1.6B distinct web pages.

In the syntactical approach we define binary attributes that correspond to each fixed length substring of words (or characters). These substrings are a framework for near-duplicate detection called shingles. We can say that a shingle is a sequence of words. A shingle has two parameters: the length and the offset. The length of the shingle is the number of the words in a shingle and the offset is the distance between the beginnings of the shingles. We assign a hash code to each shingle, so equal shingles have the same hash code and it is improbable that different shingles would have the same hash codes (this depends on the hashing algorithm we use). After this we randomly choose a subset of shingles for a concise image of the document [6, 8, and 9]. M. Henzinger [32] uses like this approach AltaVista search engine. There are several methods for selecting the shingles for the image: a fixed number of shingles, a logarithmic number of shingles, a linear number of shingle (every nth shingle), etc. In lexical methods, representative words are chosen according to their significance. Usually these values are based on frequencies. Those words whose frequencies are in an interval (except for stop- words from a special list of

about 30 stop-words with articles, prepositions and pronouns) are taken. The words with high frequency can be non informative and words with low frequencies can be misprints or occasional words.

In lexical methods, like I-Match [11], a large text corpus is used for generating the lexicon. The words that appear in the lexicon represent the document. When the lexicon is generated the words with the lowest and highest frequencies are deleted. I-Match generates a signature and a hash code of the document. If two documents get the same hash code it is likely that the similarity measures of these documents are equal as well. I-Match is sometimes instable to changes in texts [22]. Jun Fan et al. [16] introduced the idea of fusing algorithms (shingling, I-Match, simhash) and presented the experiments. The random lexicons based multi fingerprints generations are imported into shingling based simhash algorithm and named it "shingling based multi fingerprints simhash algorithm". The combination performance was much better than original Simhash.

3. ARCHITECTURE OF PROPOSED WORK

The paper proposed the novel task for detecting and eliminating near duplicate and duplicate web pages to increase the efficiency of web crawling. So, the technique proposed aims at helping document classification in web content mining by eliminating the near-duplicate documents and in document clustering. For this, a novel Algorithm has been proposed to evaluate the similarity content of two documents.

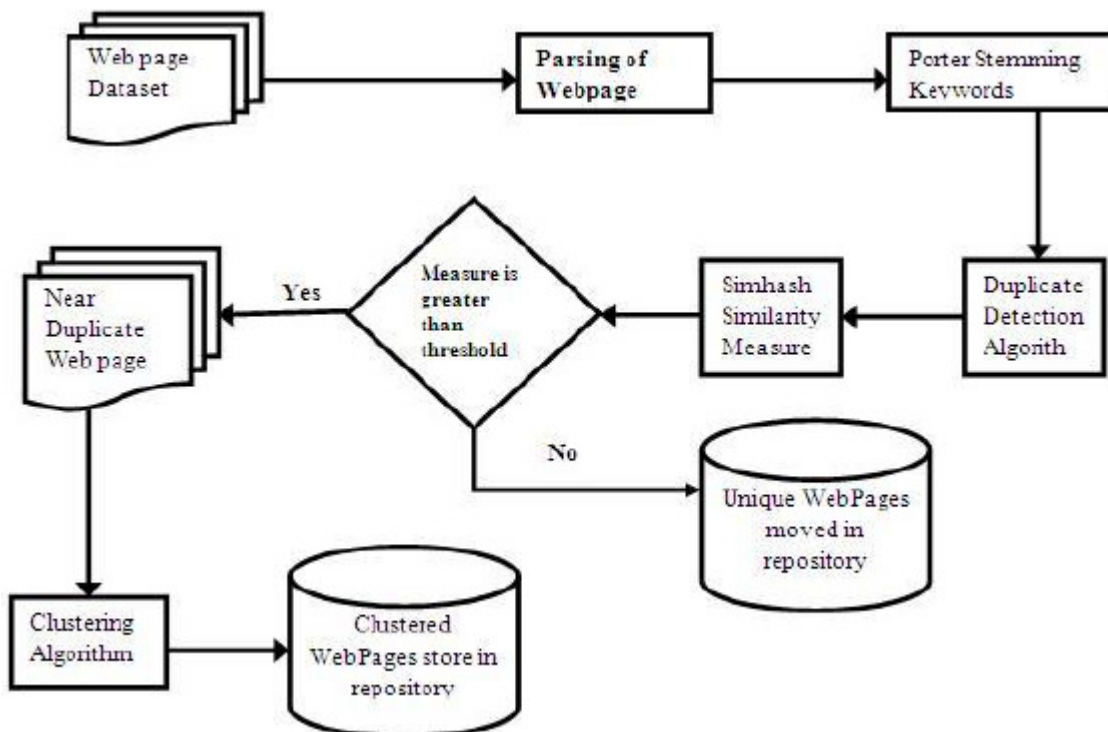


Figure 1. Proposed Architecture

3.1. Architectural Steps

Architectural steps which includes:(i)Web page Dataset Collection (ii) Pre-processing (iii)Store in database (iv) Rendering DD Algorithm (v)Verifying the similarity content (vi) Filtering Near Duplicates (vii) Refined Results

3.1.1. Dataset Collection

We have collected data using Wget, a software program that retrieves content from webservers and have gathered our data sets. Here, we have collected by giving some URLs of the news websites which usually have replicas, so we can get more number of web documents with relevant information. Wget can optionally work like a web crawler by extracting resources linked from HTML pages and downloading them in sequence, repeating the process recursively until all the pages have been downloaded or a maximum recursion depth specified by the user has been reached. The downloaded pages are saved in a directory structure resembling that on the remote server.

3.1.2. Parsing of Web Pages

Once a page has been crawled, we need to parse its content to extract information that will feed and possibly guide the future path of the crawler. Parsing might also involve steps to convert the extracted URL to a canonical form, remove stop words from the page's content and stem the remaining words [33]. HTML Parsers are freely available for many different languages. They provide the functionality to easily identify HTML tags and associated attribute-value pairs in a given HTML document.

3.1.3. Stop-listing

When parsing a Web page to extract content information or in order to score new URLs suggested by the page, it is often helpful to remove commonly used words or stop words such as "it" and "can". This process of removing stop-words from text is called stop-listing [26].

3.1.4. Stemming Algorithm

Stemming algorithms, or stemmers, are used to group words based on semantic similarity. Stemming algorithms are used in many types of language processing and text analysis systems, and are also widely used in information retrieval and database search systems [25]. A stemming algorithm is an algorithm that converts a word to a related form. One of the simplest such transformations is conversion of plurals to singulars, another would be the derivation of a verb from the gerund form (the "-ing" word). A number of stemming or conflation algorithms have been developed for IR (Information Retrieval) in order to reduce morphological variants to their root form. A stemming algorithm would normally be used for document matching and classification by using it to convert all likely forms of a word in the input document to the form in a reference document [22]. Stemming is usually done by removing any attached suffixes, and prefixes from index terms before the assignment of the term. Since the stem of a term represents a broader concept than the original term, the stemming process eventually increases the number of retrieved documents [23].

3.1.5. Duplicate Detection (DD) Algorithm

Step 1: Consider the Stemmed keywords of the web page.

Step 2: Based on the starting character i.e. A-Z we here by assumed the hash values should start with 1-26.

Step 3: Scan every word from the sample and compare with DB (data base) (initially DB Contains NO key values. Once the New keyword is found then generate respective hash value. Store that key value in temporary DB.

Step 4: Repeat the step 3 until all the keywords get completes.

Step 5: Store all Hash values for a given sample in local DB (i.e. here we used array list)

Step 6: Repeat step 1 to step 6 for N no. of samples.

Step 7: Once the selected samples were over then calculate similarity measure on the samples hash values which we stored in local DB with respective to webpages in repository.

Step 8: From similarity measure, we can generate a report on the samples in the score of % forms. Pages that are 80% similar are considered to be near duplicates.

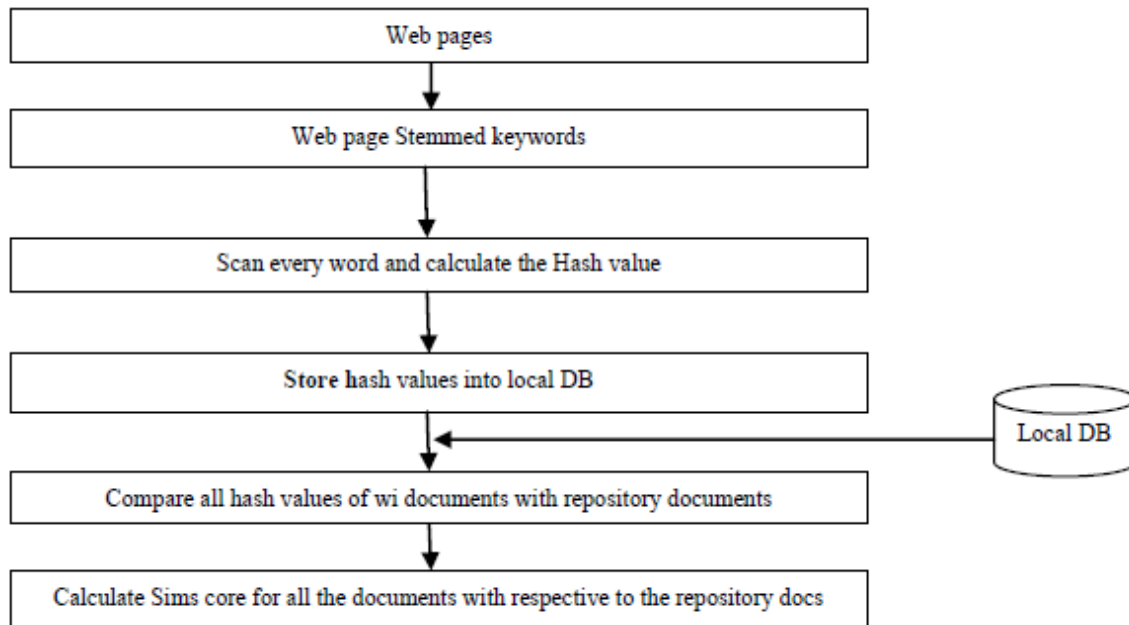


Figure 2. DD algorithm Work flow

This algorithm consists of three major steps. The first step is to calculate the hash vales of the each keyword in a web page w_1 . Then in the second step they are stored in a temporary data base. This procedure is repeated for all the samples collected. The third step is to calculate the similarity of the pages on the hash values generated which are stored in a local DB (data base). If the threshold is above 80% then it is considered as a near duplicate web page. Whenever a new page w_n is coming and needs to be stored in the repository, its similarity with the web pages already existing in the repository needs to be compared. Similarity is calculated using the following formula.

$$\text{SimScore} = \frac{\text{Number of hash values in } w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n}{\text{Total } w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n \text{ under consideration in Repository}} \times 100$$

4. EXPERIMENTAL ENVIRONMENT AND SETUP

The proposed near duplicate document detection system is programmed using Java (jdk 1.6) and the backend used is MS Access. The experimentation has been carried out on a 2.9 GHz, i5 PC machine with 4 GB main memory running a 32-bit version of Windows XP. The Web pages are collected using Wget computer program.

Table 1. Web pages dataset details

S. No	Documents data set	Number of Documents
1	Current Affairs	14
2	Technical articles	10
3	Shopping sites articles	15
4	Raw files	20
	Total	59

```
E:\my work>wget http://www.toshiba.co.jp/about/press/2013_09/pr0901.htm?uid=20130909-2709e
--2013-11-02 13:12:51-- http://www.toshiba.co.jp/about/press/2013_09/pr0901.htm?uid=20130909-2709e
Resolving www.toshiba.co.jp... 111.87.30.33
Connecting to www.toshiba.co.jp|111.87.30.33|:80... connected.
HTTP request sent, awaiting response... 200 OK
Length: 12628 (12K) [text/html]
Saving to: `pr0901.htm@uid=20130909-2709e'

100%[=====>] 12,628      10.5K/s   in 1.2s

2013-11-02 13:12:54 (10.5 KB/s) - `pr0901.htm@uid=20130909-2709e' saved [12628/12628]
```

Figure 3. Data Collection using Wget tool.



Figure 4. Data Collection Sample-1.



Figure 5. Data Collection Sample-2.

5. RESULTS

Every dataset mentioned in the above section undergoes web page parsing, stop word removal and stemming process. It is observed that after applying the above mentioned steps the no. of keywords are reduced to an extent. The final output that is stemmed keywords are provided to the DD algorithm. The results are obtained by executing the DD program on the datasets which are shown in Table 2 and Table 3. These are representing the outcome obtained by checking every page of the dataset with all web pages from the database. As shown in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5, SimScore range is divided into 4 categories that <60%, 60% to 70%, 70% to 80% and >80%.

Table 2. Samples outcomes

Sample 1	Sample 2
Para 1: 23519 5125 31513 20158 31597 5245 14215 16119 12118 14215 16155 6125 15169 20154 1997 13513 21144 1315 3185 10155 16184 31514 14215 16155 16121 1195 12421 3120 12013 18524 5145 71522 2154 51912 45223 11220 5145 19153 19191 11812	Para 1: 20146 19572 20158 31597 23519 5125 31513 5245 14215 16119 12118 14215 16155 6125 15169 20154 1997 13513 21144 1315 3185 10155 16184 31514 14215 16155 16121 1195 12421 3120 12013 18524 5145 71522 2154 51912 45223 11220 5145 19153 19191 11812
Para 2: 20158 23519 16189 23159 12514 14215 52416 18531 14221 18514 16189 15165 11915 19519 16171	Para 2: 20158 23519 16189 23159 12514 14215 52416 18531 14221 18514 16189 15165 11915 19519 16171

Table 3: DD results for selected dataset

Dataset	Number of documents	< 60 %	60% to 70%	70% to 80%	>80%
Technical	w1	w10,w9,w8	w4,w6,w7	w3,w5	w2
	w2	w10,w8,w9	w4,w6,w7	w3,w5	w1
	w3	w4,w8,w9,w10	w6,w7	w1,w2,w5	--
	w4	w3,w5,w8,w9,w10	w1,w2,w6,w7	--	--
	w5	w4,w8,w9,w10	w6,w7	w1,w2,w3	--
	w6	w7,w8,w9,w10	w1,w2,w4,w3	w5	--
	w7	w6,w8,w9,w10	w1,w2,w3,w4,w5		--
	w8	w1,w2,w3,w4,w5,w6,w7,w9,w10			--
	w9	w1,w2,w3,w4,w5,w6,w7,w8,w10			--
	w10	w1,w2,w3,w4,w5,w6,w7,w8,w9			--

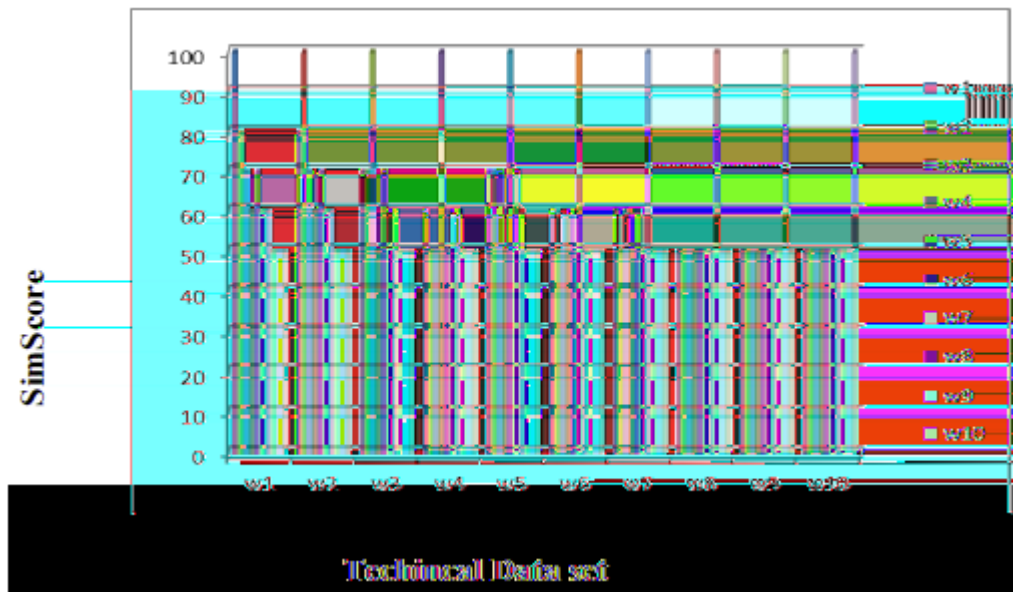


Figure 5. Simscore Illustrations for the datasets

6. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

Web pages with similarity score of 0% represent totally unique documents. Web pages with similarity score of <60% are not similar and needs to be maintained in the database for future reference. Web pages with similarity score of 60% to 70% are suspicious near duplicates and needs to be maintained in the database for future reference. Web pages with similarity score of more than 70% are almost near duplicates.

Furthermore only top N pages are stored in the repository for each datasets instead of all documents which reduces memory space for the repository. Since web pages having SimScore greater than 60% are not stored in the repository, by detecting them as near duplicate web pages. The search efficiency and effectiveness will be achieved and document clustering can be facilitated.

Web pages which are near duplicates may appear closer to each other in search results, but provide very little benefit to the user. The future work will be research for more robust and accurate methods for near duplicate detection and elimination on basis of the detection. To increase the accuracy and effectiveness of the DD Algorithm a clustering mechanisms can also be applied to perform the effective document clustering.

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International Journal of Data Mining & Knowledge Management Process (IJDKP) Vol.4, No.6, November 2014

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An Approach to Identify Dishonest Nodes Using MAC Protocol in Multihop Cellular Networks

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Abstract: In mobility based networks, the mobile nodes usually relay on other node packets rather than their own rightful packet for enhancing network performance. It happens due to the availability of some selfish or malicious nodes which do not cooperate in transmission of received packets to honest nodes, which totally reduces the network performance. A fairness issue arises when a selfish/malicious node access the advantage of the honest nodes without providing their contributions to honest nodes which significantly degrades the performance of network and May results in failure of entire communication. In this paper, we are analyzing network performance by using Message Authentication Code (MAC) Based protocol which can identify misbehaving/malicious nodes. MAC uses only fast symmetric cryptographic operations, making it suitable for multicast networks, where latency is an important factor. For its construction, we used an efficient key assignment based on Blom's scheme, and a Merkle tree to provide authenticity during our identification routine. Further, this scheme support addition of new nodes in to the existing network only after proper authentication is done.

Keyword: Mobile networks, honest nodes, Symmetric cryptography, node authentication.

I. Introduction

Mobile cellular network (MCN) [1], [2], [3], [4] follows the architecture which incorporates the ad hoc characteristics into the cellular system. A node's traffic is usually relayed through other nodes to the destination. The mobile nodes commit bandwidth, data storage, CPU cycles, battery power, etc., forming as group of resources that can be shared among them. A privilege that all nodes can obtain from the group of resources is more than they can obtain on their own. The considered MCN is used for many common life applications where the network has long life and the mobile nodes are supposed to have long-term relations with the network. Multihop packet relay can reduce the dead areas by extending the communication range of the base stations without extra costs. It can also reduce the energy consumption because packets are transmitted over shorter distances, and improve the area spectral efficiency and the network throughput and capacity [5], [6], [7]. However, due to involvement of autonomous devices in packet relay, the packet routing process suffers from new security challenges that endanger the practical implementation of MCN. The assumption that the network nodes are willing to relay other nodes' packets may not hold for common life applications where the nodes are autonomous and selfish or malicious in the sense that they aim to maximal own benefits and shows minimal contributions towards network. Although the proper network operation requires the nodes to collaborate, collaboration consumes the nodes' resources such as energy and computing power, and does not provide direct benefits. Selfish nodes are not interested in cooperation without incentive and make use of the cooperative nodes to relay their packets, which has a negative effect on the network fairness and performance. A fairness issue arises when selfish nodes take advantage of the cooperative nodes without any contribution to them. The selfish behavior also significantly degrades the network performance, which may result in failure of the total communications [8], [9]. In this article we present a mechanism that allows honest nodes to exclude misbehaving nodes, by not forwarding packets coming from these nodes in the future. To achieve detection, we base our scheme on the security properties of systems aimed at detecting pollution in network coding. To provide authentication, we present a fast authentication scheme based on Blom's key distribution scheme [10]. Our construction guarantees either that the sender of a packet is identified or an honest node does not waste significant resources checking a packet whose sender cannot be identified.

Unlike other constructions in the literature [11], [12], where a central authority is needed to exclude a misbehaving node; our construction allows any honest node to take proper action against attackers, without contacting the network's central authority; since it is based on cryptographic primitives with provable security properties, its security is high. Our proposal is also reasonable in terms of assumptions; we do not require knowledge of the topology beyond neighboring nodes, making it suitable for dynamic networks. The price we pay is: linear transmission overhead in the number of neighbors a given node has another not so significant

drawback is that, the proposal becomes vulnerable when more than c attackers collude; however, this does not represent a significant challenge, since the collusion bound can be set arbitrarily large without significant impact in performance.

II. Related Work

In tamper-proof device (TPD)-based incentive mechanisms [17], [18], [19], a TPD is installed in each node to manage its credit account and secure its operation. In Nuglets [17], [18], the self-generated and forwarding packets are passed to the TPD to decrease and increase the node's credit account, respectively. The packet purse and the packet trade models have been proposed. In the packet purse model, only the source node pays by loading some credits in each packet before sending it. Each intermediate node acquires the amount of credits that cover the packet's relaying cost. In the packet trade model, each intermediate node runs an auction to sell the packets to the following node in the route. In this way, each intermediate node earns some credits and the destination node pays the total packet relaying cost. In SIP [19], after receiving a data packet, the destination node sends a payment RECEIPT packet to the source node to issue a REWARD packet to increment the credit accounts of the intermediate nodes. In CASHnet [20], [21], the source node's traffic credit account is charged and a signature is attached for each data packet. Upon receiving the packet, the destination node's traffic credit account is also charged and a digitally signed ACK packet is sent back to increase the helper credit accounts of the intermediate nodes. Users regularly visit service points to buy traffic credits with real money and/or transfer helper credits to traffic credits. The TPD-based incentive mechanisms suffer from the following problems. First, the assumption that the TPD cannot be tampered is neither secure nor practical for MCNs. That is because the nodes are autonomous and self-interested and the attackers can communicate freely in an undetectable way if they could compromise the TPDs [22]. Moreover, since the security protection of these mechanisms completely fails if the TPDs are tampered, only a small number of manufacturers can be trusted to make the network nodes, which is too restrictive for common life networks. Second, a node cannot communicate if it does not have sufficient credits at the communication time. The nodes at the network edge cannot earn as many credits as the nodes at other locations because they are less frequently selected by the routing protocol. Furthermore, the credit distribution has direct impact on the network performance, e.g., if a small number of nodes have a large ratio of the network credits, the network performance significantly degrades because the rich nodes are not motivated to cooperate and the poor nodes cannot initiate communications. Finally, since credits are cleared in real time, the network performance degrades if the network does not have enough credits circulating around. In [23], it is shown that the overall credits in the network decline gradually because the total charges are not necessarily equal to the total rewards. That is because the source node is fully charged after sending a packet but some intermediate nodes may not be rewarded when the route is broken. Although CASHnet can alleviate this problem by buying credits with real money, it is shown in [23] that in spite of having helper credits, some nodes starve because they cannot find a service point to convert them to traffic credits. In order to eliminate the need for TPDs, a central bank called the AC (Accounting Center) can be used to store and manage the nodes' accounts. In [24], the source node appends a payment token to each transmitted packet, and each intermediate node uses its secret key to check whether the token corresponds to a winning ticket. Winning tickets are submitted to the AC to reward the winning nodes. The source and destination nodes are charged per packet but the intermediate nodes are rewarded per winning ticket. In a security flaw, the colluding nodes can exchange tokens to be checked in each node to steal credits. However, due to the nature of the reputation systems, some honest nodes may be falsely identified as cheaters and the colluding nodes may manage to steal credits. Each node in a route buys packets from the previous node and sells them to the next node. The packets' buyers contact the AC to get deposited coins and the packets' sellers submit the coins to the AC to claim their payment. However, the interactive involvement of the AC in each communication session is not efficient and creates a bottleneck at the AC. So AC has to properly authenticate every node which is joining to the network.

III. Identifying Malicious Nodes

In this section we will present some existing authentication mechanisms, along with a key assignment needed for our proposal.

3.1 Digital Signatures

Digital signatures allow any node in possession of a public key P , check that a node in possession of the corresponding private key S generated a message m ; however, the knowledge of P does not allow nodes to produce valid digital signatures. To achieve this property, some kind of asymmetry is needed. In the RSA signature scheme [13], asymmetry comes from number theory. Compute $n = pq$ (public key), where p, q are prime numbers of a suitable size; then, compute $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$. Select a number e relatively prime to $\phi(n)$ and find its inverse modulo $\phi(n)$. To sign $0 < m < n$, compute $\sigma = md \text{ mod } n$; to verify the signature, check if $m = (\sigma e \text{ mod } n)$. Another source of asymmetry to create digital signatures comes from time. This idea is exploited

by the Tesla [14] protocol. The construction assumes nodes are loosely synchronized; using this, nodes can generate signatures that can be checked at a future time:

- Assume there is a one way function h ; this is given a value s , computing $h(s)$ is easy; but given $h(s)$ is not possible for an adversary to find s .
- Invoke h , t times using the output of the previous invocation as input for the next one; the value for the first invocation will be s . In mathematical terms, this is: $h_0 = h(s)$, $h_i = h(h_{i-1})$. Publish h_t as the “public key”.
- During the first period of time, compute a MAC involving the message m using h_{t-1} as a key to the fast symmetric cryptographic function (e.g. HMAC). Finally, publish the result of the MAC along with h_t . In general, use h_{i-1} as a secret input to a function and publish h_i .

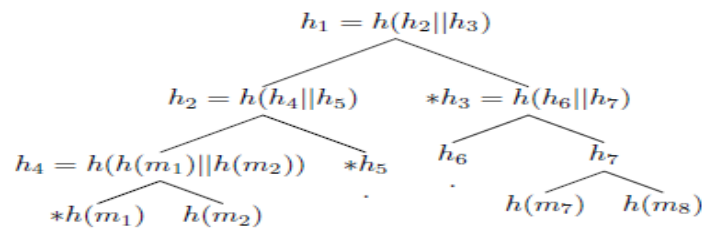


Figure 1. Example of a signature for m_2 using a Merkle tree, appended nodes are marked with (*).

- Nodes cannot check a signature for the current period, but once the period expires, the information is revealed. Security comes from the fact that it is computationally impossible for an adversary to simulate the chain, unless they actually know s . Since no expensive number theory functions are used, this scheme is very efficient, but incurs in an initial delay. A real time authentication function can be achieved if the source can perform initial packet buffering [15].

In the multicast authentication literature, the Wong and Lam scheme [16] provides fast stream authentication using a binary tree. In this scheme, the root of the tree is delivered reliably. To verify a particular message m_i ; $h(m_i)$ and the siblings of its ancestors are appended to the message (h is a cryptographic hash function). Figure 1 contains an example of signature for message m_2 , where the nodes of the tree appended to the message have an asterisk (*). To verify the signature, the verifier simply recomputes the tree using the given information; then if the root matches the digitally signed data, received at a previous stage or from a trustworthy entity, the node can conclude the message is authentic.

3.2. Blom’s Scheme

Blom’s scheme [3] allows every user in a network, to share a secret with any other user in an efficient way. Let D be a secret random $c \times c$ symmetric matrix and G be a public $c \times n$ generator matrix of a Maximum Distance Separable (MDS) code; this is a code that meets the Singleton bound: for a $(n, k, d)_q$ then $k = n - d + 1$; Reed-Solomon codes have this property. All elements from both matrices and operations are carried in the field F_q . The set of secrets of the system is given by $A = (DG)^T G$, where $(DG)^T$ denotes the transpose of (DG) . The following derivation shows that A is symmetric:

$$A = (DG)^T G = GT^T DG = GT^T (DG) = AT$$

The shared secret between users i and j is $A_{ij} = A_{ji}$; to compute this value, the i -th user receives the i -th row from the matrix $K_i = (DG)^T$. To get the shared secret A_{ij} ; i computes $K_i G^* j$, where $G^* j$ is the j -th column of G ; similarly j computes $A_{ji} = K_j G^* i$. If $x \leq c$ attackers collude, they get no information about secrets not in the collusion.

3.3 HMAC

HMAC [25] is a cryptographic MAC, based on a hash function h and a random key k ($//$ denotes the concatenation operator). Given information m to be authenticated as

$$\text{HMAC}(k, m) = h((k \oplus \text{opad}) // h((k \oplus \text{ipad}) // m))$$

Where $\text{opad} = 0x36 // \dots // 0x36$ and $\text{ipad} = 0x5c // \dots // 0x5c$ are fixed values padded to match the key length. If a node wishes to verify that a node in possession of k created a message, it must recompute the function from the received message and then check if the output matches what was received. Proofs of securities for HMAC are found in [26].

IV. Work Model

As our proposal relies on an existing selfish/dishonest node prevention scheme, which we will denote as a Source Message Authentication Codes (SMAC). MACs introduced by our proposal will be denoted as Relay MACs (RMACs). The key idea of the protocol is that it guarantees authentication for all messages using a fast function, before the slow SMAC verifying routine is applied.

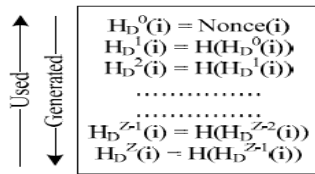


Figure 2. Hash Chain generation by receiving node

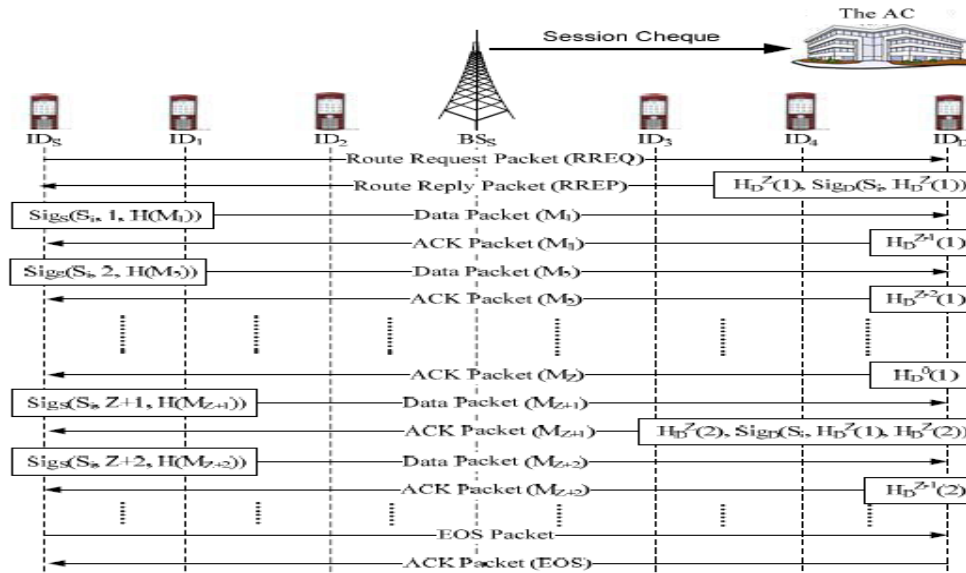


Figure 3. The exchange of keys between nodes.

4.1 Initialization

The sources initialize every node in the network and themselves, with two sets of secret values S_i and R_i . The purpose of S_i is to give the node the ability to authenticate information sent by the sources; this information will be modified using network coding operations. R_i is given according to Blom's scheme; its purpose is to generate shared keys k_{ij} to authenticate messages among neighbors. Recall from Blom's scheme that these values correspond to the i -th row of the matrix $(DG) T$; in addition, the identifier i is also provided to the node. A digital signature of all the keys in the system is given to each node, along with information to produce a proof that one key was assigned by the source to a particular node. We will now explain how these are generated. To avoid the use of digital signatures based on number theory at the nodes; we will use the tree construction to sign the whole square matrix of mutual secrets A . The idea is to embed A in the tree, as a set of row vectors appended one after another. Recall from Blom's scheme that the secrets given to node i , are represented by the i -th row of matrix A , that will be denoted by $A_{i,*}$. The first step taken by the source is to produce a hash of each row in A independently, by using each coordinate of $A_{i,*}$ as a separate message for a Merkle tree, whose root for each row will be denoted by $h_{1,i}$.

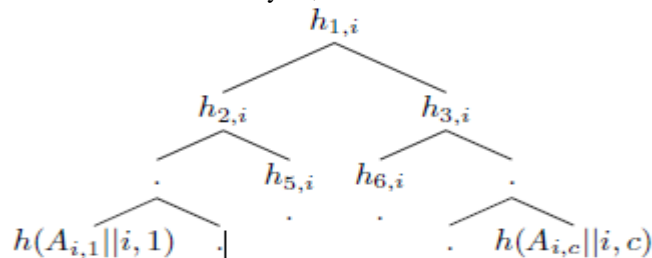


Figure 4. Computing the hash of i -th row in A .

The above figure shows this procedure; the reason we concatenate the actual coordinates of the secret to the invocation of the hash function is to guarantee the secret was in that given position in matrix A . Next, create a vector $v = (h_{1,1}, h_{1,2}, \dots, h_{1,c-1}, h_{1,c})$ where each component is the root of the tree computed from each row. Now we use this vector as an input to another tree whose root will be named σA ; σA is the signature for the whole matrix A . In this computation, the additional string is not needed.

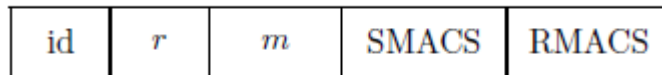


Figure 5. Packet structure

The only remaining thing to give the nodes, is information to prove other nodes, one secret was assigned to them by the sources. To accomplish this, nodes receive the siblings of their ancestors in the Merkle tree created from v . The reasoning behind this, is that only node i is able to replicate the path for any of its secrets until $h1, i$; then, by using the information from the siblings from his ancestors, any node can verify the result without contacting the source.

4.2 Transmission

When any node i (including the source) want to transmit a message, it creates a packet with the following format:

- id: Id of the the last relay that processed the message; for this case i .
- r : Increasing value used to derive a different key for computing RMACs.
- m : Data to be sent.
- SMACs: A suitable pollution prevention scheme.
- RMACs: One RMAC for each one of its neighbors j ; first, a master key is derived for each neighbor $\kappa_{ij} = \text{HMAC}(\text{salt}, \kappa_{ij})$, where salt is a random public system parameter; κ_{ij} is derived using Blom's scheme. The key used to generate a RMAC for node j is:
- $k_{_ij} = \text{HMAC}(\kappa_{ij}, r)$. Next, let $m_{_} = (\text{id}, r, m, \text{SMACS})$; the output of one RMAC function is $(\text{id}_j // \text{HMAC}(k_{_ij}, m_{_}/\text{id}_j))$.

4.3 Relay Processing

When node j receives a packet, it verifies the RMAC intended for it. If the RMAC is not authentic, the packet is discarded immediately; otherwise, the node stores the packet until the SMAC in the packet can be verified (buffering is common in Tesla-based protocols). If the verification for SMACs is successful, the packet is coded with other packets by generating a linear combination of them; otherwise, the node increases a "bad events counter" for the sender and calls the decision routine (section-D); this counter is set to 0 periodically. If the decision routine returns "true", packets from sender i are not relayed anymore.

To inform other nodes of the discovery of a misbehaving node i , entry $A_{ji} = A_{ij}$ is sent to the neighborhood, along with information from the internal part of the Merkle tree only known to node i . We want to point out that the whole internal tree needs to be computed only once, so it can be queried later to accelerate the procedure, the total amount of information stored is twice the number of nodes in the network, times the size of the output of the hash function. As it was stated in the initialization stage, nodes complement their part of the tree with the message received, if the result of the tree computation equals σA , the secret is considered legitimate. Note that the number of hash invocations is $2 \log_2(n)$, where n is the number of nodes in the network. Consider now node l who receives the new secret and who still considers i as honest; then, l uses that key to check the RMAC authenticity of packets coming from i , whose SMACs have not been authenticated yet. Every time a RMAC is verified successfully and the corresponding SMAC is invalid, we increment the counter for "Bad events" proportional to the number of valid RMACs we can check. If the number of bad events from node i exceeds threshold x , l labels i as compromised and reveals $A_{il} = A_{li}$ to his neighbors.

4.4 Decision Routine

This routine is only called when either:

1. A node presents a valid RMAC for another node;
2. The message authenticated by the SMAC is not authentic. Assuming there are c (or less) compromised nodes, an attacker can cause the first event by either, forging the SMACs for one node and letting an honest node forward the packet (attack I); or forging the RMAC himself (attack II). In attack I, we assume the attacker can forge a valid SMAC with probability $1/p$; thus, the probability in succeeding in this attack v times is:

$$(1/p)^v \cdot 1 \tag{1}$$

Here, the first term is the probability of an attacker forging the SMAC v times. The second term is the probability of the second event happening; the value is 1 because an honest node will always forward packets that pass the verification routine for SMACs.

In attack II, the first event occurs with probability $1/\text{RMAC}$; hence the probability of the first event happening v times is given by $1/\text{RMAC}^v$. If both events happen v times, the probability of labeling an honest node as compromised is given by:

$$1/\text{RMAC}^v \cdot (1-1/p)^v \tag{2}$$

Which is the probability of submitting a valid RMAC, times the probability of the validated message to be wrong by chance. Both events are considered independent because the RMAC and SMAC routines are completely unrelated due to their construction. The system administrator can determine a threshold that is reasonable for false positives depending on the system parameters and equations (1) and (2).

V. Conclusion

Our Analysis work shows a fair and secure cooperation mechanism for MCN, In order to fairly and efficiently charge the source and destination nodes, the lightweight hashing operations are used to reduce the number of public-key-cryptography operations. Our extensive analyses have demonstrated that our incentive mechanism can secure the payment and significantly reduce the overhead of storing, submitting, and processing the checks. Node non repudiation can be achieved using a hash chain at the source node side to efficiently verify the message integrity at each intermediate node. By using our analytical procedure AC can process the identity of selfish/dishonest node that involves themselves in sessions with the intention of dropping the data packets to launch Denial-of-Service attacks. By using our method the AC can process the checks to identify the irrational nodes which improves reliable, efficient and secure transfer of packet and which enhance the network performance.

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Modeling and Experimental Validation of Combustion in DI Diesel Engine through CFD Simulation

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Abstract: This paper describes the combustion analysis in direct injection (DI) diesel engine. In the present study the Computational Fluid dynamics (CFD) code STAR-CD is used to model complex combustion phenomenon in compression ignition (CI) engine [1]. The experiments were accomplished on single cylinder and DI engine, with full load condition at constant speed of 1600 rpm. Combustion parameters such as cylinder pressure, heat release rate and mass of NO emission with crank angle were obtained from experiment [2]. The results obtained from modeling were compared with experimental investigation. Consequences in terms of pressure, heat release rate and mass of NO are presented. The modeling outcome is discussed in detail with combustion parameters. The results presented in this paper demonstrate that, the CFD modeling can be the reliable tool for modeling combustion of internal combustion engine.

Keywords: CFD, DI, combustion modeling, pressure, heat release rate, NO, simulation.

1. Validation of CFD Code

The purpose of the validation of the CFD code is being used in this work. It is proposed to compare the results predicted through CFD simulation with experimental results.

Since, the experimental facilities available are not enough to measure in-cylinder fluid parameters, the experimental results available in literature has been used. The experimental results of a four stroke single cylinder DI diesel engine with Mexican Hat Bowl piston is being used for validation of the predicted capability of the CFD code [3]. CFD simulations were performed for the same engine and injection details are compared with experimental engine. And the injection details used in the simulation study are given in table 1 Fuel and Injection details are given in table 2

Comparisons are drawn between the experimental and predicted results based on the global parameters such as Pressure vs. Crank angle, Heat Release Rate vs. Crank Angle, and Mass of NO vs. Crank Angle formations.

TABLE: 1 Engine Details

Bore	137.19 mm
Stroke	165.10 mm
Connecting rod length	261.62 mm
Piston bowl	Mexican Hat Bowl(MHB)
Engine speed	1600 rpm

TABLE: 2 Fuel And Injection Details

Fuel	Diesel
Number of nozzle holes	6
Nozzle hole diameter	0.259 mm
Fuel injected (g/cycle)	0.1622
Injection duration (CA)	21.5
Start of injection (CA)	9 bTDC

2. Presentation of Results

It is important to study the in-cylinder fluid dynamics during the later part of combustion and initial part of expansion strokes in a diesel engine as the fuel injection, fuel-air mixing, combustion and pollutant formation takes place during this period only. Hence the present analysis is considered from 40° before TDC during compression stroke to 80° after TDC during the expansion stroke so as to include fuel injection, combustion and subsequent emission formation stages, as these are the crucial stages of DI diesel engine operation [5].

3. Comparison between Experimental and Predicted In-Cylinder Pressure with Crank Angle

The comparison of experimental and predicted pressure as shown in figure.6.1. The variation of in-cylinder pressure with crank angle is presented during compression stroke and expansion strokes. Pressure variation may be due to the greater ignition delay during combustion. The increase in ignition delay causes the combustion to continue even after the piston crosses TDC towards expansion stroke, resulting in lower difference in peak pressures, may be by blow-by and crevice flows. The pressure variation is studied from 40° before TDC in compression stroke to 80° after TDC in expansion stroke. In predicted curve a smooth rise is due to compression is noticed from 40° before TDC to 30° before TDC during compression stroke [6].

Figure: 1 shows the pressure rise with experimental model is noticed to be almost same 20 bar to be 38 bar. A rapid pressure rise in the predicted curve after TDC for a short span is noticed. The experimental peak pressure is slightly lower than that of a predicted model.

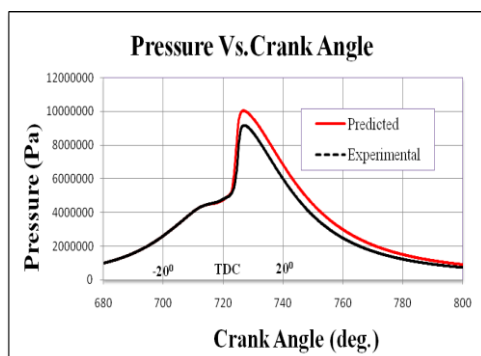


Fig: 1 Comparison of experimental and Predicted In-Cylinder Pressures

However they are comparable to the peak pressures which are noticed 99.7 bar in the case of predicted and 90 bar in the case of experimental. 20° after TDC in the expansion stroke the peak pressures are noticed. In both predicted and experimental the peak pressures are gradually decreased, but they are not following in the same path. The predictions made with this model are found to be closer to the experimental values [7].

4. Comparison between Experimental Predicted Heat Release Rate Variations with Crank Angle

Variation of heat release rate with crank angle predicted with experimental results are shown in figure: 2

The heat release in the combustion chamber is due to the combustion of fuel. Heat releases are noticed to be similar between 35° before TDC to 20° before TDC. And it is also observed that in the case of predicted model it is 47.9 J/Ca at about 5° after TDC [8]. Whereas in the experimental heat release rate 39 J/Ca is noticed. From the above discussions it is concluded that the predicted model is better than the experimental values in the case of experimental heat release rates are almost 20% lower than that of predicted model [9].

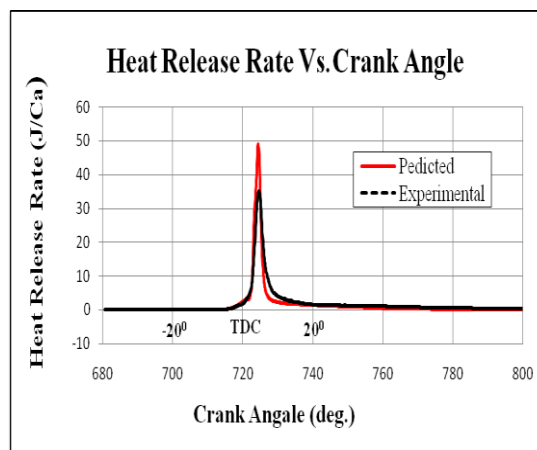


Fig: 2 Comparison of Predicted and Experimental Heat Release Rate

Accordingly it can be concluded that rapid-combustion phase is suppressed and mixing-controlled combustion phase is enhanced [10].

5. Comparison between Experimental and Predicted Model No Emissions

Figure: 3 present the predicted model and experimental Mass of NO emission vs. crank angle.

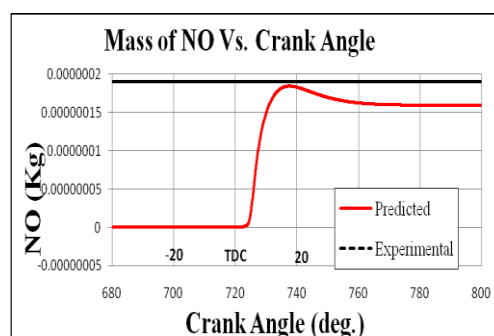


Fig: 3 Comparison of Predicted and Experimental NO Emission

The experimental value of mass of NO emission is 1.85 mg and the predicted value of mass of NO emission is 1.72mg. It is clear that the predicted results are comparable to the experimental

results [11]. There is higher experimental value of NO emission may be due to the oxidation of nitrogen which is present in the fuel. This is used for future predictions.

6. Conclusion

To simulate Diesel injection and combustion the CFD code STAR-CD has been used for diesel spray. The model implemented in STAR-CD code for spray orientation was validated by comparison to published experimental data. A good agreement between the predicted and experimental values ensures the accuracy of the numerical predictions collected with the present work. The results reported in this paper illustrate that the numerical simulation can be one of the most powerful and beneficial tools for the internal combustion engine design, optimization and performance analysis.

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Micro Genetic Algorithm Based on Pricing of Reactive Power Service in Deregulated Electricity Markets

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Abstract—This study presents a new evolutionary method for reactive power pricing based on optimal power flow. Adequate reactive power is one of the most important parameters for secure operation of power system. In restructured electricity market, power system is operated near its secure boundaries in order to maximize social welfare. So appropriate and accurate pricing of this service, can be very considerable in this environment. The main purpose of this paper is usage of Micro Genetic Algorithm method for determination active and reactive power prices produced by generators, based on Locational Marginal Price (LMP). The proposed method has been applied on IEEE 14 bus system and compared with GA

Index Terms— Reactive power pricing, Micro genetic algorithm, genetic algorithm, locational marginal price, restructured power market.

I. INTRODUCTION

II. Because of competitive structure of energy markets, reduction of regulations in load area and more motivation for using available transmission systems facilities, power system is utilized near its secure boundaries. Considerably ancillary services that provide reliability and voltage security become very important in deregulated environment. Reactive power is one of the most important ancillary services in power system because during normal operations, it is required to maintain the necessary balance between generation and load in real time, to maintain voltages within the required ranges and to transmit active power. Therefore Reactive power value and its influence on system stability, especially during hard and congested conditions, can be very high [1]. Lack of reactive power can make voltage collapse that it is the main reason of recent widespread power outages worldwide such as one occurred in the United States and Canada in 2003 [2].

III. Appropriate and accurate pricing of this service not only covers the costs of reactive power supplying and provides incentives for investment of reactive power equipment so as to maximize overall social welfare, but also gives useful information about necessity of reactive power supporting and voltage control to system operator.

IV. Until now different pricing methods is proposed for pricing this service but some of the proposed methods are usually difficult and hard in practice. Reference [3] presents the analysis of the dominant component determined from the opportunity costs of a generator in the real power markets in

the cost structure of this service. Reference [4] suggests a new approach for reactive power pricing that is especially suitable for a power market using pool model. Reference [5] devises a scheme enforced capital investment on the needed services. In that scheme reactive support of generators is divided into two functions: reactive power delivery and voltage control. reactive power costs [6]. Reactive power pricing is principally based on the costs of reactive power providing that it can be achieved directly by determining marginal cost of reactive power or from market by using supply and demand curve [1]. In mentioned paper the combined reactive power market model is proposed for reactive power pricing. Spot pricing theory which its purpose is maximizing social welfare is proposed by F. C. Shewep and et al. [7]. In that paper for the first time marginal price concept from microeconomics introduced in power systems and used in electricity spot pricing. Nodal pricing among the other schemes based on locational marginal costs of system is most considerable. With nodal pricing of reactive power, prices at each node on a network reflect the marginal cost of generating that power. To estimate these costs, Optimal Power Flow (OPF) which its goal is minimization system operational costs subject to system operational constraints, is used. Two algorithms for solving optimal power flow (OPF) have been presented by [8]: genetic algorithm and ant colony algorithm.

V. In this study, a new approach based on Locational Marginal Price (LMP) for solving OPF in order to minimize objective function and therefore maximize social welfare is presented which results LMP of those powers in each node of system. The objective function is including cost of active and reactive powers produced by generators. The mentioned method is studied on 14-bus IEEE standard network and the results are compared to Genetic algorithm to approve these results are reasonable and practical.

II. MICRO GENETIC ALGORITHM

Genetic algorithms are simple, robust, flexible, and able to find the global optimal solution. They are especially useful in finding solution to problems for which other optimization techniques encounter difficulties [112]. A basic genetic algorithm is constituted by a random creation of an initial population and a cycle of three stages, namely:



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- evaluation of each chromosome;
- chromosomes selection for reproduction;
- genetic manipulation to create a new population, which includes crossover and mutation. Each time, this cycle is completed, it is said that a generation has occurred.

A. Standard Micro genetic algorithm

The disadvantage of GAs is the high processing time associated. That is due to their evolutionary concept, based on random processes that make the algorithm quite slow. However, different methods for reducing processing time have already been proposed, such as more appropriate choice of solution coding and reduction of search space using the specialist knowledge. One alternative method known as microgenetic algorithms, whose processing time is considerably smaller, is shown in [12].

Most GAs produce poor results when populations are small, because insufficient information is processed about the problem and, as a consequence, premature convergence to a local optimum occurs. Population size generally varies from 30 to 300 individuals. In contrast, MGAs explore the possibility to work with small populations (from five to 20 individuals usually) in order to reduce the processing time. From a genetic point of view, it is known that frequent reproductions inside a small population may disseminate hereditary diseases rarely found in large populations. On the other hand, small populations can act as natural laboratories where desirable genetic characteristics quickly can emerge. In MGAs, mutations are unnecessary because after a certain number of generations, the best chromosome is maintained and the rest are substituted by randomly generated ones. On the other hand, it requires adoption of some preventive strategy against loss of diversity in population.

The MGA implemented in the present work is reported in the following algorithm:

- 1) Select a population of n randomly generated individuals. Alternatively, n-1 individuals may be generated randomly together with one good individual obtained from previous search
- 2) Evaluate fitness and determine the best individual which is always transferred to the next generation. This “elitist” strategy guarantees against the loss of good information embedded in the best individual produced thus far
- 3) Select individuals for reproduction with the tournament selection strategy (for example with k=2)
- 4) Apply crossover with probability equal to 1 to favor exchange of genetic information among the population
- 5) Check for convergence by measuring the amount of diversity left in the population (by counting the total number of bits which are unlike those possessed by the best individual). If population diversity has fallen under a preselected threshold, go to Step 1; otherwise, go to Step 2.

OPF problem is a nonlinear optimization problem which its goal is minimizing objective function subject to equality and inequality constrains. There are many methods to optimize

non linear problems. In this study Micro genetic algorithm(MGA) is applied in solving the OPF problem.

B. Objective Function

As presented in (1), objective function used in this case consists of active and reactive power production cost produced by generators. Consider a network that in it N and N_g are number of buses and number of generator buses respectively.

$$C = \sum_{i=1}^{N_g} (c_{gpi}(P_{Gi}) + c_{gqi}(Q_{Gi})) \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Subject to power flow equality and inequality constrains:

$$P_{Gi} - P_{Di} = \sum_{q=2}^n |v_i| |v_q| |Y_{ij}| \cos(\theta_{ij} + \delta_i - \delta_j) = 0 \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

$$Q_{Gi} - Q_{Di} = \sum_{q=2}^n |v_i| |v_q| |Y_{ij}| \sin(\theta_{ij} + \delta_i - \delta_j) = 0 \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

$$P_{Gi}^{\min} \leq P_{Gi} \leq P_{Gi}^{\max} \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

$$Q_{Gi}^{\min} \leq Q_{Gi} \leq Q_{Gi}^{\max} \dots \dots \dots (5)$$

$$V_{Gi}^{\min} \leq V_{Gi} \leq V_{Gi}^{\max} \dots \dots \dots (6)$$

$$P_{ij} \leq P_{ij}^{\max} \dots \dots \dots (7)$$

Where

P_{Gi}, Q_{Gi} real and reactive power generation at i^{th} bus

P_{Di}, Q_{Di} real and reactive power demand at i^{th} bus

$c_{gpi}(P_{Gi})$ active power cost function in i^{th} bus

$c_{gqi}(Q_{Gi})$ reactive power cost function in i^{th} bus

For computing Cost function of active power (8) is regarded.

$$c_{gpi}(P_{Gi}) = aP_{Gi}^n + bP + c \dots \dots \dots (8)$$

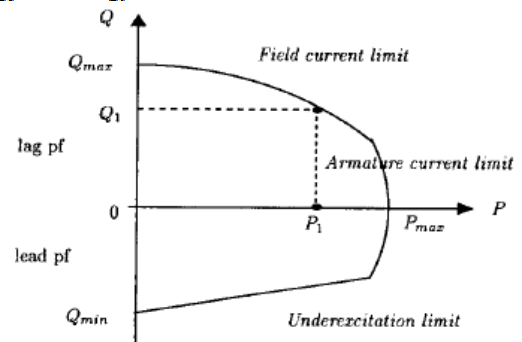


Fig. 1. Loading capability diagram.

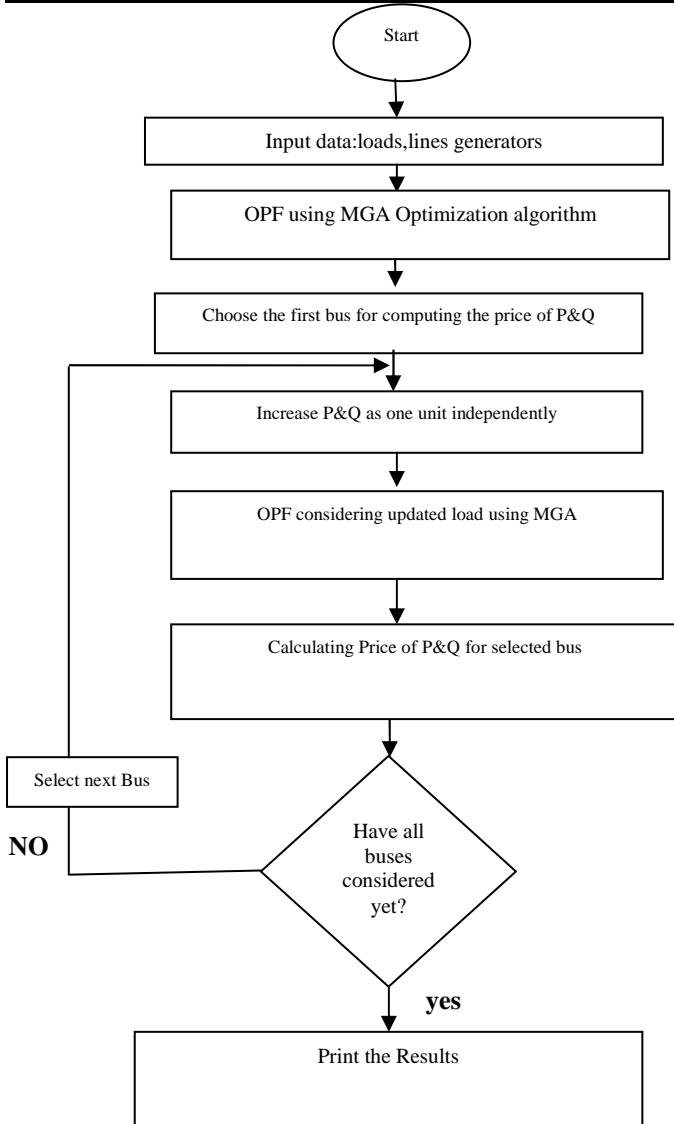


Fig. 2. The flow chart of active and reactive power pricing

Cost function for reactive power produced by generator is based on opportunity cost deduced via loading capability diagram shown in Fig. 1. Essentially opportunity cost is based on market process, but since it is hard to determine its precise and exact value, in this paper its simplest form is used where $G_i Q$ and $G_{i,max} S$ are reactive power of generator in i th bus and maximum apparent power in i th bus, respectively. K is reactive power efficiency rate which is usually between 5-10% which in this paper $K = 5\%$ is considered

$$C_{sq}(Q_{Gi}) = [C_{gpi}(S_{Gi,max}) - C_{gpi} \text{sqrtroot}(S_{Gi,max}^2 - (Q_{Gi})^2)] \dots 9$$

C. Flowchart and methodology

In this paper Locational marginal price (LMP) method is used for active and reactive power pricing. As illustrated in Fig. 2 Active power prices in each bus is determined from difference between optimum cost while constant loading and optimum cost while active power demand increases 1MW in subjected bus. Reactive power prices in each bus is determined from difference between optimum cost while constant loading and optimum cost while reactive power demand increases 1MVar in subjected bus.

III. TEST RESULTS

MGA optimization method has been applied on IEEE14 bus system which its single lines diagram shown in Fig. 3. Table I and Table II list the line parameters of network and characteristics of the network loads, respectively. Cost function coefficients of active power production by generators are in Table III. In this study mentioned objective function is calculated for 3 cases:

- 1) By the system base load that totally is 259 MW and 73.5 MVar.
- 2) 40 MVar reactive powers in bus 2, 3, 4 and 50MVar in bus 5 are injected. These buses are selected because they consume more VAr in respect of others.
- 3) Active demand loads in all buses are increased by 1.2.

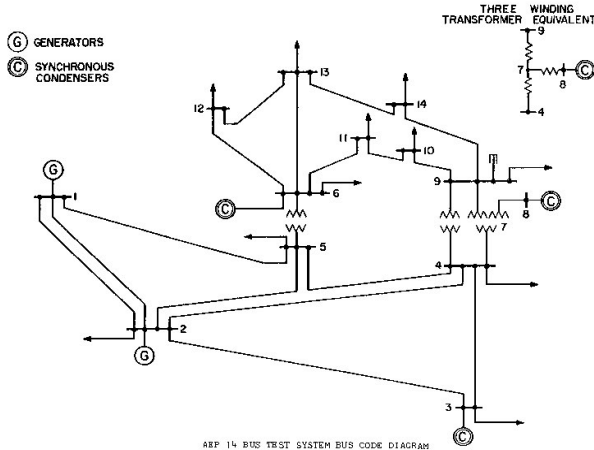


Fig. 3. IEEE14-Bus system

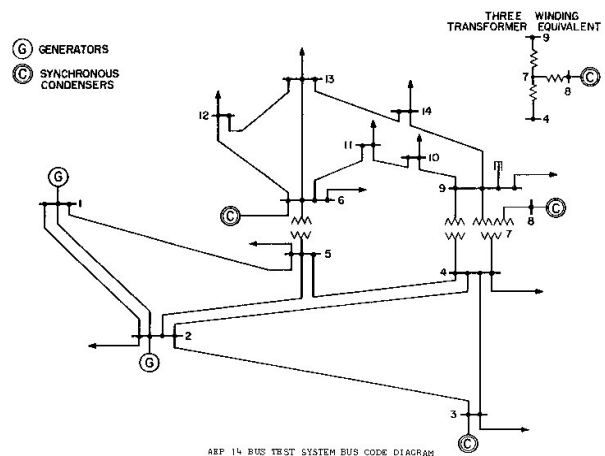


Fig. 3. IEEE 14-bus system.



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Then the determined prices by MGA optimization method are compared with those are calculated by Genetic (GA) method in Table IV where parameter λ presents the price of active and reactive power produced by generators. Case 2 declares when reactive power is injected to system in critical buses the price of active power is reduced but in this system the prices of reactive power is nearly constant in respect of case 1. Case 3 shows that, in this network, when active demands are increased, the prices of generator active power are increased too. As can be seen the result determined by MGA optimization method are reasonable and approximately equal to ones determined by GA

TABLE I LINE PARAMETERS OF 14 BUS IEEE NETWORK

Line no.	From node	To node	R(pu)	X(pu)	Yc(S)
L1	1	2	0.01938	0.05917	0.0528
L2	2	3	0.04699	0.19797	0.0492
L3	2	4	0.05811	0.17632	0.0438
L4	1	5	0.05403	0.22304	0.034
L5	2	5	0.05695	0.17388	0.0346
L6	3	4	0.01335	0.04211	0.0128
L7	4	5	0.01335	0.04211	0
L8	5	6	0.0	0.25202	0
L9	4	7	0.0	0.20912	0
L10	7	8	0.0	0.17615	0
L11	4	9	0.0	0.55618	0
L12	7	9	0.0	0.11001	0
L13	9	10	0.03181	0.08450	0
L14	6	11	0.09498	0.19890	0
L15	6	12	0.12291	0.25581	0
L16	6	13	0.06615	0.13027	0
L17	9	14	0.12711	0.27038	0
L18	10	11	0.08205	0.19207	0
L19	12	13	0.22092	0.19988	0
L20	13	14	0.17093	0.34802	0

TABLE II LOAD CHARACTERISTICS

Bus	Active Power(MW)	Reactive Power(MVAr)
1	0	0
2	21.7	0
3	94.2	0
4	47.8	0

5	7.6	0
6	11.2	0
7	0	0
8	0	0
9	29.5	0
10	9	0
11	3.5	0
12	6.1	0
13	13.5	0
14	14.9	0

TABLE II GENERATORS CHARACTERISTICS

Generator	A(\$/H)	b(\$/H)	c(\$/H)	Pmax(MW)	Pmin(Mw)
1	0.11	2	150	332.4	0
2	0.25	5	225	140	0
3	0.09	1.2	600	100	0
6	0.04	1	335	100	0
8	0.10	3	400	100	0

TABLE IV RESULT AND COMPARISON

	Case-I		Case-II		Case-III	
	MGA	GA	MGA	GA	MGA	GA
Mincost(\$/H)	3441.9	3440.1	3446.1	3435.9	4137.7	4136.01
λ (\$/HMW)	11.6	11.62	10.13	11.71	14.50	15.48
λ (\$/HMW)	11.66	11.75	10.27	11.68	14.78	14.77
λ (\$/HMW)	11.86	12.03	10.29	11.93	15.07	15.14
λ (\$/HMW)	11.32	11.41	10.02	11.48	14.41	14.40
λ (\$/HMWr)	12	11.91	10.39	11.97	14.95	14.99
λ (\$/HMWr)	0.18	0.334	1.52	0.17	0.13	0.31
λ (\$/HMWr)	0.08	0.325	1.96	0.38	0.15	0.33
λ (\$/HMWr)	0.12	0.268	1.84	0.22	0.13	0.27
λ (\$/HMWr)	0.18	0.012	1.61	0.093	0.16	0.021
λ (\$/HMWr)	0.02	0.213	1.68	0.095	0.287	0.2414

IV. CONCLUSION

This paper use Micro genetic algorithm method for solving Optimal Power Flow (OPF) in order to minimize the objective function which consists of active and reactive power costs produced by generators. Particle swarm optimization is a very simple algorithm that appears to be effective for optimizing a wide range of functions [9]. This approach has been applied on IEEE 14 bus system. The simulation results of this work in comparison with Genetic algorithm show that the method is physically reasonable and its implementation is simpler than other optimization methods such as GA. The presented technique can also be applied to manage and set the price of the reactive power supplied by other sources than generators and in different market types

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LAGRANGIAN MODEL FOR SIMULATING TURBULENT DISPERSION AND AGGLOMERATION OF DROPLETS WITHIN A SPRAY

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ABSTRACT

Lagrangian modeling approach is for simulating turbulent dispersion and agglomeration of droplets within a spray. This model (Lagrangian) predicts droplet dispersion rate and shift in droplet size distribution due to agglomeration within the spray, over a wide range of droplet and gas flows, and for sprays with different size distribution at the nozzle exit. The computer time required for simulating agglomeration within a steady axisymmetric spray is of a similar order of magnitude regardless of which formulation, Lagrangian, is adopted. However the Lagrangian formulation is more practical in terms of the range of applicability and ease of implementation.

Keywords: *Lagrangian, Dispersion, Agglomeration, Droplets, Turbulent, CFD, Spray*

I. INTRODUCTION

Spray dryers are used to produce dried powder products by atomising liquid suspensions that contain solids into a stream of hot gas where the moisture is evaporated. Particle agglomeration is an important phenomenon in this process because it affects the size distribution of the particles, and hence the properties of the dry powder. Agglomeration kinetics are determined to a certain extent by the turbulent nature of the flow, which influences the dispersion rate of particles and hence the development of relative velocities between particles, a prerequisite for successful particle collisions. No fundamental theory has yet been applied to model turbulent dispersion and agglomeration simultaneously within a spray dryer, and this lack of fundamental understandings is the reason, that spray dryers are so difficult to design. In fact, dryer manufacturers and users of spray dryers typically rely on simple empirical models or a trial and error approach to improve their designs and operating conditions. The aim of this work to address this gap in fundamental understanding and to develop a Computational Fluid Dynamics

(CFD) model to predict the turbulent dispersion and agglomeration of droplets within a spray. In the Lagrangian model, the spray is represented by a flow of gas, treated mathematically as a continuum, which carries numerous discrete droplet parcels, each parcel consisting of a group of physical droplets of similar size. The trajectory of each droplet parcel within the airflow is predicted by solving the Lagrangian equations of mass and momentum. The Monte-Carlo method is used to model the turbulent dispersion of droplets by effectively sampling the fluctuating velocities of the droplets randomly. Ruger et al. (2000) [10] and Berlemont et al. (1990) [1] have used Lagrangian calculations in their analyses.

Mostafa and Mongia (1987) [7] have been that Lagrangian approach is able to predict the main features of a turbulent spray, such as the decay of the entire line axial velocity and the turbulent dispersion of droplets. The Lagrangian method may have Fourier transport equations to solve numerically, but the trade off is the necessity of a three-dimensional, transient solution to properly model the effect of collisions and turbulence interactions on the trajectories of individual droplets. In this paper, the Lagrangian predicts of droplet turbulent dispersion and agglomeration within a spray are compared over a wide range of gas and droplet flows, and for sprays with different droplet size (1) to validate the numerical aspects of each mathematical formulation so that the models can be applied with more confidence in future simulations. (2) To determine whether each approach predicts similar droplet turbulent dispersion and agglomeration rates, and (3) To ascertain the weaknesses and strengths of each approach in terms of the case of application and subsequent computational effort required. The ultimate aim of the work is to develop a validated CFD model to predict the extent of particle agglomeration within a spray dryer, and the flow patterns and drying of particles, and to use this predictive tool to design more efficient spray dryer that produce higher throughputs.

II. MODEL DESCRIPTION

Lagrangian method is for calculating the velocity and turbulence fields, and the turbulent dispersion of droplets, are described in detail by Ruger et al.(2000)[10] and Nijdam et al.(2003)[8], respectively. Here, we provide only a description of the agglomeration models used in each approach. This model has been incorporated into a commercially available Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) program called CFX4 (AEA Technology). The Lagrangian approach requires a transient, three dimensional calculations.

2.1 Lagrangian Agglomeration Model

The Lagrangian agglomeration model is a modification of the O'Rourke model (1981)[9], for which parcels of droplets are tracked simultaneously in three-dimensional space and with time. The turbulent effect is included within the droplet transport model using the eddy-lifetime method of Gosman and Ioannides (1983)[2]. When considering a collision between two parcels, the parcel containing the larger number of droplets (N_i) is called the 'contributor' While the parcel containing fewer droplets (N_j) is called the 'collector'. Ruger et al. (2000) [10] have shown that the collision frequency ν between the collector and contributor parcels is proportional to the mean number density, a collision cross-sectional area, and a relative velocity, as follows:

$$\nu = \frac{N_j}{V} \frac{\pi}{4} (D_i + D_j)^2 u_r \quad \dots\dots (1)$$

Where V is the volume within which both parcels are located. This volume V is related to the cube of the distance l between parcels, so that eqn. (1) becomes

$$v = \frac{N_j}{b_1 t^3} (D_i + D_j)^2 u_r \quad \dots\dots (2)$$

Where b_1 is an empirical constant A “proximity” function is derived from Equation (2), as follows

$$P = \frac{N_j}{t^3} \Delta t (D_i + D_j)^2 u_r \quad \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

Which effectively represents the probability of collision between two parcels over a given time interval Δt . At the end of each time-step in the simulation, the proximity function is evaluated for every combination of parcel pairs. Collision of a pair of parcels is allowed when the proximity function P exceeds a critical value P_c ,

$$P \geq P_c \equiv -\frac{b_1 \log 0.5}{1.5} \quad \dots\dots\dots (4)$$

for any acceptable collision, the collector parcel absorbs a part of the colliding contributor parcel, so that every droplet in the collector parcel coalesces with a droplet in the contributor parcel on a one-to-one basis to form the group of agglomerates. The remaining diminished contributor parcel, which contains any excess droplets, is tracked further in the next time-step. The velocities of the parcels after collision are determined by conservation of momentum. The size of the droplets in the collector increases according to conservation of volume, as follows.

$$D^3 = D^3_i + D^3_j \quad \dots\dots\dots (5)$$

A more detailed description of the model can be found in Guo et al. (2003)[3].

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 No Agglomeration Case

Figure 1 shows the Lagrangian predicts of the axial mean velocity profiles of the droplets at various axial locations downstream of the nozzle clearly, it predicts decay rate for the. axial mean velocity at the centre-line.

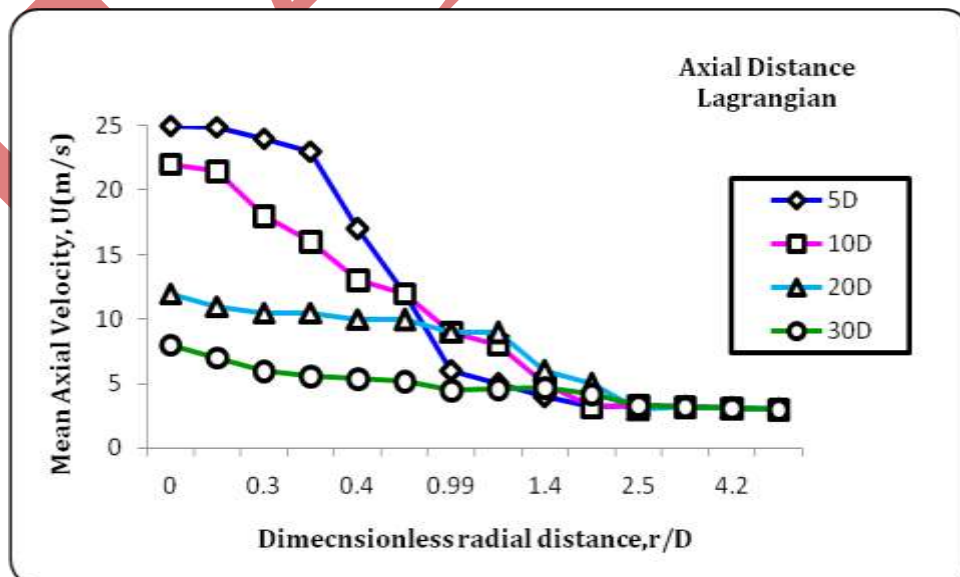


Fig1: Mean axial velocity U (mean of all droplet size classes) versus dimensionless radial distance at various axial locations from the nozzle exit.

Figure 2: shows that the spreading rate of droplets of different size is also similarly predicted in this model. . and implies that smaller droplets disperse radially more rapidly than larger droplets. This is physically reasonable because small droplets have relatively low inertia and therefore they readily follow the turbulent fluctuations of the carrier gas, whereas large droplets have relatively high inertia so that they are less affected by gas-flow turbulent fluctuations. The Lagrangian approach is able to predict the main features of a turbulent spray, including the decay of centerline velocity and the radial dispersion of droplets with axial distance from the nozzle.

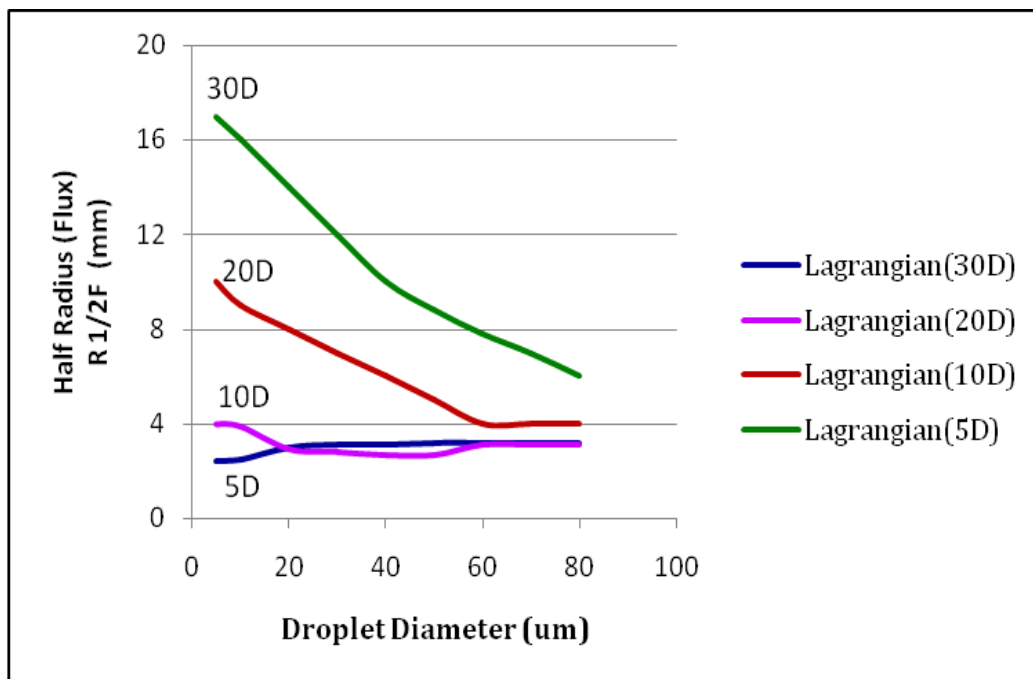


Fig 2: The half-radius $R_{1/2F}$ of the radial profiles of droplet volume flux for different droplet size classes at various axial locations from the nozzle exit.

3.2 Agglomeration Case

The Lagrangian model is first fitted to one set of spray conditions by arbitrarily choosing a value of 3.2 for the Lagrangian parameter b_l . A second set of parameters – double the Lagrangian parameter ($b_l=6.4$) is also tested over a range of droplet flows. This test gives an indication of the compatibility for predicting droplet – droplet interactions with different agglomeration efficiencies. Here, the critical agglomeration probability (eq. 4), and accounts for the reduced probability of collision and subsequent coalescence due to 1) unsuccessful wake capture of a portion of droplets as they are accelerated within the wakes of other droplets, and 2) insufficient contact times for the film separating collided droplet pairs to drain and rupture. Figure 3 shows the Lagrangian predicts of the Sauter-mean diameter D_{32} for sprays having the same normalized droplet volume distribution, and air velocity and turbulence profiles at the nozzle exit, but having different total droplet flows in this model predicts similar increases in D_{32} with droplet flow for two different sets of agglomeration parameters (b_l and β_o). Firstly, this verifies to a certain extent of the Lagrangian numerical code, so that it can be used with confidence in future agglomeration calculations. Secondly, this result implies that a sufficient number of droplet size classes (15 droplet size classes) and parcels (about 20000 parcels are tracked at any given time) have been chosen for the Lagrangian approach, to ensure that the solution is independent of these quantities.

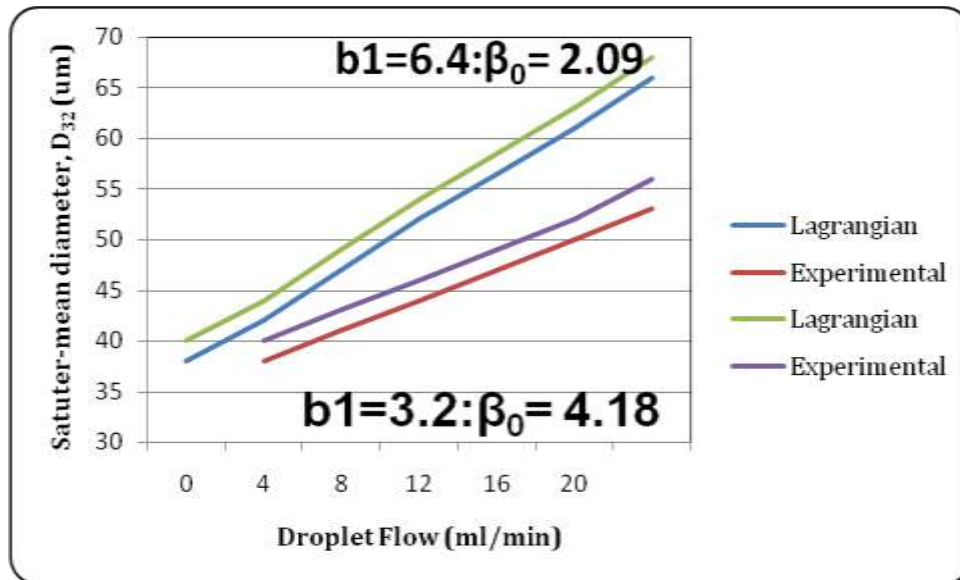


Fig:3 Lagrangian predictions of the integral Sauter-mean diameter D_{32} at an axial location of 30D for sprays with different droplet flows, and with different agglomeration efficiencies

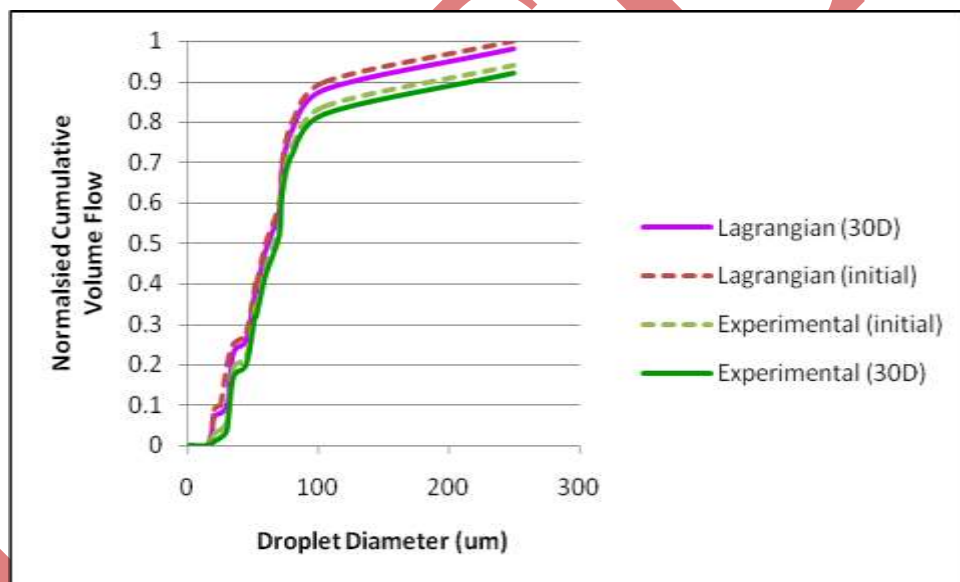


Fig: 4 Lagrangian predictions of the droplet size distribution at an axial location of 30D for a spray with a poly – disperse droplet size distribution (droplet flow is 10ml/min b_1 is 3.2).

Additionally, the discretisation of the droplet size distribution used in Lagrangian model is small enough so that further refinement would not effect the solution significantly. Finally, this result shows that this method predicts agglomeration rate, over a wide range of droplet flows and for different agglomeration efficiencies. The development of a poly-disperse droplet size distribution downstream of the nozzle is for the Lagrangian model, as shown in Figure 4. This agreement is also found when simulating the downstream development of a mono-size (36 μ m) droplet dispersion, as shown in Figure 5. Thus, this model predicts agglomeration of droplets in sprays with different droplet-size distributions at the nozzle exit.

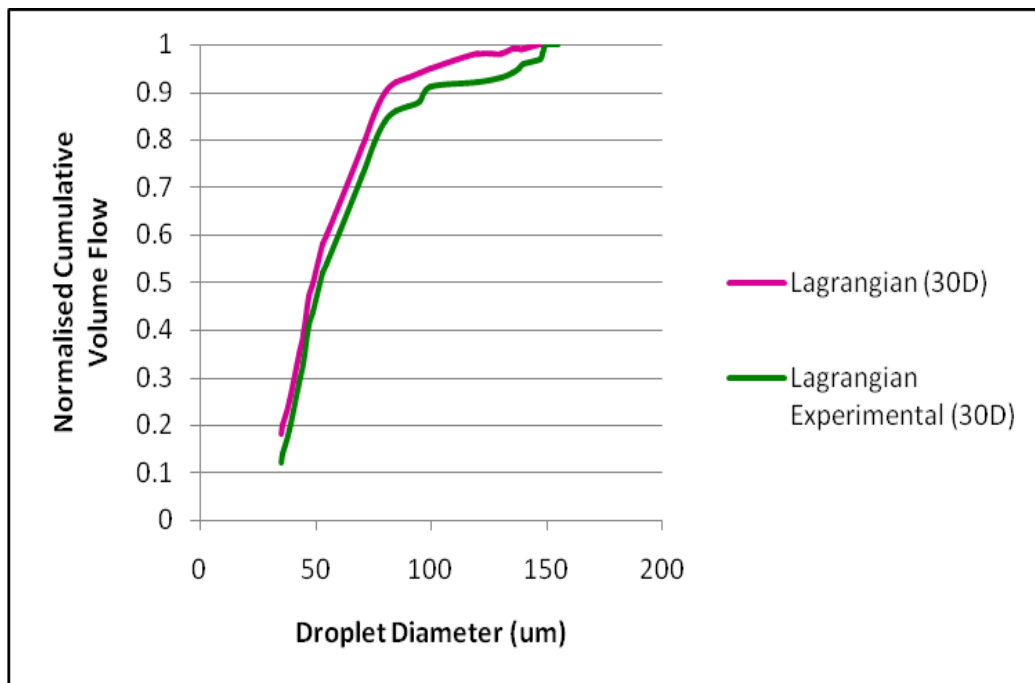


Fig 5: The Lagrangian predictions of the droplet size distribution at an axial location of 30D for a spray with an initial mono-sized distribution with 36 μm droplets (droplet flow is 10ml / min, b_1 is 3.2).

The effect of the gas-flow velocity and turbulence on the extent of agglomeration is shown in Table 1. In this part of the investigation, the velocity of the carrier gas at the nozzle exit is doubled and the turbulence kinetic energy is quadrupled (in order to retain the same turbulence intensity), while keeping the droplet flow constant at 10 ml/min. This effectively halves the number density of droplets at the nozzle exit, and hence reduces the extent of agglomeration within the spray, so that D_{32} at 30 nozzle diameters reduces from 52 μm to 45 μm . When the droplet flow is doubled from 10ml/min to 20 ml/min, while keeping the gas velocity and turbulence kinetic energy constant at the higher values, the number density at the nozzle exit increases back to the original value, and consequently D_{32} at 30 nozzle diameters, increases from 45 μm to 53 μm . According to the Lagrangian predictions, D_{32} at 30 nozzle diameters only increases marginally from 51.8 μm to 52.5 μm when the gas velocity is doubled while keeping the droplet number density constant. Thus, the extent of agglomeration within a single spray is relatively insensitive to the carrier gas velocity and turbulence levels generated within the shear layer of the spray, and reasonably sensitive to the number density of droplets at the nozzle exit. In practice, it is considerably easier to change the number density of droplets over a wide range of values than the gas-flow velocity, which suggests that droplet number concentration is a particularly effective variable for controlling agglomeration.

Table 1 shows that Lagrangian model predicts the above mentioned trends. We have found that the computation time required to complete an agglomeration simulation is of a particular order of magnitude in its approach. The Lagrangian approach as a three dimensional calculation is realistically possible, so that it is more applicable for a wider range of different flows.

TABLE 1: Sauter-mean diameter D at an axial location of $30D$ for poly-disperse sprays with different air velocities and droplet flows: Lagrangian predictions (b_{1is} 3.2).

Droplet Flow (ml/min)	Velocity	$D_{32}@ 30D$ (μm)
		Lagrangian
10	1x	51.8
10	2x	45.4
0	2x	52.5

The Lagrangian approach is not limited in this manner, so that droplets of similar size originating from different nozzles that point towards each other can cross-over the central axis of the impinging spray system, provided they have sufficient inertia.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The Lagrangian approach is able to simulate droplet turbulent dispersion and agglomeration for a wide range of droplet and gas flows, and for sprays from nozzles that produce different droplet size distributions. Moreover, the time required for simulating agglomeration within a steady axisymmetric spray is of the given magnitude for this approach. The Lagrangian approach has a wide range with regard to the range of applicability and ease of implementation.

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HEAT TRANSFER ANALYSIS OF AUTOMOTIVE DISC BRAKES

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ABSTRACT

The braking system plays the crucial role in the safety of a vehicle and its design poses a critical challenge. The heat dissipation and thermal performance of ventilated brake discs strongly depends on the aerodynamic characteristics of the air flow through the rotor passages. In this paper, the 3D CAD models for Solid disc and discs with different fin configurations namely, Straight Elliptical fins, Backward curved fins and Forward curved fins are designed. Each finned model disc with 12, 24 and 36 number of fins were developed using catia V5R20. The 3D FE models have been developed for the above disc configurations using Hypermesh V11 and the heat transfer analysis was carried out using ansys fluent13 at two different velocities at 40 mph and 50 mph. It was found that the Forward curved fins are having superior thermal performance characteristics both at 40 and 50 mph, namely at 40 mph and with 36 fins, show surface Heat Transfer coefficient $278.2 \text{ w/m}^2\text{k}$, Nusselt number 11000, Reynolds number 1930.

Keywords: Brake rotor, C.F.D., Heat transfer, Numerical Simulation, Velocity.

I. INTRODUCTION

The disc brake is a wheel brake which slows rotation of the wheel by the friction caused by pushing brake pads against a brake disc with a set of calipers. The brake disc (or *rotor* in American English) is usually made of cast iron, but may in some cases be made of composites such as reinforced carbon-carbon or ceramic matrix composites. This is connected to the wheel and/or the axle. To stop the wheel, friction material in the form of brake pads, mounted on a device called a brake caliper, is forced mechanically, hydraulically, pneumatically or electro magnetically against both sides of the disc. Friction causes the disc and attached wheel to slow or stop. Brakes convert motion to heat, and if the brakes get too hot, they become less effective, a phenomenon known as brake fade.

For solid rotors, the highest temperature occurs on the surfaces of the rotors. To decrease the maximum temperature, the most effective way is to increase the thickness of the rotors. However, the increase is limited by the pistons. Materials also have effects on the rotor's temperature. From this research, steel is a better alloy to dissipate heat from the rotors. But in practical design problems, the thermal performance is not the only requirement. From the perspective of stiffness, friction resistance and cost, the cast iron material is common used in industry.

The objective of current paper is

- To estimate heat flux generated in solid discs
- The combinations of various fin configurations namely Straight Elliptical, Backward Curved, Forward curved and the various numbers of fins (12, 24 and 36) at two different speeds (40 and 50 mph) will be studied.
- To predict the effect of these variables on the heat transfer performance of disc brakes.

The technical drawing of rotor is as shown in Fig1.

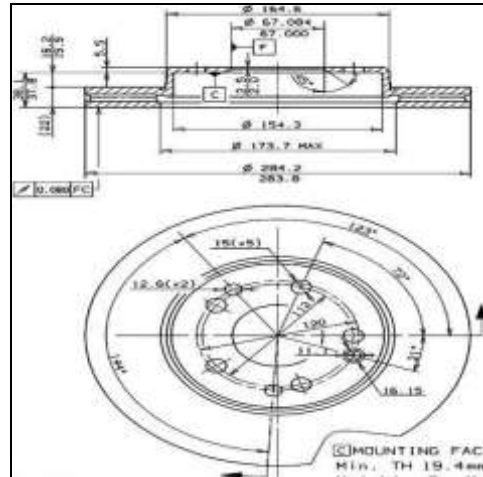


Fig.1 Drawing of OEM XYZ Rotor

II. METHODOLOGY

The 3D CAD models were developed for various disc configurations, namely Solid disc, discs with Straight elliptical fins, Backward curved fins and Forward curved fins with 12, 24 and 36 fins were created using CATIA V5R20. The 3D FE models were created for the above mentioned disc configurations using HYPERMESH V11.

The conjugate heat transfer analysis was carried for each disc model using ANSYS-FLUENT13 at a disc speed of 40 mph and 50mph. The result plots were taken using ENSIGHT post processor. The cad models of rotors are shown in Fig2,3,4 and 5.



Fig.2 Solid Rotor



Fig.3 Rotor with Straight Elliptical Fins

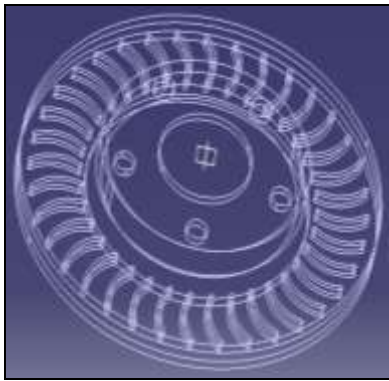


Fig.4 Rotor with Backward Curved Fins



Fig.5 Rotor with Forward Curved Fins

III. PROPERTIES OF MEDIUM

In this section the various thermal and mechanical properties of the brake material and air medium will be presented.

Cast Iron Properties	Air Properties
Thermal conductivity, $k = 27-46 \text{ w/m-K}$	Heat transfer coefficient, $h = 5-25 \text{ w/m}^2\text{K}$ (Free Convection)
Density, $\rho = 6800-7800 \text{ kg/m}^3$	$25-200 \text{ w/m}^2\text{K}$ (Forced Convection)
Specific heat, $c = 460 \text{ J/Kg-K}$	

Table.1 Properties of Medium

The vehicle and brake disc specifications considered for the analysis will be tabulated.

Vehicle Specifications	Disc Brake Specifications
Manufacturer = OEM	Brake Disc Thickness (mm): 21.9
Model = OEM XYZ	Brake Disc Type: Vented Disc
Year of Manufacture = 1998	Centering Diameter (mm): 67.0
Curb weight = 1600 Kg	Fitting Position: Front Axle
	Height (mm): 48.2
	Minimum Thickness (mm): 20.0
	Number of Holes: 5
	Outer Diameter (mm): 262.4

Table.2 Vehicle specifications

IV. BOUNDARY CONDITIONS

Inlet: Pressure at atmospheric condition (101325 Pa)

Outlet: Pressure at slightly above atmospheric condition (101525 Pa)

Ambient Temperature: 300 K

Convergence Tolerance: Default

Velocity of Rotor: 40 and 50 mph

For this problem, the model is based on the following assumptions:

- Continuum flow
- Newtonian fluid
- Steady state
- Laminar flow
- Constant properties (density, conductivity, specific heat, and viscosity)
- Uniform surface heat flux
- Gravitational effect is considered.

The following commands/options were used in ANSYS-FLUENT to do the flow analysis.

- Pressure based solver
- Velocity formulation - Absolute
- Gravity is applied
- Second-Order upwind scheme for flow
- Convergence checks for continuity, energy and Momentum are taken as default values ($1e-6$)
- Energy equation is on.
- K-e (K-epsilon) model with standard wall functions
- Coupled (Pressure-velocity coupling) solver

V. VARIOUS PLOTS FOR ALL GEOMETRIES

In this Chapter, the results for 1 model of Solid disc and 3 models of discs with different fin shapes, namely Straight Elliptical fins, Backward curved fins, and Forward curved fins at different speeds, namely 40 mph and 50 mph with 12, 24 and 36 number of fins are presented.

The variation of Heat Transfer Coefficient with respect to number of fins, for various fin shapes at 40mph is shown in Fig.6

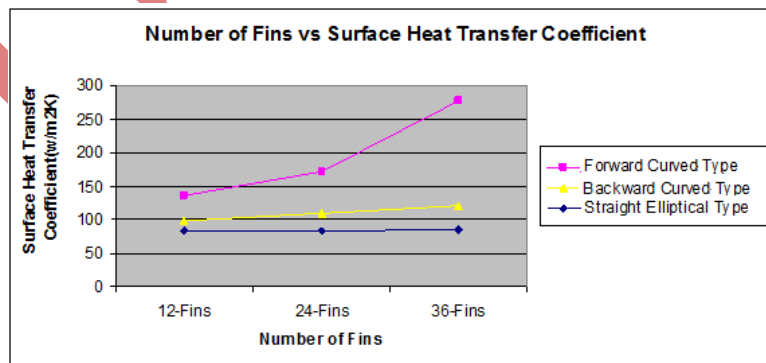


Fig.6 Number of Fins vs. Surface Heat Transfer Coefficient

From Fig.6 it is observed that the Heat Transfer Coefficient is increasing as the numbers of fins are increasing from 12 to 24 and 24 to 36. From Fig.6 it is clear that the Forward curved fins with 36 numbers of fins are having highest Heat transfer coefficient compared to the rest.

The values of Heat Transfer coefficient for Solid disc and discs with different fin shapes namely Straight elliptical fins, Backward curved fins and Forward curved fins for 12 fins, 24 fins and 36 fins at 40mph and 50 mph are shown in the Table 3.

Fin Shape	Number of Fins	Surface Heat Transfer Coefficient (w/m ² -K) at 40mph	Surface Heat Transfer Coefficient (w/m ² -K) at 50 mph
Solid		78.2	97.75
Straight Elliptical Fins	12-Fins	82.6	103.25
	24-Fins	83.96	104.95
	36-Fins	85.49	106.86
Backward Curved Fins	12-Fins	97.98	122.48
	24-Fins	108.66	135.83
	36-Fins	120.24	150.3
Forward Curved Fins	12-Fins	136.29	170.36
	24-Fins	171.73	214.66
	36-Fins	278.2	347.74

Table.3 Values of Heat Transfer Coefficient at 40mph and 50 mph

The variation of Surface Nusselt Number with respect to number of fins, for various fin shapes at 40mph is shown in Fig.7

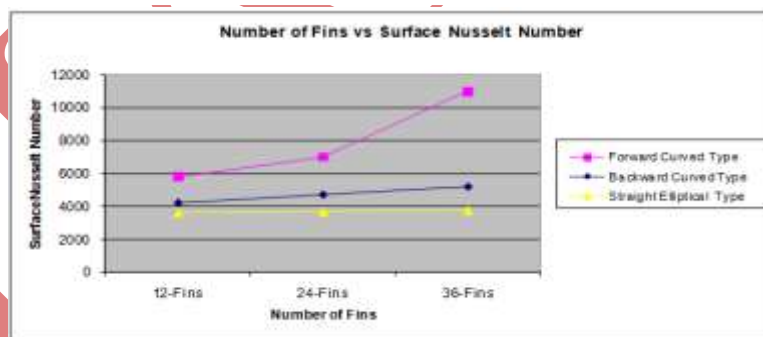


Fig.7. Number of Fins vs. Nusselt Number

From Fig.7 it is observed that the Nusselt Number is increasing as the numbers of fins are increasing from 12 to 24 and 24 to 36. From Fig.7 it is clear that the Forward curved fins with 36 numbers of fins are having highest Nusselt Number compared to the rest.

The values of Nusselt Number for Solid disc and discs with different fin shapes namely Straight elliptical fins, Backward curved fins and Forward curved fins for 12 fins, 24 fins and 36 fins at 40mph and 50 mph are shown in the Table 4

	Number of Fins	Surface Nusselt Number at 40mph	Surface Nusselt Number at 50 mph
Solid		3230	4038
Straight Elliptical Fins	12-Fins	3620	4525
	24-Fins	3680	4600
	36-Fins	3752	4690
Backward Curved Fins	12-Fins	4215	5269
	24-Fins	4712	5890
	36-Fins	5213	6516
Forward Curved Fins	12-Fins	5814	7268
	24-Fins	7000	11640
	36-Fins	11000	15784

Table.4 Values of Nusselt Number at 40mph and 50 mph

The variation of Reynolds Number with respect to number of fins, for various fin shapes at 40mph is shown in Fig.8

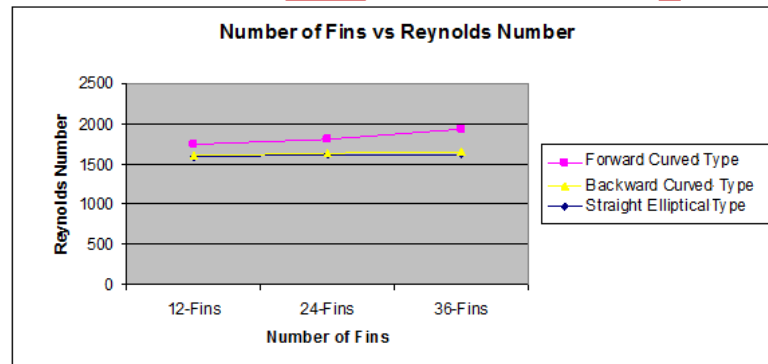


Fig.8 Number of Fins vs. Reynolds Number

From Fig.8 it is observed that the Reynolds Number is increasing as the numbers of fins are increasing from 12 to 24 and 24 to 36. From Fig.8 it is clear that the Forward curved fins with 36 numbers of fins are having highest Reynolds Number compared to the other.

The values of Reynolds Number for Solid disc and discs with different fin shapes namely Straight elliptical fins, Backward curved fins and Forward curved fins for 12 fins, 24 fins and 36 fins at 40mph and 50 mph are shown in the Table 5

Fin Shape	Number of Fins	Reynolds Number at 40mph	Reynolds Number at 50 mph
Solid		1422	1582
Straight Elliptical Fins	12-Fins	1602	1730
	24-Fins	1628	1742
	36-Fins	1656	1787

Backward Curved Fins	12-Fins	1602	1826
	24-Fins	1628	1859
	36-Fins	1656	1902
Forward Curved Fins	12-Fins	1739	1915
	24-Fins	1812	2095
	36-Fins	1930	2313

Table.5 Values of Reynolds Number at 40mph and 50 mph

Tables 3,4 and 5 shows the results of heat transfer analysis for 1 model of Solid disc and 3 models of discs with different fin shapes, namely Straight Elliptical fins, Backward curved fins, and Forward curved fins at different speeds, namely 40 mph and 50 mph with 12, 24 and 36 number of fins.

From the tables 3,4 and 5 it is observed that as the number of fins are increased for curved rotors the heat transfer parameters like Heat transfer coefficient, Nusselt number, and Reynolds number are increasing.

It is also observed that these heat transfer parameters are changing with the change of curvature of fins. These parameters are increasing from Straight elliptical fins to Backward curved fins and Backward curved fins to Forward curved fins.

VI. CONCLUSION

The following conclusions have been drawn from the analysis performed on the various fin configurations at 40 and 50 mph. The most important variables affecting thermal performance are fin numbers and curvature. From the result the disc with Forward type fins is superior in terms of heat transfer performance when compared to all other fin types, namely Solid disc, Backward curved fins and Straight elliptical fins. It is found that at 40mph and 50mph the disc with Forward curved fins is having the better heat transfer characteristics. Forward disc has the following values at 40mph with 36 numbers of fins Surface Heat Transfer Coefficient 278.2 ($\text{w/m}^2\text{-K}$), Nusselt Number 11000, and Reynolds Number 1930. Forward disc has the following values at 50mph with 36 numbers of fins Surface Heat Transfer Coefficient 347.74 ($\text{w/m}^2\text{-K}$), Nusselt Number 15784, and Reynolds Number 2313. From the results it is observed that as the speed of the rotor increases Reynolds number increases, Nusselt number improved and Heat transfer coefficient increased.

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Effect of Induced Turbulence in a C.I Engine by Varying Compression Ratio and Injection Timing on the Performance of the Engine

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Abstract- The depletion of world petroleum reserves results in, two crises that are rising of fuel prices and global warming problems. The energy security can be maintained by improving the efficiency of energy producing components. Efforts are being made to find the alternatives. In the present work the modification of C I engine, for inducing turbulence to improve the combustible mixture, a rotating blade has been provided in the cavity (bowl) of the reciprocating piston in the main combustion chamber. The oscillation of the connecting rod causes the blade to rotate by an angle of 60°. This arrangement induces the turbulence in combustible mixture during engine operation, through which better combustion can be achieved. The effects of induced turbulence, injection pressure, compression ratio, injection timing on combustion, performance and emission characteristics of diesel fuelled compression ignition engine are studied.

Key words- Turbulence, rotating blades, modified piston

INTRODUCTION

Internal combustion engines have been a relatively inexpensive and reliable source of power for applications ranging from domestic use to large scale industrial and transportation applications for most of the twentieth century. DI Diesel engines, having the evident benefit of a higher thermal efficiency than all other engines, have served for both light- duty and heavy- duty vehicles. The in-cylinder fluid motion in internal combustion engines is one of the most important factors controlling the combustion process. It governs the fuel-air mixing and burning rates in diesel engines. The fluid flow prior to combustion in internal combustion engines is generated during the induction process and developed during the compression stroke. Therefore, a better understanding of fluid motion during the induction process is critical for developing engine designs with the most desirable operating and emission characteristics. To obtain a better combustion with lesser emissions in direct injection diesel engines, it is necessary to achieve a good spatial distribution of the injected fuel throughout the entire space. This requires matching of the fuel sprays with combustion chamber geometry to effectively make use of the gas flows. In other words, matching the combustion chamber geometry, fuel injection and gas flows is the most crucial

factor for attaining a better combustion. In DI diesel engines, swirl can increase the rate of fuel-air mixing, reducing the combustion duration for re-entrant chambers at retarded injection timings. Swirl interaction with compression induced squish flow increases turbulence levels in the combustion bowl, promoting mixing. Since the flow in the combustion Chamber develops from interaction of the intake flow with the in-cylinder geometry, the goal of this work is to characterize the role of combustion chamber geometry on in-cylinder flow. It is evident that the effect of geometry has a negligible effect on the airflow during the intake stroke and early part of the compression stroke. But when the piston moves towards Top Dead Centre (TDC), the bowl geometry has a significant effect on air flow thereby resulting in better atomization, better mixing and better combustion. The re-entrant chamber without central projection and with sharp edges provides higher swirl number than all other chambers. Turbulence plays a very vital role in combustion phenomenon. The flame speed is very low in non-turbulent mixtures. A turbulent motion of the mixture intensifies the processes of heat transfer and mixing of the burned and unburned portions in the flame front (diffusion). These two factors cause the velocity of turbulent flame to increase practically in proportion to the turbulence velocity. The turbulence of the mixture is due to admission of fuel-air mixture through comparatively narrow sections of the intake pipe, valves, etc. in the suction stroke. The turbulence can be increased at the end of the compression by suitable design of combustion chamber, which involves the geometry of cylinder head and piston crown. The degree of turbulence increases directly with the piston speed. If there is no turbulence the time occupied by each explosion would be so great as to make the high speed internal combustion engines impracticable. Insufficient turbulence lowers the efficiency due to incomplete combustion of the fuel. However, excessive turbulence is also undesirable.

The effects of turbulence can be summarized as follows: Turbulence accelerates chemical action by intimate mixing of fuel and oxygen. Hence Turbulence allows the ignition,

advance to be reduced and therefore weak mixtures can be burnt. The increase of flame speed due to turbulence reduces the combustion time and hence minimizes the tendency to detonate. Turbulence increases the heat flow to the cylinder wall and in the limit excessive turbulence may extinguish the flame. Excessive turbulence results in the more rapid pressure rise (though maximum pressure may be lowered) and the high rate of pressure rise causes the crankshaft to spring and rest of the engine to vibrate. With high periodicity, resulting in rough and noisy running of the engine.

MODIFICATION OF ENGINE

Base piston is having simple bowl shaped structure on the crown of it. In the present work modified piston is made with three rotating blades at 120° to each other in piston bowl. The blades used for this work should be of same material which piston have. Aluminum alloy material is used in fabrication of blades. The modified piston is arranged in the combustion chamber.



Fig 1: Piston with the rotating blades inside the bowl.



Fig 2 : Arrangement of modified piston inside the engine cylinder

EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

Experiments are conducted on a 4-stroke single cylinder 3.68 Kw Kirlosker water cooled Diesel engine. All these tests are conducted at a rated speed of 1500 RPM . The experimental set up is shown in fig.



Fig 3 : View across the engine side

From the experiments observed that combustibility of the fuel is very important in order get a good power output and good thermal efficiencies. The turbulence was played an important role here. In the present work it can be obtained by arranging the rotating blades inside the piston bowl of the engine.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A variable load test is conducted on Diesel engine by arranging the modified piston inside the cylinder. The better combustibility of fuel is obtain by better turbulence due to the modified piston. The performance and emission characteristics are explained below in detail.

BRAKE THERMAL EFFICIENCY

The variation of brake thermal efficiency with respect to load applied for 17.5 and 20.1 compression ratios and advanced, standard and retard injection timings for normal and modified pistons are shown in exhibits 1&2. Turbulence is caused by modified piston. Turbulence enhances mixing and probably produces a leaning effect. The turbulence in the combustion chamber makes the charge into homogeneous and increases the combustibility of fuel. So brake thermal efficiency of modified piston is 2% more than the normal piston. Brake thermal efficiency is increasing with load applied. Compared to normal piston the efficiency increased by 2.2% for modified piston with 17.5 compression ratio. For 20.1 compression ratio the improvement in brake thermal efficiency is less than 17.5 and is up to 2% only. Thus we can get better improvement in brake thermal efficiency at 17.5 compression ratio. Brake thermal efficiency is got max. for the advanced injection timing compared to standard and retard timings. So that the brake thermal efficiency can be increased by more than 2% for modified piston of 17.5 compression ratio and advanced injection timing.

VOLUMETRIC EFFICIENCY

The variation of volumetric efficiency with respect to load applied for 17.5 and 20.1 compression ratios and advanced, standard and retard injection timings for normal and modified pistons are shown in exhibits 3&4. Volumetric efficiency depends up on the intake air into the combustion chamber. As the intake air into cylinder is more then we get better volumetric efficiency. By Turbulence we get better results. The volumetric efficiency of modified piston

is 2-3 % more than the normal piston. Compared to normal piston the efficiency increased by 2.6% for modified piston with 17.5 compression ratio. For 20.1 compression ratio the improvement in volumetric efficiency is almost same as 17.5 and is also varies between 2-3% only. Volumetric efficiency is got maximum at 17.5 compression ratio, 200 bar pressure and standard injection timing, for 20.1 compression ratio it is 250 bar pressure and advance timing. So that the brake thermal efficiency can be increased by more than 2% for modified piston of 17.5 compression ratio and advanced injection timing.

CARBON MONOXIDE (CO) EMISSIONS

The amount of Carbon monoxide (CO) emissions present in the exhaust with respect to load applied for 17.5 and 20.1 compression ratios and advanced, standard and retard injection timings for normal and modified pistons are shown in exhibits 5&6. As more amount of oxygen is available in cylinder results the reduction in CO emissions. Due to the turbulence there will be a good amount of oxygen supply to cylinder. Turbulence is caused by modified piston. So that carbon monoxide emissions are reduced by 15% vol with modified piston. Carbon monoxide emissions are reduced with load applied. Compared to normal piston the CO emissions are reduced by 14% vol for modified piston with 17.5 compression ratio. For 20.1 compression ratio the reduction in CO emissions is 17% vol for modified piston. Thus we can get good reduction in CO emissions at 17.5 compression ratio. CO emissions are got min. at 250 bar pressure and the standard injection timing for 20.1 compression ratio. So that the CO emissions are reduced by 15 % with modified piston.

HYDRO CARBON (HC) EMISSIONS

The amount of Hydrocarbon (HC) emissions present in the exhaust with respect to load applied for 17.5 and 20.1 compression ratios and advanced, standard and retard injection timings for normal and modified pistons are shown in exhibits 7&8. Here some amount of lean mixture present in the cylinder. Turbulence can be obtained by the modified piston. With the turbulence rich mixture is obtained. This causes the reduction of hydrocarbons in the exhaust. So that the hydrocarbon emissions are reduced with modified piston. So that HC emissions are reduced by 13% with modified piston. Compared to normal piston the HC emissions are reduced by 14% for modified piston with 17.5 compression ratio. For 20.1 compression ratio the reduction in HC emissions is 12% for modified piston. Thus we can get good reduction in HC emissions at 17.5 compression ratio and advanced injection timing.

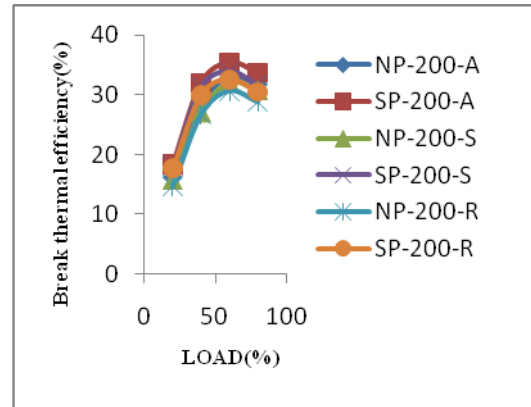


Exhibit 1.comparison of brake thermal efficiencies with load applied for 17.5 Compression ratio and different injection timings of normal& modified pistons.

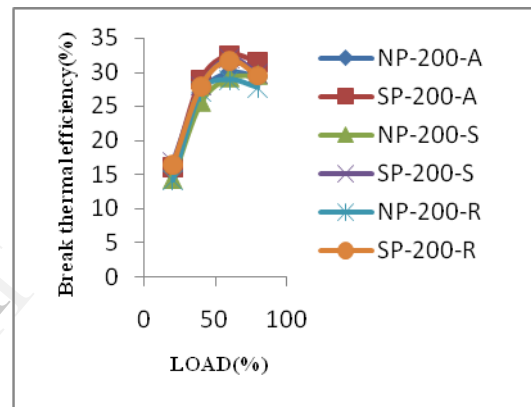


Exhibit 2.comparison of brake thermal efficiencies with load applied for 20.1 Compression ratio and different injection timings normal& modified pistons.

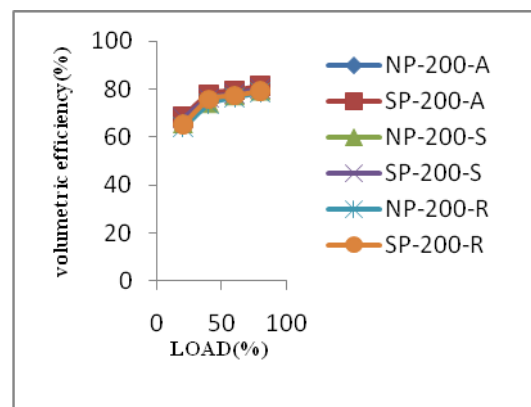


Exhibit 3.comparison of volumetric efficiencies with load applied for 17.5 compression ratio and different injection timings of normal& modified pistons

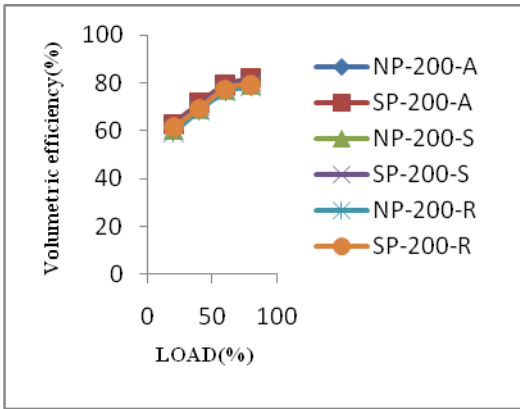


Exhibit 4.comparison of volumetric efficiencies with load applied for 20.1 compression ratio and different injection timings of normal& modified pistons

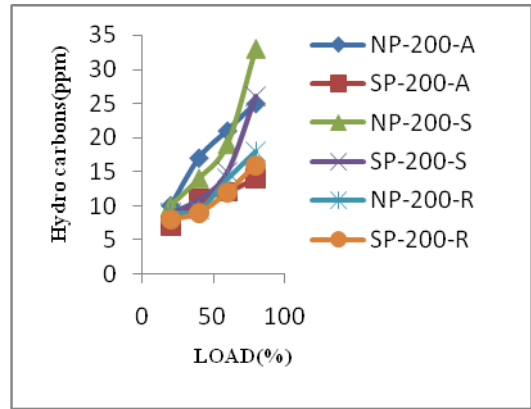


Exhibit7.comparison of Hydro carbon emissions with load applied for 17.5 compression ratio and different injection timings of normal& modified pistons

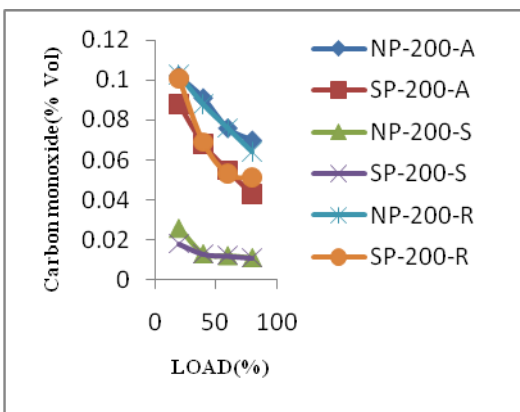


Exhibit5.comparison of carbon monoxide emissions with load applied for 17.5 compression ratio and different injection timings of normal& modified pistons.

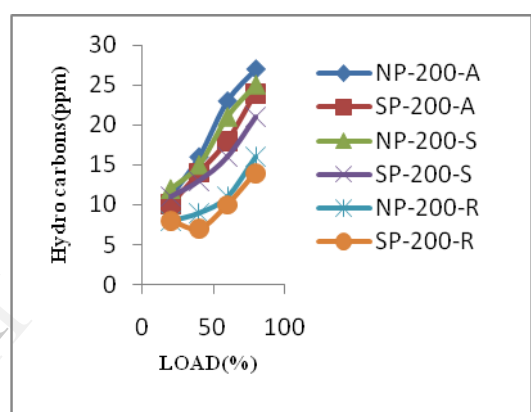


Exhibit8.comparison of Hydro carbon emissions with load applied for 20.1 compression ratio and different injection timings of normal& modified pistons.

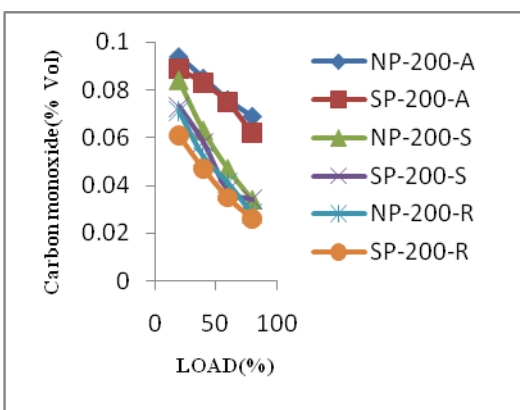


Exhibit6.comparison of carbon monoxide emissions with load applied for 20.1 compression ratio and different injection timings of normal& modified pistons.

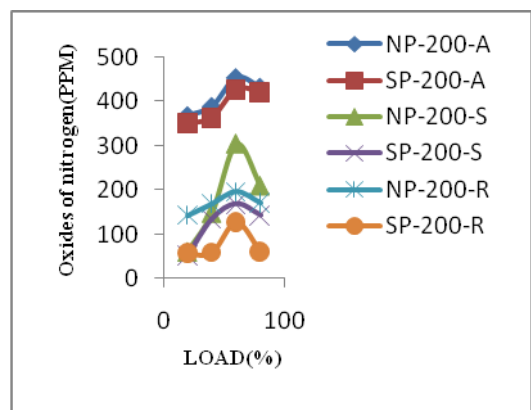


Exhibit 9.comparison of Oxides of Nitrogen with load applied for 17.5 compression ratio and different injection timings of normal& modified pistons.

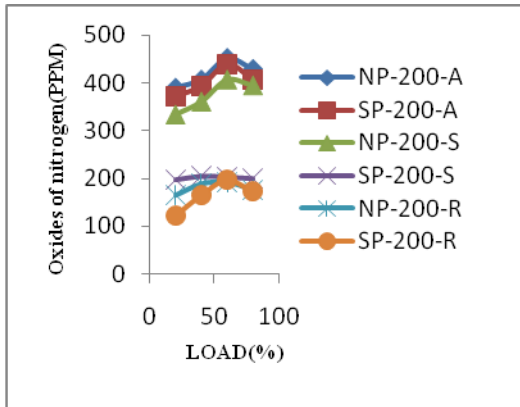


Exhibit 10.comparison of Oxides of Nitrogen
With load applied for 20.1compression ratio and different injection
timings of normal& modified pistons.

OXIDES OF NITROGEN (NO_x)

The amount of Oxides of Nitrogen (NO_x) emissions present in the exhaust with respect to load applied for 17.5 and 20.1 compression ratios and advanced, standard and retard injection timings for normal and modified pistons is shown in exhibits 9&10. NO_x is created mostly from nitrogen in the air. NO_x is a very undesirable emission, and regulations that restrict the allowable amount continue to become more stringent. Released NO_x reacts in the atmosphere to form ozone and is one of the major causes of photochemical smog. Most of this will be nitrogen oxide (NO), with a small amount of nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), and traces of other nitrogen-oxygen combinations. NO_x emissions are reduced by 7% with modified piston. Compared to normal piston the NO_x emissions are reduced by 6% for modified piston with 17.5 compression ratio. For 20.1 compression ratio the reduction in NO_x emissions is 8% for modified piston. Thus we can get good reduction in NO_x emissions at 20.1 compression ratio and standard injection timing.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the above results and discussions, the following conclusions are drawn:

- With the rotating blades inside the piston, turbulence is generated inside the combustion chamber. This further increases the combustibility of the mixture.
- The homogeneous mixture inside the combustion chamber increases the break thermal efficiency of modified piston by 2% compared to normal piston.
- The turbulence in the combustion chamber provides the homogeneous mixture, This increases the volumetric efficiency by 2% with modified piston.

- The turbulence in the combustion chamber increases the oxygen present in it. With this emissions are drastically reduced.
- The NO_x emissions are increased due to the high temperatures in the combustion chamber caused by the turbulence.

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Energy Based Analysis of a Thermal Power Station for Energy Efficiency Improvement

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ABSTRACT: Despite of growth of renewable energy stations installations like wind, solar, Tidal power, the energy for the world depends heavily on fossil fuels for electricity generation. It is also expected to continue the dependence on fossil fuels for next few decades. Therefore, given the continued reliance on the fossil fuels for some time, it is important to note these plants must reduce their environmental impact by operating fossil fuels more efficiently. Two types of analysis namely, energy and exergy analysis can be developed for the system. Energy analysis based on first law of thermodynamics cannot be applied as it cannot justify the real useful energy loss because it does not differentiate between the quality and quantity of energy within the system. Whereas, exergy analysis will characterize the work potential of a system based on the second law of thermodynamics and the maximum work that can be obtained from the system when its state is brought to the reference or dead state (standard atmospheric conditions). This technical paper presents the results of exergy and energy analysis carried out on 62 MW coal-based thermal power plant to evaluate the performance. The performance of the plant was estimated by a component-wise modeling followed by a system simulation. A parametric study is conducted for the thermal plant under various operating conditions, including different operating condenser pressures, temperatures and flow rates of cooling water across the condenser etc, in order to determine which parameter that maximizes plant performance. Energy loss distribution to find out the amount and source of irreversibilities generated in boiler and turbine in a plant so that any process in the system having largest energy destruction can be identified and that helps the designer to re design the system components.

Keywords: Exergy Analysis, Energy analysis, Coal based Thermal Power station, Fossil fuels, Irreversibility, Second Law of Thermodynamics.

I. Introduction

Despite of growth of renewable energy stations installations like wind, solar and tidal power, the energy for the world depends heavily on fossil fuels for electricity generation. It is also expected to continue the dependence on fossil fuels for decades. Therefore, given the continued reliance on the fossil fuels for some time, it is important that fossil fuel plants reduce their environmental impact by operating more efficiently. The heavy dependence on fossil fuels is expected to continue for decades. Despite the depletion of fossil fuel reserves and environmental concerns such as climate change, the growth in oil demand is expected to be 60% between 2014 and 2035, 94% for natural gas and 96% for coal [24]. Since it is very clean process, it is continued to reliance on the fossil fuels for some more time. Therefore, it is important that fossil fuel plants should reduce their environmental impact by operating more efficiently.

There are two types of analysis used for thermal power plants, namely, energy and exergy analysis can be developed for the system. Energy analysis based on first law of thermodynamics cannot be applied as it cannot justify the real useful energy loss because it does not differentiate between the quality and quantity of energy within the system and also does not characterize the irreversibility of processes within the system. Whereas, exergy analysis will characterize the work potential of a system based on the second law of thermodynamics and the maximum work that can be obtained from the system when its state is brought to the reference or dead state (standard atmospheric conditions). Exergy analysis is based on the second law of thermodynamics. Past exergy studies have evaluated the performance of power plants, as a means to optimize the performance and turbine power output.

Using exergy and energy analysis, the performance of 400MW capacity coal-fired and nuclear power plants carried out successfully by Habib et. al. and Zubair et.al [17] conducted a second law analysis of regenerative Rankine power plants with reheating. Sengupta et al. [19] conducted an exergy analysis of a 210 MW thermal power plant in India. Rosen et.al.[13], [16], [20], [21] and [22] performed exergy analysis of power plants that operate on various fuels. They have also investigated capital costs involved and thermodynamic

losses. Most common size of power plants in India are 100/110/200/210 MW [6]. The exergy analysis is not so popular among industries especially in India and it needs much more attention and application so that the irreversibilities can be minimized and thus the systems can be operated at much higher efficiency. The present work is to show the application of energy and exergy based analysis. The performance of the plant was estimated by a component-wise modeling followed by a system simulation (computer program) and detailed break-up of exergy losses are evaluated. For the low performance of plant, the various parameters responsible for the plant are mismatching of equipments/ components, improper maintenance, over a period of time, low performance due to deteriorated equipments, inadequate instrumentation, mismatching of equipments etc. [3].

The power plant is designed to utilize an air cooled condenser to condense the exhaust steam. This paper will identify major sources of losses and energy destruction in the power plant. It will provide ways and means to improve the system performance and reduce environment impact. Finally, it will perform a parametric study to determine how the system performance varies with different operating parameters. The introduction of the paper should explain the nature of the problem, previous work, purpose, and the contribution of the paper. The contents of each section may be provided to understand easily about the paper.

II. Experimental Methodology

A detailed process flow-sheet of a Thermal Power Station consists of a unit employs regenerative feed water heating system which is carried out in two stages of low pressure heaters and high pressure heaters along with one open de-aerating heat exchanger. Saturated steam from the boiler drum is fed to the super heater to heat it up to 500°C at a pressure of 85 bars.

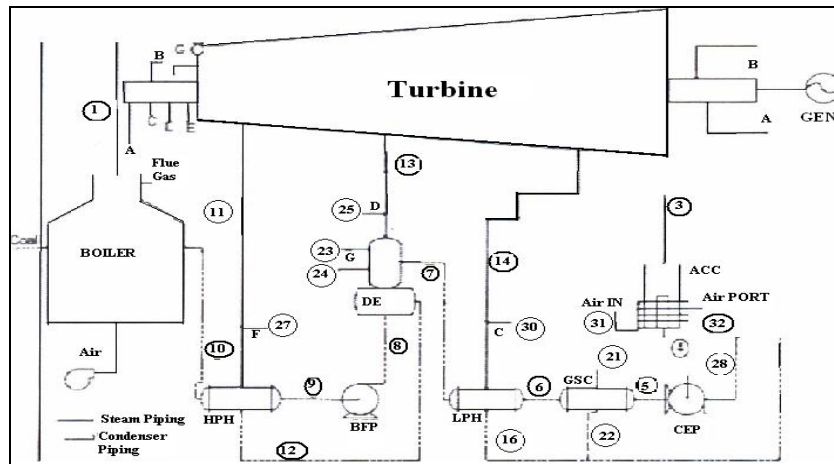


Fig. 1. Process flow diagram: ACC - air cooled condenser, BFP - boiler feed pump, CEP condensate extraction pump, DE - de-aerator, GEN - generator, GSC gland steam condenser, HPH - high pressure heater, LPH - low pressure heater.

The condenser pressure is taken as 10 kPa. The extraction pressures of steams from the turbine varies at High Pressure Heater of first stage of 30 bars to High Pressure Heater of stage of 16 bars , De-aerator of 6 bars and Low Pressure Heater of first stage of 2.8 bars to Low Pressure Heater of 2 stage of 0.8 bar.

2.1 Composition Details

Coal available in India is the supply fuel of the power plant with the following components and the compositions of it used for coal fired thermal power plant are shown in table 1. Calorific value of Indian coal supplied to Raichur Thermal Power station has 15.5 MJ/kg.

Table 1. Composition of typical Indian coal

Components	Mass in percentage
Moisture	10
Ash	40
Hydrogen	2.68
Nitrogen	0.8
Sulphur	0.65
Oxygen	7
Carbon	38.87

2.2 Assumptions to be made for using flow sheet program method of analysis.

1. Reference temperature for water / steam is at 25⁰C and incoming fuel temperature is also 25⁰C.
2. Neglect the potential and kinetic exergies.
3. Environment model to calculate exergy has reference pressure and temperature are 1.013 bar and 25⁰C and the composition of environment(% mole)for CO₂, H₂O, N₂, O₂, are 0.03, 3.12, 76, 21.
4. Excess air is 20%.
5. Generator efficiency is 95%.
6. Isentropic efficiency of pumps / fans and turbine are 70% and 80% respectively.

The present study has been performed using a flow-sheet program, which is a well-structured program for the thermodynamic analysis of energy systems. The ash content of Indian coal, as already mentioned is around 40 - 50% as against 5 - 10% in the coal being used in the western countries. This is one of the important factors contributing to the lower overall efficiency of the plant. Being a tropical country, the cooling water temperature in majority of the parts in India throughout the year is around 25⁰C. In Europe and other western countries the cooling water temperatures are lower in the range of 5 – 10⁰C, which enables the operation of the condenser at much lower vacuum pressures (5 kPa), thus resulting in higher operating efficiencies. Since, both the above factors are nature’s limitation; though coal can be beneficiated to a small extent, designer’s / plant operator’s focus should shift to other major sites of potential improvement. Thus, the goal of this paper is to identify such sites so that the overall efficiency of the system can be improved.

III. Results and Discussion

Parametric study has been carried out in order to account the performance of the over the parameters such as gain in cooling water temperature across the condenser, Steam temperature, steam pressure, inlet air temperature, and the condenser pressure. Fig 2. shows that the reference temperature does not have an effect on the energy efficiency, but it affects then exergy efficiency. The performance of the system depends on the surroundings of the system i.e. inlet air temperature. Fig. 4. shows the variation of efficiencies (both exergy and energy) with the increase in cooling water temperature across the condenser and it is found about 0.15 – 0.20% for the temperature variation of 5⁰C. As this power plant uses an air cooled condenser to condense the exhaust steam of the turbine and mainly the improvement that can be achieved by lowering the condenser pressure as shown in fig.3 due to the higher expansion of steam through the turbine, resulting in higher power output.

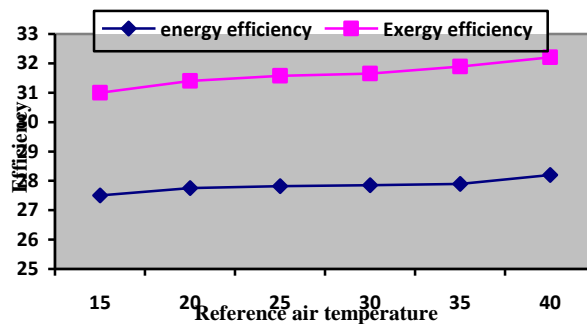


Fig.2. Variation of efficiencies v/s Reference air temperature

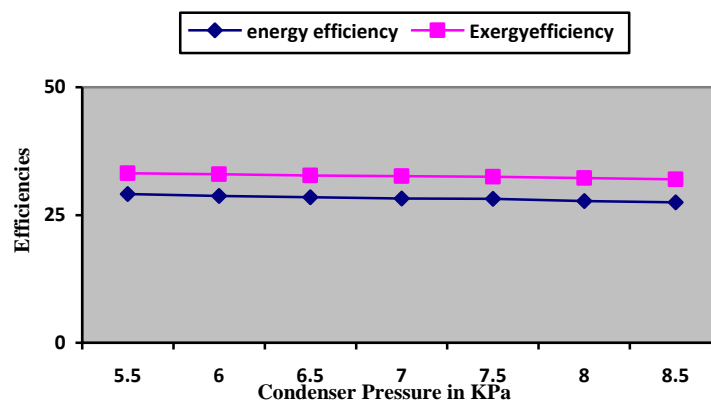


Fig. 3. Variation of efficiency vs. condenser pressure

In case of water cooled condensers, where the temperature of water can be easily controlled, but not in an air cooled condenser, the temperature at which the steam to be condensed cannot be reduced.

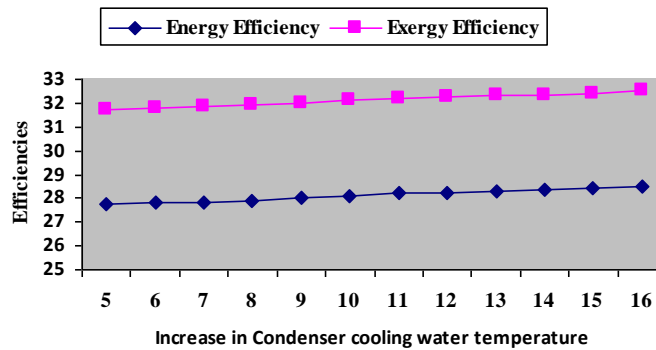


Fig. 4. Variation of efficiencies with increase in condenser cooling water temperature.

It is seen that the efficiency rises with an increase in the superheated steam parameters as presented in fig. 5. Show the effects of the steam temperature on the cycle performance. It is evident the increasing the cycle steam temperature will result in a higher power output for the same mass flow rate of steam and fuel input into the boiler. Therefore steam has higher energy/exergy content, resulting in higher work output of the turbine.

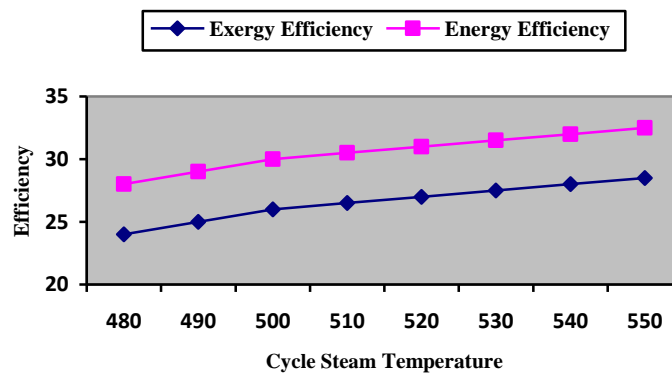


Fig.5.Illustrates the efficiency vs. Cycle steam pressure

It is seen that the efficiency rises with an increase in the superheated steam parameters as presented in fig. 5. Show the effects of the steam temperature on the cycle performance. It is evident the increasing the cycle steam temperature will result in a higher power output for the same mass flow rate of steam and fuel input into the boiler. Therefore steam has a higher energy/exergy content, resulting in higher work output of the turbine.

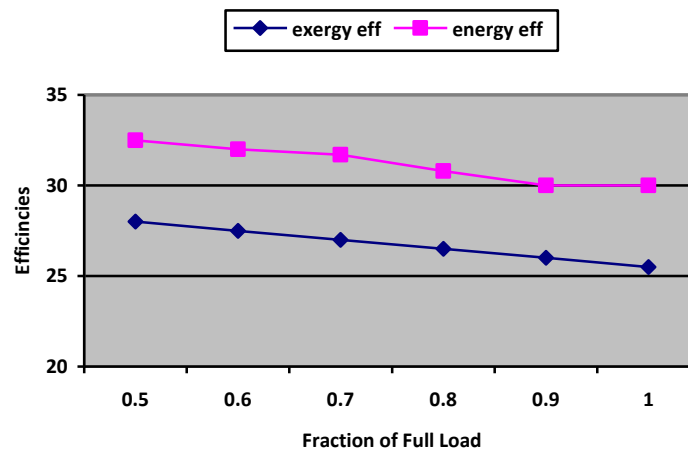


Fig. 6. Efficiency vs. Fraction of Full Load (% of generator output power)

It is evident from figs.6 and 7, that the variation of energy and exergy efficiencies with lower auxiliary power consumption, in terms of the percentage of generator output power which leads to higher system efficiencies. The operation of the plant below 50% of the designed capacity results in the significant increase of irreversibilities and indicates that when the plant is operated at its rated capacity would be more economical than operating at part loads. Figs.8 and 9 show the detailed energy and exergy balance of the considered system at the maximum operating load of 60 MW and difference in the composition of energy and exergy balances. It is noted that the exergy analysis has enabled the identification of the causes of process inefficiencies in detail when compared to the energy analysis.

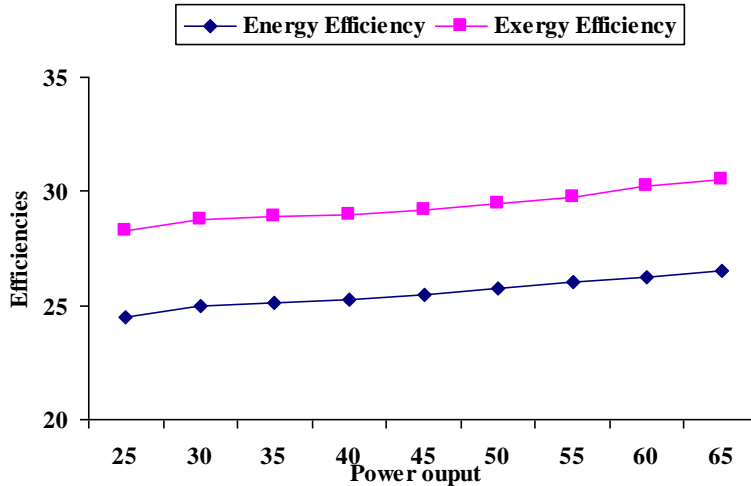


Fig.7. Variation of efficiencies vs. power output of Turbine

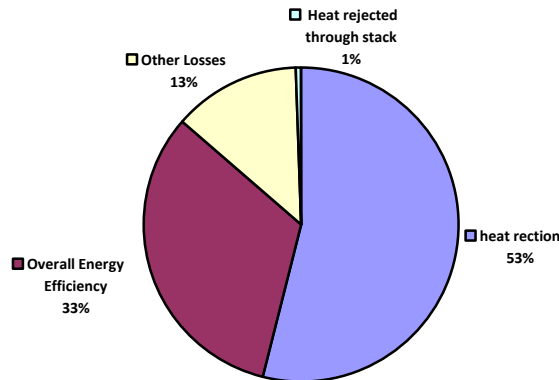


Fig. 8. Energy balance of 62 MW thermal power plant

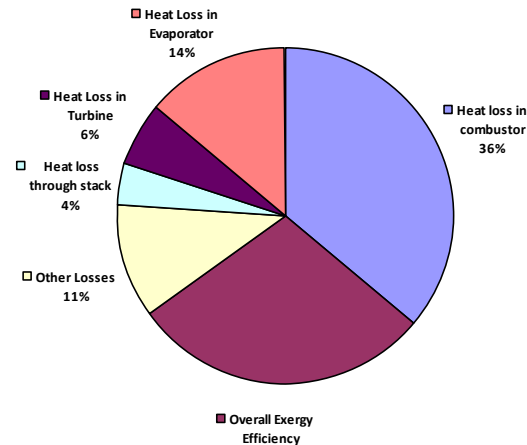


Fig. 9. Exergy balance of 62 MW thermal power plant

In order to utilize non-renewable sources more effectively like fossil fuels without damaging the environment, so that it can achieve better environmental sustainability. This will enable us to maximize its use of limited resources and make existing resources last longer. Fig. 10 shows the effect of exergy efficiency on the sustainability index.

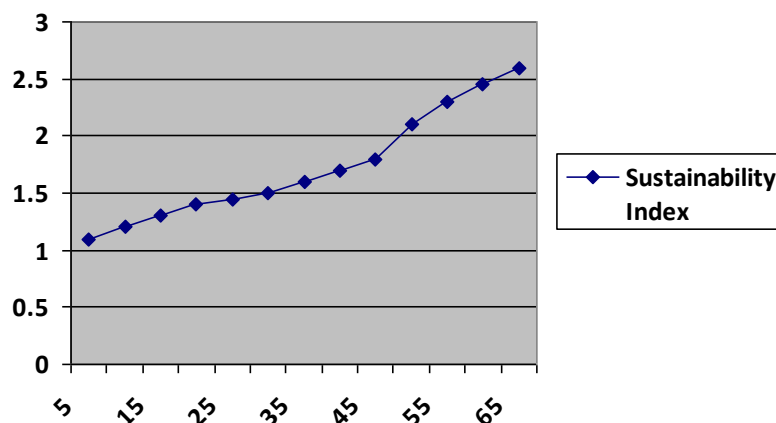


Fig.10. Sustainability index vs. exergy efficiency.

IV. Conclusion

Energy analysis of a thermal power plant based on a second law analysis has been presented and a detailed parametric study considering the effects of various parameters on the system performance has been performed to identify and quantify the sites having largest energy and exergy losses. The power plant's energy and energy efficiency is determined to be 32.5% and 27.5% for the gross generator output. The maximum exergy loss is found to occur in the boiler and turbine and if the performance of a boiler and turbine are improved, plant performance will also be improved. Hence the largest improvement the power plant efficiency. The exergy analysis of the plant showed that lost energy in the condenser is thermodynamically insignificant due to its low quality.

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OPTIMIZATION AND ANALYSIS (FAILURE MODE EFFECT AND FINITE ELEMENT) OF A COMMON DTH DISH ANTENNA BRACKET ASSEMBLY

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ABSTRACT

Television (TV) is the most widely used telecommunication medium for transmitting and receiving moving images usually accompanied by sound. These signals are transmitted through either cable TV or DTH (Direct-To-Home), DTH is superior to cable TV since it offers better quality picture and it can also reach remote areas where terrestrial transmission and cable TV have failed to penetrate.

Bracket is an important part in the DTH assembly, which has to bear the antenna and feed horn (LNB converter) load and also wind force which acts on the antenna surface. It plays an important role in the reception of signal since the amount of signal receiving depends on the alignment angle of antenna, which causes the interruption in reception of signal, this is usually caused by a failure of bracket assembly used to mount the dish antenna. So it needs have good enough strength bracket.

The aim of the present work is to study the failure of the bracket and FMEA (failure mode effect and analysis) of plastic component. Optimization is carried out at the failure point location to overcome the existing chronic field failure. Different design concepts were developed and the best feasible concept is selected. The stresses were analyzed on the bracket using FEA software packages.

Keywords: Direct to Home (DTH), Dish Television, Die Designing Methodology, FMEA (Failure Mode Effect And Analysis), Finite Element Method, Analysis and Optimization.

1. INTRODUCTION

Television (TV) is the most widely used telecommunication medium for transmitting and receiving moving images usually accompanied by sound. The signals are reached to the television

through either cable TV or DTH (Direct-to-Home). Cable television, also referred to as cable TV or CATV (Community Antenna Television), is a system wherein radio frequency signals are transmitted to television sets by means of fixed coaxial cables or fiber optic cables and have become so popular that more than half of the households in the world avail this service as of today. Whereas DTH stands for Direct-To-Home television, which is defined as the reception of satellite programmes with a personal dish in an individual home. DTH does away with the need for the local cable operator and puts the broadcaster directly in touch with the consumer. Only cable operators can receive satellite programmes and they then distribute them to individual homes.

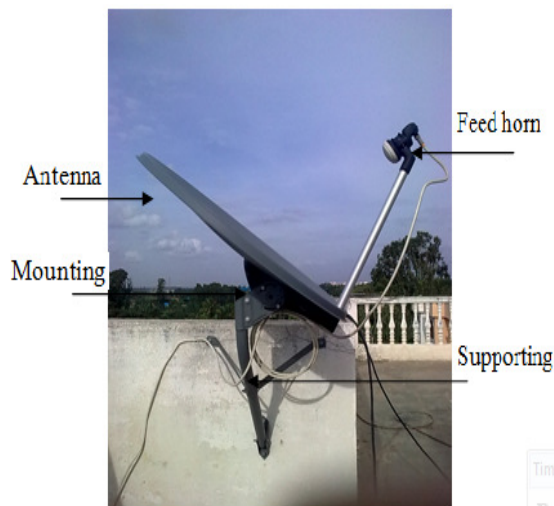


Fig 1.1 DTH dish antenna assembly

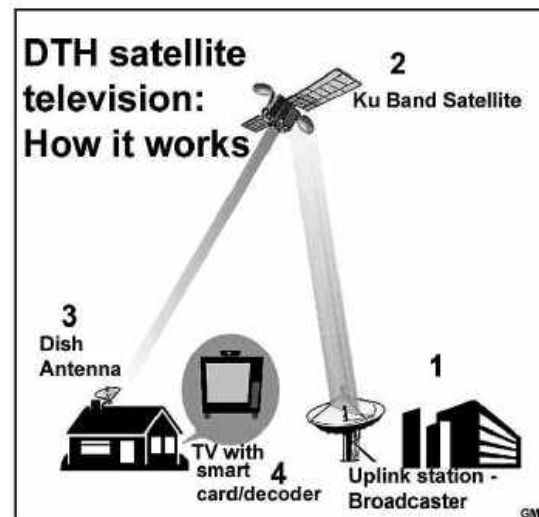


Fig 1.2 Conceptual diagram of a satellite communication

A DTH network consists of a broadcasting centre, satellites, encoders, multiplexers, modulators and DTH receivers. A DTH service provider has to lease Ku-band transponders from the satellite. The encoder converts the audio, video and data signals into the digital format and the multiplexer mixes these signals. At the user end, there will be a small dish antenna and set-top boxes to decode and view numerous channels. DTH is an encrypted transmission that travels to the consumer directly through a satellite. DTH transmission is received directly by the consumer at his end through the small dish antenna. A set-top box, unlike the regular cable connection, decodes the encrypted transmission.

1.1 Antenna mountings

Bracket is an important part in the DTH assembly, which has to bear the antenna and feed horn (LNB converter) load and also wind force which acts on the antenna surface. It plays an important role in the reception of signal since the amount of signal receiving depends on the alignment angle of antenna, which causes the interruption in reception of signal, this is usually caused by a failure of bracket assembly used to mount the dish antenna. Fig.1.3 shows Potential mounting sites or location of antennae and fig1.4 shows the TV Antenna wall brackets or Wall mounting brackets are ideal for ground-up and wall supported mast installations. The wall brackets are made of 16 gauge steel with a tubular support leg for additional rigidity. Which are also called Non roof penetrating TV antenna mounts.

1.2 Problems encountered by the customers while using DTH service

1. Frequent disruption of the service in case of heavy rainfall.
2. During rains, most of the times the digital TV ceases to work and there is no reception of signal.

3. Variation in the alignment of the antenna mounting bracket due to environmental condition.
4. Problem in the setup box and signal receiver.
5. The intensity of incoming signals reduces during high wind blowing over the antenna surface.
6. Even though the customer recharged, the TV channels are not getting in some DTH services.

A new dish design uses two or more horns to pick up different satellite signals. As the beams from different satellites hit the curved dish, they reflect at different angles so that one beam hits one of the horns and another beam hits a different horn. The central element in the feed horn is the low noise block down converter, or LNB. The LNB amplifies the signal bouncing off the dish and filters out the noise (signals not carrying programming). The LNB passes the amplified, filtered signal to the satellite receiver inside the viewer's house.

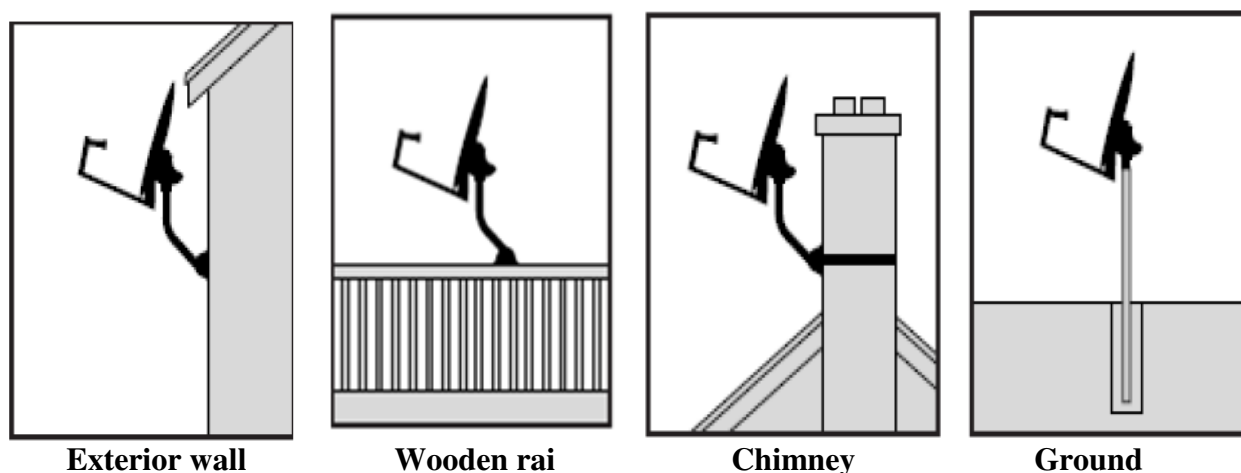


Fig 1.3 Different antenna mounting locations



Fig 1.4 TV Antenna wall brackets

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Literature Review on Design Concept selection methods: The different design concept selection methods given by different authors are explained and also described the different benchmarking techniques such as Abdus salam^[1] presented the mountings and their requirements to avoid any obstructions in reception of electromagnetic signals using non-penetrating roof mount antenna assemblies. Rolinski et al.^[2] suggested the advantages of using an X-Y antenna mount for performing data acquisition and satellite tracking functions using servo-control system. Eric Michael Olsen et al.^[3] invented an apparatus for holding an antenna on a mounting surface by use of suction cups or suction devices to restore or relocate to another mounting surface. Chang-Ho Cho et al.^[4]

designed an antenna control system (discrete time controller) which capable of quickly and accurately tracking the target communication satellite and receiving of the signal transmitted from it without using any additional sensors. Comazell Bickham^[5] invented portable adjustable stand for satellite dish antennas for mounting and supporting a digital satellite dish antenna eliminates the need for drilling holes and physical attachment to the surfaces of a dwelling with screws, bolts, or other fasteners. Albert Hugo^[6] describe a motor driven adjustable mounting structure for satellite television dish antenna which operates to scan an in line of sight segment of a geostationary TV relay satellite orbit belt.

2.2. Literature Review on FMEA and Benchmarking: FMEA is used to identify potential failure modes, determine their effect on the operation of the product, and identify actions to mitigate the failures. Irem Y. Tumer et al.^[7] have developed an approach for failure mode identification for the product development. a statistical clustering procedure is proposed to retrieve information on the set of predominant failures that a function experiences. Seung J. Rhee et al.^[8] developed a new methodology, Life Cost-Based FMEA, which measures risk in terms of cost which is useful for comparing and selecting design alternatives. Derham et al.^[9] explained failure mode analysis for plastic components used in engineering applications. Sellappan Narayanagounder et al.^[10] showed the drawbacks in traditional FMEA and demonstrated a new approach to prioritize failure modes by evaluation of risk priority number. If two or more failure modes have the same RPN, suggested to prioritize the failure modes with the help of Risk Priority Code (RPC). Mohammad Reza Mehregan et al.^[11] developed a simple quantitative methodology for benchmarking process, where analyze phase is developed based on two popular mathematical programming techniques TOPSIS and goal programming. Busby et al.^[12] investigated the practices that engineering designers had learned to apply during concept selection. Hambali et al.^[13] proposed a concept selection model called concurrent design concept selection and materials selection (CDCSMS) for appropriate design and materials at the conceptual design stage using analytical hierarchy process (AHP).

3. METHODOLOGY

Generally the mounting bracket in DTH assembly is designed to mount the antenna and the feed horn. As already discussed the bracket plays very important role for supporting the antenna and also in the reception of signal. The presently used bracket is manufacturing with the ABS material. The investigation was carried out with respect to existing DTH antenna mounting bracket. A number of design improvements have been carried out on existing model since it introduced. The improved with new design concept version is designated as New model. Since it was realized that there are some areas where performance specification of new model can be improved.

In the existing design there are some disadvantages they are:

1. The material thickness is less in some areas (those are called critical regions).
2. The failure is occurring in the critical regions due to the developed stress.

Based on the disadvantages in the existing design the problem is taken up with different design concepts. The aim of the present work is to study the failure of the antenna mounting bracket. Optimization is carried out at the failure point location to overcome the existing chronic field failure. Different design concepts were developed and the best feasible concept is selected for design and analysis. The model has developed using the CATIA modeling software. The stresses and displacements were analyzed on the bracket using Hyper mesh preprocessor and NASTRAN solver packages.

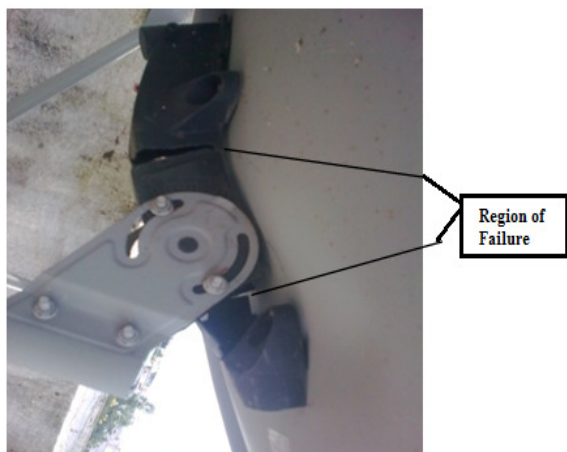


Fig 3.1 Existing mounting bracket failure zone

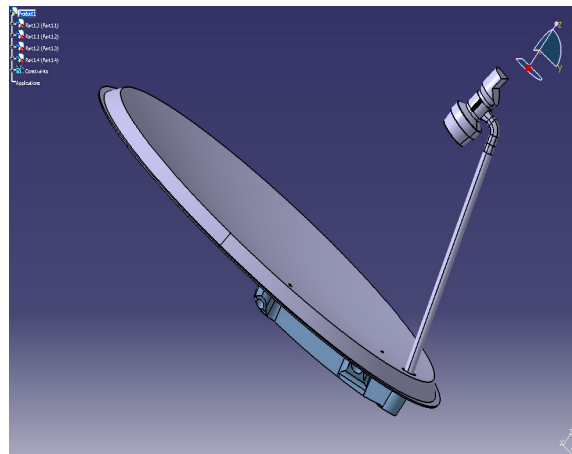


Fig 3.2: Assembled view of DTH using CATIA

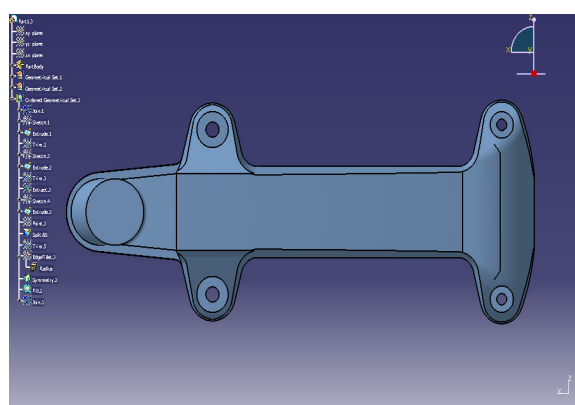
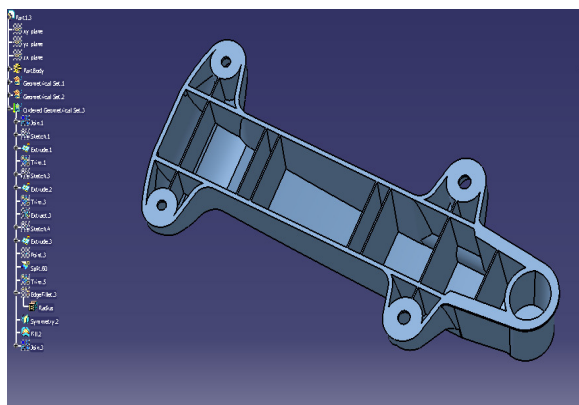


Fig. 3.3: Isometric view and Rear view Geometric model of the mounting bracket

When choosing the right antenna mount, these three factors to keep in mind: Size, Type and Cost. Figure 3.2 shows the assembly of the different parts of the DTH system and Fig.3.3 shows the different dimensions of the mounting bracket in the two different views.

3.1 Component modeling

Modeling of the component was done using commercially available software CATIAV5. It provides the tools to accurately model and document the design ready for rendering, animation, mechanism drafting, engineering, analysis and manufacturing or construction.

The selection of the appropriate antenna size helps in keeping the network up and healthy. It is decided based on the following:

1. Satellite Effective Isotropic Radiated Power (EIRP) at the particular location.
2. Rain attenuation at the location.

Adequate E_b/N_0 (the energy per bit to noise power spectral density ratio) for reception of excellent picture quality.

3.2. FMEA (Failure Mode and Effect Analysis) and Benchmarking

Failure Mode and Effects Analysis (FMEA) is commonly defined as “a systematic process for identifying potential design and process failures before they occur, with the intent to eliminate them or minimize the risk associated with them”. The FMEA technique was first reported in the

1920s but its use has only been significantly documented since the early 1960s. It was developed in the USA in the 1960s by National Aeronautics Space Agency (NASA) as a means of addressing a way to improve the reliability of military equipment. FMEA is used to identify potential failure modes, determine their effect on the operation of the product, and identify actions to mitigate the failures. A crucial step is anticipating what might go wrong with a product. Various benefits of FMEA

- Improve product/process reliability and quality and increases customer satisfaction.
- Early identification and elimination of potential product/process failure modes.
- Prioritize product/process deficiencies to Provide focus for improved testing and development.
- Capture engineering/organization knowledge and Minimizes late changes and associated cost.
- Documents risk and actions taken to reduce risk.
- Catalyst for teamwork and idea exchange between functions.

3.2.1. Types of FMEA's

There are several types of FMEAs, some are used much more often than others. FMEAs should always be done whenever failures would mean potential harm or injury to the user of the end item being designed. The types of FMEA are:

- System - focuses on global system functions
- Design - focuses on components and subsystems
- Process - focuses on manufacturing and assembly processes
- Service - focuses on service functions
- Software - focuses on software functions

3.2.2. FMEA Methodology

The flow chart given below describes the procedure involved in the FMEA. The basic step is to identify the potential failure mode and its effect on the system. It also shows the parameters used to determine the criticality of an item failure mode are, the severity of its failure effects, its frequency of occurrence, and the likelihood that subsequent testing of the design will detect that the potential failure mode actually occurs.

Severity is a rating corresponding to the seriousness of an effect of a potential failure mode on the next higher level assembly, the system or the user. (Scale: 1-10. 1: no effect on output, 5: moderate effect, 8: serious effect, 10: hazardous effect)

Occurrence is a rating corresponding to the rate at which a first level cause and its resultant failure mode will occur over the design life of the system, over the design life of the product, or before any additional process controls are applied. (Scale: 1-10. 1: failure unlikely, 5: occasional failure, 8: high number of failures likely, 10: failures certain).

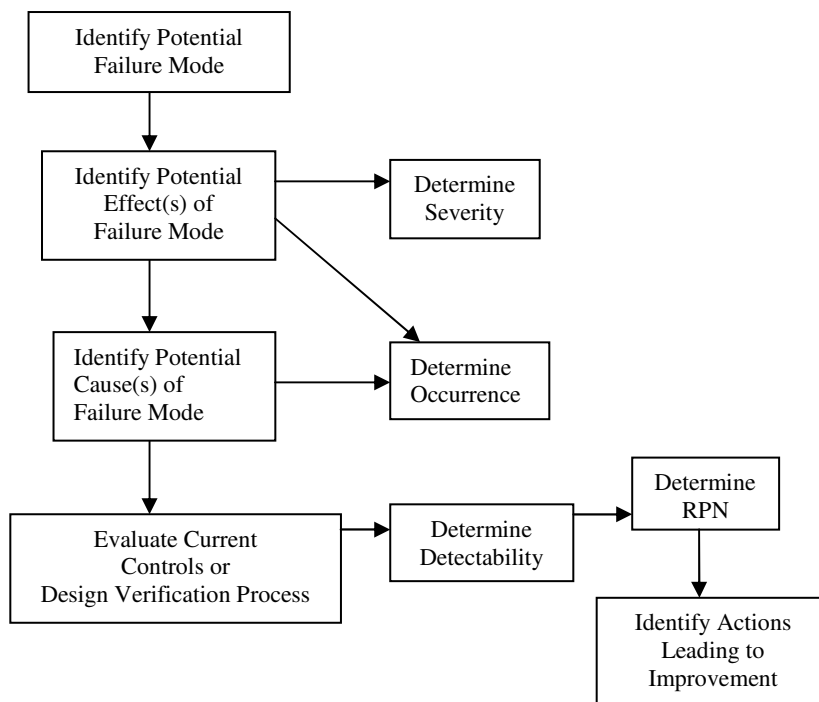


Fig 3.4: Flow chart of FMEA methodology

Detection is a rating corresponding to the likelihood that the detection methods or current controls will detect the potential failure mode before the product is released for production for design, or for process before it leaves the production facility. (Scale: 1-10. 1: will detect failure, 5: might detect failure, 10: almost certain not to detect failures)

Risk Priority Number (RPN)

The RPN is a mathematical product of the severity(S), the occurrence (O) and the detection (D). It is used to identify the most critical failure mode, leading to corrective action

In equation form, **RPN = S x O x D**

Reasons for observed failure

- In effective loading due to weather conditions that is too much wind.
- Unexpected load may occur due to negligence in the form of access to domestic animals.
- Stress localization observed at the critical points.
- Manufacturing defects may appear in the mounting bracket.

3.2.3 FMEA Worksheet

Table 3.1: FMEA work sheet for DTH mounting structure

Process operation, product function or purpose	Potential failure mode	Potential effect(s) of failure	S E V	Potential cause(s) of failure	O C C	D E T	R P N	Recommended Action(s)
Mounting bracket Support the antenna and LNB	Crack initiation Breakage	DTH assembly fail to work	7	Excess load Manufacturing defect	6	4	168	Modify the design of bracket
	Alignment angle of antenna	Problem in reception of signal	6	DTH assembly not fitted properly	7	3	126	Fixing DTH at appropriate place. Assemble components properly

3.2.4 Different types of mounting bracket



Type 1



Type 2



Type 3



Type 4

Fig 3.5: Different types of DTH antenna mountings

The scaling given in the above table for the benchmarking of the different types of DTH antenna mountings available in the market is as follows;

(i) Bear to more weight corresponds to the ability of the bracket which can be able to withstand for the load (Scale: 1-10. 1-less weight, 5-average weight, 10-more weight).

(ii) Serviceable life related to the working life of the bracket without failure. (Scale: 1-10. 1-failure occurs very early, 5-average life, 10-failure doesn't occur).

Table 3.2: Benchmarking table of antenna mountings

Types Parameters	Type 1	Type 2	Type 3	Type 4
Bear to more weight	7	6	6	7
Serviceable life	8	6	6	7
Cost	5	7	7	4
Boundary(surface) contact	4	7	7	6
Geometry complexity	8	5	4	7
Total	32	31	30	31

(iii) The cost of bracket corresponds to the market price of the bracket. (Scale: 1-10. 1-very high cost, 5-high cost, 7- considerable cost, 10-less cost).

(iv) Boundary contact related to the area of contact or surface contact between the antenna and the bracket. It also relates to the amount of load transfer to the bracket, that is if the contact is good then the load will transfer equally to all portion of the mounting bracket and chances of failure is less compare to the poor contact. (Scale: 1-10. 1-less contact, 5-average contact, 10-full contact).

(v) Geometry complexity corresponds to how easily the bracket can be manufactured. (Scale: 1-10. 1- very difficult to manufacture. 5-with considerable effort, 10- can easily manufacture).

3.3. Concept Design and Generation

3.3.1. Design requirements

To provide good enough strength to the bracket, the following parameters should be taken in to account in the design:

Ribbing pattern: Ribs are commonly used to give strength and rigidity to the product. At the same time, ribs help to have thinner walls and therefore reduce the amount of material. The structure of bracket can be strengthened by ribs in specific places in order to form a more rigid and stabilized structure. The ribs are strengthening plates mainly placed along the vertical direction for preventing deflection of lateral surfaces and thus creating a rigid structure and reduce deflection.

Thickness: By increasing the material thickness of bracket at critical points, it will greatly improve the bracket strength. The strength to weight ratio is improved by adding to material thickness. It is well known that when the thickness of a product is increased, the weight of a product increases proportionally. Thus, it is important to determine the right thickness of bracket.

Curvature structure: Curvature structure of bracket determines the level of contact with the antenna surface. Since the antenna surface is curved, the effect of load transfer to the bracket depends on the contact between antenna and bracket.

Material selection: Bracket design is greatly influenced by the material selected. There are 2 factors that must be considered by designers in determining the best design concept at the early stage of product development process, namely, (a) formability of materials and (b) recyclability of materials.

Cost consideration: It is about 70% of the cost of a product that is determined before production activity. Therefore, it is very important to design and develop mounting bracket which contributes to the cost reduction without sacrificing its safety and impact performance characteristics. The two most important costs required to be considered in designing the bracket, namely, (a) Material cost (b) Manufacturing cost

Manufacturing process: Manufacturing process is also needed to be considered when designing antenna mountings at the early stage of the product development process with ease to fabricate.

Maintenance: There are two main factors influencing the selection of the antenna mountings related to maintenance consideration, namely, Easy to dismantle and Easy to install

3.3.2. Force Calculation

The static force develops in the DTH assembly due to the weight of the antenna and the feed horn (LNB) is given by

$$F \text{ (force)} = M \text{ (mass)} \times a \text{ (acceleration due to gravity, } 9.81\text{m/s}^2\text{)}$$

1. Force due to feed horn mass acts at the lower portion of the bracket, where the feed horn is placed and is given by

$$F = 200 \times 10^{-3} \times 9.81 \text{ where Mass of the feed horn is } 200 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg}$$

$$F = 1.962 \text{ N}$$

2. Force due to dish antenna mass

$$F = 1400 \times 10^{-3} \times 9.81 \text{ where mass of the dish antenna is } 1400 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg}$$

$$F = 13.734 \text{ N}$$

3. The force developed due to the wind pressure is calculated as follows

The force equation is given by

$$F = A \times P \times C_d$$

Where, P = wind pressure of 0.04, Cd = drag co-efficient of 1, V = wind speed of 80 kmph

A = the projected area of the item is given by

$$A = \pi a b \quad a = \text{major dia} = 0.62\text{m}, \quad b = \text{major dia} = 0.55\text{m}$$

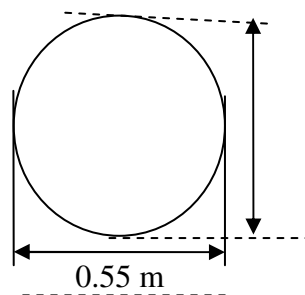
$$A = 1.0713 \text{ m}^2$$

$$\text{Force } F = 513.19 \text{ N}$$

The total force acting on the antenna mounting bracket

= force due to antenna mass + wind force

$$= 13.734 + 513.19 = 530 \text{ N}$$



This force acts on the mounting bracket where the contact between antenna surface and bracket takes place. Usually it is considered as uniformly distributed load and acting at an inclination since the bracket mounted at an angle with respect to horizontal surface.

3.3.3. Material Properties

Plastic material is used to manufacture most of the antenna mounting bracket since plastics have more advantages compared to the metals. Acrylonitrile-Butadiene-Styrene (ABS) material is used to manufacture the antenna mounting bracket. It has excellent impact resistance, aesthetic qualities, good strength, rigidity, abrasion resistance, dimensional stability, resistance to low temperatures, creep resistance and stiffness and low cost. And it has many applications in making Machined prototypes, Structural components, Support blocks, Housings and covers, Telephone handset, domestic appliances (food processors, fans, TV sets), Food containers, radiator grills.

3.3.4. Concept Generation for Optimization

Design concepts selection (DCS) is an area of design research that has been under considerable interest over the years (Salonen and Perttula, 2005). It is one of the important activities for a product development process and decision making phase of concept design, where designers evaluate concepts with respect to customer needs. According to Gerrit Muller Selection techniques should be used in the early phases of product development when stakeholder are known and when requirements are established.

Here we developed mainly three concepts and the FEA model is developed by using basic model as reference for all three concepts and analysis was done. Based on the obtained von-misses stress results, the good concept selected.

Concept 1 Providing ribs

This concept is developed based on the literature that the ribs provide strength and rigidity to the product. In present model only horizontal ribs are present so we planned to provide vertical ribs. The two ribs are placed along vertical direction at equal distance from the center plane of the bracket.

Concept 2 Thickness increased

Actually at the failure point the material thickness is less as compared to the other part of the bracket, so from the literature the strength will increase as the thickness increased. Based on this we developed the above concept where material thickness is increased to some extent.

Concept 3 Ribs with thickness

In this concept the both features are included that is the thickness is increased at failure point and also ribs are provided in vertical direction.

Concept 4 Change of material

In this concept, material used for manufacturing the mounting bracket is changed. Instead of ABS material we used polypropylene thermo plastic material, since compare to the other material it has high strength and also low density.

The material properties are given by

Table 3.3: Polypropylene material properties

Property	Value in metric unit	
Density	0.91 x10 ³	kg/m ³
Modulus of elasticity	1.36	GPa
Strength	37	MPa
Poisson's ratio	0.3	-
Flexural strength	49	MPa
Thermal expansion (20 °C)	90x10 ⁻⁶	°C ⁻¹
Maximum work temperature	150	°C

3.4. Finite Element Analysis of Mounting Bracket for optimization of concepts

In this initially the finite element model is generated and analysis is done for the basic model of bracket and taking basic FEA model as reference, the FEA models for the different concepts are developed and analysis done for each different concepts.

3.4.1 Basic model

Figure 3.6, 3.7, 3.9, 3.11, 3.13 shows the FEA model of the original bracket, concept-1, concept-2, concept-3 and concept-4 having QUAD4, TRIA3 elements and these elements are satisfied the all quality parameters and with the boundary conditions applied and the applied forces and the constraints at different points. The different color elements represent the different collectors having variation in thickness. Figure 3.8 shows von-misses stress distribution of the basic model, here we observed that the stress generated more at the section having thin cross sections, where the actual failure had taken place.

3.4.2 Model with ribs provided

The FEA model and Von-misses stress distribution for the concept-1 are shown in Fig. 3.9 and 3.10 respectively. Analysis result shows that stress developed in the bracket is slightly reduce compare to failure stress.

3.4.3 Model with thickness increased

The FEA model and Von-misses stress distribution for the concept-2 are shown in Fig. 3.11 and 3.12 respectively. Analysis result shows that stress developed in the bracket is reduced more compare to concept1.

3.4.4. Model with ribs and increased thickness

The FEA model and Von-misses stress distribution for the concept-3 are shown in Figures 3.13 and 3.14 respectively. Analysis result shows that stress developed in the bracket is reduce to considerable amount of failure stress.

3.4.5 Model with material change

The FEA model for this concept is same as the basic model but only material properties are changed. Von-misses stress distribution for the concept-4 is shown in Fig. 3.15. Analysis result shows that stress developed in the bracket is reducing slightly compare to failure stress.

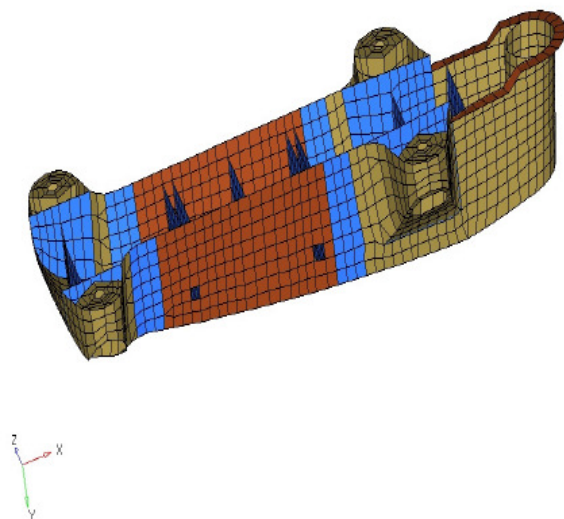


Fig 3.6: FEA model of the original bracket

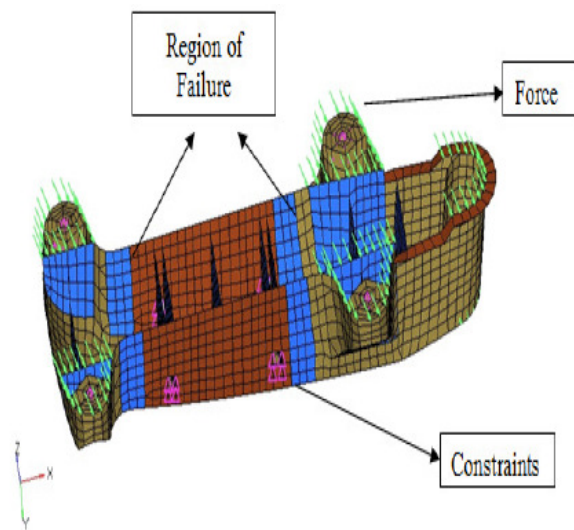


Fig 3.7: Basic FEA model with boundary conditions

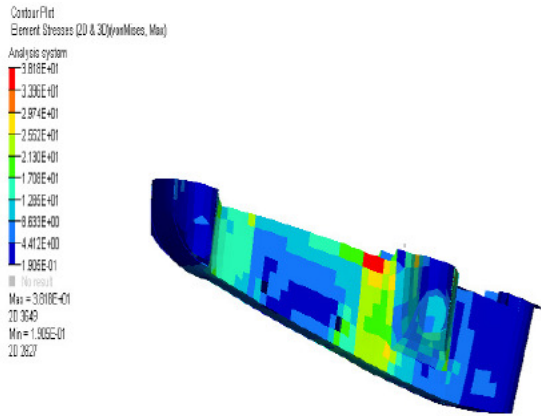


Fig 3.8: Von-misses stress distribution of basic model

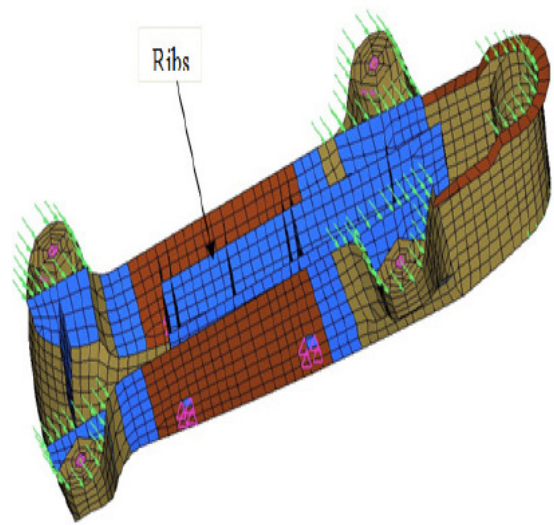


Fig 3.9: Concept-1 model with boundary conditions

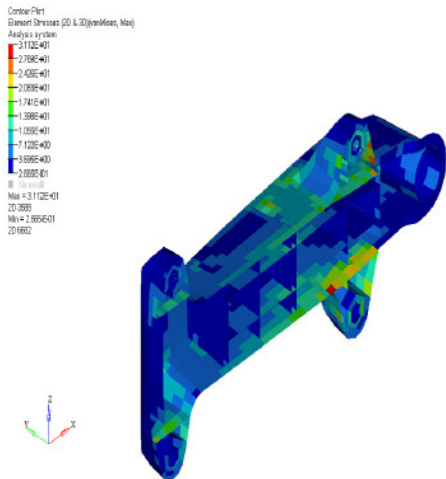


Fig.3.10: Von-misses stress distribution of concept-1

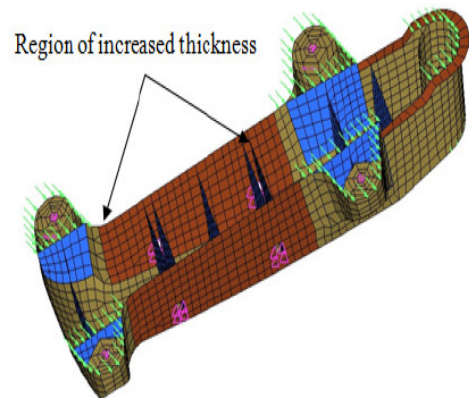


Fig.3.11: Concept-2 model with boundary conditions

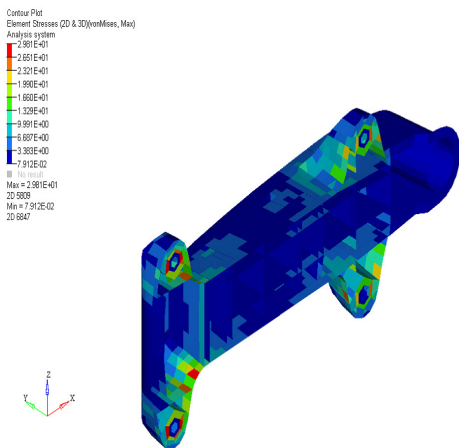


Fig.3.12: Von-misses stress distribution of concept-2

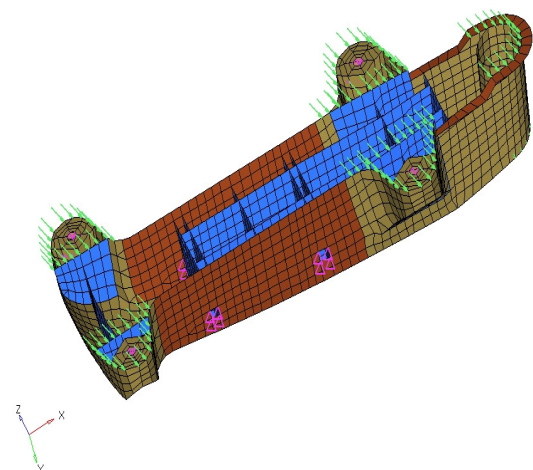


Fig. 3.13: Concept-3 model with boundary conditions

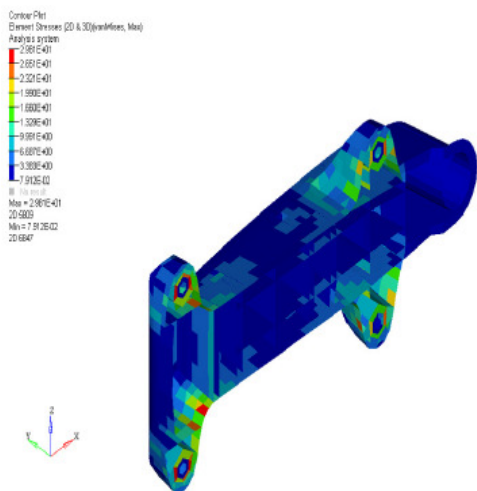


Fig.3.14: Von-misses stress distribution of concept-3

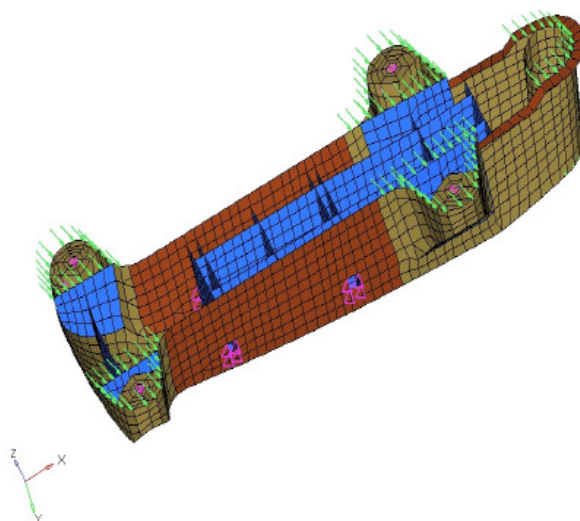


Fig.3.15: Von-misses stress distribution of concept-4

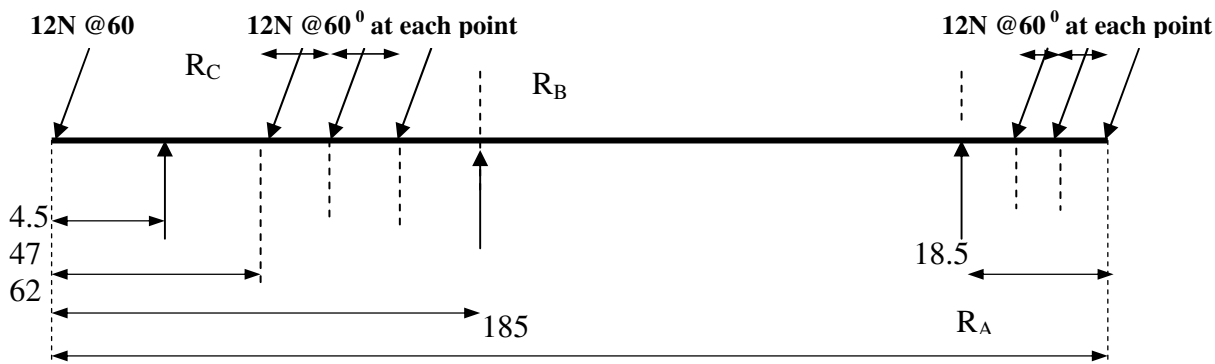
3.5. Validation of the Analysis

In this section the software and the element type used for the analysis is validated with the theoretical results for the stress developed in the bracket. The geometry of the bracket is symmetric therefore considered only half portion. Assuming it as simply supported beam. The different forces acting at different point are shown in figure below; all dimensions are in “mm”.

To obtain stresses in bracket

To obtain the combined stresses acting on the selected portion of the bracket, it is sliced in to three different sections which are as shown in the Fig 7.12 and Following are the steps followed to calculate the combined stresses acting at each section

- Evaluating the sectional area (A) and distance of centroid
- Calculating moment of inertia at centroidal axis (I)
- Obtaining bending (σ_b), direct (σ_d) and combined stresses (σ_c)



After resolving

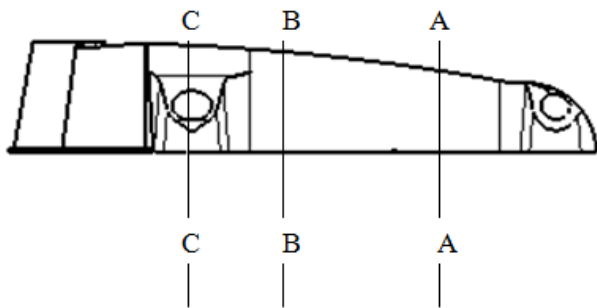
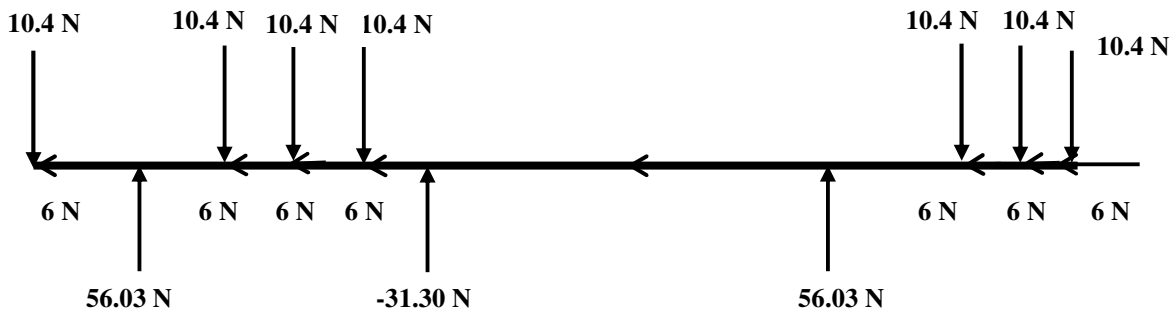


Fig 3.16: Different sections of bracket structure

At section A-A

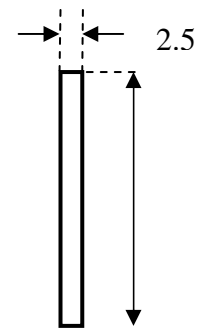


Fig. 3.17: Section A-A of Bracket

$L=18.5\text{mm}$ from Tail (right end) point
 $b=2.5\text{mm}$; $h=10\text{ mm}$;

sectional area = $b \times h$

$$= 2.5 \times 10 = 25 \text{ mm}^2 \quad I = b \times \frac{h^3}{12} = 2.5 \times \frac{10^3}{12} = 208.33 \text{ mm}^4$$

Bending stress

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Bending} \\ \text{Stress} \end{array} \right\} \sigma_b = \frac{M \times c}{I} \quad C = 10/2 = 5.0 \text{ mm} \quad \sigma_b = \frac{-436.8 \times 5}{208.33} = -10.4832 \text{ N/mm}^2$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Direct} \\ \text{Stress} \end{array} \right\} \sigma_d = \frac{\text{Reaction force at A-A}}{\text{Sectional area}} = \frac{-18}{25} = -0.729 \text{ N/mm}^2$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Combined} \\ \text{Stress} \end{array} \right\} \sigma = \sigma_b + \sigma_d = -10.4832 - 0.729 = -11.203 \text{ N/mm}^2$$

Similarly A, \bar{Y} , I, σ_b , σ_d and σ_c for remaining sections are tabulated below.

Table 3.4: Combined stress values at different sections in bracket

Section	A mm ²	\bar{Y} mm	I mm ⁴	σ_b N/mm ²	σ_d N/mm ²	σ_c N/mm ²
A-A	25	5.0	208.33	-10.4832	-0.729	-11.203
B-B	50	10.0	1666.67	-7.95	-0.48	-8.43
C-C	56.5	14	188.75	-16.4	-0.68	-17.08

Table 3.5: Comparison of theoretical analysis results

Sections	Theoretical (MPa)	Analysis (MPa)
A-A	-11.203	16.60
B-B	-8.43	13.29
C-C	-17.08	19.92

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter the analysis results of different concepts are interpreted and showed the variations of von-misses stress developed in the different concepts. In the above plot: 0,1,2,3,4 = represent the basic model, concept-1, concept-2, concept-3 and concept-4 respectively.

The percentage of reduction in the stress generated for different concepts are given in table. From the analysis plot we can observe that in the concept-3, the stress reduction is more compare to the other concepts, but we selected the concept-2 is best concept since Simple design and more feasible, Economical in the manufacturing point of view. The existing dies with slight modification, can be used for manufacturing the bracket.

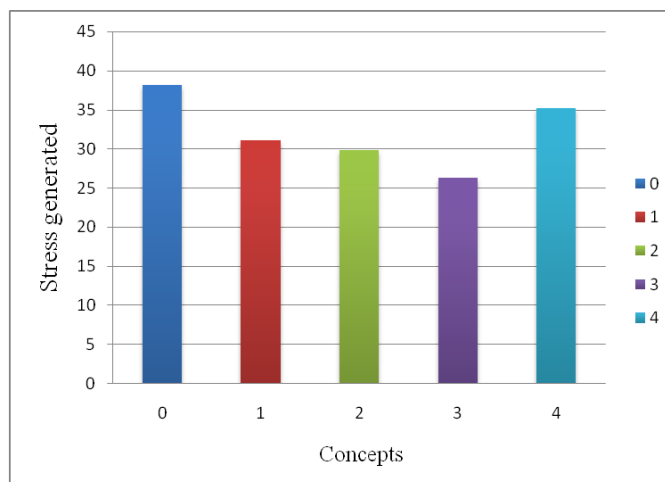


Fig 4.1: Stress generated v/s Concepts

Table 4.1: Stress reduction in different concepts

Concepts	% reduction
Concept1	18.50
Concept2	21.92
Concept3	31.04
Concept4	7.67

5. CONCLUSION

The present work is to improve the strength of the bracket, for this FMEA, Benchmarking and analysis have done by considering all the parameters. FMEA result shown that the risk priority number (RPN) has more for the failure of mounting bracket compare to the other possible problems. Hence modification has done in the geometry of the bracket.

Benchmarking has done to know the different types of bracket available in the market which are more feasible. It shows that type-1, type-2 and type-3 are almost having same rank but due to some disadvantages of type-1 the other two are now-a-days majorly used by the customers. As already stated the design concept-2 is the best possible concept for manufacturing the bracket. Hence finally it is concluded that new design is better than existing design. Further study is required to develop the prototype model and conducting the test experimentally and compare the analysis and experimental results. Some parameters could be included in future analysis like examining the model under non linear condition and composite material may be used to manufacture the bracket.

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Integration of Web GIS and Remote Sensing for Trees Management Outside Forest

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ABSTRACT

“Integrating of Web GIS and Remote Sensing for Trees Management outside Forest” refers to delineation of tree cover outside forests. This initiative is taken by using high resolution CARTOSAT-1 satellite imagery. This paper introduces an integrated Web-based GIS architecture by combining three levels of geographic information services. A prototype Website (Online Forest Portal) has been developed to provide easy access of analyzed geospatial information and to facilitate web –based data sharing for natural resource managers and regional park rangers. In this context, an accurate assessment of forest and tree resources is essential for formulating sound strategy for forestry sector. Forest areas using satellite Remote Sensing are used as a tool for mapping Zones.. The Web-based integration frame work emphasizes user- oriented services, distributed network environments, metadata standards, communication protocols, client/server computation and ubiquitous access for rational utilization of funds for forest management.

INTRODUCTION

Trees are very valuable natural and renewable resource and it is difficult to understand its diverse topographic, climatic, socio-economic and its role in making the environment healthy. Deforestation is one of the major destructive elements outside forest and causes enormous damage to biotic resources, the regeneration and productivity capacity of trees is essential. Conventionally identifying the trees outside forest areas was based on knowledge and experience of the foresters by some of conservative measures. All these protective measures failed respective of all risk prone areas outside forest. Lack of scientific approach in delineating priority areas for trees has caused immense damage to the national economy. The advent of the internet and web-based geographic information systems provides a convenient and efficient way to

access and disseminate geospatial data and remotely sensed imagery. There is a great potential for using web based GIS and image tools in the areas of natural habitat preservation and environmental monitoring. This research explores to develop an updated framework for combining Web GIS and remote sensing and creating a web repository for spatially analyzed data. The present paper evaluates major components by mapping and showing their inter relationship, describing status of forest health and prone areas from lowest to highest risk. This part of study also includes web analytics and methodology towards determining the efficiency to monitor various environmental issues. Remotely sensed data is also one of the geospatial data. GIS is a vital technology supporting the various phases of risk assessment.

OBJECTIVES

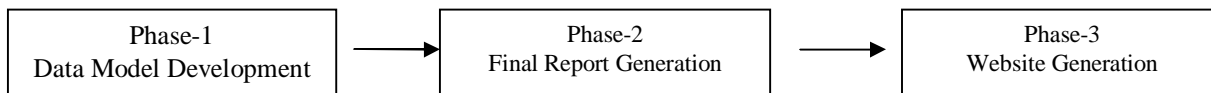
- ❖ Developing a prototype website for publishing and to access geospatial information.
- ❖ Development of GIS web based tool to integrate with remote sensing data that provides storing, retrieving, analyzing and presenting capability.
- ❖ To emphasize the user oriented services and metadata standards of the present study as well as other various analyzed reports.
- ❖ To design a web based repository for data archival.
- ❖ To investigate the delineation of trees outside forest cover in the study areas using ground truth information.
- ❖ To design and implementation of functional , explicit and user friendly menu screens for database maintenance, information query, information retrieval and query on spatial and non-database.
- ❖ To assess the effect of different land use systems on diversity of TOF.

METHODOLOGY

Materials Required:

Global Positioning System (GPS), ERDAS Imagine 9.3, Arc Map 9.2, Arc View 3.2, MS.Office-2007.
 Software Requirements: JDBC, Apache Tomcat, Oracle, Microsoft Windows.

This methodology mainly includes three phases



CARTOSAT-1 is the first Indian Remote Sensing satellite capable of providing in-orbit stereo images. The images are used for Cartographic applications meeting the global requirements. Cameras of this satellite have a resolution of 2.5m (can distinguish even a small car). The CARTOSAT-1 provides stereo pairs required for DEM, Ortho image Products for various applications of GIS. This carries two panchromatic cameras that can take black and white stereoscopic pictures of the earth in the visible region of the electromagnetic spectrum. The swath covered by the high resolution PAN camera is 30km and their spatial resolution is 2.5m. The cameras are mounted on the satellite in such a way that near simultaneous imaging of the same area from two different angles is possible. This facilitates the generation of accurate three dimensional maps. The cameras are steerable

across the direction of the satellite movement to facilitate the imaging of an area more frequently. The images taken by Cartosat-1 camera compressed, encrypted, formatted and transmitted to the ground stations.

With the advent of new technologies like Satellite Remote Sensing, Global Positioning system, GIS revolutionary changes have been brought in handling the vast geographical data for better management of natural resources. For the trees classification, weight ages are assigned to each variable like tree cover density, type, and its proximity to road analyzed in the complex GIS environment to generate the final output. Generalization is performed by finally integrating with Web GIS and producing output by rescaling.

Methods / Procedures used:

Geo-referencing:

Correlating the image to the real world co-ordinates with a specific projection and specified units. Unless until the images are geo-referenced, they cannot be arranged sequentially or overlaid one upon another for any further analysis. Rough geo-referencing can be done by addresses (Lat, Long) given in the accompanied data of image for four corner pixels and one central pixel. For refined geo-referencing, a projected map can be used while rectification (warping) of image and can be transformed specific projection of that map with specific datum and units.

Mosaicking:

The area of interest exists in more than one image; the images had to be joined after geo-referencing. Rectification can be done to original

images either before mosaicking or the mosaicked image afterwards.

Sub-setting:

Depending upon the camera and satellite, the area, width of the scene (swath) will change. Accordingly NRSC data centre produces the square of swath as full scene, 70 km² for PAN, 140km² for CARTOSAT-1. A full scene is divided into 42 sub scenes.

Classification:

Panchromatic classifications are the process of sorting pixels into a finite number of individual classes, or categories of data, based on their data file values. If a pixel satisfies a certain set of criteria, the pixel is assigned to the class that corresponds to that criterion. This process is also referred to as image

segmentation. An example of a classified image is a land cover map, showing vegetation, bare land, pasture, urban, etc.

Taking the advantage of panchromatic property of CARTOSAT-1 and high resolution of responding IRS PAN, a classification of TOF assessment has been developed. Firstly, the geo-referenced boundary of study area was supplied to NRSC to procure desired CARTOSAT-1. After acquiring the images, the PAN image was geometrically rectified as per the strategy adopted. The CARTOSAT-1 was co registered with the rectified PAN images. The boundary of forest area was digitized and forest area was masked. The remaining CARTOSAT-1 image apart from forest cover was left out for further classification. The classification enables to distinguish between tree cover and other dark areas PAN images. The remaining area on PAN data (pseudo image) represents only trees and agriculture and using the threshold gray value of PAN image corresponding to tree cover, image was classified. This classified image was visually analyzed with respect to Google earth for editing and refinement for inclusion and

Run the AML:

AML is the native programming language of the Arc Info Work station in GIS software. AML is commonly used in 7X versions of Arc Info. Over 150 free AML scripts are available from ESRI's Arc Scripts page. Find AML scripts covering almost every spatial function. Choose "languages" from the drop down menu and select AML before you search for AML written to convert from raster to vector files to Arc Info format. Run the AML to convert classified raster image to vector shape file.

Accuracy Assessment:

The converted vector shape formats of all the classified portions are then merged accordingly with their corresponding classifications. These classified vector coverage's are rectified using clean and build techniques that are a part of data management tools in Arc GIS. This feature helps to minimize errors of the polygons drawn with over shoots and under shoots at nodes, however to attain connectivity.

Slope map preparation:

A measure of change in surface value over distance, expressed in degrees or as a percentage. Mathematically, slope is referred to as the first

omissions. Since cluster of trees having 0.1 Ha area or more is defined as Block plantation, pixels were clumped and cluster of pixels having area less than 0.1Ha were eliminated. Incorporating these collections final classified image was prepared having three classes in TOF areas, namely, Block, Linear, Habitation, and Scattered. This classification is dependent upon the data itself for the definition of classes. This method is usually used when less is known about the date before classification. It is then the analyst's responsibility after classification, to attach meaning to the resulting classes.

Raster to Vector Conversion:

The classified raster image is converted into Arc/info coverage (vector format) using the ERDAS Imagine Raster to Vector conversion option. Coverage obtained will be pixel based and each class is given a specific grid code, using grid code the polygons of same grid code have to be dissolved. Coverage needs to be splinted in order to get smooth arcs.

Digitization of Contours:

Contours of Prakasam Division are digitized using the SOI topo sheets of 1:150000 Scale are used (Contour Interval is 20m). First the topo sheets that fall under the study area are Gecoded in the Erdas Imaging. Then the contours are digitized giving elevation as parameter in the attribute table.

DEM (Digital Elevation Model):

Digital Elevation Model is a raster representation of a continuous surface, usually referring to the surface of the earth. The accuracy of this data is determined primarily by the resolution (distance between sample points). Other factors affecting accuracy are data type (integer or floating point) and actual sampling of the surface when creating the original DEM. Digital Elevation models are typically used to represent terrain relief as this helps in association with sampling points, also referred to as 'Digital Terrain Model' (DTM). In the present study DEM is created using Arc/Info software's topo grid command. DEM produced by topo grid command is floating point grid inputs used are boundary of the district and contour coverage's.

derivative surface; slope identifies the maximum rate of change in value from each cell to its neighbors. As output slope grid can be calculated as percent slope or degree of slope.

Slope Grid creation:

Slope grid can be derived from the DEM using grid tools surface analysis function. Slope grid derived by DEM is floating grid, it is converted into integer grid using float to integer conversion option provided by grid tool expression function. Then the slope grid is reclassified to five classes as per the modeling strategy.

Slope Coverage:

Reclassified slope grid is converted into slope coverage using grid to poly conversion function provided by the command tools of Arc/Info software. Slope coverage assigned the slope index and multiplied with the internal weight ages using Arc View software according to the value in the modeling table.

Modeling:

The various spatial layers can be integrated for modeling TOF. Integration of these layers would be done in a hierarchical scheme. Different layers

have different degree of contribution on TOF. According to pre field Observation report , reference points are generated with respect to relationship between spatial features. The accuracy of classification was assessed by taking average points in block, linear, habitation and scattered stratum. It is recommended that 50 or more points should be located for ground verification for each class done in post field work.

Sampling Method:

This stratification having done with the help of appropriate sampling design optimum number of plots can be randomly selected in every stratum. Since the variability in each stratum is expected to be different demanding different sample and plot sizes, pilot studies were conducted to ascertain this so that the variability of the stratum can be properly addressed. In this pilot study, 0.1 Ha, 0.2 Ha and 0.3 Ha plots were considered for natural and habitat stratum. Desired number of sample points was randomly generated in each stratum, separately and the data on pre decided variables were collected on designed formats.

STUDY AREA

Prakasam District

Forest Circle- Prakasam;

Revenue District- Nellore, Gudur, Kavali

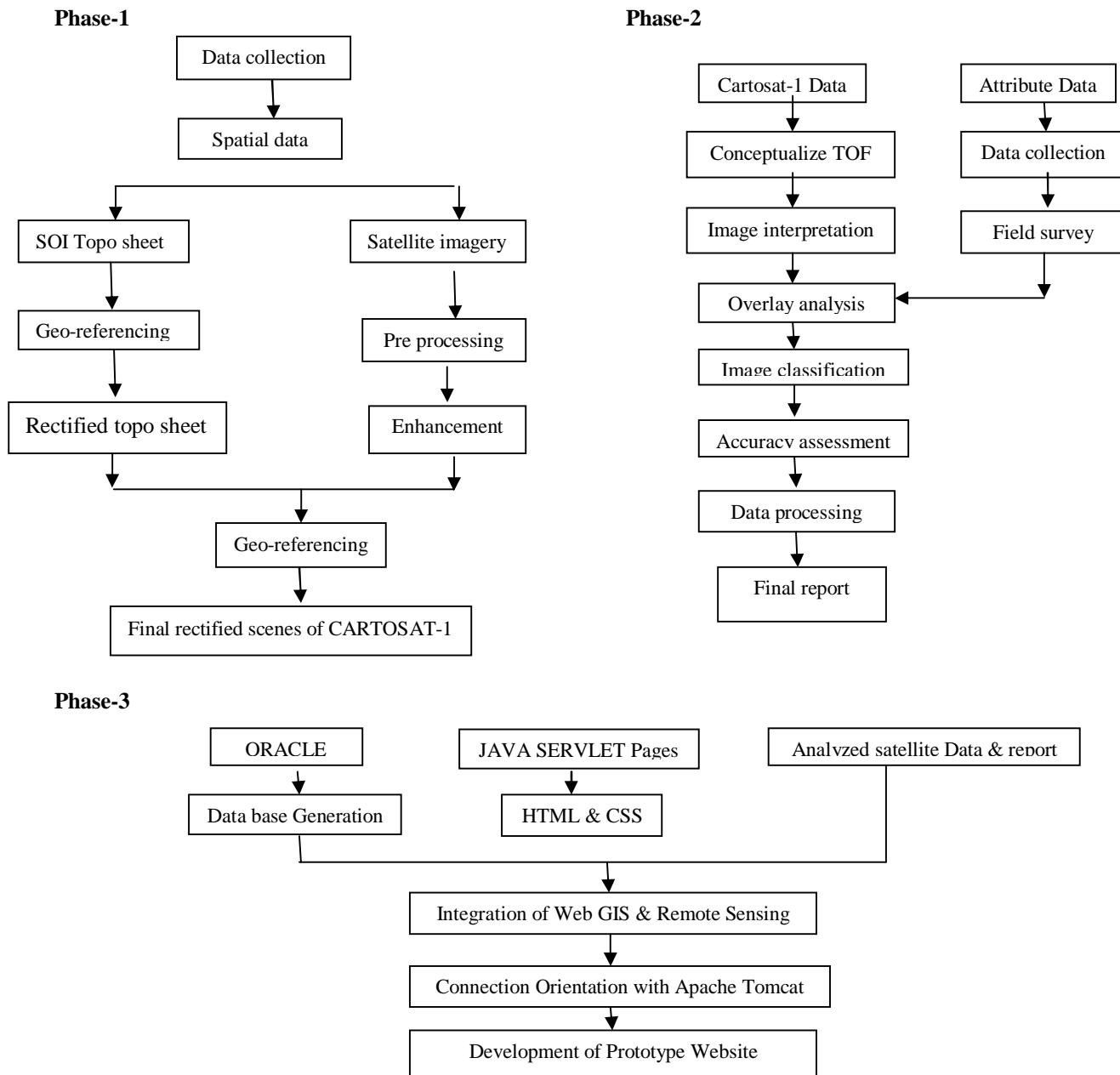
State – Andhra Pradesh

Location –

Latitude 14⁰57'0.49"N to 16⁰17'51.74"N

Longitude 78⁰45'23.78"E to 80⁰25'53.48"E

Land use	Area in Ha	%
Total geographical area	1762600	
Forest including scrub	442598	28.42
Agriculture	990841	51.14
Gross irrigated area	72.86	36.36
Fallow lands	155900	0.89
Grasslands	0.49	0.02
Settlements	20.80	0.83
Vegetation outside forest	75.75	3.03
Water bodies	24682	1.05



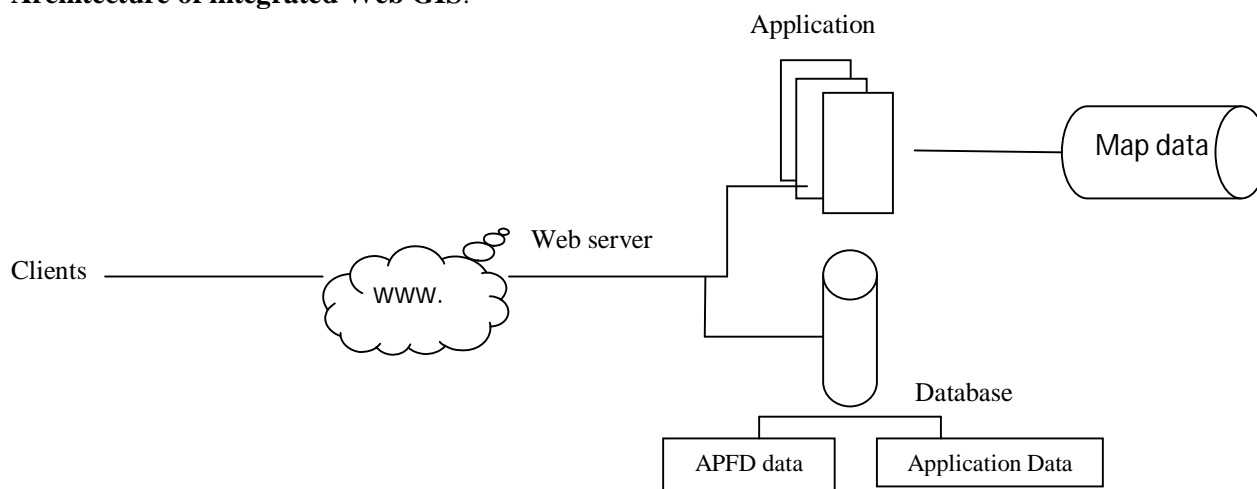
Final Report Generated

Showing the stratum wise areas in Ha, distributed in the district

S.No	Stratum	Area in Ha
1	Natural Forest	63558.77
2	Habitation	18021.90
3	Linear	5027.92
4	Scattered	9044.69

Web Design & Development:

Architecture of integrated Web GIS:



Conclusion

This prototype website online forest portal is very much useful for various applications like assessment of the natural resources, evaluation of LULC patterns, understanding environmental clearance, geology and topography. This sort of design can be used as a platform for publishing any other projects. It is also useful for industrial estate developers, environmental professionals and researchers have several advantages to get faster results.

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Using Checkpoint For Implementing Fault-Tolerant On Desktop Grids

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Abstract:

Grid computing uses massive power of idle cycles of PC's .Desktop grids is nothing using the idle cycles of desktop PC's for computing large scale applications. There are many fields which requires large scale massive power such as scientific fields to handle complex and demanding problems. Desktop grids uses widely distributed grids the probability of occurring fault is more. Desktop Grids are being increasingly used as the execution platform for a variety of applications that can be structured as Bag-of-Tasks (BoT)[1].

In this paper we proposes a fault tolerant fair scheduler for bag of tasks application on desktop grid, which ensures error free transmission of data and performing tasks by using resources and also fair sharing of resources. Fault tolerant is implemented on desktop grid by using checkpoint.

Keywords - Scheduler, Grid Information System, checkpoint

INTRODUCTION

Almost every college, office and every member have computers. In fact modern world is incomplete without Computers. Desktop Grids are computational grids formed by using resources of idle desktop machines. Most of the computers in offices and personal computers are used only for certain time and are idle for most of the time and also they are not using the whole storage of the system .Grid computing combines all the machines that are idle and form as Virtual Group and uses the group for computing large-scale applications. There are two types of desktop grids one is local and other is individual computers . Local computers are the group of computers in an organization and educational institutes . Second is the individual computers which are used by citizens . This offers the opportunity to resolve the increasing need for computational resources. As most desktop systems are idle for significant periods of time, it should be possible to harvest their idle CPU cycles or other unused resources and apply them towards projects in need of such resources. Apart from providing huge computational power and storage capacity desktop grids also have several challenges in using this volatile and shared platform effectively. The usefulness of desktop grid computing is not limited to major high throughput public computing projects. Many institutions, ranging from academics to enterprises, hold vast number of desktop machines

and could benefit from exploiting the idle cycles of their local machines[2] . Important examples of desktop grids are SETI@home and PrimeGrid, Almere Grid, Condor based grids[4], the WISDOM project is using grid computing to speed the search for a cure for malaria, a disease that effects millions of people all over the developed world, MammoGrid is building a grid for hospitals to share and analyse mammograms in an effort to improve breast cancer treatment.

Desktop grids faces many challenges and the most important challenges are platform is volatile, since users may reclaim their computer at any time, which makes centralized schedulers inappropriate. Second, desktop grids are likely to be shared among several users, thus we must be particularly careful to ensure a fair sharing of the resources. Fair sharing of resources means there should be balanced share of resource no resource should get more load and no resource should get less instead there should be balanced sharing to the resources. The solution to the fair sharing of resources is already give by fair decentralized scheduler[1]. The main aim of our model is provide fault tolerant by using check points. Fault tolerance is an important property in Grid computing as the dependability of individual Grid resources may not be able to be guaranteed; also as resources are used outside of organizational boundaries, it becomes increasingly difficult to guarantee that a resource being used is not malicious in some way[3].

PROBLEM DESCRIPTION

In this section, we formally define the problem we target. Our goal is to design a fault-tolerant for fair scheduler on desktop grid. Our main objective while scheduling tasks of concurrent applications is to ensure fairness among users. There is more chance of occurring of resources failures in grid computing because grids are in distributed environment. Desktop Grids is forming Virtual Group by using many computers around world and using computer power and storage so at any time their is a chance of reclaiming the computer at any time from the virtual Group. In the desktop grids it is more because even and individual computer also comes under this category.

ARCHITECTURE

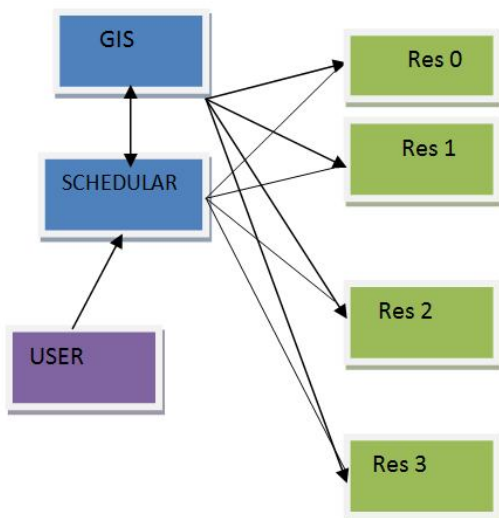


Figure 1: Architecture of Scheduler and GIS

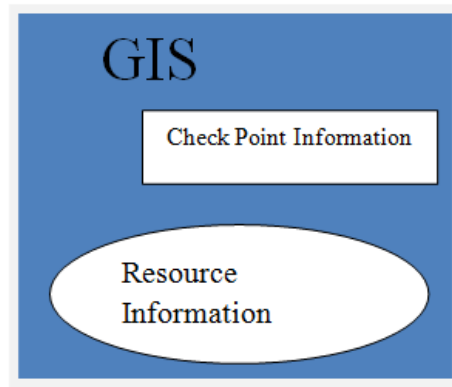


Figure 2: GIS architecture

Algorithm 1 Resource Failure Detection Algorithm used by GIS.

```

repeat
  send the messages to all checkpoints up to resource from GIS
  if a checkpoint does not respond sending acknowledge back then
    remove it from the list
    update GIS entities about the failure
  end if
  wait for Time GIS seconds
until simulation is over
  
```

Algorithm 2 Resource Failure Detection Algorithm used by Scheduler .

```

repeat
  push the messages to all resources which are running jobs
  if a resource does not respond by sending acknowledge then
    Scheduler ask the GIS for a list of resources
    choose one of them
    resubmit the jobs
  end if
  wait for T seconds
until all my jobs have been successfully executed.
  
```

GIS: maintains an up-to-date list of available resources. GIS collects the information from all the checkpoints of all the resources and maintains an up-to-date list.

According to Algorithm 1 :

Message will be send to all the checkpoints to all the resources and if message is not send back from the then remove the resource from the resource information maintained in the GIS. Contact a GIS

entity for a list of available resources in order to know where to run their jobs. The functionality of this entity can be summarized in Algorithm 2. For enabling an efficient pushing mechanism, User Datagram Protocol (UDP) is used by these entities. This is due to the fact that UDP requires a less significant network latency in comparison with a Transmission Control Protocol (TCP), although UDP does not provide retransmission of lost packets. The sequential steps are shown in a box with a number inside. Here is list of steps showing the working of the model .First, *R1,R2,R3* and *R4 resources* register to *GIS* (step 1). Then, *GIS* creates a list of available resources. In order to keep that list up-to-date, *GIS* push the messages to the resources periodically (step 2). When *User* wants to run a job, he/she contacts scheduler and scheduler contacts *GIS* in order to get a list of available resources (step 3). Upon receiving the scheduler's request, *GIS* returns its list. In that moment, scheduler will choose *R1* for example, based on the features of the resource and the job scheduling. When *User* has chosen the resource, he/she submits the job to *R1* and starts a regular pushing mechanism.

In the event of a failure affecting *R1*, *GIS* is able to detect this problem due to the pushing mechanism in place (step 4). Hence, *GIS* removes the failed resource from the list. During a routine push, *GIS* discovers that *R1* has failed. As a result, *scheduler* ask *GIS* for a list of resources (step 5). When *R1* recovers, it registers itself again to *GIS* (step 6). With this approach, *GIS* is able to maintain an up-to-date list of available resources. If the failure only affects some of the machines in a resource, what happens next depends on the allocation policy of this resource. If the resource runs a *space-shared* allocation policy, the jobs that are currently running on the failed machines will be terminated and sent back to users. However, when the resource runs a *time-shared* (round-robin) allocation policy, no jobs will be failed, as their execution will continue in the remaining machines of the resource. For both allocation policies, the remaining machines are responsible for responding to pushing requests from users and *GIS*. Moreover, they are required to inform the *GIS* about such failure. This way, the *GIS* can have accurate information on the current status of the resource.

USING GridSim FOR RESOURCE FAILURES

GridSim:

GridSim allows modeling and simulation of entities in parallel and distributed computing systems such as users, applications, resources, and resource

brokers/schedulers for design and evaluation of scheduling algorithms.

Overview of GridSim functionalities:

Incorporates failures of Grid resources during runtime. New allocation policy can be made and integrated into the GridSim Toolkit, by extending from Alloc class. Has the infrastructure or framework to support advance reservation of a grid system. Incorporates a functionality that reads workload traces taken from supercomputers for simulating a realistic grid environment. Incorporates an auction model into GridSim. Incorporates a datagrid extension into GridSim. Incorporates a network extension into GridSim. Now, resources and other entities can be linked in a network topology. Incorporates a background network traffic functionality based on a probabilistic distribution. This is useful for simulating over a public network where the network is congested. Incorporates multiple regional GridInformationService(*GIS*) entities connected in a network topology. Hence, you can simulate an experiment with multiple Virtual Organizations (*VOs*). Adds ant build file to compile GridSim source files[10].

Along with GridSim classes we are using many new classes for implementing resource failures.

UserFailure: as its name suggests, this class implements the behavior of the users of our grid environment. Its functionality can be summarized as follows: (1)creation of jobs; (2) submission of jobs to resources; (3)push the resources used to run its jobs; (4) on the failure of a job, choose another resource and re-submit the failed job to it; (5) receive successful jobs.

ResourceFailure: based on Grid-Sim's GridResource class, this class interacts with RegionalGISWithFailure to set machines as failed or working. It also interacts with classes implementing AllocPolicyWithFailure to set jobs as failed.

AllocWithFailure: it is an interface class, which provides some functions to deal with resource failures. Each allocation policy implementing this interface will have a different behaviour with regard to the failures.

AvailabilityInfo: This class is used to implement the pushing mechanism. The user and *GIS* send objects of this class to resources, which in turn send them back, as mentioned previously. When a resource still has some working machines left, it will send these objects back with no delay. However, when all machines are out of order, the resource sends these objects back with some delay with a

special tag. This is done to simulate a situation, where if a resource does not reply to the given push before a specified time out, then it is interpreted as not available. This method is used to overcome the same problem in GridSim, i.e. waiting for events that never arrive.

Resource failure statistics

Virtual Group	Resources	Failed Resources
V1	100	5
V2	20	1
V3	60	30
V4	23	23

Job failures

	Jobs	Failed Jobs
1	200	52
2	89	8
3	100	65
4	10	10

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

Grid computing is the hot topic now-a-days which is used in many fields such as scientific, global warming etc. GridSim is the simulation tool used for simulation. By using Gridsim we model failure detection and handling the failures by using checkpoints. Failure model is implemented by using Gridsim, by this model researchers can be able to develop more realistic Grid models. In this paper we handled exception handling by using Grid sim.

As for future work, we are planning to use the improved simulation tool to carry out research aimed at providing more security and QoS in Grids.

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