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A Hybrid Data Driven Framework Considering Feature Extraction for Battery State of Health Estimation and Remaining Useful Life Prediction

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1 A Hybrid Data Driven Framework Considering Feature Extraction for

2 Battery State of Health Estimation and Remaining Useful Life Prediction

3 **ABSTRACT:** Battery life prediction is of great significance to the safe operation, and reduces the 4 maintenance costs. This paper proposes a hybrid framework considering feature extraction to achieve more accurate and stable life prediction performance of the battery. By feature extraction, 5 6 eight features are obtained to fed into the life prediction model. The hybrid framework combines 7 variational mode decomposition, the multi-kernel support vector regression model and the improved 8 sparrow search algorithm to solve the problem of data backward, uneven distribution of high-9 dimensional feature space and the local escape ability, respectively. Better parameters of the estimation model are obtained by introducing the elite chaotic opposition-learning strategy and 10 11 adaptive weights to optimize the sparrow search algorithm. The algorithm can improve the local escape ability and convergence performance and find the global optimum. The comparison is 12 conducted by dataset from National Aeronautics and Space Administration which shows that the 13 14 proposed framework has a more accurate and stable prediction performance. Compared with other 15 algorithms, the SOH estimation accuracy of the proposed algorithm is improved by 0.16%-1.67%. 16 With the advance of the start point, the RUL prediction accuracy of the proposed algorithm does 17 not change much.

18 Keywords: State of heath; Improved sparrow search algorithm; Remaining useful life; Variational

19 mode decomposition; Multi-kernel support vector regression; Feature extraction

20 Highlights:

1. A hybrid framework considering feature extraction is proposed to achieve more accurate andstable prediction performance.

23 2. This hybrid framework solves the problems of backward data, uneven distribution of high-24 dimensional feature space, and local escape ability.

3. Introducing elite chaotic opposition learning strategy and adaptive weights to improve the local
escape ability and convergence performance of sparrow search algorithm, and finding the global
optimal solution.

4. By feature extraction, eight features are obtained to fed into the life prediction model.

29 1. Introduction

Lithium-ion batteries have the characteristics of high energy density and long cycle life, and are now widely used in electric vehicles, mobile phones, laptops and other electronic products^[1]. As the number of charges and discharges increases, the battery performance continues to decline, manifested by a decrease in capacity and an increase in internal resistance. It is characterized by state of health (SOH) and remaining useful life (RUL)^[2-4]. In this paper, the ratio of the current available capacity to the rated capacity of the battery is used to express the battery . The expression of SOH is as follows:

37

$$SOH_n = Q_n / Q_N \tag{1}$$

(1)

Where, Q_n represents the actual battery capacity during the *n*th charging and discharging cycle; Q_N represents the rated battery capacity. RUL prediction reflects the long-term battery life prediction, which can ensure its safety and stability during the whole life cycle and provide information for battery replacement. Battery capacity is easier to measure and more meaningful than impedance or internal resistance, which is adopted as the SOH definition in this study. 43 1.1. Literature review

44 Battery SOH estimation and RUL prediction methods are divided into model-based and data-45 driven methods ^[5]. Model-based methods can achieve life prediction though different models combined with the filtering algorithm such as unscented Kalman filter (UKF) algorithm, particle 46 filter (PF) algorithm and some improved PF algorithms ^[6-9]. Dual exponential model is the most 47 commonly used model. As the number of iterations increases, the diversity of particles will 48 49 disappear and lead to the phenomenon of particle degradation. Improvement of importance density function and resampling method can solve this problem and improve the prediction accuracy ^[10-13]. 50 51 In literature [14], a framework combined improved ant lion optimization algorithm and support 52 vector regression is proposed to solve the degeneracy phenomenon of the standard PF method. It 53 achieves prediction results with high accuracy and robustness. The PF and improved PF algorithms 54 have good prediction accuracy and can describe the uncertainty of the battery with the probability 55 distribution function (PDF). However, model-based methods depend on the battery capacity model, 56 while there is no accurate and universal model, the results will be affected. Data-driven methods such as artificial neural networks (ANN) algorithm^[15-17], long short-term memory neural network 57 (LSTM)^[18] and support vector machines (SVM) algorithm^[19-22] have received widespread attention 58 at present. A new framework combined partial incremental capacity and ANN is proposed in [23] 59 60 for battery life prediction to get a good performance with better generalization ability and higher 61 prediction accuracy. However, lots of data and time are needed to train the ANN models. SVM as a 62 kind of machine learning algorithms, can be used for recognition and classification. The efficiency 63 of regression convergence is higher than other machine learning algorithms and suitable for small 64 sample prediction. Zhao et al. [24] develops a method combining the feature vector and SVR 65 algorithms for battery SOH estimation. Although the prediction accuracy is higher than that of 66 standard SVR algorithm, it still fails to solve the problem of super parameter optimization. Hybrid 67 algorithms of SVR model and parameter optimization algorithms can make better use of their respective advantages and overcome the limitations of SVR model [25-27]. In reference [28], the 68 particle swarm optimization (PSO) is applied to obtain optimized parameters of SVR model for a 69 70 better battery RUL prediction. However, PSO algorithm cannot handle discrete optimization 71 problems well and easily lead to local optimization. An artificial bee colony (ABC) algorithm is 72 designed in reference [29] to identify the parameters of SVR model to solve the problem of local 73 optimization and improves the prediction accuracy to a certain extent. In addition, in actual 74 operation situation, the battery is affected by a lot of noise produced by its own physical 75 characteristics and the environment, which is not considered in many articles. In order to reduce this 76 random noise interference, research on signal processing methods are conducted. In reference [30], 77 the empirical model decomposition (EMD) algorithm is proposed to decompose the non-stationary 78 signals for noise reduction. However, the EMD method exists the problems of end effect and modal 79 component. The variational mode decomposition (VMD) can overcome problems above to reduce 80 the non-stationarity of time series.

81 1.2 Contributions of this paper

82 In this study, a hybrid framework considering feature extraction is proposed for a better SOH 83 estimation and RUL prediction performance. The hybrid framework combining VMD, improved 84 sparrow search algorithm (ISSA) and multi-kernel support vector regression (MKSVR) model. The 85 contributions are summarized. First, eight features are obtained to fed into the life prediction model 86 by feature extraction. Secondly, VMD method is applied to decompose the original data to make the 87 capacity data more stable. Then, elite chaotic opposition-learning strategy and adaptive weights are 88 adopted to optimize the traditional sparrow search algorithm (SSA) to obtain more accurate 89 parameters of the prediction model. Finally, MKSVR is used to solve the low prediction accuracy 90 problem caused by large sample data and uneven distribution of high-dimensional feature space.

91 1.3. Organization of the paper

The remainder of this article is listed as follows. Section II introduces the VMD decomposition,
 the MKSVR model, the ISSA algorithm for parameters optimization and the hybrid VMD-ISSA-

94 MKSVR framework. Section III discusses experimental results and analysis of the proposed method. 95 Conclusions are summarized in Section IV.

96 2. Basic theories

97 2.1 Variational mode decomposition

98 VMD is used for completely non-recursive modal variation to deal with signals ^[31,32]. The 99 optimal solution of the variational problem is obtained finally by effective decomposition 100 component of the given signal. By iteration, the VMD algorithm can decompose the signals into 101 some intrinsic mode functions (IMFs) and a relevant residual value containing multiple different 102 frequency scales. 103

The constrained variational expression of VMD is as follows:

$$\min_{\{\mathcal{Q}_m\},\{\omega_m\}} \left\{ \sum_{m=1}^{M} \left\| \partial_N \left[\left(\delta(N) + j / \pi N \right) * \mathcal{Q}_m(N) \right] \exp(-j\omega_m N) \right\|_2^2 \right\},$$

$$s.t. \sum_{m=1}^{M} \mathcal{Q}_m = f$$
(2)

104

105 where M is the number of modes to be decomposed, $\{Q_m\} = \{Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_m\}$ is the set of M modal 106 components after decomposition, $\{\omega_m\} = \{\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_m\}$ is the set of center frequencies 107 corresponding to modal component, Q_m is the m-th modal component, ω_m is the center frequency of 108 m-th modal component, N is the number of sequences, $\delta(t)$ represents the dirac function.

109 The unconstrained variational expression is shown below by introducing the Lagrangian 110 multiplication operator λ :

$$L(\{Q_m\},\{\omega_m\}) = \alpha \sum_{m=1}^{M} \left\| \partial_N \left[\left(\delta(N) + j / \pi N \right) * Q_m(N) \right] \exp(-j\omega_m N) \right\|_2^2 + \left\| f(N) - \sum_m Q_m(N) \right\|_2^2 + \left\langle \lambda(N), f(N) - \sum_m Q_m(N) \right\rangle$$
(3)

111

112 where α is a secondary penalty factor.

113 By alternating direction multiplier iterative algorithm to obtain M modal components, the 114 unconstrained variational problem can be solved. The update expressions of $Q_{m_{\lambda}} \omega_{m}$ and λ are shown 115 as follows:

$$\hat{Q}_{m}^{k+1}(\omega) = \frac{\hat{f}(\omega) - \sum_{i=1}^{m} \hat{Q}_{i}^{k+1}(\omega) - \sum_{i=m+1}^{M} Q_{i}^{k}(\omega) + \hat{\lambda}(\omega) / 2}{1 + 2\alpha (\omega - \omega_{m}^{k})^{2}}$$

$$\omega_{m}^{k+1} = \frac{\int_{0}^{\infty} \omega \left| \hat{Q}_{m}^{k+1}(\omega) \right|^{2} d\omega}{\int_{0}^{\infty} \left| \hat{Q}_{m}^{k+1}(\omega) \right|^{2} d\omega}$$

$$\hat{\lambda}^{k+1}(\omega) = \hat{\lambda}^{k}(\omega) + \gamma \left(\hat{f}(\omega) - \sum_{m=1}^{M} \hat{Q}_{m}^{k+1}(\omega) \right)$$
(4)

116

117 where
$$\gamma$$
 is the update coefficient for Lagrangian multiplier which represents noise tolerance. $\hat{Q}_{n}(\omega)$

118 $\hat{Q}_i(\omega), \hat{f}(\omega)$ and $\hat{\lambda}(\omega)$ are Fourier transforms of $\hat{Q}_m, \hat{Q}_i, \hat{f}$ and $\hat{\lambda}$.

119 The process of VMD algorithm is summarized as follows:

- 120 Step 1: Initialize three parameters \hat{Q}_m^1 , ω_m^1 , $\hat{\lambda}_m^1$ and set the iteration count to k=1.
- 121 Step 2: Update \hat{Q}_m , ω_m and $\hat{\lambda}$ by equation (4).

122 Step 3: For a specified acceptable tolerance $\xi > 0$, the convergence criterion is 123 $\sum_{m=1}^{M} \left\| \hat{Q}_{m}^{k+1}(\omega) - \hat{Q}_{m}^{k}(\omega) \right\|_{2}^{2} < \xi$. If the convergence is realized, finish the iteration and 124 output the final value, else return to step 2.

125 2.2 Multi-Kernel Support vector regression

1

In 1995, SVM algorithm based on statistical learning theory was proposed by Vapnik. It is mainly used to obtain the global optimal solution for pattern recognition and classification. To reduce the parameter dimension, the optimization process is simplified by introducing the kernel function. When used as a regression tool, SVM implements a variant of the algorithm called SVR.

A set of data $T = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$ is given, where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $y_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, \{x_i, i=1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is the input feature, $\{y_i, i=1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is the output. The target of SVR method is to find a functional relationship similar to the hyperplane equation f(x), making it as close to the training data as possible. In the feature space, the regression model corresponding to the hyperplane can be described as the equation (5):

$$f(x) = w_s^T \varphi(x) + b_s \tag{5}$$

136 137 where $\varphi(x)$ is a nonlinear mapping function, w_s is the normal vector, b_s is the displacement term. The optimization problem of SVR model can be expressed as:

138

$$\min \frac{1}{2} \|w_s\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\xi_i + \xi_i)$$

s.t. $(w_s^T \varphi(x_i) + b_s - y_i) \le \varepsilon + \xi_i,$

 $y_i - w_s^T \varphi(x_i) - b_s \le \varepsilon + \hat{\xi}_i, \xi_i \ge 0, \hat{\xi}_i \ge 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

(6)

- where e is the regression error, similar to relaxation factor, which introduces outliers into the support vector. C is the penalty constant.
- Four Lagrangian multipliers α_i , α_i^* , u_i and u_i^* are introduced to obtain Lagrangian function:

142

$$L(w_{s}, b_{s}, \alpha_{i}, \alpha_{i}^{*}) = \frac{1}{2} \|w_{s}\|^{2} + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\xi_{i} + \hat{\xi}_{i}) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_{i} \xi_{i} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_{i}^{*} \hat{\xi}_{i}$$

$$+ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} (w_{s}^{T} \cdot \varphi(x_{i}) + b_{s} - \xi_{i} - \varepsilon - y_{i}) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}^{*} (y_{i} - w_{s}^{T} \cdot \varphi(x_{i}) - b_{s} - \hat{\xi}_{i} - \varepsilon)$$
(7)

143 where $\alpha_i \ge 0$, $\alpha_i^* \ge 0$, $u_i \ge 0$ and $u_i^* \ge 0$.

144 The SVR regression model can be finally transformed as the function below:

145
$$f(x) = w_s^T \cdot x + b_s = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n (\alpha_i^* - \alpha_i) K(x_i, x_j) + b_s$$
(8)

146 where $K(x_i, x_j)$ is the Gaussian radial basis kernel function, the expression of which is 147 $K(x_i, x_j) = \exp(-\frac{||x_i - x_j||^2}{2\sigma^2})$. The kernel function can improve the Feature dimension of the model to 148 improve the nonlinear fitting ability of SVR. The larger the σ is, the smaller the nonlinear efficiency 149 is, and the less sensitive to noise is.

When the amount of sample data is large, the distribution of high-dimensional feature space is uneven and there is heterogeneous information, a single selection of local kernel function or global kernel function will lead to low prediction accuracy. This problem can be solved by constructing multi-kernel functions by linear weighting.

By combining the linear kernel function with the Gaussian kernel function, the multi-kernelfunction can be expressed as:

156
$$K(x_i, x_j) = \lambda k_1(x_i, x') + (1 - \lambda)k_2(x_i, x')$$
(9)

157 where $k_1(x_i, x')$ is a linear kernel function, $k_2(x_i, x')$ is Gaussian kernel function. λ is the 158 weight coefficient of linear kernel function, and the corresponding $(1-\lambda)$ is the weight coefficient of 159 Gaussian kernel function.

160 2.3 Improved sparrow search algorithm

161 The SSA is a new type of swarm intelligence optimization algorithm, and its basic structure 162 is similar to ABC algorithm except the search operator ^[33]. In this paper, SSA algorithm is used to 163 optimize penalty constant C and kernel function parameter σ to realize the accurate prediction of 164 the MKSVM model.

165 For SSA algorithm, each sparrow has only one position, which can be represented by a matrix 166 X, and the expression is:

 $X = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1,1} & x_{1,2} & \cdots & x_{1,d} \\ x_{2,1} & x_{2,2} & \cdots & x_{2,d} \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ x_{n,1} & x_{n,2} & \cdots & x_{n,d} \end{bmatrix}$ 167 (10)

168 where d is the dimension of the variable. x_{ij} indicates the position of the *i*-th sparrow in the *j*-th 169 dimension.

170 The fitness value is calculated by:

171
$$F_{X} = \begin{bmatrix} f([x_{1,1} \quad x_{1,2} \cdots \quad x_{1,d}]) \\ f([x_{2,1} \quad x_{2,2} \cdots \quad x_{1,d}]) \\ & \cdots \\ f([x_{n,1} \quad x_{n,2} \cdots \quad x_{n,d}]) \end{bmatrix}$$
(11)

172 Each sparrow has three possible behaviors: explorer, follower, and vigilant investigation. Each 173 generation selects the best P sparrows in the population as the explorers, and the remaining n-P 174 sparrows as the followers. 175

The position update equation is:

176
$$X_{i,j}^{t+1} = \begin{cases} X_{i,j}^t \cdot \exp(\frac{-i}{\alpha \cdot M}), R_2 < ST \\ X_{i,j}^t + Q_s \cdot L_s, R_2 \ge ST \end{cases}$$
(12)

177 where t is the number of current iteration, M is the maximum iterations number. $X^{t}_{i,j}$ indicates the 178 position of the *i*-th sparrow in the *j*-th dimension of the current iteration. α is a random number 179 between 0 and 1. R_2 is the alarm value and ST is the safety threshold. Q is a random number. L is a 180 $1 \times d$ matrix with each element of 1.

The location updated equation is:

181

182
$$X_{i,j}^{t+1} = \begin{cases} \exp(\frac{X_{wp}^{t} - X_{i,j}^{t}}{i^{2}}) \cdot Q_{s}, i > n/2 \\ |X_{i,j}^{t} - X_{bp}^{t+1}| \cdot G_{s}^{+} \cdot L_{s} + X_{bp}^{t+1}, i \le n/2 \end{cases}$$
(13)

183 where X_{bp} is the best position occupied by the current explorer, X_{wp} is the worst position. G represents 184 a 1×d matrix with elements assigned 1 or -1 and $G^+=G^T(GG^T)^{-1}$.

185 While the sparrows are foraging for food, part of them will be responsible for vigilance. When 186 alerted to danger, they will conduct anti-predation behavior: give up food and move to a new 187 location. The location update formula is:

$$X_{i,j}^{t+1} = \begin{cases} X_{bp}^{t} + \mu_{s} \cdot \left| X_{i,j}^{t} - X_{bp}^{t} \right|, f_{si} > f_{sg} \\ X_{i,j}^{t} + K_{s} \cdot \left(\frac{\left| X_{i,j}^{t} - X_{wp}^{t} \right|}{(f_{si} - f_{sw}) + \xi} \right), f_{si} = f_{sg} \end{cases}$$
(14)

189 where X_{bp} is the current global optimal position, μ_s is the step-size control parameter, K is the random 190 with values between -1 and 1, which represents the moving direction of the sparrows. f_{si} is the fitness 191 value of the current sparrow. f_{sg} represents current global best fitness value while f_{sw} represents the 192 worst one. ξ is a minimum constant.

193 2.3.1 Improvement of population initialization

Elite chaotic opposition-learning method is adopted to generate an initial population to enhance
 its quality and diversity. By selecting elite individuals on a larger scale, the algorithm can improve
 the local escape ability and convergence performance of traditional SSA algorithm, then lead to a
 more accurate solution.

In this paper, the chaotic skew tent map is chosen to generate the initial population to enhance
 the stability of the initial individuals due to its characteristic of randomness and ergodicity.

200 The chaotic skew tent map equation is described as follows:

201
$$x_{k+1} = \begin{cases} x_k / \alpha, 0 < x_k < \alpha \\ (1 - x_k) / (1 - \alpha), \alpha < x_k \le 1 \end{cases}$$
(15)

202 In (15), α is a random number between 0 and 1. $\beta = -\alpha \log \alpha - (1-\alpha) \log(1-\alpha)$, if $\beta > 0$, then the system 203 is in chaos state.

The reverse-learning algorithm based on optical lens imaging principle can solve the problem
 of local optimum by increasing the probability of a better solution.

206 Reverse population generation equation is described in (16):

207
$$x_n^* = \frac{a_n + b_n}{2} + \frac{a_n + b_n}{2k} - \frac{x_n}{k}$$
(16)

where a_n represents the minimum value in the *n* dimension of the current population, while b_n represents the maximum one. *k* is the scaling coefficient of the lens.

The initialize process of the sparrow population with the strategy above is shown as as follows: Initialize the sparrow population randomly, then substitute population X into equation (15) to generate chaotic population Y. Generate the lens imaging opposition-learning population Z by substituting population X into equation (16). Sort the population X, Y and Z according to the individual fitness value and select the better N individuals to form the initial sparrow population.

215 2.3.2 Improvement of follower location update

Since the update weight is large and not changed much during iteration, it may miss the global
optimum. To solve the problem, adaptive weights are introduced to improve the performance of
SSA algorithm.

219 The changed update equation is described as follows:

$$X_{i,j}^{t+1} = \begin{cases} w_s \cdot \left(X_{i,j}^t \cdot \exp\left(\frac{-i}{\alpha_s \cdot Iter_{\max}}\right) \right) & \text{if } AR < ST \\ w_s \cdot \left(X_{i,j}^t + Q_s L_s \right) & \text{if } AR \ge ST \end{cases}$$

$$w_s = 1 - \lg\left((e-1) \cdot n / Iter_{\max} + 1 \right) \qquad (17)$$

221 2.4 A hybrid framework of VMD-ISSA-MKSVR

A hybrid framework combining VMD, ISSA and MKSVR model is proposed to achieve a more
 accurate and stable battery life prediction performance. The detailed prediction process is outlined
 in Figure 1.

The complete steps of the framework are summarized as follows.

Step 1: Some relevant features are extracted from current, voltage, and temperature curves.
 Then, features with high correlation are used as the input of VMD-ISSA-MKSVR model.

228 Step 2: Decompose the battery capacity by the VMD into 5 IMF components. Each component

is processed to the VMD-ISSA-MKSVR model separately, and finally put it together.

Step 3: After VMD decomposition, ISSA algorithm is used to identify the parameters of MKSVR model.

Step 4: Train the VMD-ISSA-MKSVR model, and then substitute the test data into the training
 model for SOH estimation and RUL prediction results.



236

235

Fig. 1 Detailed flow chart of the hybrid framework

237 **3.** Experimental results and analysis

Four lithium-ion batteries (B0005, B0006, B0007 and B00018) from NASA are selected for SOH estimation and RUL prediction verification. The tests are carried out at room temperature, taking B0005 battery as an example: Charge the battery with a current of 1.5A in a constant current (CC) mode until it reaches the charging cut-off voltage of 4.2V. Then charge the battery by constant voltage (CV) mode with the voltage of 4.2V, stop charging when the current drops to 0.02A. During discharging, the battery is discharged in a CC mode, the discharging current is 2A, stop discharging when the discharge cut-off voltage of 2.7V is reached.

245 3.1 Evaluation criteria

For battery SOH estimation, this paper uses three popular criteria to verify the stability and
accuracy of the model. Mean absolute error (MAE), root mean square error (RMSE), and mean
absolute percentage error (MAPE) are adopted as evaluation criteria.

251

$$MAE = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=1}^{M} |y_n^* - y_n|$$

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=1}^{M} (y_n^* - y_n)^2}$$

$$MAPE = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=1}^{M} \left| \frac{y_n^* - y_n}{y_n} \right| \times 100\%$$
(18)

T

 $RE = \left| RUL_p - RUL_t \right|$

250 Relative error (RE) is define as equation(19) for battery RUL prediction:

(19)

- 252 where RUL_p is the predicted value of RUL, RUL_t is the actual value of RUL.
- 253 3.2 Feature extraction

254 The battery capacity cannot be obtained directly in practical. Some key features can be 255 extracted from the current, voltage and temperature in the process of charging-discharging. It is easy 256 to extract stable feature information from vehicle sensors to establish the relationship with battery 257 SOH, and then use machine learning technology to realize battery life prediction.

258 In the process of battery operation, the voltage curve can provide a lot of information related 259 to the available capacity. Time interval of equal charge voltage rise (TIE-CVR), charge capacity 260 rise of equal charge voltage rise (CCR-CVR) and time interval of equal charge current drop (TIE-261 CCD) can be used as features to estimate battery SOH. TIE-CVR indicates the time for the voltage 262 to rise from 3.8V to 4.2V during CC mode charging, which is marked as F1. The corresponding 263 capacity of CCR-CVR is marked as F2. The highest temperature and the corresponding time in each 264 charging-discharging cycle are marked as F3 and F4, respectively. During the period when the 265 voltage is higher than 3.8V and the current drops to 0.4A, the average temperature is recorded as 266 F5. The area under the temperature curve is recorded as F6. TIE-CCD is the time when the current 267 in the CV phase decreases from 1.5A to 0.4A, which is marked as F7. During the period when the 268 discharge voltage decreases from 3.8V to 3.4V, the capacity of the discharged battery is recorded 269 as F8. Figure 3 shows the eigenvalue of F1~F8.

270



272 Fig. 2 Schematic diagram of extraction of eight eigenvalues at current, voltage and temperature (a) F1 273 (b) F2 and F7 (c) F3, F4 and F6 (d) F8



Fig. 3 The variation curve of eight characteristics (a)-(h) are F1-F8, respectively

277 The spearman rank correlation coefficients R_S is used to analyze the correlation between 278 eigenvalues and battery available capacity.

279 The formula is shown in (20):

$$R_{S} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{M} (X_{n} - \bar{X}) (Y_{n} - \bar{Y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{n=1}^{M} (X_{n} - \bar{X})^{2}} \sqrt{\sum_{n=1}^{M} (Y_{n} - \bar{Y})^{2}}} \bar{X} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{n=1}^{M} X_{n}$$
(20)

281 where X_n is the available capacity for each discharge, Y_n is the input eigenvalues in each charge-282 discharge cycle, \overline{X} and \overline{Y} are the mean values of sample, *n* is the current charge-discharge cycle, 283 *M* is the total number of charge and discharge cycles. 284

Table 1 depicts the correlation coefficient between each feature and available capacity.

285 Among the four batteries, the absolute values of the correlation coefficients between F1, F2, F3, F7, 286 and F8 and the available capacity are all between 0.9 and 1, indicating a high correlation between 287 them. The correlation values of eigenvalues F4, F5 and F6 with available capacity are all low, 288 indicating that their correlation is also relatively low. These three features are eliminated, and not 289 used as input to the estimation model.

290

Table 1. Correlation coefficient between each feature and available capacity.

Battery				Feature number				
number	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8
B0005	0.9913	0.9913	0.9911	-0.5880	0.0717	-0.6251	-0.9819	0.9987
B0006	0.9936	0.9936	0.9915	-0.1562	0.1647	0.1040	-0.9522	0.9992
B0007	0.9888	0.9888	0.9897	-0.4535	0.0379	-0.0712	-0.9444	0.9972
B0018	0.9782	0.9782	0.9823	-0.2631	0.7084	0.2127	-0.9128	0.9986

291

292 3.3 SOH estimation

293 Before SOH estimation, the VMD method is used to decompose the data. The VMD 294 decomposition diagram of B0005 and B0007 is shown in figure 4. Each data is divided into five 295 components, The frequencies of five components are different. The component frequencies of 296 B0005 and B0007 are similar.





Fig. 4 Battery capacity estimation resultsVMD decomposition of capacity data (a) B0005 and B0007 (b) B0006 and B00018

In this paper, the capacity-based SOH definition method is adopted, which is defined as the
 ratio of the current capacity to the rated capacity of the battery. For the same battery, its rated
 capacity is constant, and the current capacity and SOH have the same trend. The problem of SOH
 estimation of the battery can be transformed into the problem of capacity estimation.

For SOH estimation, the characteristic factors are extracted as the input of VMD-ISSA-MKSVR model. The prediction start point of B0005, B0006 and B0007 is Ty=81, while that of B00018 is Ty=61. The data before the starting point is set as the training set, and the data after the starting point is set as the test set.

Four methods including the IPSO-SVR^[34], ISSA-SVR, VMD-ISSA-SVR and BL-ELM^[35] are
 in comparison with VMD-ISSA-MKSVR for battery SOH estimation. The relevant parameters are
 set in table 2. The kernel parameters are Obtained by three optimization methods listed as table 3.

To verify the effectiveness of the proposed method for SOH estimation, a comparison of the battery capacity estimation is conducted as shown in Figure 5. The SOH estimation results clearly show that the conformance between estimation and measurement are adequate. The capacity estimation values all follow the actual value, and the errors are quite small. Compared with the capacity obtained by the IPSO-SVR and ISSA-SVR, that obtained by the VMD-ISSA-SVR and the VMD-ISSA-MKSVR are closer to the actual capacity.

318

Table 2. The parameter setting

Algorithm	Parameters
IPSO-SVR	N=100, Itermax=100,
ISSA-SVR	N=100, Iter _{max} =100,
VMD-ISSA-SVR	N=100, Iter _{max} =100
BL-ELM	N=100, Iter _{max} =100
VMD-ISSA-MKSVR	N=100, Iter _{max} =100



Table 3 The kernel parameters are Obtained by three optimization methods

Algorithm	B0005	B0006	B0007	B00018
IPSO-SVR	σ=0.01	σ=0.01	σ=0.01	σ=0.01
ISSA-SVR	σ=0.0122	σ=0.01	σ=0.01	σ=0.5414
VMD-ISSA-SVR	σ=404.72	σ=337.7	σ=1386	σ=512.9



326

Fig. 5 Battery capacity estimation results(a)B0005 (b)B0006 (c)B0007 (d)B00018

Detterre	A 1	MAE	RMSE		
Battery	Algorithm	(%)	(%)	MAPE	
	IPSO-SVR[34]	2.1603	2.331	1.3453%	
	BL-ELM[35]	0.650599	1.28178	0.469636%	
D0005	ISSA-SVR	0.70846	1.3541	0.50759%	
B0003	VMD-ISSA-SVR	0.64732	0.85372	0.4553%	
	VMD-ISSA- MKSVR	0.48948	0.66529	0.34572%	
	IPSO-SVR[34]	2.818	2.6655	1.5552%	
	BL-ELM[35]	0.907669	1.89784	0.692424%	
D0006	ISSA-SVR	0.93202	2.0196	0.71344%	
B0006	VMD-ISSA-SVR	0.84719	1.2776	0.6403%	
	VMD-ISSA-	0 70188	1.0757	0 53136%	
	MKSVR	0.70188	1.0757	0.5515070	
	IPSO-SVR[34]	0.9444	1.6086	0.55921%	
	BL-ELM[35]	0.552247	1.25203	0.374816%	
B0007	ISSA-SVR	0.67	1.38	0.455%	
B0007	VMD-ISSA-SVR	0.55814	0.81174	0.37043%	
	VMD-ISSA-	0 / 3031	0.65092	0.202010/	
	MKSVR	0.43731	0.05072	0.2750170	
	IPSO-SVR[34]	2.8662	3.0179	1.814%	
B0001	BL-ELM[35]	1.27736	2.00969	0.896704%	
8	ISSA-SVR	2.2697	2.5105	1.5769%	
0	VMD-ISSA-SVR	1.6407	1.3489	0.93712%	
	VMD-ISSA-	1.2713	1.1008	0.88236%	

Table 4. Battery capacity estimation error

MKSVR

327 The capacity estimation error is shown in Table 4 and Figure 6. Take B0005 battery as an 328 example, the MAE of the five methods are 2.1603%, 0.708%, 0.651%, 0.647% and 0.489%, 329 respectively, while the RMSE of that are 2.331%, 1.354%, 1.282%, 0.854% and 0.665%, 330 respectively; and the MAPE of that are 1.345%, 0.508%, 0.470%, 0.455% and 0.346%, respectively. 331 The capacity estimation error of the IPSO-SVR is largest, that of the proposed VMD-ISSA-MKSVR 332 method is smallest, the error reductions of MAE, RMSE, and MAPE are obvious. Compared with 333 the results predicted by the IPSO-SVR algorithm, the proposed method improves the estimation 334 SOH accuracy by nearly $0.51\% \sim 2.11\%$. These results suggest that the proposed VMD-ISSA-335 MKSVR method has a relatively high estimation accuracy.



336

337

Fig. 6 Battery capacity estimation error

338 3.4 RUL prediction

The battery RUL prediction results are discussed in this section. Take the cycle number as input of the prediction methods, the EOL threshold for the B0005, B0006 and B00018 batteries are set to 70% of the standard rated capacity, which is 1.4Ah. The EOL threshold for the B0007 battery is set to 75% of the standard rated capacity, which is 1.5Ah. The prediction start points of the four batteries are Ty=41.



348

Fig. 7 Battery RUL prediction results (a)B0005 (b)B0006 (c)B0007 (d)B00018

Table 5.	Battery	RUL	prediction	error
	_		1	

Battery	Algorithm	Start point	RUL_p	RUL _r	RE
B0005	IPSO-SVR[34]	41	95	83	12
	BL-ELM[35]	41	78	83	5
	ISSA-SVR	41	77	83	6
	VMD-ISSA-	41	80	83	2
	SVR	41	80	05	3

	VMD-ISSA- MKSVR	41	84	83	1
	IPSO-SVR[34]	41	72	68	4
	BL-ELM[35]	41	65	68	3
	ISSA-SVR	41	65	68	3
B0006	VMD-ISSA- SVR	41	67	68	1
	VMD-ISSA- MKSVR	41	68	68	0
B0007	IPSO-SVR[34]	41	92	85	7
	BL-ELM[35]	41	79	85	6
	ISSA-SVR	41	78	85	7
	VMD-ISSA- SVR	41	80	85	5
	VMD-ISSA- MKSVR	41	85	85	0
	IPSO-SVR[34]	41	67	56	11
	BL-ELM[35]	41	67	56	11
D0001	ISSA-SVR	41	66	56	10
80001 8	VMD-ISSA- SVR	41	64	56	8
	VMD-ISSA- MKSVR	41	59	56	3

Figure 7 and Table 5 show the battery RUL prediction results. The RE of the proposed hybrid method is smaller than those of the other methods, indicating that the hybrid algorithm has a higher prediction accuracy. The RE value predicted by the IPSO-SVR for four batteries are 12, 4, 7 and 11, respectively; by the BL-ELM method those are 5, 3, 6 and 11, respectively; by the ISSA-SVR method those are 6, 3, 7 and 10, respectively; by the VMD-ISSA-SVR method those are 3, 1, 5 and 8, respectively; by the VMD-ISSA-MKSVR method those are 1, 0, 0 and 3. Especially for B00018, the RUL prediction accuracy has been greatly improved.

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Table 6 RUL prediction results of four batteries with different start points

Battery	Algorithm	RE51	R E ₄₁	RE31
	IPSO-SVR[34]	10	12	∞
	BL-ELM[35]	8	5	20
B0005	ISSA-SVR	10	6	∞
	VMD-ISSA-SVR	2	3	16
	VMD-ISSA- MKSVR	2	1	10
	IPSO-SVR[34]	3	4	8
	BL-ELM[35]	6	3	23
D0006	ISSA-SVR	4	3	9
B0006	VMD-ISSA-SVR	2	1	10
	VMD-ISSA- MKSVR	1	0	2
	IPSO-SVR[34]	8	16	∞
	BL-ELM[35]	7	6	8
D0007	ISSA-SVR	6	7	∞
D0007	VMD-ISSA-SVR	6	5	7
	VMD-ISSA- MKSVR	4	0	5
	IPSO-SVR[34]	10	14	15
	BL-ELM[35]	13	11	9
D00019	ISSA-SVR	12	10	10
D00018	VMD-ISSA-SVR	9	8	6
	VMD-ISSA- MKSVR	2	3	1

The RUL prediction results of four batteries with different start points are shown in table 6. ∞ in the table represents that the prediction curve and EOL do not intersect and the RUL cannot be predicted. It can be seen that the five methods can predict the RUL of the four batteries very well after Ty=41 and the RE values obtained by the VMD-ISSA-MKSVR method are the smallest for every battery. The RE values predicted by the five methods generally show an roughly upward trend with the advancement of the start point. When Ty=31, the RUL predictions of B0005 and B0007
batteries by IPSO-SVR and ISSA-SVR cannot be performed because of the small amount of data.
The RUL errors predicted by BL-ELM, VMD-ISSA-SVR and VMD-ISSA-MKSVR are still
suitable. With the advance of the start point, the prediction accuracy of the proposed hybrid method
does not change much, indicating that the RUL predicted by VMD-ISSA-MKSVR method is stable.

368 4. Conclusion

As a key approach of prognostics and health management, accurate life prediction of the battery
 is significant to reduce the probability of system failure effectively. This work focus on a hybrid
 method considering feature extraction that combines VMD, ISSA and MKSVR.

372 The main contributions are summarized as follows:(1) Eight Features are extracted to establish 373 the relationship with battery SOH by measured data. (2) Decompose the original sequence by the 374 VMD to solve the backward problem of the capacity data caused by auto-correlation to make the 375 capacity data more stable. (3) Elite chaotic opposition learning strategy and adaptive weights are 376 introduced to optimize the SSA algorithm to find the global optimum faster and more efficient. (4) 377 Multi-Kernel support vector regression is used to solve the low prediction accuracy problem caused 378 by large sample data, uneven distribution of high-dimensional feature space. Training data is used 379 to train the hybrid model, and the test data is substituted into the training model for battery life 380 prediction results.

Dataset from National Aeronautics and Space Administration are applied for experimental verification. The RUL predictions with different start points are conducted to verify the stability of the VMD-ISSA-MKSVR framework. By comparison with IPSO-SVR, ISSA-SVR, BL-ELM and VMD-ISSA-SVR, it can be verified that the errors of SOH estimation and RUL prediction obtained by the VMD-ISSA-MKSVR framework are the smallest. It has relatively high prediction accuracy and stability.

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1. A hybrid framework considering feature extraction is proposed to achieve a more accurate and stable prediction performance.

2. The hybrid framework combines variational mode decomposition, the multi-kernel support vector regression model and the improved sparrow search algorithm.

3. Better parameters of the estimation model are obtained by introducing elite chaotic opposition-learning strategy and adaptive weights to optimize the sparrow search algorithm.

4. By feature extraction, the measured data can be directly fed into the life prediction model.

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