# Decentralized Fuzzy Logic Control of Microgrid for Electric Vehicle Charging Station

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Abstract—As already happens with the electric vehicles (EVs) expansion, technology associated with their charge also must be improved. This paper presents a novel decentralized control method (DCM) for charging stations (CSs) based on a mediumvoltage direct current (MVDC) bus. This kind of CSs is integrated in a microgrid with a photovoltaic system, a battery energy storage system (ESS), a local grid connection, and two units of fast charge. The main contribution of this paper resides in the cited DCM based on fuzzy logic that includes the state of charge (SOC) of the battery ESS as a control variable. This control contains two independent fuzzy logic systems (one for the battery ESS and other for the grid), whose function is to maintain the MVDC voltage and the battery ESS SOC within proper thresholds and to keep the power balance stable among the units of fast charge and the rest of the CS components. The new control method was tested in a considerable number of operating situations (two hundred cases studied) under different conditions of sun irradiance, initial SOC of battery ESS, and number of EVs connected to the CS with the objective of showing its correct performance in all the considered scenarios.

Index Terms—Electric vehicle (EV), energy storage, fuzzy logic, photovoltaic systems.

### I. INTRODUCTION

URRENTLY, due to climate change and high dependence on fossil fuels in the transport sector [1] most of the countries have created new and more demanding laws to regulate and control issues related to  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  and  $\mathrm{NO}_x$  emission [2]. The promotion of plug-in hybrid electric vehicles and electric vehicles (EVs) is a clearly feasible solution to cope with this problem [3]. Nowadays, some manufactures guarantee an autonomy of their EVs around 500 kms or even more. Besides, if a thermal power plant is assumed as the origin of the power, the overall EV efficiently is at least

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twice respect to the internal combustion engine (ICE) vehicles [4]. Nevertheless, the technology associated with them, specially related to the EV charging stations (CSs), needs to be developed deeply. CSs have to be distributed in the cities and supply fast charging to the EVs, which involves a high electricity demand. The local electrical grid has to be able to withstand this high-power demand and the problems related to the connection of dc systems (harmonics, voltage outages, and fluctuations) [4]–[6].

On the other hand, as stated in [7], other challenges still exist to their large-scale implementation: EVs acquisition costs are higher than the ICE ones; limited public charging infrastructure; and an increase of the power demand to the grid (worsened in the case of short charging). Therefore, rising up the power generation with renewable energy sources and scheduling the charging profiles of different EVs are proposed as solutions. Both are strictly related to a deployment of smart-grid technologies, such as smart meters, information and communication technology, and energy storage systems (ESSs). Since 2012, the installation of fast CSs has increased eight times while the number of normal chargers only has doubled [8]. For this kind of CSs, ESSs become fundamental, since they can provide peak shaving and power quality functions and also make the charge time shorter.

According to the IEC 61851-1 Committee on "Electric vehicle conductive charging system" [9], there are four modes of charging depending on the quantity of power received by the EV, the type and level of voltage, the communication mode between the CS and the EV, and the location of the protections. This paper is focused on the Mode 4 (dc level 2): fast charging using an external dc charger with a rated power of 100 kW.

There is a growing number of works related to CSs from a wide range of research approaches. They can be classified in three groups: EV charging scheduling, control of the CS power converters, and power flow in CSs.

Charging scheduling studies consider a framework of long-term/electricity market. The focus of this kind of papers is the effect of CSs in the power grid and they deal with the scheduling problem as an optimal power flow problem. The capability of EVs of storing energy can provide great flexibility and benefit both EVs and grid. With this premise, some works have studied EV charge scheduling by means of simulations [10]–[14]. In [10], the scheduling problem was studied considering the vehicle-to-vehicle (V2V) mechanism. The integration of renewable energy sources as additional

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power supply for CSs was studied in [11]. Other examples of this kind of works are [12], [13] that studied vehicle-to-grid (V2G) mechanism that enabled EVs to transfer energy back to the power grid. Both V2G and V2V functionalities were considered in [14], in a grid-connected and photo-voltaic (PV) supplied charging park. The models and simulations presented in them used sampling time periods whose duration lasted from minutes to hours. Thus, the dynamics of fast charging were neglected.

On the opposite side, the approaches focused on CS power converters control require small sampling time periods and detailed models to study the interaction among the CS and the utility grid. Some works that can be classified in this group are [15]–[17]. In these works, the simulations and experimental test consisted on study the performance of the converter under steady state conditions and under transitions between different operation modes. These transitions were governed by energy management systems (EMSs) in charge of controlling the power flow among the components of the CS. However, since the simulation and experimental intervals were short, the EMS was not considered in this kind of works and its commands were replaced by standardized control inputs such as step signals.

The third group corresponds to the works focused on controlling the power flow among the components of the system. In them, there must be a compromise between the model accuracy and the experiment length. Thus, it is common to model the converters as average models that can provide a reasonably accurate representation of low order harmonics preserving the dynamics resulting from the control system and allowing longer simulations. The number of this kind of publications found after a review is less than in the previous groups [3], [18]–[22]. All of them have in common a topology based on a dc bus that all the power converters are connected to. In [3], it was validated, by means of laboratory experimental tests, the practical feasibility of a centralized control strategy previously tested by simulations in [18]. The switching between the modes of operation occurred due to the changes in the voltage level at the dc link as a result of changes in the irradiation on the PV panel. Another PV-based battery switch CS was simulated in MATLAB in [19]. Its main objective was to ensure the service availability improving the PV energy self-consumption. Again, since the sampling period taken was 1 min, dynamics of the power converters were neglected. In [20], it was proposed a distributed control whose decision parameter was the dc bus voltage. The modeling technique followed by this paper was based on reduced order small-signal stability models from which real-time simulation results were collected to verify the control method proposed. In [21], the CS, as novelty, contains a superconducting magnetic energy storage (SMES). The centralized controller consisted in a simple power balance: under steady state conditions, the EVs were charged by the power generated by the PV panels and the difference was supplied by the grid. SMES only worked during transitory conditions to mitigate the effect of rapid charging as power peaks across the network. However, the state of charge (SOC) of the SMES was not taken into account in the EMS. The research presented in [22] developed a centralized controller for a CS, whose objective was to minimize the operating cost of the system. It was composed by three layers: 1) a weather and EV charging forecasting stage; 2) a particle swarm optimization algorithm to minimize the daily running cost of the CS; and 3) a dynamic programming for keeping the battery SOC within the specified limits. The interval periods used for the simulations varied from 10 min to 1 h and were used to verify the effectiveness of the proposed EMS. However, the long interval periods of the simulations were not suitable to study the dynamics of dc bus voltage that, instead, were studied by experimental tests.

The work presented here belongs to the last group and shares with the commented works the topology based on dc bus. With regard to the EMS, the majority of works [21], [22] proposed centralized controllers that are suitable for small CSs, whose components are placed in a close location. A decentralized control was developed in [20], which allowing easily expand the system adding more power sources, ESS and EV chargers forming a medium voltage (MV) microgrid. The novelty of this paper with regard to previous decentralized EMS was to include the SOC of the ESS as a control variable in the control strategy that must be kept within proper limits. This is a common approach in centralized strategies [21], [22], whose components are connected by a communication network but it is difficult to deploy for decentralized systems. Regarding to the detail of the models employed previously, for both centralized and decentralized commented strategies, they were simplified since the objective of the studies was to check that the strategies resulted in a proper power flow among the CS components. The effects of the strategies in parameters such as dc bus voltage or current sharing were studied from data collected from experimental test, since the complexity of the models was not enough to represent power converters dynamic. Besides, another novelty is that the different power converters have been modeled as average models that result in simulations that represent more reliably the CS dynamics improving the approaches followed before in this area. In this paper, the decentralized control method (DCM) is proposed based on fuzzy logic systems, which is in charge of the power flow management of a CS.

Fuzzy systems have been applied to a large variety of fields of knowledge because of its easy adaptability to complex systems and the lack of need for historical data as required by other intelligent controllers. For these reasons, fuzzy logic control has been used in this paper. Other examples of its usage for EMS in EV CSs were presented in [23]–[25]. Other examples not related to the energy management appeared in [26] and [27] for determining the charging or discharging priority of each EV and fault diagnosis in plug-in hybrid EVs, respectively. Apart from that, fuzzy logic is also a good tool as a controller for power converters of CSs [28]-[30]. The main novelty of this paper against the commented is the use of fuzzy controllers as a decentralized EMS to control the converters of two elements of the system separately and achieve a coordinated operation of the following parameters: power flow, MV direct current (MVDC) voltage, and battery energy storage system (BESS) SOC. Thus, it can be said that this control method combines two of the application areas of

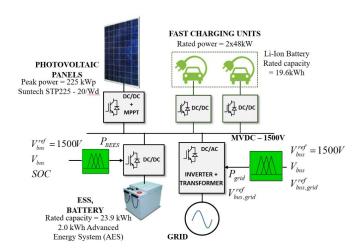


Fig. 1. Microgrid for the EVCS under study.

the fuzzy logic in this field. Finally, this novel decentralized control has been evaluated and analyzed in a considerable number of operating situations, in contrast to the previous works published on this topic, in order to perform a sensitivity and stability analysis of the proposed control technique and show how the components of the system interact. Monte Carlo simulations (200 simulations of 10 s each) have been carried out and analyzed, in which the PV power, the number EV connected, and the initial BESS SOC have been modified randomly in order to know the control results and the response of the whole system under study.

The structure of this paper is as follows. After the introduction, the configuration of the microgrid for EVCS is described in Section II. Section III is dedicated to the description and modeling of the microgrid components. Section IV develops the DCM based on fuzzy logic systems for the BESS and grid power converters. Section V, simulation results, presents the scenario considered for this study, the performance of the proposed fuzzy logic based DCM compared with a simpler DCM based on proportional-integral (PI) controllers, and a sensitive and stability analysis of the results obtained by the fuzzy logic based DCM. Finally, the conclusions are drawn in Section VI.

# II. MICROGRID FOR ELECTRIC VEHICLE CHARGING STATION

The microgrid for EV charging station (EVCS) under consideration in this paper (Fig. 1) consists of a PV system with a peak power of 120 kWp [31] as renewable energy source, a battery advanced energy systems from Discover Energy [32] with a rated capacity of 23.9 kWh as BESS, two units of fast charge (48 kW each one) based on Li-ion batteries from Xalt Energy [33], and a connection system with the grid. The units of fast charge are defined as Mode 4, dc level 2 according to the IEC 61851-1 (fast charging with external charger in dc, voltage inferior to 500 V, and current inferior to 200 A) so, accordingly, each unit of fast charge has a dc/dc converter for controlling the charging of the EV. Besides, to assure high-power supply to the EVCS and the simultaneously charging of the units of fast charge, all these components are connected to a 1500-V dc bus (MVDC bus). DC/DC converters are used for

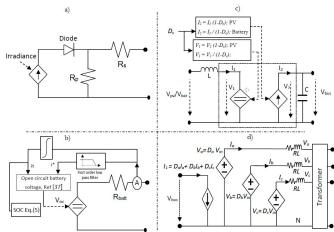


Fig. 2. Models for (a) PV system and (b) ESS and EV batteries. (c) DC/DC converter. (d) Grid connection.

TABLE I

MAIN PARAMETERS OF THE MICROGRID MODEL

Paramenter	Value
PV system converter, L	0.45x10 <sup>-3</sup> H
PV system converter, C	215x10 <sup>-6</sup> F
PV model, Ns	0.9 Ω
PV model, Np	235 Ω
Filter, R	1850 Ω
Filter, L	250x10 <sup>-6</sup> H
ESS battery model, R <sub>batt</sub>	0.15 Ω
ESS battery converter, L	0.4x10 <sup>-3</sup> H
ESS battery converter, C	22x10 <sup>-6</sup> F
EV battery model, R <sub>batt</sub>	$0.07~\Omega$
Fast charging unit converter, L	1.1x10 <sup>-3</sup> H
Fast charging unit converter, F	40x10 <sup>-6</sup> F

the BESS and PV system in order to adapt the dc bus voltage to the output voltage of these components and controlling their power flow. The connection with the grid is composed of a transformer and a bidirectional dc/ac converter.

The control presented in Section III must keep the MVDC bus voltage, manage the power balance among the components, and control the BESS SOC. All these actions must be carried out without a centralized system that collects the most important parameters of each element, and according to these data, generates the reference power of each component. Instead of this kind of control, a DCM based on independent fuzzy logic controllers is designed. Thanks to this configuration, each component can operate independently without knowing the status of the rest of the system, alleviated the theoretical and practical limitation of power supply reliability, which can help to facilitate large distribute generator access [34].

### III. DESCRIPTION AND MODELING OF THE COMPONENTS

This section describes the components used in the microgrid and their modeling by models widely used in scientific literature. In fact, the PV system, the batteries of ESS and EVs, the power converters, and the EVs charging method are described below. Fig. 2 depicts the models used for the components of the microgrid, and Table I shows the main parameters of these components. Fig. 3 shows the comparison between the

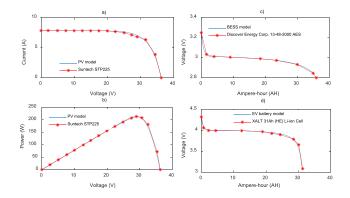


Fig. 3. Validation of the models by comparing the characteristic curves obtained from the model and real component for the PV system and batteries of ESS and EVs. a) PV current-voltage curve. b) PV power-voltage curve. c) BESS voltage-capacity curve. d) EV voltage-capacity curve.

curves obtained from the models and real components (real curves provided by commercial datasheets) for the PV system and batteries of ESS and EVs under study. The results reflect an accurate approximation of the real results achieved by the models.

### A. PV System

The PV system model used for the case study is based on a controllable current source, a diode, a series resistance  $R_s$ , and a parallel resistance  $R_p$  [Fig. 2(a)]. This model, already tested in several papers [35], [36], is known as the single-diode model of a PV array. The output current of this model ( $I_{pv}$ ) is calculated through the following expression:

$$I_{pv} = I_{ph} - I_{sat}(e^{q(V_{pv} + I_{pv}R_s)/(NkT_{pv})}) - (V_{pv} + I_{pv}R_s)/R_p$$
(1)

where  $I_{ph}$  is the solar-induced current and  $I_{sat}$  is the saturation current of the diode. The following expressions show the calculation of these currents:

$$I_{\rm ph} = I_{\rm ph0}(1 + K_0(T_{\rm pv} - 300))$$
 (2)

$$I_{\text{sat}} = K_1 T^3 e^{\left(-\frac{qV_g}{kT_{\text{pv}}}\right)}.$$
 (3)

Other parameters of the above expressions are the following ones:  $V_{\rm pv}$  is the PV output voltage;  $I_{\rm pho}$  is the solar-induced current at 300 K; K is the Boltzmann's constant;  $K_o$  and  $K_1$  are constants depending on the PV characteristics [36]; N is the quality factor of the diode of the PV model; q is the elementary charge of an electron;  $V_g$  is the voltage applied to the terminals of the diode; and  $T_{\rm pv}$  is the PV operating temperature.

Apart from that, a dc/dc converter, modeled as commented in Section III-D adapts and controls the output voltage of the PV system to work at the maximum power point tracking (MPPT) mode.

### B. EV and ESS Batteries

The battery technology used for this paper is Li-ion for both the EV and the ESS. Currently, the most used battery type for EVs is Li-ion. In the case of the ESS for CS there is a lack of information, so the choice has been made based on two points supported by [7]: Li-ion batteries have a very high efficiency (85%–95%), high energy density, and high number of life cycles (3.000–5.000); and Li-ion batteries as ESS have been already used in a real implementation of an EV fast CS [7], whose experimental test results showed that the system has a good performance.

The battery model from SimPowerSystems toolbox of Simulink [37] has been selected to model the batteries of the EVs and ESS [see Fig. 2(b)], adapting their parameters to the available data provided by their commercial datasheets [32], [33]. A variable voltage source and a series resistance compose this model. Hence, the output battery voltage  $V_{\text{bat}}$  is the difference between the open circuit battery voltage  $E_{\text{bat}}$ , and the drop voltage in the internal battery resistance  $R_{\text{int}}$  [see (4)]. The method of calculating  $E_{\text{bat}}$  and the value of  $R_{\text{int}}$  depend on the type of the selected battery [37]

$$V_{\text{bat}} = E_{\text{bat}} - I_{\text{bat}} R_{\text{int}}.$$
 (4)

The battery SOC is obtained using the simple Coulomb-counting approach [(5)], where the maximum battery capacity is denoted by Q

$$SOC(\%) = SOC_o(\%) - 100 \left( \frac{\int I_{\text{bat}} \cdot dt}{Q} \right).$$
 (5)

It was demonstrated in [38] that the dynamic behavior of this battery model obtained in simulation is close to the experimental behavior, with low errors for SOC between 100% and 20% during the charging and discharging mode. In fact, the control implemented in this paper allows the battery to work with an SOC between 20% (to avoid deep discharging) and 100%. Coulomb-counting approach for calculating the SOC is widely used because the required computational power is low [39]. Furthermore, its performance with Li-ion battery (the kind of battery used in this paper) is better than with other types of batteries due to the lower magnitude of side reactions. The main disadvantage of this method is the cumulative error in the current integration. The accuracy of this method is determined by the current sensor accuracy (and also by the test duration and capacity knowledge). When this method is run over a long period of time, significant inaccuracy arises from accumulated current measurement errors. However, since only simulations are presented in this paper, the inaccuracy of the current measurement is neglected and thus, the inaccuracy of SOC.

### C. EV Charging

The EV charging can be performed by means of several methods: pulse charge, constant voltage mode (CVM), constant current mode (CCM), constant power mode, among others. In the case of charging Li-ion batteries for EVs, a combination between two of them (CCM and CVM) is becoming the most suitable alternative [40]. Reduction of the charging time and better control of the maximum battery voltage are its main advantages. Thus, this method is used to perform the charging of EVs [41].

In the CCM, the EV is charged with a constant current value ( $I_{\rm char}$ ) while, in the CVM, a constant voltage

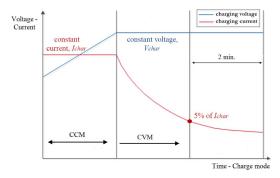


Fig. 4. Charging modes for the EV.

value ( $V_{\rm char}$ ) is applied to the EV. Thus, if an EV is connected to a charging unit with a battery voltage lower than  $V_{\rm char}$ , the EV will be charged in the CCM, and therefore, its voltage level will increase. Once the EV battery voltage reaches  $V_{\rm char}$ , the EV will skip to the CVM and the battery input current will progressively decrease. The charging of the EV will end when the charging current is lower than 5% of  $I_{\rm char}$  during 2 min. Fig. 4 shows a scheme of this charging method.

#### D. Power Converters

Average-value equivalent models from MATLAB [37] are used to model the dc/dc converters [see Fig. 2(c)]. Despite their simplicity, they represent quite well the dynamic behavior of the converters, and they have been used in several applications for long time simulations [42], [43]. In these models, the converters are composed of controllable voltage and current sources, whose input—output voltages and currents are related thought the duty cycle.

Furthermore, the connection with the grid is made up a voltage source inverter (VSI) and a delta-wye transformer to adapt the output voltage of the VSI to the grid voltage [see Fig. 2(d)]. The VSI is based on the model described in [44], in which only the snubber resistance is taken into account.

## IV. DECENTRALIZED CONTROL METHOD (DCM) BASED ON FUZZY LOGIC CONTROLLERS

As the name of the control method suggests, in the proposed DCM, each component of the CS works independently of the rest of them. Thus, independent controllers based on fuzzy logic systems are developed for the power converters of the BESS and the grid. In the case of the PV system, it is assumed to work in the MPPT so that no fuzzy logic control is necessary.

The immediate purpose of this decentralized control is the control of the MVDC bus voltage and BESS SOC, keeping the power balance in the CS. Moreover, it allows an easy integration of new elements to the CS controlled by similar fuzzy systems.

Fig. 5 shows the fuzzy logic systems proposed for the BESS and for the grid connection system. In both cases, the controls are based on fuzzy controllers whose outputs are the reference powers for the BESS and grid power converters.

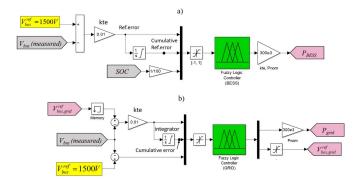


Fig. 5. Fuzzy logic system-based controllers. (a) BESS power controller. (b) Grid power controller.

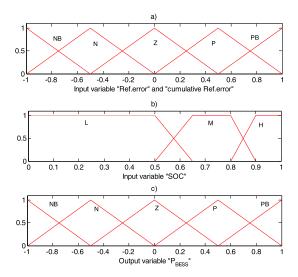


Fig. 6. MFs. (a) Ref.error and cumulative error. (b) SOC. (c) BESS power  $(P_{\rm BESS})$ .

# A. Fuzzy Logic System for Controlling the BESS Power Converter

As previously mentioned, the control developed for the BESS has two objectives: to keep the MVDC bus voltage and control the BESS SOC.

The fuzzy logic system used in this converter has three inputs and one output. The inputs are the BESS SOC, the reference bus voltage error Ref.error (calculated as the difference between the rated value of the MVDC voltage, 1500 V, and the current MVDC bus voltage) and its integral (named cumulative error). As a previous step, the error and cumulative error are normalized between -1 and 1, that correspond to values of -100 V and +100 V, respectively. Note that this involves that the operation limits for the MVDC bus voltage are set to 1400 and 1600 V, respectively. Similarly, the BESS SOC is normalized between 0 and 1. Fig. 6(a) and (b) shows the membership functions (MFs) of the inputs. Five MFs are selected for the Ref.error and cumulative Ref.error: negative big (NB), negative (N), zero (Z), positive (P), and positive big (PB). Three MFs are used in the case of the BESS SOC, which correspond to low (L), medium (M), or high (H).

On the other hand, the output of the fuzzy controller is the BESS power ( $P_{BESS}$ ). The BESS power is the power that the

•	Medium	Cumulativ	e Ref.error			
	SOC	NB	N	Z	P	PB
	NB	NB	NB	NB	N	Z
	N	NB	N	N	Z	P
Ref. error	Z	NB	N	Z	P	PB
	P	NB	Z	P	PB	PB
	PB	Z	P	PB	PB	PB
	High	Cumulativ	e Ref.error			
	SOC	NB	N	Z	P	PB
Ref. error	NB	Z	Z	Z	Z	Z
	N	Z	Z	Z	Z	P
	Z	Z	Z	Z	P	PB
	P	Z	Z	P	PB	PB
	PB	Z	P	PB	PB	PB
	Low Cumulative Ref		e Ref.error			
	SOC	NB	N	Z	P	PB
Ref. error	NB	NB	NB	NB	N	Z
	N	NB	N	N	Z	Z
	Z	NB	N	Z	Z	Z
	P	N	Z	Z	Z	Z
	DD	7	7	7	7	7

TABLE II RULE BASE FOR THE ESS CONTROL. OUTPUT:  $P_{
m BESS}$ 

ESS has to absorb or generate. As in the case of the inputs, this power is normalized between -1 and +1. Five MFs are considered [see Fig. 6(c)]: negative big (NB), negative (N), zero (Z), positive (P), and positive big (PB).

Table II shows the rule base of the fuzzy logic controller for the BESS power. This control modifies the BESS power when its SOC is close to a low (L) or high (H) level. The premise followed is based on the fact that when the SOC is high (H), the battery must be mainly discharged and the BESS power can only be positive, and when the SOC is low (L), following the same logic, negative. These limitations in the BESS power prioritize the control of the SOC to the MVDC bus control. It leads to a MVDC bus voltage fluctuation that must be managed by the grid, whose controller rules are designed under this premise.

### B. Fuzzy Logic System for Controlling the Grid Connection

As commented at the end of Section IV-A, in the event that the MVDC bus voltage cannot be kept by the BESS, the grid connection system must control it. The grid fuzzy logic system generates the power that it has to absorb or generate ( $P_{\rm grid}$ ) and the reference MVDC bus voltage for the grid connection ( $V_{\rm bus,grid}^{\rm ref}$ ). This controller allows keeping the power balance in the MVDC bus. It works as follows, when the reference error (Ref.error) is positive, it means that there is an excess of power that the grid must absorb. On the contrary, if the Ref.error is negative it means that there is a lack of power in the MVDC bus so the grid must inject power.

The fuzzy controller for the grid connection has three inputs and two outputs. The inputs are the *error* (difference between  $V_{\rm bus,grid}^{\rm ref}$  and the current value of the MVDC bus voltage), its integral (*cumulative error*) and *Ref.error*. The outputs, that have been described previously, are  $P_{\rm grid}$  and  $V_{\rm bus,grid}^{\rm ref}$ . The MFs for the *error*, the *cumulative error* and the grid

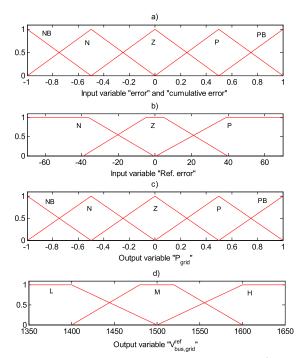


Fig. 7. MFs. (a) Error and cumulative error (error =  $V_{\rm bus,grid}^{\rm ref}$  - $V_{\rm bus}$ ). (b) Difference between the rated value of the MVDC voltage and its current value ( $Ref.error = 1500 - V_{\rm bus}$ ). (c) Grid power ( $P_{\rm grid}$ ). (d) Reference dc bus voltage for the grid connection system ( $V_{\rm bus,grid}^{\rm ref} = V_{\rm bus}^{\rm ref}$ ).

TABLE III  $\label{eq:Rule} \mbox{Rule Base for the Grid Connection Control.} \\ \mbox{Output: } P_{\mbox{grid}}/V_{\mbox{bus,grid}}^{\mbox{ref}}$ 

	Ref. error	Cumulative Error				
	=Z	NB	N	Z	P	PB
	NB	Z / M	Z / M	Z / M	Z / M	Z / M
	N	Z / M	Z / M	Z / M	Z / M	Z / M
Error	Z	Z / M	Z / M	Z / M	Z / M	Z / M
	P	Z / M	Z / M	Z / M	Z/M	Z / M
	PB	Z/M	Z/M	Z / M	Z/M	Z/M
	Ref. error	Cumulative Error				
	= P	NB	N	Z	P	PB
Error	NB	Z/L	Z/L	Z/L	Z/L	Z/L
	N	Z/L	Z/L	Z/L	Z/L	P/L
	Z	Z/L	Z/L	Z/L	P/L	PB/L
	P	Z/L	Z/L	P / L	PB/L	PB/L
	PB	Z/L	P/L	PB/L	PB/L	PB/L
	Ref. error	Cumulative Error				
	=N	NB	N	Z	P	PB
Error	NB	NB/H	NB/H	NB/H	N/H	Z/H
	N	NB/H	N/H	N/H	Z / H	Z/H
	Z	NB/H	N/H	Z / H	Z / H	Z/H
	P	N/H	Z/H	Z / H	Z / H	Z / H
	PB	Z / H	Z / H	Z / H	Z / H	Z / H

power are the same as for the case of the BESS. Three MFs are used for the *Ref.error*: negative (N), zero (Z), and positive (P). Finally, the MFs for the  $V_{\text{bus,grid}}^{\text{ref}}$  are: low (L), medium (M), or high (H).

Fig. 7 shows all the MFs of this controller and Table III its rule base. Note that when Ref.error is Z,  $P_{grid}$  is Z and  $V_{bus,grid}^{ref}$  is M. In this case, the BESS controls the MVDC bus voltage, so the grid is disconnected. On the contrary, if Ref.error takes a value of N or P, this means that the BESS cannot control the MVDC voltage, so the grid must be connected to the

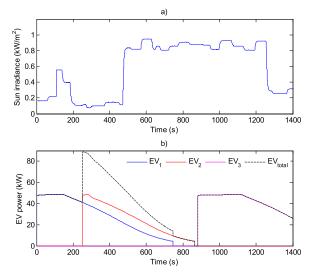


Fig. 8. (a) Irradiance profile. (b) Power demanded by the EV.

CS to control the MVDC bus voltage. Thus, if Ref.error is P and  $V_{\text{bus,grid}}^{\text{ref}}$  is L, the grid injects to the CS the lack of power needed to control the MVDC voltage. Similarly, if Ref.error is N and  $V_{\text{bus,grid}}^{\text{ref}}$  is H, the grid absorbs the surplus power of the MVDC bus.

### V. SIMULATION RESULTS

This section shows the scenario considered under study, the performance of the proposed fuzzy logic based DCM, denoted by F-DCM, and a comparison with a control based on traditional controllers already presented in [45], denoted by reference-DCM (R-DCM), and a sensitive and stability analysis of the results obtained by the fuzzy logic-based DCM. The considered scenario study for the comparison is carried out under MATLAB–Simulink environment and lasts more than 20 min.

### A. Scenario Study

The scenario considered under study, sun irradiance and power demanded by the EVs, is depicted by Fig. 8(a) and (b).

Fig. 8(a) shows the sun irradiance profile and Fig. 8(b) the power demanded by the EVs to the CS. It can be observed that for the first 450 s the irradiance is quite low (no more than 0.2 kW/m<sup>2</sup>) except between the 100th and 200th second (around 0.4–0.6 kW/m<sup>2</sup>). This fact represents cloud shading. After the 450th second, the cloud vanishes and the sun irradiance noticeable increases. From this second until the 1280th second approximately, the average sun irradiance is  $0.9 \text{ kW/}m^2$ . Finally, the simulation ends with a sun irradiance around 0.3 kW/ $m^2$ . Regarding the power demanded, it can be noticed that the three EVs are connected at different instants to the CS. The first EV is connected at the beginning of the study, the second vehicle at the 250th second and the third one at the 880th second. The maximum demanded power happens after the connection of the second EV with a value of 90 kW and when the sun irradiance is quite low. The minimum demanded load occurs in the period of time in which the sun irradiance is high. These extreme conditions have been selected to check the right performance of the fuzzy logic DCM: it will have to

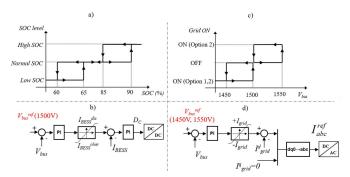


Fig. 9. R-DCM. (a) Hysteresis cycles for the BESS control. (b) Control scheme of the BESS converter. (c) Hysteresis cycles for the reference voltage of the grid inverter. (d) Control scheme of the grid inverter.

control the MVDC voltage keeping the power balance between the components of the CS and the EVs.

As noted above, a simpler DCM already developed in [45] is used in this paper as a reference in order to validate the fuzzy logic DCM presented in Section III. Specifically, the option 2 of that control is used as the R-DCM for the comparison. Basically, the R-DCM works similar to the fuzzy logic DCM, but in this case, PI controllers, hysteresis cycles and heuristic rules replace the proposed fuzzy controllers. As will be shown in Section V, the fuzzy logic DCM will achieve better effectiveness in the control of the MVDC voltage and BESS SOC, and in the transition between the use of BESS and the grid connection.

Fig. 9(a) and (b) shows the control schemes used in R-DCM. The values for  $I_{\rm BESS}^{\rm dis}$  and  $I_{\rm BESS}^{\rm char}$  depend on the BESS SOC. With a normal SOC [Fig. 8(a)], the BESS controls the dc bus voltage at 1500 V [Fig. 9(b)] and the grid converter is disconnected. When the BESS achieves a high SOC [Fig. 9(a)], the BESS charging current ( $I_{\rm BESS}^{\rm char}$ ) is limited to zero, the BESS is not able to keep the dc bus voltage at 1500 V, and then the dc bus voltage increases. When the dc bus voltage achieves 1600 V, the grid converter is connected [Fig. 9(c)], the reference voltage of this converter changes to 1600 V ( $V_{\text{bus}}^{\text{ref}} = 1600 \text{ V}$ ), and the grid is responsible for controlling the dc bus voltage at this value [Fig. 9(d)]. When the SOC is low, the BESS discharging current ( $I_{\text{BESS}}^{\text{dis}}$ ) is limited to zero. Then the dc bus voltage decreases and the grid converter is connected to keep the MVDC voltage at 1400 V  $(V_{\rm bus}^{\rm ref}=1400~{\rm V})$ . Note that similar to the BESS, the values of  $+I_{\rm grid}$  and  $-I_{\rm grid}$  are limited. When the  $V_{\rm bus}^{\rm ref}$  is 1600 V,  $+I_{\rm grid}$  takes a value of zero and when  $V_{\rm bus}^{\rm ref}$  is 1400 V,  $-I_{\rm grid}$  is limited to zero. In any other case, this limitation only depends on the rated power of the grid converter.

### B. Performance of the EVCS and Comparative Study

This section shows the performance of the proposed fuzzy logic based DCM, denoted by F-DCM, compared with the R-DCM.

Fig. 10 represents the SOC, the input current, and the voltage of the EV batteries. As observed, the three EVs are connected to the CS with different initial SOCs. Depending on this SOC at the time of connection, the EV will be charged in the CCM for longer. After this period, in the three cases,

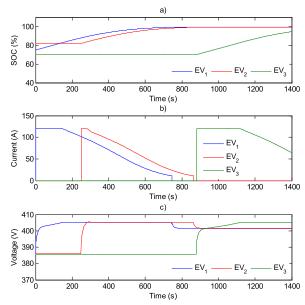


Fig. 10. EV batteries. (a) SOC. (b) Current. (c) Voltage.

the EVs are charged in the CVM. For the batteries used in this paper, the charging current ( $I_{\rm char}$ ) is 120 A and the charging voltage ( $V_{\rm char}$ ) 402 V. Once the batteries reach this voltage, the EVs are considered fully charged if the present charge current is lower than 5% of  $I_{\rm char}$  for 2 min. It can be seen the fully charging process of the EV<sub>1</sub> and the EV<sub>2</sub> (lines blue and red) while the EV<sub>3</sub> is not completely charged at the end of this paper.

The results shown in Fig. 10 fit quite well with the ideal charging cycle presented in Fig. 4. But there are some differences that result from the performance of the presented controller. Focusing on the EV1, the CCM starts at the beginning of the simulation with a constant current of 120 A. During this stage, the voltage increases from 385 to 405 V but, unlike the ideal charging, it varies from a high rate at the beginning of the CCM (until the 35th second) and then it attenuates until the end of the CCM (unlike the ideal charge in which the voltage increases at a constant rate). When the voltage reaches the requested value (405 V), the charging changes to CVM. In this mode, both ideal and the results present a similar behavior: the voltage is kept constant and the current diminishes at a decreasing rate.

The power generated by the PV system and the total power demanded by the CS (the three EVs) are shown in Fig. 11(a). As commented previously, the PV system works in the MPPT in both DCM. The difference between the power demanded by the EVs and the power generated by PV (pink line minus green line) is the power to be delivered or absorbed by the BESS/grid (blue line), which is denoted by  $P_{\text{net}}$  (net power). Positive values of  $P_{\text{net}}$  mean power to be delivered and negative values to be absorbed by the BESS or the grid. Moreover, the total power generated by the CS with both controls is shown in Fig. 11(b). This power corresponds to the total power demanded by the CS in Fig. 11(a) (pink line). The results show that both DCMs are able to supply this demanded power.

Fig. 12 represents the BESS power and the grid power during the considered scenario. These parameters are the

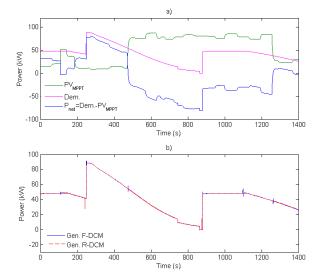


Fig. 11. (a) Power generated by the PV system, total power demanded by the CS, and net power. (b) Total power generated by both DCMs.

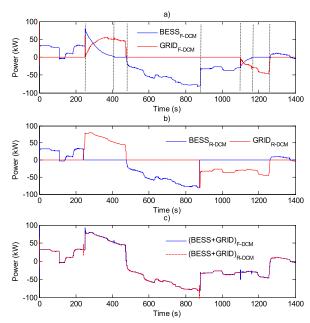


Fig. 12. (a) BESS and grid powers for the F-DCM. (b) BESS and grid powers for the R-DCM. (c) Sum of BESS and grid power for both DCMs.

outputs of the DCM. Fig. 12(a) depicts the BESS and the grid power for the F-DCM and Fig. 12(b) for the R-DCM. Besides, Fig. 12(c) shows the sum between the BESS and grid power for both DCMs. It is observed that for both DCMs this power is practically the same and, at the same time, similar to the net power (blue line in Fig. 11(a); subtraction between the demanded power and the PV system power), which supports the right performance of the DCM. Figs. 12(a)–(c) are closely related to Fig. 13, which shows the reference and the real voltage in the MVDC [Fig. 13(a) and (b)] and the BESS SOC for both DCMs [Fig. 13(c)].

The results show that when the BESS is at medium level [*M* in Fig. 6(b)] the F-DCM and the R-DCM work similarly. Under this circumstance, the main objective of both DCMs is to control the MVDC voltage keeping the power balance among the BESS, the grid [Fig. 12(c)], the EV chargers and the

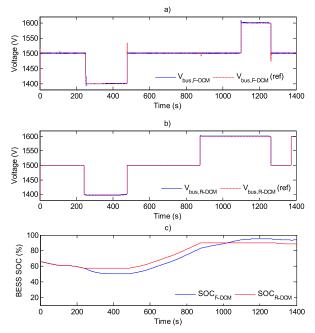


Fig. 13. (a) DC bus voltage and reference voltage for the F-DCM. (b) DC bus voltage and reference voltage for the R-DCM. (c) BESS SOC for both DCMs.

PV system [blue line in Fig. 11(a)]. Fig. 12(a) and (b) shows that the BESS power is the same for both DCMs in the interval between the beginning of the simulation and approximately the 250th second (it is not exactly the same time for both DCM), and then, from the 480th to 850th second. In this period, the reference MVDC voltage is set to 1500 V.

The main difference between both DCMs appears when the BESS SOC is close to high or low values. For example, around the 250th second, the R-DCM detects that the BESS has a low SOC, the reference MVDC voltage changes to 1400 V and the grid has to control this voltage, since the BESS is disconnected. In the case of the F-DCM, the fuzzy logic makes possible a smoother transition because it starts to limit the output power of the BESS due to its low SOC. Thus, because of this power limitation, the MVDC bus voltage tends to decrease. Once the MVDC voltage reaches 1400 V, the fuzzy controller of the grid detects this value and sets the reference MVDC bus voltage for the grid converter  $(V_{\rm bus,grid}^{\rm ref})$ to 1400 V. Then, for an interval, although the reference voltage has changed to a value of 1400 V [Fig. 13(a)], both the BESS and grid are controlling the MVDC bus voltage [see Fig. 12(a) between the 250th and 410th second approximately]. After this period and up to the 480th second, the BESS is disconnected and only the grid controls the MVDC voltage. From the 480th second, there is an excess of power in the MVDC bus and, because of the BESS SOC is low, it can absorb it and therefore, control the bus voltage. Then, the reference voltage changes to 1500 V. At the 880th second, the R-DCM detects that the BESS SOC is high [red line in Fig. 13(c)], so that the BESS is disconnected and the excess of power is injected into the grid. Then, the reference voltage is 1600 V. Regarding the F-DCM, this change is less abrupt again. For the F-DCM, the BESS SOC starts to be high around the 1100th second [blue line in Fig. 13(c)], and therefore, its fuzzy controller limits the

TABLE IV
RESULTS OF THE COMPARISON PARAMETERS OBTAINED BY EACH DCM

Parameter	F-DCM	R-DCM
Energy demanded by CS (kWh)	16,62	16,62
Energy generated by the PV system (kWh)	20,75	20,75
Energy absorbed by the fast CS from the grid (kWh)	2,71	3,95
Energy injected by the fast CS (PV system) to the grid (kWh)	1,35	3,6
% of energy generated by the ESS (%)	18,16	10,63
% of energy generated by the grid (%)	16,28	23,81
% of energy generated by the PV system (%)	65,56	65,56
$ITAE = \sum_{i=1}^{N} i \cdot \Delta t \cdot \left  \left( V_{bus}^{ref} \left( i \right) - V_{bus} \left( i \right) \right) \right $	0.68x10 <sup>6</sup>	1.12x10 <sup>6</sup>
$ITSE = \sum_{i=1}^{N} i \cdot \Delta t \cdot \left(V_{bus}^{ref}(i) - V_{bus}(i)\right)^{2}$	3.10x10 <sup>6</sup>	5.63x10 <sup>6</sup>
$MRE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{\left(V_{bus}^{ref}(i) - V_{bus}(i)\right)}{V_{bus}(i)}$	0.3959	0.4297
$MSE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left( V_{bus}^{ref} \left( i \right) - V_{bus} \left( i \right) \right)^{2}$	$3.44 \times 10^3$	5.01x10 <sup>3</sup>

input power in the BESS. This fact involves an increase in the MVDC bus voltage and when the MVDC bus voltage takes a value of 1600 V, the grid fuzzy controller detects it and changes the reference voltage for the grid converter ( $V_{\rm bus,grid}^{\rm ref}$ ) to 1600 V. Then, again, for a brief interval of time (1100–1180) both, the BESS and grid, are keeping the power balance and controlling the MVDC voltage at 1600 V [see Fig. 13(a)]. After this, and up the 1340th second, all the excess of power is injected into the grid.

Table IV summaries the most representative parameters obtained from the simulation. Moreover, a comparison of the MVDC voltage control using different performance indices is shown in Table IV. Other parameters included in Table IV are: 1) energy demanded by the CS (kWh); 2) energy generated by the PV system (kWh); 3) energy absorbed by the FCS from the grid (kWh); 4) energy injected by the FCS (PV system) to the grid (kWh); 5) percentage of energy generated by the BESS; 6) percentage of energy generated by the grid; 7) percentage of energy generated by the PV system; and 8) percentage of time that the grid must be connected to the CS. With respect to the performance comparison, the indices considered for the MVDC bus voltage are the following ones: integral time absolute error (ITAE); integral time square error (ITSE); mean relative error (MRE); and mean squared error (MSE).

From these results, it can be drawn that, in general, the F-DCM optimizes the use of the BESS so that the CS is able to work longer off grid. This fact is supported by the time that the grid must be connected to the CS. For the F-DCM, the grid is connected during the 27.5% of the simulation and for the R-DCM, the 46.1%. Furthermore, if the CS works longer as a stand-alone system, this involves a decrease of problems related to the CS connection to the grid, such as wave quality (harmonics), fluctuations in the voltage, system stability and power outages.

It can be observed from the performance comparison of the MVDC voltage control that better results are obtained for the F-DCM. Only for the MRE the final result is quite similar.

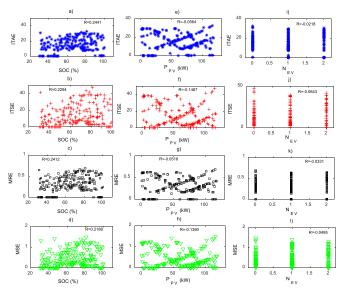


Fig. 14. Results of the Monte Carlo simulations. (a) ITAE versus SOC. (b) ITSE versus SOC. (c) MRE versus SOC. (d) MSE versus SOC. (e) ITAE versus  $P_{\rm pv}$ . (f) ITSE versus  $P_{\rm pv}$ . (g) MRE versus  $P_{\rm pv}$ . (h) MSE versus  $P_{\rm pv}$ . (i) ITAE versus  $N_{\rm EV}$ . (j) ITSE versus  $N_{\rm EV}$ . (k) MRE versus  $N_{\rm EV}$ . (l) MSE versus  $N_{\rm EV}$ .

### C. Sensitivity and Stability Analysis

Finally, with the aim of completing the study of the proposed fuzzy logic DCM, performing a sensitivity and stability analysis and showing how the components of the system interact, other two types of simulations are carried out. The first of them consists of a set of Monte Carlo simulations (200 simulations of 10 s each), in which the input parameters of the proposed control (initial BESS SOC, PV system power, and numbers of EVs connected to the CS) are modified randomly in order to know the control results and the response of the whole system under study. The value of the performance indices (ITAE, ITSE, MRE, and MSE), the median value and the standard deviation of the dc bus voltage are calculated and analyzed in order to evaluate the control system. The other simulation consists of three simulations of 120 s each with a specific level of SOC (low, high and normal). For each level of SOC, the cases with maximum and minimum power of the PV system (120 and 0 kW), and without EVs and with two EVs connected to the CS are studied. Results obtained from the Monte Carlo simulation are shown in Figs. 14 and 15, whereas the results from the second simulation are depicted in Fig. 16.

Note that in Fig. 14 all the performance indices are kept around the same values. In all the considered scenarios, the dc bus voltage is maintained stable around the desired value. These output values correspond to the system response under randomly generated inputs. The SOC is randomly generated between 30% and 100% [Fig. 14(a)–(d)], the PV system between the 0 and 120 kW [Fig. 14(e)–(h)], and the number of EVs connected only can take three values, 0, 1, or 2 [Fig. 14(i)–(l)]. The results show a very slight linear correlation between the BESS SOC and the performance indices. Regarding the PV system power and number of EVs connected to the CS this correlation is even smaller. The stability of the MVDC bus voltage can be also verified in Fig. 15. The median

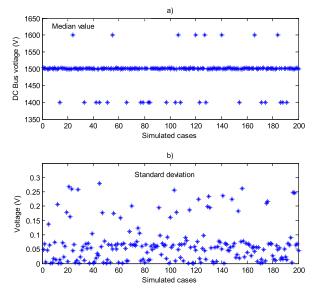


Fig. 15. Results of the Monte Carlo simulations for the MVDC bus voltage. (a) Median value. (b) Standard deviation.

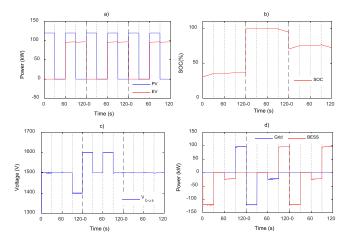


Fig. 16. Results of specific cases of the Monte Carlo simulations. (a) PV power and EVs power. (b) BESS SOC. (c) MVDC bus voltage. (d) Grid and BESS powers.

value and the standard deviation of the MVDC bus voltage are shown in Fig. 15(a) and (b). Again, this voltage is kept controlled around the desired value in all the simulated cases (1500 V for normal SOC, 1400 V for a low SOC, and 1600 V for a high SOC) and with a very low a standard deviation.

Fig. 16 shows the results obtained for the PV and EVs powers, BESS SOC, MVDC bus voltage, and grid and BESS powers in some specific cases of the Monte Carlo simulations performed. The inputs are: the PV system power (0 or 120 kW), the power demanded by the EVs (0 or 2 EVs), and the BESS SOC (30%, 100%, and 70%). Fig. 16 shows how the converters interact knowing only the voltage level of the dc bus. Thus, when the battery SOC is low, there is no power supply from the PV system and there are two EVs connected, the dc bus voltage has a value of 1400 V and all the power demanded by the EVs must be provided by the grid. On the contrary, if the battery SOC is high and there is an excess of power generated by the PV system, the dc bus voltage is kept at 1600 V and this excess of power is injected into the grid. In any case, the battery is able to control the dc bus

voltage at 1500 V. As can be observed, the proposal control methodology is decentralized, so there is not any information exchange between the dc/dc converters, and the working point of the CS is given by the voltage level of the MVDC bus.

#### VI. CONCLUSION

Generally, in the field of the renewable hybrid systems, fuzzy logic has been used for the management of the energy among their components or as controller in the power electronic converters. This paper has presented, as main contribution, a novel decentralized control combining both uses of the fuzzy logic for a CS with renewable energy and energy storage, in which fuzzy logic controllers were used as a decentralized EMS to control the converters of two components of the system separately and achieve a coordinated performance operation of the following system parameters: power flow, MVDC voltage, and BESS SOC. Another novelty was to include the SOC of the BESS as a control variable for a decentralized EMS (that is very common for centralized approaches but, as the literature review showed, not for decentralized ones). Moreover, the different power converters were modeled as average models that result in simulations that represent more reliably the CS dynamics improving the approaches followed before in this area (based on quasi dynamic simulations and neglecting power converters). Finally, the novel decentralized control was evaluated and analyzed in a considerable number of operating situations by Monte Carlo simulations, in contrast to the previous works published on this topic, in order to perform a sensitivity and stability analysis of the proposed control technique and show how the elements of the system interact.

The considered CS was composed of a PV system, a battery as ESS, a connection with the local grid and two units of fast charging for EVs. Two fuzzy logic systems (one for the BESS and other for the grid connection) were implemented as controllers for the control of MVDC voltage and the BESS SOC and for the management of the input and output powers among all the components, meanwhile the PV system was working in the MPPT.

The fuzzy logic systems implemented in this paper (F-DCM) were able to control the MVDC and the power flow among the components of the fast CS without the need of communication. The fuzzy logic systems worked independently of each other and they adjusted the MVDC bus voltage depending on the BESS SOC.

The proposed fuzzy logic DCM was compared to an R-DCM also based on a decentralized typology but with the need of using PI controllers, hysteresis cycles and heuristic rules. In addition to the advantages of a decentralized control, such as, the facility to integrate (BESS, EV charges, etc.) without communication system among them, the fuzzy logic DCM presented several advantages respect to the R-DCM, some of them due to the combination of uses of the fuzzy logic. With the new DCM, the fast CS was able to work in a stand-alone mode longer, so problems related to the grid connection can be reduced and the use of the BESS was improved.

The Monte Carlo simulations, in which the input parameters of the control system were modified randomly, showed that, in all the considered scenarios (200 cases studied), the system was kept stable, the dc bus voltage was controlled at the desired value according to the BESS SOC (1500 V with normal SOC, 1400 V with a low SOC, and 1600 V with a high SOC), and the components of the CS interact successfully knowing only the voltage level of the MVDC bus.

The results demonstrated that the fuzzy logic DCM achieved better results in the controlled variables and in the response of the whole system under study, while smoothing the operation transition of the CS components (the connection and disconnection of the components to the MVDC bus) with regard to classical controllers.

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