





International Journal of Microsystems and IoT

ISSN: (Online) Journal homepage: https://www.ijmit.org

Grid Freedom: Unleashing the Potential of Microgrids for Sustainable Energy Solutions

Ali Wassouf, Raj Kumar Saini

Cite as: Wassouf, A., & Saini, R. K. (2024). Grid Freedom: Unleashing the Potential of Microgrids for Sustainable Energy Solutions. International Journal of Microsystems and IoT, 2(7), 1027-1032. <u>https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.13329918</u>

9	© 2024 The Author(s). Publish	ned by India	n Society for	VLSI Education	, Ranchi, India
Ħ	Published online: 17 July 202	24		_	
	Submit your article to this jo	ournal:	ď	_	
<u>.111</u>	Article views:	ſ		_	
۵	View related articles:	Ľ			
GrossMark	View Crossmark data:	ľ		_	

DOI: https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.13329918

Full Terms & Conditions of access and use can be found at https://ijmit.org/mission.php

Grid Freedom: Unleashing the Potential of Microgrids for Sustainable Energy Solutions

Ali Wassouf, Raj Kumar Saini

Department of Electronics and Communication Engineering, Shoolini University, Solan Himanchal Pradesh, India

ABSTRACT

Microgrids, as decentralized and localized energy systems, have emerged as a transformative solution to the challenges posed by traditional centralized grids. This abstract explores the key features, benefits, and challenges associated with microgrid technology. Microgrids integrate renewable energy sources, enhancing sustainability and reducing reliance on fossil fuels. Their capacity to provide resilient and reliable power during grid outages ensures energy security, especially in the face of increasing climate-related disruptions. Despite their potential advantages, widespread adoption faces regulatory, financial, and technological hurdles. Collaboration among governments, industries, and communities is essential to overcome these challenges and propel microgrids into mainstream energy solutions. This abstract highlight the evolving role of microgrids in shaping a more resilient, sustainable, and decentralized energy landscape for the future, and compare different PV systems.

1. INTRODUCTION

Electricity is and will most likely continue to be the most significant source of energy for humans (together with gas and petrol) [1], at least soon. The time for generating electricity in large distant are as

Power plants are being phased down [2,3], mostly due to concerns about emissions and related climate issues. The installed distribution grid is likewise becoming obsolete globally for a variety of reasons. Some of these are: increased capacity required to meet growing consumer demand; increased installation of tiny power sources and the difficulty of today's distributive grid to accommodate that; and customer desire to be independent of the grid and have better power quality or dependability locally. For these and other reasons, the smart grid idea was established. According to Ref. [1,] one of the earliest mentions to use the word was in 2005. Microgrids (MGs) have been highlighted as an important component of smart grids to improve electricity dependability, quality, and overall energy efficiency [4]. Since Edison's first built electric grid was really a DC MG [5] MGs were envisioned as early as 1882 but were eventually forgotten owing to rising demand for electricity and the scale of power plants, thereby centralizing power production and removing it to far regions. Recently, MGs have resurfaced as a means of incorporating smaller on-site power generation, commonly referred to in the literature as distributed energy resources (DER), into the electrical grid.

© 2024 The Author(s). Published by Indian Society for VLSI Education, Ranchi, India

n 2005, one of the first initiatives to showcase a new method to integrating DER into the grid was the CERTS (Consortium for Electric Reliability Technology Solutions) MicroGrid project. problems on the grid, but CERTS introduced a possibility to separate a part of grid in case of emergency and reconnect once the problems on the grid were resolved [6]. That is how new MGs were formed, with definitions varying from the original, which included delivering electricity and heat for consumers [6], to a newer one, which did not include the heat portion [7]. The CERTS [6] definition of MGs was refined by the Department of Energy (DoE) [8] and the CIGRE working group [7] to today's form, in which MG is regarded an energy distribution system.

A system that includes loads and distributed energy resources that can be operated and controlled in both grid-connected and islanded modes. Both the CIGRE and DoE definitions have two essential requirements: an MG must have on-site sources and loads that are locally managed, and it must be capable of operating in the two modes indicated above. The major distinction between MG and traditional distributed generation is controllability [9].

Some benefits of implementing MGs include lower environmental costs of power generation owing to the use of renewable technologies [10], improved efficiency due to the use of combined heat and power systems [11], and increased energy efficiency since transmission and distribution costs are decreased [12].

In a normal power system network, when a new load is quickly introduced, the system's inertia compensates for the initial energy balance. In the case of micro sources, however, because the inertia is relatively low, an effective battery storage solution is required to compensate [13].

KEYWORDS

Microgrid, Network, Power Structure

Check for updates

Microgrids operate in two modes: grid linked mode and islanded mode [14]. The microgrid receives electricity from both the utility and the micro source when it is linked to the grid.

Under grid connected mode, major portion of the real power required for the load is met by the DGs connected to the microgrid and the remaining few portions and the variation in the real power demand is met by the grid [15], [16].

To maintain power balance, load/generation shedding is performed during islanded mode. The key loads are designed to always get quality electricity, whereas the remainder loads are designed to experience load shedding [17], [18]

Protection is critical for a dependable power system network. The goal of the microgrid is to deliver dependable power to its consumers. As a result, if there is a failure in the utility, the microgrid should be isolated [19], and if there is a defect inside the microgrid, it should isolate the least faulty section.

For the following reasons, typical protection techniques built for radial flow with large fault current would not function properly in a microgrid [20].

i. The opposite direction power flow in the transmission network

ii. Dynamic properties of tiny sources

Restriction of fault current flow during islanded mode

iv. Topological alterations in the network because of the intermittent nature of the micro sources

Microgrid management system:

A microgrid control structure refers to the system of components and algorithms that govern the operation of a microgrid [21]. A microgrid is a localized energy system that can operate independently or in conjunction with the main power grid. It typically consists of distributed energy resources (DERs) such as solar panels, wind turbines, energy storage systems, and backup generators [22]. The control structure is crucial for ensuring efficient and reliable operation of the microgrid by managing the generation, distribution, and consumption of energy within the system.

2. MICROGRID SYSTEM



Figure 1 Microgrid System

The control structure of a microgrid is designed to address various challenges, including intermittent renewable energy sources, fluctuating demand, and the need for seamless transitions between grid-connected and islanded modes [23]. Here are the key components of a typical microgrid control structure:

- 1. Energy Management System (EMS): The EMS is the core of the microgrid control structure. It monitors and analyzes real-time data from the microgrid components to optimize energy production and consumption. The EMS uses advanced algorithms to make decisions regarding the dispatch of energy from different sources, considering factors like cost, availability, and environmental impact [24].
- 2. **Distributed Energy Resources (DER) Controllers:** Each DER within the microgrid, such as solar inverters, wind turbine controllers, and energy storage systems, has its own controller. These controllers communicate with the EMS and follow its instructions to regulate their operation based on the current energy needs and grid conditions [25].
- Communication Network: A robust communication network is essential for the exchange of information between various components of the microgrid control structure. Real-time data sharing enables coordinated decision-making and helps maintain system stability [26].
- 4. Load Management Systems: These systems control the distribution of energy to different loads within the microgrid. Load management involves prioritizing critical loads, shedding non-essential loads during

periods of high demand or low generation, and ensuring a balanced distribution of power [27].

- 5. Islanding and Synchronization Controls: In the event of a grid outage, microgrids can operate in islanded mode, relying solely on their internal resources. The control structure includes mechanisms to detect grid failures and initiate a seamless transition to islanded mode. Synchronization controls ensure that the microgrid can safely reconnect to the main grid when it becomes available again [28].
- 6. **Cybersecurity Measures:** As microgrids become more interconnected and reliant on digital communication, robust cybersecurity measures are essential to protect the control structure from cyber threats and unauthorized access [29].

3. TYPES OF MICROGRIDS

The effectiveness of a microgrid control structure depends on the sophistication of its algorithms, the reliability of its components, and the flexibility to adapt to changing grid conditions. Advances in technology, including artificial intelligence and machine learning, continue to play a significant role in enhancing the efficiency and adaptability of microgrid control systems.

Demands:

The primary issues in MG control are voltage and frequency control [31] for the aim of local power balance [32, 33], as well as higher level management with the goal of economic advantage for the owner [34].

The demands on MG control were altered in tandem with the MG definition, primarily in terms of heat exchange, which was eliminated from the definition, as well as the needs over time.

An MG control system is expected to ensure customer and main grid power demand satisfaction in general, especially when supply and demand are varied owing to intermittent producing [35].

can follow load dynamics [36], has strong coordination with protective devices to account for bidirectional power flows [37], and can manage electricity while connected to the grid [38].

As a result, a good protection strategy is critical for the microgrid to ensure safe operation in both grid linked and islanded modes.

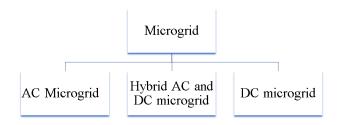


Figure 2 Microgrid 's types

Microgrid control:

These control systems are implemented using either centralized or decentralized control.

Centralized control. Figure 3 microgrid 's types

The MCC refreshes the look up table with latest information for each predetermined interval of time with respect to i. DG state of DG (ON/OFF), kind of DG, quantity of generation in centralized control.

ii. Demand - Load

iii. Depending on the control need, network characteristics such as current and voltage at each relay point

iv. PCC-operation mode (grid connected/islanded mode)

Decentralized control

In distant places, when the distances between DGs are great, centralized control necessitates more communication links, which incurs more costs [39].

4. HYBRID POWER SYSTEM

Microgrids come in various types, each tailored to meet specific needs and circumstances. The classification of microgrids is often based on factors like energy sources, ownership, and operational control. Here are some common types of microgrids:

i) Grid-Connected Microgrid:

Description: This type of microgrid is connected to the main electrical grid but can operate independently during grid outages. It usually synchronizes with the main grid and operates in parallel [40].

Application: Provides backup power during grid failures and may also contribute excess energy to the grid when available. *Figure 3*

Hybrid power

system

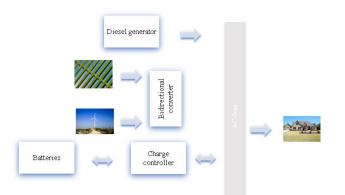


Figure 3 Hybrid Power System

ii) Islanded Microgrid:

Description: Operates in complete isolation from the main grid, relying solely on its own generation and storage capabilities. It can disconnect from or operate independently of the main grid during normal conditions [41].

Application: Common in remote areas or critical facilities where a reliable power supply is essential.

iii) Community Microgrid:

Description: Designed to serve a specific community or locality, integrating multiple distributed energy resources (DERs) and often managed by a community entity. It can be grid-connected or operate in island mode [42].

Application: Enhances energy resilience, fosters local energy production, and may incorporate shared energy resources among community members.

iv) .Remote Microgrid:

Description: Typically deployed in isolated or off-grid locations where access to the main grid is impractical or costprohibitive. It relies on local energy sources and storage.

Application: Common in remote villages, mining operations, or other locations far from centralized power infrastructure [43].

v) Institutional/Campus Microgrid:

Description: Provides power to a specific institution, such as a university campus, hospital, or military base. It often integrates various energy sources and storage systems to meet the diverse needs of the institution.

Application: Enhances energy reliability, efficiency, and may serve as a testbed for new technologies.

vi) Industrial Microgrid:

Description: Designed to meet the specific energy demands of an industrial facility. It may incorporate a mix of traditional and renewable energy sources along with energy storage.

Application: Supports continuous operations, enhances energy resilience, and may optimize energy costs for industrial processes [44].

vii) Utility-Controlled Microgrid:

Description: Operated and controlled by a utility company. It allows the utility to manage distributed energy resources and improve grid stability and reliability. Application: Integrates renewable energy sources into the grid, supports grid balancing, and enhances overall system resilience [45].

viii) Customer-Owned Microgrid:

Description: Owned and operated by an individual or entity, often a commercial or industrial facility. It provides energy independence and resilience against grid disruptions.

Application: Allows the owner to have control over energy generation, consumption, and costs.

The choice of microgrid type depends on the specific requirements, location, and objectives of the end-users or communities implementing them. Advances in technology and growing environmental concerns continue to drive innovation in microgrid design and deployment [46].

5. CHALLENGES IN MICROGRID PROTECTION SYSTEMS

A effective microgrid protection mechanism must be developed such that in the case of a problem, a minimal amount of the system is isolated without harming the remainder of the system. This can be accomplished by combining main and backup protection devices [47].

Microgrid protection systems:

Proper protection devices with superior selectivity, rapid operation, simplicity, flexibility, varied setting options, and low price must be chosen to enable dependable, safe functioning of the power system network.

As previously discussed, conventional protection systems designed for radial flow with high fault current for distribution networks are unlikely to connect faithfully to a microgrid due to bidirectional flow of electricity, dynamic features of DGs, intermittent nature of the DG, and variation in fault current. The biggest issues in microgrid security [48] are:

(i) Dynamics in fault current magnitude

(ii) The dynamics of fault current magnitude

The inclusion of DG in the LV network raises the fault level significantly, owing primarily to two major types of failure.

There are two modes of operation: grid-connected mode and islanded mode. The fault current will be particularly large in grid linked mode since both the utility and the DGs existing inside the microgrid feed the fault. However, because the microgrid's primary source is low capacity DGs, the fault current is relatively low during islanded mode.

Loss of mains

The term "loss of mains" refers to the disconnect of the microgrid from the utility source, but it remains linked with a portion of the load in the utility. This is caused by (a) a defect in the utility grid and (b) an issue with the circuit breaker connected to the power source. The fault attending person is at risk during such unintended islanding since a portion of the network is electrified and the islanding goes unnoticed [30]. Unnecessary disconnect

When a DG is positioned close to a substation in a feeder and contributes to a fault happening closer to the substation in a nearby feeder, the DG provides the majority of the fault current.

Blinding of protection

When a failure happens at the lower end of the feeder in a microgrid, both the power supply and the DG participate to the fault current. Because of the added impedance provided by DG, the Thevenin's impedance at the faulty point is now higher than in the standard network.

Microgrid security

A effective microgrid protection mechanism must be developed such that in the case of a problem, a minimal amount of the system is isolated without harming the remainder of the system. This can be accomplished by combining main and backup protection devices. The primary protective device is responsible for acting on any problem that occurs inside its zone.

Current restrictor

Fault Current Limiters (FCL) are installed near the PCC to restrict the fault current delivered by the utility's grid to the microgrid and by the DGs in the microgrid to the utility company.

centralized defense

A microgrid has a single central unit with centralized protection. The delta/star transformer connects the LV microgrid to the MV network. The neutral in star aids in avoiding earthing issues when islanding.

Variable-based security

Microgrid protection may also be done depending on other characteristics such as current, voltage, angle, traveling wave, Wavelet Packet Transform (WPT), and Total Harmonic Distortion (THD), which are explored in depth below. Distance defense

Distance security with great selectivity is commonly used in cables for transmission.

Power Balance Equation:

PlossesPtotal = Pgeneration-Pconsumption-Plosses (1) Ptotal: Total power in the microgrid.

Pgeneration: Total power generated within the microgrid.

Pconsumption: Total power consumed by the loads within the microgrid.

Plosses: Represents any losses in the microgrid, including transmission and distribution losses.

Renewable Energy Generation Equation:

Pgeneration(t)=Psolar(t)+Pwind(t) (20)

Psolar(t): Power generated by solar sources at time t.

Pwind(t): Power generated by wind sources at time t.

6. CONCLUSION

A smart grid is a cyber-enabled electric power system that blends information and communication technology with electrical engineering. Some of the benefits of smart grids are as follows.

(1) Offering two-way electricity and data flows.

(2) Building a wide-area tracking system and prevalent control capability over widespread utility assets; (3) Enabling energy conservation and demand-side management;

(4) Combining irregular renewable energy sources into the existing power grid.

This study highlights the evolving role of microgrids in shaping a more resilient, sustainable, and decentralized energy landscape for the future. And compare different PV systems.

REFERENCES

- Goel A. & Singh G. (2013). A Novel Low Noise High Gain CMOS Instrumentation Amplifier for Biomedical Applications. International Journal of Electrical and Computer Engineering, 3(4), 516-52. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.11591/ijece.v3i4.3170</u>
- Razzavi B. (2012) Design of Analog CMOS Integrated Circuit. Tata McGraw Hill Education.
- Thomas Kugelstadt. (2005). Getting the most out of your instrumentation amplifier design, Analog Applications Journal. Texas Instruments Incorporated, Texas, USA, 25-30. <u>https://www.ti.com/lit/pdf/slyt226</u>
- Tang, A. T. K. (2005). Enhanced programmable instrumentation amplifier, SENSORS, IEEE, Irvine, CA, USA, 1-4. <u>https://doi.org//10.1109/ICSENS.2005.1597859</u>
- Analog Devices. (2006). Programmable Gain Instrumentation amplifier AD625, One Technology Way, C00780c-0-6/00 (rev. D), 1-15. <u>https://www.analog.com/media/en/technical-documentation/data-sheets/ad625.pdf</u>
- Kultgen M. (2005). Simple, Precise Instrumentation Amplifier Features Digitally Programmable Gains from 1 to 4096. Analog Devices, Linear Technology Magazine, 16-19. <u>https://www.analog.com/en/technicalarticles/simple-precise-instrumentation-amplifier-features-digitallyprogrammable-gains.html</u>
- Fortunado K. (2018). Programmable Gain Instrumentation Amplifier: Find the best amplifier for you, Analog Dialogue, 52, 1-<u>6.https://www.analog.com/en/analog-dialogue/articles/programmable-gain-instrumentation-amplifiers-finding-one-that-works-for-you.html</u>
- Mourya S., Naik P. & Sharma P. (2013). Designing of Current Mode Instrumentation Amplifier for Bio-Signal Using 180nm CMOS Technology. International Journal of Engineering Research & Technology (IJERT), 2(4), 2529-2534. https://doi.org/10.17577/IJERTV2IS4947
- Roy S. C. D. (1984). Digitally Programmable Gain Amplifiers. IEEE Transactions on Instrumentation and Measurement, 33 (4), 329-332. <u>https://doi.org/10.1109/TIM.1984.4315234</u>
- Vyroubal D. (1990). Instrumentation amplifier with digital gain programming and common-mode rejection trim. IEEE Transactions on Instrumentation and Measurement, 39(4), 588-593 <u>https://doi.org/10.1109/19.57238</u>
- Di Ciano M., Tangorra R. & Marzocca C. (1996). Designing a low cost, low noise programmable gain instrumentation amplifier. Proceedings of 8th Mediterranean Electrotechnical Conference on Industrial Applications in Power Systems, Computer Science and Telecommunications (MELECON 96), 3, 1263-1266. https://doi.org.10.1109/MELCON.1996.551175
- Schaffer V., Snoeij M. F., Ivanov M. V. & Trifonov D. T. (2009). A 36 V Programmable Instrumentation Amplifier with Sub-20 μ\muV Offset and a CMRR in Excess of 120 dB at All Gain Settings. IEEE Journal of Solid-State Circuits, 44, 2036-2046. https://doi.org/10.1109/JSSC.2009.2021921
- Mahmoud S. A. and Alhammadi A. A. (2015). A CMOS digitally programmable OTA based instrumentation amplifier for EEG detection system. 2015 IEEE International Conference on Electronics, Circuits, and Systems (ICECS), 543-546. https://doi.org/10.1109/ICECS.2015.7440374
- 14. Adimulam M. K., Movva K. K., Kolluru K. and Srinivas M. B. (2017). A 0.32 μ W, 76.8 dB SNDR Programmable Gain Instrumentation Amplifier for Bio-Potential Signal Processing Applications. 2017 IEEE Computer Society Annual Symposium on VLSI (ISVLSI), 655-660.

- Schoeneberg U., Hosticka B. J. & Schnatz F. V. (1991). A CMOS readout amplifier for instrumentation applications. IEEE Journal of Solid-State Circuits, 26(7) 1077-1080. https://doi.org/10.1109/4.92029
- Menolfi C. & Huang Qiuting. (1999). A fully integrated, untrimmed CMOS instrumentation amplifier with submicrovolt offset. IEEE Journal of Solid-State Circuits, 34(3), 415-420. https://doi.org/10.1109/4.748194
- Eldeeb M. A., Ghallab Y. H., Ismail Y. & El ghitani H. (2016). Design of low power CMOS subthreshold current mode instrumentation amplifier based on CCII. 2016 IEEE 59th International Midwest Symposium on Circuits and Systems (MWSCAS), Abu Dhabi, 1-4. <u>https://doi.or/10.1109/MWSCAS.2016.7870137</u>
- Ren M., Zhang C.X. & Sun D. S. (2012). Design of CMOS Instrumentation Amplifier. Procedia Engineering. 29, 4035-4039(Vol. 29). <u>https://doi.org/10.1016/j.proeng.2012.01.615</u>
- Gupta G. & Tripathy M. R. (2014). CMOS Instrumentation amplifier design with 180nm technology. 2014 International Conference on Circuits, Power and Computing Technologies [ICCPCT-2014], Nagercoil, India, 1114-1116. <u>https://doi.org//10.1109/ICCPCT.2014.7055007</u>
- Bardyn J., Kaiser A. & Stefanelli B. (1990). A Very Low-Noise Instrumentation Amplifier using a Standard CMOS Process for Digital Chips. ESSCIRC '90: Sixteenth European Solid-State Circuits Conference, Grenoble, France, 29-32.
- Nielsen J.H., & Bruun E. (2004). A CMOS Low-Noise Instrumentation Amplifier Using Chopper Modulation. Analog Integr Circ Sig Process, 42, 65–76. <u>https://doi.org//10.1007/s10470-004-6849-8</u>
- Saurabh S., Saifi M., Karatangi S.V., & Rai A. (2020). Design of CMOS Instrumentation Amplifier Using Three-Stage Operational Amplifier for Low Power Signal Processing. In: G.Mathur, H.Sharma, M. Bundele, N. Dey, M. Paprzycki (eds) International Conference on Artificial Intelligence: Advances and Applications 2019. Algorithms for Intelligent Systems. Springer, Singapore. https://doi.org//10.1007/978-981-15-1059-5_9
- Eldeeb M. A., Ghallab Y. H., Ismail Y. & El Ghitani H. (2018). An 89 nW instrumentation amplifier for IoT in 65 nm CMOS technology. 2018 35th National Radio Science Conference (NRSC), Cairo, Egypt, 345-351, <u>https://doi.org//10.1109/NRSC.2018.8354394</u>
- Wu R., Huijsing J.H., & Makinwa K.A.A. (2011). A Current Feedback Instrumentation Amplifier with a Gain Error Reduction Loop and 0.06 % Untrimmed Gain Error. IEEE Journal Solid State Circuits, 46(12), 2794-2806. <u>https://doi.org/10.1109/JSSC.2011.2162923</u>
- Eldeeb M. A., Ghallab Y. H., Ismail Y. & El ghitani H. (2016). Design of low power CMOS subthreshold current mode instrumentation amplifier based on CCII. 2016 IEEE 59th International Midwest Symposium on Circuits and Systems (MWSCAS), Abu Dhabi, 1-4. <u>https://doi.org/10.1109/MWSCAS.2016.7870137</u>
- Goel V., Surshetty S. K., Prasad D. & Nath V. (2019), Design of an Area Efficient and High-gain CMOS Instrumentation Amplifier for VLSI Applications. 2019 Innovations in Power and Advanced Computing Technologies (i-PACT), Vellore, India, 1-6. https://doi.org/10.1109/i-PACT44901.2019.8960230
- Worapishet A., Demosthenous A. & Liu X. (2011). A CMOS Instrumentation Amplifier With 90-dB CMRR at 2-MHz Using Capacitive Neutralization: Analysis, Design Considerations, and Implementation. IEEE Transactions on Circuits and Systems I: Regular Papers, 58(4), 699-710 <u>https://doi.org//10.1109/TCSI.2010.2078850</u>
- Venkata Krishna O. et. al. (2015). Design and Implementation of Instrumentation Amplifier for EEG in 180nm CMOS technology. CVR Journal of Science and Technology, 8, 57-64. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.32377/cvrjst0811</u>
- Sanjay, R., Venkataramani, B., Kumaravel, S. et al. (2021). A Low-Noise Area-Efficient Current Feedback Instrumentation Amplifier. Circuits Syst Signal Process, 40, 1496–1510. <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s00034-020-01527-2</u>.
- Minch B. A. (2017). A CMOS differential-difference amplifier with class-AB input stages featuring wide differential-mode input range. 2017 IEEE International Symposium on Circuits and Systems (ISCAS), 1-4. <u>https://doi.org//10.1109/ISCAS.2017.8050488</u>
- Riem R., Raman J., Borgmans J. & Rombouts P. (2021). A Low-Noise Instrumentation Amplifier with Built-in Anti-Aliasing for Hall

Sensors, in IEEE Sensors Journal, 21(17), 18932-18944,. https://doi.org/10.1109/JSEN.2021.3090251

- F. Neves, J. P. Oliveira & H. Oliveira (2021), A sub-1V CMOS Instrumentation Amplifier for an AFE Interfacing with Sensors, 2021 International Young Engineers Forum (YEF-ECE), 1-6. <u>https://doi.org/10.1109/YEF-ECE52297.2021.9505076</u>
- 33. Fan Q., Huijsing J. H. & Makinwa K. A. A. (2012). A 21 nV/ $\sqrt{}$ Hz chopper stabilized multi-path current-feedback instrumentation amplifier with 2 μ V offset. IEEE J. Solid-State Circuits, 47(2), 464-475. https://doi.org/10.1109/JSSC.2011.2175269
- Lin T. N., Wang B., Belhaouari S. B. & Bermak A. (2020). A Chopper Instrumentation Amplifier with Amplifier Slicing Technique for Offset Reduction. 2020 IEEE International Symposium on Circuits and Systems (ISCAS), 1-5. https://doi.org/10.1109/ISCAS45731.2020.9180507
- Peddiraju B., Jatoth R. K. & Duggirala N. (2014). Performance Comparison of Instrumentation Amplifiers – A Beginner's View, International Conference on Data Data Acquisition, Transfer, Processing & Management [ICDATPM-2014], 138-143. https://doi.org//10.13140/2.1.4709.6966
- Sankaran K. S. & Purushothaman K. E. (2017). Adaptive Enhancement of Low Noise Amplifier Using Cadence Virtuoso Tool. 2017 Second International Conference on Recent Trends and Challenges in Computational Models (ICRTCCM), 330-334, <u>https://doi.org/10.1109/ICRTCCM.2017.37</u>
- Serra H., Bastos I., de Melo J. L. A., Oliveira J. P., Paulino N., Nefzaoui E., & Bourouina T. (2019). A 0.9-V Analog-to-Digital Acquisition Channel for an IoT Water Management Sensor Node. IEEE Transactions on Circuits and Systems, 66(10), 1678-1682. https://doi.org/10.1109/TCSII.2019.2933276
- Yaul F. M. & Chandrakasan A. P. (2017). A noise-efficient 36 nV/√ Hz chopper amplifier using an inverter-based 0.2-V supply input stage. IEEE J. Solid-State Circuits, 52(11), 3032-3042. https://doi.org/10.1109/JSSC.2017.2746778
- Lin T. N., Wang B. & Bermak A. (2018). Review and Analysis of Instrumentation Amplifier for IoT Applications, 2018 IEEE 61st International Midwest Symposium on Circuits and Systems (MWSCAS), 2018, 258-261, https://doi.org/10.1109/MWSCAS.2018.8623882
- Kaushik R., & Kaur J. (2021). Design of folded cascode op amp and its application – bandgap reference circuit. Circuit World., 101, 182-191. <u>https://doi.org/10.1108/CW-10-2019-0137</u>
- Sharma D., Rai A., Debbarma S., Prakash O., Ojha M K & Nath V. (2023). Design and Optimization of 4-Bit Array Multiplier with Adiabatic Logic Using 65 nm CMOS Technologies, IETE Journal of Research, 1-14. <u>https://doi.org/10.1080/03772063.2023.2204857</u>

AUTHORS



Ali Wassouf received a master's degree in electrical engineering from Marwadi University, Rrajkot, India and received PhD degree in Electronics and Communication Engineering from Shoolini University, Solan

Himachal Pradesh, India. His areas of research are Electronics and Communication Engineering. he can be

Corresponding Author e-mail: awass3050@gmail.com



Dr.Raj Kumar Saini, received PhD degree in power. He has been working as an Associate Professor in the Department of Electronics and Communication Engineering at Shoolini University, India. Her areas of research are Electronics and

Communication Engineering. E-mail: rksaini@shooliniuniversity.com