

Energy optimization control of extended-range hybrid combine harvesters based on quasi-cycle power demand estimation

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Abstract

This study develops an energy management strategy (EMS) for hybrid combine harvesters to address fluctuating power demands in agricultural operations. By segmenting harvesting processes into quasi-periodic cycles linked to machine dynamics, the method integrates component-specific power models (header, conveyor, drum) for accurate energy estimation. Real-time feed rate adjustments are achieved through dynamic responses of critical components, optimizing cycle duration and power allocation. A genetic algorithm synchronizes energy distribution and cycle timing to minimize fuel consumption. Validated via AMESim/Simulink co-simulation with dual engine models, the strategy reduces fuel use by 21.1% compared to conventional systems. Key innovations include quasi-periodic load segmentation, component-response-based feed rate prediction, and GA-driven multi-objective optimization. The approach enhances adaptability to variable harvesting conditions, offering a scalable framework for energy-efficient electrification in agriculture. Results demon-

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Introduction

By 2020, China's rice mechanization harvesting level had reached 90%, with approximately 1.6 million rice combine harvesters in operation (Xuegeng *et al.*, 2020; Deng *et al.*, 2020; Hu *et al.*, 2024). While mechanized harvesting significantly improves efficiency, the energy consumption of combine harvesters has become a pressing concern (Lang *et al.*, 2018; Savickas *et al.*, 2020; Kotenko, 2022; Chai *et al.*, 2024). Hybrid configurations, widely used in the automotive industry for their energy efficiency, present a promising solution. Developing effective hybrid energy management strategies for harvesting operations can further enhance the energy-saving potential of hybrid harvesters (Schmid *et al.*, 2019; Guo *et al.*, 2019; Shi *et al.*, 2016).

Existing research classifies hybrid energy management strategies into three main categories: rule-based strategies, transient optimization strategies, and global optimization strategies (Sun *et al.*, 2023; Zhu *et al.*, 2022).

The rule-based strategy is designed based on key engine and motor characteristics, such as the manifold absolute pressure (MAP) diagram. It also considers factors like the battery's state of charge (SoC), torque, and speed demand to achieve optimal efficiency (Wang et al., 2018). Zhu et al. (2021) further refined this approach by using the battery SoC as a benchmark for modeswitching and applying dynamic programming to optimize energy consumption. Building on these advancements, Shi et al. (2023) introduced an integrated rule-based (IRB) strategy that incorporates a reference SoC curve and adaptive SoC adjustments. This approach ensures a linear SoC decrease over driving distance, culminating in a minimum SoC at the journey's end, resembling the results of the dynamic programming (DP) strategy. While the rulebased strategy is easy to implement, its application in hybrid harvesters presents challenges due to fluctuating energy demands. As a result, achieving high fuel efficiency across various working conditions with a simple rule-based strategy is difficult, highlighting the need for a more adaptive approach.

The transient optimization strategy focuses on stabilizing the SoC while minimizing fuel consumption. A key example is the equivalent consumption minimum strategy (ECMS), which optimizes energy use by dynamically adjusting the engine's operating points to match transient power demands (Shi *et al.*, 2021). Zhu *et al.* (2021) proposed an adaptive-ECMS strategy that adjusts to SoC variations, ensuring efficient charge-discharge cycles. Additionally, the Cost Optimization for Finite Horizon strategy



The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: a section presenting the hybrid combine harvester model design; a paragraph detailing power demand modeling based on quasi-periodic processes; a paragraph outlining the power management optimization strategy utilizing a genetic algorithm; a paragraph describing the simulation experiment design; and the final section discussing the results and key findings.

Hybrid combine harvester model design

During harvester operation, the harvesting and travel components experience complex load variations, characterized by frequent and significant fluctuations in power demand. To mitigate the impact of these energy fluctuations on the engine under varying



conditions, the mechanical coupling between the engine and the component drive system is eliminated.

The typical hybrid harvester energy system consists of an engine, generator, and motor drive. This system adopts a distributed topology, where drive motors are installed near each component. This configuration shortens the drive chain, reduces transmission energy losses, and improves overall efficiency. Given the frequent changes in power demand across different operating conditions, independent motors drive the harvesting, travel, and grain unloading components. This design enables precise energy matching for each operational state, ensuring optimal performance under varying workloads.

The WORLD 4LZ-9A agricultural combine was selected as the prototype for modification. Its original technical specifications and parameters of the retrofitted energy unit are systematically presented in Appendices A and B. The parameters in Appendix A were provided by engineers from Jiangsu World Electromechanical Company, while Appendix B presents the component selection results based on the original requirements of the entire machine and subsystems, with battery parameters sourced from Guangdong Snova Technologies Co., Ltd., motor parameters from Suzhou Sigma Technologies Co., Ltd., and range extender parameters from Guangxi Yuchai Technologies Co., Ltd., where partial parameters in Appendix B are also documented in a previous work which has been published (Zhu *et al.*, 2023).

Overview of system structure

The initial configuration of the prototype harvester is illustrated in Figure 1, depicting the fuel-driven power transmission system where the engine centrally drives all components through beltpulley linkages (Xu *et al.*, 2020). The retrofitted hybrid configuration, as shown in Figure 2, adopts a distributed electromechanical drive system. This modified architecture replaces the centralized belt-pulley transmission with eight dedicated motor-driven modules: (1) cutting table, (2) conveying chute, (3) threshing drum, (4) cleaning device, (5) grain elevator, (6) travel drive, (7) residue chopper, and (8) discharge auger. By systematically decomposing the power transmission system, this design eliminates 80% of the original belt drives while enabling precise power distribution and improved operational efficiency.

Modeling of hybrid power components

The energy supply system examined in this study comprises an engine, generator, and battery, all of which exhibit nonlinear dynamic characteristics that are difficult to model with precision. To facilitate analysis, the study employs an equivalent model to simplify the energy consumption characteristics. In this approach, the engine and generator are treated as a single integrated system, while the battery's dynamic efficiency characteristics are approximated using a fixed efficiency value. This simplification enables a more computationally efficient and manageable assessment of the energy supply system's performance (Wang *et al.*, 2021).

The efficiency of engine and motor is given by:

$$\begin{cases} W_{che} = \dot{m}_{f} (\omega_{E}, T_{E}) H_{lh} \\ W_{G} = U_{G} \bullet I_{G} \\ \eta_{E,G} = W_{G} / W_{che} \end{cases}$$



where: W_{che} is the fuel chemical energy of the engine, \dot{m}_{f} is the fuel consumption rate, ω_{E} is the engine speed, T_{E} is the engine torque, H_{lhv} is the fuel calorific value, W_{G} is the power of the generator, $h_{E_{G}}$ is the efficiency of the engine, U_{G} is the voltage of the generator, I_{G} is the current of generators.

Power demand modeling based on quasi periodic processes

The power demand of agricultural harvesters is significantly more complex than that of vehicles due to the numerous driven components and diverse operating conditions. In particular, the requirements for speed and drive power across a harvester's har-



Figure 1. Typical configuration of a fuel-driven harvester.



Figure 2. Schematic diagram of the hybrid harvester configuration.



vesting, threshing, and sorting mechanisms fluctuate considerably based on varying operational needs. A detailed modeling and analysis of the energy consumption characteristics of these distinct components under different working conditions are essential. Additionally, torque demand during operation is strongly influenced by factors such as feed rate. Despite these complexities, it is possible to estimate the power demand of harvesters with reasonable accuracy. This study examines a harvester's typical workflow, segmenting its standard operational cycle into four working conditions: harvesting, full-load transferring, unloading, and empty-load transferring. This classification reflects the sequential process inherent in harvester operations and provides a structured framework for energy demand estimation.

Components power demand in quasi periodic processes

To accommodate the capacity limitations of the grain tank, a harvester must perform multiple grain unloading operations to complete the harvesting of a crop region. To facilitate a more detailed analysis of the power demand characteristics of different components, the harvester's operational process is simplified into one or more quasi-cycle processes. These quasi-cycle processes consist of four stages: harvesting, full-load transferring, unloading, and empty-load transferring. A typical representation of such a quasi-cycle process is illustrated in Figure 3. This simplification helps in understanding the power demand variations across different components throughout the harvester's operation (Luo *et al.*, 2022). In a typical quasi-cycle process, each component of the combine works in different states, shown in Table 1.

Components power demand modeling

The component demands listed in Table 1 are modeled based on various harvester parameters to determine the power requirements of each component during the quasi-periodic process. To simplify the calculations, the rotational inertia of gears and shafts is disregarded. Additionally, the effects of mechanical deformation and other external factors on the load are not considered. For this analysis, the feeding process is assumed to be uniform and continuous.

Operation process



Figure 3. A typical cycle of harvester operation.

Table 1. Energy consumption status of components in a typical quasi-cycle process.

| Components work or not conditions | Harvesting | Full-load transferring | Unloading | Empty-load transferring |
|-----------------------------------|------------|------------------------|-----------|-------------------------|
| Header | Yes | No | No | No |
| Conveyor trough | Yes | No | No | No |
| Threshing drum | Yes | No | No | No |
| Cleaning components | Yes | No | No | No |
| Auger | Yes | No | No | No |
| Crushing components | Yes | No | No | No |
| Driving components | Yes | Yes | No | Yes |
| Grain unloading components | No | No | Yes | No |
| Heat dissipation components | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |





Power demand of harvesting system

Power demand of header

The typical header model, which consists of the cutter, sheave wheel, and churn, exhibits active torque in three distinct segments during operation. The first segment corresponds to the idling friction torque, observed when the header operates under no-load conditions. The second segment represents the torque required for paddle paddling, cutter cutting, and churn pushing operations. The magnitude of this torque is closely related to the real-time feed rate of the harvester and is modeled as a linear function of the feed rate, as detailed in Sun *et al.* (2022). The third segment accounts for the rotational moments of inertia, as discussed in Chen *et al.* (2017). These components are collectively integrated into the simplified power demand model of the header, which is presented in this paper as Eq. (1).

$$P_{g} = \left(M_{ci} + M_{pi} + M_{mi} + k_{c}q + k_{p}q + k_{m}q + (\frac{J_{c}}{i_{c}} + \frac{J_{m}}{i_{m}})\frac{d\omega_{gi}}{dt}\right)\omega_{gi} \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

where: P_g is the power demand, M_{pl} is the idling friction torque of the paddle wheel, M_{ci} is the idling friction torque of the cutting knife, M_{mi} is the idling friction torque of the header churn, i_c , i_m are the transmission ratio from the main shaft to the paddle wheel and the churn, J_c is the rotational inertia of the paddle wheel, ω_{gi} is the input speed of the driving shaft of the header, J_m is the rotational inertia of the churn, k_c , k_p , k_m are the feeding coefficient of the cutter, paddle wheel and header churn.

Power demand of conveying trough

The active torque of the conveyor trough is determined by three key elements: the idling friction moment, the crop transport moment, and the inertia of the conveyor trough. The crop transport moment is influenced by two factors: the mass of the crop on the conveyor belt and the inclination of the conveyor belt, as detailed in Chen *et al.* (2017). The relationship between the crop mass on the conveyor belt and the feed rate is approximated as linear. This paper presents a simplified power demand model for the conveyor trough, formulated in Eq. (2).

$$P_{s} = \left(M_{bl} + k_{sq}q + \frac{J_{b} + k_{sm} \times q}{i_{b}} \frac{d\omega_{b}}{dt}\right)\omega_{b}$$
(Eq. 2)

where: P_s is the power demand of the conveyor trough, M_{bi} is the idling friction torque of the conveyor trough, i_b is the ratio of the input shaft to the conveyor trough, R_b is the radius of the active wheel, J_b is the rotational inertia of the conveyor trough, ω_b is the rotation speed of the input shaft, k_{sq} is the feed rate coefficient of the conveying moment, k_{sm} is the feed rate coefficient of the mass of the crop.

Power demand of threshing drum

Similarly, the active torque of the threshing drum consists of three key components: the idling resistance torque, the torque required for pushing the grain, and the drum's moment of inertia. The idling torque primarily arises from mechanical friction resistance and air resistance caused by the drum blast. This aspect of the drum's operation is modeled based on existing literature (Yun *et al.*, 2010) and is formulated in Eq. (3).

$$M_{rk} = A + B\omega_r^2 \tag{Eq. 3}$$

where: ω_r is the rotation speed of the drum, A is the mechanical friction resistance moment, B is the blast resistance coefficient. The crop acceleration load moment enables the threshing drum to accelerate the crop to a specific speed. The required torque is determined based on existing literature (Yun *et al.*, 2010) and is formulated in Eq. (4).

$$M_{rv} = \frac{1}{2}q\frac{\lambda+\delta}{1+\delta}R_r^2\omega_r$$
 (Eq. 4)

where: R_r is the equivalent radius, λ is the ratio of tangential speed of the crop to the linear speed of the drum rotation, δ is the seed-straw ratio.

According to prevailing research, a proportional relationship exists between grain acceleration and the total working moment during the operation of the threshing drum, as outlined in Yun *et al.* (2010). Consequently, the working frictional resistance moment of the drum can be expressed as:

$$M_{rw} = \frac{M_{rv}}{1-f} \tag{Eq. 5}$$

where: *f* is the rubbing factor.

The moment of inertia of the threshing drum is shown in Eq. (6).

$$M_{rg} = J_r \frac{d\omega_r}{dt}$$
(Eq. 6)

where: J_r is the rotational inertia of the threshing drum.

In summary, the power demand model for the threshing drum is:

$$P_{t} = \left[J_{r} \frac{d\omega_{r}}{dt} + A + B\omega_{r}^{2} + \frac{qR_{r}^{2}\omega_{r}(\lambda+\delta)}{2(1+\delta)(1-f)}\right]\omega_{r}$$
(Eq. 7)

Power demand of cleaning components

The active torque of the cleaning device consists of several components: the fan rotation torque, the torque required to overcome the sieve plate's no-load friction, the torque needed to move the crop on the sieve plate, and the moment of inertia associated with the sieve plate's acceleration. The operational torque of the sieve plate exhibits a linear correlation with the harvester's feed rate, allowing for the formulation of the cleaning device's kinetic equation, as detailed in Eqs. (8) and (9).

$$P_{t} = \left[J_{r}\frac{d\omega_{r}}{dt} + A + B\omega_{r}^{2} + \frac{qR_{r}^{2}\omega_{r}(\lambda+\delta)}{2(1+\delta)(1-f)}\right]\omega_{r}$$
(Eq. 8)

$$q_s = q \times \delta$$
 (Eq. 9)

where: P_q is the power demand of the cleaning device, M_{si} is the idling torque required sieve plate and fan, J_s is the rotational inertia of the sieve plate, q_s is the seed feeding amount, R_s is the radius of the drive wheel, t_s is the residence time of the seed on the sieve



plate, k_s is the feeding coefficient of sieve plate, ω_s is the shaft rotation speed, i_s is the transmission ratio from the input shaft to the cleaning sieve, q_s is the grain feed rate, δ is the ratio of grain.

Power demand of crushing device

For the crushing device, its active torque primarily consists of idling torque and the torque required for straw crushing. The torque needed for straw crushing exhibits a linear relationship with the harvester's feed rate, enabling the formulation of the crushing device's kinetic equation, as represented in Eq. (10).

$$P_{f} = \left[M_{fi} + k_{f} q_{s} + J_{f} \frac{d\omega_{f}}{dt} \right] \omega_{f}$$
(Eq. 10)

where: P_f is the power demand of the crushing device, M_{fi} is the idling torque of crushing device, J_f is the rotational inertia of crushing device, ω_f is the crushing device rotation speed, k_f is the feed coefficient of crushing device.

Power demand of grain conveying

The churn, responsible for conveying cleaned grains to the grain tank, experiences active torque consisting of three components: the idling friction torque, the torque required for grain propulsion, and the moment of inertia associated with acceleration. The mathematical model describing the grain churn is formulated in Eq. (11).

$$P_{h} = \left(M_{df} + \frac{q_{s}k_{m1}}{367\omega_{d1}}k_{d1}L_{d} + \frac{q_{s}k_{m2}H_{d}}{367\eta_{hd}\omega_{d2}} + J_{d1}\frac{d\omega_{d1}}{dt} + J_{d2}\frac{d\omega_{d2}}{dt}\right)\omega_{H}$$
(Eq. 11)

where: P_h is the power demand of the grain conveying component, M_{df} is the idling friction torque, J_{d1} , J_{d2} are the rotational inertia of the horizontal churn and vertical churn, respectively, k_{m1} , k_{m2} are the seed mass feeding coefficient inside the horizontal churn and vertical churn, respectively, ω_{d1} , ω_{d2} are the rotation speed of the horizontal churn and vertical churn, respectively, k_{d1} is the conveying resistance coefficient, L_d is the length of the horizontal churn, H_d is the height of the vertical churn, η_{hd} is the conveying efficiency, ω_H is rotational speed of grain conveying shaft.

Power demand of walking system

The traveling system, which drives the harvester's movement, encounters various resistance forces, including road driving resistance, ground slope resistance, and wind resistance. Given the harvester's modest driving speed and the focus on flat field operations in this study, field driving resistance is considered the predominant factor in the modeling process. The dynamic model is formulated in Eq. (12).

$$F_t = m \times f_F + m \frac{d\nu}{dt}$$
(Eq. 12)

where: F_t is the harvester travel driving force, *m* is the total mass of the harvester, f_F is the rolling friction coefficient.

As the mass in the grain bin increases with operation time, the relationship between the harvester's mass and the feed rate is quantitatively established in Eq. (13).

$$m = m_{\text{combine}} + \int_{0}^{s} q_{s}$$
 (Eq. 13)

where: m_{combine} is the unloaded mass of the harvester.

The power demand model of the travel system is shown in Eq. (14).

$$P_d = \frac{\nu_{combine} F_t}{\eta_d}$$
(Eq. 14)

where P_d is the power demand of the harvester travel system, v_{combine} is the harvester travel speed, η_d is the efficiency of the travel drive system.

Power demand of unloading system

The grain unloading system is independent of the feed rate, and the power demand can be taken as constant during the operation, as shown in Eq. (15).

$$P_{\mu} = T_{\mu}\omega_{\mu} \tag{Eq. 15}$$

where: P_u is power demand of the grain unloading system, T_u is the driving torque of the grain unloading, ω_u is the rotation speed of the grain unloading system.

Total power demand of components

The average power demand over the quasi-cycle is modeled by integrating the power demand models of key components, including harvesting, traveling, grain unloading, and heat dissipation. This comprehensive model is concisely formulated in Eq. (16).

$$P_{\text{quasi_period}} = \frac{(P_g + P_s + P_t + P_q + P_h + P_d + P_f)t_r + 2P_dt_d + P_ut_u}{t_r + 2t_d + t_u} + P_{hd} \quad (\text{Eq. 16})$$

where: P_{quasi_period} is the average power demand of the harvester during the whole quasi-cycle, t_r , t_d , t_u are the duration of harvesting process, transfer process and grain unloading process, respectively, P_{hd} is power of heat dissipation system.

Power management optimization strategy based on genetic algorithm

The power demand of the harvester during quasi-cycle operation is closely related to the volume of processed feed. Consequently, real-time adjustments to the power demand within the quasi-cycle are essential for efficient operation. The harvester's feed rate can be inferred from the dynamic responses of its components. Based on this feed rate estimation, an immediate correction of the power demand is calculated. Additionally, a genetic optimization algorithm has been developed to optimize the quasi-cycle process by refining the engine's operating points, specifically to enhance fuel consumption efficiency.



Power demand based on real-time feed rate estimation

The feed rate primarily affects the dynamics of the cutting table, conveying chute, and threshing drum in a harvester. According to the modeling equations discussed earlier, the kinetic characteristics of the conveying chute are only marginally influenced by factors such as land surface conditions and operating speed. As a result, the feed rate emerges as the dominant factor affecting the torque of the conveyor trough.

In this section, the conveying chute is selected as the basis for estimation. The feed rate is determined using the churn kinetic model (Liang *et al.*, 2024). The estimations for both the feed rate and the seed feed rate are formulated in Eqs. (17) and (18).

$$q_{e_{s}} = \frac{\frac{P_{s}}{\omega_{b}} - M_{bi} - \frac{J_{b}}{i_{b}} \frac{d\omega_{b}}{dt}}{k_{sq} + \frac{k_{sm}}{i_{b}} \frac{d\omega_{b}}{dt}}$$
(Eq. 17)

$$q_{s_{-}e} = \frac{\frac{P_{h}}{\omega_{H}} - M_{df} - J_{d1}\frac{d\omega_{d1}}{dt} - J_{d2}\frac{d\omega_{d2}}{dt}}{\frac{k_{m1}}{367\omega_{d1}}k_{d1}L_{d} + \frac{k_{m2}H_{d}}{367\eta_{d}\omega_{d2}}}$$
(Eq. 18)

where: q_{s_e} is the seed feed estimation and q_e is the crop feed rate estimation.

Optimal control of range extender based on genetic algorithm

The estimated seed feed q_{s_e} and the estimated crop feed q_e were substituted into Eq. (16) to estimate the energy requirement of the quasi-cycle process, as shown in Eq. (19) (Lu *et al.*, 2020).

$$E'_{quasi_period} = (P_{g_{-}qe} + P_{s_{-}qe} + P_{q_{-}qse} + P_{h_{-}qse} + P_{f_{-}qse} + P_{f_{-}qse} + P_{d} + P_{f} + P_{r} + P_{hd})$$

$$\frac{m_{usk}}{m_{usk}} + 2P_{d} + P_{d} + P_{d}$$

The complexity and nonlinear nature of optimizing engine operating points during the quasi-cycle require a sophisticated approach. To address this, a genetic algorithm (GA) is employed. The method involves discretizing the quasi-cycle period into 10second intervals, serving as the foundation for allocating optimal operating power across various discretization steps to improve the algorithm's real-time performance. After discretization, the results are refined through linear interpolation, mapping the optimal power levels to their corresponding operating points to achieve the most efficient operational outcome (Lipowski and Lipowska, 2012).

<u>Objective function</u>: The GA primary objective is to minimize fuel consumption. The fitness function within the algorithm is specifically designed to achieve this goal.

<u>Constraints</u>: The constraints ensure compliance with the total energy demand of the process while enforcing upper and lower power limits. These constraints are formulated in Eqs. (20) and (21) and are incorporated into the algorithm's iterations using a penalty function.

$$(P_1 + P_2 \cdots P_N) \frac{t_{\text{discretized}}}{N} = E_{\text{quasi_period}} \frac{N}{4}$$
 (Eq. 20)

$$0 \le P_i \le P_{\max} (i = 1, 2, 3...N)$$
 (Eq. 21)

where: $t_{\text{discretized}}$ is intervals time, $P_i(i = 1, 2...N)$ are following population generation.

<u>Gene coding</u>: the GA employs binary coding for gene representation, where power levels are segmented and each segment is encoded as a binary number.

<u>Initialization</u>: The population size is set to N, with each individual's gene sequence also having a length of N, meaning that each individual represents a power allocation sequence for N nodes. The initial population is generated by randomly assigning power values within the predefined power range for each node, as formulated in Eq. (22).

$$0 \le P_{\text{initial i}} \le P_{\max}(i=1,2...N) \tag{Eq. 22}$$

where: $P_{\text{initial_i}}(i=1,2...N)$ are initial population generation, N is the number of intervals, P_{max} is the maximum power of extender.

<u>Genetic manipulation</u>: this involves selection, crossover, and mutation processes to create new individuals. Roulette wheel selection is used to prioritize individuals with lower objective values. Selection probabilities of all individuals are used to calculate the cumulative probability, as per Eq. (23). A random number e, ranging between 0 and 1, is generated and compared with the cumulative probability to select individuals. This process is repeated n times to create n offspring individuals.

$$S_{i} = \sum_{j=1}^{i} \frac{f_{j}}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} f_{k}}$$
(Eq. 23)

where: f_j and f_k are fitness of individual j and k, S_l is cumulative probability of individual l.

The random number e, which is between 0 and 1, is generated and compare with S_l to determine selection individual. If $S_{m-l} < e < S_m$, the no. *m* individual is selected. Repeated *N* rounds are conducted to generate *N* individuals of offspring generation. Repeat this process until the maximum number of iterations is reached or the objective function converges.

Simulation experiment design

To validate the effectiveness of the proposed algorithm, fueldriven and hybrid harvester models were developed using Amesim

q, e

(Eq. 19)



and Simulink, as illustrated in Figures 4 and 5. These models played a crucial role in designing and evaluating various energy management strategies under different engine models and operational conditions.

To validate the algorithm's applicability across different equipment parameters, we employed two distinct engine models for verification: one derived from the Diesel_100kW model in Amesim, and the other based on the dynamometer external characteristic curve of YC-6B160Z engines. The corresponding parameters for these engine models can be found in Appendix C.

In the simulation process, two specific working conditions were selected: high feed rate and low feed rate scenarios. These scenarios were chosen to assess the algorithm's adaptability to varying operational demands. The crop types and corresponding parameters for both simulation cases are detailed in Table 2.

The study developed and compared three approaches: a speed-

following strategy for the fuel-driven harvester, a power-following strategy for the hybrid harvester, and an energy management control strategy based on quasi-periodic power demand within the hybrid configuration. These strategies were rigorously simulated across various operational cycles to evaluate their impact on fuel consumption and the distribution of engine operating points.

To simplify the model, the following assumptions are defined for the simulation: it is assumed that the combine harvester maintains a stable speed under each operating condition and operates at full cutting width during harvesting, disregarding factors such as sudden changes in crop density or terrain that may affect the overall load. The study also neglects the impact of environmental factors (*e.g.*, temperature) on motor efficiency and battery energy loss.

Variables and their range of variation of the simulation are shown in Table 3.



Figure 4. Model of fuel-driven combine harvester.



Results and Discussion

Figures 6 and 7 illustrate the operating points of two engine models (Diesel_100kW and YC-6B160Z) under the low feed rate test condition. The corresponding subfigures (a), (b), and (c) represent the engine speed and torque distribution under different configurations: fuel-driven configuration, hybrid configuration using the power-following strategy, and hybrid configuration employing the quasi-cycle strategy, respectively.

Figures 6 and 7 collectively illustrate the differences in engine speed and torque distribution between fuel-driven and hybrid harvesters. In fuel-driven configurations, the engine shaft is belt-connected to components, fixing the ratio between engine and component speeds. This constraint limits control over engine speed, clustering most operation points within four distinct zones corresponding to key harvesting processes: harvesting, full-load transferring, unloading, and empty-load transferring. Notably, fuel efficiency is

lower during transferring and grain unloading. In contrast, hybrid harvesters decouple engine speed from component speed, allowing greater flexibility to optimize fuel consumption. Under the powerfollowing strategy, engine power aligns with operational power at an optimal speed, enhancing fuel efficiency. The quasi-cycle energy management strategy further improves efficiency by estimating real-time feed rates to plan optimal operating points. This decoupling enables hybrid harvesters to maintain engine operation within higher efficiency zones, ensuring more effective power utilization. Although the two engines exhibit some differences in speed and torque performance, they share a common characteristic under this operating condition: the quasi-cycle energy management strategy distributes more operating points within the high-efficiency zone, which explains why this strategy achieves better fuel economy. Figures 8 and 9 illustrate that under high-feed conditions, the fuel-driven harvester's operation points during transferring and harvesting often fall into less efficient ranges, reducing overall fuel

Table 2. Scenario parameters description.

| | Units | High feed rate test | Low feed rate test |
|----------------------|-------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| Crop type | / | rice | rice |
| Feed rate | kg/s | 9 | 3 |
| Crop density | kg/m ² | 1.3 | 1.3 |
| Grain-to-straw ratio | / | 0.81 | 0.81 |
| Stubble height | cm | 15 | 15 |
| Operating speed | km/h | 8.95 | 2.98 |

Table 3. Variables and their range of variation.

| Variable | Unit | Range |
|------------------------------------|-------|---|
| Forward speed | km/h | 1-9 |
| Initial and final soc of battery | % | 20-100 |
| Engine speed | r/min | 600-3000 (Diesel_100kW) 700-2200 (YC-6B160Z) |
| Engine torque | Nm | 40-350 (Diesel_100kW) 100-580 (YC-6B160Z) |
| Range of specific fuel consumption | g/kwh | 277.3-1005.4 (Diesel_100kW) 192.6-312.5 (YC-6B160Z) |

Table 4. Comparison of fuel consumption.

| Scenario/ | Configurations | Total fuel | Fuel saving | Initial SoC | Final SoC | Specific fuel |
|--------------------------|------------------------|-----------------|----------------|-------------|-----------|-----------------------------------|
| engine model | and strategy | consumption (g) | efficiency (%) | value (%) | value (%) | consumption (kg/hm ²) |
| Scenario 1/Diesel_100kW | Fuel-driven operating | 6091.5 | / | / | / | 32.0 |
| | Hybrid power-following | 4413.8 | 27.5 | 60.0 | 60.1 | 23.2 |
| | Hybrid quasi-cycle | 4360.2 | 28.4 | 60.0 | 60.2 | 22.9 |
| Scenario 2/ Diesel_100kW | Fuel-driven operating | 3930.0 | / | / | / | 20.6 |
| | Hybrid power-following | 3799.6 | 3.3 | 60.0 | 60.1 | 20.0 |
| | Hybrid quasi-cycle | 3213.7 | 18.2 | 60.0 | 60.2 | 16.9 |
| Scenario 1/ YC-6B160Z | Fuel-driven operating | 3773.5 | / | / | / | 19.8 |
| | Hybrid power-following | 3188.9 | 15.5 | 60.0 | 60.4 | 16.7 |
| | Hybrid quasi-cycle | 3010.7 | 20.2 | 60.0 | 60.5 | 15.8 |
| Scenario 2/ YC-6B160Z | Fuel-driven operating | 2164.6 | / | / | / | 11.4 |
| | Hybrid power-following | 2075.9 | 4.1 | 60.0 | 60.1 | 10.9 |
| | Hybrid quasi-cycle | 2017.0 | 6.8 | 60.0 | 60.5 | 10.6 |

[Journal of Agricultural Engineering 2025; LVI:1819]



efficiency. In contrast, the hybrid harvester using the power-following strategy can adjust its speed to match real-time power demands. However, due to fluctuating power requirements, the optimal efficiency point frequently shifts outside the most efficient zone. The quasi-cycle power demand estimation strategy effectively decouples power demand by optimizing the engine's operating position based on the estimated average power demand over the entire cycle. This approach demonstrates superior energy-saving performance compared to the power-following-based energy management strategy in hybrid harvesters.

The effectiveness of these strategies in terms of total fuel consumption and fuel-saving efficiency is detailed in Table 4. This Table provide an overview of the fuel economy achieved under different operational conditions and strategies, highlighting the









a) Fuel-driven operating



c) Quasi-cycle operating

Figure 6. Operating points under low feed rate conditions with engine Diesel_100kW.



Figure 7. Operating points under low feed rate conditions with engine YC-6B160Z.







a) Fuel-driven operating



c) Quasi-cycle operating











b) Power-following operating

full-load t

mpty-k

2000

2200

Figure 9. Operating points under high feed rate conditions with engine YC-6B160Z.



advantages of the quasi-periodic process power demand estimation in optimizing fuel efficiency. Compared to the fuel-driven operating, the quasi-cycle power demand estimation strategy significantly enhances fuel efficiency. Specifically, this strategy reduces fuel consumption by 21.1% compared to the fuel-driven harvester and 6.5% compared to the power-following strategy. These figures underscore the effectiveness of the quasi-cycle power demand estimation approach in optimizing fuel efficiency, marking a substantial improvement over both the conventional fuel-driven method and the power-following strategy.

Conclusions

This paper comprehensively analyzes the components of a harvester and their respective power demands to construct a detailed power demand model tailored for quasi-cycle harvester operations. The feed rate estimation is grounded in the dynamic responses of the harvester's components. Based on the estimation, the power demand characteristics of the quasi-cycle process are adjusted and refined. A genetic algorithm is employed to enhance energy efficiency further, focusing on optimizing fuel consumption by adjusting working points. This approach results in significantly improved energy performance.

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Online supplementary materials:

Appendix A. Key parameters of harvester.

Appendix C. Parameters of the two engine models.

Appendix B. Parameters of harvester system components and power units.