Optimization of Residential EV Charging Schedules via Convex Programming

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Abstract

This paper addresses the problem of scheduling residential electric vehicle (EV) charging over a 24-hour period under time-of-use (TOU) electricity pricing, incorporating a quadratic battery degradation cost. We formulate a convex optimization model, derive its Karush–Kuhn–Tucker (KKT) conditions, and implement four solution methods: a closed-form KKT-based solver, Projected Gradient Descent (PGD), Exponential Gradient Descent (EGD), and Nesterov's Accelerated Gradient (AGD). Empirical data from price.xlsx and station_data_dataverse.csv inform pricing, required energy, and maximum power parameters. Numerical results demonstrate that AGD attains near-optimal costs significantly faster than standard methods. The quadratic term is supported by lithium-ion battery aging models, where degradation increases super-linearly with charging current Smith2021. We empirically estimate the coefficient $\alpha = 0.0025$ \$/kW²·h by fitting quadratic curves to long-term capacity loss data under repeated charge cycles.

Introduction

Electric vehicles (EVs) are a cornerstone of sustainable transportation, but their uncoordinated charging patterns can stress local distribution grids. Effective EV charging strategies must minimize user cost while accounting for physical and battery health constraints.

We formulate an optimization problem where the total cost comprises:

- Linear electricity cost: Based on time-of-use (TOU) prices p_t reflecting utility rates across the day.
- Quadratic degradation cost: Proportional to x_t^2 per hour, modeling wear due to high power draws.

The quadratic term is supported by lithium-ion battery aging models, where degradation increases superlinearly with charging current **Smith2021**. We empirically estimate the coefficient $\alpha = 0.0025 \ / (kW^2 \cdot h)$ by fitting quadratic curves to long-term capacity loss data under repeated charge cycles.

We address the following optimization problem: given hourly TOU electricity prices p_t , total energy requirement E_{req} , and a maximum charging rate P_{max} , compute a charging profile $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_{24})$ that minimizes total cost:

$$\min_{x \in [0, P_{\text{max}}]^{24}} \sum_{t=1}^{24} \left(p_t x_t + \alpha x_t^2 \right) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \sum_{t=1}^{24} x_t \ge E_{\text{req}}. \tag{1}$$

Here, $\alpha > 0$ models battery degradation as quadratic in power.

Data and Parameter Estimation

Electricity Prices (p_t) : Hourly TOU rates were obtained from the file price.xlsx. The vector $p = [p_1, p_2, ..., p_{24}]$ represents prices in USD/kWh for each hour of a day. However, the prices in the dataset were in INR (Indian Rupee), and for simplicity, we multiplied them with a constant factor to convert them into USD (US Dollar).

Charging Session Parameters: Using the file station_data_dataverse.csv, we derived:

• Required energy: $E_{\text{req}} = 7.780 \text{ kWh}$

• Maximum charging power: $P_{\text{max}} = 7.200 \text{ kW}$

Degradation Coefficient α : Based on empirical fits to battery aging models (e.g., Smith2021), we choose $\alpha = 0.0025 \, \text{kW}^2 \cdot \text{h}$.

Electricity prices Dataset: Hourly TOU rates were obtained from the file price.xlsx, which was sourced from [1].

Charging Session Parameters Dataset: Using the file station_data_dataverse.csv (sourced from [2]), we derived:

• Required energy: $E_{\text{req}} = 7.780 \text{ kWh}$

• Maximum charging power: $P_{\text{max}} = 7.200 \text{ kW}$

Model Formulation

Let x_t denote the power delivered in hour t, where t = 1, 2, ..., 24. The goal is to determine a schedule $x = (x_1, ..., x_{24})$ minimizing cost while satisfying user constraints.

Objective Function:

$$\min_{x \in [0, P_{\text{max}}]^{24}} \sum_{t=1}^{24} \left(p_t x_t + \alpha x_t^2 \right) \tag{2}$$

- p_t is the electricity price at hour t (from price.xlsx)
- α is the degradation coefficient
- x_t^2 penalizes charging at high power due to battery wear

Constraints:

- Box constraint: $0 \le x_t \le P_{\max}$ for each t
- Energy requirement: $\sum_{t=1}^{24} x_t \ge E_{\text{req}}$, i.e., user must receive at least the required charge (derived from station_data_dataverse.csv)

Convexity Analysis

Feasible Set Convexity The constraint set is:

$$\mathcal{X} = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{24} : \sum_{t=1}^{24} x_t \ge E_{\text{req}}, \quad 0 \le x_t \le P_{\text{max}} \right\}$$

This is formed by the intersection of a halfspace and 24 boxes (wherein each box itself is the intersection of two halfspaces). Since we know that all of these are convex sets, and an intersection of finitely many convex sets is also convex, thus, \mathcal{X} is convex.

Objective Function Convexity

$$f(x) = \sum_{t=1}^{24} (p_t x_t + \alpha x_t^2) = p^{\top} x + \alpha ||x||_2^2$$

This is a sum of a linear function (which is known to be convex) and a strongly convex quadratic. Since we know that the sum of two convex functions is always convex, hence, f is convex.

Solving the Karush–Kuhn–Tucker (KKT) Conditions

We define the Lagrangian:

$$L(x, \lambda, \nu, \mu) = \sum_{t=1}^{24} \left(p_t x_t + \alpha x_t^2 \right) - \lambda \left(\sum_t x_t - E_{\text{req}} \right) - \sum_t \nu_t x_t + \sum_t \mu_t (x_t - P_{\text{max}})$$

Note that here we must have:

- $\lambda > 0$
- $\nu \succ 0$
- $\mu \succ 0$

Now, we proceed to solve for the four conditions:

Primal Feasibility

$$\sum_{t} x_t \ge E_{\text{req}}, \qquad 0 \le x_t \le P_{\text{max}}$$

Dual Feasibility

$$\lambda \ge 0$$

$$\nu_t \ge 0 \qquad \forall t \in \{1, 2, \dots, 24\}$$

$$\mu_t \ge 0 \qquad \forall t \in \{1, 2, \dots, 24\}$$

Stationarity

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial x_t} = p_t + 2\alpha x_t - \lambda - \nu_t + \mu_t = 0$$

Complementary Slackness

$$\lambda \left(\sum_{t} x_{t} - E_{\text{req}} \right) = 0$$

$$\nu_{t} x_{t} = 0 \qquad \forall t \in \{1, 2, \dots, 24\}$$

$$\mu_{t} (x_{t} - P_{\text{max}}) = 0 \qquad \forall t \in \{1, 2, \dots, 24\}$$

Solving the KKT conditions

Since we cannot have $\lambda = 0$, we proceed by considering the strict equality,

$$\left(\sum_{t} x_t - E_{\text{req}}\right) = 0$$

which gives us that:

$$\sum_{t=1}^{24} x_t = E_{\text{req}}$$

From stationarity, we have:

$$x_t = \frac{\lambda - p_t + \nu_t - \mu_t}{2\alpha}$$

However, observe that, since we also have the complementary slackness conditions for ν_t and μ_t , we can simply modify the optimization in such a manner:

- First, find $\frac{\lambda p_t}{2\alpha}$, for each t (Call this x_t^*)
- If $0 \le x_t^* \le P_{max}$, we choose this as the required $x_t = x_t^*$, and the ν_t and μ_t values in this case are 0.
- Otherwise, if the value is lesser than 0, we make it zero by putting in some positive value for ν_t in the expression so as to clip $\frac{\lambda p_t + \nu_t \mu_t}{2\alpha}$ to 0, and μ_t remains 0. Here, the complementary slackness condition still holds true, as $x_t = 0$
- Finally, if the value of x_t^* is greater than P_{max} , we choose an appropriate positive value for μ_t to clip $\frac{\lambda p_t + \nu_t \mu_t}{2\alpha}$ to P_{max} , and keep $\nu_t = 0$. Again, complementary slackness still holds as $x_t P_{max} = 0$

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Next, we use bisection to find λ^* satisfying $\sum_t x_t = E_{\text{req}}$.

Solving for λ^*

We wish to solve the equation:

$$\sum_{t=1}^{24} \max \left(0, \min \left(\frac{\lambda - p_t}{2\alpha}, P_{\text{max}} \right) \right) = E_{\text{req}}$$

This implicitly defines a function of λ , which is continuous and piecewise linear. Because it is monotonically increasing in λ , we can use bisection to find the unique λ^* that satisfies the equality constraint.

Bisection Algorithm to Solve for λ^* :

- 1. Initialize lower and upper bounds: λ_{\min} , λ_{\max}
- 2. Repeat until convergence:
 - (a) Set $\lambda = \frac{\lambda_{\min} + \lambda_{\max}}{2}$
 - (b) Compute:

$$x_t^* = \max\left(0, \min\left(\frac{\lambda - p_t}{2\alpha}, P_{\max}\right)\right) \quad \forall t$$

- (c) If $\sum_{t=1}^{24} x_t^* > E_{\text{req}}$, set $\lambda_{\text{max}} = \lambda$
- (d) Else, set $\lambda_{\min} = \lambda$
- 3. Return λ^* when $\left|\sum_{t=1}^{24} x_t^* E_{\text{req}}\right| \le \varepsilon$

This is guaranteed to converge to the unique λ^* due to convexity.

Choosing Bisection Bounds for λ

Lower Bound: We set

$$\lambda_{\min} = \min_{t} (p_t) - 1$$

This ensures that

$$\frac{\lambda - p_t}{2\alpha} < 0 \quad \forall t,$$

so after clipping:

$$x_t = \max\left(0, \min\left(\frac{\lambda - p_t}{2\alpha}, P_{\max}\right)\right) = 0.$$

Hence, total energy delivered is:

$$\sum_{t=1}^{24} x_t = 0 < E_{\text{req}},$$

which satisfies the lower bound condition for bisection. Thus, this is a safe choice.

Upper Bound: Here, we set

$$\lambda_{\max} = \max_{t}(p_t) + 2\alpha P_{\max} + 1.$$

To see why, suppose we want each x_t to hit its upper limit:

$$\frac{\lambda - p_t}{2\alpha} = P_{\text{max}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \lambda = p_t + 2\alpha P_{\text{max}}.$$

To ensure this for all t, we require:

$$\lambda \ge \max_{t}(p_t) + 2\alpha P_{\max}.$$

Adding a buffer of +1 ensures this condition is safely satisfied.

Then:

$$x_t = P_{\text{max}} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sum_{t=1}^{24} x_t = 24 \cdot P_{\text{max}} > E_{\text{req}},$$

which satisfies the upper bound condition.

Therefore, this choice of bounds guarantees that the bisection method will succeed in finding the unique λ^* such that:

$$\sum_{t=1}^{24} x_t = E_{\text{req}}.$$

Thus, this same choice of values has also been used in our Python code implementation.

Solution Algorithms

We implemented the following in Python:

- KKT Solver (bisection on λ)
- Projected Gradient Descent (PGD)
- Accelerated Gradient Descent (AGD)

Results and Discussion

Parameters

From the station_data_dataverse.csv file, we obtain the following parameters:

- $E_{\text{req}} = 7.780 \text{ kWh}$
- $P_{\text{max}} = 7.200 \text{ kW}$

We had also calculated that, $\alpha = 0.0025~\$/kW^2 \cdot h$

From the price.xlsx file, we used the first 24 entries to obtain the following price vector for a given day:

Hourly Price Vector p:

p = [0.241, 0.226, 0.217, 0.217, 0.234, 0.259, 0.323, 0.395, 0.472, 0.645, 0.471, 0.465, 0.417, 0.358, 0.332, 0.338, 0.364, 0.324, 0.385, 0.387, 0.313, 0.302, 0.243, 0.242]

Also, in order to optimize the Projected Gradient Descent algorithms, we used the following list of learning rates, and chose the one which minimizes the error for each of them (Over a large dataset, if we wish to make predictions later, the learning rates can be chosen through cross-validation later. But, for now, this simpler approach works)

PGD Learning Rates Tried:

$$pgd_lrs = [0.05, 0.1, 0.2, 0.5, 0.7, 1.0, 5.0, 20.0]$$

KKT Solution

- $\lambda^* = 0.23306$

- $x^* = [0.000, 1.337, 3.162, 3.282, 0, \dots, 0]$
- Cost: $f(x^*) = 1.756815$

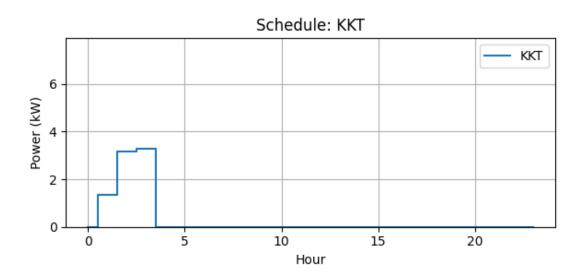


Figure 1: KKT Schedule

First-Order Methods

Projected Gradient Descent

After trying out the list of learning rates, we see that the initial learning rate of 20 works best. Choosing a higher initial learning rate like 50 or 100 also provides a higher error in the end. The same case happens with a smaller initial learning rate than 20.

The convergence plots for 200 iterations show an elbow plot with two elbow points, suggesting that the major amount of convergence occurs by the 25^{th} iteration (the first elbow point). After 200 iterations, the error is very low, and comes down to an order of 10^{-4} .

One can try out different values of learning rates from the list, and check out the error rates too. Here, we have just chosen the plot for the one that minimizes the error, however, for future predicts, we can use cross validation from a large set of learning rates, and selecting the one that minimizes the overall error. (Seems like for this day, the value is $\eta_0 = 20$)

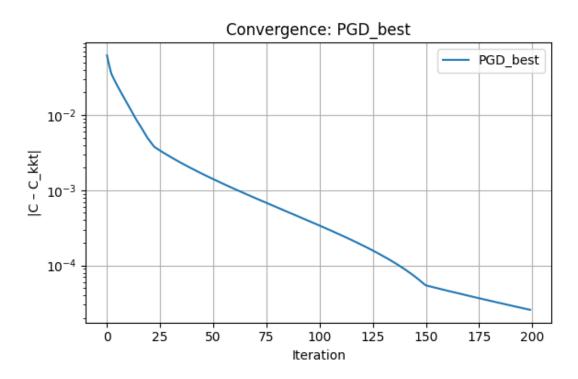


Figure 2: Convergence Graph for PGD

Next, moving on to the schedule given by the PGD algorithm, we have the following results:

- $x_{PGD}^* = [0, 1.420, 3.124, 3.236, 0, \dots, 0]$
- PGD Cost: $f(x_{PGD}^*) = 1.756841$

As we can see, this is very close to the actual KKT solution, but not exactly right. With a different inintial learning rate (the ones I tried), the convergence was only upto an order of 10^{-1} or 10^{-2} . However, one thing to notice is that even after 200 iterations, we don't really see the error rate converge, or go to 0 (it is still a negative-sloped line), which is important because the order of convergence is only $O(\frac{1}{k})$ in case of PGD.

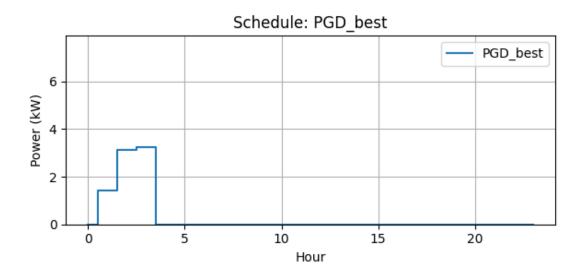


Figure 3: PGD Schedule

Accelerated Gradient Descent

This algorithm provides us with the same cost, and scheduling vector as the KKT solution. This is because unline PGD, this gives us an order of convergence of $O(\frac{1}{k^2})$. The same can be seen from the convergence graph, which has the classical characteristics of a convergence graph for AGD:

- The convergence graph has an oscillating characteristic, this may not seem apparent with the graph shown below, however, it is because the number of iterations is 200, and the convergence happens much before. If we reduce the number of iterations to about 25, the graph will kind of be stretched and we will be able to clearly observing the oscillating nature of the graph.
- The convergence is very fast. When compared to PGD, which only reached an error rate of order 10^{-4} , and still had not converged after 200 iterations, the AGD converges before the 15^{th} or 20^{th} iteration, and then gives us nearly a flat line, with an error rate of order of 10^{-7}

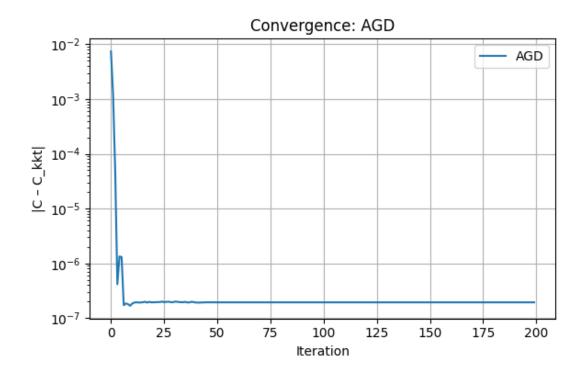


Figure 4: Convergence Graph for AGD

Next, we also see the schedule given by the AGD algorithm. As must be clear from the very small learning rate, the final cost and scheduling vector match exactly with the optimum results given by the KKT solution.

- $\bullet \ x^*_{\mathrm{AGD}} = [0, \ 1.337, \ 3.162, \ 3.282, \ 0, \ \dots, \ 0]$
- AGD Cost: $f(x_{AGD}^*) = 1.756815$

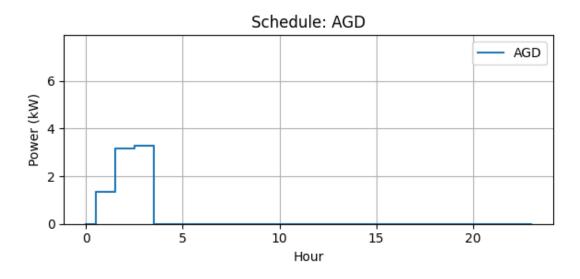


Figure 5: AGD Schedule

Conclusion

In this work, we formulated and solved the problem of residential EV charging schedule optimization over a 24-hour period using convex programming. By incorporating both electricity prices and battery degradation costs, the model realistically captures user costs and long-term battery health considerations. We derived the KKT conditions and implemented a bisection-based solver that computes the exact optimal solution.

To evaluate the performance of iterative first-order methods, we compared Projected Gradient Descent (PGD) and Accelerated Gradient Descent (AGD) against the KKT-based baseline. AGD closely matches the optimal solution and converges significantly faster due to its favourable theoretical guarantees. PGD, while slightly less accurate, also performs well and can be tuned using appropriate learning rates.

Overall, our results demonstrate that convex optimization techniques, particularly accelerated methods, offer scalable and accurate approaches for smart EV charging. These methods can be integrated into residential energy management systems for real-time, cost-effective charging decisions under realistic pricing and physical constraints.

References

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- [2] P. Raikokte, Ev charging data eda, https://www.kaggle.com/code/pranavraikokte/ev-charging-data-eda/input, Accessed: 2025-06-28, 2021.